DTD

DEBATE THROUGH DIALOGUE PROJECT

International Debate Education Association

INTRODUCTION TO DEBATE

Education and Culture

Youth

Introduction

Debate is a formal contest of argumentation between two teams during which one team supports, while the other team opposes a given proposition. An "academic debate", begins with a "resolution", a simple statement of a topic that is subjected to critical analysis by both teams. The team supporting the resolution speaks first and is referred to as an affirmative team (since it affirms a given resolution). The opposing or team must then refute the arguments offered by the affirming team and offer arguments against adopting the resolution (it is referred to as a "negative team"). Each team is expected to respond directly to the arguments offered by their opponents. It is the job of a "judge", a neutral third party (either an individual, or a group of individuals), to listen carefully to the arguments presented by both sides and decide which set of arguments is most persuasive.

<u>Debate formats</u>

There are number of debate formats, allowing a different approach to debated subject and involving a different number of participants. The two most popular formats include a ***Karl Popper*** debate format and ***American Parliamentary*** debate format. The first one involves two teams of three speakers each, while the second – two teams of two speakers (the British Parliamentary format has four teams of two speakers).

Karl Popper debate

Karl Popper debate format is most commonly debated at schools in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the NIS. There are two teams in a debate (Affirmative team and Negative team): three speakers on each team.

1st Affirmative Speaker's (A1) Constructive speech	6 minutes
1st A Speakers' cross- examination by the 3rd N Speaker	3 minutes
N1 's Constructive speech	6 minutes
N1's cross- examination by A3	3 minutes
A2's rebuttal speech	5 minutes
A2's cross –examination by N1	3 minutes
N2s rebuttal speech	5 minutes
N2's cross-examination by A1	3 minutes

A3's summation speech	5 minutes
N3's summation speech	5 minutes

Each team has 8 minutes total of preparation time (the time can be used before each speech and before a speaker of a team cross- examines a speaker for the opposite team).

Roles of individual speakers in Karl Popper debate

A1   presents a *constructive* speech. In this speech the first speaker of the affirmative side presents the team's *debate case* which includes the team's understanding and interpretation of the resolution and the team's arguments supporting the resolution (usually not more than 4)

N3   *cross- examines* A1, clarifies some points, commits the opponent to a position, points out inconsistencies and inadequate evidence (through the proper use of questioning!), asks for additional information.

N1   presents a constructive speech. In this speech N1 must respond to the arguments presented by the opponent (*refute* them). After refutation, the N1 may move on to the presentation of his/ her team's arguments negating the resolution.

A3   cross- examines N1, following the same strategy as the N3 cross- examining A1.

A2   presents a *rebuttal* speech. A2 extends arguments presented by his/ her predecessor A1 (by providing additional reasoning and evidence). A2 should re-build arguments presented by A1 and attacked by N1 (rebut) as well as refute the arguments presented by N1 in the negative constructive speech.

N1   cross-examines A2

N2   presents a *rebuttal* speech. N2 extends arguments presented by his/ her predecessor N1(by providing additional reasoning and evidence). N2 should re-build arguments presented by N1 and attacked by A2 (rebut) as well as refute the arguments presented by A1 and A2 in their constructive and rebuttal speeches.

A1   cross-examines N2

A3   summarizes arguments presented by his/ her team – emphasizing the most important elements and attempts to demonstrate why the affirmative team should win the debate.

N3   summarizes arguments presented by his/ her team – emphasizing the most important elements and attempts to demonstrate why the affirmative team should win the debate.

American Parliamentary debate format

This debate format is usually practiced at American Universities, although is becoming increasingly popular among secondary school students. The format consists of two two-person teams.

1st Affirmative speaker – constructive speech	7 minutes
1st Negative speaker- constructive speech	8 minutes
2nd Affirmative speaker – rebuttal speech	8 minutes
2nd Negative speaker – rebuttal speech	8 minutes
FLOOR SPEECHES	Subject to the discretion of the moderator (Speaker of the House)
1st Negative speaker – summation speech	4 minutes
1st Affirmative speaker- summation speech	5 minutes

The roles of the speakers do not vary much from the roles of the speakers in the Karl popper debate format. There is no cross-examination time in the American Parliamentary debate – speakers can ask each other questions (interrupt) during their speeches. A speaker should normally accept 3-4 questions from the opponents and he. She can decline further questions by politely refusing to accept a question (for example by saying: "I will not take your question now, Sir/ Madam"

Floor speeches are reserved for the members of the public/ audience. Members of the public can present their view son the debated topic, either by supporting the affirmative side or the negative side or expressing views that are neutral. A floor speech should not be longer than 3 minutes.

The amount of floor speeches is subject to the discretion of the moderator who should normally allow one speech for the Affirmative and one speech for the negative (and / or one neutral speech if there is one to be made).

There is no preparation time in the American Parliamentary debate format.

The times of speeches are not "written in stone" and teachers can alter the duration of the speeches (especially for novice debaters) as well as preparation time. It is suggested, however, not to change the sequence of the speeches since they offer a fair balance to both teams.

Resolution

Resolution for the debate is a proposition that the two teams debate on. It is expressed in a form of declarative statement (not a question). There are basically three types of resolutions:

Resolutions of fact

Resolution of fact is a resolution that asserts the truth of falsity of some factual matter.

Example: *Resolved that: Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are being achieved*

Under this particular resolution, the affirmative team would need to present MDGs goals and indicators and show how the set targets are not met. The negative team will need to argue the opposite. Both teams will have to focus on the facts: statistics, examples, etc.- they do not need to argue that we should do something about improving the compliance with the MDGs.

Resolution of value

Resolution of value is an assertion of the worth of something – a policy, action or thing.

Example: Resolved that: *When in conflict development is more important than the protection of the environment.*

Under this resolution the teams will attempt to assess the value of development and the value of environmental protection. Although, the debate will take place at the level of values, the teams should still use evidence (facts, statistics, etc.) to prove their point. Resolutions of value usually contain words such as: *justified, important (more/less), moral, ethical*, etc.

Resolution of policy

Resolution of policy is a resolution that advocates a certain course of action.

Example: Resolved that: *Developed countries should increase their aid to developing countries*

Under this resolution, the teams will have to debate a certain policy, that is, what needs to be done in order to assist developing countries- particularly what the level of assistance should be, what priorities should be established, etc. The affirmative team will need to analyze the current situation (*status quo*) and present possible solutions to address the issue (*a plan*). Of course they will have to use evidence to support the choice of a given policy over another and they will also have to refer to certain systems of values during the debate (e.g. if a team is advocating for increased spending on foreign aid, they value more equal distribution of resources, etc.).

Criteria for selecting a good resolution

When selecting and phrasing the resolution for a debate, a teacher should first of all bear in mind the fact that it should be the topic that the can be debated on both sides of the resolution- that is where both the affirmative and a negative team have similar chances of winning a debate. Debating that "the Earth revolves around the Sun" does not leave much room to debate for the negative team. A good resolution should:

- be interesting – there is nothing more boring than a debate on a topic which is of little interest to no anyone (including debaters)

- concern a significant contemporary issue or the subject are studied by the students- the participants of such a debate are more likely to know something about the topic and the debate may be interesting and educational for the audience

- be controversial – and debatable, it should pose a problem and lend itself to a debate.

- be balanced - it should provide enough arguments and evidence for both sides in debate.

- not be too abstract- although debating what constitutes "happiness" may be an interesting endeavor for philosophers, it may not be necessarily so for debate contestants and their audience, especially when nobody knows what such debate is about.

- not be too practical/ specific – similarly, quantum physics maybe a subject of interest to the rocket scientists but may be too difficult to the less "initiated" audience.

Below is a list of resolutions that debate trainers can choose from. The list is not exhaustive and the trainer may consider asking the participants to come up with their own topics or seek good debate topics on a variety of debate- related internet sites:

1. **Education**
HIV education should be introduced as a compulsory subject in African schools.

2. **History**
Colonialism should be considered a crime.

3. **Poverty**
Rich states have an obligation to support poor states.

4. **Censorship**
Censorship of free expression is justified.

5. **Democracy**
There are no universal standards for democracy.

6. **Pacifism**
A rejection of violence is a valid principle by which to live.

7. **Military service**
Compulsory military service should be abolished

8. **Politics and global affairs**
United Nations should intervene in Darfur.

Debate Curriculum
Debate curriculum can be both used in classroom teaching of debate as well as in working with youth outside of schools (e.g. in a debate club). It can be based on a three stages and includes the following components: 1) brainstorming ideas for debate cases (Affirmative and negative), 2) researching the topic and preparing arguments for debate cases, and 3) preparing the teams' cases (constructive speeches, cross- examination strategies, strategies for refutation). The curriculum can be covered during three sessions with additional work to be done by youth and a debate taking place on the 4th session. Each trainer can adopt her/his own approach to teaching debate and can extend and shorten then time needed for preparation for debate depending on the needs and context.

STAGE ONE
Brainstorming ideas for debate cases

The main goal of the first session is to allow participants to generate as many ideas related to the debated resolution as possible. The suggestions below include the following steps: brainstorming, nominal technique, mind mapping, fishbone diagram, T –chart, M- chart and Venn's diagram.

BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is an activity in which, a person or a group of people work together at coming up and recording as many ideas as possible on a given theme or topic. The goal of brainstorming is to accomplish this in a fixed period of time. Brainstorming stimulates your creativity and you will be surprised how many ideas you will be able to generate. It is important to bear in mind a couple of simple rules to make the process of brainstorming effective. The rules apply both to group and individual brainstorming process.

Four simple ru1es for teacher/facilitator

Rule 1
Do not criticize, evaluate, judge, or defend any ideas during the group brainstorming session. If you are brainstorming in a group use only positive comments: "It is a great idea!" If you are alone make sky the limit for your ideas- do not be critical of yourself

(negative self-talk: "This is a stupid idea, they will laugh at me when I say that" is one of the drains on your creativity). The purpose of brainstorming is to generate as many ideas related to the topic as possible in the time allowed. Evaluation, judgment, and selection of ideas are the purposes of subsequent sessions.

Rule 2

Employ *free- wheeling* and *free association.* Group members should voice any ideas, solutions, examples they can think of, no matter how outrageous or impractical they seem at a given time. There should be no limit on "wild" or "far-fetched" ideas. Every idea is to be expressed! It is easier to tone down an idea and to select out later than it is to think up new and creative possibilities.

Rule 3

Go for quantity rather than quality. In a group, members should contribute as many ideas as they think of. The greater the number of ideas generated, the more likely it is that there will be several useful ideas. If you are brainstorming by yourself, keep the ideas flowing from your pen without stopping. Continual production of ideas is the best exercise in creativity.

Rule 4

Building on your own ideas and ideas of others. Combining, adding to, and "piggybacking" on ideas is part of the creative process. Members of a brainstorming group can suggest improvements, variations, or combinations of previous ideas. Look at what you have written down and see if what is on the piece of paper in front of you may spark some new thoughts.

Brainstorming process

Below are the steps for a teacher who conducts a brainstorming session with a class. The golden rule and the key to success: maintain a friendly atmosphere and encourage all the students by offering positive feedback!

- Clarify the objective of the brainstorming session (are you looking for ideas for a speech, solutions to a problem? What is the topic?)
- Call out ideas in turn around the group (one idea per person per turn).
- Record each idea on a flip chart.
- Build on and expand the ideas of others.
- Pass when an idea does not come quickly to mind.
- Resist stopping when ideas slow down.
- After all ideas have been exhausted, clarify each idea and eliminate exact duplicates.

NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

This method is very similar to brainstorming and should be governed by the same rules. The difference is that this technique generates a large number of ideas by encouraging participants to create lists independently and then share list contents. Below are steps for the facilitator working with a group:

- Clarify the objective.

- Have each person list as many ideas as possible.

- Take turns sharing the contents of individual lists, one idea at a time. If someone has already mentioned an idea, the person reading skips that idea and goes to the next.

- Record each idea on a flip chart.

- When a person's list is exhausted, he or she passes or contributes a new idea.

- After all ideas have been listed, clarify each idea and eliminate exact duplicates.

Relating and organizing ideas

After an effective brainstorming session, either group or individual, there comes a time to have a look at its outcome and group ideas in order to get a clear picture – remember, after a good brainstorming session your flipchart or note paper will contain quite a valuable, yet chaotic and random list. There are various ways in which ideas can be related to each other and various people will use different strategies of organizing the world into meaningful patterns (just like different individuals may use the same furniture and decorations to fill up a space). Below there are some ways in which the debate trainer can ask debaters to organize their ideas:

Mind map

Mind maps are visual presentations of the various ways ideas can be related to each other. According to recent studies in the function of brain hemispheres, we are used to depending on the left brain (the seat of logic, conceptualization and reason) and underutilize our right- brain thinking which is the seat of intuition, artistic talent and spirituality – all important elements of creativity!
Right brain thinking is not organized in a linear way (when making a list – in a brainstorming session – we use the left side of our brains!); instead it works in many directions at the same time. In order to stimulate right brain thinking we must represent our ideas in space, similar to the way they are processed in our head. This spatial representation leads to the idea of a map.

Steps for producing a mind map

- Begin with what you consider to be the most important idea as the "center" of the map (marked in the below diagram)

- Write all the main ideas that arise from the central idea

- Write all the secondary ideas that arise from the main ideas

- Name the relationships between ideas
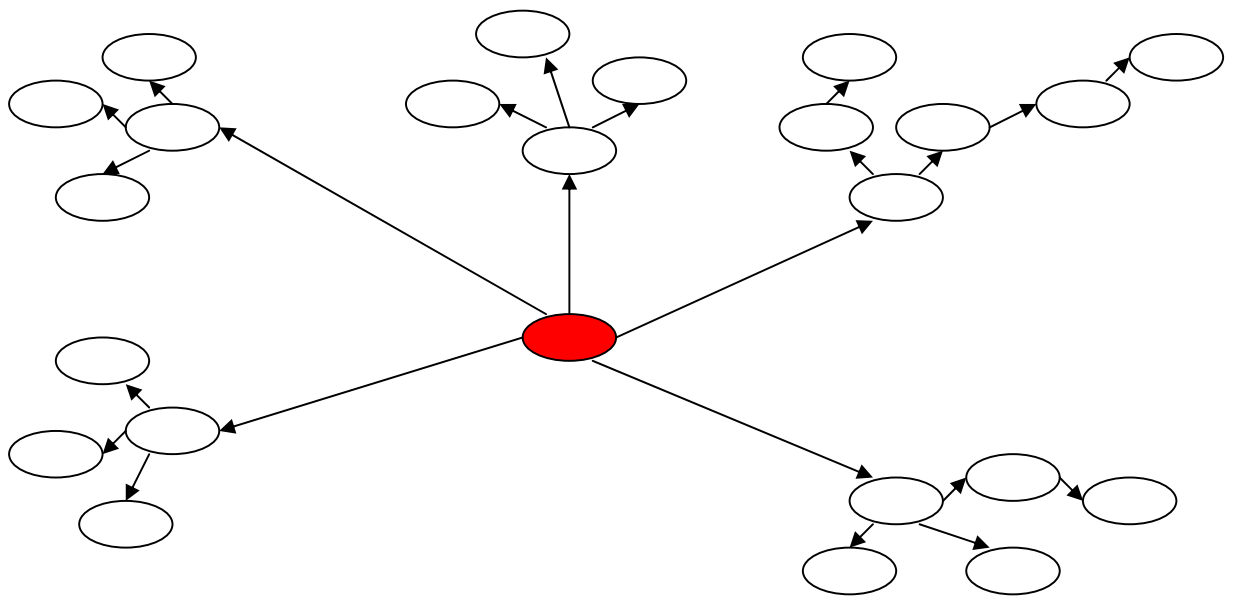
FISHBONE DIAGRAM (ISHIKAWA DIAGRAM)

It is a good method to encourage creativity and explore connections between generated ideas. The fishbone diagram allows to analyze a topic (issue, theme, problem) in a pictorial way and present the findings of a brainstorming session in a more organized manner. This method can be used for both group and individual work and can follow a brainstorming session.

The diagram has a shape of a fish skeleton (yes, that is exactly what it looks like – for a better idea of Ishikawa's diagram see a picture below). The central idea (question, topic, problem) that students are working on should be stated in the place of the "fish's head".

Instead of creating a list of ideas or a map, you may want to write your ideas on post it notes and arrange them in the form of a fish skeleton. The students may want to name each category.
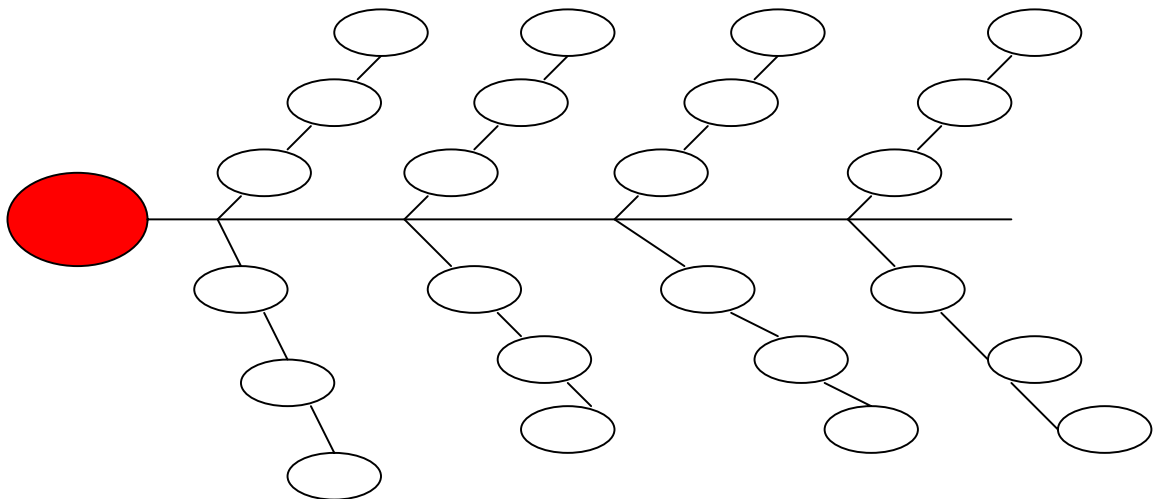
T- CHART

Similarly to the fishbone diagram the T-chart is a more structured method of preparation than brainstorming. Ask the debaters to draw a large letter "T" on a piece of paper. On the left side of the vertical list positive associations and ideas; on the right side of the vertical, list negatives. The aim is to create complementary pairs: look for a negative that goes along with a positive. The debaters will not only generate more ideas but also prepare themselves for a critique of your ideas by their opponents. Sometimes they will eliminate some ideas, if they discover that a potential opposition carries more weight.

FOR	AGAINST

M-CHART and VENN's DIAGRAM

The M-chart and the Venn's Diagram add a third category that falls between positive and negative: neutral ideas In physical layout, an M-chart is similar to a T-chart: it simply adds another vertical line, thus creating three columns instead of two. The Venn's Diagram is based on circles, rather than columns. In their notebooks, debaters draw two large circles that overlap slightly. Affirmative ideas go to the far left, and negative ideas go to the far right; common ideas are written in the overlap area.

FOR	NEUTRAL	AGAINST

STAGE TWO
Making arguments

After generating a lot of ideas for their debate case, debaters should focus on formulating the strongest arguments for and against a given resolution. At this stage the debate coach/teacher may want to introduce the concept of argument to debaters. Debaters will know intuitively what an argument is but often will not be bale to define it or distinguish between good arguments and bad arguments. The coach may want to introduce students to some concepts related to the theory of informal logic and argumentation but it is important to remember that students should not lose "the forest for the trees" and start focusing on the formal aspects of argumentation rather than the practical applicability of their arguments. The teachers, however, may want to get acquainted with some aspects of theory before, facilitating this session with the students in order to assist them with formulating their arguments more effectively.

How to present an argument?
The coach may begin the session by eliciting definitions of what argument is from the students. Students will have a basic feeling of what an argument involves and a teacher should give them time some time to brainstorm ideas. He/ she may then ask students to present their definitions.
One of the most standard definitions of argument in debate (and more broadly in communication) is the following one:
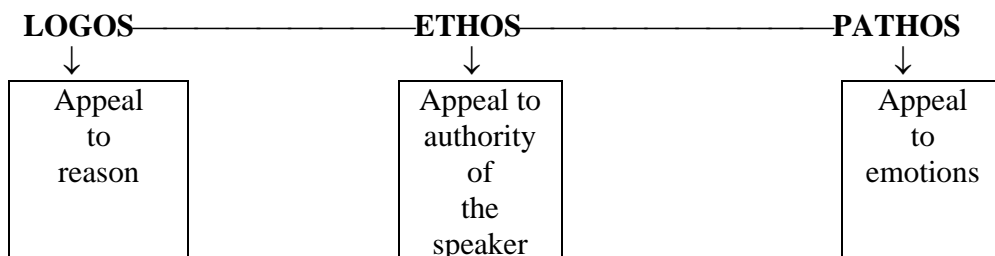
Argument: process in communication in which reasoning (logic) is used to persuade others.

The teacher may want to emphasize this point by showing the relationship between the following elements of communication process.

DEBATER———————————→ ARGUMENT ———————————→ AUDIENCE

The teacher may want to offer a historical perspective on debate by presenting the classical elements of the process of argumentation (persuasion):

Elements of persuasion: Ancient Greeks distinguished three kinds of persuasion:

LOGOS————————————**ETHOS**————————————**PATHOS**
↓   ↓   ↓

Appeal to reason	Appeal to authority of the speaker	Appeal to emotions

The teacher may spend some time asking students if they can point out to examples in real life when these elements play an important role. The teacher should encourage students to come up with examples from politics, advertising, history, etc. The students are most likely to come up with examples of *ethos* and *pathos.*

As far as *logos* is concerned, the students should have some knowledge of the formal logic (from mathematics!). It will be easier to present them with the distinction between to modes of reasoning (deductive and inductive) by providing them with examples.

LOGIC- in formal logic the distinction is made between *deductive* and *inductive* mode of reasoning.

Deduction: in deduction a reasoner draws particular conclusion from general truth.

GENERAL TRUTH ———→PARTICULAR EXAMPLE ———→PARTICULAR CONCLUSION
                              (about which we want to make a conclusion)

Example :

ALL MEN ARE MORTAL ⟶ SOCRATES IS A MAN ⟶ SOCRATES IS MORTAL

(PREMISE)   (PREMISE)   (CONCLUSION)

It is not necessary (but might be educational!) for the teacher to present the structure of syllogism and challenge students with a some examples of syllogisms which are valid from the point of logic (deduction works!) but not necessarily true (the first two examples) and a structure which is not logically valid (example 3)
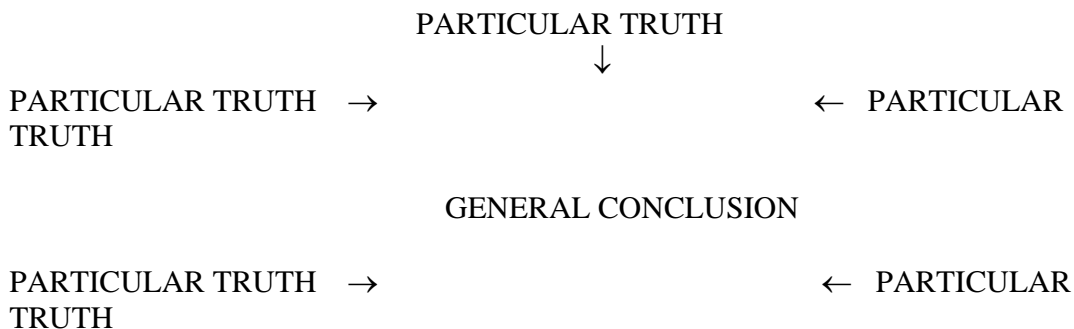
Syllogism – a three-step deductive argument.

What do you think about the following arguments?

I   All dogs are cat- chasers.
         Fifi is a dog.
         Fifi is a cat- chaser.
  .

 II   The most capable family member should rule the family unit.
         Men are more capable than women.
         The husband should rule the family.

III   All men are mortal.
         Socrates is mortal.
         Socrates is a man.

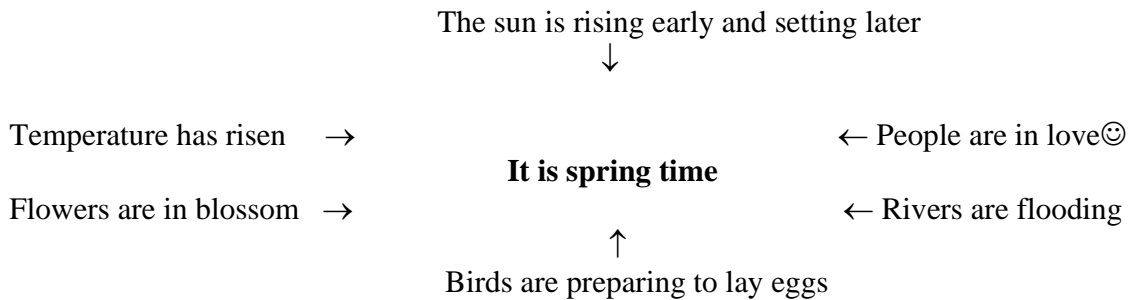The next step for the teacher would be to introduce students to inductive type of reasoning (the one we use more in our daily life)

Induction-in induction a reasoner draws general conclusion from particular examples (truths).

PARTICULAR TRUTH
↓

PARTICULAR TRUTH →   ← PARTICULAR TRUTH

GENERAL CONCLUSION

PARTICULAR TRUTH →   ← PARTICULAR TRUTH

↑

PARTICULAR TRUTH

Example:

The sun is rising early and setting later
↓

Temperature has risen →   ← People are in love☺
It is spring time

Flowers are in blossom →   ← Rivers are flooding
↑
Birds are preparing to lay eggs

The teacher should draw students' attention to the potential dangers of vesting too much trust in induction (it will become especially useful when analyzing some type of fallacious arguments with students, which are based on the improper use of induction: fallacy of composition, hasty generalization, etc.)

What do you think about the following argument?

Fifi is a cat- chaser, Gordon is a cat-chaser, Bobo is a cat- chaser, all the dogs I know are cat-chasers therefore all dogs are cat- chasers.

Important Distinctions

1. Just because something is stated as an argument, it doesn't mean it is true or valid.

2. Something may be true without being an argument (e.g. the Earth is round)

Having presented the debaters with a syllogism structure and two types of reasoning, the teacher may move on to presenting a Toulmin's model of argumentation. As it was said in the introduction to Session 2, it is important that too much focus on rules and theory of argumentation does not impede students' ability to distinguish between good and bad arguments in debate. The teacher may skip this part of session and simply move on to asking the debaters to formulate three, four arguments for and against a given resolution. Teachers may find it useful however to acquaint themselves with the Toulmin's model of argumentation to be able to assist students in formulating strong arguments.

TOULMIN'S MODEL

CLAIM ⟵——————————————————————⟶ DATA
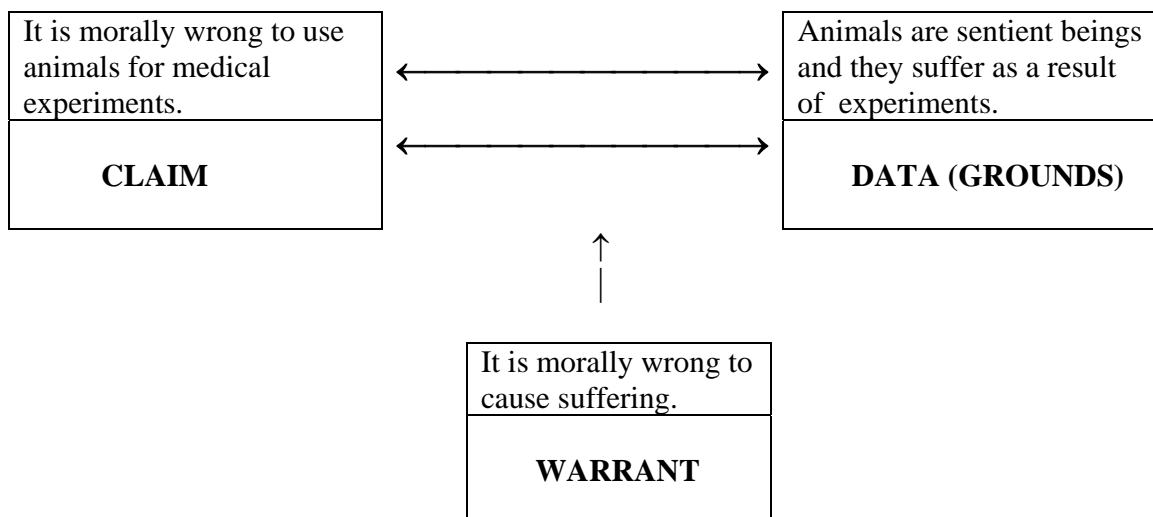(GROUNDS)

↑
WARRANT

CLAIM   - is a statement that the arguer wants his/her audience to accept

DATA   - it is additional information provided to the audience to support the claim

WARRANT   - it is an assumption or logical relationship which connects the claim to
the
             data.

Example:

It is morally wrong to use animals for medical experiments. **CLAIM**	⟷	Animals are sentient beings and they suffer as a result of experiments. **DATA (GROUNDS)**

↑

It is morally wrong to cause suffering. **WARRANT**

Example:

It is justified to use animals for medical experiments. **CLAIM**	⟷	Using animals for medical experiments saves human lives. **DATA (GROUNDS)**

↑
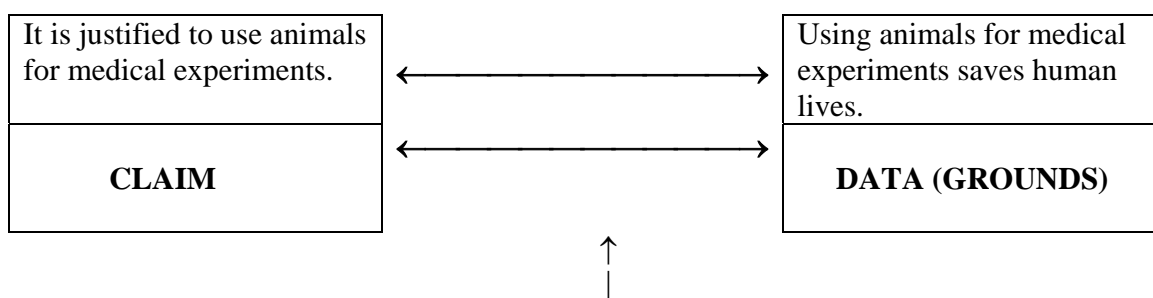
```
┌─────────────────────┐
│ Whatever saves       │
│ human life is justified │
├─────────────────────┤
│                     │
│     WARRANT         │
│                     │
└─────────────────────┘
```

One of the most important skills that students should acquire after this phase, is the ability to distinguish between an argument and an assertion. Very often, students will use assertions in debate to prove their point without realizing that they have not proven anything. For example, on the topic of vegetarianism they may say: "killing animals for food is wrong". This is merely restating of the resolution and not proving it. The teacher should bear in mind the structure of Toulmin's model, in order to elicit strong, well-supported arguments from debaters. That does not necessarily mean that students should be lectured on the theory of argumentation. A good debate trainer is more of a facilitator than a lecturer!

Knowing some theory behind the basic types of argumentation may also help the debate trainer to be more effective in assisting the debaters in the preparation of their cases. Below are 5 basic types of arguments with examples:

TYPES OF ARGUMENTS

I Argument by example: The debater offers evidence of what is known and proven as a fact. He/ she presumes that the same conclusion can be drawn about the unknown or made into a general truth.

Example:
Studies have been conducted on population X, which demonstrate that increased consumption of vegetables are beneficial to health. Therefore we should switch from meat-based diet to vegetable- based diet if we want to be healthy.

Important !

- Are there enough examples to prove the claim? Too often, debaters will reason simply from anecdotal evidence.

- Are there examples that might directly counter the given examples?

- Are the examples typical of the category the speaker wants to generalize about? It is important to have a representative sample if you wish to reason from example.

II Argument by analogy: The debater knows that A is true (justified, desirable). The thing she/he would like to make a claim about (B) is similar to A. Therefore he/she concludes that B is also true (justified, desirable)

Example:

National culture for a nation is like nutrition for an individual. If you deprive an individual of nutrition, he will perish. The same happens to nations who are deprived of their culture.

Important !

- How strong is the analogy? Are there differences between the two situations, people, events, etc. that are being compared? What are those differences?

- What are the similarities between the two things being compared?

- Do the similarities outweigh the differences? Do the differences outweigh the similarities?

III Argument of cause and effect : The debater identifies two phenomena and reasons that there is a causal relationship between them.

Example:

If parents who are unqualified to teach start teaching their children, the level of education will decrease dramatically.

Important !

- Are there other causes that could have prompted the discussed effect?

- What other effects does the cause produce? How do these weigh against the already specified effect?

IV Argument from sign – the debater notices that there is a correlation between two or more phenomena and argues that if one occurs, the other one is also likely to occur. The reasoning from sign is less rigorous than the reasoning from cause and effect- it does not require proof of causal relationship.

Example:
Countries with affluent citizens have high level of consumption. If a country reaches a high level of consumption that means that the majority of its population is rich.

Important !

- Is there any other explanation for the signs?

V Argument from authority/ testimony – the debater use an authority to prove the claim.

Example:

A psychologist from Harvard university, Ms Jennifer Smith claims that watching violent films does not have any influence on children, because they have the ability to distinguish between fiction and reality.

Important !

- What are the qualifications of the person(s) cited as a source? Are they qualified to speak about the subject they are cited on?

- Is the source relatively more or less biased about the debated topic?

Responding to the arguments of the opponents and cross- examination

Once the debaters have formulated their arguments, they can now practice some important debate skills, namely, refutation and cross- examination. This is the focus of session three. Below, we will present some theory and explanation of what the role of refutation and cross-examination is in debate, and provide a useful exercise which can be used by the Rainbow Bridge debate trainers to further develop and practice these skills with debaters prior to debate.

Refutation

Before conducting a session, the debate trainer may want to acquaint himself/ herself with some important distinctions related to refutation in academic debate.

Refutation – in academic debate is a process in which debaters react to the arguments presented by the opponents in order to reduce their impact on the audience.

! Refutation is responding to the *reasons* presented by the opponents and not merely presenting a counter argument.

Example:	**Argument**	Free speech causes instability in a state, because….
	Refutation	Free speech does not cause instability in a country, because…..

Example: **Argument** Free speech causes instability in a state, because….

Not refutation Free speech protects citizens' rights, because…..

A team wins a debate when it manages successfully to refute the arguments of their opponents and not simply advance their own arguments.

LEVELS OF REFUTATION

One of the mistakes that some students make during a debate is that they set themselves on refuting everything said by the opponents by simply denying the argument or fact presented (for example: Affirmative: "The earth is an ellipsis." Negative: "No, it isn't!") ☺

In order to avoid such situations, the teacher may want to make debaters aware of the fact that there are also other effective ways of refuting an opponent's argument.

I **Refuting reasoning** – a student may challenge the arguments presented by the opposition. Types of refutation include:

OPPOSING (DENIAL) - a student contradicts a claim made by the opposition and provides reasons.

Example:	**The affirmative:**	Free speech may causes instability in a state.
	The negative:	Not true - free speech insures checks and balances which provide stability.

MINIMAZING - a team does not deny the validity of the claim but reduces the argument's significance.

Example:	**The affirmative:**	Free speech may cause instability in a state.
	The negative:	It may cause instability but instances are few and not serious.

OUTWEIGTHING- a student agrees with the opposition but points to the benefits.

Example:	**The affirmative:**	Free speech may cause instability is a state.
	The negative:	It may cause instability but free speech safeguards people's rights and they are more important.

TURN AROUND- a students uses the reasoning provided by the opposition to prove his/her point.

Example: **The affirmative:**   Free speech may cause instability in a state.

            The negative: This is true- but is exposes the very causes of the social problems and allows to take action to prevent similar problems in the future.

EXPOSING FALLACIES – a team shows that reasoning of the opposite team is unsound

EXPOSING IRRELEVENT ARGUMENTS- a team demonstrates how a presented argument is not relevant to the discussion.

EXPOSING INCONSISTENCIES – a team shows that arguments presented by the opposition are inconsistent with each other (e.g. contradict each other).

II   **Refuting evidence-** a team may challenge support/ evidence given by the opposition. A team may question facts (and statistics) or credibility of the authority.

QUESTIONING FACTS/EXAMPLES – a team may refute the facts by demonstrating that:

- the facts are not true (by presenting counter-evidence)
- the facts are not universal – they constitute few isolated instances
- the examples do not cover a significant or relevant period of time
- the examples are not typical
- there are many negative instances to the examples (exceptions)
- the facts do not support the conclusion (are irrelevant to the conclusion)

QUESTIONING AUTHORITY – a team may refute the views presented by an authority by demonstrating that:

- the authority does not have sufficient expertise in the subject.
- the claim being made is not within the area of expertise of a given authority
- there isn't an adequate degree of agreement of other experts in the field.
- the authority in question is significantly biased/ prejudiced
- the area of expertise is not a legitimate area of expertise.
- the authority is not identified/ or does not exist

FOUR STEPS OF REFUTATION

I   **Identify your opponents argument**   They say that free speech promotes racism

II	**State your team's response**	but free speech allows to combat racism.
III	**Provide support**	By exposing racist speech, we can discuss it and reject it, which is not possible if such views are not in the open.
IV	**Impact your response**	So the possibility to reject bad ideologies is the reason to support free speech.

Cross-examination

Cross-examination is an important element of some debate formats (particularly Karl Popper debate). If teachers would like students to use the above-mentioned format, they may want to offer the students some information on the strategies for both the cross-examiners and respondents.

Strategies for cross- examiners

Dos

1.   Treat your opponent with respect and courtesy.

2.   Ask fair and relevant questions.

3.   Control the time – interrupt the respondent politely to request shorter or more direct answers.

4.   Develop a plan for your cross-examination – ask about individual elements of your opponents' case (definition, criterion, argumentation, evidence). Prepare the most important questions in advance.

5.   Limit the number of objectives in your cross-examination- probe each important issue of your opponents case.

6.   Begin with a common ground on which you expect agreement, proceed to the areas where you my expect disagreement.

7.   Listen to the answers - follow up on the leads that the respondent's answers give you.

8.   Ask the most important questions first.

9.   Be brief - ask closed end, factual questions- they have greater impact

10.   Use the information provided in cross- examination in your later speech

Don'ts

1.	Do not browbeat your opponent.

2.	Do not argue with your opponent, comment on his/her answers, present your team's arguments.

3.	Don't ask a miscellaneous assortment of questions that lack interrelation and adaptation to the respondent's answers.

4.	Do not ask negative, complex questions – the answers will be confusing.

5.	Do not insist on simple "Yes" or "No" answers if your questions are not simple, direct or factual.

Strategies for respondents

Dos

1.	Give courteous answers and treat your opponent with respect.

2.	Answer directly and briefly legitimate questions which have simple answers.

3.	Refuse to answer unfair or tricky questions.

4.	Ask for clarification if you do not understand a question.

5.	Admit ignorance, if the question demands knowledge of obscure facts.

6.	Exercise the control of the cross-examination period by controlling the timing of your answers.

7.	Remain poised and confident

Don'ts

1.	Do not question the Cross-examiner (unless the question is rhetorical or you would like to ask for clarification).

2.	Do not get drawn into an argument.

3.	Do not allow the Cross-examiner to draw conclusions

4.   Do not act confused when asked simple and legitimate questions

5.   Do not consult your colleagues or receive help from them during the
        cross-examination.

<u>Debate Exercises</u>

While introducing debate to students a teacher should avoid lecturing. There is no need to give them handouts with theory and expect them to memorize the rules. This is not a very effective method of teaching debate; it is counter- productive to the interactive process of education.

Instead, a teacher may want to acquaint himself/ herself with the most important aspects of debates (format, argumentation, refutation and cross- examination) and use them when engaging students in interactive exercises (as hints, tips and suggestions), instead of presenting the bulk of knowledge to them.

Below are a few exercises that are a very effective way to introduce students to debate and allow them practice some of the skills of argumentation, refutation and cross-examination.

I   Open Forum exercise (Chain debate exercise)

The main objective of the exercise is to provide its participants with an opportunity to practice their argumentation skills and understand the concepts inherent to debate: refutation and rebuttal (responding to arguments presented by others).

Number of participants: 15- 30

Duration: varies depending on a topic and the number of participants
                               (45min. -1 hr)

Procedure:
The teacher should ask students to sit in a circle. The teacher presents students with a topic for the Forum. The topic can be a debate resolution for the debate that will take place later on during a class. The teacher should then explain the rules of the Forum

The rules:
Each participant of the forum should choose one of the following options:

    1.   Present a new argument on the topic (either for or against).
    2.   Present a rebuttal of an argument offered by another participant (also refute
           the attack on that argument).
    3.   Present new support for an argument offered by another participant.
    4.   Cross- examine one of the participants

Role of the teacher:
The teacher should take part in the Forum (for example by offering one of the above when the discussion seems to be dying out). The teacher can also offer the first argument, thus starting the Forum.
The teacher should also assign speaking time to the participants if they raise their hand to offer one of the Forum options (making sure that students get to speak equally and that a few outspoken individuals do not monopolize the floor).
Make notes on the arguments, questions, evidence that participants offer in order to analyze them during the debriefing phase.

Debriefing:
The teacher should offer feedback to participants and comment on their arguments (using information provided in the previous part of the Debate section handout or the textbook)

Variations of the exercise:
The students can either volunteer to take the floor in the Forum (by raising a hand) or the teacher may use a simple way to energize the discussion by introducing a small ball which the students will be throwing to each other, thus effectively selecting next speakers.
The teacher may want to reserve the debriefing and offering feedback till the end of the Forum or choose to analyze arguments as they are presented during the Forum (it may be a bit overwhelming for the participants and they may feel interrupted).

II   Argument presentation activity

The main objective of the exercise is to give students the opportunity to think of a number of arguments (in a limited time) on a chosen topic and present them in a limited time.

Number of participants: 1-15- depending on the available time and how much
                               preparation time is given to individual students.

Duration: 10-45 minutes, depending on the number of individual
                               participants

Procedure:
The teacher should prepare a number of slips of paper (for example depending on the number o students). Each piece of paper should contain a provocative question (or controversial topic/resolution – a sample list is provided below). The teacher should fold the slips of paper and place them into a large envelope (basket, tray, etc.). One at a time students come in front of the room, draw a paper slip with a topic on it. She or he then must deliver a short presentation (the teacher should adjust the time: 3, 4 or 5 minutes))

during which a student must make 4 "intelligent points" (arguments). The points can be pro, con or neutral. They can reflect the student's actual opinion, his/ her presentation of somebody else's opinion. The teacher may want to give less experienced debaters some time to prepare their responses.

List of possible questions/topics:

At what age should a person get married?

At what age should a couple have children?

Is there any value is studying history?

At what age should a person be allowed to drink alcohol?

What is your opinion of politics and politicians?

Should men and women undertake the same jobs?

Is eating meat unethical?

Should military service be compulsory?

Should capital punishment be abolished?

Should soft drugs be legalized?

Do the rich countries have the obligation to support the poor countries?

Is democracy the best form of government ?

SPAR Debates (SPontaneous ARgumentation Exercise)

Adapted by the Baltimore Urban Debate League in August, 2001

Rationale: This is an introduction activity designed to familiarize students with:

- Making arguments
- Asking questions about arguments
- Refuting arguments
- Judging the relative strength of arguments
- Building confidence in public speaking

The format can be adapted to fit different seizes of groups, to include written materials, to cover virtually any topic, and to last virtually any length of time.

SPAR Debate Sample Format

Affirmative Opening Speech	90 seconds
Cross Examination by the Negative	60 seconds
Negative Opening Speech	90 seconds
Cross Examination by the Affirmative	60 seconds
Affirmative Closing Speech	45 seconds
Negative Closing Speech	45 seconds

Step One: Introductory Model
Two: "teachers" (this might be two students familiar with SPAR debating-or it could be one teacher player both sides if this isn't too confusing) will model what is expected of students in SPAR debates. Here is how it works:
1. Debaters step up to the front of the room and a coin is flipped.
2. The winner of the coin flip may choose to either:

a. Pick the topic from a list on a handout/overhead/chalkboard. The opponent (the one who lost the flip) may then choose which side of the topic (affirmative or negative) they want to defend.
b. Allow their opponent to pick the topic. The coin flip winner will then be allowed to pick which side they want to debate on.

3. Debaters get 5 minutes to prepare. They may write down whatever they want and may use this to give a speech. In the Introductory model, the teacher preparing should use a chalkboard/overhead to show students what they are thinking about and how they will prepare their speech.
4. The teachers engage in a demonstration debate (see format above). A discussion after the debate about how it went, how the debate format works, etc.

Step 2: Student SPAR debating

Using the 4 steps in the introductory model, pairs of students will come up in turn to debate. SPAR debating runs most efficiently if you have one pair "on deck" before each debate starts. That is, after the first group has prepared but before the debate starts, a new pair comes up, picks the sides and topic, and goes to the back of the room to prepare their speeches. This way, they are ready as soon as the first debate is over to get up and debate. If there are an odd number of students, students can be encouraged to debate a second time. You may also wish to assign a few students the roles of timekeeper and moderator (coin flipper, keeping things running etc.) If one person does all of this, you may not wish to require them to debate. Alternately, this role could be assigned to the first pair with the teacher filling in during the first debate. Students should be encouraged to take notes on the arguments made by their opponents and to use these notes to answer these arguments.

<u>Step 3: Discussion</u>
Once the debates are over students should discuss what they liked/didn't like about the topics, the arguments, things they learned, etc. Teachers should take notes during the debates so they can identify outstanding performances, quality arguments, and make some constructive criticism of how things went.

Possible topics related to general education for SPAR exercise:

1. The only lesson that history teaches us is that history does not teach us anything.
2. Students should be able to choose what subjects they would like to study.
3. Literature is fiction and as such it does not teach us anything about life.
4. There is no value to reading poetry.
5. It is necessary to study the life of an author in order to understand his/her work.
6. Test-based exams should be abolished.
7. Parents should be able to make decisions about their children's education.
8. Boys and girls should be studying in separate classes.
9. Students should wear uniforms to school.
10. Schools should be voluntary.
11. Students should prepare for only one career
12. Foreign language instruction should be increased in schools.
13. History is not to be trusted because winners write it.
14. Morality is in the eye of beholder.
15. There has been too much reliance on scientific method.
16. The power of science is too dangerous.
17. The poverty of the developing world is the fault of the developed world.
18. Science is more important now than religion.
19. Competition is destructive for sport.
20. Students should be allowed to smoke at school.

When generating topics, you can also try to phrase topics so that the affirmative (who affirms the statement) is arguing for change from the current system, and try to pick topics such that all students should be able to think of more than 1-2 arguments on each side fairly easily.

III   Cross-examination

Hot chair exercise

The teacher asks students to sit in a circle or semi-circle. One of the students is selected to sit in the "hot chair" (in the middle of the circle or in front of the semi- circle). The teacher may also sit in the "hot chair" in order to demonstrate the exercise to the group. The person sitting in the "hot chair" draws a slip of paper with a debate resolution and is

asked to present one argument (for/or against the resolution). Students take turns asking questions to the student sitting in the "hot chair" (single or in question chains) and the student answers the questions. After each response, the group votes whether the question (s) were effective in challenging the argument presented. If the majority thinks that a question was effective, the student who asked the question takes a place in the "hot chair" and draws a new resolution, presents an argument and is subject to cross-examination.

All against one

The teacher delivers an affirmative speech in support of a chosen resolution (6 minutes) presenting a number of arguments (the teacher may want to script the speech before the lesson). Each student writes on a piece of paper what they would like to achieve through their chain of questions (e.g. *I would like the cross-examined to a admit that...*). Each student gives a paper to another student and they take turns cross-examining the teacher. The student who has a paper of the cross-examiner listens to the cross-examination carefully and once he/she believes that the cross-examiner has accomplished the objective stated on the piece of paper, he/or she says STOP. He/she then reveals the objective of the cross- examiner to the group and the group discusses whether the cross-examiner has accomplished the stated objective. The teacher may set time limits on how long the cross- examination should be (e.g. no longer than 2 minutes).
The same exercise can be conducted with students delivering the speech and answering questions.

Flow debate

This exercise emphasizes the use of written skills and introduces students to the idea of *flowing* debate, that is, taking notes during a live debate in the classroom. During this lesson students can be divided into a number teams: 4 or 5 (with 3-5 students in each team, depending on the number of students) and each team gets an opportunity to both support and refute a selected debate resolution. After the teacher announces the debate topic, each team receives a flipchart and a marker and they are asked to write 3-4 arguments in support of the debate motion in a column on the right side of the flipchart paper. After all the teams have finished writing, they exchange their flipchart papers and they need to respond to the arguments presented by another team, by writing their responses in another column, as well as writing new arguments against the resolution. The flipchart is then passed from one team to another and students must defend the original arguments presented by the first team (not their own). The exercise finishes when each team receives back the flipchart with their original arguments in the first column.

MODEL FLOW DEBATE

1st TEAM (*affirmative*)	2nd TEAM (*negative*)	3rd TEAM (*affirmative*)	4th TEAM (*negative*)
1. 1st ARGUMENT	1st RESPONSE	1st RESPONSE	1st RESPONSE
	2nd RESPONSE	2nd RESPONSE	2nd RESPONSE
2. 2nd ARGUMENT			
	3rd RESPONSE	3rd RESPONSE	3rd RESPONSE
3. 3rd ARGUMENT	4th RESPONSE	4th RESPONSE	4th RESPONSE
	1st NEW ARGUMENT	RESPONSE to 1st ARGUMENT	1st RESPONSE
4. 4th ARGUMENT	2nd NEW ARGUMENT		2nd RESPONSE
	3rd NEW ARGUMENT	RESPONSE to 2nd ARGUMENT	3rd RESPONSE
		RESPONSE to 3rd ARGUMENT	