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THE EFFECTS OF USING IN-CLASS DEBATES AS A MEANS OF IMPROVING STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING AND SPEAKING SKILLS:
A CASE STUDY

Master Thesis

Submitted by: Aydın Beyzade

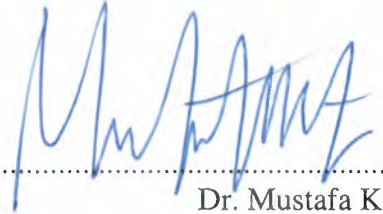Supervisor: Dr. Mustafa Kurt

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We certify that we have read the thesis submitted by Aydın Beyzade titled "The Effects of Using In-Class Debates as a Means of Improving Students' Critical Thinking and Speaking Skills: A Case Study" and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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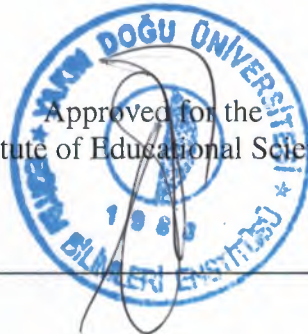
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ABSTRACT

The Effects of Using In-Class Debates as a Means of Improving Students'
Critical Thinking and Speaking Skills:
A Case Study

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This research work investigated and determined the effects of in-class debates as a means of improving the critical thinking and speaking skills of Turkish learners of English (N=64) (Upper-intermediate) studying at the ELT and ELL Department at the Near East University.

To begin with, a pre-debate questionnaire was prepared in order to find out the research participants' knowledge of debate prior to the lecture. This was followed by a thirty-hour course in *'The Art of Debating'* which lasted for a period of ten weeks. During the course, two videos were used to show the participants debate format. In addition, participants were able to observe their peers performing in realistic situations set up in the classroom. Furthermore, direct observation of the participants was carried out by the researcher in the classroom using assessment criteria particular for this purpose. Near the end of the course, a debate was held between the Faculty of Engineering and the ELT Department in the Green Hall at the Department of Civil Engineering. The debate was recorded and then copied onto VCD. At a later date, an observation was carried out using the video recording to assess the participants' debating abilities in an unfamiliar setting and also their psychological and social reaction. Following the course in Debate, an oral interview was carried out in the classroom environment with the individual research participants whereby they were asked six questions: each question being identical.

After analysing the data collected, the researcher was able to deduce that the research participants had in fact improved on their critical thinking and speaking skills; they had developed the ability to comprehend, discuss, and question a topic in English. From carrying out research, they learned how to find the best evidence. During debate, they had to evaluate the evidence used by the opposition. They had to think about the consequences of each argument and evaluate its worth. On the whole, debate appeared to have given the participants practice in English language skills in

order to grasp the content of a topic. Moreover, the participants appeared to be motivated by the performance aspect of the activity.

ÖZET

Öğrencilerin Eleştirel Düşünme ve Konuşma Becerilerini Geliştirme Aracı Olarak Sınıf İçi Aytışmayı Kullanmanın Etkileri:
Bir Durum Çalışması

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Bu araştırma, öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünme ve konuşma becerilerini geliştirme aracı olarak sınıf içi aytışmayı kullanmanın etkilerini belirlemeye yönelik bir durum çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışma Yakın Doğu Üniversitesinde İngiliz Dili Öğretmenliği ve İngiliz Dili Edebiyatı bölümlerinde okuyan toplam 64 öğrenciyle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırmaya başlamadan önce araştırma katılımcılarının aytışma hakkındaki bilgilerini ölçmek için bir ön anket yapılmıştır. Bu daha sonra on hafta süren toplam otuz saatlik bir kursla takviye edilmiştir. Bu kursta "Aytışma Sanatı" (The Art of Debating) diye bir kitapçık kullanıldı. Bundan ayrı katılımcılara aytışma formatını göstermek için, iki tane video gösterildi. Katılımcılar, kurs boyunca kendi arkadaşlarını sınıf ortamında, oluşturulan gerçeğe uygun öğretim durumlarında aytışma yaparken izleme imkanını buldular. Dahası araştırmacı sınıfta, katılımcılar üzerinde özel bir değerlendirme kriteri kullanarak direkt gözlem yapma imkanını bulmuştur. Kursun sonuna yakın, İnşaat Mühendisliğindeki Yeşil Salonda Mühendislik Bölümüyle İngilizce Dili Öğretmenliği Bölümü arasında bir aytışma düzenlenmiştir. Bu aytışma, ilk önce videoya çekildi ve daha sonra da VCD kopyalandı. Araştırmacı, sonraki bir tarihte aytışma VCD sini izleyerek, katılımcıların yabancı bir ortamda aytışma kabiliyetlerini psikolojik ve sosyal tepkilerini izleme imkanını bulmuştur. Araştırmacı kursun sonunda, bütün katılımcılar ile, tek tek aynı altı soruyu kullanarak mülakat yapmıştır. Bu mülakat sırasında, bütün konuşmalar kasetlere kayıt edilmiştir.

Toplanan bilgiler araştırmacı tarafından analiz edildikten sonra katılımcıların eleştirel düşünme ve konuşma becerilerinin büyük ölçüde geliştiğini izlemiştir. Bu bağlamda araştırma sonucunda katılımcıların aytışmayı yaparken kendilerine konuya hakim olmaları için gerekli araştırmayı yapıp geldikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Böylece tartışmanın boyutu daha bilimsel ve doyurucu olmuştur. Katılımcılar aytışma sonucunda daha sorgulayıcı bakma imkanı bulmuşlardır. Bilindiği gibi eğitimin amacı sorgulamak araştırmaktır. Bu araştırmada da görüldüğü üzere katılımcılar aytışmaya hazırlanırken İngilizce düzeyleri de büyük ölçüde geliştiği gözlemlenmiştir.

Sonuç olarak katılımcılar aytışmaya hazırlanırken kendilerinide motive ederek performans düzeylerini artırdıkları gözlemlenmiştir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Study

Language teaching and language learning have become a serious concern for the people in this century because the relationship between the countries has become more popular than the previous centuries due to the social, economic, and scientific developments in the world. Especially developing countries like North Cyprus and Turkey, which need more industrial and commercial relationship either with the European communities or other countries, feel a great importance to learn English as a foreign language since it is the widespread medium for communication. Therefore, since learning a language has become very important, teaching a foreign language gains the equal importance itself.

The ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in English Language Teaching. Many adults can identify personal needs to communicate in spoken and written English. The purposes and uses of foreign languages are as varied as the students who study them. Some students study another language in hopes of finding a rewarding career in the international marketplace or government service. Others are interested in the intellectual challenge and cognitive benefits that accrue to those who master multiple languages. Some want to become teachers of English. Still others seek greater understanding of other people and other cultures. Many approach foreign language study, as they do other courses, simply to fulfil a graduation requirement. Regardless of the reason for study, foreign languages have something to offer everyone.

In the past, most teaching in foreign language classrooms concentrated on grammar and vocabulary. Whilst these components are indeed crucial, the current organizing principle for foreign language study is communication. Therefore, while grammar and vocabulary are essential tools for communication, it is the acquisition of the ability to communicate in meaningful and appropriate ways with users of other languages that is the ultimate goal of today's foreign language classroom.

Unfortunately, here at the Near East University, although spoken language may be one common component of instruction in English, the main focus of the curriculum is the comprehension of written language rather than fluency in speaking. As a result, teaching activities focus on grammatical accuracy.

The member believes that the majority of students are not able to use English properly despite instruction. Students are used to learning the structure of English which is not sufficient for them to be able to use the language fluently or proficiently. They lack the speaking skills and critical thinking skills.

According to Hedge (2000), for many students learning to speak is a priority. They may need this skill for a variety of reasons, for example, to keep up a relationship, influence people, and win or lose negotiations.

Authors of the coursebook "Look Ahead" (cited in Hedge, 2000:261) say: Learners need to develop at the same time a knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, functional language and communicative skills. Attention to the systems of language is crucial, but the development of fluency and contextual appropriacy are equally important goals.

Clark, Scarino, and Brownell (cited in Hedge, 2000:45) state that communicative ability as part of classroom procedure is to develop an ever improving capability to use English to communicate with others, to acquire, develop, and apply knowledge, to think and solve problems, to respond and give expression to experience; and within these contexts, to develop and apply an ever-increasing understanding of how English is organized, used, and learned.

As a lecturer in the English Language Teaching Department at the Near East University, the researcher feels that the students should be provided with the opportunity to process knowledge. He would like to move away from the traditional lecture to a less traditional way of instruction: case study teaching. The purpose of which is to introduce realistic situations into the classroom. These situations are to be processed by the students. While the case study is to be based in reality, its purpose is to

generate thinking on the part of the student. In this respect, the researcher aims to improve the speaking and critical thinking skills of the students because he believes they are deficient in these areas. One way he feels he will be able to do this is through debate.

Debate is a successful method of teaching because of its inherently interactive format. Research has demonstrated that interactive formats are the preferred method for achieving critical thinking, problem solving ability, higher level cognitive learning, attitude change, moral development, and communication skill development (Parcher, 1998). Of the six recommended methods for active learning, debate utilizes five. They include writing, oral presentation, small group strategies, instructional games or role playing, and field study methods (Nyquist and Wulff, 1990).

Goodnight (1993:3) says: Debate is a great way to develop your critical thinking skills. Debaters need to know how to choose the best type of approach, method of organization, or presentation style for a debate. They also must know how to find the best evidence. They must evaluate the evidence being used by the other debate team and understand exactly what it does for their arguments. They must think about the consequences of each argument and evaluate its worth. ... As a debater, you will find that the critical thinking skills you develop as you answer such questions prove invaluable.

As stated by Alford and Surdu (2002), debates can provide students with the opportunity to synthesize course information, conduct related outside research, improve critical thinking, and develop verbal communication skills. With this in mind, the researcher believes that the effect of using in-class debates as a teaching tool to encourage students to improve their speaking abilities and critical thinking skills should be investigated and determined.

1.2 Aim of the Study

The main aim of the research is to investigate and determine the effects of in-class debates as a means of improving participants critical and speaking skills.

In order to achieve the main aim of the research, the researcher has attempted to find the answers of the following sub-questions.

1. What do research participants know about in-class debates?
2. According to research participants, what skills do they practice during debates?
3. According to research participants, what do they learn from in-class debates?
4. Does participation in in-class debates improve critical thinking abilities of research participants?
5. How do debates improve research participants' knowledge of the English language?
6. How will research participants use debates in the future?

1.3 Scope of Study

This study was carried out in two speech and communication classes at the English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature Department at the Near East University, hereafter ELT/ELL and NEU respectively. The number of participants totalled sixty-four.

1.4 Limitation of the Study

Although this paper explores the critical thinking ability among the chosen study group, the main limitation of this study is that it only represents the critical thinking ability of L2 learners at upper intermediate level. It does not cover elementary and advanced levels. In addition, the researcher aims to focus on critical thinking as the ability to reason well and reflectively.

1.5 Definitions of Terms

The English word debate encompasses a range of meaning from a broad meaning of everyday disputes to a restricted meaning of a particular educational training method. Let us look at the definitions from Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1995):

(1) a discussion about a subject on which people have different views.

(2) a formal discussion, for example in a parliament, in which people express different opinions about a particular subject and then vote on it.

The first definition (1) indicates a broad sense of *debate*, which includes such events as an argument between a husband and a wife about whether they should buy a new washing machine. The second definition (2) indicates a debate used in real-world decision-making based on strict rules such as in a courtroom or in a legislative assembly. Thus, *debate* refers to a process of argument in which the two (or more) opposing parties try to persuade each other or a third party about a controversial issue, whatever it is about, whether it is about shopping or a national policy.

Since there is a course called "debate" in schools and colleges in America, many textbooks have been published. One of them defines debate as "the process of presenting persuasive information on behalf of or in opposition to a stated proposition or topic" (Sayer 1980:11). Another textbook regards debate as a method of decision-making, defining it as "the process of inquiry and advocacy, the seeking of reasoned judgement on a proposition" (Freeley 1981:2). This definition by Freeley reflects the inherited tradition of Western philosophy, especially rhetoric, from the time of Plato and Aristotle. Debate in this sense is a means to inquire into a probable truth of a question about which we cannot find the absolute truth by weighing pros and cons, and then to publicize and defend the discovered truth. A related term *argumentation* refers to a process and the study of making rational claims in such situations.

Debate is often contrasted with discussion in textbooks. The distinction in their use in referring to a decision-making process may be outlined as follows:

1. In debate, participants argue for and against the pre-fixed proposition. In discussion, participants look for a solution to a problem.

2. Consequently, debate considers two alternatives, while discussion considers multiple alternatives.

3. Debate is usually regulated by strict rules about the time and order of speeches. Discussion is conducted more freely with less formal rules.

4. In debate, the decision is made by a third party based on the arguments presented by the affirmative and the negative sides. In discussion, the purpose is to reach an agreement among participants.

(Thompson 1971:8)

Debate vocabulary is very important, and I hereby provide definitions. These definitions are not exclusive or complete but are a starting point.

AFFIRMATIVE: The team which supports the resolution.

AFFIRMATIVE CASES: This is generally used to refer to the part of the affirmative position which demonstrates that there is a need for change because there is a serious problem (need) which the present system cannot solve (inherency) but which is none the less solvable (solvency).

BRIEF: A prepared argument with evidence and arguments already structured on the page.

CARD: A piece of evidence used to prove an argument. In the past, evidence was put on index cards and used in the debate.

CITE: Where a piece of evidence (or "card") came from. Usually includes author, title, date and page number. Should be sufficient to allow somebody to locate that evidence again.

INHERENCY: Basic component of an affirmative case. Explains why the problem identified persists and why it is not being solved.

REFUTATION: Answering or criticizing ideas and issues presented by the other team.

RESOLUTION: The topic of that particular debate.

STATUS QUO: The way things are now, as the debate goes on.

STOCK ISSUES: Standard points of controversy in policy disputes, around since classical times: harm, inherency, solvency, plan, disadvantages.

TOPICALITY: The notion that the affirmative plan/negative counterplan should/should not fall within the conceptual boundaries of the resolution.

CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Historical Background to the Study

Academic debating has long been a vital part of American education. Training in debate improves valuable analytical and speaking skills, and enables the discussion of important issues, whether scientific, historical, religious or political. It contributes to the intellectual and ethical development of its participants by challenging them to make defensible judgements in which they must critically investigate complex issues, question given assumptions, evaluate the reliability of data and consider alternative perspectives. Debate stimulates and refines communication skills that empower individuals to speak for themselves, to discover and use their own voices. (Branham and Meany, 1998)

The history of academic debate dates back to the Greek sophist Protagoras (481 – 411 B.C.). He thought that almost every proposition had two sides (the affirmative and the negative), which a speaker must be able to advocate. Rhetoric in general, including debate skills, played an important role in education as a necessary qualification for citizens of Greece and Rome (Freeley, 1981, McCroskey, 1982, and Potter, 1944).

In the Middle Ages when political freedom of speech was restricted, the importance of debate was lost for ordinary citizens. Disputation (syllogistic disputation in Latin), the ancestor of academic debate, continued to be essential training for scholars in emerging universities and for clergymen in Christian churches. It was important for scholars because the syllogism was considered a means to discovering truth following the Aristotelian tradition. Scholars also needed training in syllogistic disputation to defend their own theory against others. The church recognized the importance of disputation as a means to defend the orthodox theological stance.

In the 1400s, one of the first intercollegiate debates in England was held between Oxford and Cambridge Universities. It was, in keeping with collegiate practice

of the time, a disputation in Latin (Klopf and Cambra, 1979:3). In the eighteenth century, we saw debating societies where people debated various topics in English in and out of schools. In 1823, the United Debating Society (later called the Oxford Union Society) was established at Oxford University. At first, students debated non-political issues and then political issues as well. The union sent many leaders out into different fields. For example, Prime Ministers Gladstone and Heath were both presidents of the union (Hollis, 1965).

The British tradition of collegiate debating was brought into American colleges and universities; syllogistic disputation about theological and philosophical issues was a required subject in Harvard and other universities. In the middle of the eighteenth century, forensic disputation in English started, in which students learned debating of political and legal topics.

Also in the eighteenth century in the United States, debate was conducted in new-born literary or debating societies, which are both student organizations and community meetings. In November of 1872, one of the first intercollegiate debates was held between Northwestern University and the University of Chicago (Bauer 1978: 153). Around that time, high-school students also started interscholastic debating. In the 1920s, national tournaments were held for college and high-school students. Many of the American leaders have experienced debate training. Among political leaders, President Lincoln practiced debating in the New Salem Club, and such presidents as Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon learned debate at school.

2.2 Debate

Debate is a communication process in which participants argue for and against a given topic (Narahiko, 2004). There are many kinds of debate. Some people think of a business meeting. An employee proposes a new marketing plan but another opposes it. You and your friend may have an informal debate. You are talking about a plan for the coming long weekend. You suggest a trip to a spa resort but your friend disagrees.

Rutledge (1993) says, "debate is an exciting, intellectually stimulating way to engage bright young minds in a game which sharpens participants' skills in critical thinking and analysis, public speaking, researching, writing, and listening".

Debate is a competitive (and at least incidentally educational) activity, the focus of which is public policy. According to Carrollton High School Debaters: It is one of the most exciting and beneficial activities one can participate in one's academic career.

Debate is about change. It attempts to justify changing the way we think and live. According to Snider (2004), "it is a discussion that resolves an issue which will determine whether change is good or bad". For example, the United Nations debated whether or not the Iraq invasion of Kuwait was good or bad.

Debate is the process of presenting arguments for or against a proposal. When people debate a topic, they discuss it fairly formally, putting forward different views. Zaleski (2003) says "Academic debate is a contest of reason in which two or more groups present arguments in support or against a given resolution". The purpose of each speaker is to gain the belief of the audience for his/her side. Every debator is a supporter. Argument is the basic core of the debate speech; the superior debater must be superior in its use.

Rosetti (2001) describes debate as "a logical argument, not an emotional one".

Debate is an inherent part of democracy and is used in many phases of life. Presidential candidates such as Kennedy and Nixon used it in campaigning. Parliament, state legislators and boards of aldermen debate the laws which are being considered for implementation. Educators as well as investigators debate the soundness of conclusions. Those participating in discussion will often use debate when discussing "What is the best solution?" In any phase of life, when confronted with solving problems, people will often find debate a superior method of testing solutions in order to discover the best. Training in debate is training in argument, training in argument is training in logic, and logic is the basis of critical thinking.

2.3 Debate in Language Teaching

Education is the process of communicating knowledge and developing skills. The classroom teacher is an individual who expedites the process whereby the students develop their own reasoning powers and uncovers knowledge. The teacher allows the students to draw their own conclusions about the events and affairs of the world. The student of argument will find the training valuable because the reasoning process is an essential part of understanding the world in which we live. Thus, increased knowledge of argument, bringing increased knowledge of the reasoning process, should reinforce the learning process.

In the classroom, Snider (2004) formalizes the debate process as follows:

o   Students work with a partner to form a "debate team". Sometimes they will have to be for the issue (the affirmative) and sometimes against the issue (negative).

o   Students deliver speeches in a format that is unique to debate. The speeches are called constructives and rebuttals. Each person on each team will speak twice. There are affirmative constructives and negative constructives. There are affirmative rebuttals and negative rebuttals.

o   Students will learn rules and techniques.

o   Students will debate a resolution which determines the debate area.

2.4 Debate and Critical Thinking

The belief that "debate teaches critical thinking skills" is the classical underlying principle for debate. In an era of educational accountability, empirical support for this rationale could be of exceptional importance.

The "debate teaches critical thinking" rationale is potentially very important in part because the importance of critical thinking skills has been repeatedly recognized by educators and policymakers. Forty-five years ago, the American Council on Education concluded that critical thinking ability was of fundamental importance to individuals: "The good life in a democratic society ... seems to rest fundamentally on one's ability

to think critically about the problems with which he (or she) is confronted." (Dressel & Mayhew, 1954:35).

Halpern (1993:242) asserts that "ideally, the students who have become better thinkers will demonstrate critical thinking skills that range from more reasoned consumerism to improved problem solving."

Jones et al., 1995:168 state that "students need to acquire basic communication skills and develop cognitive abilities to understand principles, concepts or ideas. However, students must move beyond being simply receivers or transmitters of information. In order to reach advanced skills in writing and speech as well as listening, college students need to develop their critical thinking skills in order to evaluate, analyze, and make judgments about the multitudes of messages or interactions they encounter in their daily lives. Ideally, college graduates will learn to assume responsibility for their own intellectual development that will continue beyond the formal education they receive in college. The improvement of these skills should help students to become better citizens and employees in real world contexts."

At the state level, individual governors have gone so far as to issue executive orders regarding the importance of teaching critical thinking skills. California is an instructive example:

> "The executive order establishing California's requirement states: 'Instruction in critical thinking is designed to achieve an understanding of the relationship of language to logic, which would lead to the ability to analyze, criticize, and advocate ideas, to reason inductively and deductively, and to reach factual or judgmental conclusions based on sound inferences drawn from unambiguous statements of knowledge or belief. The minimal competence to be expected at the successful conclusion of instruction in critical thinking should be the ability to distinguish fact from judgment, belief from knowledge, and skills in elementary inductive and deductive processes, including an understanding of the formal and informal fallacies of language and thought." (Freeley, 1990:1)

The classical rationale for competitive debate programs is grounded in important and recognized values. Critical thinking ability is understood as of fundamental importance to both individuals and to democratic society. The question remains, however: does debate teach critical thinking skills?

It is primarily the teacher who structures, plans, teaches, and controls the learning environment for students in the classroom. The choices these teachers make help determine the amount of inclusion the students feel and the confidence they express in participating. The course outline choices the teacher makes help to determine whether the student learns "how to think" or simply acquires a body of knowledge. Whether or not students feel empowered to learn is greatly impacted by the atmospheres the teachers create, the experiences they provide, and the behaviours they model. Debate coaches would argue that competition in debate contributes strongly to a student's acquisition of critical thinking skills. Through that acquisition, students develop confidence and feelings of empowerment. (Fisher et al, 2004)

Current literature seems to indicate that many argumentation skills can be incorporated into the classroom situation with similar results. According to Fisher et al. (2004), the chain to empowered critical thinking, hereafter CT, seems to go through several steps:

1. the student feeling welcome and included
2. the student feeling empowered
3. the student feeling motivated to learn
4. the student developing critical thinking skills, and
5. the student having the opportunity to engage in equitable exchange with peers and teachers.

Scriven and Paul (2004) proclaim that CT is "the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action" and in its exemplary form, it is based on universal intellectual values that transcend subject matter

divisions: clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, and fairness. They go on to say that it entails the examination of those structures or elements of thought implicit in all reasoning: purpose, problem, or question-at-issue, assumptions, concepts, empirical grounding; reasoning leading to conclusions, implications and consequences, objections from alternative viewpoints, and frame of reference.

CT can be seen as having two components:
1. a set of skills to process and generate information and beliefs, and
2. the habit, based on intellectual commitment, of using those skills to guide behaviour.

According to the experts (i.e. a panel of forty-six men and women from throughout the United States and Canada, working on behalf of the American Philosophical Association), at the very core of CT are the cognitive skills of (1) interpretation, (2) analysis, (3) evaluation, (4) inference, (5) explanation, and (6) regulation.
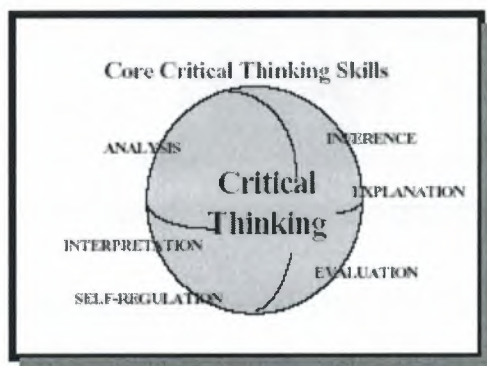
Figure 1: Core Critical Thinking Skills (Facione, 1998)

According to Facione (1998), the ideal critical thinker can be characterized not merely by his or her cognitive skills but also by how he or she approaches life and living in general.

The approaches to life and living in general which characterize CT include:
- inquisitiveness with regard to a wide range of issues
- concern to become and remain well-informed

- alertness to opportunities to use CT
- trust in the process of reasoned inquiry
- self-confidence in one's own ability to reason
- open-mindedness regarding divergent world views
- flexibility in considering alternatives and opinions
- understanding of the opinions of other people
- fair-mindedness in appraising reasoning
- honesty in facing one's own biases, prejudices, stereotypes, or egocentric tendencies
- prudence in suspending, making or altering judgments
- willingness to reconsider and revise views where honest reflection suggests that change is warranted
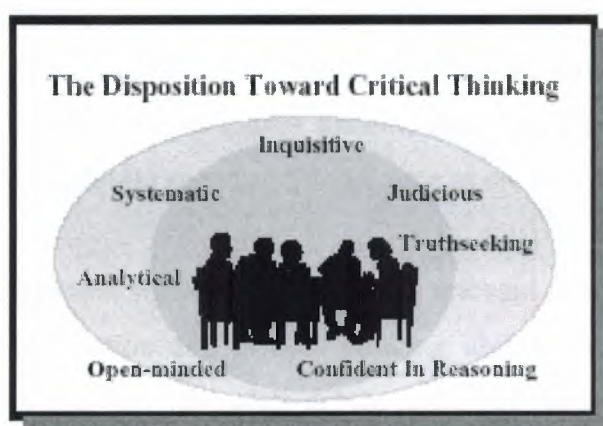
Figure 2: The Disposition Toward Critical Thinking (Facione, 1998)

The experts went beyond approaches to life and living in general to emphasize that good critical thinkers can also be described in terms of how they approach specific issues, questions, or problems. Facione (1998:9) lists a number of characteristics that the experts said you would find:

- clarity in stating the question or concern
- orderliness in working with complexity
- diligence in seeking relevant information
- reasonableness in selecting and applying criteria
- care in focusing attention on the concern at hand

- persistence through difficulties are encountered
- precision to the degree permitted by the subject and the circumstances

As teachers, many of us have struggled with the distinctions between teaching language and teaching CT. Wahl (2001) suggests that "one possible bridge between language instruction and critical thinking skills is the study of debate: the practice of critical language skills."

Debaters learn much more about critical thinking than the old adage "there are two sides to every coin." They learn how to spot errors in reasoning and proof. They gain a greater respect for the complexity of ideas, and they learn how to criticize in a productive way based on facts and logic (Parcher, 1998).

When debate topics are sufficiently scoped, students are encouraged to tie together the major concepts of the course as they prepare their debate positions. The public nature of the debate format makes students naturally want to perform well. As a result, students often willingly spend additional time in order to be well prepared.

The seven principal studies to date directly relevant to issues of the relationship between debate participation and critical thinking ability are surveyed below. The studies differ in how they operationalize debate participation, the independent variable, and in their results. All use the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal to measure critical thinking ability, the independent variable. All use a type III quasi-experimental design: a pre-test/post-test control group design with debate participation as the treatment.

Table 1 The principal studies and their principal results.

Study	debate studied	principal result
Howell (1942)	inter-scholastic high school: one season (6 months)	no significant difference in gains: (debaters outgain at 85% significance)
Brembeck (1947)	college argumentation course: one semester	course students outgained significantly

Williams (1951)	inter-collegiate competition: one season (6 months)	no significant difference in gains: (debaters outgain)
Beckman (1955)	college argumentation and discussion courses: one semester	no significant difference
Jackson (1961)	inter-collegiate competition: one season (6 months)	debaters outgained significantly at 5 colleges but nondebaters outgained at 4 colleges
Cross (1971)	inter-scholastic high school: one semester	debaters outgained significantly on only 2 sub-tests of the WGCTA
Colbert (1986)	inter-collegiate competition: one season (6 to 7 months)	all four nulls rejected: significant difference for debater outgains

Critical thinking is a complex concept. Little more is meant by this concept than the definition advanced by Robert Ennis (1987:10), "reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do."

Participation in debate has been studied a number of times over the past 50 years with regard to the effects on participants' critical thinking abilities. These studies have used similar pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental designs with debate competition as the experimental treatment and have measured the dependent variable with the same instrument, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal. The studies have examined different populations, have examined different sample sizes, have operationalized "competition" differently, and have used different analyses of the data collected. The results have been mixed.

Evaluations of the corpus of studies in this area have differed widely, with some authors taking the results to indicate an unambiguously favorable relationship between debate participation and critical thinking ability while other authors conclude that no such relationship has been demonstrated. Huseman, Ware, and Gruner (1972:262) concluded of the corpus of these studies that:

> "In brief, attempts to examine the relationship between critical thinking ability and debate ability have been numerous, and researchers have many times established that debate ability and critical thinking ability are positively correlated."

It was noted previously that debate participation increases critical thinking ability. Reference to only one or two of the favorable studies is typically made to support that contention, but overall assessments of the research in this area similarly conclude that debate participation increases critical thinking ability. An example of such an assessment is contained in Keefe, Harte, and Norton's (1982:33-34) introductory debate text:

> "Many researchers over the past four decades have come to the same general conclusions. Critical thinking ability is significantly improved by courses in argumentation and debate and by debate experience."

More recent meta-analyses and assessments do not share the view that the body of research supports an unambiguously positive relationship between debate participation and critical thinking ability. The ground-breaking meta-analysis of the corpus of studies examining the relationship between debate participation and critical thinking conducted by Follert and Colbert (1983) cast substantial doubt on the quality of the empirical support available for the connection between debate participation and critical thinking ability. After examining the 47 paired comparisons between debaters and nondebaters with respect to pre-test/post-test critical thinking gains as measured by the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal contained in the Howell (1943), Brembeck (1947), Williams (1951), and Jackson (1961) studies, Follert and Colbert (1983:10-11) concluded that "While this research may not prove that there is not a relationship between critical thinking skills and debate training, it shakes the foundation upon which this long-standing assumption has existed. If this relationship is not firmly established, a radical re-evaluation of our purpose is required. This is not to say that the debate activity does not offer many educational benefits and skills to individual participants. However, additional research which statistically demonstrates critical thinking benefits is clearly warranted."

Furthermore, a smaller study of critical thinking gains comparing students in an argumentation course which had a co-curricular debating requirement with students in a basic speech class and students in an argumentation class without a debating requirement undertaken by Shawn Whalen (1991) concluded that there was no effect of debate participation on critical thinking ability. Taking into consideration the more

direct and much larger sample of the Colbert study, Hill (1993:7-8) nonetheless concluded that the relationship between debate participation and critical thinking remains undemonstrated:

> "Considered jointly, the results of these two studies do not provide the evidence Follert and Colbert so clearly demonstrated that we need.... We have not substantially improved our position since Follert and Colbert sounded the first notice that the results of our research are, at best, inconclusive. Taken as a whole, the available evidence neither demonstrates that debate does not affect development of critical thinking ability, nor that it does. Even though some evidence suggests that there is a relationship between debate training and development of critical thinking ability, we are not able to demonstrate convincingly that the relationship is significant. As a result, it is clear that we are ill-prepared to meet educational accountability demands by claiming that our activity promotes development of critical thinking ability."

Academic debate takes many forms: some highly specialized and others less formal; some that emphasize research and prepared arguments, and others that stress spontaneous speaking and analytical skills.

In his autobiography, Malcolm X (1965:184) reflects his excitement and the intellectual challenge provided by debating:

> Standing up there, the faces looking up at me, the things in my head coming out of my mouth, while my brain searched for the next best thing to follow what I was saying, and if I could sway them to my side by handling it right, then I had won the debate – once my feet got wet, I was gone on debating.

2.5 Reasons for Debate

There are many reasons why people debate. The most important reason is to make a best possible decision about a plan. How can we arrive at the best decision? We want to hear a best possible defense of the plan and best possible attack against the plan before we decide. If someone tries his best to find reasons for the plan and another tries her best to find reasons against the plan, we will be able to hear good information

for our decision. If they try to attack and defend each other's arguments, we will be able to hear better reasons for our decision.

To illustrate the point, suppose an electric power company proposes the construction of an atomic power plant in your town. Some people in your town welcome the plan. Others oppose it. Still many others cannot decide their mind. There will be a town meeting about the plan of the atomic power plant.
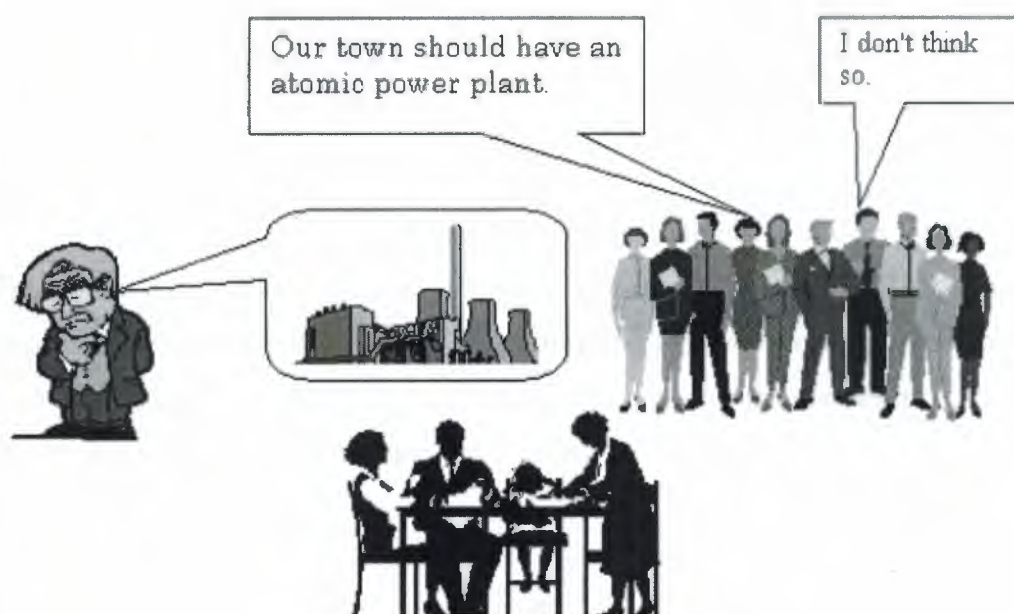
You are concerned about the safety of atomic power plants and want to speak up in the meeting. You will start a preparation for the meeting. You call the power company and asked for information. You also find a group of people opposing atomic power plants in another area and asked for information. You go to a library to find several books and articles in magazines discussing the safety of atomic power plants. By carefully reading all that information, you may arrive at a conclusion that the atomic power plant in your town will be dangerous.
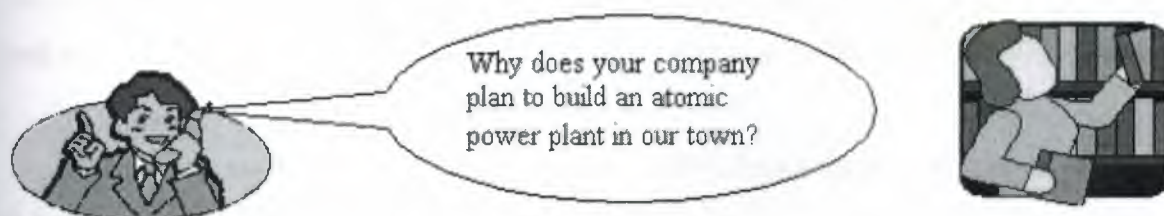
You will write up a short speech so that you can give it at the town meeting. You will also study what your electric power company has to say about those safety questions so that you can criticize them as well as defend your opinion against possible criticism.

In the town meeting, you and some others give opinions against the construction of the atomic power plant in your neighborhood. Some others present their opinions for the construction. You exchange some questions and answers about your opinions. You also criticize some of the points raised by the proponents of the construction. They also attack your opinion. There is some more exchange of opinions for and against atomic power plants.
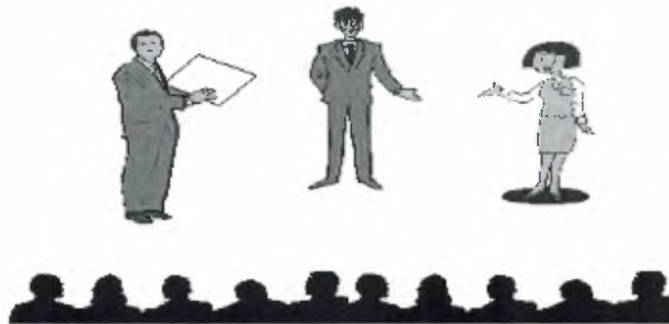
In this illustration, debate is not only that town meeting but it includes the whole process of your consideration of the question of the safety of the plant, search for information, and preparation of your speech and possible attacks and defense. At the end of this process, the audience is able to make a best possible decision.

Debating can take time and effort. Snider (2004) lists a number of ways in which it has been found to be worth it:

- **Debating is fun.** You debate with a partner and against other students. You and your team become a debate squad, a community, where you work for and with each other to win.

- **Debating is a sport of the mind and voice.** You compete using your brain and your mouth. You have a chance to win and even when you don't win you learn. Even if you do not think you are talented in any special way, debate can improve the abilities you already have.

- **Debating is controlled by you.** You are able to speak, to pick the arguments, and to use your strategy. Instead of being told what to do and what to study, in debate you can create your own learning project and follow ideas and issues which interest you.

- **Debate creates the skills you need for success.** Studies show that employers and colleges are looking for students with oral communication skills, and debate is based on developing oral communication skills. Studies also show that those with good oral communication skills are identified as "leaders" by others and get promoted faster on the job. Debating will help you succeed wherever your life may lead you.

- **Debate can give you the power to change things.** Things need changing, and your voice can be a powerful instrument for change: in your school, in your community, in your nation, or in the world. Malcolm X's life was turned around in prison when he learned how to debate. In his autobiography (1964), Malcolm X wrote:

  "My reading had my mind like steam under pressure. Some way, I had to start telling the white man about himself to his face. I decided I could do this by putting my name down to debate … Once my feet got wet, I was gone on debating. Whichever side of the selected subject was assigned to me, I'd track down and study everything I could find on it. I'd put myself in my opponents' place, and decide how I'd try to win if I had the other side; I'd figure a way to knock down all those points"

2.6 The Elements of Debate

Debates occur in competitive situations between two debate teams, each consisting of a pair of partners. The participants give a series of speeches (in regimented order with regimented time limits) in which they present and develop arguments about the merits of particular policies, with the help of evidence extracted from all sorts of researchable literature, and a judge or panel of judges makes a decision as to whose argumentation is superior, and the team advocating the superior policy wins the round.

There is a specialized form of policy discourse that is unique to debate in its structure and style. The activity requires a unique adaptation of one's speaking and research skills, but before even that can happen there is a substantial amount of theory and terminology that one should understand. A beginning understanding of debate theory will hopefully make one's initial competitive experiences more meaningful and less alienating, for debate is at its base just critical thinking and persuasive speaking, and the activity affords an outstanding opportunity to develop those skills once the perplexity of its terminology is overcome.

1) The Debate Tournament

Debate tournaments are held so that students can compete in order to determine who has a superior plan to solve a problem that exists within the present system.

2) The two sides; the affirmative

In every debate round, one team is designated as the affirmative team and the other team is designated as the negative team. The affirmative team proposes a policy and argues that if enacted it would correct some myopic aspect of policy in the status quo (that is, the present state of things) and provide a solution to some existing or imminent problem. The policy proposed by the affirmative is known as the plan, and the affirmative's initial arguments as to why the plan solves an important problem comprise what is known as the case. The case and plan are presented in the first speech of the round, which is given by the affirmative, whose subsequent task becomes the defense of the change they have advanced.

The goal of the negative team, on the other hand, is to demonstrate that the affirmative's policy is somehow actually undesirable. Before exploring the various types of arguments that the negative can employ, and the ways in which each team attempts to thwart its opposition, however, we'll look at the forms that affirmative advocacy typically takes on to begin with.

3) The Resolution

The purpose of the resolution is to limit the debate. The resolution allows for an even distribution of ground for both the affirmative and negative teams. Actual past resolutions of high school debate include:

- The federal government should guarantee comprehensive national health insurance to all US citizens.
- The federal government should substantially strengthen regulation of immigration to the US
- The federal government should substantially change its foreign policy toward the People's Republic of China.
- The federal government should establish a policy to substantially increase renewable energy use in the United States.

4) The Stock Issues and the Resolution

The stock issues are the affirmative burdens that have traditionally been used to show that the affirmative case is a good example of the resolution. The affirmative is trying to demonstrate three things: that status quo policy is flawed in some respect, that it is causing or is about to cause a problem, and that the plan provides a solution to the said problem. The stock issues have been traditionally regarded as prima facie burdens, that is, burdens of proof that the affirmative must meet if they are to win the round because the burden of proof lies with the affirmative. The stock issues traditionally total five: topicality, significance, harms, solvency, and inherency.

5) Topicality

Topicality is the stock issue that insures that the affirmative team stays within the framework of the resolution. The topic is similar to the "assignment" for the debate. Just like a written paper for a class, it has to be on the topic assigned.

6) Significance and Harms

Harms are problems. They are the nasty scenarios that the affirmative contends will occur if the status quo is allowed to continue with its reckless ways. The worse the harms are, the more urgent the problem is, and the better for the affirmative; hence the issue of significance, which attempts to measure the importance of the harms.

Harms can be defined as the results which would occur if the problem were not solved. Significance evaluates the importance of the harms.

7) Solvency

Solvency is the elimination of the harms by the plan. It is a measure of whether or not, or to what degree, the affirmative's plan solves the problem it identifies. If the affirmative's plan does not solve the harms, there would be no need to put it into effect.

8) Inherency

Inherency refers to the necessity of resolutional action. It is used to demonstrate that the status quo is incapable of solving the harms without the plan.

Affirmative cases are usually structured around the stock issues. The first speech given in the round, which is prewritten and used to present the case and plan, typically contains an observation or contention devoted to each of the three issues explained above. The harms along with their significance are often presented in the form of advantages, which detail the scenarios claimed by the affirmative.

Inherency is the stock issue which is usually debated the least. The inherency observation in the case is usually rather brief and is rarely argued by the negative, who is peacefully resigned to the status quo's hopeless lack of propensity to address the kinds of problems that affirmative teams like to. Solvency, on the other hand, is the

stock issue that typically receives the most emphasis in a round. Negative teams may argue, depending on the case harms, that the harms are exaggerated or that they are actually good things, but directly attacking the efficacy of the plan most often affords them the best opportunity to mitigate the case.

9) Fiat

The premise of the game is that the judge's ballot determines whether the affirmative team's plan will be put into effect or not. Fiat is generally understood to derive from the word "should" that appears in every resolution; it avoids reducing debate to a question of will Parliament pass and put the plan into operation. The debaters are debating whether the plan 'should' be enacted rather than whether it 'would' be enacted.

10) The two sides revisited; the negative

The negative team's responsibility is to negate the affirmative and prove that the plan is an undesirable policy. There are multiple types of arguments they can utilize: they can dispute the claims made by the affirmative in their initial speech (case attacks), argue that the plan is not acceptable because it's not an example of the resolution (topicality), try to prove than the plan has unwanted side effects (disadvantages), or propose an alternative policy they think would be better than the plan (counterplans). We will now examine these various types of negative positions.

11) Disadvantages

The disadvantage (commonly abbreviated "disad" or "DA") is, in a sense, the opposite of an advantage. It is an undesirable effect of plan, as presented by the negative with the implicit idea that the debate should be decided by weighing the good consequences of the affirmative policy against its bad consequences, that is, its advantages versus its disadvantages. A disad, however, is more structured than an advantage: the key to understanding the disadvantage is understanding its parts.

12) The Link

The link is what attaches the disadvantage to the affirmative plan. The link explains a feature or a direct effect of plan that causes the disad's scenario to happen.

Disadvantages are usually generic positions designed to be run in many rounds; the link is the part that changes from debate to debate. Debaters seek to use specific links, links that are unique to particular cases, to make disadvantages more adaptable and usable against more affirmatives.

When the spending disadvantage is argued, its link will be simply the expenditure of money by the affirmative. The negative might briefly explain what aspects of the plan must be financed, or they might have in the way of a specific link some evidence that indicates the plan would be particularly expensive.

13) The Impact

The impact is the ultimate consequence claimed by a disadvantage. The bigger the impact, the better for the negative; hopefully, it will be more significant than the harms claimed by the case.

14) Internal Links

Internal links are the consequential steps that are needed to connect the link to the impact, completing the scenario of the disadvantage. The link, internal links, and impact together coherently explain a particular recipe for catastrophe, but a disad has a few other components in addition.

15) Uniqueness

A consequence being considered in a comparative analysis of two policies should be accrued uniquely by one policy or the other if it is to be weighed in favor of either side. Anything that results equally from both plan and the status quo is irrelevant to the debate: hence the notion of a disadvantage's uniqueness. A disad is said to be unique when it is not occurring in the status quo.

A possible uniqueness story for the spending disad would be that a balanced budget is coming in the status quo and the government is currently cutting back on spending. Thus, by introducing an unexpected policy for which no funds have been appropriated, the affirmatively uniquely upsets the balanced budget. The affirmative, on the other hand, could argue that the disad is non-unique because the government just

enacted some expensive program in the status quo, which should have caused the impacts, or because the economy is struggling and the US is about to experience a depression anyway.

16) Brink

The brink is the point at which a disadvantage can be expected to occur. A disad is said to be on the brink if it's just about ready to happen, so that presumably any little thing could be enough to push us over. The spending disad, for example, could be said to be on the brink of occurring if the economy is on the verge of collapse right now, so that even a small amount of spending would risk causing the disad. Good brink evidence is often hard to come by but can be quite valuable.

17) Threshold

The threshold of a disadvantage is closely related to the brink. It describes how large the potential link must be for a policy to cause the disad. For instance, whether an affirmative that spends only one hundred dollars expends a sufficiently large amount of cash to cause the spending disadvantage is a question of the disad's threshold.

18) Time Frame

The impacts to a disadvantage are said have a time frame that is equivalent to the amount of time that is required for the scenario to play itself out. The time frame is a relatively unimportant part of a disadvantage, but a disad sometimes looks more ominous when it has a quicker time frame than do the case advantages.

19) Intrinsicness

Affirmative teams sometimes make intrinsicness arguments against disadvantages, but few people accept them as legitimate. The hypothesis behind intrinsicness responses is that if the plan doesn't necessarily cause the impacts of a disadvantage, that is, if there is some minor repair that could be made to the status quo that would prevent the disad despite the plan, then the plan should still be considered a good policy. Thus the affirmative argues that a disad only occurs because of some myopic aspect of status quo policy that ought to be changed anyway, and they proceed to advocate that change. For instance, an affirmative team could answer a spending

disad by saying, "Non-intrinsic: Lower the interest rate to stimulate the economy and avoid a depression." Most people, however, consider this kind of attempted annexation to the affirmative's advocacy to be unfair to the negative.

20) Counterplans

The previous discussion has presumed that the negative in a given debate is advocating the status quo, that is, arguing that the plan ought not to be implemented and that current policy should be left unchanged. However, this is not the negative's only option. One reason that a policy could be a bad idea is that it precludes the implementation of some other policy that would be on balance preferable. A negative team could easily take this approach to the dejustification of the plan by proposing that some competing policy be enacted instead: hence the notion of counterplans. A counterplan is a policy change presented by the negative that they advocate as a superior alternative to the plan. Like the affirmative, the negative must defend the desirability and legitimacy of the counterplan.

21) Competition

When the negative chooses to run a counterplan, they must demonstrate not only that the counterplan is better than the plan: they must demonstrate that the counterplan dejustifies the plan if they are to uphold their burden of proving that the affirmative policy should not be done. This burden is realized through the issue of competition. To show that the counterplan competes with the plan, the negative must show that the counterplan is more desirable than the plan mandates appearing in combination with any of the counterplan's mandates; in other words, they have to prove that the affirmative policy should not be implemented in its entirety under any circumstances.

One potential reason not to do the plan is that it forestalls implementation of the counterplan. This is one aspect of competition exhibited by many counterplans; it is known as mutual exclusivity. Two policies are said to be mutually exclusive if it is logistically impossible for them to coexist. A standard of mutual exclusivity seeks to show that there is a forced choice between the plan and the counterplan. However, mutual exclusivity alone is not a sufficient condition for competition, for the plan might

still be done in conjunction with only a portion of the counterplan; it is not a necessary condition either.

However, in order to compete all counterplans must necessarily be net beneficial. Net benefits are advantages that are uniquely accrued by the counterplan, or disadvantages uniquely avoided by the counterplan, which prove that enacting the counterplan alone is the best policy in the debate. The idea behind many counterplans is to find an alternative policy which solves for the case advantages yet avoids a disadvantage which links to the plan; the disad then becomes a net benefit. This means that doing the counterplan alone is the best option, because attempting to do both the plan and counterplan together would still cause the disadvantage. Or, if the counterplan actively accrues an advantage, the negative may argue to provide a net benefit that the plan interferes with the counterplan's solvency somehow and reduces its effectiveness.

For example, suppose the affirmative plan is to have the federal government in Washington, DC provide comprehensive health care to everyone in the US, the negative's strategy might include the federalism disad, which says that health insurance programs have traditionally been a responsibility of the state governments and that implementing a massive health care policy at the federal level would disrupt the delicate federal-state balance of power, causing too much centralization and risking tyranny. If so, then they could also run a counterplan to implement policies similar to the affirmative's through the individual state governments, rather than the federal government, and claim federalism as a net benefit. They could also claim that the states would solve better because the have more experience with health care programs, or because they more available funding, or because state programs would be less bureaucratic, or what have you.

22) Permutations

Permutations are arguments used by the affirmative to argue competition. A permutation is a policy: specifically, a combination of the plan with any or all of the mandates of the counterplan. If the affirmative can show that a permutation is just as good as or better than the counterplan, then they prove that the plan is still a justifiable policy since the most desirable option is just to do the plan in conjunction with some

aspects of the negative's policy which are completely independent. The negative will have to argue that the permutation is less desirable than the counterplan by itself, e.g. because it doesn't get the full solvency of the counterplan or because a disadvantage can be linked to it.

23) Topicality of Counterplans

Recall that the resolution is intended to divide ground fairly between the two sides of the debate. Some people believe that, just as the resolution constrains the affirmative's choice of policy, it should also constrain the negative's. That is to say, there are arguments that say that counterplans have to be non-topical, that the negative's burden is to disprove the resolution and that they therefore must advocate a nonresolutional policy. Of course there are arguments for the acceptability of topical counterplans as well. When the negative runs one, they will usually have to defend its theoretical legitimacy. However, there is now a general trend in debate toward greater acceptance of topical counterplans.

24) Negative Fiat

When the negative supports a change they are, like the affirmative, relying on the power of fiat (the assumption for the purposes of debate that the counterplan will be implemented if the judge votes for the negative). Negative fiat is derived in a manner reciprocal to affirmative fiat: the affirmative gets it because they have to show that something should be done – the negative gets it because they have to prove it should not, that something else should be done instead. The negative uses fiat for purposes of the dejustification of the plan. However, whereas the resolution usually specifies that the affirmative's agent of action must be the government of the United States, there is no such apparent constraint on the negative's supposed powers. Many people regard attempts to fiat through the governments of other countries or through international organizations like the UN to be unfair and think that the negative's fiat should be reciprocal in its scope to the affirmative's, making counterplans that utilize international actors controversial positions.

25) Topicality

Many people consider topicality to be a "dull" argument, and many judges are reluctant to vote on it, but it can sometimes be one's best chance of winning when debating an usual or squirrel case on the periphery of the topic for which one is not prepared.

Topicality arguments, as presented by the negative, have a fairly standard structure. First, the negative presents their interpretation of the topic, based on a definition of a word or phrase in the resolution they think the affirmative fails to meet. Definitions may be either technical in nature, from a dictionary or legal text, for example, or contextual. A contextual definition is an example of the word's usage in the topic literature that clearly shows it intended meaning. Definitions should be clear and precise. After the definition comes the violation: the negative explains specifically how the affirmative plan fails to meet their interpretation of the resolution.

Next, the negative presents standards for the evaluation of the topicality debate, which give the judge various ways to compare conflicting definitions. The standards explain why the negative's interpretation is superior semantically or grammatically and arguments. The negative argues that their interpretation provides for a fair division of ground, and that including cases like the affirmative's unlimits the topic and makes it impossible for the negative to be well-prepared.

Lastly, the negative explains why topicality should be a voting issue, that is, why the affirmative should lose the round if they're nontopical. Most reasons commonly given are based on fairness to the negative, who can't be expected to research and prepare for every policy an affirmative team might possibly conceive. The negative might also argue that nontopical cases are outside of the judge's jurisdiction as a policy maker.

The affirmative can respond to topicality arguments by explaining that in actuality they meet the negative's definition, by presenting counter-definitions that provide an alternate interpretation of the resolution, under which the plan is topical, by presenting counter-standards that explain why their interpretation is reasonable and why

the negative's is over-limiting, and by arguing that topicality isn't a voting issue. Usually in a topicality debate, the negative seeks to promote a rigorous interpretation while the affirmative seeks to uphold a reasonable interpretation, but the arguments' ultimate resolution frequently depends upon the judge's personal attitude toward topicality arguments and perception of the topic area.

26) Speech Order for Responsibilities

There are eight speeches in a debate round, two given by each debater. Each debater has a speaking position that determines which speeches (s)he is responsible for – the 1a and 2a are speakers for the affirmative side, while the 1n and 2n are the negative debaters. The first four speeches in the round are known as constructive speeches, while the last four are called rebuttals. These are the names of the speeches and the order in which they are given: 1ac, 1nc, 2ac, 2nc, 1nr, 1ar, 2nr, 2ar.

Each speaker does both a constructive and a rebuttal speech; the first affirmative speaker (1a), for example, gives the first affirmative constructive speech (1ac) and the first affirmative rebuttal (1ar).

The constructive speeches are normally eight minutes in length and the rebuttal speeches are usually five minutes. There is also an additional amount of preparation time for each team, which they can allocate in the round as they wish. Most often, there is either eight or ten minutes of preparation time at a given tournament. However, all time limits are set by the tournament director, so one should generally check the rules as announced either at the tournament or in the tournament invitation.

In a debate round, the constructives are used to present and develop the positions each side hopes to win with. The rebuttals are used by each team to explain the superiority of their arguments versus those of the opponent and convey to the judge why they should win. Notice that the affirmative team gets to speak both first and last; this advantage is compensated for the negative block, the thirteen minutes of solid negative speaking accounted for between the second negative constructive speech and the first negative rebuttal.

The constructive speeches are used to build the arguments that the affirmative and negative teams hope to win. The rebuttals are used to solidify the position taken by each team and to convey to the judge why (s)he should vote for one team over the other.

1AC – The first speaker is from the affirmative side. The 1AC's responsibility is to present a case and plan which falls under the current resolution and is the basis for the debate which is to follow. This speech is the only one that is prewritten.

1NC – The second speaker is from the negative team. The 1NC strategy will vary according to the case which is presented in the previous speech (1AC) by the affirmative. The 1NC usually consists of disadvantages, topicality arguments, and other negative arguments such as case attacks.

2AC – The obligation of this speaker is to answer the arguments put out by the 1NC.

2NC – This speech may be used to enter new arguments into the round, but is usually used to point out errors in the affirmative arguments. This speech is also used to extend the arguments generated by the 1NC and to respond to the 2AC

1NR – The first in a series of rebuttal speeches, this speech covers what the 2NC did not answer that the negative feels is important.

1AR – This is the first affirmative rebuttal speech. This speaker is responsible for covering the negative arguments from their two speeches. This person must have the ability to speak well in order to cover all the affirmative arguments, making the 1AR one of the most difficult speeches in the debate round.

2NR – This speech is used to explain to the judge why he/she should vote for the negative rather than the affirmative team. All arguments in the round should be clear by this point. The 2NR should use this time to emphasize the arguments from the 2NC and 1NR.

2AR – This speech, the last of the rebuttal speeches, presents the last opportunity for the affirmative to make an impression on the judge. At this point in the round, the affirmative team should have explained to the judge why the affirmative has won the round, and why the case outweighs the harms of the disadvantages.

27) Cross Examination

After each of the constructive speeches, there is a three minute period known as cross-examination, which allows each speaker to ask the other questions in order to clarify arguments. Cross-Examination Order is as follows:

IA Cross-Examined by 2N

IN Cross-Examined by 1A

2A Cross-Examined by IN

2N Cross-Examined by 2A

28) The Kritik

The kritik is an argument that attacks the assumptions in the round. It is a negative/affirmative argument (primarily used by the negative) that indicates the affirmative framework and assumptions of the plan is being fundamentally flawed and thus should be rejected.

29) Judges

Judges are the people who decide the outcome of the debate round. In preliminary rounds there is usually one judge per round with three or more judges in elimination rounds. Besides deciding who wins and loses the round, the judge ranks and assigns speaker points to each debater. The debaters are ranked first, second, third, or fourth with first being the best. Points are given from one to thirty with thirty being the very best. Judges rarely give below twenty and then only in extreme circumstance. The rank and points a debater receives rates how well a debater speaks, enunciates, and presents arguments. Because of these conditions, the judge should be the one whom the debaters address during the round, not each other.

Regardless of the philosophy of the judge, he/she does not like to intervene. Judges like the debaters to decide the outcome and to weigh the arguments in the last speeches.

After the round, the judge may, if time allows, give a critique of the debater's performance and make suggestions for improvement.

2.7 Elements in the Study of Argument

Argument may be defined as that process in communication in which logic is used to influence others. This influence sometimes takes the form of reinforcing old attitudes. More often, however, argument is used to change attitudes or to establish new ones. It should be clearly understood that argument is used to influence those about us either through the spoken or written word. We should recognize that much that is called argument is not; it is merely the expression of my opinion as over and against your opinion. Often this is the form that social conversations take. The real process of argument is the process of demonstrating conclusions from facts or premises that have been established as truths. It should be remembered that the goal of argument is influencing attitudes and is not exhibitionism; it is to influence conduct and not just to engage in a dispute (Huber, 2004).

Therefore, an argument expresses a reason why something is true. It uses some logical principle to compel belief on the part of the listeners. Davis (2004) states: Argumentation is the expression of the message – the structure and aim of the message itself. If you can accept the premise that the purpose of the community is communication, the study of the structure of the message itself should be a major component of study.

Huber (2004) suggests six elements important for the study of argument.
1. To learn the types of subjects which demand argument. Some subjects demand reasoned discourse as their mode of development; with others emotional appeals must be basic or virtually constitute the entire speech.

2. To learn how to analyze proposals in order to select and build the best arguments on a given subject.

3. To gather material essential in supporting arguments.

4. To study evidence and the lines of argument by which to make effective use of it, either in building speeches or evaluating those of others.

5. To study the types of reasoning, whether they be inductive, deductive, causal or analogical, along with the lines of argument best suited to each.

6. To concern ourselves with refutation, the study of revealing misunderstandings, in its various phases.

Of all rhetorical modes, the argument is perhaps the most important to learn to do well, since it has the most relevance outside the classroom. When you get a job, you will always be called upon to make convincing arguments, and your job may well depend upon how well you construct an argument. The skills you learn writing arguments will help you express yourself in person.

There are a number of ways that you can make a convincing, reasonable argument You can either proceed from a specific example to make a general statement (a *deductive* argument) or you can apply a general statement, belief, or position to a specific example (an *inductive* argument). But, generally, there are three parts to every good argument: your position, support of that position, and a conclusion which summarizes both your position and why you believe you are right.

➢ Introduction (Position)

- Statement of topic and initial problem or question
- Possible answers to that question or problem
- Thesis: Your position, or solution, to the problem
- Brief Statement of Essay Structure

➢ Body (Support and Analysis)

- Arguments in support of your position
- Arguments answering possible objections

> - Conclusion (Summary)
>   - Summary or restatement of your position
>   - Reference to your supporting material

2.8 The Psychological Need for Good Argument

Self-esteem demands that you and I have the best set of reasons possible for any action we take. We need the security of belief that our behavior is justifiable to ourselves. We must be able to defend our behavior to our parents, our wives, husbands, sweethearts, and friends. In fact, we feel foolish when we can not. Thus, there is a psychological need within all of us for a good set of arguments to defend or justify any action that we may take.

2.9 Speaking Skills

The goals of speaking are (1) Clarity & comprehension: the judge needs to understand what you say (2) To increase your credibility: good delivery makes the judge want to believe you (3) To enhance memory: you want the judge to remember what you said as well as flow it.

Speakers need to be dynamic. People tend to listen to and believe dynamic speakers. Dynamic speakers speak with energy, enthusiasm, commitment, and variety. You are not dynamic when you are unconcerned, unconfident, speak in a monotone, and are uninteresting. Show you are concerned about the arguments and you really want to win the debate.

First impressions are important, and Snider (2004:66) suggests showing the "Five C's":

1) Competitive (serious demeanor, ready to debate on time)
2) Confident (proper research, up on time, act like you feel good about what you are saying)
3) Courteous (friendly, mature)
4) Credible

5) Commanding (dress appropriately, do not use street language, do not be afraid, do not be rude, do not swear)

2.10 Flowing

Flowing is the debate term for note-taking. In order to answer arguments by your opponents, you must be able to write them down so that you can remember them and respond to them in order. Likewise, your flow sheet becomes the text which you use when you speak; it becomes the notes which you speak from.

Table 2 Sample Speaker Duties / Flowsheet (Narahiko)

1AC	1NC	2AC	2NC	1NR	1AR	2NR	2AR
(Definitions)						Summary	Summary
(Plan)							
(details)							
I. Issue			Attack		Defend		
A. Argument			Attack		Defend		
B. Argument			Attack		Defend		
C. Argument							
II. Issue			Attack		Defend		
A. Argument			Attack		Defend		
1. Argument							
2. Argument							
B. Argument			Attack		Defend		
	I. Issue	Attack		Defend			
	A. Argument	Attack		Defend			
	B. Argument	Attack					
		Argument		Attack			
	II. Issue	Attack		Defend			
	A. Argument			Argument			
	B. Argument						
	III. Issue	Attack		Defend			
	A. Argument	Attack					
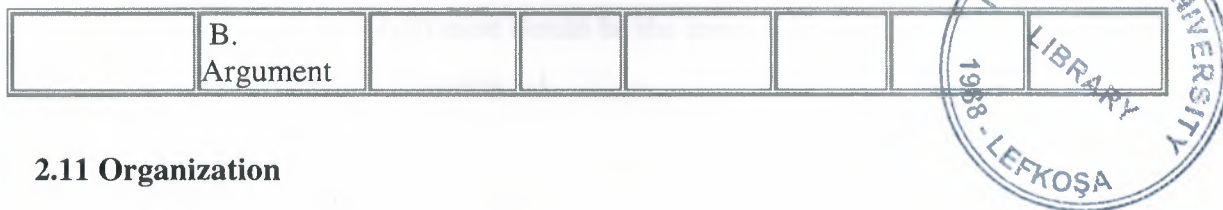
	B. Argument							

2.11 Organization

One of the most important goals a debater has is to be able to present material in a way that makes logical sense, relates ideas to each other in meaningful ways, and allows the judge to connect your responses to the arguments they are answering. Unless your ideas work together well and unless the judge writes your answers to the opposition's arguments down next to the arguments they apply to, victory will be difficult.

1) Learn to Build an Outline

When you build arguments and advocacy positions in a debate it is important to remember basic outlining techniques.

- **Major Points**: Divide your ideas up under major headings. These major headings might represent major argumentative burdens such as stock issues. Make sure that the major points are distinct from one another. If an idea is unavoidable and vital in coming to the conclusion you want, it should be included as a major point. Put major points in the proper chronological order: causes before effects, background before conclusions, etc. The statement of the major point should be something which all of the points arrayed under it are relevant to.

- **Subordination**: Within each major point you can array all of the specific points which support the major idea. Some of these will naturally group together into further subgroups. This sorting of ideas is critical to debate success and to becoming a critical thinker. Ideas can be sorted by: distinct idea or concept, general or specific nature, different steps in a logical process, etc.

- **Notation:** Outlines (and debate arguments) have letter and number alternations so that one level of substructure can be differentiated from another. Major points are often expressed with roman numerals (I, II, III, IV, etc.), subtopics of major points are letters (A, B, C, D, etc.), and particulars about subtopics are numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, etc.). It takes two particular ideas to begin a subdivision of any point,

or else the single subdivision would be the more general point. You need a B to justify an A, and a 2 to justify a 1.

I. Major point that you are making

    A. Subtopic in support of I.

    B. Another subtopic in support of I.

        1. Specific point about B.

        2. Another specific point about B.

II. Another major point you are making.

    A. Subtopic in support of II.

    B. Another subtopic in support of II.

2) Structure beyond the Outline

In critiquing arguments by others, or in applying certain issues to positions taken by the other team, it is essential to organize smaller groups of arguments. For example, if the affirmative case has stated that X is harmful, the negative will need to organize responses to this concept. Snider (2004:76) suggests two distinct ways to organize such response.

- **List of Reasons – Use Numbers:** Often debaters will provide a list of independent reasons why something is or is not true. If the affirmative claims that X is harmful, the negative could come up with 1, 2, 3, and 4 independent arguments why this is not true. Each of these would be a separate idea, not a repeat of a previous idea. Thus, opponents would have to answer each of these separately.

- **Chain of Reasoning – Use Letters:** Often arguments are more complex than one idea, and involve several steps. These can be thought of as chains of reasoning. Thus, a debater would say that A is true, and B is true, and therefore this leads to conclusion C. Like any chain, it is only as strong as its weakest link. Thus, opponents would only have to break the chain at one point.

It is very important to be able to tell the difference between a situation where arguments in a list are independent and where there is a chain of reasoning. If you organize arguments in this way you will always be able to tell the difference easily.

3) Building a Single Argument – The A-R-E Model

The A-R-E Model is quite commonly used and will help the novice debater to organize the way he speaks in the debate. Each argument has three components: the ASSERTION, the REASONING, and the EVIDENCE.

A=ASSERTION: This is the label that is given to the argument, and it is what the speaker wants the judge to write down on their flow. It should be relatively short, snappily worded, and express an argumentative relationship. A bad label would be "X is not bad," while a good label would be "X is good for your health" or "Studies show no harmful effects." The more expressive label does more than just say "we win" it gives a reason why and giving reasons why things are true is the basis of argumentation. The assertion label is a statement which expresses a relationship between two ideas and the ideas should be communicated well.

R=REASONING: Here the logical basis of the argument is explained. There is a difference between a "claim" and an "argument." A claim merely states that something is so, but does not explain why. Thus, a team could just keep making claims ("we win," "our arguments are better," "our case is true") without making progress in the debate. An "argument" expresses a REASON why something is true. It uses some logical principle to compel belief on the part of the listeners. Quite often debaters will leave this step out as they imply use prepared briefs in an assertion-evidence pattern. They do so at their peril, as will be explained later.

E=EVIDENCE: Here is where some fact, testimony, or expert opinion to bolster the point being maked is used. This often comes in the form of a "piece of evidence" or "evidence card" which has been researched prior to the debate. Such evidence should be relevant and in direct support of the assertion label

used. A "card" is not needed to make an argument, especially if it uses some sound logical principle which can be demonstrated rhetorically. A logical demonstration of the argument can also serve as evidence.

Each assertion label must be preceded with a number or letter and each component should be kept in order.

- Citizens oppose higher taxes [A]
- Surveys show they do not want to pay for even successful new programs [R]
- New York Times, 11/25/1899: "A Gallup poll released today showed that a taxpayer revolt is in full swing. 85% opposed increasing taxes for new government programs even if the programs themselves would be beneficial." [E]

4) Signposting – Staying Organized during Your Speech

The best way to ensure that the judge understands the order in which you address issues is signposting. Transitions between arguments also help the judge to follow the order in which you move from argument to argument. This will be helpful not only to the other team and to the judge, but also to your partner. Having a coherent discussion of the issues will help the whole debate to move in a much smoother way and allow more conflict with the other team.

2.12 Evidence

In the initial process of research, there are several main things to remember:
a) Try to cut only cards that make good arguments.
b) Under no circumstances cut only one sentence card as they rarely make a real argument.
c) Cards should be complete thoughts.
d) Try to cut at least a paragraph for each card, so there is a context for the author's ideas.
e) Never cut cards that aren't what the author advocates.

Evidence should always have full and complete citations. Just as articles should footnote their sources, debaters should make it possible for others to identify where evidence comes from. This includes the following:

a. The author
b. The author's qualifications
c. The publication
d. The date of the publication
e. The page number of the original quotation.

In addition, all evidence should be clearly cited on a brief. Cite lists which can be coded are acceptable, but before the brief is reproduced for others, the citation of every card should be clearly identified.

2.13 Research

Research is important because we are not experts on many of the things that we speak about. It is critical to lending credibility to our arguments. Ercolini and Gehrke (cited in Snider, 2004:84) state that our capacity to do research has a great deal to do with our capacity to participate in debates and to succeed in debates. There is no doubt that contemporary policy debate is largely research driven.

In the research guide for the 1999 World Debate Institute (in Snider, 2004), the first guideline for debate research is to have a strategic focus; you need to know what you are looking for. You are then able to visualize the kind of argument you are trying to develop and imagine what the evidence in that argument would have to look like. Afterwards, you need to make sure that you have a clear plan of action. When making a plan, begin by making a list of the research resources you think may be useful. Do not forget the many people you might be able to speak with in person, by phone, or via e-mail in order to initially begin your research. Think about libraries you have access to and what databases they might provide. Also think about web resources that may be helpful. You can then prioritize your sources by putting those that will help you start out

your research by providing some focus or guidance to your project first. Conversations with teachers, professors, debate coaches, and organizations should be the first part of any research.

2.14 Briefing

1) Titles and Tagging Briefs

It is important that the titles and tags on briefs reflect the true quality of the evidence. It is also crucial to other debaters that the briefs must be legible and easy to use for people who will be in time cons trained positions.

> **Labels for Individual Cards**

1. It is important not to overstate the evidence or claim that it says things that it doesn't.
2. It is important to not simply restate the card, but to turn it into a debate argument (for example,"High cost prevents renewable use" is better than "can't solve").
3. Do not curse on the blocks or the tags
4. Do not write symbols on the briefs as lots of people might not understand what your symbols are, and it could hurt them in a debate. This is also true of excessive abbreviations.
5. Try to write neatly. It will help other people if they can read your tag.

> **Format of Briefs**

1. Put the school name (or institute name) and your name in the upper left corner of the page.
2. Under these labels, put the general argument area (for example, Spending Disad)
3. Place the page number of the brief in the right corner (if you have three pages saying, for example, Denktaş would be unpopular with the plan, there is a page 1 of 3, 2 of 3, or 3 of 3 etc.).

4. Don't put numbers by cards, unless it's a frontline, so numbers can be added in during a debate round. By the tag of each card, put a (__) for the team in the round to insert a number.

2) Strategic Considerations

❖ For big arguments that will be used by the whole team, it is suggested you us an index sheet to explain the argument and how to use the evidence in the file. Number the pages and list the numbers and titles on the index page.

❖ For the most part, try and put the best arguments in the front of the file and the best cards at the beginning of the briefs, so that if someone needs to find the best cards and arguments, they are easily accessible under the time constraints of the round.

❖ Try to mix analytical arguments as well as cards on the briefs. This is FAR more effective than just reading lots of cards because it focuses the argumentation on crucial key points.

❖ Be aware that there might be contradictions or interactions with other cards on the briefs.

❖ Do not cut cards in half and continue them on the next page. This will only serve to confuse others trying to use your evidence and might confuse you in the pressure of a debate.

❖ Don't shrink text down too much. Avoid too much reduction when photocopying articles & books.

3) Taping Briefs

- Tape all of the corners of the cards down. This includes the citation that should be taped to the card and then taped to the page on both corners.

- Use only clear tape, no glue sticks or an alternate method of sticking.

- Leave one inch all around the edge of the page, so there is a footer and decent margins.

- Try and get as much on one page as possible, to ease the copying burden, but don't get carried away with cramming.

2.15 Rebuttals

Most debaters, coaches, and judges would agree that rebuttals are the most difficult and yet the most important parts of the debate. Not only is there less time within each speech, but each debater has to sort through all of the issues to determine which ones are the most important ones. What a debater does or does not do in rebuttals will decide who wins the debate.

Four issues to consider when rebuttals happen:

1. Which arguments have more weight at the end of the round?
2. Which outcomes (disads, counterplans) are more likely given lots of internal links?
3. What about time frame-what happens first?
4. What about the quality of evidence?

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This research is a case study designed to investigate and determine the effects of in-class debates as a means of improving participants critical and speaking skills. The purpose of this case study is to introduce the art of debating into the classroom in order to generate thinking and speaking on the part of the participants.

The case study is used to generate discussions of certain ideas. In this type of research, the researcher draws the participants into a discussion, but rather than doing most of the talking himself, the researcher is required to listen intently to what the participants say and encourage them to express themselves. The participants need to feel safe to speak up and present their ideas. In this case study, participants are encouraged to discuss ideas in groups in order to focus their attention upon the bigger issue of debate that will follow. According to Bolton, 2004, case studies are used to drive students to learn. He says they help to generate questions which need to be addressed. In order to do so, a follow up activity is necessary which requires participants to gather information.

For the purpose of the study, a debate booklet (see Appendix J) was compiled by the researcher for use in the Speech and Communication Course at the ELT and ELL Department at the NEU. It consisted of the debate module course description, the history of debate, debate format, reasons for debate, staging a debate, debate procedure, building and rebutting an argument, learning to build an outline, cross examination, vocabulary, preparing for your debate, and exercises. Two main sources the researcher borrowed from are Snider, 1999 and Inoue, M, 1997. Each student was expected to purchase a copy. The booklet was used over a period of ten weeks three times a week for a total of thirty hours. The course outline for the debating booklet is shown in Appendix C.

Prior to the lecture, a pre-debate questionnaire was administered to the participants in order to evaluate their knowledge of debate at that particular time.

Also, two debate videos were used to show the participants debate format; one from Ali Kırca 'Kim Haklı?' an ATV production in December, 2003, and the other from Nick Gavin 'The World Debate' a BBC production in March, 2004. In addition, participants were able to observe their peers performing in realistic situations set up in the classroom.

At the final stage of the lecture, a debate was organized between the Faculty of Engineering and the English Language Teaching Department on the 16th April, 2004 in the Green Hall at the Department of Civil Engineering. The topic under debate was 'Arranged Marriages'. All participants were first year freshman level, and all were considered to be upper-intermediate. The debate was initially recorded on video and has since been copied onto VCD. The latter is available in the back cover of this thesis. All course participants were requested to be present at the debate.

Furthermore, direct observation of the participants was carried out by the researcher in the classroom using assessment criteria particular for this purpose (see Appendix D).

Finally, focused interviews were carried out. These are considered to be one of the most important sources of case study information (see Appendix E). The participants were interviewed individually for six minutes, and each was asked to answer the set questions.

3.2 Subjects

A total of sixty-four first year students (twenty-eight male participants and thirty-six female participants) studying in the ELT and ELL Departments of the NEU participated in this research. The participants selected were all from the same background; that being both Turkish Cypriot and Turkish. Their identities have been

kept confidential. The level of participants participating in the study has been considered as upper intermediate.

3.3 Data Collection

In order to collect the necessary data, the researcher has used three main data collection tools.

3.3.1   Pre-Debate Questionnaire

The pre-debate questionnaire (see Appendix F) was prepared in order to find out the research participants knowledge of debate prior to the lecture. It was administered to two first year classes at the ELT and ELL Department at the NEU at the beginning of the spring 2004 semester. There were ten questions: eight closed questions and two open-ended questions, the results of which have been transferred into tables (see Appendix G) for data analysis.

3.3.1.1 Reliability

For reliability, the researcher has calculated the agreement coefficient as .92; therefore, the researcher considered the pre-debate questionnaire reliable.

3.3.1.2 Validity

Language experts and educationlists were consulted for validity. Pre-debate questions were found to be fully valid for data collection.

3.3.2   Post-Debate Interview

Following the lecture in Debate, an oral interview was carried out in the classroom environment with the research participants one by one whereby the individual participants were asked six questions (see Appendix E). Each of the six questions were identical. Each interview was recorded initially on cassette and has since been copied onto VCD. The researcher decoded and transcribed each individual recording onto a word document for data analysis.

3.3.2.1 Reliability

For reliability, the researcher has calculated the intercoder agreement co-efficient as 95%. In order to calculate the IAC, the researcher has counted up the number of category assignments across all respondents that were exactly the same for both coders and divided that number by the total number of categories assigned. Then the researcher has multiplied the result by 100 to get the percentage of ICA.

3.3.3 Observations

The researcher has conducted two direct observations. The initial observation was an in-class observation while the participants were performing a debate with their peers. During the debate lecture, a total of ten debates were organized in-class. Assessment criteria was used by the researcher whereby each participant was assessed according to their participation, language use, communication skills, debating skills, critical thinking and organization (see Appendix D). The researcher's aim in 'participation' was to judge their involvement in a debate; 'language use' was to evaluate the vocabulary, phrases and terminology used in the debate booklet; 'communication skills' was to assess speaking, listening, understanding, fluency, clarity, and pronunciation; 'debating skills' was to measure debating format, time concept, persuasive arguments, counter attacks, and discipline; 'critical thinking' was to calculate alertness, ability to make critical analysis, and research; 'organisation' was to gauge the layout of arguments, the sharing of responsibilities, and the preparation for counter-attacks. The second and final observation was in the Green Hall at the Department of Civil Engineering. The researcher's aim here was to find out the participants reaction to an unfamiliar environment with unfamiliar people. It was a multi-cultural debate in an environment that the participants were not familiar with, and the participants had to perform in front of two hundred and fifty students who were mostly unknown to them as opposed to twenty-five students in the classroom. The researcher's primary concern was to assess not only the participants' debating abilities in such a situation but also their psychological and social reaction as opposed to that situation as set up in their classrooms.

3.3.3.1 Reliability

For reliability, observation notes were then re-evaluated by the researcher and 0.87 intracoder reliability co-efficient has been calculated.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Participants Prior Knowledge about Debates

The data gathered from the pre-questionnaire was transferred into tables (see Appendix H). The researcher calculated the average age of the participants by adding the ages of the participants together and then dividing by the total number of participants. Then the closed questions were analysed and the percentage was calculated according to the male and female responses (see Appendix H). The two open-ended questions were analysed separately and their comments noted.

3.4.2 Participants Knowledge about Debates

The data obtained from the interview was initially decoded onto a word document. Depending on the responses given by the participants, the researcher listed all the individual responses and then calculated their percentages (see Appendix I).

3.4.3 Observations

The researcher used his own assessment criteria (see Appendix D) for observations. The initial observations were of the participants taking part in in-class debates set up by the researcher. At the beginning, some of the participants were reluctant to take part; therefore, the researcher concentrated on the volunteers initially. The researcher tried to give each student an equal chance to participate in debate. They were observed both individually and as a team. The participants were marked on a scale from 1 to 5 ranging from inadequate, poor, adequate, good, and very good respectively and were assessed according to participation, language use, communication skills, debating skills, critical thinking, and organisation.

The second observation was conducted in the Green Hall where the participants had to debate in front of a large crowd totalling two hundred and fifty students. The

researcher tried to observe the ELT participants reactions and language abilities in front of a large crowd and with an opposition team that they were unfamiliar with. The researcher's primary concern was to assess not only the participants' debating abilities in such a situation but also their psychological and social reaction as opposed to that situation as set up in their classrooms. The debate was recorded and then copied onto VCD. The recording was subsequently watched by the researcher and two colleagues and an assessment was made of the participants according to the assessment criteria used in the initial observation (see Appendix D).

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Results and Discussions

In this chapter, the results of the research will be discussd in detail.

4.1 Participants Prior Knowledge about Debates

The pre-debate questionnaire (see Appendix F) of each individual participant was analysed separately according to the main aim of the researcher. The researcher's questionnaire was given to all participants for completion in the classroom. The data gathered from the pre-questionnaire was transferred into tables (see Appendix H).

In response to *"Do you know what debate is?"* the majority of the participants (85%) responded with 'yes', very few (13%) responded with 'no', and a minority (2%) failed to answer. The high affirmative response is possibly due to the fact that the majority of the participants had either previously watched a debate in English or Turkish or taken part in one as an observer or participator. In answer to *"Which word do you think best describes what a debate is?"* over half of the participants (53%) said 'argument', some (36%) said 'discussion', and an insignificant number (2%) said 'dispute', and a minority (3%) said 'contest'. This might be due to the word 'discussion' being used as a synonym for 'argument'. In reply to *"Have you ever organized a debate?"* a negligible number of participants (14%) said 'yes' and a high proportion (86%) said 'no'. The participants who responded positively to this question stated at this point that they had taken part in a debate in high school although they didn't mention what they actually did regarding organization. Due to the lack of clarification regarding organization, it can be assumed that the respondents who answered in the affirmative have incorrectly interpreted the word 'organized'. The response to *"Have you ever watched a debate?"* revealed that a large number of participants (87%) had previously watched a debate, a small number (11%) hadn't, and an irrelevant number (2%) failed to answer. Of those participants that had, only some (5%) had watched in English, the majority (84%) in Turkish, and a few (11%) failed to respond. The overwhelming positive response might be due to the fact that debate programmes are regularly

broadcast on national and private television channels because of the political developments regarding the future of the island. In reply to *"Have you ever taken part in a debate?"* just over half of the participants (52%) replied 'yes' and the remainder (48%) replied 'no'. From the response, it would appear that debating might very well be a part of high school education in Turkey. In reaction to "Would you be able to organize and conduct a debate?" a large number of participants (39%) said 'yes', but the majority (59%) said 'no', and an insignificant number (2%) failed to react. This indicates that although a large number of participants were willing, the majority appeared to lack the confidence to do so. This might suggest that they feel themselves lacking the necessary organizational skills and also language skills. When asked, *"Have you ever heard of the term 'Critical Thinking'?"* a minor number of participants (14%) responded with 'yes', a vast number (81%) with 'no', and a slight number (5%) made no comment. Of the participants that answered in the affirmative, they weren't actually able to define the term correctly. As Bolton (2004) stated: A frequently heard complaint about education today is that it does not teach students to think. The purpose of higher education should be to provide an opportunity for students to process knowledge. Unfortunately, all too often the emphasis is upon memorization of, rather than processing of, information. Finally, in response to *"Which of the following skills do you think is more important to conduct an effective debate?"* of the total participants, a few (11%) said 'oral fluency', some (14%) said 'organisational ability', a larger number (42%) said 'teamwork', several (28%) said 'research', and an insignificant number (5%) did not comment. This indicates the complexity of identifying the skills demanded by debate. Debate is very much an integration of skills although speaking is naturally the language skill used most (Stewart and Pleisch, 2004).

Table 3: The Results of Pre-Questionnaire in Percentages

Question 1	Gender	Female	Male		
		36 Students; 56%	28 Students; 44%		
Question 2	Average				
	20				
Question 3	Do you know what a debate is?	Yes	No	No Answer (Blank)	
		55 Students; 85%	8 Students; 13%	1 Student; 2%	
Question 4	Which word do you think best describes what a debate is?	Argument	Discussion	Dispute	Contest	No Answer (Blank)
		34 Students; 53%	23 Students; 36%	1 Student; 2%	2 Students; 3%	4 Students; 6%
Question 5	Have you ever organized a debate?	Yes	No		
		9 Students; 14%	55 Students; 86%		
Question 6 (A)	Have you ever watched a debate?	Yes	No	No Answer (Blank)	
		56 Students; 87%	7 Students; 11%	1 Student ; 2%	
Question 6 (B)	Was the debate in Turkish or English?	English	Turkish	No Answer (Blank)	
		3 Students; 5%	54 Students; 84%	7 Students; 11%	
Question 7	Have you ever taken part in a debate?	Yes	No		
		33 Students; 52%	31 Students; 48%		
Question 8	Would you be able to organise and conduct a debate?	Yes	No	No Answer (Blank)	
		25 Students; 39%	38 Students; 59%	1 Student; 2%	
Question 9	Have you heard of the term "Critical Thinking"?	Yes	No	No Answer (Blank)	
		9 Students; 14%	52 Students; 81%	3 Students; 5%	
Question 10	Which of the following skills do you think is more important in order to conduct an effective debate?	Oral Fluency	Organisational Ability	Teamwork	Research	No Answer (Blank)
		7 Students; 11%	9 Students; 14%	27 Students; 42%	18 Students; 28%	3 Students; 5%

4.2 Participants Knowledge about Debates

After decoding and transcribing the recordings of each individual interview conducted after the lecture on debate, the researcher was able to analyse the individual responses of the research participants (see Appendix I).

4.2.1 What students learned from the debate

Figure 4.1 clearly indicates that an overwhelming number of research participants (92%) considered themselves to have improved their speaking skills. Alford and Surdu (2002) say that a good debate topic can help students improve their verbal skills.

The next most significant response (73%) shows that the participants also felt they were better at asking and answering questions. The principal speaking activities for debate preparation include presentations of new information in the form of arguments. Questioning, answering, and defining are important to clarify terms and aspects of arguments (Stewart, 2003).
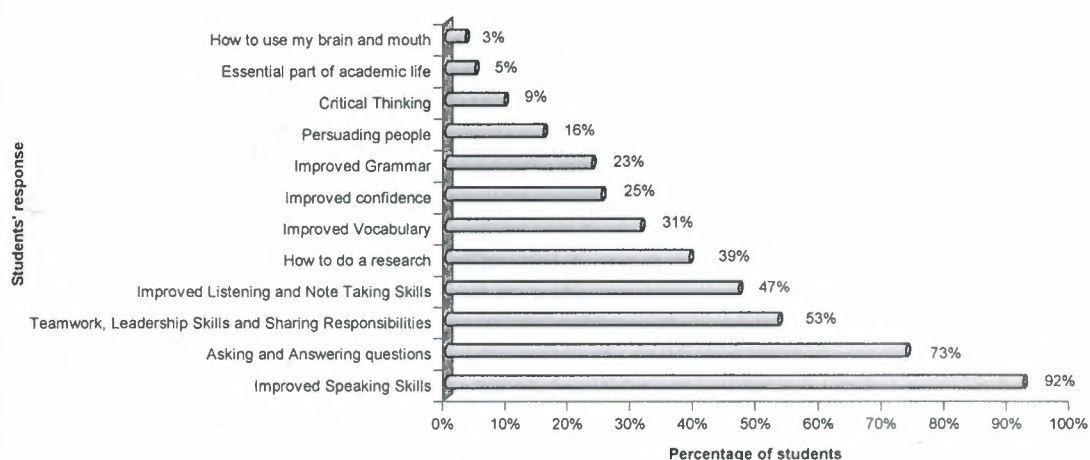
Figure 3: What Students Learned from the Debate

Regarding what the research participants felt they had learned from the debate, over half of the participants (53%) stated teamwork, leadership skills and the sharing of responsibilities. Johnson & Johnson (cited in Bauschard, 2004), claim that cooperative learning promotes the development of interpersonal relationships and interpersonal skills because it exposes students to perspectives that are different from their own, encourages students to support one another, and promotes pro-social behaviour.

A significant number (47%) stated that their listening and notetaking skills had improved. Listening is an important criteria for evaluation because of its centrality to

the process of debate. The debater by definition must listen carefully to the opponent in order to achieve the objective of refutation (Parcher, 1998). As each major argument is presented, a member of the opposing team is assigned to take notes and then lead the questions or make a short rebuttal to the argument (Stewart, 2003).

Debating elements such as research were reported to have improved by a number of participants (39%) of cases. Debates had provided the research participants with the opportunity to combine course information and conduct related outside research as suggested by Alford and Surdu (2002). Parcher (1998) states that no class or activity compares to debate as a means of teaching students methods of research.

A considerable number of research participants (31%) commented that their vocabulary had improved. The researcher believes that this is due to the amount of research necessary to put together a good argument. As Inoue 1997 suggests, it is often advisable to prepare good standard definitions of most of the words in the topic because they may be necessary in debate when the opponent team introduces non-standard definitions. The task of the participants is to define any ambiguous words so that the meaning of the topic may be clear. They also want to define words which have more than one meaning.

Improved confidence was a factor raised amongst some research participants (25%). This might be a result of being well informed: a characteristic of critical thinking as put forward by Ennis (2000).

Improved grammar was noted by several research participants (23%). The researcher is of the opinion this might indicate that by the participants giving a series of speeches in which they present and develop arguments about the merits of particular policies, with the help of evidence extracted from all sorts of researchable literature, they need to pay attention to accuracy in order to present clear arguments.

Persuasion may be defined as the process of influencing the conduct or attitudes of other people. The definition from Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1995) refers to debate as a process of argument in which two (or more) opposing parties try to persuade

each other or a third party about a controversial issue. With this in mind, a few research participants (16%) were confident they had managed to develop their ability to persuade. Public speaking skills include the creation and presentation of visuals such as posters. When giving presentations, students learn how to persuade an audience and must often field questions spontaneously. When people have differing opinions and attempt to persuade one another through argumentative discussion, debate is taking place (Stewart, 2003).

According to Scriven and Paul (2004), critical thinking is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. In this research, a small number of the participants (9%) felt that they had learnt the disciplined process of critical thinking whereby they were responsive to variable subject matter, issues, and purposes.

A trivial number of research participants (5%) considered debate to be an essential part of academic life. Stewart and Pleisch (1998) see debate as a means for developing language fluency and academic study skills. It has been said that beyond the development of critical thinking, interpersonal relationships, and positive psychological health, co-operative learning increases academic achievement (Bauschard 2004).

Finally, an insignificant number of research participants (3%) said that they "used their brain and mouth." The researcher's interpretation of this was that they no longer spoke out before weighing up the consequences. Debate sharpens your ability to foresee and meet challenge; therefore, the researcher feels this might indicate that the participants are now willing to consider seriously other view points to avoid possible humiliation.

4.2.2 Critical thinking skills and debates

Regarding Figure 4.2, when asked in what sense the participants had practiced critical thinking skills, the vast majority of research participants (91%) commented on

asking and answering effective questions. Participants in debate are often expected to state, discuss, question, and defend opinions (Stewart, 2003). Alford and Surdu declare that a good debate topic has numerous clear and compelling arguments available for both sides to present.

A large number of research participants (45%) commented on their increased ability to speak more effectively and fluently. The researcher thinks this might be a case of students developing their confidence and feelings of empowerment through the acquisition of critical thinking skills (Fisher et al, 2004).

Defending an argument as a team was a factor put forward by some of the research participants (25%). Johnson & Johnson (cited in Bauschard, 2004) state that working together encourages students to get to know and trust one another, to communicate openly, to accept and support one another, and to resolve conflicts constructively.
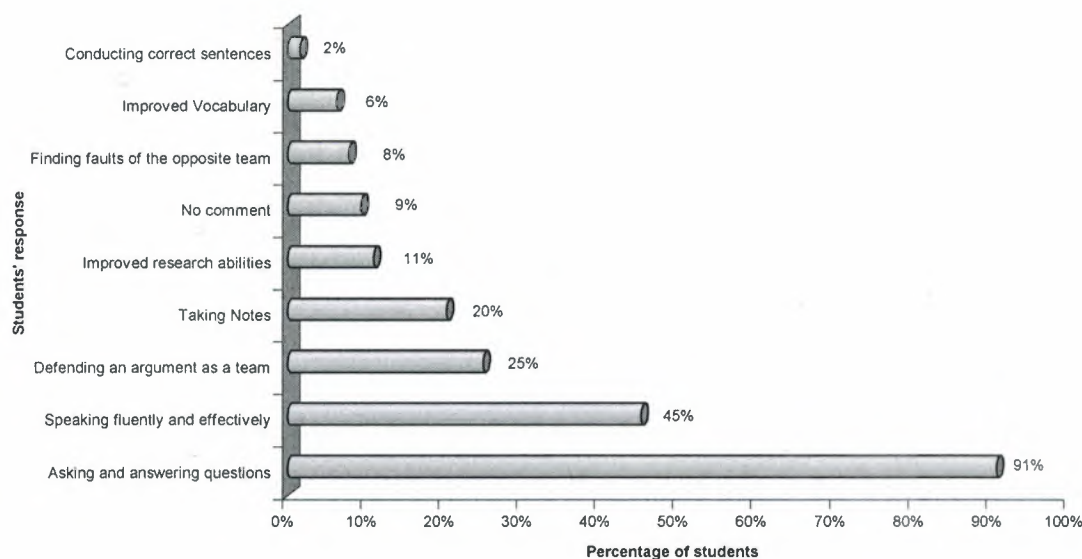
Figure 4: Critical Thinking Skills and Debates

According to a small number of research participants (20%), they had practiced their critical thinking skills by taking notes. Researching a topic involves students learning about reference materials and how to search for useful information. At this initial step, there should be a focus on reading and writing skills such as skimming,

scanning and notetaking. For example, students can scan a reading and note down pertinent points (Stewart, 2003).

Very few (11%) said that they had improved their research abilities. Research is a very important activity in debate. Of course, we can debate certain topics with our own knowledge, but in many cases, the participants don't know much about the topic in the beginning of their preparation. Even if they do, they still want more information to support their arguments when they prepare for speeches. Fortunately, we are surrounded by a vast amount of information from books, magazines, newspapers, TV programs, the Internet, etc. In order to find necessary information for debate, we need a systematic way to conduct research.

Despite instruction in debate, a minority of research participants (9%) made no comment. This may show that they were still unclear as to the definition of critical thinking, or maybe they were passive students who had not actively participated in class, or even absentees who had not attented the lectures..

In the debating process, speakers are directly confronting each other and this might possibly account for a marginal number of research participants (8%) saying that they had improved their ability to find fault with their opponents. Parcher (1998) says, "careful listening is rewarded in debate by the discovery of flaws in the opponent's language, thinking, or evidence."

Very few participants (6%) had improved their vocabulary. At this point, the researcher again reiterates his personal view that this is due to the amount of research necessary to put together a good argument. Ennis (2000) advocates that critical thinkers are prepared to be clear about the intended meaning of what is said, written, or otherwise communicated, seeking as much precision as the situation requires.

Finally, an insignificant number (2%) were confident in having developed their ability to put together grammatically correct sentences. Participants need to focus on precision in order to put forward clear arguments.

4.2.3 Debates and knowledge of the English language

As illustrated in Figure 4.3, the vast number of the research participants (98%) stated that debates had improved their knowledge of the English language. When asked how, the majority (72%) commented that their speaking ability had improved. According to Parcher (1998), oral communication is amongst the most obvious and well supported values of academic debate. He adds, "It has long been considered central to any program of speech communication."

A large majority (67%) replied that their vocabulary had improved. The researcher believes this to be related to the participants having to paraphrase and summarise information for their major argument presentations.
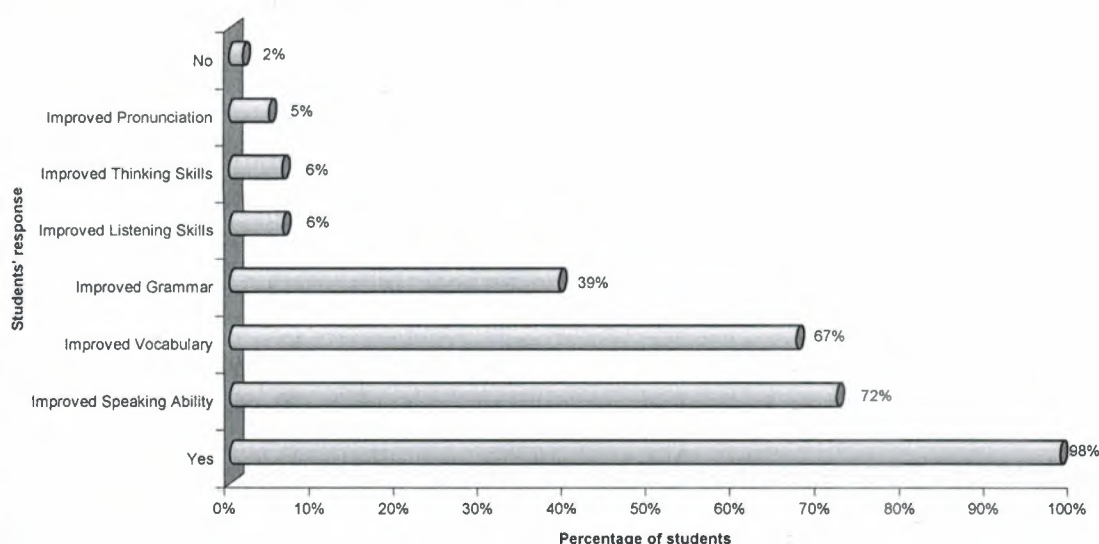
Figure 5: Debates and Knowledge of the English Language

As debate provides opportunities for participants to carry out extensive practice in language, the researcher feels this might account for some of the participants (39%) stating that their grammar had improved.

A minor number of research participants (6%) claimed to have improved their listening skills. Debate teaches individuals the importance of being prepared to listen in two ways. First, it trains people in the mental preparation of listening. During a debate, you listen for specific things, points you want to answer, weakness in logic, supporting

material, and key points. Second, debaters also learn to concentrate on what is being said. To listen properly, you must eliminate distraction and concentrate on the speakers and the implication of their words (Parcher, 1998).

Improved thinking skills were noted by only a few participants (6%). Creating a list of arguments involves complex cognitive processing as information is synthesized and categorized (Stewart, 2003). In 1908, Edwin Shurter wrote that "Perhaps no study equals debate in the acquirement of the power of logical thinking combined with clear expression."

A small number of research participants (5%) believed their pronunciation to have improved. The researcher thinks this is related to the amount of presentations of arguments and questioning that is involved in debating.

Finally, an insignificant number of research participants (2%) felt that their knowledge of the English language had not improved through debate. The researcher is of the opinion that the participant might feel superior to his peers and is at a higher level of proficiency.

4.2.4 Skills practiced during the debate

Figure 4.4 shows that the majority of research participants (92%) felt that they had practiced their speaking skills. This is not surprising considering the amount of arguments that are presented during debate. A large number (63%) felt they had practiced teamwork and leadership skills. As teams prepare for the debate event, they develop group work skills (Stewart, 2003). Almost half of the research participants (48%) stated they had practiced note taking and listening skills. According to Hanson (cited in Parcher, 1998), debaters experience with debate enhances their listening and note taking skills. Some (38%) felt they had practiced asking and answering questions essential during argumentative discussion. Several (34%) felt they had practiced their critical thinking skills. During debate, the participants were able to critically analyse and evaluate ideas.

Organisational ability was said to have been practiced by a small number of research participants (8%). Because debate is a form of structured argumentation, a great deal of emphasis is placed on the structure of individual arguments, cases, counterplans, and other types of persuasive techniques (Parcher, 1998).

A few research participants (6%) said they practiced research skills. When preparing for a debate, participants needed to gain information about the topic first. This step involved participants learning about reference materials and how to search for useful information.
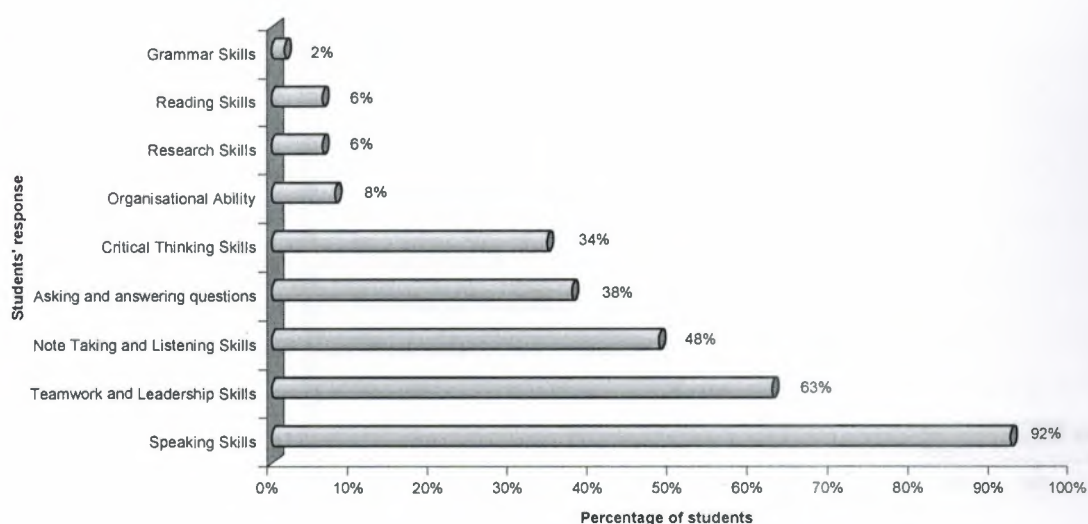
Figure 6: Skills Practiced during the Debate

Reading skills were noted as being practiced by a small number of research participants (6%). A common research goal of a debate team is to examine every piece of published material in existence on a given topic (Parcher, 1998).

Finally, an insignificant number of participants (2%) stated they had practiced grammar skills. Attention had to be paid to grammar when presenting clear arguments.

4.2.5 Using debates in the future.

The largest number of the research participants (92%) stated that they would use debated in the future. Almost half (45%) said when they became a teacher, a smaller

number (41%) said in class, some (33%) said organizing two groups, several (23%) said in giving them a topic to choose, a few (17%) said to teach debate rules, a small number (9%) said in using the debate booklet, only some (8%) did not know, hardly any (6%) said in using visual aids, and a handful (5%) said in their daily lives.

Only a small minority (8%) stated they would not use debate in the future.
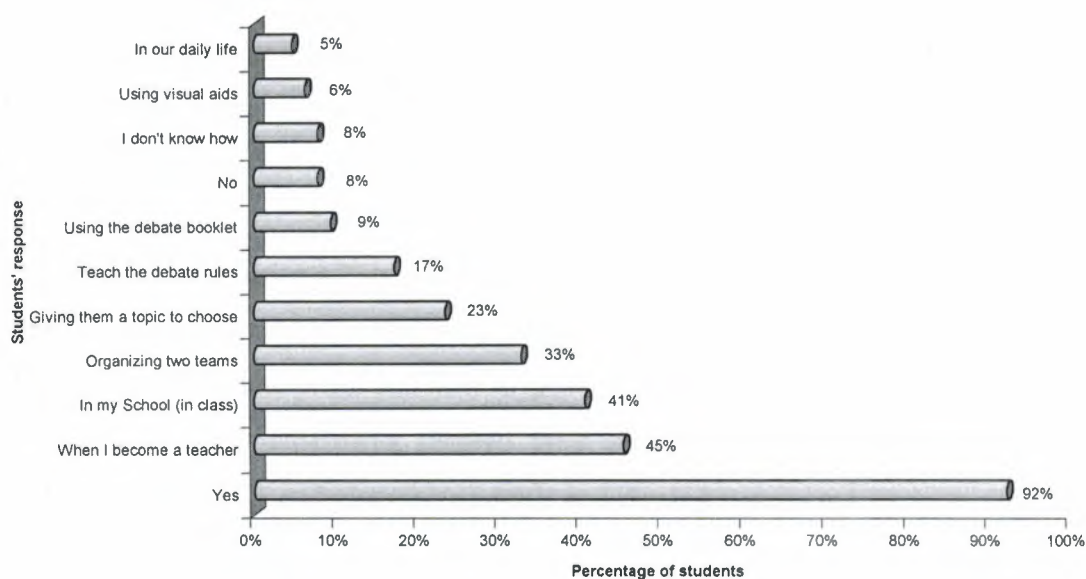
Figure 7: Using Debates in the Future

After careful analysis of the results, our study showed that in all areas of study a substantial number of research participants commented on improved speaking skills, the improved ability to ask and answer questions, the responsibilities of teamwork, leadership, and sharing, improved listening and notetaking skills, ability to conduct a research, improvement in the use of vocabulary and grammar, and finally the skill of critical thinking. The study has therefore shown that the use of in-class debates appears to have improved students' critical and speaking skills.

4.3 Observation Results

Many of the participants (80%) took part in the initial in-class debates set up by the researcher. Some of the participants were reluctant to take part; therefore, the researcher concentrated on the volunteers initially. The researcher tried to give each student an equal chance to participate in debate. At the beginning of the lecture, the participants were nervous and hesitant, but the in-class observations showed that over a period of time the participants gained confidence in language use. The research participants used the phrases and terminology they were assigned in the debate booklet, and they appeared to improve their use of vocabulary extensively. Their communication skills improved in that they were more willing to listen to the opposition's arguments. The speaking activities helped them clarify terms by questioning, answering and defining arguments. In addition, they learned how to explain complex ideas in a quick and efficient manner. Also, the participants learned how to work together in teams and prepare to debate both sides of an argument. Whilst researching a topic, they learned about reference material and how to search for useful information. They learned how to spot errors in reasoning and proof and how to criticize in a productive way based on fact and logic. Finally, the participants showed their ability to organize information by selecting major arguments and planning opening and closing statements.

The second observation was conducted in the Green Hall where the participants had to debate in front of a large crowd totalling two hundred and fifty students. The opposition team was from the Faculty of Engineering: two of the members were from Pakistan, and the other two were from Jordon. All four students were proficient in the use of the English Language, but none of them understood or spoke Turkish. The researcher tried to observe the ELT participants reactions and language abilities in front of a large crowd and with an opposition team that they were unfamiliar with. The researcher observed that the engineering students were more confident and relaxed with their English language abilities and conducted their arguments mainly from memory with hardly any written notes. Although the ELT participants researched well and were fairly good with their language abilities, they were not relaxed and conducted their arguments mostly by referring to their notes. To make matters worse, they were not relaxed with the audience. They neither looked at the audience nor did they make eye contact. Nevertheless, it was a fairly good debate conducted totally in English. The

engineering team was obserbved to be good at asking and answering questions whereas the ELT participants had difficulty understanding the questions and arguments put forward and needed constant clarification. The researcher believes this was due to the fact that the ELT participants had not had much practice with the use of the English language and had the added pressure of having to perform in front of a large crowd. On the other hand, the engineering team members were fluent speakers of English and having the opportunity to participate in a public display of debate, they excelled greatly.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study aimed at investigating and determining the effects of in-class debates as a means of improving the critical thinking and speaking skills of Turkish learners of English studying at the ELT and ELL Department at the Near East University.

At the first stage, a pre-debate questionnaire (see Appendix F) was prepared in order to find out the research participants' knowledge of debate prior to the lecture. This was followed by a thirty hour course in debating which lasted for a period of ten weeks. During the course, two videos were used to show the participants debate format. In addition, participants were able to observe their peers performing in realistic situations set up in the classroom. Furthermore, direct observation of the participants was carried out by the researcher in the classroom using assessment criteria particular for this purpose (see Appendix D). Near the end of the course, a debate was held between the Faculty of Engineering and the ELT Department in the Green Hall at the Department of Civil Engineering. Again an observation was carried out to assess the participants' debating abilities in an unfamiliar setting and also their psychological and social reaction. Finally following the course in Debate, an oral interview was carried out in the classroom environment with the individual research participants whereby they were asked six questions: each question being identical (see Appendix E).

After analysing the data collected, the researcher was able to deduce that the research participants had in fact improved on their critical thinking and speaking skills; they had developed the ability to comprehend, discuss, and question a topic in English. From carrying out research, they learned how to find the best evidence. During debate, they had to evaluate the evidence used by the opposition. They had to think about the consequences of each argument and evaluate its worth. On the whole, debate appeared to have given the participants practice in English language skills in order to grasp the

content of a topic. Moreover, the participants appeared to be motivated by the performance aspect of the activity.

5.2 Conclusions

According to the research results, debate develops academic language skills along with fluency and skills in public speaking. In addition to language proficiency development, it also promotes teamwork and co-operation while encouraging critical thinking.

Prior Knowledge about Debates

Analysis of the pre-debate questionnaire revealed that the majority of participants had actually taken part in a debate at some stage in their lives and a sufficient number were confident they would be able to organize and conduct a debate in the future. The researcher was confident at this stage that the participants were aware of the necessary skills required to conduct a debate. Despite this, an overwhelming number of the research participants had never heard of the term 'critical thinking'. In this respect, the researcher assumes that education of today is more focused on memorisation rather than encouraging students to think.

Participants Knowledge about Debating

The participants were confident that they had improved their speaking skill, and by carrying out research they were better at asking and answering questions. In turn, they had learned leadership skills and the importance of working as a team. Through argument, their listening and notetaking skills had improved as had their use of vocabulary and grammar. The researcher supposes that participation in debate generates clear and compelling arguments whereby participants are often expected to state, discuss, question, and defend opinions. These factors all lead to an increased ability to speak more fluently and effectively while encouraging the ability to reason well and reflectively.

Observations

The researcher observed a marked improvement in the use of vocabulary, phrases and terminology used in debate, in the skills of listening and speaking, in the ability to carry out a research, in the preparation to debate both sides of an argument and to work together in teams. Finally, the participants were observed to show their improved ability to organize information by selecting major arguments and planning opening and closing statements.

5.3 Recommendations

In the twentieth century, the ability to engage in careful, reflective thought has been viewed in various ways: as a fundamental characteristic of an educated person, as a requirement for responsible citizenship in a democratic society, and, more recently, as an employability skill for an increasingly wide range of jobs.

According to Ennis (2000), the ideal critical thinker is prepared to present an opinion honestly and clearly, and to care about the importance of every person; furthermore the ideal critical thinker has the ability to clarify, to seek and judge well the basis for a view, to infer wisely the basis, to consider and reason from positions with which they disagree without letting the disagreement or doubt interfere with their thinking, and integrate the other abilities and dispositions in making and defending a decision.

This researcher strongly recommends that in-class debates should be included in all language learning curricula. Besides public speaking, students gain writing, researching, and analytical thinking skills. As debaters, participants have to be organized and focused. The researcher hopes that more language teachers will begin using debate in their classes. "Preparing for debate can promote proficiency in language development in ways that are challenging and exciting for students." (Stewart and Pleisch, 2004)

The researcher believes that critical thinking skills are very important not only in education but also in our daily lives; therefore, the researcher believes that added attention should be given to improving critical thinking abilities. Moreover, case studies are known to be ideal for improving critical thinking. We should concentrate on asking and answering questions and provide some type of learning that revolves around students becoming better thinkers, communicators, and decision makers in the real world contexts of work and society that extend beyond the traditional classroom. Students must move beyond being simply receivers or transmitters of information. We need better research facilities; we need to introduce more and more visual aids; we should also provide the necessary settings where the students feel most comfortable. Also excursions should be scheduled, for instance, to the Houses of Parliament whereby students could observe focused discussions. In addition, organised visits to libraries would be beneficial in order for students to carry out their research and obtain a wider range of materials.

In this research, debates were initially carried out between classes within the ELT and ELL Departments and at a later stage between the ELT and Engineering Department. In the future, the researcher would suggest the possibility of organising debates between different institutions in order to increase motivation to perform better. This could possibly be introduced as an award.

The researcher also believes that debate clubs should be organized not only within the university but amongst neighbouring universities and even those in Turkey.

Also, the researcher believes that critical thinking could be developed through writing. Gocsik (1997) states that when students write, they cannot remain passive players in the learning game. She says, "Even the simplest writing task, such as a summary of an article, requires that students make important critical choices."

As a final point, in the discussion of critical thinking, we need to identify "best" methods of instruction for each aspect of the critical thinking process.

Accordingly, the recommendation the researcher offers is based on the results of the study, and he hopes his research will be useful to teachers involved in developing and implementing language programs for Turkish learners of English in the future.

5.3.1 Recommendations for Further Research

The researcher recommends that further research be carried out to clarify whether or not it is better to teach speaking and critical thinking skills directly or to create situations whereby students learn them by means of supposition, in the case of debates, through being placed in circumstances which call for them to apply these skills.

In addition, the researcher suggests an analysis of the participants' psychological emotional state to find out whether the participants can learn or perform better in different environments. Also, visual recordings of in-class debates could later be shown to the participants for self-evaluation. This would enable the participants to judge their own performances and those of others. Moreover, gender and age factors could be considered.

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APPENDIX A

Preparing for your Debate (Rosetti, 2001)

- **Select a topic**
- **Decide who has which side**
- **Prepare an opening argument:** This may be written out or read from note cards but is more effective if delivered rather than read.

1. **Affirmative:** This needs to be a piece of persuasive writing outlining the goals to be met, the prediction, and the resolution.

2. **Negative:** This needs to call into doubt the workability of the prediction or propose a better solution than the resolution.

3. **Gathering Evidence:**

   (a) Someone should visit the library to make notes on facts that will support your position.

   (b) Conducting surveys may provide you with supporting opinions. It is not proof, but it is comforting to say 80% of participants agree that . . .

   (c) Expert witnesses. You may want to interview an expert. Since you did the interview, your opponent will have had no chance to prepare for this testimony. (Library sources are equally available to both sides.)

4. **Prepare an Outline for Cross-Examination.**

   (a) What questions will you want to ask? Who will ask which questions? For teams it might be worth while to designate one person expert on one aspect of the argument.

   (b) Who will answer which questions: You should cross examine each other as practice for the actual debate.

   (c) It may be wise to save some important facts or arguments to present in cross-examination.

5. **Organization time**: During Organization time the team confers to decide strategy for the next cross-ex period. Did the opponents do what you expected? How will you refute their arguments? Who will lead the questioning?

6. **Closing statements:** Have prepared before the debate an outline that summarizes your position and answers the anticipated arguments against it.

(a) Be able to insert into this outline any new points that have resulted from the debate.

(b) Be able to make this statement without a written speech.

APPENDIX B

Classroom Debate Rubric

	Levels of Performance			
Criteria	1	2	3	4
1. Organization and Clarity: viewpoints and responses are outlined both clearly and orderly.	Unclear in most parts	Clear in some parts but not over all	Most clear and orderly in all parts	Completely clear and orderly presentation
2. Use of Arguments: reasons are given to support viewpoint.	Few or no relevant reasons given	Some relevant reasons given	Most reasons given: most relevant	Most relevant reasons given in support
3. Use of Examples and Facts: examples and facts are given to support reasons.	Few or no relevant supporting examples/facts	Some relevant examples/facts given	Many examples/facts given: most relevant	Many relevant supporting examples and facts given
4. Use of Rebuttal: arguments made by the other teams are responded to and dealt with effectively.	No effective counter-arguments made	Few effective counter-arguments made	Some effective counter-arguments made	Many effective counter-arguments made
5. Presentation Style: tone of voice, use of gestures, and level of enthusiasm are convincing to audience.	Few style features were used; not convincingly	Few style features were used convincingly	All style features were used, most convincingly	All style features were used convincingly

APPENDIX C

Course Outline

NEU – Department of ELT Course Outline   Course Code:................. Instructor:...................

WEEK	DATES	MATERIALS	ACTIVITIES	NOTES
1	23 – 27 Feb	Introduction to the courses		
2	1 Mar – 5 Mar			
3	8 Mar – 12 Mar			
4	15 Mar – 19 Mar			
5	22 Mar – 26 Mar			
6	29 Mar – 2 Apr			
7	5 Apr – 9 Apr			
8	12 Apr – 16 Apr	Mid-Term Exam		
9	19 Apr – 22 Apr			
10	26 Apr – 30 Apr			
11	3 May – 7 May			
12	10 May – 14 May			

Assessment Breakdown		**Percentage (%)**
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

APPENDIX D

Direct Observation Assessment Criteria

SPEECH AND COMMUNICATION ASSESSMENT CRITERIA GROUP A Spring 2004			Week 1						Week 2						Week 3						Week 4						Week 5						Week 6					
NO	NUMBER	NAME	SURNAME	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation	Participation	Language Use	Communication Skills	Debating Skills	Critical Thinking	Organisation
1																																							
2																																							
3																																							
4																																							
5																																							
6																																							
7																																							
8																																							
9																																							
10																																							
11																																							
12																																							

Participation: Taking part in a debate

Language Use: Language (vocabulary, phrases, and terminology used in the booklet)

Communication Skills: Speaking, Listening, Understanding, Fluency, Clarity, Pronunciation

Debating Skills: Debating format, time concept, persuasive arguments, counter-attacks and discipline

Critical Thinking: Be alert, making critical analysis, research

5 **Very Good:** Confident, smooth speech with natural delivery

4 **Good:** Generally natural delivery; only occasional halting

3 **Adequate:** Has a rather haltering delivery but can maintain a flow of speech

2 **Poor:** Speech is slow, halting, and fragmented

1 **Inadequate:** Speaks too little

APPENDIX E

Focused Interviews

Student No. _	
1.	What did you learn from the debate? *(information, knowledge, language skills)*
2.	In what sense have you practiced critical thinking skills?
3.	Have debates improved your knowledge of the English language?
4.	Which/what skills did you practice during the debates?
5.	Would you use debates in the future? How?

Student No. _	
1.	What did you learn from the debate? *(information, knowledge, language skills)*
2.	In what sense have you practiced critical thinking skills?
3.	Have debates improved your knowledge of the English language?
4.	Which/what skills did you practice during the debates?
5.	Would you use debates in the future? How?

Student No. _	
1.	What did you learn from the debate? *(information, knowledge, language skills)*
2.	In what sense have you practiced critical thinking skills?
3.	Have debates improved your knowledge of the English language?
4.	Which/what skills did you practice during the debates?
5.	Would you use debates in the future? How?

APPENDIX F

Pre-Debate Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE ON DEBATES

The aim of this questionnaire is to determine the level of knowledge and experience each student has in relation to debates and the skills necessary (if any) required to conduct an effective debate.

Instructions: Please read each question carefully and then tick ☑ the appropriate box.

1. What is your sex?   Male ☐   Female ☐

2. What is your age?   ....

3. Do you know what a debate is?   Yes ☐   No ☐

If your answer is "yes" please answer questions 4-12.

4. Which word do you think best describes what a debate is?

Argument ☐   Discussion ☐   Dispute ☐   Contest ☐

5. Have you ever organised a debate?   Yes ☐   No ☐

6. What did you do?   ....
....
....
....

7. Have you ever taken part in a debate?   Yes ☐   No ☐

8. Have you ever watched a debate? Yes ☐ No ☐

9. Was the debate in English or Turkish? English ☐ Turkish ☐

10. Did you play an active part in the debate? Yes ☐ No ☐

11. Which of the following skills do you think is more important in order to conduct an effective debate?

Oral fluency ☐ Organisational ability ☐ Teamwork ☐ Research ☐

12. Would you be able to organise and conduct a debate? Yes ☐ No ☐

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

APPENDIX G

Pre-Debate Questionnaire Result Tables

	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Q 5	Q 6 (A)	Q 6 (B)	Q 7	Q 8	Q 9	Q 10
	1=Male 2=Female		1=Yes 2=No	1=Argument 2=Discussion 3=Dispute 4=Contest	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=English 2=Turkish	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=Oral Fluency 2=Organisational ability 3=Teamwork 4=Research

STUDENTS	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Q 5	Q 6 (A)	Q 6 (B)	Q 7	Q 8	Q 9	Q 10
Student 1	1	19	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	3
Student 2	2	20	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	3
Student 3	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Student 4	1	21	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	3
Student 5	2	21	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 6	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	4
Student 7	1	20	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	4
Student 8	1	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	3
Student 9	2	21	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
Student 10	2	21	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 11	2	20	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	4
Student 12	2	20	2		2	2		2	2	2	
Student 13	1	20	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	3
Student 14	2	20	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	
Student 15	2	20	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
Student 16	2	21	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	4
Student 17	1	19	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	4

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6(A)	Q6(B)	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10
Student 18	2	19	2		2	1	1	1		1	3
Student 19	2	20	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2
Student 20	1	25	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	3
Student 21	2	21	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	4
Student 22	2	19	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	4
Student 23	1	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1
Student 24	1	19	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 25	2	19	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
Student 26	2	19	2		2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Student 27	2	19	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
Student 28	1	26	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	2
Student 29	1	19		1	2	1	2	2	2	2	4
Student 30	1	20	1	2	2	2		2	2	2	2
Student 31	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	3
Student 32	1	20	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
Student 33	1	21	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 34	1	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	
Student 35	1	20	1	1	2	2		2	1	2	3
Student 36	1	21	1	1	2			2	1	2	3
Student 37	1	20	1	1	2	2		2	1	1	3
Student 38	1	21	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	1
Student 39	1	20	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	4
Student 40	1	24	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	3
Student 41	1	21	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 42	2	19	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 43	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	1

	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Q 5	Q 6 (A)	Q 6 (B)	Q 7	Q 8	Q 9	Q 10
Student 44	2	20	1	4	2	1	2	2	2		4
Student 45	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
Student 46	2	19	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 47	2	18	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
Student 48	2	20	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	4
Student 49	2	21	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 50	2	20	1	2	1	1	2	1	1		2
Student 51	1	19	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2
Student 52	1	21	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2
Student 53	2	20	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3
Student 54	2	21	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
Student 55	1	20	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
Student 56	1	19	2	3	2	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 57	1	19	2		2	2		2	2	2	3
Student 58	1	22	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 59	2	18	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 60	2	22	1	1	1	1		1	1	2	3
Student 61	2	20	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	4
Student 62	2	18	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	4
Student 63	2	18	1	1	1	1	2	1	1		1
Student 64	2	19	1	4	2	1	2	2	2	2	3

APPENDIX H

DECODING AND TRANSCRIPTION OF PRE-DEBATE QUESTIONNAIRE IN PERCENTAGES

Question 1	Gender
Question 2	Age
Question 3	Do you know what a debate is?
Question 4	Which word do you think best describes what a debate is?
Question 5	Have you ever organized a debate?
Question 6 (A)	Have you ever watched a debate?
Question 6 (B)	Was the debate in Turkish or English?
Question 7	Have you ever taken part in a debate?
Question 8	Would you be able to organise and conduct a debate?
Question 9	Have you heard of the term "Critical Thinking"?
Question 10	Which of the following skills do you think is more important in order to conduct an effective debate?

Answer 1	**Female**; 36 Students; 56% - **Male**; 28 Students; 44%
Answer 2	**Average**: - 20
Answer 3	**Yes**; 55 Students; 85% - **No**; 8 Students; 13% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 1 Student; 2%
Answer 4	**Argument**; 34 Students; 53% - **Discussion**; 23 Students; 36% - **Dispute**; 1 Student; 2% - **Contest**; 2 Students; 3% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 4 Students; 6%
Answer 5	**Yes**; 9 Students; 14% - **No**; 55 Students; 86%
Answer 6 (A)	**Yes**; 56 Students; 87% - **No**; 7 Students; 11% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 1 Student ; 2%
Answer 6 (B)	**English**; 3 Students; 5% - **Turkish**; 54 Students; 84% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 7 Students; 11%
Answer 7	**Yes**; 33 Students; 52% - **No**; 31 Students; 48%
Answer 8	**Yes**; 25 Students; 39% - **No**; 38 Students; 59% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 1 Student; 2%
Answer 9	**Yes**; 9 Students; 14% - **No**; 52 Students; 81% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 3 Students; 5%
Answer 10	**Oral Fluency**; 7 Students; 11% - **Organisational Ability**; 9 Students; 14% - **Teamwork**; 27 Students; 42% - **Research**; 18 Students; 28% - **No Answer (Blank)**; 3 Students; 5%

APPENDIX I

Processing of Post Debate Interviews in Percentages

What Students Learned from the Debate		
What Students Learned from the Debate	**Percentage of Students**	**Number of Students**
Improved Speaking Skills	92%	59
Asking and Answering questions	73%	47
Teamwork, Leadership Skills and Sharing Responsibilities	53%	34
Improved Listening and Note Taking Skills	47%	30
How to do a research	39%	25
Improved Vocabulary	31%	20
Improved confidence	25%	16
Improved Grammar	23%	15
Persuading people	16%	10
Critical Thinking	9%	6
Essential part of academic life	5%	3
How to use my brain and mouth	3%	2

Critical Thinking Skills and Debates		
Critical Thinking Skills and Debates	**Percentage of Students**	**Number of Students**
Asking and answering questions	91%	58
Speaking fluently and effectively	45%	29
Defending an argument as a team	25%	16
Taking Notes	20%	13
Improved research abilities	11%	7
No comment	9%	6
Finding faults of the opposite team	8%	5
Improved Vocabulary	6%	4
Conducting correct sentences	2%	1

Debates and knowledge of the English Language

Debates and knowledge of the English Language	Percentage of Students	Number of Students
Yes	98%	63
Improved Speaking Ability	72%	46
Improved Vocabulary	67%	43
Improved Grammar	39%	25
Improved Listening Skills	6%	4
Improved Thinking Skills	6%	4
Improved Pronunciation	5%	3
No	2%	1

Skills Practiced during the Debates

Skills Practiced during the Debates	Percentage of Students	Number of Students
Speaking Skills	92%	59
Teamwork and Leadership Skills	63%	40
Note Taking and Listening Skills	48%	31
Asking and answering questions	38%	24
Critical Thinking Skills	34%	22
Organisational Ability	8%	5
Research Skills	6%	4
Reading Skills	6%	4
Grammar Skills	2%	1

Using Debates in the Future

Using Debates in the Future	Percentage of Students	Number of Students
Yes	92%	59
When I become a teacher	45%	29
In my School (in class)	41%	26
Organizing two teams	33%	21
Giving them a topic to choose	23%	15
Teach the debate rules	17%	11
Using the debate booklet	9%	6
No	8%	5
I don't know how	8%	5
Using visual aids	6%	4
In our daily life	5%	3

APPENDIX J

DEBATE BOOKLET

NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

Department of English Language Teaching

SPEECH AND COMMUNICATION

THE ART OF DEBATING

Prepared by: AYDIN BEYZADE

NICOSIA - 2004

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEBATE MODULE COURSE DESCRIPTION

The debate module is an introduction to some of the skills and techniques of debating. Debating is an essential part of academic life. Instruction and practice in debating are included in the curricula of most high schools and universities in many countries. Debating requires the development of critical thinking skills. You cannot participate in a debate without analysing your own arguments and those of your opponents.

Debate requires research into and the organisation of argumentation. To be able to debate effectively, you need hard facts; you also need to marshal these facts into effective arguments. There is opportunity to explore issues through reading texts which are critically evaluated in terms of use of fact, opinion, argument and use of evidence.

Debate sharpens your ability to foresee and meet challenge. When you present your argument, your opponents will be looking at ways of finding fault with it. Successful debaters learn to anticipate areas of hostile questioning and have answers ready.

Team debating requires teamwork and co-ordination. Everybody in the team contributes to the research, formulation of argument and development of debating strategy. Everybody takes part in the debate both as a proposer and questioner. All this requires teamwork and co-ordination.

Debating skills enable professionals to influence decisions in a well organised and well mannered way. In professional life, many important decisions are taken in committee meetings. It is important not only to show you have the correct answers but also to show that you can present them clearly and logically in the time ascribed.

The discipline of debate is a mirror of democracy. Democracy is not about "he who shouts loudest wins". In civilised societies, we have to learn to listen and to respect the views of others and accept the majority decision, in the boardroom, departmental meeting, and in the classroom.

This is an opportunity for you to express yourself in an important topic in English. As students you need as much practice in effective speaking as possible. In the debate situation, you have the opportunity to speak to, to interact with, and eventually persuade a roomful of people.

1. THE HISTORY OF DEBATE

Debate is an essential activity in democratic societies. More than two thousand years ago, when democracy first flourished in Athens, citizens met regularly in public assemblies. Their votes determined the policy and the actions of the state. They decided whether Athens should go to war, how it should fight; they created laws which directed the course of daily life for citizens. But their votes were always preceded by debate: citizens and leaders argued about what was right. They argued about what was morally right and legally right; they argued about the best way to achieve a desired outcome, they argued about what was possible, and what was prudent.

Today, debate is still essential to democracy. The democratic process has changed, since modern countries are much larger in population and in geographical size than in ancient Athens -- but debates continue. Some debates are conducted in legislative assemblies; some are held in lecture halls and public arenas; some are presented in schools and universities; some may be read in the columns of magazines and newspapers, or heard on radio or television. Like their predecessor from earlier centuries, citizens argue about what is best for their societies, and shape the course of law, policy, and action.

Educators as well as investigators debate the soundness of conclusions. Those participating in discussion will often use debate when discussing "What is the best solution?" In any phase of life, when confronted with solving problems, people will often find debate a superior method of testing solutions in order to discover the best.

2. DEBATE FORMAT

An ESOL debate format can be outlined as follows:

Opening Statement	Minutes
Affirmative team presents general introduction	1
Negative team presents general introduction	1

Major Arguments	
Affirmative Team states first argument	2
▪ (Negative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Negative Team states first argument	2
▪ (Affirmative team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Affirmative Team states second argument	2
▪ (Negative team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Negative Team states second argument	2
▪ (Affirmative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Affirmative Team states third argument	2
▪ (Negative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Negative Team states third argument	2
▪ (Affirmative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Affirmative Team states fourth argument	2
▪ (Negative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1
Negative Team states fourth argument	2
▪ (Affirmative Team asks questions or gives rebuttal)	1

Question Preview	
(2-minute break to prepare questions)	2
Affirmative Team asks two initial questions	2
• (Negative Team asks comprehension questions)	
Negative Team asks two initial questions	2
• (Affirmative Team asks comprehension questions)	

Cross-Examination	
(3-minute break to prepare responses)	3
Affirmative Team answers questions	4
• (Negative Team challenges with follow-up questions)	
Negative Team answers questions	4
• (Affirmative Team challenges with follow-up questions)	

Closing Statement	
(3-minute break to prepare statements)	3
Affirmative Team presents closing statement	1
Negative Team presents closing statement	1

Figure 1: ESOL Debate Format (TESOL Journal, 2003)

Debate Format was designed to encourage cooperation and teamwork. The debaters work together in teams of three and prepare to debate both sides of an issue. The debate format is as follows:

Resolution: Capital punishment should be abolished.
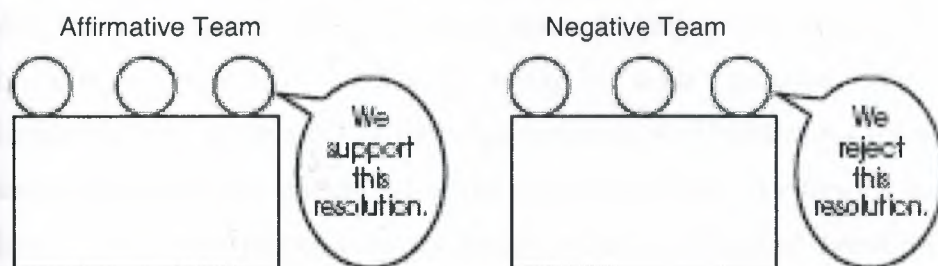
- ➤ One or more team members presents the team's position and a brief overview of its arguments.
- ➤ Each team member presents one major argument.
- ➤ Each team member is chief note taker and respondent for one opposition argument.
- ➤ All team members are assigned to ask and answer questions during cross-examination.
- ➤ One or more team members presents a closing statement.

Figure 2: Debate Format (TESOL Journal, 2003)

The opening statements and major arguments are prepared beforehand. Immediately following each major argument presentation, the opposing team has time to ask questions or respond. Comprehension questions seeking explanations of vocabulary or concepts are common during these questioning periods. In the following transcript, members of the negative team begin questioning in order to find out if their understanding of the stated argument is correct.

Resolved: Doctors should be required to tell patients if the patients are dying.

N2: Everyone want to know the disease? Ah, their condition? (Questioning)

A2: Not, not everyone. (Clarifying)

N2: Thank you. [laughing] (Evaluating)

A1: Not every patient. Most of the patient. Do you understand this meaning? [Negative team members nod, yes] (Clarifying, Defending, Persuading)

N3: Not mo most of the people wanna know ah, want to know right. Everyone has right to know but not everyone want to know about health condition if they have the terminal illness. [timer sounds] (Restating, Challenging, Persuading)

Figure 3: Transcript of major argument questions (TESOL Journal, 2003)

The main point of the argument was that everyone diagnosed as terminally ill would want their doctor to inform them. The interaction begins with student N2 questioning the Affirmative argument. The question is answered with a brief statement of clarification that is immediately evaluated by N2 as favouring his team's position, only to have it challenged immediately by student N3 of the Negative team, who restates his team's position. Sensing a successful challenge, student A1 of the affirmative Team clarifies his team's position, only to have it challenged immediately by student N3 of the Negative Team, who restates his team's position.

Later during the cross-examination, the Negative Team continues this line of questioning and links it to their definition of the word *require* that is used in the resolution. The cross-examination exchange in the second transcript begins with a question, followed by a response. After this, the participants seek to gain advantage by using skills such as defining, clarifying, challenging, and persuading.

Resolved: Doctors should be required to tell patients if the patients are dying.

N3: Do you know what require means? (Questioning)

A3: Yes I know. (Responding)

N1: Required means ... if it is required you must do. It's anyway 100%. (Clarifying, Defining, Proving)

N3: You said, you said all people want to know about disease or condition. Right? (Challenging)

A1: But patient also have the right to refuse to know their condition and their disease or treatment. (Explaining, Justifying)

N3: No, you said you ah, I'm asking you again ah, before you said yes. But we have some data for not every people want to know about health condition. (Challenging)

A1: Every patient have the right to know their disease and condition but patient can refuse to know.

(Explaining, Defending, Persuading)

N3: You know this resolution? Doctors should be required to tell patients if the patient are dying. You know that meaning? 100% people. Doctor must to say ah you'll die or you are terminal ill. (Clarifying, Proving)

Figure 4: A transcript of a cross-examination exchange (TESOL Journal, 2003)

These transcripts clearly illustrate many of the speaking, listening, critical thinking, and group work skills that can be enhanced by debating.

The skill of debating can be divided into various sub skills that are useful in the management environment.

Debating	Management
Reading both academic texts and current affairs journals. Understanding advanced vocabulary. Identifying important points. Identifying fact and opinion. Identifying argument for and against a topic. Assimilating ideas for your own use.	Good reading ability is a useful skill for any educated person. These debating skills also promote the ability to analyse problems. Understand different viewpoints and think critically. Good managers must be able to do all these in order to solve problems and make reasoned decisions.
Teamwork	Teamwork
Sharing and delegating responsibility. Cooperating to meet a common goal. Planning and organising. Meeting deadlines. Supporting your group even if you don't totally agree with the issue, in order to achieve common success.	All these teamwork skills are crucial for a good manager both for working with peers or when supervising employees.
Listening	Listening
Listening both critically and attentively to an oral argument in order to use the information for your own purposes.	In the real world a manager should be a good listener in order to be able to communicate effectively and to make reasoned decisions and solve problems.
Argument	Argument
Being able to build an argument. Being able to persuade. Being able to predict the oppositions attack	Quick critical thinking together with good speaking skills are crucial for managers who need to express themselves in many situations

and prepare for it. Being able to defend a point of view. Being able to criticise a viewpoint. Being able to make a quick response to an unexpected criticism. Being able to speak fluently even while under pressure.	(sometimes hostile) from business meetings to dealing with employees and customers.
Oral Presentation Skills Good body language and gesturing. Eye contact. Voice projection.	**Oral Presentation Skills** Managers will often be in situations where they need to speak in front of large groups of people both for formal and informal occasions.

In short debating improves:

1. Leadership skills
2. Teamwork ability
3. Critical thinking
4. Critical listening
5. Critical reading
6. Organisational ability
7. Oral fluency

3. REASONS FOR DEBATE

There are many reasons why people debate. The most important reason is to make the best possible decision about a plan. How can we arrive at the best decision? We want to hear a best possible defense of the plan and best possible attack against the plan before we decide. If someone tries his best to find reasons for the plan and another tries her best to find reasons against the plan, we will be able to hear good information for our decision. If they try to attack and defend each other's arguments, we will be able to hear better reasons for our decision.

Debating can take time and effort. Millions of students have, through the years, found that it is more than worth it.

- **Debating is fun.** You debate with a partner and against other students. You and your team at school become a debate squad, a community, where you work for and with each other to win. You will make friends and meet lots of interesting new people. You will engage in thrilling contests and could possibly travel outside of your school.

- **Debating is a sport of the mind and voice.** You compete using your brain and your mouth. You have a chance to win and even when you don't win you learn. Unlike some sports, where you need to be fast, tall, big, or something else physical, debate is for everyone. You don't have to be book-smart or test-smart to be a good debater. If you feel you can learn and if you think you are clever, debate is for you. Even if you don't think you are talented in any special way, debate can improve the abilities you already have.

- **Debating is controlled by you.** You get to speak, you get to pick the arguments, and you get to use your strategy. Instead of being told what to do and told what to study, in debate you can create your own learning project and follow ideas and issues which interest you.

- **Debating creates the skills you need for success.** Studies show that employers and colleges are looking for students with oral communication skills, and debate is based on developing oral communication skills. Studies also show that those with good oral communication skills are identified as "leaders" by others and get promoted faster on the job. Unlike some activities and areas of study, debating will help you succeed wherever your life may lead you.

- **Debate can give you the power to change things.** Things need changing, and your voice can be a powerful instrument for change -- in your school, in your community, in your nation, in the world.

4. STAGING A DEBATE

4.1 Setting

Debaters sit in front of the room facing the audience and the judges. The two teams may slightly face each other as well. The chairman and timekeeper are seated near the judges or wherever convenient.

When a debater gives a speech, he/she usually stands up either at their seat or at the podium in the center. In the cross-examination period, the examinee usually remains in the position where he/she gave a speech and the examiner stands up where he/she is sitting. The examiner may also stand side by side with the examinee.
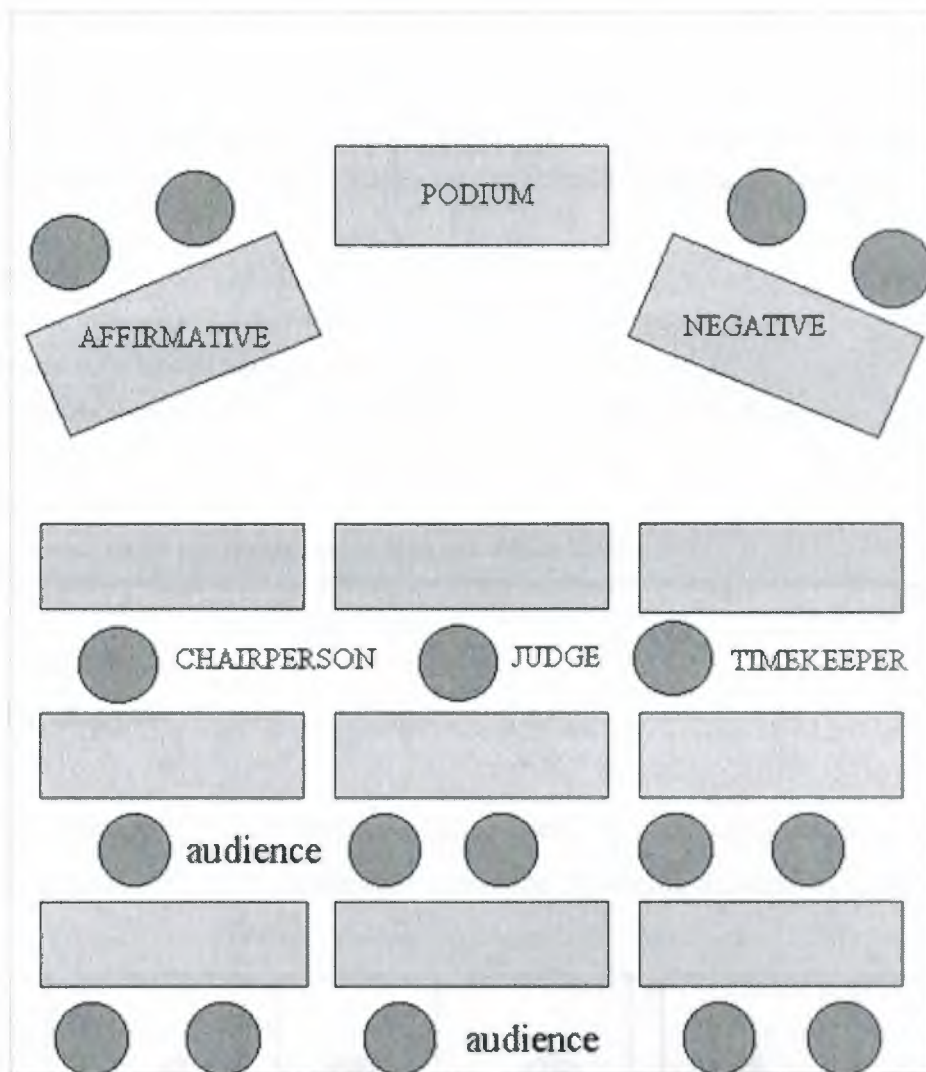
A Typical Setting of Debate

Figure 5: A Typical Debate Setting (Inoue,1997)

4.2 The Chairperson

A chairperson's job can be shared either by judge(s) or timekeeper(s). The chairperson opens the debate, introduces the debaters, calls for speeches, and closes the debate. The chairperson may want to explain special rules which the debaters and/or audience are not familiar with.

<u>Example of Chairperson's Words:</u>

Good morning, ladies and gentlemen. My name is _____. It is my pleasure to chair the debate under the proposition that: "_____." The affirmative speakers are _____ and _____. On the negative side, we have _____ and _____.

[optional]
We would like the debaters to introduce themselves briefly. From the affirmative side,please....
Now, we would like to start the debate by hearing the first affirmative constructive speech.

[other expressions]
After preparation time, we will welcome the second negative rebuttal speech. The time limitation is 3 minutes.
The next speaker is the second negative constructive speaker.
The first affirmative speaker will be cross-examined by one of the negative speakers.

[When the last speaker finishes:]
The debate is over. Thank you for both sides. The next debate starts ....

4.3 The Timekeeper

The timekeeper tracks the time of each speaking period and preparation time of both sides. For speaking time, the timekeeper shows the remaining minutes by using cards like:

5 4 3 2 1 1/2
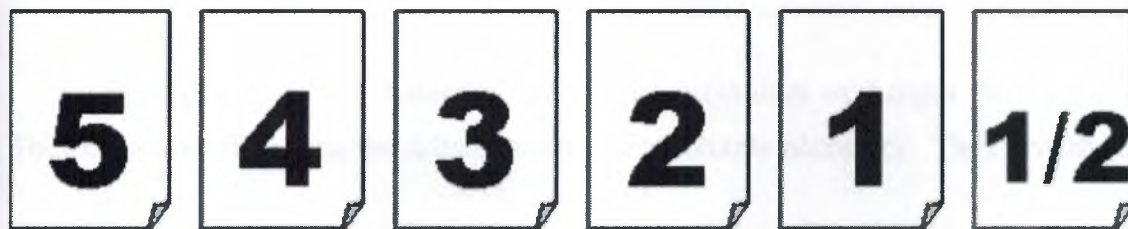
If the cards are not used, the timekeeper gives the remaining time orally by saying "three minutes" or "30 seconds." When the speaker runs out of time, the timekeeper declares: "Time (is up)." etc.

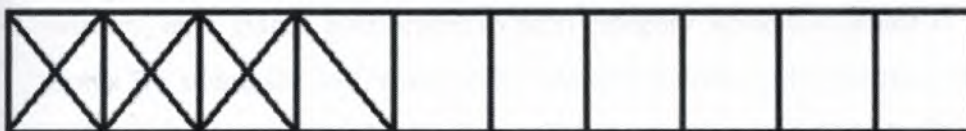The timekeeper also keeps records of how much preparation time each team spent before its speech or cross-examination. Before cross-examination, the preparation time is used of the team which is to ask questions. The timekeeper can use charts to keep track of the consumption of preparation time as in:

Affirmative:

Negative:

The above charts show that the affirmative team has used 3 minutes 30 seconds, and the negative team has used 4 minutes 12 seconds. If necessary (and available), the timekeeper can use separate stopwatches to measure speaking time and preparation time. When a team uses up all the preparation time, the timekeeper tells the team that it has no more preparation time left.

4.4 Judges

Judges in academic debate have two functions:
- deciding the winner of the round and
- giving critiques (feedback/comments/advice) to the debaters.

Judges listen to all the speeches and cross-examination exchanges during the debate. They do not interfere with the debate unless it is absolutely necessary. They give the decision

after the debate. They give oral/written feedback about debaters' skills and issues/arguments in the debate, so that the debaters and audience members learn more from the debate.

The decision of the debate is usually based on the quality of the arguments presented in the debate. Judges ask themselves if the affirmative team has proven that the proposition is probably true. If the affirmative was successful in doing so, it wins the debate. Otherwise, the negative wins the debate. There is no tie. If there are several judges in the round (usually an odd number), they will individually decide the winner and the team with the majority votes wins the debate.

If there is a ballot sheet with analytical categories such as analysis, evidence, reasoning, delivery, etc., judges give scores to each category while the debate is in progress. The total scores are added for each team at the end of the debate. Judges may award the winner either based on or regardless of the scores. These scores are used for feedback and sometimes for other purposes (selecting the finalists in a contest or top debaters).

In making the decision, judges must only consider what the debaters say in the debate. They must disregard their personal opinion about the proposition or other issues in the debate. They must believe debaters' arguments as long as they are supported by a reasonable amount of evidence and sound reasoning even if judges themselves do not personally believe them.

In written or oral feedback, judges must give clear explanation why they voted for the affirmative or the negative. In other words, they must be able to justify their decision. They also give advice to the debaters. For example:

Example of Judge's Critique (Comments):

> I voted for the affirmative team for the following reasons:
>
> 1. The affirmative demonstrated a clear advantage of the plan. It would probably save more than 10,000 people every year. The negative team did not challenge the importance of this advantage.
>
> 2. The practicality of the plan was weakened because of the negative attacks: (1) the technology of ____ was

still in the experimental stage; (2) it might be difficult to find some of the patients. But those points would not seriously weakened the plan. The practicality of the plan in general was demonstrated by the two pieces of evidence in the second affirmative constructive speech.

3. Disadvantage 1 (_____) was shown not unique to the affirmative plan by the second affirmative constructive speaker. Her second and third responses about this point were persuasive. The negative team failed to refute this point in later speeches. [This means that Disadvantage 1 would occur whether the affirmative plan was adopted. Therefore, it cannot be the reason to reject the affirmative plan.]

4. Disadvantage 2 (risk of economic damage) was successfully defended by the negative team.

5. In the end, I found that the affirmative plan would save at least 10,000 people a year but it would also produce some economic damage. The second affirmative speaker effectively showed that the advantage of saving people was more important than a possible economic damage. The negative team was weak in demonstrating the certainty and the magnitude of the economic loss (the evidence in the second rebuttal was weakened by the following cross-examination; the negative did not give any further evidence).

I have several pieces of advice to the debaters:

1. The first affirmative constructive speech was well written in terms of organization. They had easy-to-remember headings and the flow of arguments was straightforward. But some of the quotations were too long. For example, Mr. __'s statement can be shortened by omitting ....

2. The negative team made a strategic mistake in the first rebuttal by saying ....

5. DEBATE PROCEDURE

This is the basic procedure of a debate but this can vary depending on the circumstances.

	AFFIRMATIVE TEAM (+)		NEGATIVE TEAM (-)
A.	Speaker 1 Introduces and defines the topic Gives the 1st argument FOR	B.	Speaker 1 Rebuts (+) speaker 1 Gives the 1st argument AGAINST

C.	Speaker 2 Defends (+) speaker 1 Rebuts (-) speaker 1 Gives the 2nd argument FOR	D.	Speaker 2 Defends (-) speaker 1 Rebuts (+) speaker 2 Gives the 2nd argument AGAINST
E.	Speaker 3 Defends (+) speaker 2 Rebuts (-) speaker 2 Gives 3rd argument FOR	F.	Speaker 3 Defends (-) speaker 2 Rebuts (+) speaker 3 Gives the 3rd argument AGAINST
G.	Speaker 4 Defends (+) speaker 3 Rebuts (-) speaker 3 Sums up the team's case	H.	Speaker 4 Defends (-) speaker 3 Attacks the (+) team's case Sum up

5.1 Duties of Speakers

The following outline of speaker duties may work in a policy debate.

1AC

To give the roadmap of the affirmative speeches.

To define terms.

To give a specific plan.

  agent; actions; availability of resources (technology, manpower, etc.)

To establish major contentions of the affirmative.

  e.g.

   (1) To identify the problem(s)

      To show how serious the problems are.

      To show why the present system cannot solve the problems.

      To show how the plan would solve the problems.

   (2) To show how the plan would produce advantage(s).

      To show why the present system cannot produce the advantages.

      To show how important the advantages are.

1NC

To give the roadmap of the negative speeches.

To challenge the Affirmative Team's definition of the term(s), if necessary.

To establish major issues of the negative.

e.g.

    (1) To show that one or more of the affirmative contentions are not true.

    (2) To show that there would be serious disadvantages from the affirmative plan.

        To show how the plan would produce the disadvantages.

        To show that the present system will not produce those disadvantages.

        To show that the disadvantages are serious.

    (3) To show that a counterplan would solve the problems better than the plan.

        To show the details of the counterplan.

        To show that the counterplan is outside the proposition.

        To show that the counterplan and the plan cannot be adopted at the same time.

        To show how the counterplan would solve the problem.

        To show that the counterplan is better than the plan.

2AC

To refute the negative contentions.

To rebuild the affirmative contentions that the negative attacked.

To reinforce the affirmative contentions that the negative ignored.

2NC

To give the roadmap of the 2NC and 1NR.

To refute new affirmative contentions or those the 1NC did not refute.

To rebuild the original negative contentions that the affirmative attacked.

1NR

To refute and rebuild the issues presented in the constructive speeches.

1AR

To refute and rebuild the issues presented in the constructive speeches.

2NR

To summarize the debate to show that the negative is winning.

2AR

To summarize the debate to show that the affirmative is winning.

Students taking a stand use the following debate structure for each speech:

Table 1: Debate diagram

FA Constructive	FN Constructive	SA Rebuttal	SN Rebuttal
Introduction: "You should *support* the resolution which reads…"	Introduction: "You should *fail* the resolution which reads…"	Introduction: "I respectfully disagree with my opponent. This resolution should pass…"	Introduction: "I respectfully disagree with my opponent. This resolution should fail…"
Reasons: "You should support the resolution for THREE main reasons…"	Reasons: "You should fail the resolutions for THREE main reasons…"	Rebuttal: "My opponent stated X reasons against this resolution. I disagree with the Negative for THREE main reasons…"	Rebuttal: "My opponent stated X reasons against this resolution. I disagree with the Affirmative for THREE main reasons…"
Conclusion: "In conclusion, I urge you the pass the resolution which reads….for these three reasons…"	Conclusion: "In conclusion, I urge you to fail the resolution which reads…for these three reasons…"	Conclusion: -Restate resolution -Restate THREE reasons -Urge passage of resolution	Conclusion: -Restate resolution -Restate THREE reasons -Urge failure of resolution

5.2 Writing Up Manuscripts

Use simple English.

Do not write a complete Turkish draft and translate it into English. You can write a very complicated speech in Turkish, and it is difficult to translate it into English. Even if you can translate, the translated speech is very difficult for the audience to understand.

Use signposts.

Use your outline to identify major points. Use numbers and labels (headings) of arguments. You may want to repeat important labels so that the audience may not miss them.

Introduction and conclusion should be short.

Like other speeches, debate speeches should consist of an introduction, body, and conclusion. In academic debate, the introduction and conclusion should be short and concise because time is limited and the participants in the debate are supposed to know the topic very well.

The introduction should include the statement of the team's position (affirming or negating the proposition) and preview of major arguments.

The conclusion should include a summary of major arguments. If possible, you can add a strong concluding remark to impress the audience.

Give references.

If you use external evidence to support your points (you should do that), do not forget to write the sources of information. You may want to mention the author(s), their qualifications, the title of publication (title of a book, article, etc.), and publishing date. You may not read all of them but must be prepared to give them.

5.3 Preparing Briefs

Briefs are prefabricated parts of speeches so that the speaker can prepare a speech by combining them on the spot. Debaters must anticipate arguments from the opposition and prepare for possible responses as a form of brief. They can also prepare for possible strengthening of their own arguments.

Sample Brief 1

Resolved: That private high schools are better than public high schools.

This brief for the affirmative team simply adds an additional reason why private

schools are better. It can also be used to respond to any negative argument that indicate shortcomings of private schools; the affirmative can say private schools can change themselves to fix those shortcomings.

> Private schools are ready to change.
>
> The Asahi Shimbun, March 16, 1989 reports many changes in private schools in order to improve their images. They include changing school names, uniforms, and school mottoes.
>
> This evidence shows that private schools can change in order to meet the changing need of the society. Therefore, private schools are better than public schools.

Sample Brief 2

Resolved: That private high schools are better than public high schools.

This brief for the affirmative team is to respond to a negative argument that public schools are more economical than private schools. It is difficult for the affirmative to deny that argument but possible to reduce its impact.

> Difference of fees is small.
>
> The difference of fees between private and public school is small in the total money parents spend on education.
>
> 1. The difference is about 1,000,000 yen for three years. According to the Ministry of Education's statistics in 1991, the total expenses parents pay are about 310,000 yen in public high schools and 640,000 yen in private schools. The difference is 330,000 yen a year. That makes 1,000,000 yen in three years.
>
> 2. The total money parents spend on one child from birth to university graduation is 24,000,000 to 60,000,000 yen. This information comes from a study done by AIU Insurance,

> reported in the Asahi Shimbun, April 6, 1991.
>
> Therefore, the difference of private and public high school is about 1.7 to 4% of the total money for one child.
>
> If a child goes to a public high school and then to a private medical school, the parents must pay much more than a case in which a child goes to a private high school. Therefore, the difference is not important.

5.4 Presenting Speeches (Delivery)

Reading Manuscripts

Speak loud enough so that everyone in the room can hear you.

If you have a microphone adjust your voice accordingly.

You don't need to memorize your speech but practice a number of times so that you can read your draft smoothly.

Do not speak too fast.

Visuals

You can show graphs and illustrations (and other visuals) to help the audience understand your speech. If you have a lot of numbers, they can be shown as tables and graphs. If you have a complicated system, they can be illustrated with a diagram. Visuals are "aids" to speeches not speeches by themselves. Make them easy to see (simple, big enough, etc.). Do not overcrowd them with too much information.

6. BUILDING AND REBUTTING AN ARGUMENT

Once an argument is presented in debate, it is subject to attack and defense or refutation and rebuttal.

6.1 Flowsheet

A flowsheet can be used during preparation of arguments. You can plan the progress of arguments in advance. A flowsheet can also be used during the presentation of debate; when you listen to speeches (both your own team's and the opponent's) you must take notes in a flowsheet. Before you stand up and give a speech, you must plan your arguments and jot them down on the flowsheet.

A Sample of Part of a Flowsheet

Resolved: That Japan should introduce a jury system in its court of law.

1AC	1NC	2AC	2NC/1NR	1AR	2NR	2AR
II. jury is good A. jury is neutral ev. XXXX	biased 1. believe in police ev. XXX 2. assume guilty ev. XXX	1. ev. biased 2. they believe lawyers	-------->	jury is neutral	-------->	neutrality jury is betterthan judges
B. jury is logical ev. XXXX	people are emotional	logical Dr. Tanaka 89 Okinawa made logical decisions	cannot generalize	neg. no reason Okinawa people are Jpn.	educated by Americans Jpn not logical	not true no difference Jpn. and Okinawa

Remember you have a lot to say in a limited time so in order to get your message across as convincingly as possible:

➤ Be concise
➤ Be clear
➤ Be organised
➤ Be ready to give evidence for all your points

6.2 Rebuttals

Most debaters, coaches, and judges would agree that rebuttals are the most difficult and yet the most important parts of the debate. Not only is there less time within each speech, but each debater has to sort through all of the issues to determine which ones are the most important ones! What a debater does or does not do in rebuttals will decide who wins the debate. Very few debaters (especially beginners) can hope to extend everything that happened in the constructive speeches. Debaters don't have to do that and just because a team may have dropped a point or an argument is not an automatic reason to vote against that team. What matters is the type of argument that is extended or dropped in rebuttals; this will determine the winner of the round.

Think about these four issues when rebuttals happen:

1. Which arguments have more weight at the end of the round?
2. Which outcomes (disadvantages, counterplans) are more likely given lots of internal links?
3. What about time frame; what happens first?
4. What about the quality of evidence?

HERE ARE SOME OTHER HELPFUL HINTS:

1. Avoid repetition. Don't just repeat your constructive arguments. Beat the other team's arguments and tell the judge why your arguments are better.
2. Don't avoid what the other team said. You must clash directly with their responses.
3. Avoid reading evidence only. You must be explaining and telling the judge why these issues win the debate.
4. Avoid rereading evidence that has already been read in constructives. You can make reference to it by referring to it but don't re-read it.
5. Don't try to go for everything. You can't make 12 responses to each argument in a few minutes.
6. Be organized. Don't jump from issue to issue at random.
7. Speak quickly but not beyond your ability. If you speak too fast, you will stumble and not get through as much.
8. Don't whine to the judge about fairness or what the other team might have done that you think is unethical. Make responses and beat them.

9.   Don't make new arguments. You can read new evidence but you can't run new disadvantages or topicality responses.

10. Use signposting. Make sure the judge knows where you are on the flowsheet.

11. Organize your arguments into issue packages. Choose arguments which you want to win. Don't go for everything. Extend those arguments that you need to win.

12. Cross-apply arguments. If you dropped an argument in a prior speech that you think was important don't act like you're losing. Cross-apply arguments you made somewhere else in the debate to answer it.

7. LEARN TO BUILD AN OUTLINE

When you build arguments and advocacy positions in a debate, it is important to remember basic outlining techniques.

Major Points

Divide your ideas up under major headings. Make sure that the major points are distinct from one another. If an idea is unavoidable and vital in coming to the conclusion you want, it should be included as a major point. Put major points in the proper chronological order: causes before effects, background before conclusions, etc. The statement of the major point should be something which all of the points shown under it are relevant to.

Subordination

Within each major point you can show all of the specific points which support the major idea. Some of these will naturally group together into further subgroups. This sorting of ideas is critical to debate success and to becoming a critical thinker.

Notation

Outlines (and debate arguments) have letter and number alternations so that one level of substructure can be differentiated from another. Major points are often expressed with roman numerals (I, II, III, IV, etc.), subtopics of major points are letters (A, B, C, D, etc.), and particulars about subtopics are numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, etc.). It takes two

particular ideas to begin a subdivision of any point, or else the single subdivision would be the more general point. You need a B to justify an A, and a 2 to justify a 1.

Example:

I. Major point that you are making

    A. Subtopic in support of I.

    B. Another subtopic in support of I.

        1. Specific point about B.

        2. Another specific point about B.

II. Another major point you are making.

    A. Subtopic in support of II.

    B. Another subtopic in support of II.

7.1 Outline of a Debate

Many of the words identified in **bold** will be concepts you will need to learn more about as you get deeper into debating. There is a glossary of terms at the end of this booklet.

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (1AC)

5 minutes

Establishes affirmatives advocacy of resolution.

There is a problem that could be solved **- SIGNIFICANCE, HARM, ADVANTAGE**

The status quo isn't going to solve this problem without change - **INHERENCY**

Here is our specific proposal of what ought to be done - **PLAN**

Our plan will solve the problem/harm - **SOLVENCY**

SECOND NEGATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 1AC

2 minutes

Ask questions to help you understand their arguments. GET INFORMATION

Ask questions to set up your arguments to come. USE ANSWERS AGAINST THEM LATER

Show the judge what a wonderful person you are. ACT LIKE A POLITE, FRIENDLY PERSON.

FIRST NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (1NC)

5 minutes

Attacks affirmative and begins laying out additional issues negative

Make arguments against the specifics of the aff case. **CASE ARGUMENTS.**

Argue that if the plan is adopted, bad things will happen. **DISADVANTAGES.**

Argue that the fundamental assumptions of the affirmative are flawed/incorrect. **CRITIQUE.**

Argue that the plan is not a representation of the topic. **TOPICALITY.**

Argue that there would be a better alternative to the plan. **COUNTERPLAN**

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 1NC

2 minutes

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (2AC)

5 minutes

Defend aff positions, attack negative positions, last chance to introduce new issues for aff.

Argue that the disadvantages are really reasons to vote affirmative. **TURNS.**

Argue that the counterplan and the affirmative plan can co-exist. **PERMUTATIONS.**

FIRST NEGATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 2AC

2 minutes

SECOND NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (2NC)

5 minutes

Attack aff positions, defend negative positions, last chance to introduce new issues for the neg.

2NC and 1NR should cover different issues. **DIVISION OF LABOR.**

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 2NC

2 minutes

FIRST NEGATIVE REBUTTAL (1NR)

3 minutes

Attack aff positions, defend neg positions. . **DIVISION OF LABOR.**

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL (1AR)

3 minutes

Answer all neg issues, defend aff positions.

SECOND NEGATIVE REBUTTAL (2NR)

3 minutes

Select winning issues and sell them to critic. **WEIGH THE ISSUES.**

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL (2AR)

3 minutes

Select winning issues and sell them to critic. **WEIGH THE ISSUES.**

Teams are given a total of 5-10 minutes prep time to use before their speeches. It is different at different tournaments.

Shake Hands. See if the judge has any comments.

8. CROSS EXAMINATION

The cross-examination period of a debate is a time when the person who is not going to speak next in the constructives, questions the person who has just finished speaking. Consider cross examination an information exchange period.

Cross examination may serve five objectives:

- To clarify points
- To expose errors
- To obtain admissions
- To setup arguments
- To save prep time

Most debaters tend to ignore the value of good cross-examination. It should be a meaningful and essential part of the debate. If nothing else, debaters tend to underestimate the importance that cross-examination may have on the judge. Cross-examination will indicate to the judge just how sharp and spontaneous the debaters are.

8.1 Guidelines for Asking Questions

1. Ask a short question designed to get a short answer.
2. Indicate the object of your question.
3. Don't ask questions they won't answer properly.
4. Make questions seem important, even if it is just an attempt to clarify.
5. Politeness is a must – emphasise the difference if they are rude.
6. Approach things from a non-obvious direction. Then trap them.
7. Mark your flow/notes as to what you want to question them about.
8. Avoid open ended questions unless you are sure they are clueless.
9. Face the judge/audience, not your opponent.
10. Cross examination answers must be integrated into your arguments made during a speech.

8.2 Guidelines for Answering Questions

1. Concise answers.
2. Refer to something you have already said whenever possible. This is safe.
3. Answer based on your position in the debate so far. Keep options open.
4. Don't make promises of what you or your partner will do later.
5. Qualify your answers.
6. Be willing to exchange documents read into the debate.
7. Answer only relevant questions.
8. Address the judge.
9. Try not to answer hypothetical questions. If they demand you do so, say you will give a hypothetical answer.
10. Don't say "I don't know," say "I am not sure at this time....".

9. VOCABULARY

Debate vocabulary is very important if you want to play the game properly. For this reason, definitions are given in Appendix A. They are not exclusive or complete, but are a starting point.

10. PREPARING FOR YOUR DEBATE

- **Select a topic**
- **Decide who has which side**
- **Prepare an opening argument:** This may be written out or read from note cards but is more effective if delivered rather than read.

1. **Affirmative:** This needs to be a piece of persuasive writing outlining the goals to be met, the prediction, and the resolution.

2. **Negative:** This needs to call into doubt the workability of the prediction or propose a better solution than the resolution.

3. **Gathering Evidence:**

   (a) Someone should visit the library to make notes on facts that will support your position.

   (b) Conducting surveys may provide you with supporting opinions. It is not proof, but it is comforting to say 80% of students agree that . . .

   (c) Expert witnesses. You may want to interview an expert. Since you did the interview, your opponent will have had no chance to prepare for this testimony. (Library sources are equally available to both sides.)

4. **Prepare an Outline for Cross-Examination.**

   (a) What questions will you want to ask? Who will ask which questions? For teams it might be worth while to designate one person expert on one aspect of the argument.

   (b) Who will answer which questions: You should cross examine each other as practice for the actual debate.

   (c) It may be wise to save some important facts or arguments to present in cross-examination.

5. **Organization time:** During organization time, the team confers to decide the strategy for the next cross-examination period. Did the opponents do what you expected? How will you refute their arguments? Who will lead the questioning?

6. **Closing statements:** Have an outline that summarizes your position and answers the anticipated arguments against it prepared before the debate.

(a) Be able to insert into this outline any new points that have resulted from the debate.

(b) Be able to make this statement without a written speech.

EXERCISES

1) Have you ever participated or observed a debate? If so, describe it.

2) What is a debate?

3) What is the difference between an argument and a debate?

4) What are the benefits of learning debate?

5) What are the problems of learning debate?

6) What do you think of arguing against your own belief in a debate?

7) Your instructor is going to show a video of a debate. Whilst watching, decide:

   - What is the question being debated?

   - What are the major arguments presented from the affirmative and negative sides?

8) Make a list of possible propositions you want to debate.

9) Make groups in class. Most of the activities will be conducted in these groups.

10) In groups, discuss good points and problems of propositions that the members have come up with.

APPENDIX A

VOCABULARY

This list is alphabetical for all debate vocabulary terms. Find out what others actually "mean" when they use these terms. They might not mean exactly what is written here. After all, meaning is found not in words, but in people.

DEBATE TERMS

Advantage: A benefit resulting from a course of action.

Affirmative (Team): The side that supports the resolution in a debate.

Argument: A claim supported by evidence.

Brief: Pre-planned statements of position before rebuttal: the outline of an argument including claims, supportive reasoning, and evidence.

Case Arguments: Issues that relate to the stock or core issues of an affirmative case, including the demonstrations of ongoing nature of a problem (inherency), the qualitative and/or quantitative measure of a problem (significance), and the availability of a potential remedy for a problem (solvency).

Counterplan: A "better solution" than the affirmative plan which is offered by the negative. It is like a "little affirmative case" and should have a plan and solvency as well as be competitive with the affirmative plan.

Critique/Kritik: An argument which establishes that the fundamental assumptions embodied by the other team are false or reprehensible.

Cross-Examination: The questioning period in a debate.

Debate: An organised argument involving the analysis of issues and ideas.

Debating: A regulated discussion of a proposition by two matched sides. It provides reasoned arguments both for and against a given proposition. A statement about which reasonable people may accept arguments on either side.

Debate Format: A type of debate with particular goals, rules and practises.

Disadvantage: Argument that the plan proposed by the other team will cause bad things to happen which would not have happened otherwise.

Division of Labour: Division of responsibilities between the debate speakers especially as applied to the Negative. Generally, the first Negative speaker argues topicality, terms, inherency, significance and methodological challenges while the second Negative speaker argues solvency and disadvantages. These traditional divisions of responsibility can be changed dependent on the needs of a given topic and debate.

Harm: Harms are problems.

Inherency: Basic component of an affirmative case. Explains why the problem identified persists and why it is not being solved.

Issue: A point or matter in question or under discussion.

Negative (Team): The team that rejects or opposes the resolution in a debate.

Opening Statement: The opening speeches in a debate (which usually include the teams' position and an overview of their main arguments).

Permutations: Permutations are arguments used by the affirmative to argue competition. A permutation is a policy: specifically, a combination of the plan with any or all of the mandates of the counterplan.

Plan: Proposal for policy action presented by the affirmative. Usually includes: agent, action, extent, funding, enforcement, etc.

Position: A stand on an issue that a debater supports.

Rebuttal: A response to an opponent's arguments.

Refute: To disapprove a specific statement of what is to be proven or refuted.

Resolution: The topic of a debate that the affirmative supports and the negative rejects.

Roadmap: Telling the judge the order in which you will be going. For example, the 1NC would say, "First, I'll do topicality, then problems, harms, inherency, and advantages".

Significance: See impact. Usually a component of the affirmative case -- an explanation of the serious problems that exist now.

Solvency: Usually a component of the affirmative case -- an explanation as to how the plan proposed by the affirmative solves the problem they have identified.

Topicality: The notion that the affirmative plan/negative counterplan should/should not fall within the conceptual boundaries of the resolution.

Turns: An argument which reverses teh position of an opponent.

Weigh the Issues: To consider all the issues carefully before making a decision.

APPENDIX B

USEFUL LANGUAGE

- **PHRASES FOR MAKING A POINT:**

  It may surprise you to know that…..

  It is often thought that

  It's obvious / clear / apparent that…..

  In fact we feel quite strongly that…..

  Let me tell you that…..

  The facts show quite conclusively that…..

  So you see that…..

  I'm sure that you will all agree that…..

  The opposition couldn't possibly dispute that…..

  It's disputable that…..

- **PHRASES FOR SUPPORTING A POINT:**

  In support of this point, I'd like to explain…..

  This is illustrated by…..

  This is further reinforced by the fact that…..

  X is proven by the undeniable evidence of

  Which proves conclusively that our viewpoint is correct

  For example / instance

- **PHRASES FOR REBUTTING AN ARGUMENT:**

  In order to rebut X we'd like to point out that…..

  We dispute the opposition's claim that…..

  Speaker Bob claims X, however…..

  The opposing team has just stated X. Unfortunately we have to disagree

  I'd like to questions the validity / reliability of their evidence

  According to our opposition….. But this is questionable

  We'd like to offer another interpretation of that…..

  That argument has no basis in cold hard facts…..

  How can they claim X when it is obvious that…..

APPENDIX C

WORDS TO USE IN ARGUMENTS

Words that are *critical* of an argument				
Absurd	Exaggerated	Invalid	Prejudiced	Unrealistic
Ambiguous	Generalisation	Jumping to conclusions	Simplistic	vague
Biased	Idealistic	Limited	Subjective	
Confusing	Illogical	Narrow minded	Unfeeling	
Contradictory	Inaccurate	Over-emotional	unjustified	

Words that are *supportive* of an argument				
Accurate	Fair	Practical	Sound	Valuable
Balanced	Justified	Rational	Specific	Well supported
Clear	Logical	Realistic	Strong	
Constructive	Objective	Reasonable	Useful	
Effective	Plausible	Rigorous	Valid	

General words to use in arguments				
Assumptions	Compromise	Evidence	Issues	Proof
Basis	Consequences	Hypothesis	Modify	Reasons
Causes	Controversial	Implications	Premise	

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE DEBATE TOPIC (1)

<u>Arranged Marriages</u>

Topic: Should arranged marriages be outlawed?

<u>Background Information about the Topic.</u>

Arranged marriages make up vastly the higher percentage in human history but have, largely in the last century, become unusual and morally questioned in the Western world. Where obvious arranged marriages still occur in Europe and the Americas it is usually within immigrant communities. This creates further complications in discussing the issue because it not only becomes caught up in discussions of racism and ethnic rights, but also in the loaded debate on immigration. In 2000, for example, Britain granted 21,300 Entry Clearances for the spouses of British Asians; a large proportion were the product of marriages which were in some measure arranged. The immigration debate in relation to arranged marriage is not essential to the question but cannot be left out because the discussion of arranged marriage is no longer one that can be addressed in the abstract without considering its effects in marking out different communities and maintaining their cultural integrity. In some senses we can see the entire model of multiculturalism in the developed world reflected in this discussion of whether substantially different practices which maintain an ethnically individual community, drawing heavily on outside influences and immigration should be allowed. It is vital to remember, however, that arranged marriage is not some kind of 'us and them' immigration issue. It occurs both in religious communities and social groups within Western countries and the debate must reflect them as well. In fact, drawing a distinction between the types of influence that do and do not constitute arrangement is one of the most difficult in this debate.

Arguments supporting the topic	Arguments against the topic
Arranging marriages is an insult to the very nature of marriage, which should be about creating a loving and lasting partnership and family. It reduces a central part of what is fundamentally a religious ceremony (and every religion, including Islam, guarantees	Arranged marriages are very much 'real' marriages. Vastly more marriages than not in human history would fall under any sensible definition of arrangement. More than that, an unusually small number of arranged marriages actually end in divorce. Maybe we

choice) to a commercial transaction and therefore undermines family values. This is even more an issue where people come into a country where marriage is seen as a central value that should be free, where it is a specific challenge to any moral code.

should look harder at whether Pop stars marriages constitute 'real' marriages if we are about to make that distinction. More seriously, millions of people marry for the 'wrong' reasons: financial security, desire for children, parental pressure and lack of choice among potential partners. It is pure romanticism to claim that marriages must be love matches or they should be stopped. This only serves to illustrate that it is impossible to make any sensible division between what is and isn't an arranged marriage and therefore quixotic to attempt a ban.

To allow arranged marriages leads to unacceptable pressure on those involved. They are often reliant on the parents who wish them to take part in arranged marriages for their futures as well as their current welfare. Moreover, the line between what constitutes an arranged and what constitutes a forced marriage is so hazy it can't be policed, as is the line between legitimate and illegitimate influence. To protect from the latter we must stop the former. The law can help children who are often seeking bargaining chips to help them evade the pressure to marry from their family and community.

Arranged marriages do involve choice. The difference is merely that whole families are involved together in both considering the best options and in helping to achieve what is wanted. This is particularly fitting in a social system which places high value on the way in which the extended family work together, and ensures that there is family support and shared expectations which contribute to the longevity of the marriage. Many of what we would call arranged marriages are actually either parents just introducing their children to potential partners, or effecting the negotiations necessary for marriage after their children have already chosen a partner. Most importantly, it is totally illogical for the government to intervene to stop people having the marriages that they and their family have chosen in the name of freedom of choice. This is exactly why the distinction between arranged and forced marriages is so important in providing protection for those who really need it without authoritarianism creeping in.

Arranged marriage is bad both for the individual women concerned and for women generally in society. In the former case this is because they are very vulnerable. Often they

Arranged marriages in Europe and North America have idiosyncratically low levels of abuse and marital violence. The institution of marriage always creates interdependence and

are from far away from home, don't speak the local language or dialect and are totally reliant on the husband's house and family. The lack of a support network, the language to appeal for help or knowledge of their rights makes women in arranged marriages disproportionately likely to suffer abuse. In the latter case, arrangement commodifies women who are bartered between the male heads of houses. This is not acceptable within an egalitarian model of citizenship and does not fit with a western model of rights.

therefore scope for abuse and danger and the police and outsiders always find it more difficult to intervene where violence is within a marriage. This is a criticism of marriage per se, and not arrangement, and we can't ban marriage. The vulnerability of those without language skills is an accepted fact of immigration policy, again it applies to all immigration and not to arranged marriages. Finally, most marriage organisers are actually women, as in the 'Auntie' system in India. They gain prestige and authority through their role. This doesn't seem to oppress women. What you are really saying is that Islamic societies are patriarchal and that Muslims have arranged marriages. The latter does not in any sense cause the former. They are discrete social facts.

The practice of arranged marriage separates communities, helping to stop integration and encourage distrust between communities. This applies largely where it occurs among immigrant populations and helps to maintain a language barrier and an associated cultural ghettoisation. This doesn't just create a group of people who can feel trapped between two cultures and unsure of whether they have a place in their host society, and a poverty trap associated with the language barrier that creates further segregation. It also helps to foster distrust in the wider community by holding to such a radically alien value, particularly where it is opposed to our notion of equal rights.

It is not just groups practising arranged marriage who maintain cohesive communities. Afro-Caribbean and Jewish people in Western Europe both maintain a distinct cultural life while taking part fully in the life of this country. In fact their cultural contributions are one of the most valuable additions to the societies in which they live. The basis of multiculturalism is to understand the social and even economic value that can accrue from having people with different perspectives and traditions living together. Furthermore, in the second and third generations of immigrant families from the subcontinent we can already see barriers breaking down so that there is greater understanding and cross-fertilisation of the ideas these immigrant communities have brought.

Arranged marriage is not a true 'cultural value' that is in some sense inviolate. Every major religion including Islam guarantees the legitimacy of freedom of choice in marriage.

Both young and old people affirm the fact that arranged marriage is a cultural tradition and any ethnographic data confirms it, not to mention the frequency of arrangement

Further, the extent to which this is custom is a product of a patriarchal culture that oppresses women and an element of that culture which maintains the imbalance of power between the genders. Although we cannot intervene in countries that hold to such a value system, we can stop such a system being imported. True multiculturalism itself relies on some basic shared value of commitment to a tolerant and fair society.

throughout the world. As we have pointed out there is no conflict between arrangement and a guarantee of free choice, the two are entirely consistent. Who is going to stand up and tell ethnic minorities that they don't know whether they want arranged marriages and whether or not it really is part of their culture? It is just ethnocentrism writ large. Furthermore, how can we possibly insist that immigrants respect our virtues of 'toleration' if that amounts to denying them cultural freedom?

Arranged marriage provides a cover for illegal immigration. We attempt to challenge false marriages with non-nationals such as mail order brides for just this reason but are unable to properly examine most overtly arranged marriages because of the danger of being seen as culturally insensitive. Where arranged marriage is truly traditional and not motivated at least in part by immigration it is equally traditional that brides leave home to go to their husband's house. You don't see many European or American Asians leaving their home to go and live in their husband's home country.

We have made pathetically small progress in stamping out mail order brides which just goes to show how completely unenforceable a much more complex system of regulation over arranged marriages would be. More important to remember is that these marriages last in exceptionally high numbers beyond the time required to receive a passport so they would be legitimate even in countries where marriages which are for the primary purpose of immigration are barred. Finally, it is totally legitimate that husbands and wives should be able to choose the country where they have the best chances of making a good life to set up their homes, and this only serves to prove why brides from the third world might make the free choice to marry.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE DEBATE TOPIC (2)

Child Labour

Topic: Is the imposition of sanctions on states the best way to end child child labour?

Background Information about the Topic.

In the past activists have tried to encourage consumers to boycott companies using child labour by means of negative publicity about the conditions under which children work. The debate is partly, therefore, about whether such action (which may be ignored) is sufficient to force companies themselves to act, or whether it is more effective to use sanctions to pressurise governments into setting up national legal regulations (which might be avoided or abolished). However, there is a second issue: whilst it is normally deemed a truism that child labour is essentially bad, a finer reasoning is sometimes helpful. It is hard to see how child labour on family farms can be avoided, when countries do not have the resources to set up schools and to pay families a minimum income. Ultimately child labour ends up more as a question of solving poverty than a simple moral or emotional issue. A model for a sanctions regime would need to take several details into account: both general ones regarding sanctions cases (by whom will sanctions be imposed? And to what extent will they be enforced?) and questions particular to this topic: what age is a 'child'? Is child labour inherently a issue, or is the debate really about minimum labour standards for any employee?

Arguments supporting the topic	Arguments against the topic
There is an international duty on governments to uphold the dignity of man. This can only be done with the independence gained from education, a good quality of life and independent income. Child labour destroys the creativity and innocence of the young, and must be stopped.	Whilst codes of 'human rights' are effective bases for enforcing political and legal standards, they are less effective in dealing with social and economic ones. It is realistic to use sanctions to enforce rights to free expression and the rule of law; impossible to force an impoverished state to maintain Western standards of education and labour laws, which did not exist when the West developed. This use of sanctions merely lessens their impact when used for the correct purposes.

Sanctions provide the only means of forcing states to take action. Consumer pressure is too weak to do so - whilst opinion pollsters are told their interviewees are willing to pay more for ethical products, very few people put this into daily practice.	Consumer power has proven highly effective in the past in forcing trans-national companies to institute ethical practices. Boycotts of one producer lead others to act out of fear of negative publicity - the market takes care of the problem itself.
Pressure on trans-national companies is not enough. It is a fallacy to believe that all child labour equals sweatshop work for multinationals in poor countries. There is a difference between this, family labour on farms (in both developed and less developed countries), the use and trade of child prostitutes and countries who force children into their armies.	Quite true - this is why sanctions, an inherently blunt instrument, will always fail. Imposing sanctions on whole states is unfair as they are not wholly responsible for the actions of individuals within them. Should we impose sanctions on the USA because illegal sweatshops have been found to exist there?
Ending child labour will allow the young to have greater chances of education and development. This will increase the human resources of a country for the future, thus encouraging economic growth. Their labour will be replaced by drawing from the large pool of underemployed adults in most developing countries; often these will be the parents of current child workers, so there will be little or no overall impact on family income.	A utopian vision of all previously labouring children entering school is belied by evidence showing many either cannot afford to pay school fees or continue to work at the same time. In fact, many TNCs have now set up after-work schools within the very factories that activists criticise.
It is true that alternatives will need to be found to previous employment - but raising liquidity by loans secured on future earnings or micro-banking are both possible scenarios. The international community was able to place human rights over the cause of free trade in the cases of South Africa and Burma - so why not here?	Placing sanctions on some companies will merely hide child labour underground. Moving children, who have to work from poverty, into unregulated and criminal areas of the economy will only worsen the situation. Is it really likely that the WTO, a bastion of free trade, would accept the restrictions that sanctions entail?

This is an argument for a targeted and more sophisticated use of sanctions, not against them in any form. Sometimes free market economics is simply an excuse for a denial of responsibility.	Sanctions harm the poorest in society - companies will simply move to areas where the restrictions do not apply. Past experience has shown that government interference with the market does more harm than good.

APPENDIX F

DEBATE STEPS

1AC - FIRST AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

BE PREPARED: Have your speech written out and well organized. Time it in advance so that you know how long it takes you to read it. Practice it so that you sound good and know how to correctly say all of the words in it. When you practice it, learn to deliver this speech like you really mean it and like you really care about these issues. Debate is a game AND a show, and when you put on a good show you are more likely to win the game.

BE COMPLETE: Make sure you have covered all the requirements -- read the topic, significance, inherency, plan, solvency. Make sure each of the major issues has evidence which proves it.

BE STRATEGIC: Anticipate what the negative might say and hide evidence in the 1AC which answers these arguments. It makes it much easier in the 2AC if the evidence is already out there. Make your points and especially write your plan so that it avoids or answers popular arguments which will be made against you.

BE READY TO DEFEND YOUR SPEECH IN CROSS EXAMINATION: Know what it says. Be familiar with the evidence. Be ready to explain how and why your arguments are correct. **Have a second copy of your speech in case they ask for a copy and then start asking you a lot of specific questions.**

1NC - FIRST NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

DON'T USE TOO MUCH PREPARATION TIME: Have your off-case arguments ready to go so you can spend a little prep time working on specific case attacks and challenges. YOU WILL NEED PREP TIME LATER IN THE DEBATE, SO SAVE IT FOR THEN.

MAKE SURE EACH MAJOR ARGUMENT IS LOGICALLY COMPLETE: Your disadvantages need links and impacts; your topicality arguments need definitions, violations, and voting issue; your counterplan needs a counterplan text, topicality, competitiveness, advantage, and solvency.

WATCH FOR TIME ALLOCATION: Know how long it takes you to read each off-case argument. Practice and time them in advance. Watch yourself as the speech goes along so you don't fall behind or get too far ahead.

MAKE SURE TO ATTACK THE CASE: Use a mixture of challenges and evidenced arguments to keep them busy on the case. Make sure to attack their impact scenarios and their solvency.

BE READY TO DEFEND YOUR SPEECH IN CROSS EXAMINATION: When they ask questions, use the opportunity to explain and elaborate on your arguments. Know what your arguments say and be able to defend them as well as explain them.

2AC - SECOND AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

USE CROSS EXAMINATION: If there is any issue you do not understand, you won't be able to answer it. Have your partner ask about it RIGHT AWAY in cross examination so that you can prepare answers for it. Make sure to point your partner in the right direction for asking questions -- point them towards arguments you don't understand or the ones that seem like the strongest against you.

ANSWER EVERY NEGATIVE ISSUE: You cannot win the debate if you fail to answer an off-case argument like topicality, a disadvantage, a counterplan, or a critique. Have some good answers for each one.

WATCH YOUR TIME ALLOCATION: Think about what what you need to do in eight minutes and pace yourself. Try to be 25% done after 2 minutes, 50% done after 4 minutes, etc. Have your partner help you with your time allocation by giving you signals.

ANSWER THEIR ARGUMENTS, DON'T EXPLAIN THEM OVER AGAIN: Explaining their arguments is their duty, not yours. Your duty is to answer them. Don't waste time telling the judge what their arguments are about. The best way to save time is to tell the judge which argument you are answering ("On their counterplan, my answers are...") and then give your answers and make sure to number them.

NUMBER YOUR ANSWERS TO OFF-CASE ARGUMENTS: Number them 1-2-3, etc. On a negative disadvantage, for example, you should tell the judge you are going to answer that disadvantage, and then go for it 1-2-3-4-5, etc. This will make it easy for the judge to tell your different arguments apart, and will make it much easier for your partner and you to use specifically numbered arguments later in the debate ("The negative never comes to grips with my 5th answer, that..."). Judges love it when the 2AC numbers well.

DON'T FORGET TO DEFEND THE CASE: You will probably need the case to win, so don't get bogged down in the off-case arguments. Spend at least as much time on the case as they did.

USE THE 1AC EVIDENCE: You put some good evidence there so you can use it in 2AC, refer to it and save time by not having to read it.

2NC - SECOND NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

DIVISION OF LABOR: 2NC and 1NR occur back to back, so you need to divide up the issues in the debate. The 2NC should take some issues and the 1NR should take others, BUT THEY SHOULD NEVER COVER THE SAME GROUND. This maximizes your attack on the affirmative and puts a lot of pressure on the 1AR to make mistakes which could allow you to win.

BE COMPLETE: You need to deal with each and every one of the answers the 2AC makes to your arguments. If they have five answers to your disadvantage, you need to deal with all five of their answers. The really good answers deserve the most attention.

READ EVIDENCE: Now is your chance to really develop your arguments. Have your best evidence on the issues you will be "going for" out and ready to use before you speak. Find the best 10 pieces of evidence on each of these issues. You may not read them all, but make sure they are ready to be used.

COMPLETE YOUR ARGUMENT DEVELOPMENT: The "shell" of the argument presented in 1NC isn't enough to win you the debate. You need to develop your arguments further, especially the impacts. You should always read extra impact evidence for the arguments you are really "going for."

KICK OUT OF YOUR WEAK ARGUMENTS: Don't waste your time trying to defend the arguments they answer the best, invest your time in the arguments where their answers are weak. Kick out of counterplans by conceding competition, kick out of disadvantages as suggested in the disadvantage section. Show the judge you are discarding your weak arguments and emphasizing your strong arguments, and normally you will be rewarded for it.

DON'T DROP THE TURNS: A good 2AC will try and "turn" your arguments, and in so doing will make them a new reason to vote for them. Don't let them do that. Answer and defeat the turns as your top priority, then you can go on to win the argument.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THEIR MISTAKES: If they do not give much attention to a major issue, like a disadvantage or a critique, then you should focus in on that argument and really develop it. Make sure the judge knows that the few 2AC answers are all they are going to be allowed to give - no

new answers in rebuttals! If they drop a major argument totally begin your speech with that and emphasize how the debate IS ALREADY OVER because of their error.

WATCH FOR CONTRADICTIONS AND DOUBLE-TURNS: Affirmative teams often get in trouble by trying to give too many answers, and at some point they begin to contradict themselves. In the case of a double-turn, the affirmative turns both the link and the impact on a disadvantage or a critique, which merely creates a new reason why they should lose the debate. JUDGES LOVE TO VOTE NEGATIVE ON DOUBLE-TURNS.

WEIGH THE ISSUES: Don't wait until the end of the debate to explain to the judge why your arguments are more important than theirs. Start doing this now so that it will be easier later in the debate. This is also why you want to read more impact evidence in 2NC.

THINK OFFENSE: The negative attacks you and you need to defend yourself against that, but make sure to also mount some offense against the negative. Turn their disadvantages and critiques, offer disadvantages against their counterplans, and that helps put them on the defensive. If you merely defend, they are likely to break through at some point, but if you go on the offense against their arguments it will give you more ways to win.

BE PREPARED: Have prepared answers (debaters call them"frontlines") to arguments you expect or have heard before. Make them clear and quick to read, practice them, edit them, so that you can put out a lot of good answers to their arguments.

IF THEY CALL IT A VOTER, YOU DEAL WITH IT: Novice debaters often fail to answer arguments, often bogus arguments, offered by the negative which they call"voting issues"or"voters"or"reasons why we win the debate."When they say this, make sure to respond specifically.

THINK ON YOUR FEET: While you are speaking you will think of new answers to what the negative has said, answers you do not have written down on your flowsheet. Go ahead, use those answers, but make sure to get them from your partner so that you can remember them for later.

1NR - FIRST NEGATIVE REBUTTAL

DON'T TAKE ANY PREP TIME: You had the 2NC prep time, the 2NC time, and the cross examination of the 2NC time to prepare. That should be enough. Remember, if you take prep time for 1NR then the 1AR is also prepping during that time, and is STEALING YOUR PREP TIME. Don't let them do that, stand up right after the cross examination of the 2NC and give your speech.

DIVISION OF LABOR: 2NC and 1NR occur back to back, so you need to divide up the issues in the debate. The 2NC should take some issues and the 1NR should take others, BUT THEY SHOULD NEVER COVER THE SAME GROUND. This maximizes your attack on the affirmative and puts a lot of pressure on the 1AR to make mistakes which could allow you to win.

FOLLOW ALL THE GUIDELINES FOR THE 2NC BECAUSE YOU ARE DOING THE SAME THING, DEVELOPING ISSUES AND PUTTING THE 1AR IN A DIFFICULT SITUATION.

1AR - FIRST AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL

The purpose of the 1AR is simple: don't lose the debate.

The strategy is equally simple: don't drop anything. Cover every important argument. You cannot answer each subpoint on an argument, but you should answer any argument which could potentially win the debate for the negative. There are three areas in which you may drop some points to cover the entire issue:

Disads. Pick a set of 2AC arguments to extend. Example, use answers 2-4-6 on the disadvantage, not all six. Or, if the disad was introduced in 2NC, go for links or impacts, but not both.

Counterplans. Again, go for a set of 2AC responses. Go for either topicality, competitiveness, or disadvantages. The affirmatives have the luxury of picking and choosing which counterplan take-outs to extend.

Case attacks. You don't have to win every card on case. You need to win enough to outweigh disad risks. You need to win enough of the prima facie burdens of the 1AC. If you have more than one advantage you may choose to jettison the weakest one.

2NR - SECOND NEGATIVE REBUTTAL

Now is the time to put all of your eggs in one basket.

The negative search for truth ends in the 2NR. Winning requires the 2NR to choose the issues and approach to create a persuasive bottom line negative position. The 2NR cannot pursue everything in the debate because the judge must be told which arguments to consider. If not given a rationale or"bottom line"position, the judge will not know why to vote negative. A winning 2NR writes the ballot for the judge.

There are two ways to win in the 2NR:"Win the Drop"or"Win the Position."

Win the Drop. Many debates are decided because the 1AR could not cover the negative block or because debaters could not flow very well and missed responses. The 2NR's job would simply be to pull the dropped argument and explain why it is sufficient to vote negative. This entails weighing the dropped argument against the affirmative case. Examples include dropped disads, topicality, or major case arguments.

Win the Position. The 2NR must pull all negative issues together in a way that jettisons all irrelevant material and focuses the debate on the single negative strategy. Listed below are several typical negative frameworks that can be used alone or in combination with other frameworks. Remember the importance of narrowing the debate to a simple bottom line position and do not employ too many frameworks at once.

Either way, you will still need to win specific kinds of arguments in order to win the round. Here are some examples of the kinds of arguments you need to win in order to win the debate:

High Impact Disads. Win a disad with an impact that outweighs the case advantages(s).

Topicality. Argue that topicality is an absolute voting issue. In other words, the judge should decide topicality before evaluating the rest of the debate. The 2NR may combine the topicality framework with some other framework or the 2NR may wish to pursue topicality exclusively.

Prima Facie Issue. The 2NR may succeed in totally beating the affirmative on

2AR - SECOND AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL

The Affirmative gets the last speech in the debate, and they need to take full advantage of it.

The general strategy of the 2AR is to re-establish case advantage(s) and to minimize or take out the impacts of the negative arguments. In order to minimize the impact of the negative arguments, go to the best issue in the middle of your speech. This trick tends to de-emphasize the arguments that the 2NR claimed were critical in the debate. In order to re-establish your case advantage, begin your speech with your own agenda or overview that puts forth the most compelling reason to vote affirmative. For example, your case strategy may have been to run a low impact, high probability advantage that evades all disad links. In that case, you would first go back to your advantage and claim it to be absolute, then cover the disad, arguing zero risk on each.

their own ground with one of the case requirements. The only problem with this is that, without a good disad, the affirmative can always argue that the judge has nothing to lose by voting affirmative since, at worst, nothing bad will happen-we might as well try to improve the status quo. This is why it is important to make arguments that turn the case-arguments that the plan actually makes the problems identified by the case worse than they are in the status quo.

The Counterplan Position. The 2NR may choose to focus exclusively on the counterplan position-especially if it competes with the affirmative's advantage(s) and the negative's disads are unique to the affirmative solvency.

The Counterplan + Disadvantage Position. Sometimes you try and have a counterplan that gains the affirmative advantage while avoiding your disadvantage. This is a very effective strategy.

It can be very difficult to decide which issues to focus on in the 2NR, but you must focus. IF YOU DO NOT CHOOSE, YOU WILL LOSE!