

Third edition

# Handbook for Competitive Debating: Asian Parliamentary Format



Jogja Debating Forum Team

2014







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Handbook for Competitive Debating:  
Asian Parliamentary Format  
Third Edition.

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# FOREWORDS

## FOUNDER OF JOGJA DEBATING FORUM

Debating is about change. Sometimes we are constantly engaged in a struggle to make our lives, our community (e.g. JDF), our country, our world, and our future a better one. We should never be satisfied with the way things are now - surely there is something in our lives that could be improved, could be changed and could be fun.

People debate for a number of reasons: to convince other people that his/her opinion is better, to listen to what other people think of an issue, to find which solution is the best for a problem; and I believe this handbook could be a good bridge for you to learn about debating.

This second edition provides you more insightful and updated content & issues, which you can always rely on to find inspiration and reference of analytical-critical thinking and public speaking skills to the fullest; skills which are very useful in everyday life.

In the end, don't forget to always have fun. That is the essence of Jogja Debating Forum. Happy debating!

Irfansyah Kurnia Putra  
JDF-er for life

## PRESIDENT OF JOGJA DEBATING FORUM (2013-2014)

“People’s experiences, knowledge, and communication behaviors shape an individual’s standpoint –stance upon a certain issue.” This is what the Standpoint Theory claims. It should not be a surprise then if an exact same case is being viewed differently by different individuals. It is also naive to say that none of those views are opposing one another. Indeed, our thoughts and opinions shall be expressed, as it is one of the very things that makes us human. However, the matter of how those clashing ideas should be expressed without triggering fights, chaos, or disintegration is still sometimes neglected by many of us.

We agree to disagree; therefore, we digest more through our argumentations to gain better understanding. That is what parliamentary debating provides – a platform to criticize instead of taking things for granted; to convey our opinion based on a set of facts and logic, not a rash prejudice; and to rebut and refute the ideas, not the persons. This platform has an important role for people to harness their critical thinking ability, express their ideas, and to broaden their perspectives.

Jogja Debating Forum shares this view. This forum is an association of debaters across Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta coming from various ages, fields of study, and both level of study and debating experience, banded together for the purpose of parliamentary debating development.

Knowledge is more fruitful when shared. Under this spirit, Jogja Debating Forum has been devoting on parliamentary debating proliferation – especially in Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, ever since it was founded in 2004. Debate seminar, coaching, adjudicator’s accreditation, competition, adjudication, good relations with local education department; we’ve been doing the best we can do to serve our mission, and this handbook isn’t an exception.

With our limited capacity to reach all schools and universities in Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta – even expanding our scope to other provinces and to always be available 24/7, we are devoting this book to be accessible by any individual, regardless of time and place, who wishes to learn more about parliamentary debating.

Last but not least, I’d like to personally deliver my deepest gratitude to the authors, who have kindly shared and poured their knowledge into this book; and to each of you for your thirst for knowledge, as well as your trust to this book as one of the sources.

This book is for you.

Gratsia Kancanamaya

## PRESIDENT OF JOGJA DEBATING FORUM (PERIOD 2014-2015)

To proliferate English debate, JDF, as one of the biggest debating communities, believes that it is not enough by only holding regular practices, debate seminars and competitions, or simply providing accredited adjudicators and eligible debate trainers. The reason why it is not enough is because these things are held separately and it focuses more on the practice. Meanwhile, we see that there is a huge demand to compile all the theories of debating in one book. That's why people who are new in debate who don't do much practices, and people who don't have debate trainers can be helped by reading this book as guidance. Therefore, in 2010, JDF for the first time published its handbook which consists of basic ideas about what is debate and how to debate. To develop the contents, the JDF team always looks up for any feedback and renews the handbook by making newer editions.

There are so many people who have contributed in creating and finishing the 3<sup>rd</sup> edition of the JDF Handbook. Firstly, I'd like to thank to authors who have successfully authored the debate manual namely the JDF Handbook and has revised it twice since the 1<sup>st</sup> edition was issued. Nothing is perfect, but we know the authors are always trying their best to make the handbook look perfect. They have dedicated countless effort, energy, thought, time, and even money, for just making the handbook as best as possible.

Secondly, I'd like to also thank to the former cabinet of JDF which was led by Ms. RR. Gratsia Kancanamaya, or we usually call her Aya. The 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition JDF Handbook was supposed to be created and published under her cabinet, but unfortunately the book has yet to be completed until after the end of the presidency. That's why we are really grateful that this book finally can be finished in this new JDF cabinet.

Nevertheless, JDF as a team cannot stand alone, we need other people, such as debaters, teachers or other individuals, to make use of this book for debating purposes. We are really glad knowing these people who come from institutions inside and outside Yogyakarta still give their trust to use the JDF Handbook as their debating guidance until this time. Therefore these people must receive our highest appreciation.

Finally we do hope this book can be very useful for all people to understand the fundamental concepts of a debate. We don't guarantee you to become a great debater after reading this handbook, but at least we hope you will more easily understand about all basic techniques in debate provided in this newest edition. In the end, I just want to say happy reading and happy debating.

-Tika Destiratri Setiawan-

## ON BEHALF OF THE AUTHORS OF THE THIRD EDITION

It has been a delight to witness that there has been such overwhelming positive feedback from the users of the second edition of this book. Users from Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta as well as from other regions such as East Java and Batam have expressed their interest to this book, and provided positive feedback for it. That is why I have recalled the team of authors (with a few new members), and established an editorial team, to construct a third edition.

At the start, Jogja Debating Forum (JDF) did not really intend to make a special handbook. As one could easily read in the second edition, this book was initially made as a curriculum for a training-competition (*traimpetition*) that we held in 2010. The initial authors were a special team which consisted of Vitri Sekarsari, Karlina Denistia, Widya Adhi Nugroho, Rangga Dian Fadillah, Mohammad Fikri Pido, M. Rifky Wicaksono, Keinesasih Hapsari, and myself as head of authors. The president at the time, Meganusa, decided to launch that curriculum as JDF's own debating handbook, which proved to be a very good decision.

The first edition was actually quite a mess in terms of formatting. Therefore, we issued a second edition with minor substantive revisions (and Ibrahim Hanif joining the author team) but a major layout and design making (perhaps it might do better justice to just make that second edition the first, and this edition to be the second one instead, but then that will serve as too much trouble). Hopefully, you will find that this third edition will include quite a number of very significant substantive revisions in many of its chapters.

After the second edition was launched, there were many new ideas emerging from our members. These new ideas would come in form of new demands in training necessities, alternate approaches to conduct trainings, new methods of structuring debates, as well as new approaches to understanding argument construction. I thought that such new ideas must be incorporated into the debate handbook, so that these new developments can be enjoyed by as many as possible.

I really hope, though, that this book is not misused. By misusing, I do not mean anything that involves farm animals and domestic violence. I have witnessed many teams that view debating as something not in line with JDF's vision. They see debate just to get additional certificates, or they see debate solely as a competition to win from, and so many more. It is never wrong to believe or perceive in any way you want, really. You can believe whatever you like. However, I am an educator, and certainly it is not wrong either for me to have my hopes high.

To begin with, debating is an important skill for our life. It makes us aware of national and international issues, helps us make better decisions with sharper analysis to consider our options, and the public speaking really does help. But then, JDF sees debate as something more than that. JDF has always seen debate as fun! We know no such thing as a spelling bee-er, scrabble-er, but we do know debaters.



There is only one reason why we are even labeled in such a way: we love debating and debating loves us.

But I have not mentioned the 'misuse' yet. Now, books are always a very essential part of education. They could represent a vast amount of knowledge by many people, all at once, in one simple item, easily accessed in your laptop or on your shelf. In individual assignments, books (both softcopy and hardcopy) are the first resources from which to seek information. However, do not ever keep the information seeking at the individual level only. It is essential and imperative to gather and learn together.

Debate is not just about reading materials, and practicing with your own debating community over and over again will not provide the maximum quality of training. Always diversify your training partners by visiting other institutions and holding joint-practices (especially if you have a regional debating community like JDF). By that, you will be more prepared to face a variety of types of people and styles of arguing. Perhaps also, you can discuss and share the ways you understand this book or even criticize it. You will never know what new things that you can learn from each other.

Not only you will get maximum substantial benefits, but also you could achieve better fun! There is nothing more fun than involving more people with the same interest and doing all the wacky stuff during the debate practices.

That is why this book was made, only as a guidebook, which would hopefully contribute positively to your debate trainings to give positive effects to your life. Then, from this book, it is your choice to make good use of its contents. Later on, please provide feedback also via the author/s or via JDF management.

I am perhaps the leader of the author team. But then, what I did was insignificant if not for the splendid cooperation of the other authors. At this opportunity, I would call for a round of applause for my team: Vitri Sekarsari, Karlina Denistia, Rangga Dian Fadillah, Mohammad Fikri Pido, M. Rifky Wicaksono, Keinesasih Hapsari, Ibrahim Hanif, and an extra round of applause for the new members of our author team: Marsa Harisa, Dwi Supriono, and Thalita Hindarto! Then I would also call for another round of applause for the head of our editorial team, Walissa Tanaya, and her team: Aura Fadzila, Muhammad Afri, and Yustia Rahma.

The greatest round of applause, however, goes to you. You, you, and you, who have stirred up the atmosphere from which the demand for this book emerged in the first place, and such enthusiasm that made it possible for this book to continue its editions up to three.

I hope you enjoy this book and find some use in it.

Fajri Matahati Muhammadin



يُؤْتِي الْحِكْمَةَ مَنْ يَشَاءُ وَمَنْ يُؤْتَ الْحِكْمَةَ فَقَدْ أُوتِيَ خَيْرًا  
كَثِيرًا وَمَا يَذَّكَّرُ إِلَّا أُولُو الْأَلْبَابِ ﴿٢٦٩﴾

(Al Quran, Surah Al Baqarah ayah 169: "He gives wisdom to whom He wills, and whoever has been given wisdom has certainly been given much good. And none will remember except those of understanding.")

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"You are the salt of the earth. But if the salt loses its saltiness, how can it be made salty again? It is no longer good for anything, except to be thrown out and trampled underfoot." (New Testament, Mathew 5: 13)

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## तमसोमा ज्योतिरगमय

(Upanishad, Brihadaranyaka Upanishad 1.3.28.: "Lead me from the darkness to light.")

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"But the wise man is he who carefully discriminates between right and wrong." (Buddha, in Dhammapada v.256)

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"Observe therefore and do them; for this is your wisdom and your understanding in the sight of the peoples, that, when they hear all these statutes, shall say: 'Surely this great nation is a wise and understanding people.'" (Torah, Deuteronomy 4: 6)

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## CHAPTER I

### WHAT AND WHY

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#### A. INTRODUCING A DEBATE

Oxford Dictionary defines the word 'debate' as "(noun) a formal discussion on a particular matter in a public meeting or legislative assembly, in which opposing arguments are put forward and which usually ends with a vote". It is important to point out a few key phrases from that definition, in a particular order that is not necessarily in accordance with its occurrence in the sentence.

1. "...opposing arguments are put forward..."

One would find that this is the true heart of a debate. However, only a few will notice that the phrase 'opposing arguments' does not mean, for example, "death penalty violates human rights" against "but death penalty is effective to reduce crime". Those two arguments may seem to be on opposite sides, but they do not negate each other –thus is not *per se* an opposition to each other. An example of a real opposite would be "Death penalty violates human rights" against "death penalty does not violate human rights". This is what we call a 'clash'.

2. "...formal discussion..."

Formalities and procedures have always been introduced to manifest and direct the intended substance. While a random bystander may see these formalities as an unnecessary hindrance, a wiser person would see them as an integral part to ensure a maximum implication of the substance. In parliamentary debating, there is a set of procedural rules which must be fulfilled not merely for the sake of formality, but because they have material implications to the substance of the debate.

3. "...a particular matter..."

Any debate will be set with a certain topic to resolve. In parliamentary debate, this is called a 'motion.' The committee for the competition prepares them. Some of them are given on the spot during the competition (they then give teams an allotted amount of time to discuss about it), some are given before the date of the competition for further research, and in some special competitions they only give hints and clues beforehand then later on give the topic on the spot. These topics are always active, assertive sentences.

4. "...a particular matter..."

It would not be much of a debate if the two opposing sides argued about different topics. Neither would it be so if the topic is the same but both teams have different understandings on what the topic means. An extreme example would be on the topic of applying fat tax, where one thinks it means that fat people should be given tax and the other thinks it means giving tax

to fatty food. Or in another instance, in a debate about legalizing narcotics, if one team assumes that it means everyone can access any kinds of drugs without restrictions, while the other team thinks that a very restrictive mechanism should accompany such legalization.

This is why the teams must agree upon a certain definition and context of the topic first before arguing about it. Traditionally, team government sets this definition.

5. “...ends with a vote.”

Although somewhat implicit in the phrase, it means that there will be those who decide which side wins. Seeing as the real competition is in the arguments, it is clear that what will be decided upon is which argument is better. To that end, there are two inseparable ways to do so. Firstly, one would prefer one argument to the other based on their proof. Proof refers to the logic (or logical analysis) and factual proof. Without such proof, judges cannot judge or even understand the arguments –or worse, their own heads would find the proof, thus making the judges inner self compete instead of the teams.

Secondly, one would usually tend to support a more articulately explained argument. On an extreme end, no matter how brilliant the argument is, you cannot like it if you do not understand it. Furthermore, an argument that is delivered with an eloquent choice of words and attractive way of speaking tends to be much more convincing than one delivered by a speech as monotonous as a vacuum cleaner.

6. “...in a public meeting or legislative assembly...”

The reason why this is also a key phrase to understand debate correctly is because on many occasions, people argue pointlessly without a clear goal. Parliamentary debating competitions, however, position the participants as parliament members or other kinds of decision making groups where the directions are clear; whether a certain action must be done, or whether a certain moral stance should be adopted.

All of the above key phrases describe parliamentary debating in a nutshell. The entirety of this book will elaborate those points in much greater detail in the hope that we can better prepare for our debates.

## B. WHY DO WE DEBATE?

Some believe that debates are natural to mankind. Islamic religion, for instance, believes that the creation of men was accompanied by a debate where the Devil argued against the command of God to salute Adam (Surah Al A’raf v. 11-12) – even if it was not exactly humans that were debating.<sup>1</sup> For humans, life is a long series of decision making. These decisions are always made based on pros and cons, or in other words, opposing arguments. It is in our nature.

Parliamentary debating is just one out of numerous kinds of competitions we can find all around us. But why do we debate?

---

<sup>1</sup>See also Surah Thaha v. 117-121 Adam refused to take the forbidden fruit based on reasoning, but eventually took it anyway simply because Eve told him to.



## 1. A Common Misconception

It is apparent that many have misunderstood the concept of debate, especially when attributing a certain language to it. Indonesia is a good example. The phrase ‘debate competition’ is actually translated as “*lomba debat*” in Bahasa Indonesia. However, its first debate competitions were in English as preparation for international competitions,<sup>2</sup> so they had to call it English Debate (or *debat bahasa Inggris*). Then, when debates were held in Bahasa Indonesia, they felt the need to call it *debat bahasa Indonesia* or Indonesian Debate.

A two word noun phrase has a modifier and antecedent, where the modifier further explains the antecedent. For example, take the phrase ‘red car.’ The main word, or antecedent, is ‘car.’ However, the car is red. Red explains the kind of car, thus is a modifier. Being mentioned first or last does not necessarily determine which the antecedent is and which the modifier is, as a result one needs to really understand the phrase. In the noun phrase ‘English debate’, the word ‘debate’ is the antecedent and ‘English’ is the modifier. The whole idea of the activity is to debate. The fact is that the international language happens to be English, so many competitions are held in that language. It works the same way for Indonesian debate; a competition in Indonesia for Indonesian students.

However, it seems that for some amount of time, many have thought that the antecedent was the word ‘English’ and ‘Debate’ was the modifier. It comes naturally that one would pay more attention to the word they are most familiar with. For example, the ministry of education would never have really heard the word ‘debate’ much, but ‘English’ is something that they were very familiar with. Thus, it was included in English activities, along with spelling bee and storytelling.

The situation was supportive of that because not many people could speak English, and those who did would usually do well in their English class at school and join English clubs —which is usually managed by English teachers. Therefore, English debate is seen more as an English language activity, in the sense that the way it is assessed mostly based on language proficiency. The problem goes the same way for Indonesian Debates.

It is not entirely wrong to want to improve English with debating. After all, not many other activities test your skills in public speaking, research, listening, thinking quick; all in English, and all in one activity. What is wrong is when people who are particularly learned (and have a degree) in language cannot tell the difference between a modifier and antecedent, especially when the true benefits of the activity is then hindered.

## 2. Debating as an Education

Most, if not all, competitions claim that they will help you sharpen a certain kind of skill. However, very few of them have established a system from which one could really be educated in that certain skill. There are barely any, if any at all, competitions that require their judges to explain up to the most detailed reasons behind their decisions, and participants are free to ask for feedback at any time.

There also are barely any, if any at all, competitions that require their judges to be accredited first, other than in debate competitions. This is to make sure that, despite some subjectivity, all

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<sup>2</sup>And before that, due to the political regime, it was quite hard to make such kinds of competitions at all (before 1998).

judges give feedback with a close to uniform standard. You can generally expect a very similar way of assessment from one competition to the other almost all over the world, so you can really know how to prepare and assess your own progresses.

To the end, debates are first assessed qualitatively (who manages to prove their arguments more, *etc.*) before they are marked quantitatively (with numbers). Numbers are needed only because of the need for final rankings. It is important to do so because it would be hard to learn if a judge says, 'you win because you have higher scores.' Debate is all about 'you win because you proved your arguments better in xxx, and therefore, because of that, you get a higher score.'

This is entirely different from storytelling competitions. For example, while some competitions might appreciate participants that have a wide array of equipment more than those who bring nothing but a good act, others may prefer otherwise. Or in a speech contest, while some competitions might appreciate participants bringing visual materials (such as slides, posters, *etc.*), others may think 'this is a speech competition, not a poster presentation!'

Another example was when English debate in Indonesia was still judged by English lecturers in the National Science Week for Universities (PIMNAS). Some teams lost because they were impolitely pointing at their opponents, bringing notes thus 'were too textbook compared to the opponents who came without notes', or quoting sources when it is 'unethical to mention brands.' Other teams in that same competition won because they were pointing at their opponents thus displaying enthusiasm and dynamics, proving their case better because they brought notes unlike the unclear opponent which did not bring any, and quoting sources thus 'having better authority for their argument credibility.'

These are the horrors of what might happen if there were no universal guideline to what is assessed.

This is why most –if not all—debate competitions around the world are similar in a uniform kind of way, especially the ones done in English since they are usually held as preparation for the international ones. Some competitions may have different technicalities (such a debating formats), but in essence, the way they are assessed is almost exactly the same.

Therefore, whatever benefits that debating has to offer, it also comes with a system to make sure that participants will not only learn to the furthest extent possible by doing, but also through having constant character assessment, so they can evaluate themselves on how far have they mastered the skills that debating activities have promised.

### 3. The Promise of Debating

The following are what you stand to gain from English debating, and why this activity is so distinct from others.

#### a) *Decision Making*

Making decisions is something that you cannot avoid throughout your life. Decisions can be as simple as 'what to have for breakfast?' up until something like 'what kind of policy

is best to solve poverty.’ Debate trains its participants to weigh options, gather relevant facts, consider all there is to consider, and then assess wisely among the options.

It is commonly known that practice makes perfect and turns command to reflex; training minds to argue and debate can not only help you in making good decisions but also in making them fast.

**b) *Opening Minds***

Every person usually has a certain moral stance towards things. For example, you could be against abortion, prostitution, or free trade. In many places on earth, people with their own opinions –regardless how they came to that opinion—tend to not really want to listen and appreciate other ones.

However, teams cannot always choose to be government or opposition. Most of the time, the sides are determined by a computer system or even a coin toss. Despite being against the death penalty at heart, debaters must always face the possibility of having to argue that ‘death penalty is justifiable.’ Not only that, you will then be required to leave your ‘comfort zone’ and be exposed to the fact that everything has at least two perspectives, which you must understand if you want to win.

Even if you do not change your personal opinion on a particular matter, you might gain an even stronger ground to believe what you believe. Furthermore, it is very important to note that you may learn to respect and understand people of different opinions.

**c) *Debating and Democracy***

Democracy can seem very powerful and persuasive to the people, claiming ‘a government from, by, and for the people.’ However, to many scholars, this concept must be evaluated very carefully. It is understood that everyone has equal rights. But giving the same amount of votes to a professor in political science with that of a barely literate, uneducated person—are we not worried about that?

It is therefore essential for a democratic society to make good decisions. Making good decisions means that they must be aware of and able to access the facts and situation. In debate competitions, topics may range from law, economy, culture, biotechnology, sex, child development, nuclear, and so much more. Awareness of the facts and situation around you will help in gathering more information to base decisions upon.

Combined with the skills of decision making as mentioned before, debating could most certainly help build a better democratic society.

**d) *Public Speaking and Confidence***

For some people, being asked to speak in front of a classroom would feel like a punishment. And even for those who enjoy it, on many occasions their message might not be conveyed the way it was intended. For anyone, especially those who want to hold important positions, to have a proper social function, something clearly must be done.

Debating forces you to get used to speaking in front of public and trains how to explain arguments. This includes making a superior flow of arguments, using enhanced intonations and gestures, and so much more. Some overcome stage fright by getting used to it after being demanded to do it over and over again, others by getting better at it, and most by a combination of both.

**e) *Personality Traits***

There are many other traits that debating can help you gain, as long as you can relate to the virtue and wisdom behind certain things that debating offers, although such connections are not explicitly established.

In a debate, one does not simply interrupt abruptly. Some formats do not allow any interruptions at all. Formats that do allow interruptions require the interrupter to ask the speaker's permission first in a polite manner (such as by raising a hand and saying, 'excuse me'). Furthermore, the interruption may only be commenced after the speaker has given permission. The fact that speakers must wait for their turn before and only do so within the allotted amount of time also has moral virtues.

The entire mentioned standards of etiquette are not practiced by many. If debaters could relate to this and apply it to the conduct of their daily life while also being able to make better decisions, being open minded, knowledgeable, good communicator, what more could you ask from a person?

## **C. WHAT WILL BE LEARNED**

In order to gain the mentioned benefits above, other than by having a proper evaluation system, you must have a proper learning system. These are the materials that should be learned in order to debate properly.

### **1. Definitions**

As previously mentioned, it is important to have a common ground of debate between both teams if one were to have a good and productive debate. Therefore, it is essential to understand how to make a good definition. Other than not missing important key points, you must also be aware that some definitions are unfair. Knowing these unfair definitions is important so that teams could avoid making them, as well as be able to respond appropriately to such unfair definitions.

### **2. Contextualization**

This is actually an integral part of a definition. However, as a matter of learning, explanations between the two should be separated. Contextualization extends to do more than just clarify what the debate motion is; it constructs a full set up for a proposal debate. It includes identifying problems within the status quo, determining goals, setting a mechanism as a proposal to solve those problems, and thus completing the grounds for the debate.

3. **Arguments, Rebuttals, and Research**

As previously mentioned, it is important to prove the arguments given. Therefore, teams must first learn how an argument is established in order to prove them by learning its anatomy. Rebuttals are very important to learn aside from arguments, as it is the contest of arguments versus rebuttals that becomes the heart of a debate. There are various ways to make a rebuttal towards an argument. In order to substantiate an argument or rebuttal, teams must be able to research. As an integral part of arguments and rebuttals, the ways to conduct research will be part of what you may learn in this particular section.

4. **Role of Speakers**

In a team debate, every team member has a specific role to carry out. These roles are not mere procedures, as they have substantial implications to the course of the debate. Fully understanding the role of speakers in a debate will help maximize the potentials of a team and speaker in performing their duties.

5. **Style**

To ensure that the judges or audience fully understand the arguments delivered, as well as be convinced as much as possible, you must practice your public speaking skills. You must explore yourself to find what your problems are and face them and then to identify which important elements are needed to do a good public speech.

6. **How to Win a Debate**

In the end, teams must know how a debate is being judged. If you do not know the way judges think then it would be pretty hard to figure out how good you need to be. “As good as you can get” is not the best answer for that, as you really need to assess your market before you sell anything. Qualitative judging is something that is not common in the world of competitions; one would need to really understand this –both participants and judges.





## CHAPTER II

### DEFINITIONS

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- What are the functions of definition?
- How do we make a good definition?
- What is a Definitional challenge?

#### A. THE FUNCTIONS OF DEFINITION

A definition is **an interpretation of the motion**. The **1<sup>st</sup> speaker of the affirmative team** needs to provide this in the early minutes of his/her speech, in order to set a clear **parameter** of the debate. In other words, a definition determines *what* the teams would be debating about, and *where* the debate should go. It's not exaggerating to say that definition is the **foundation** of not just a team's case, but the whole debate.

➤ Example 1:

Motion: That quota is not the answer for women.

Definition:

**Quota.** Putting a minimum limit of 30% seats for women in the parliament.

**Not the answer.** Not the right solution to promote gender equality in society.

Thus the whole definition is: "Putting a minimum limit of 30% seats for women in parliament is not the right solution to promote gender equality in society".

➤ Example 2:

Motion: That this house supports capital punishment for drug dealers

Definition:

**This house.** The affirmative/the government.

**Capital Punishment.** A maximum punishment given to a criminal in the form of death penalty.

**Drug Dealers.** People who sell, distribute, and committing illegal drug trafficking in a certain amount according to the existing law.

Thus the whole definition is: "we support the death penalty for people who sell, distribute, and commit illegal drug trafficking in a certain amount".

Novice debaters often think that if a motion contains terms which meanings are commonsensical, they don't need to define the motion. But actually, every motion can be subjected to multiple interpretations. Thus, there is a big risk of a parallel debate – one where arguments from opposite

teams don't clash each other – or a definitional challenge (more on this next) as the result of a negative team having a different interpretation of the motion.

➤ Example:

**THB in Pertamina.**

Everybody knows that Pertamina is a company owned by government which deals with the supply of fuel. But what does *believing in Pertamina* means? It could mean *stopping the import of fuel because we believe that Pertamina alone could secure national needs*. But it could also mean that *Pertamina should be the one to decide the price of fuel*.

It may seem unfair for the affirmative team to have such burden, but actually it's also a big advantage for them. Practically, with a definition, as long as it is still debatable, one can construct a parameter ('room of the debate') to benefit his/her team or to disadvantage the other.

➤ Example:

**TH prefers censorship over rating.**

Rather than generalizing censorship over rating for all kinds of media, the affirmative team may want to limit the debate to television only, because they can argue that *nobody could control viewing activity, including children's choices of TV programs*.

However, if the motion says otherwise – TH prefers rating over censorship – the affirmative team may want to constraint the parameter to movies only, because they can argue that *theaters could confirm people's IDs to make sure whether they're age-appropriate to watch the movie*.

## B. MAKING A GOOD DEFINITION

### 1. Simple Guidelines to Make a Good One

a) *Identify the keywords of the motion, and define each of them.*

No need to define every single word in the motion. Keywords are, generally, *words that raise controversy or questions*.

➤ Example:

**THW adjust to transgender.**

Keywords: transgender, adjust

b) *Defining the motion does not mean giving the literal meaning of the words in it or their synonyms.*

So, most of the times, taking definitions out of dictionaries won't help your case.

➤ Example:

**THW *adjust* to transgender.**

*Adjusting* means *adapting*, but what does it mean *here*? What is the *implication* to your case?

c) *Often, it's not enough to define the words in the motion.*

To establish a solid foundation of the case and boundaries for the room of the debate, we have to add *time*, *place*, and sometimes *situational setting*. To do this, you must pay attention to *the spirit of the motion* – can be easily recognized from the *heading* of the motion – and/or the *context* of the motion (more on *contextualization* in later section).

➤ Example:

**THW adjust to transgender.**

Possible settings: in educational environment, public policy, etc.

d) *Ultimately, a definition should be debatable.*

Means, it gives *fair* room of debate to both teams. An unfair definition could lead to a **definitional challenge** done by the negative team and/or a parallel debate.

Forms of unfair definition which could be put under a definitional challenge are:

- **Truistic definition**, a definition which doesn't allow any debate to happen. For instance, basing the definition on certain religious value.

➤ Example:

**THBT prostitution is not justifiable.**

Definition: Prostitution is an act of selling one's body for sexual pleasure, which is a sin according to Christianity. So, because it is a sin, it's not justifiable.

- **Squirreling definition**, a definition which have no logical relation with the actual meaning of the motion or the words in it.

➤ Example:

**THBT smoking should be banned.**

Definition: Smoking is an act of emitting residual gas waste from vehicles, which causes lots of pollution.

The correct definition should mention smoking as an act of consuming cigarettes.

- **Tautological definition**, a definition with circular logic. Also known as self-proving definition.

➤ Example:

**THBT UU ITE is necessary.**

Definition: UU ITE is a necessary regulation.

If we substitute the phrase 'UU ITE' in the motion with its proposed definition, the motion would become 'THBT a necessary regulation is necessary'.

- **Unfair time and/or place setting**, a definition which brings the debate to a particular time or place with no significant issue. A definition which is based upon controversies or conflicts that have been resolved is also unfair.

➤ Example:

**THBT USA has failed.**

Definition: USA has failed to achieve victory in Vietnam.

Not only Vietnam War happened decades ago, but the USA had actually lost the war. Moreover, there is no significance in talking about such things now, because there is no new issue regarding the Vietnam War.

## 2. The Opposition's Options

Presuming the Proposition's definition is satisfactory, the First Speaker of the Opposition will not argue the definition, but will proceed immediately to dealing with the Proposition's arguments. There is no need to say that the Opposition accepts the definition; this is presumed unless the First Speaker of the Opposition challenges it.

If the Opposition is unhappy with the Proposition's definition, it has several options:

### a) *Accept and Debate*

The first option is to accept it anyway. If the Proposition's definition leads in to the expected issue and allows the Opposition to put forward the arguments and examples it was intending, there is no point to arguing over the precise words the Proposition has used.

### b) *Challenge*

The second option is to challenge the Proposition definition, arguing it is unreasonable. Further discussion will be explained in the next sub-chapter below.

### c) *Broaden*

The third option is neither outright acceptance nor outright rejection, but instead to supplement the definition. The Proposition's definition may have omitted to define a word in the motion that the Opposition considers pivotal. In this case, the Opposition can offer a definition of this word, so long as it meets the standards of reasonableness outlined above.

### d) *'Even-if'*

The fourth option is to both reject and accept the definition. It involves:

- Rejecting the Proposition definition as unreasonable and explaining why;
- Putting up an alternative (and reasonable) definition, then proceeding to advance arguments and examples based on this;
- Rather than ignoring the Proposition's arguments and examples on the basis they derive from an unreasonable definition, arguing that 'even-if' the Proposition's definition was reasonable, its arguments and examples do not prove what is alleged.

### C. DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGE

A negative team can offer a definitional challenge if the affirmative team proposed an unfair definition. Means, they have to try to change the definition. The easiest way to do it would be to follow these simple steps:

1. The 1<sup>st</sup> negative speaker should immediately point that the definition brought by the affirmative team is invalid, unfair, or not debatable.
2. Explain *why* it is invalid, unfair, or not debatable, by choosing the most suitable explanation out of four unfair definitions in the previous section.
3. Provide the correct definition.
4. Offer 'even-if' rebuttals. Even though you believe that your opponent's case is not valid because it was built on an unfair definition, you still have to negate it to preserve the dynamic of the debate. This is due to the fact that even though a team set an unreasonable definition, their arguments may still have elements of logic. So, opposition still has to work to breakdown the logic by attacking the arguments through even-if rebuttals.
5. Present your own case, based on the newly-proposed definition. Definitional challenge is a very risky move. Adjudicators would award you a lot while at the same time penalize your opponent as much if you succeed. But vice-versa, you would suffer a miserable loss too should you fail it. This is because once you decide to do a definitional challenge, it means sacrificing the dynamic of the debate a lot, as the best strategy for both teams – including the challenged affirmative – is to insist on their initial case. Giving in to the new definition would be considered as 'surrendering'.

However, even if the affirmative brought an unfair/invalid definition, the negative team would not be lost automatically if they didn't recognize it or were too scared to do it. But as the consequence, the debate would be a low-scoring debate. It is entirely up to the negative team to do it or not, but given the huge chance of winning big, the risk could be worthy to take.

➤ Here is an example of an **unreasonable definition**:

**That death penalty should never be justified**

Definition: Killing people without any reason is wrong. Therefore we should not approve of genocide/mass killings.

The definition above is out of the context or spirit of the motion (death penalty means punishing criminals to die, not mass killing without reason). And it is unfair to expect the Opposition/Negative to say that mass killings for no reason should be approved of.

The right to give a definition belongs to the Government/Affirmative team. The affirmative team must provide a reasonable definition for the motion. This means:

1. On receiving the motion, both teams should ask: "What is the issue that the two teams are expected to debate? What would an ordinary intelligent person think the motion is about?"
2. If the motion poses a clear issue for debate (it has an obvious meaning), the Government/Affirmative team must define the motion accordingly. When the motion has an obvious meaning (one which the ordinary person would realize), any other definition would not be reasonable.

3. If there is no obvious meaning to the motion, the range of possible meaning is limited to those that allow for a reasonable debate. Choosing the meaning that does not allow the opposition a room for debate would not be a reasonable debate.
4. When defining the words in the motion so as (i) to allow the obvious meaning to be debated or (ii) (when there is no obvious meaning) to give effect to possible meaning which would allow for a reasonable debate, the affirmative must ensure that the definition is one the ordinary intelligent person would accept.
5. In making a reasonable definition, sometimes parameters, models, or criteria is needed. When suggesting parameters to the debate, or proposing particular models or criteria to judge it by, the Proposition must ensure such parameters, models, or criteria are themselves reasonable. They must be ones that the ordinary intelligent person would accept as applicable to the debate.

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*A **definition** is simply to clarify the motion. The Government/Affirmative team must give a definition that gives room for the Opposition/Negative team to oppose it. On defining, always ask “What debate is expected from this motion? Are there any reasonable arguments to oppose the definition we’ve set up?”*

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## CHAPTER III

### CONTEXTUALIZATION

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#### A. PROPOSAL MOTIONS AND PHILOSOPHICAL MOTIONS

To put it simple, proposal debates happen when a motion demands us to propose a certain policy. Examples of proposal debates would be under motions such as: THBT Death Penalty Should Be Abolished, THW Grant Terminally Ill Patients the Rights to Request Euthanasia, *etc.* This is different to philosophical or principal motions that require us to debate on a moral judgment, e.g. THBT Death Penalty is Unjustifiable, THBT Rights to Life comes with the Rights to Die, *etc.*

Bear in mind, though, that sometimes proposal debates would require some moral justifications to be dealt with, e.g. THBT We Should Legalize Sex Tourism to Rejuvenate Economically Depressed Areas. The backbone of that motion is indeed to argue on whether or not such a mechanism is the best way to kick start the economy in such kinds of areas. However one cannot avoid arguing the moral justification behind a state/region relying on prostitution to keep it alive.

On the other hand, a different approach must be taken to philosophical motions. While it is not wrong to extend a philosophical motion to a practical one, e.g. THBT Death Penalty is Unjustifiable (and it is defined by the teams to say “because it is unjustifiable it should be therefore abolished”), but moral judgment debate will remain as the core issue, and cannot be replaced by practical arguments. With the example of the aforementioned motion and definition, it is therefore okay to argue on the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of death penalty in deterring crimes, but it becomes an additional burden of proof. Whether or not life is a derogate-able right shall still be the main core of the debate.

#### B. PROPOSAL MOTIONS AND CONTEXTUALIZATION

Proposal motions present a different level of challenge to a debate in terms of sophistication and comprehensiveness. The nature of a proposal motion is to bring a certain context that comes with a problem, where the proposal (which is embedded – explicitly or implicitly — in the motion) is expected to solve that problem.

Having that said, it is essential for teams to clarify first which problem they wish to tend to before then proving that their proposal will work. Many teams end up listing a stack of advantages or disadvantages of the proposal, but do not direct them to focus on any specific context or problem. They do not set either what is the parameter of ‘success’, therefore making a very messy debate with extreme lack of focus.

Oppositions also face similar problems. Having a Team Government that lacks focus is problematic enough. Yet problems can go further to oppositions that propose new solutions while at the same

time also saying that the status quo is working fine enough, or use a different standard of 'success', which makes both teams end up managing to prove their own case but failing to respond to each other.

This is why teams must try their best to contextualize the debate, as an integral part of the definition. Afterwards, all the cases and arguments will emerge and stem from that contextualization.

Now, we come to the question, what exactly *is* contextualization? It is basically a bunk of affirmative team's case setup that clarifies a certain points in the debate. Contextualization explains the "history" of the motion. Motions do not pop up without any reason, right? Contextualization examines the motion and performs surgery to it so that both sides have clear views on the definition and parameter which eases further argumentations and responses.<sup>3</sup>

Bear in mind that it does not replace the definition but completes its goal, which is to focus the debate into a specific set of case. Contextualization covers the questions of "why it is important to have the debate" and "what does the affirmative team actually want from the debate," which are barely answered by classic use of definition and parameter, hence why it is very much needed.

### C. CONTEXTUALIZATION: STEP BY STEP

Team Government must know the elements of a proper contextualization, and Team Oppositions must learn to identify it as well as establish a proper negation. This section will explain the steps to a proper contextualization, which will include problem identification, status quo (and status quo mechanism), goal, proposed solution (and proposed mechanism), room of debate, and stance.

Perhaps many debate teams use the same words but for different meanings; that is not a problem. For the time being, please forget them and use them meanings given in this section to avoid confusion. Afterwards, it is fine to revert back to the meanings you are accustomed to, as long as the elements provided here are always fulfilled with whatever terminology you usually use.

#### 1. "Problem Identification" and "Status Quo"

It is essential to bring these two terms together, as they are occasionally used interchangeably. It is not wrong, as "in the status quo we have problems". However, for the purpose of this section, it will be essential to separate them to make the explanation easier.

**"Problem Identification"** refers to a situation or a reality which will be referred to as bad. Explaining why such situation is bad would take time, so it might be better to mention it briefly during contextualization to further analyze it in the arguments later on. What matters, though, is that this problem is exactly what the debate will want to solve.

The problem chosen should be extreme enough to show real urgency of the topic to be discussed –but also not burdening for the affirmative team. It is important to note that the problem must be proportional with the scale of the case. For example, it is valid to set a problem of "world peace instability" for the motion of sending United Nation Peace Keeping Troops since

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<sup>3</sup> An edited version of the guide written by Tim Sonreich, from Monash University.

the case scale is a high profile one, but it would not be valid if it is used for the motion of the use of corporal punishment to children.

This step should help teams comprehend why the motion was set in the first place – why it’s an issue that people are discussing (or should be discussing!). Identifying the problem will help the first speaker to set up the direction of the debate, let the negative team, the adjudicators and the audience know what the debate is all about and why the motion worth debated.

➤ E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia

A Problem Identification could be as simple as “the economic productivity in Indonesia is not optimal”. Perhaps later on some extra analysis would be very much appreciated, but this will suffice to illustrate a contextualization.

**“Status Quo”** refers to the state of policy surrounding the problem. Team Government must prove that the Status Quo is either the cause or has omitted the problem.

When identifying the status quo, try thinking about the following questions: What is the current situation and/or what event related to the topic that has occurred recently? Does the motion refer to general setting that can apply in every country/every society, or does it refer to a more specific setting? Has something been proposed in relation to a controversy? (By a government, by an interest group?) What is the issue that this debate is all about?

➤ E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia

The “Status Quo” provides that there is no free trade Indonesia, or in other words, Indonesia is still applying various protectionist economic policies. As mentioned earlier, Team Government will assume that the current lack in economical productivity is caused by the various protectionist economic policies.

While explaining the “Status Quo”, it is important to remember “Status Quo Mechanism”, which is a more technical explanation on what the Status Quo is like.

➤ E.g. “Status Quo” of “absence of free trade, which is protectionist economic policies”.

Such state of policy would usually be described by the existence of tariff and non-tariff barriers for imported products, subsidies for domestic producers, etc.

## 2. Goal and Proposed Solution

Simply put, a **“Goal”** is something that is to be achieved. When we talk about contextualization, which is after we have identified a problem, a “Goal” is therefore “the absence of the previously identified problem” or “solving that problem”. Therefore, the “Goal” and “Problem Identification” would be interconnected.

➤ E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia

If the “Problem Identification” was “the economic productivity in Indonesia is not optimal”, then the goal is simply to “make the economic productivity in Indonesia optimal”.

The **“Proposed Solution”** is basically what the motion tells Team Government to introduce. Team Government may propose changing a current policy, conjuring a new

policy out of nowhere, or abolishing a pre-existing policy. However, one thing is clear: the “Proposed Solution” will either replace or fill a hole in the “Status Quo”. In that way, “Status Quo” and “Proposed Solution” will be interconnected.

➤ E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia

When the “Status Quo” is “an absence of free trade, which is an elaborate use of protectionist economic policies”, then the “Proposed Solution” would be “to introduce free trade, which is an abolishment of the protectionist economic policies”.

When “Status Quo” has a “Status Quo Mechanism”, then a “Proposed Solution” will have a “Proposed Mechanism” (otherwise known as a “Model”). Basically, it means that teams must explain the technical differences between the Status Quo and what will be new in the Proposed Solution. The Proposed Mechanism / Model will be further explained later.

➤ E.g. Introducing Free Trade

The Tariff and Non-Tariff barriers for imported products will be removed, and the subsidies for local producers will be alleviated and/or equally accessible for foreign producers.

### 3. Room of Debate and Stance

After Team Government has set the Problem Identification, Status Quo, Goal, and Proposed Solution, providing a “**Room of Debate**” or “ROD” will be easy. The purpose is to restate and clarify the standard of proof that each team must adhere to. Some teams do not really understand the concept of ROD, and end up just restating the motion and adding “whether or not” in front of it. Actually, to make it of any good purpose, a ROD is declaring that “the debate is about whether or not the Proposed Solution can achieve the Goal/solving the Problem”.

➤ E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia

A ROD is to declare “that the Room of Debate here is to prove whether or not applying free trade/removing tariff and non-tariff barriers will optimize the economic productivity of Indonesia”.

If team opposition later on does not adhere to this ROD, or a team government themselves proving something out of that ROD, then it will mean that such a team (or certain arguments) would be irrelevant. However, Team Governments must be careful because if they fail to establish ROD, Team Opposition could sway and corner them.

The best example for that would be a real debate that once happened, with a motion of “THW Provide Federal Funding for Embryonic Stem Cell Research (ESCR)”. Long story short, Team Government pointed out how there is a big benefit to support such a research but there are many controversies on the ethics of it. Therefore, the ROD was “whether or not funding ESCR will bring us better advantages despite the ethical issues”. Team Opposition was very sneaky, and made a fuss about the term “Federal” in the motion. They then agreed that funding ESCR will bring advantages despite ethical issues, but then argued “why does it have to be a Federal funding?” The whole debate shifted from “whether or not the practical advantages outweigh the ethical controversies” into “federal funding or corporate funding”.

At last, the **“Stance”** is only stating where Team Government stands in the aforementioned ROD. With the ROD from the THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia, Team Government stating “and our team believes that yes it will” would suffice. Some teams would add that with “and the other team must prove that it will not”; this is acceptable. Each team will later on try to prove their stance in their arguments.

After providing a “Stance”, the contextualization is complete.

#### D. TEAM OPPOSITION: BUILDING UP A NEGATION

The main duty of Team Opposition is to engage to what Team Government is bringing by setting up a proper negation. Failing that, Team Opposition will not clash and therefore fail to make a debate. Such thing is a blunder for Team Opposition. Having that said, it is essential to first make sure that, before anything else, that they really understand what Team Government brought. The first step is observation.

Not all Team Governments are clear in setting up their case, which means that Team Opposition must try extra hard to gather together what such a team has said. This is a privilege for Team Opposition, though, as they could take advantage by clarifying the missing elements. Bringing clarity to a murky debate is like a cold breeze in a hot summer, and adjudicators will definitely appreciate that.

This clarification could sometimes come in such way that helps Team Opposition.

E.g. in the previous motion on free trade, assuming Team Government did not explain the technicalities of introducing free trade, Team Opposition could assume that the Tariff and Non-Tariff Barriers will be dropped to zero right away. The shock from the sudden drop will badly affect the market, and could be an additional argument for Team Opposition.

However, it must make sense and is still at least somewhat in line with what Team Government was bringing to begin with. Imagine the same example as aforementioned, but Team Opposition assumed “free trade means that Team Government wants all products in and out Indonesia to be sold for free! Free products everywhere, no money is needed!” It is true that, to some extent, such a setting will bring advantage for Team Opposition. Yet this is not clarifying, but making up an entire new definition – which is ridiculous.

Afterwards, Team Opposition must evaluate whether or not the interrelated terms could be criticized or not: Problem Identification and Status Quo, Goal and Proposed Solution, Problem Identification and Goal, as well as Status Quo and Proposed Solution. Usually, the common mistakes would be that the Goal has no connection with the Problem, or the Proposed Solution solves something else other than the problem, *etc.*

After identifying that, Team Opposition should choose (only one!) among the following options:

##### 1. Status Quo is better

Under this option, Team Opposition will either argue that the problem does not exist/is not a problem/is not caused by the Status Quo (and therefore replacing it will do no good), or that the Status Quo is already a solution to the problem. However, please note that claiming that



the problem does not exist poses many risks because it claims the non-existence of clashes within the debate and should only be used if the Team Opposition is absolutely certain that Team Government has wrongly identified the problem.

- E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia
  - | Team Opposition could either say that Indonesia's economic productivity is still in process but it is good, or that such a lack is caused by human resource problems and not the economic system.

## 2. Status Quo is also bad, thus proposing an Alternative Proposal

Under this approach, Team Opposition will agree with the Problem Identification set by Team Government. They may either argue that the problem exists but the cause is wrong, the solution is wrong, or that the solution will lead to other greater harms. But they must make sure that the Alternative Proposal is something that is mutually exclusive to the Proposed Solution, or else it will not be a proper negation. In other words, they must prove that their proposal is the only available option.

Another thing that Team Opposition must make sure that they do not dwell too much on the Alternative Proposal, because their main job is to negate. Therefore, it is very essential to really consider whether or not proposing an Alternative Proposal is a good maneuver –it could be good for some situations, but bad for others.

- E.g. THW Implement Free Trade in Indonesia
  - | Team Opposition could agree that the current protectionist system is bad, but say that free trade is also bad, and therefore it seeks to implement Sharia Economics. Bear in mind that in doing so, there should also be an Alternative Proposal Mechanism to explain the technicalities.

Remember that the two options are alternative and cannot be brought at the same time, but on either scenario Team Opposition will always argue that the Proposed Solution will not achieve the goal and make the problem worse (or start a new problem).

These steps do not necessarily have to be in this order, though, and as previously mentioned, the terms used might as well be different. What matters is that all the elements are satisfied.

## E. TACTICS

### 1. Models

The first question is: *What is a model?* As explained before, it is the technical differences between the status quo and the proposal. More specifically, it is a particular set of practical actions proposed by a team in a debate. So that means that instead of just arguing that a certain idea is good, the team actually set up a particular type of system that they support for reasons that are linked to various parts of the model.



Models are a great way to show that a team's ideas are practical and possible, and in any case where the team is proposing to significantly change something, a model of some description is a must. But, again, the model is pretty useless without strong arguments to back it up.

For example, the "*heroin trials*" debate (i.e. — "*That we support safe heroin injecting rooms*") is one where there is room for a range of models, because there are many important questions about the practical application of the idea. For instance, teams should choose between a model of government supplied heroin or a user supplied system — i.e. a "no questions asked" policy about where a user obtained their drugs as long they use them in the safe injecting rooms.

Both of these models have strengths and weaknesses. The government supplied model will generate criticism on the grounds that it turns the government into a drug dealer, as well as questions of how long the government can afford to maintain such a system (especially if the number of users grow as a result). However this system does effectively put many drug dealers out of business and it also means that users will always get pure heroin and not the "dirty" varieties often found on the street (which is a major cause of overdoses). On the other hand, the user supplied system will not put as large of a cost strain on the government, but poses the risk of users using the "dirty" varieties. So a team's choice of model is extremely important, because it can change the focus of the debate, and bring in (or cut out) various issues.

#### *Building a Team Model*

There are many ways to construct a model, the easiest of which is to steal someone else's! A vast majority (if not all) of debates the teams do are real, contemporary issues that are being debated in the public arena right now. It is perfectly legitimate for a team to take the side of one of the groups who are publicly lobbying on this issue. By keeping up to date with the news and becoming aware of the various proposals being suggested by different groups in society, team have ready-made models just waiting to be debated!

Alternatively, teams can modify an existing model. So once a team has adopted a model from a political party or whoever, the team might be able to think of ways to improve or expand it. This is acceptable. However the team needs to be clear that its version of the model is different from the group that it adapted the idea from.

The only other way to come up with a model is to invent it from scratch. This can be time consuming, but rewarding in many ways. It requires for both teams to really talk about the issues in the debate. Remember that most debates stem from "a problem" (either a real or perceived problem) and if the team understands the problem, it might be able to come up with a solution. The best thing about invented models is their originality. That means that team opposition will not be prepared for these models (whereas they can be prepared for a common model) and both teams have a chance to have a truly unique debate on issues have been established.

It is strongly encouraged for teams to come up with their own model, because it shows research (no matter how smart a team thinks team are, there is no substitute for learning the details of an issue), thought, and a genuine attempt to tackle the issues. However, there is one warning: keep it real. Make sure that the team model is realistic and practical. By realistic, we mean make sure that team are taking into account the way people really behave, otherwise the team model

will be hopelessly flawed (for example the counter-model to attacking Iran is not "world peace" because at this point in history it is simply unrealistic). By practical we mean that it should be possible given the resources that currently exist. Do not propose a model that would cost trillions of dollars, require technology that does not exist, or is highly unlikely to exist anytime soon.

### *How to Use a Model*

The model should always be presented by the first speaker before they present their substantive arguments, because the team model should frame the debate and structure which issues are relevant. That cannot happen if the team model comes out at the second speaker. Nevertheless the important thing to know about models is that they are not the "be all and end all" of debates. There are precious few debates where a good model will win a debate all by itself. The model is a tool to structure debates and focus them around important issues. It is the analysis of those issues that will be the deciding factor in most debates. A model makes a debate clearer because it tells the audience precisely what the debate is about, but teams still have to show why that is a good thing, and why the benefits of the model outweigh the inevitable costs.

### Final Tips on Models

- Negative teams can have models too. They are called counter-models and are just as effective as an Affirmative team model.
- Do not get too hung up on how much a model costs (in monetary terms). As long as the benefits of the model are worth the cost, (and the cost is realistic) then it is really not that important.
- A good way to attack a model is to look at what assumptions a team has made when they constructed it. Did they realistically assess how individuals and groups act in society? Is it really the role of the government (or other organization) to do what is being proposed?
- It is OK for opposing teams to concede some of the benefits of a model as long as they show why the problems the model will create are worse than those benefits?

## 2. Hard/Soft Lines

The terms "hard" and "soft" in reference to a definition or model are an indication of how profound the change is that is being proposed. A very small modification to the status quo is *soft*, while a big change is *hard*. The status quo might be in terms of legal principle or in terms of people's attitudes. Once team have determined the "strength" of their team line, it should be relatively easy to create team model.

Generally speaking, these terms do not imply how difficult it is to argue for that level of change – since often it is easier to argue a "hard line" rather than a "soft line" – but we'll get to that later.

Example: For the topic "TH Supports Euthanasia", below are different definitions team might choose.

#### Soft Line

- Restricted to incredibly sick people, who are *very* close to death, and who have no hope of cure or a decent standard of living. Patients need the consent of multiple doctors and psychologists. Passive euthanasia only – deny food/medicine

#### Moderate Line

- Allowed to the terminally ill, who have very low standard of living and little-to-no hope of a cure.
- Requires doctor and psychologist consent. Doctor assisted euthanasia is allowed.

#### Hard Line

- Available to anyone diagnosed with a terminal or debilitating or degenerative illness, whether physical or mental. Need a medical consent. Doctor assisted or self-administered.

#### Insane Line

- Providing suicide pills, on request to any adult or child following the initial diagnosis of a serious medical problem, which they could use at their discretion.
- It is just too far-fetched.

A smart team will stay somewhere between the moderate and the hard line in *every* debate, because it's both the fairest thing to do, and is the tactically sound choice too.

**Fairness:** The problem with the soft line is that will virtually always fail both tests of a good definition. It will rarely be a contextually based definition or model, because a plan so close to the status quo would rarely be controversial enough to provoke serious media attention or public debate. Obviously in terms of the spirit of the motion, a soft line is highly unlikely to create a good, complex debate with a range of important issues. It is by definition not particularly controversial, and therefore is a poor choice to debate.

**Tactically:** A softer line is usually more difficult to defend because it is more philosophically inconsistent. How so? Observe the following example. In the motion of "THW Ban Religion Involvement in School", the philosophy of affirmative team in defending the motion is because philosophically school is a neutral place where reason and intellectuality should be upheld, so any involvement of religion that may hamper reason and exchange of ideas shall not exist. With that strong philosophy, if the model is: there will be no teaching of religion in classes but it has to be agreed by parents, and the students still have religious teaching and activities at school as extracurricular program, it will be inconsistent with the philosophy. Thus it will be more difficult to defend as the case and the model are problematic.

A hard (-ish) line also pushes team further away from team opposition, and that means teams will need to argue why their team model has more benefits but is also the correct "norm" by which this issue should be addressed. The single biggest problem with running a soft line is that team will run out of (smart) arguments. Just like with a truistic definition; logically it might seem like it is best, but in terms of filling 6-8 minutes with intelligent analysis, it is just impossible if what the team is saying is simply, irrefutably true. Running a hard line means that] both teams will have a better debate, because they will both have the scope to make strong arguments with sophisticated analysis. Caution must be taken so this rule is not pushed too far, or team will end up running "insane" definitions.

That being said, there is a point when a line can become "too hard". Although hard lines are good, and usually there is a positive relationship between the "hardness" of the case and its moral and practical consistency, there is a point at which this relationship breaks down. Past a certain point a definition or model stops being "hard" and becomes insane.

It's fine to argue for things that are unlikely to happen, even things that are *highly* unlikely to happen, but team should think carefully before arguing in favor of something that is *incredibly* unlikely to happen (or in other words, insane).

There are a few ways to judge if team line is "insane." The first is the laugh test. If the opposition (and audience) laugh when team proposes the case, it is usually a good sign that team has stepped across the line (it may be the way team explained the argument, but nevertheless it a good indication). Secondly, if anyone in the team feels seriously uncomfortable making the argument, then that is a bad sign. Debaters should be flexible and willing to argue counter-intuitive positions, but if a reasonable person is offended or disturbed by the team's case, then team has a problem.

The best test is to remember that **the model is not the debate**. Team model simply exists to clarify and focus the terms of the debate. If the team is spending all team time defending the reasonableness of the terms of team model, then team has probably gone too far (or debating against terribly pedantic, inexperienced debaters).

### 3. The Status Quo

**Status Quo:** simply put, the Government Team should never run the status quo unless compelled to by the topic (which usually would mean it was a bad topic).

Oppositions can run the status quo, but there are several strategic factors that need to be weighed up before the team makes the decision to do it. Obviously, the status quo is attractive to teams who are not well prepared for that particular topic. This is because any decent Team Government will explain the status quo in their set-up before outlining their alternative and a smart (but ill-informed) Oppositions can use that information, but portray it as knowledge they have had all along.

However this needs to be weighed up against the fact that the Oppositions do not in fact know much about the details of the status quo, and risk being caught out in a lie or misrepresentation of the status quo by the Team Government. They also risk being made to defend alleged "harms" (established at the start of the debate as the reason for having the debate in the first

place) of the status quo which may be exaggerated or incorrect, but one which the Oppositions will not be equipped to refute effectively.

Conversely, if the Oppositions invent their own counter-model then there are pros and cons.

Counter-proposing an original model will benefit Oppositions by negating much of the Team Government pre-prepared criticisms of the status quo. The downside is that an original model concedes that the status quo is a failure and therefore weakens the burden of plausibility (the likelihood based on current trends that their model will ever be implemented) on the Team Government. In other words it is more difficult to argue that the Team Government's new model will not work or will never happen, if the Oppositions' own model is also novel and therefore vulnerable to exactly the same criticism. But since one side's model is usually more ambitious than the others', weakening the burden of plausibility can be disproportionately beneficial to one team (usually the Team Government).

Of course, "plausibility" itself is a relatively weak argument. All but the most ridiculous models must still be analyzed as though it were viable through an "even if" discussion (for example, proposing a hard line euthanasia model is almost impossibly idealistic when judged against the current norms and trends in society, but if team get hung up on that fact team will forget to engage in the debate!).





## CHAPTER IV

### ARGUMENTS, REBUTTALS, AND P.O.I.S

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#### A. ABOUT ARGUMENTS AND REBUTTALS

##### 1. Arguments in General

Aristoteles suggested that in order for an argument to be accepted, it must provide *Logos* (Logic), *Ethos* (Credibility), and *Pathos* (Emotion). If one were to be truly honest, all three of them should have their own worth and contribution as to whether or not a certain argument could be convincing or not—although the effects of some are more elusive and insidious than the other.

The term ‘**arguments**’ is a group of claims that we call premises which are given as reasons to believe that a certain conclusion is true. On the other hand, ‘**rebuttals**’ are also a form of argument, but specifically designated as a counter towards another argument, attempting to prove the fault in that argument.

They are the most fundamental parts in a debate. The clashes between arguments brought by both sides of the house will be weighed by the adjudicators at the end of a round to determine the winning team. While it is obvious that *Logos*, *Ethos*, and *Pathos* are all important in a real public speech, it is commonly viewed and accepted that the *Logos* element is the most important in a debating competition.

This section will elaborate more on the *Logos* part, while *Ethos* and *Pathos* will be explained separately in another section. It will also be argued in other sections that actually *Ethos* and *Pathos* also play significant roles in competitions. However, there is no doubt about the significance of logical reasoning in debating competitions.

##### 2. Rebuttals in General

Rebuttals are actually also an argument, as it is a reason that you submit to convince another that his or her points are correct. However, the term “**rebuttal**” is used for a very special type of argument that seeks to negate another argument which has already been submitted by the opponent. The idea of a rebuttal is to point out a specific argument brought by the other team and prove that it is incorrect.

With that explanation, it is clear that a rebuttal is a negative form of the argument it intends to prove incorrect. If the argument says “A”, a rebuttal will therefore say “not A”. This section will also explain how to construct rebuttals, the “other side of the coin” of arguments. Different types of arguments will require different types of rebuttals as well.

It is important to note, however, that many teams seem to be confused in the difference between a rebuttal and an 'argument on the opposing side.' Sometimes, teams claim that they are delivering rebuttals, while what they are actually doing is delivering an argument that is indeed relevant and consistent with their stance, but does not serve as a negation to the targeted opponent's argument –therefore is not a rebuttal. A common example would be in a motion on death penalty; when one team submits "our first argument is that death penalty is against human rights," the other team says "we want to deliver a rebuttal on that point, which is that even if it is against human rights, but it helps deter crime." This is not an "A" versus "not A," but an "A" versus "B." Arguing that death penalty helps deter crime is a relevant and sound argument to support death penalty, but it cannot serve as a rebuttal.

## B. THE GENERAL STRUCTURE OF ARGUMENTS

Arguments (and rebuttals) are delivered in the structure of **AREL**, which stands for:

- **Assertion** : A statement of claim or premise.
- **Reasoning** : An explanation as to why that claim is true. The 'because' of your statement.
- **Evidence** : Give supporting facts to strengthen the reasoning.
- **Link-back** : A conclusion of the entire argument as to why it proves/negates the given motion. This will highly relate to the consistency and relevance of the argument towards the debate.

### ➤ Example 1:

The motion is about abolishing women quota in the parliament. Team Government wants to say that a quota would only strengthen the paradigm in society that women have less capability than men, thus undermines them in the end. The team therefore submits an argument which essentially fulfills a general structure as follows:

**A:** Quota will only strengthen the stigma in society that undermines women.

**R:** Nowadays, there is still a strong stigma in society believing that women are inferior to men and have less capability than them. Reserved seats in the parliament will only strengthen the paradigm that women can only sit in the parliament if they are facilitated, but not because they can compete equally with men. As a result, it will justify the wrong perception that women could not reach the same level as men unless given privilege.

**E:** In Uganda, public opinion that does not go in favor of women increased rapidly after the implementation of this kind of quota (this was-supported by some polling).

**L:** Quota for women in parliament will only strengthen the negative perception that undermines women, hindering the promotion of women being equal to men.

### ➤ Example 2:

From the same motion, Team Opposition believes that the stigma against women will not be increased by women quota. They then submit a rebuttal which essentially fulfills the general structure as follows:

**A:** Quota will not strengthen the stigma in society that undermines women.

**R:** It is true that reserved seats in the parliament will make people think that women cannot compete with men. Nevertheless, the fact is that women can be competent. Although

people may initially think that women are there not because they are competent but due to special privilege, they then prove their abilities while carrying out their duties. People will then realize that their stigma was wrong.

**E :** Ever since Indonesia applied women quota for parliaments, numerous women have been elected as parliament members and have been very trusted and known as capable. As time went by, there was an increase of number of women in vital sectors.

**L :** So, the belief that women quota will help prove the bad stigma against women is incorrect. Women quota therefore does not strengthen that bad stigma.

### C. TYPES OF REASONING: INDUCTIVE VS DEDUCTIVE

Inductive and Deductive Arguments are the most commonly known ways of concluding a set of premises, in order to reach conclusions. Each of them have their own ways of analysis, as well as their own way to tackle.

It is important to note that some of the premises are matters of facts or examples, and others are proposed opinions. All of which should be used in conjunction with each other in forming a conclusion. Therefore, you cannot really separate between reasoning and facts but must use them appropriately.

#### 1. Inductive Argument

##### a) *How to make an Inductive Argument*

An inductive argument should provide some selective samples or examples and then generalize them all to make a conclusion. Empirical researches use this type of argument in concluding the results of observations, such as social phenomena.

##### ➤ Example 1:

Premise 1 : Catherine is from Don Bosco School, and she likes physics

Premise 2 : John is from Don Bosco School, and he likes physics

Premise 3 : Alfred is from Don Bosco School, and he likes physics

Premise 4 : Jenifer is from Don Bosco School, and she likes physics

Conclusion: People from Don Bosco like physics

##### ➤ Example 2:

Premise 1 : Iran said that they do not develop nuclear weapons, only nuclear electricity.

Premise 2 : But Iran is developing its nuclear technology and allocating lots of budget for it.

Premise 3 : But Iran is continuously enriching their uranium, although we don't know to what level yet.

Premise 4 : To create nuclear weapons, uranium needs to be enriched further from what is needed for electricity.

Premise 5 : Iran constantly expresses violent views and attitudes towards Israel and USA, and constantly threatens them.

Premise 6 : The IAEA's function is to supervise nuclear research and production; to make sure it is not used for weapons and only for peaceful purposes.

Premise 7 : Iran rejected IAEA inspection.

Premise 8 : There has been alleged cooperation in nuclear research and production between Iran and North Korea.

Premise 9 : North Korea is developing nuclear weapons, has tested them, and also expresses hatred to USA.

Conclusion: Iran is lying and is actually developing nuclear weapons.

➤ Example 3:

Premise : 80% of people convicted for sexual crimes consumed pornography before committing the crimes.<sup>4</sup>

Conclusion: Pornography triggers sexual crimes.

What needs to be noted from inductive reasoning is that 'if the premises are correct, then the conclusion is very likely to be correct.' It means that absolute certainty is impossible, especially because of the following reasons:

- The samples may not be representative enough.
- Some variables may have been left out.
- The conclusion may be an overgeneralization.

In empiric researches, especially when it comes to inductive arguments, they have numerous types of methods on how to take the samples and then draw conclusions so that the samples are representative, the variables are as complete as possible, and the conclusion is valid. And even with all that, there is always an error factor; it cannot be 0% accurate and it cannot be 100% accurate either.

Therefore, it is very important to master the methods of research. Not only in knowing the relevant events surrounding certain topics, but also in knowing how to evaluate and conclude from those events.

b) *How to tackle an Inductive Argument*

While tackling the premises one by one will not help in tackling the whole conclusion, since the premises are usually independent to one another, it is important to tackle the overgeneralizations.

➤ Example 1:

**People from Don Bosco like physics.**

The samples were merely four people out of hundreds; they could be a minority.

Therefore, the samples do not represent the reality of Don Bosco.

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<sup>4</sup> Note that the 80% statistic means that from the samples taken, we have 'A consumed pornography before doing sexual related crimes', the same on B, C, D, etc. until 80% of the samples, so this is not necessarily a single premise but a summary of many.

- Example 2:  
| **Iran is lying and actually building nuclear weapons.**  
| The premises only show that Iran is unwilling to cooperate with any other country or bodies supported by or supporting the USA.
- Example 3:  
| **Pornography triggers sexual crimes.**  
| Just because something precedes the other, it does not suddenly infer causal links.

## 2. Deductive Arguments

### a) *How to make a Deductive Argument*

A deductive argument uses a general proposition applied on a specific variable to draw conclusions. In terminologies of law, this general proposition is usually the relevant norm or law (*das sollen*), and the variable would be a certain event (*das sein*) in order to conclude whether that event is against or consistent with the said norm. Generally, a deductive argument is used to conclude a normative proposition.

Unlike an inductive argument, where 'if the premises are correct, then the conclusion is very likely to be correct,' a deductive argument is where 'if the premises are correct, then the conclusion is definitely correct.' In a deductive argument, the conclusion is simply a logical consequence. Study the following examples, where Premise 1 will be the general proposition, and Premise 2 will be the variable.

- Example 1:  
| Premise 1 : If people are in jail, they have committed a crime.  
| Premise 2 : George is in jail.  
| Conclusion: George has committed a crime.
- Example 2:  
| Premise 1 : The right of life is an absolute human right.  
| Premise 2 : Death penalty takes life away.  
| Conclusion: Death penalty is a violation of human rights.
- Example 3:  
| Premise 1 : Domestic Producers need buyers to survive.  
| Premise 2 : Free trade makes the market prefer imported products to domestic products.  
| Conclusion: Free trade will harm the survival of domestic products.

It is very important for debaters to understand as many issues as possible, such as the death penalty, what is going on in Sudan, Free Trade, etc. In spite of this, sometimes many debaters forget to research more on theories and doctrines. In deductive arguments, it is very difficult to understand or even find general propositions if you do not know much about these theories and doctrines. There is a special section in this book on research methodology to help with this.



b) *How to tackle Deductive Arguments*

There is no other way to tackle a deductive argument other than to attack and refute the premises.

➤ Example 1:

**George has committed a crime.**

Sometimes innocent people can be put in jail due to mistakes in the judicial process or for political reasons. Hence, not all people that are in jail have committed crimes (Premise 1 is incorrect). Therefore, there is a possibility that George did not commit a crime despite being in jail.

➤ Example 2:

**The right of life is an absolute human right.**

Unlike what Premise 1 suggests, the rights to life is not absolute. There can be exceptions, e.g. in self-defense, or when the person in question has perpetrated a crime of a certain degree (Premise 1 is incorrect). Therefore, death penalty is not necessarily a violation of human rights.

➤ Example 3:

**Free trade will harm the survival of domestic products.**

Free trade doesn't necessarily make the market prefer imported products. The new air of competitiveness will stimulate domestic producers to compete and fight for their market. Therefore, Premise 1 is incorrect.

3. Deductive-Inductive Arguments

This is actually not a separate category. It is just important to note that at times, some deductive arguments need inductions. As such, in inductive arguments you will sometimes need deductions. The premises that support the conclusions, after all, are also conclusions from other premises before that. Having that said, it is not impossible to have inductive and deductive arguments intertwined to each other. In addition, there could also be deductive arguments within deductive arguments, as well as inductive arguments within inductive arguments.

➤ Example:

Premise 1 : Domestic Producers need buyers to survive.

Premise 2 : Free trade makes the market prefer imported products to domestic products.

Conclusion: Free trade will harm the survival of domestic products.

The argument was a deductive argument. However, to support Premise 2, you would need another deduction as follows:

Premise A : People prefer cheaper products to expensive ones.

Premise B : With free trade, imported products will be cheaper than domestic products.

Conclusion: People will prefer imported products to domestic products.

To support Premise B:



Premise X : Many imported products are massively produced, while many domestic products in Indonesia are manufactured by medium-small sized enterprises that don't mass-produce.

Premise Y : Mass-produced products tend to be cheaper than those not mass-produced.

Conclusion: Imported products will be cheaper than Indonesian domestic products

To support Premise X, we now need an inductive argument:

Premise M: 80% of all imported products are mass-produced, while 80% of all domestic products are from medium-small sized enterprises and are not mass produced.<sup>5</sup>

Conclusion: Many imported products are massively produced, while many domestic products in Indonesia are medium-small sized enterprises that don't mass-produce.

## D. TYPES OF ARGUMENTS BY PURPOSES

There are various types of arguments based on their purposes. They can be grouped into deductive or inductive arguments, but it is also important to understand the nature of each type of argument, as they may very likely be a combination of the two, or be approached by either.

### 1. Moral Arguments

Moral or justification arguments are normative arguments, claiming that something is either consistent or inconsistent with certain values or norms. Normally, they are deductive arguments, such as the right to life example as given under the deduction sub-section.

However, sometimes the existence and relevance of certain norms can stand on the degree of social acceptance towards that norm. For example, take the statement as follows; Gay marriage is against social norms, because the existence of the homosexuals themselves is not generally accepted to begin with.

Such an argument is a moral or justification argument, which actually could go both ways for pros or cons of gay marriage (pros would say that such is a minority violation, thus social reconstruction is needed, while cons would say that governments may not legalize what is not in conformity with social norms). However, that statement would need to be induced. For one to conclude that it is a majority view to not accept homosexuality and gay marriage and that the support of it is a minority would be an inductive argument.

If you can identify the type(s) of reasoning used in the argument, it will be easy to tackle it. Typically, the approach to counter moral arguments would be to prove one or more of the following:

- The invalidity/irrelevance of the moral standard (or general proposition); e.g. how the social norms against homosexuals would be irrelevant in the USA, due to either the fact that the USA government system is secular, and/or how such norms are mere minorities.

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<sup>5</sup> These are not real statistics.

- The application of an exception to the moral standard; e.g. human rights must be protected, but there are situations where they can be proportionally compromised.
- Different understandings of the variable; e.g. it is agreed that right of life can be taken for penalty against extraordinary crimes, nonetheless drug dealing cannot be considered as an extraordinary crime.

## 2. Cause-Effect

This type of arguments is a speculative argument that mainly uses inductive analysis. The whole idea is to claim that a certain action will have certain implications. E.g. how legalizing prostitution will cause social rejections. In order to prove that, you must:

- Identify a proposed cause; e.g. the legalization of something against social norms.
- Identify a proposed effect; e.g. social rejection.
- Explain that the proposed effect is either bad or good (depending on purpose); e.g. social rejection will cause a general distrust to the government, eventually initiating more violent and radical actions.
- Explain a causal link between the proposed cause and proposed effect; e.g. the society, when they uphold certain values within them, would react negatively and sometimes even harshly.

In concluding such things, one must make good use of inductive analysis in both explanations. One would usually counter by proving one or more of the following:

- There is no causal link between the proposed cause and the proposed effect.
- The proposed effect has a different cause.
- The proposed effect will not be actually not bad or not good (contrary to what it was initially proposed as), or an exaggeration.

## 3. Effectiveness

An argument of effectiveness is one of the types of cause-effect arguments, so its character is somewhat similar (it is expected that a bad status quo will cause a problem, and a solution will cause the problem to cease). In this type of argument, you must first identify a problem, a status quo, a solution, and finally how that solution will achieve a goal to solve that problem. This might as well be the whole contextualization of an entire debate. See the Chapter on Contextualization for further details and examples. In essence, one must explain:

- A problem, as in a negative effect experienced by certain parties (e.g. the society).
- The problem is indeed caused or omitted by the status quo; this could be either deductive or inductive, as Cause-Effect arguments go.
- The solution will either replace or provide additions to the status-quo. The solution here is what the motion, hence Team Government, proposes.
- Whether or not the solution will deal with the cause of the problem (as previously identified) positively, and consequently solve (or at least contribute to the solving of) the problem. This can also be either inductive or deductive, whichever the approach is, similar to the second point.

The common ways to deal with an effectiveness argument would be proving one or more of the following:

- The problem is not a problem; negative effects do not exist.
- The problem was not caused/omitted by the status quo, therefore replacing it would do no good.
- The solution will be improbable/not feasible.
- The solution will not deal with the cause to the problem, thus will be redundant.
- The solution will present new negative repercussions (a cause-effect argument)

## E. TYPES OF REBUTTALS

There are a few ways to classify rebuttals, and it is not implied that one is better than the other. The following types simply display the variety of rebuttals that can be submitted by a team:

### 1. Substantive and Formal Rebuttals

#### a) *Substantive Rebuttals*

On the first classification, substantive rebuttals are meant to counter the reasoning of the targeted argument. In other words, they aim to make that argument's reason no longer valid. The primary way to make substantive rebuttals would be by fiddling with the approach of reasoning that the argument in question attempted to make in the first place. All previous explanations on types of arguments and how to counter them utilized substantive rebuttals. In this way of rebuttals, you either question and refute the premises or conclusion drawing, or point out absence/gaps as well as logical fallacies in the deduction/induction of the argument.

Do not mistake a substantive rebuttal with a counter argument. A substantive rebuttal is intended to provide an A – to an argument proposing A +. E.g. when a team proposes that death penalty is against human rights, then the other team will make a rebuttal saying that death penalty is not against human rights. It is different from a counter argument, e.g. in the same debate, the opponent suggests that death penalty can deter crimes. Not that counter arguments are disallowed, but they cannot replace a rebuttal.

There is another type of substantive rebuttal, though some argue that this is instead a counter-argument, which would be a refutation on grounds of morality, e.g. when a team proposes to eliminate terrorism by killing all Muslims in the world, thus the other team claims that such an action is a serious breach of moral principles. On one hand, it is a rebuttal, because it is intended to specifically refute a specific argument. On the other hand, it does not negate the reasoning which the argument was constructed on, therefore cannot be classified as a rebuttal.

#### b) *Formal Rebuttals*

The term 'formal' does not mean that one of the debate procedures or formalities were not fulfilled (e.g. definition, rebuttals). This refers more to a legalistic understanding that certain aspects in a debate, when not fulfilled, do not even require one would not even

need to examine the substance. It questions the existence of the argument within the debate, which can then become a very strong type of rebuttal. There are generally three variants of formal rebuttals:

- **Pointing out inconsistencies:** An inconsistency is when the speaker or speakers from the same team propose(s) two or more different statements that cannot stand in the same stance, e.g. at first they wish to legalize prostitution anywhere without any localizations, but then another speaker proposes a localization for prostitution, and yet another speaker returns to the initial stance of legalizing without localizations.
- **Pointing out contradictions:** Another form of inconsistency, but in a more extreme way, where the two different statements made within the same team are contrast with each other. E.g. one speaker says that the European Union has already acknowledged Turkey to be qualified for its application as EU member, but later admitting that the EU truthfully thinks that Turkey is not qualified.
- **Pointing out irrelevancies:** Some arguments can be completely irrelevant certain motions. E.g. an argument on social rejection towards prostitution would be relevant in a debate set in Indonesia, but not quite for a debate set in the USA.

It must be noted, however, that sometimes teams will provide multi-layer arguments or rebuttals with alternative scenarios, usually marked with an 'even-if' or 'alternatively', e.g. Turkey has indeed fulfilled the requirements to be a member of EU, but even if they have not fulfilled them, the controversial unfulfilled requirements could either be set aside or fulfilled soon. In such kinds of situations, they do not count as inconsistencies, contradictions, or irrelevancies.

## 2. Offensive and Defensive Rebuttals

### a) *Offensive Rebuttals*

An Offensive Rebuttal is the very typical rebuttal that targets an opponent's argument and aims to prove that their argument is incorrect. The end goal is to then prove that the opponent's case is unsubstantiated and therefore not proven.

### b) *Defensive Rebuttals*

A Defensive Rebuttal is essentially a rebuttal towards a rebuttal or sometimes referred to as "Defending One's Own Points." When a team submits an argument, and the opponent submits an Offensive Rebuttal towards that argument, then it is in the interest of the team to defend that argument by responding towards that Offensive Rebuttal. The end goal is to prove that the team's case still stands and is proven.

## F. POINTS OF INFORMATION

### 1. Points of Information in General

When your opponent's substantive speaker is speaking in front, has passed his/her 1st minute and has not entered his/her last minute, you may interrupt their speech. These interruptions

are called Points of Information (POI), and last at the maximum length of 15 seconds, thus must be delivered very concisely.

It is the privilege of the speaker in front, however, to accept or refuse POIs. Also, POIs may only be given to opponents.

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*The first single-knock from the time-keeper indicates that you may offer POIs. The second single-knock means you're no longer allowed to offer any.*

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## 2. Functions of POIs

The functions of offering POIs are as follows:

### a) *To ask for clarity on certain things.*

This may be done in order to avoid misunderstandings on both teams' cases, which could lead to catastrophes.

#### ➤ Example:

"What do you mean by 'legalizing' prostitution? Is it okay to do anywhere, or are you making localizations?"

### b) *To give a simple rebuttal towards the speaker.*

Sometimes, teams avoid giving this type of POI because it gives an extra chance for the speaker in front to defend himself/herself, while waiting for your own turn will give the opponent less of a chance to answer.

#### ➤ Example:

"What you said is against the UN charter. How do you respond to that?"

### c) *Challenging the Opponent.*

Sometimes, one can challenge a speaker to answer something or provide certain facts which are very substantial. On many occasions, it is some sort of "I dare you to do xxx, if you can, I will accept defeat, but if not, you shall accept defeat" claim. Not that this claim is always correct, though, as failure to accept the challenge does not always mean that the team fails entirely.

#### ➤ Example:

"I challenge you to mention ten national languages that have perished in the last century."

An interesting story on a POI challenge happened during a match between Team Indonesia and Team Scotland in Worlds Schools Debating Championship 2003, on the urgency of governmental intervention in the preservation of national languages. Team Scotland, which is among the best and most achieving in the world, worked their case on



a basic premise that there is no urgency for a governmental intervention, as national languages will naturally preserve themselves. The POI given in the example above was what Team Scotland used to challenge Putu Sanjaya Setiawan (a speaker from Team Indonesia).

Team Scotland was deluded by the fact that this motion was an impromptu motion (only released to the teams 60 minutes before the match) and assumed that even if there were ten languages that perished, they couldn't be ones that were generally known by an average person. What they did not know was that the person they challenged was Indonesia's "Walking Google.com." Putu *did* mention all ten languages. Because of that, the basic premise of Team Scotland fell.

Team Indonesia defeated one of the world's debating giants simply because of a POI.

### 3. Requesting and Accepting POIs

For the speaker in front, try accepting POIs at the **right time** and with the **right amount**. You do not want people to interrupt in the middle of a sentence or an explanation to disturb you, so you can wait until you finish a sentence to accept (more explanations on Manner section) or even refuse if you don't feel like it.

And you do not want to be bothered by too many POIs, so try to accept a reasonable amount. Two is the generally acceptable amount. But accepting three is also okay if you think you can handle without disturbing your speech too much.

Answer immediately and effectively to show your mastery of your speech. And don't forget to look cool.

A POI must be offered with a polite manner in such a way that it is sufficient enough to attract the attention of the speaker at the podium, but not so excessive that it disrupts the conduct of the debate. The common manner is to stand up, raise one hand towards the speaker at the podium, and exclaim "excuse me, Sir/Mam," "Points of Information, Please?" *etc.*

It is improper, however, to interrupt the speaker by mentioning the contents of the interruption, e.g. interrupting by standing up and saying "Excuse me, interruption because that argument is inconsistent!"

### 4. Tips and Tricks

There is no single, precise rule on how to handle POIs in the best way. But the following tips may give basic strategic – not substantial – guidance for offering or answering POIs.

- i. If you seriously don't understand the POI given by your opponent – like it seems as if they're speaking in alien language – admit it and apologize then just continue your speech. Do not ask them to repeat the point.

➤ Example:

|"I am sorry, but I seriously did not catch that. Let's continue."



- ii. Desperado your way out. If the opponent asks you something you seriously can't answer, stay cool and confident. This is not recommended, but when you are at a corner, well, by all means. Pretend you misunderstood. Pick a word from that POI which you can comprehend most, then just say anything related to that word. But seriously, this is a desperate and suicidal alternative.

➤ Example:

POI:

"But why are you proposing such thing in this age of postmodernist view of governance and society?"

If you don't know anything about postmodernism, just respond.

"Well, the idea of this proposal is to achieve... (re-explain your goal, forgetting the 'postmodernism' part)."

- iii. You may cut off a POI if you have already understood their point but have not finished speaking while it is spending a lot of your time. However, it is best to maintain politeness while doing so.

➤ Example:

"Thank you sir/ma'am, I got your point. So... (answer point)."

- iv. For POI givers, due to Tip #3, you must be careful in picking your words and only use what is necessary, or else the speaker might use it to their advantage.

➤ Example:

Intended POI:

"I beg to differ. What you are proposing is considering that lives are expendable and cheap!"

What actually happened:

"I beg to differ, ..."

Cut by speaker:

"Thank you, of course you should differ, it's your job as my opponent (and continues speech)."

You just lost a chance for a POI. While, of tens of offers from your whole team, only 2-3 will be accepted. It's not that it is recommended for anyone to cut POIs like that, though.

You might as well just go straight to:

"What you are proposing is considering that lives are expendable and cheap!"

- v. Sometimes, it is very important to ask for clarification.



## CHAPTER V

### PERSUASIVE VERBAL SKILLS: THE USE OF STANDARD OF TRUTH

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#### A. INTRODUCTION

This is an *alternate method of analysis*, to hopefully explain *what an analysis should be like*. In the method of **AREL** which you all know, basically this is an expansion of the **R (reasoning)**.

But you must remember that *this concept is not rigid in chronology and delivering*, as it may vary among different speaker's preference. What matters are the included within, and this method guide provides these elements on the most basic level. Arguments may have extreme complexity which may necessitate modifications to this method.

The object of this method would be individual arguments or responses. It—hopefully—has a twofold use:

- as a tool of analysis
- To persuade adjudicators and try sway their minds.

Before advancing to the steps and examples of the methods, I must warn you that the explanations may seem hard and complicated to apprehend, especially because they are broken down to many points. But it is necessary to break the process down in order to make clear the flow of analysis. When you are a bit more experienced, you should be able to deliver them with various ways of explanations, *but the essences and the elements should still apply the same*.

#### B. THE METHOD

To its best interest, it will be divided in steps.

##### 1. Fragmenting Arguments

Go back to the basic AREL concept, and highlight the **Assertion** part. This is what we will fragment. An argument always has a pattern of **A is B**. Or at least, could be made so.

###### ➤ Example 1:

Corruptors deserve death penalty. It could be patterned as

**Corruptors are among criminals who deserve death penalty.**

**A**

**B**

(Remember that 'are' is also an 'is' but in a non-singular form)

We shall *separate* the **A** and the **B**. We will find out that **A** is a **subject**, or *the source of controversy within the sentence*, and **B** is a **long predicate without a subject**, which serves as *the answer to the question ‘what’s up with A?’* I may be grammatically wrong, but this way of perceiving phrases does have a purpose.

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*So, you can say that A is the keyword of the argument, while B is your truth-claim of A.*

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➤ Example 2:

Governments have rights to take lives.

**A** : take lives

**B** : what the governments have rights to do.

➤ Example 3:

Privatizing vital sectors will harm Indonesian society economically.

**A** : privatization of vital sectors

**B** : cause of economic harm to Indonesian Society.

2. Creating a Standard of Truth (SOT)

The idea of SOT is to provide a neutral and commonly accepted barometer of truth for the subject (A) of your argument, by presenting it as the predicate (B) of your argument.

Your goal is then to construct explanations (reasoning) which are consistent with the barometer. When your explanations are not in line with your standard of truth, means your claims are false.

The SOT can play a big part in strengthening your argument and convincing the audiences. Therefore, ideally you have to use a well-known and universal principle as your barometer. However, it depends on you to make the principle sounds absolute and unbeatable – thus proving that the whole assertion is true.

There are some steps in which to make a Standard of Truth:

- i. ***Make an ‘agreement’ with everyone in the room***, of what every speaker has to prove in this debate in specific of your argument. This will include identification of *elements in which should be proven* or **the burden of proof** of each team.

➤ Example 1:

Governments have rights to take lives.

“The debate today should be about the extent of government authority to distribute and regulate its citizens’ rights. Thus, it means that teams must elaborate the nature of governments and their authority and how these are derived into rights and responsibilities, **right?**”

- Example 2:

Privatizing vital sectors will harm Indonesian society economically.  
“If one were to conclude economic harm to a society. It is at the utmost essence to elaborate the nature and element requirements of society economical welfare, **isn’t it?**”
- ii. **Provide an elaborated concept**, from which you have mentioned as a burden on Step A. So that after you tell people what should be explained, now you explain it with a claim that we have all *agreed that this is what we were supposed to explain*. This does require you to have wide knowledge on concepts, or at least have a knack on making one up.
  - Example 1:

Governments have rights to take lives.  
“Thus I am obliged to explain so. When we talk about *nature of a democratic government authority*, it is not far from noting their *origin*. The society collectively submit *some part* of their rights to the government, hence giving them mandates to distribute these rights back to the society fairly, in the need of social welfare.  
“Highlight ‘*some part of their rights*’, what of the portions then? This is where we highlight the part that says ‘*to distribute these rights back fairly*’. And when we talk about *fairness in equal distribution of rights*, we are talking about none other than *the sense of justice*. For ‘*social welfare*’, *the fulfillment of sense of justice is* among its elements.”
  - Example 2:

Privatizing vital sectors will harm Indonesian society economically.  
“But then it is obvious, that the nature of economical welfare goes back to the basic idea of human and its need. One may have a need, or demand. Thus necessitates a fulfillment of such needs, or supply. Thus economical welfare is about *whether or not these demands have enough supply*. Or in other words, *are there enough access from the demands to the supply?*  
Conclusion remains plain, then, *that access to supply of need is the fundamental element of economical welfare*. There could be *two understandings* of access: *availability* of the supply, and *affordability* towards the supply, in which both of them must be present to ensure access.”
- iii. **Derive a conclusion, in form of requirements of a subject (A) to complete B**. This is where you jump back to the debate, and bring another variable in. Thus you need to *introduce the characteristics of the missing variable* (subject, or **A**), in accord to the ‘agreement’ you have made with everyone in the room.
  - Example 1:

Governments have rights to take lives.  
“In conclusion of what I have explained. *If I were to prove that rights are within government power to take*, it means that I have to prove that *taking lives is* sometimes –if not always– *necessary to fulfill the sense of justice within the society as one of their rights of welfare*, **doesn’t it?**”

➤ Example 2:

Privatizing vital sectors will harm Indonesian society economically.

*"In conclusion of what I have explained. If I were to prove that privatization will harm economical welfare, thus I must explain whether or not privatization will hinder access, obstructing affordability and/or perpetuating problems in availability, right?"*

3. Subject Association towards SOT

The next step is by *explaining what is A by means of description*. And of course, for argumentation purposes should subjectively tend to fit the **SOT**, precisely the conclusion of it.

➤ Example 1:

Governments have rights to *take lives*.

"Some crimes are so heinous thus the only fate that the society perceives just towards the perpetrator is death. Some evil are quite less that it justly deserves a certain degree of punishment, and from which it may ascend proportionally. Many –if not all- societies see that taking a life, or taking many lives, or even violating uncountable lives are so atrocious that the only thing that could be thought of to be taken away from the perpetrator is the most valuable of all owned: life. Thus, in this sense it is shown that evilness to the maximum possible also justly deserves punishments to the maximum possible, or else, justice has not fallen upon the perpetrator."

➤ Example 2:

*Privatizing vital sectors* will harm the society economically.

"Private companies are built to provide supplies in exchange for profit, while governments exist in interest to distribute supplies among the whole society. Talks about affordability, is a talk about price. Private companies provide supply with its cost needed to make it available, and seek profit from it. Thus private price constructs from Production Cost +Profit. While governments will also provide supply with its cost needed, and seeing that some or most people have lower buying power –while they wanted it to be distributed to all-, they provide subsidies **to adjust** with society capability. Thus government price constructs with the equations as follows (Price=Production Cost – Subsidy). If government price is adjusted to society capability, we see a two-step increase from it shall these supplies be privatized: achieving breakeven point, then achieving profit.

Then this price increase decreases the amount of market available from which to distribute products. Private companies only get profit if people buy their product, so they won't sell it in places where people cannot buy it. Some countries have rich and poor areas spread out in their territory. Thus it is obvious which areas will get supply and which ones will not. Thus they also harm availability."

4. Argument Conclusion

Now this is where you conclude why **A fulfills the SOT**. So then you remind everyone of the 'agreement', and how you have fulfilled the agreement. The ideas are:



- We have all agreed to the Standard of Truth
- I have shown you how my argument works accordingly with the Standard of Truth we have agreed upon.
- So as consequence, we must all agree to my arguments.

➤ Example 1:

Governments have rights to take lives.

“We have agreed that life could be taken by governments if I can prove that it is necessary to fulfill the sense of justice within the society, **right?** So since I have managed to prove so in my previous explanations, thus we can agree that it is true that governments have rights to take lives.”

➤ Example 2:

Privatizing vital sectors will harm the society economically.

“We have agreed that anything that will harm access of the public towards supply of needs is also harm on economy. It may be on affordability, and/or availability. And I have shown you all that privatization will result in obstacles on not one but **all** the two aspects of access **haven’t I?** Thus it is only but the truth to proclaim that privatization indeed harms the society economical welfare.

### C. MATTERS OF DELIVERY

This is an issue which is equally important. Remember that an adjudicator can’t “sleep with one eye open”. What I mean, is that they can’t always be aware of what we say, like every single word. So, **emphasis and style** must be really paid attention upon. This is probably a little tip on how to do it.

When you are explaining your **SOT**, change your speech style for the moment, *as if you were asking for everyone’s agreement*. Just as convincing as how a magician would be when he tries to convince people that his hat is empty.

*Be more interactive* in a demanding way towards the audience, *as if you are expecting them to answer* (of course they won’t). And make it as if you are saying “This is the **SOT**, and it’s a common agreement, **right?** And if an argument does not go along with this **SOT**, it means that it is wrong, **right?**” as if they would respond.

To say “isn’t it?” or “doesn’t it?” for example, don’t forget to emphasize on the right moment. *Do not start on low tone and ascend*. Make sure you pause a for a split second, then nod your head convincingly as you put a push on the syllable “is-” or “doe-” before you continue the rest descending in tone. *Hand gestures* are also important.

An indicator of this tip’s success is when you make the adjudicators subconsciously nod every time you demand.

Then after you finish explaining your SOT, you may revert to normal mode. And *when you go to step 4: Conclusion, change your speech style again with that interactive-demanding style*. As if saying “He

agreed already about something before, **right?** And, look at my argument! Doesn't it fit the agreement we made earlier? **I told you** I would be right, **right?**"

And don't forget to put the last sentence of your conclusions (as given in the conclusion examples) which is naturally slower than any other parts of your explanation, and within elegant finality.

➤ Example 1:

Thus [split pause] we can agree that it is true [split pause] that governments [split pause] have rights [split pause] to take lives."

➤ Example 2:

"Thus it is only but the truth [split pause] to proclaim that privatization indeed [split pause] is harm [split pause] towards society economical welfare."

Bolded means that you give an extra push on it, and spell them out word per word instead of flowing in one sentence.

It is very important for you *not to talk monotonously and/or too fast*. Make sure you know when to pause and how long to make bombastic effects on certain phrases.

Imagine the magician thing before, or imagine how you would explain to your mom why you need new shoes: "You want me to do my best in the football match, right? And of course you know that playing with my toes popping out the shoe front would not help me perform my best, right?"

This is why I say one of the purposes of this method is to sway an adjudicator's mind.

## D. STANDARD OF TRUTH FOR OFFENSIVE PURPOSES

To respond, the idea of SOT is also quite useful. For example, it is a common thing for a negative team in a motion of "THW give death penalty to corruptors" to say "*people have rights to live. Death penalty is against rights to live*". You can give a SOT, and then complain how the negative is not using it.

➤ This is an *example* of how:

"Governments take rights every day, such as prison, fines, etc. Because governments have the rights to take away rights from those individuals when they do law disobedience, **right?**

In social contract, societies give their rights to their government to then distribute them fairly and prevent violation (SOT). So if there is an imbalance of rights (in form of someone violating the law), governments take away rights of these violators to balance the scales. Which is why government taking away rights, in form of punishments, is common, **right?**"

"And the other team's statement is just like how prison is a violation of human rights because it takes away freedom and comfort so we don't want jails. What we want to hear is whether or not death penalty is a too-much punishment for corruption, **right?** We need not to hear whether death penalty is a violation or not."

## E. SEQUENCE OF LOGIC

Most of the times, the SOT just simply cannot work by itself as a method of analysis. There are times where we can't justify our assertions just by borrowing universal, well-known principles and connecting it to our arguments and context. Sometimes, we have to justify the standard of truth brought as our basic premise before we could go any further.

Here's when *the sequence of logics* come into play. We construct *arguments within arguments* – or we can call it *prerequisite logics* – to help our standard of truth establishing itself as a proper base for justifying our assertions.

### 1. Reversed Deductive Reasoning

By now, you should've realized that an argument is, more or less, a deductive process as well. However, more complex arguments demand the explanation to be broken down into sequence of premises – in order to make it more understandable.

But, instead of drawing a conclusion from several premises, we (1) *determine the conclusion first* – which is the *Assertion* of the argument – and (2) *find the corresponding premises that validate this claim*. Then, we (3) *arrange those corresponding premises in a consequential and/or causal order*. That's why it's called *Reversed Deductive Reasoning*.

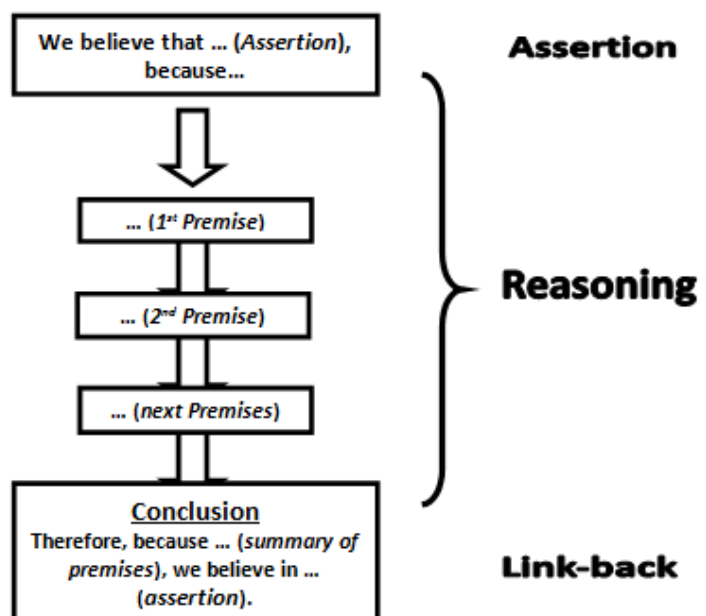
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*An argument of deductive reasoning is valid if and only if it is not possible for the premises of the argument to be true while the conclusion is false.*

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It means we have to *find the premises after we decide what the conclusion is*. And because every debater assumes that their assertion (conclusion) is true, they have to make sure that the premises are also true.

Note also that although *evidence*, as well as *examples*, is a substantial part of the argument, it is **NOT** to be mistaken as a part of the reasoning. The purpose of giving evidence is to *strengthen* your reasoning. That's why it's not included in the chart because it's not main part of the logic.



## 2. Arranging the Supportive Premises

Earlier, we learned that *sequence of logics* consists of *arguments within argument*, which serve as *prerequisite logics for the reasoning process*. To make things easier, I'll refer to these sub-arguments as '**supportive premises**', because they are premises of arguments – which are the premises of a team's theme line.

The supportive premises can be anything, including secondary and even tertiary standard of truths followed by the explanations. The method of Standard of Truth as mentioned above will be at best if we can find every element of logics or supportive premises needed. That's why one must be very familiar with the theoretical concept of the particular matter presented as SOT.

The problem is many speakers fall to the trap of *jumping to conclusions* right away before explaining the premises needed. Not only the absence of these logical chains makes your case vulnerable to the opponent's attack, it would also raise a lot of questions in the adjudicators mind. In the end, your arguments would seem assumptive.

For example, when your assertion says, '*Governments may take lives*', and you're using the common general principle that, '*Governments may take certain rights of citizen*,' as your reasoning. But you can't link this logic back to the assertion just yet by saying, "**We believe that governments may take lives (assertion), because we already know that governments may take certain rights of citizen (reasoning). Therefore, because they may take certain rights of citizen, they may also take lives (conclusion).**"

There would be too many questions like: 'Why can we include 'taking rights' as part of government's authority?' 'Since when killing your own citizen became part of your authority?' and 'Who gave this authority to the governments?' etc. This is due to the apparent missing links of the deduction process.

You need to provide logical steps, a sequence of supportive premises, to help the audience understand and can link between your **1<sup>st</sup> premise** – which is the main reasoning – with **the conclusion** of the argument. In short, you have to provide smaller/supportive premises in order to validate the 1<sup>st</sup> premise as the cause of the Conclusion.

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*Supportive premises establish the causalities between the 1<sup>st</sup>  
(main) premise and the conclusion.*

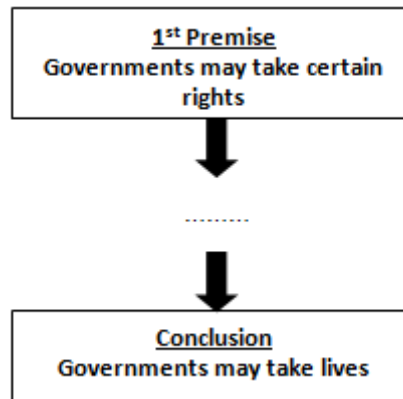
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To help do this, make a sequence of logic from what you have in starting concept as **1<sup>st</sup> premise**, then what you want to prove as **conclusion**. And later on you will fill the gaps with any information necessary to the result in the output.

a) *Decide 1<sup>st</sup> premise and the conclusion*

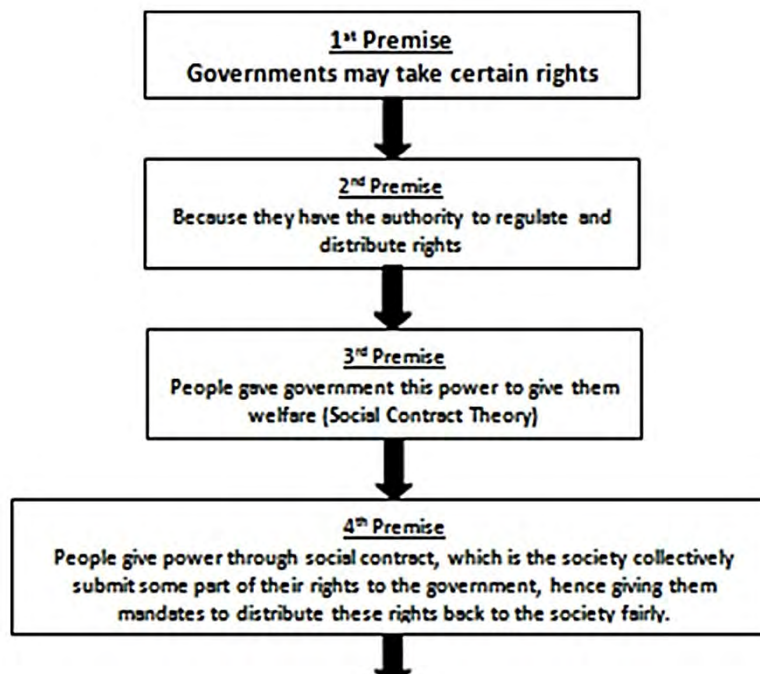
The conclusion should be not much different or even the same as the argument's assertion, since that's what you seek to prove. The 1<sup>st</sup> premise is the main reasoning – possibly the primary SOT.



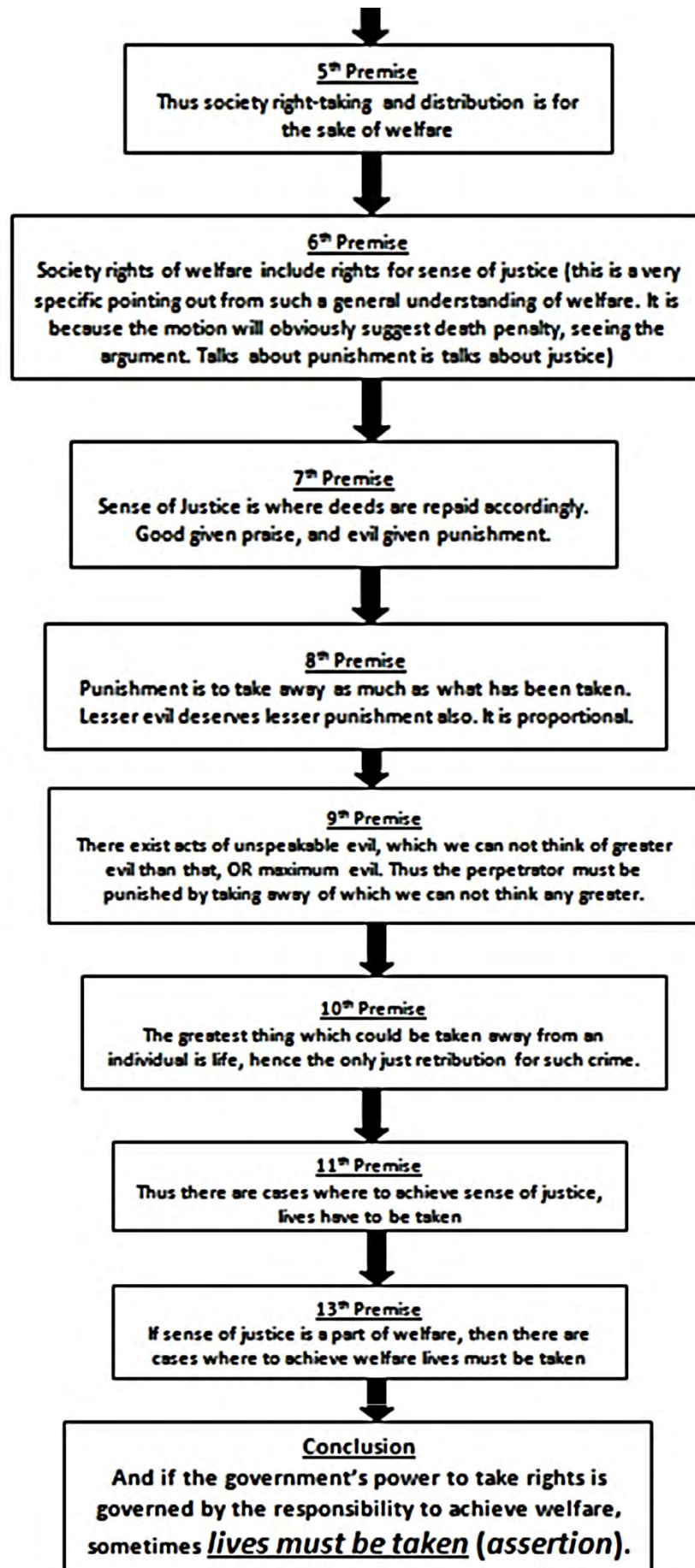
The blank part between the two is not to be filled with just one supportive premise or two, but a long chain of them.

b) *Fill in the blanks*

The next work is to fill in those gaps with as many points as possible to connect the two points. This is an example as to how these gaps are filled with quite a number of premises.









As we can see, we may have emerged certain issues that simple Standard of Truth does not yet highlight –it needs a longer chain of logic, from which SOT must be applied more appropriately.

The example above may not be perfect. But it is a mere illustration as to how the logic is deduced. The method ensures better attention to missing logical-links while case building. So that then, you can classify them in accord with the Standard of Truth method.

Also, all these instructions about the Standard of Truth may seem very complicated and overwhelming. But actually, it only looks like that because the arguments are presented in written form. When spoken, an argument only spends no more than 3 minutes.



## CHAPTER VI

### THE IRRATIONALITY OF RATIONALISM: AN ALTERNATE APPROACH IN THE DECONSTRUCTION AND RECONSTRUCTION OF ARGUMENTS

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#### A. THE IRONY OF RATIONALITY

Throughout the history of mankind, there has been a noticeable development on way of thinking. At the start, we used mystics to explain natural phenomena. As humanity developed over time, philosophy was introduced with mathematics, science, empiricism, providing something we generally concede to be a better explanation to those phenomena. This process has generally caused people to leave the mystical explanations behind and move to accept rational explanation.

Mysticism, which usually comes from or forms religions, is then faced with a new challenge. Some religions managed to show their coherence with science and human development (or that such development is still limited within what their God permits), some manage to convince their believers to separate logic and faith, others simply lose faith and leave their religions. This section is not intended to argue on religion, but to examine this phenomenon: some ideas are seen as rational, and others as irrational –and mankind today seem to have a tendency to prefer rational explanations than that of irrational ones. Even further, something irrational is always judged as something bad.

The irony, as this section wishes to propose, is that the truth is that nothing is truly rational. Even rationalism stands on an irrational premise. For an explanation to be rational, it means that such an explanation must adhere to means that are considered rational (an example would be deduction, as explained in a previous section). But in order to accept that, one must assume and accept first that ‘everything must be rational’. This area is very vague, but to accept such a statement rationally would mean that you have accepted rationality first, which is then self-defeating. Keep on asking ‘why’ to a statement, and getting your answer ask another ‘why’, on and on, and you will end up with something you have no explanation to other than ‘well, because, just because’.

An example to this would be in answering the following question: “to which direction will a ball fall to if you casually drop it: up, down, or sideways (either left or right)?”

A very simple answer would be: down. But this only true when we assume and accept that the ground is beneath, and the sky is above, and since the ball falls towards the ground (down beneath) instead of the sky (up above) thus it falls down. But bearing in mind that we are in Indonesia and gravity pulls towards earth (check where Indonesia is on the globe, it’s on the side part of earth), the rational conclusion is that the ball will fall sideways.

But then, that is only true if we assume and accept that the North Pole is “up above” and the South Pole is “down below”, just like how the globes are usually placed on our tables (or sometimes with certain angle). We can always go on and on and never end, so then we simply assume a basic premise to be true first, and then we rationalize from there.

Having that said, this section proposes that any rational idea will always be based on an irrational assumption.

Not that this statement is wrong, and not that this is true either, as it all ends up with an irrational assumption anyways. This section will explain how the cognizance of such could be utilized as an advantage in constructing and deconstructing an argument. A new assumption would be taken, that something irrational is not necessarily bad.

## B. IRRATIONAL ASSUMPTIONS AS BASIC PREMISE AND HOW TO DEAL WITH THEM

The previous paragraphs have already elaborated how every rational explanation will always have an irrational assumption as basic premise. This is true even for mathematics. For example,  $1 + 1 = 2$  is also based on irrational assumptions. That equation assumes that the numeric are not binary, because if we assume that it is binary then  $1 + 1 = 10$ . Furthermore, why does “+” have to mean “added by”? We can go on and on, and never find an end. That is where the average reasonable person will stop and assume a certain premise; this is what we call the irrational basic premise.

If we accept the fact that every rational argument will have an irrational basic premise (and irrational arguments are naturally based on them), then it will be hard to convince someone to accept an argument without making sure they have accepted the basic premise of that argument. Consequently, it will be easier to refute an argument when the audience can be convinced to not accept the basic premise of an argument proposed by the opponent.

An example would be consoling a girl who was crying because she just got dumped by her boyfriend. Proposing that “don’t worry, you will get a better man someday” will not help make her feel better if in her mind she has accepted the following basic premise: “he was the best man”. Clearly, this is not necessarily true, but if she actually analyzed further then she wouldn’t necessarily be crying in the first place. That basic premise is where she stopped and just accepted and assumed its truth.

This is why it is important to alter that basic premise by proposing “the best man for you will never dump you”, which is easily followed by a simple deduction as follows “he dumped you, therefore he isn’t the best man for you”. Only after that it is likelier for her to accept the statement “you will get a better man someday”.

Things will get murky when she asks, “Okay, he *ain’t* the best. But will there ever be a best for me?” Before you answer “yes”, you must convince her first that “everyone is meant for someone”. Then, you can deduce easily to say that there is someone out there for her.<sup>6</sup> Discussions may involve this girl

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<sup>6</sup> In such a situation, of course, this is not the best time to remind her the statistics of gender demographics. Unless she believes in polygamy, such information will be counter-productive to console her. That is, if we assume and accept that your goal is indeed to console her.

feeling bad about herself for certain traits that she feels insecure about, such as her weight. The pattern would be very similar to what has been discussed, by seeing her basic assumptions: “such trait is a bad trait” and “I have that trait”.

With the previous technique, we can direct her to believe that either such a trait is not a bad trait, or that she does not have that trait, or it is something that can easily be fixed. After that, then, you can give her advises of what she should or should not do. For instance, you direct her to believe that such a trait could be fixed, and then you can continue to suggest how to fix it.

Basically, this is the whole point of this section. While engaging in argument, it is important for a person to identify all irrational basic premises involved both within their own propositions as well as that of their opponents, come to common terms with the audience on these basic premises (for your own arguments), or shake the basic premise of your opponent’s argument, replace it with a different basic premise (in refuting your opponent), then from that basic premise, build your own logical argument.

### C. FOLLOWING THE STEPS

Actually, the theory is more or less done. The following would be an example of using such technique in a debate, and perhaps once in a while there would be additional theories.

Let us use two separate examples, and for each we will use two contradicting arguments to later illustrate how to deconstruct one and reconstruct the other. A Proposed Argument is the argument that will be proven later on, and the Opposed Argument is the argument that will be refuted. The following examples will analyze the opposed argument first and deconstruct them, before then reconstructing a new argument on top of it.

#### ➤ Example 1:

##### **That Smoking Should Be Illegal**

Proposed Argument (PA): Smoking is good for the individual’s health

Opposed Argument (OA): Smoking is bad for the individual’s health

#### ➤ Example 2:

##### **Those doctors should euthanize terminally ill patients**

PA: A doctor’s duty is to sometimes kill patients

OA: A doctor’s duty is to save lives

While it is clear that the PA is not necessarily the best way to respond to the OA, for instance in Motion 1 it is more common for teams to refute it by saying “being bad for health is not a reason for the government to interfere due to bodily autonomous rights, as long as it is an informed choice”.

However, these examples were taken from real debate exhibitions deliberately using extreme arguments to observe the acceptance of the audience. Given the extremity of the arguments, they would be perhaps the best examples for this section. Plus, the explanations will be relatively longer than it is needed to be brought in a debate, but such is done in hopes to provide better clarity on the matter for learning purposes. In actually applying it, it won’t actually be this long.

1. Identifying the Irrational Basic Premise

The classic way to do this is to point out first what the arguments are, or what the major premises are. And then, we try to keep on asking questions to ourselves until we find that basic premise. Let us see the example of Motion 1:

➤ OA: Smoking is bad for the individual's health

Actually, for a vast majority, 'smoking is bad for health' is something accepted without question. But anti-tobacco campaigns, claiming that there is a problem in awareness, would go further by giving a list of substances that cigarettes contain and then tell us what their implications are, and that these implications are deteriorating the human organ functions. But before proving that, they must assume and accept that the term "bad" means "deteriorating the human organ functions".

This is where usually teams contend on how the word "bad health" doesn't always mean that way, and then propose a postmodern argument, bodily autonomous rights, and all those things, to then say. But this illustration will not use that approach, as such approach would bring a "yes it's bad, but then so what" sort of argument, and does not per se negate the OA, but answers another question of "why should something be legal or illegal?"

The only reason why "bad health" means "deteriorating the human organ functions" is because "good health" means "not deteriorating/improving the human organ functions", and 'good' is more preferable than 'bad'. Why so? Because naturally so. It is just something we accept: "good is more preferable than bad". There is always a very long analysis to that, talking further in the philosophy of things, but as an average reasonable person we just accept that as true without question. We have found the Irrational Basic Premise (hereinafter, we will shorten it to IBP).

Now let us turn to Example Motion 2

➤ OA: A doctor's duty is to save lives

A start for this argument would usually be the Hippocratic Oath. But then, why assume such duty of a doctor? Because they have learned all they can about the human body in its entirety (and for specialists, plus a greater depth on a certain function of that body), then they learn what can go wrong in a human body, and then they also learn what they can do to fix that wrong. That is a matter of fact, and does not answer why does that suddenly bring an obligation to a doctor to save lives?

That is because it is commonly accepted that life is better than death, so from that assumption, it is then agreed that if someone has the ability to save lives then they should try their best to do so. And when protecting lives is a duty of the government, they will then commit such protection by ruling that the doctors in their jurisdiction should save lives. But then again, the basic assumption to "governments must protect lives" relies on the assumption that "life is better than death".



Why is the statement “life is better than death” true? It’s just an assumption that we usually accept. Just like the previous example, there are always more explanations and debates about that, involving philosophy, religion, whatever, but as an average reasonable person we usually generally just accept that as true without question. Thus, the statement that “life is better than death” is the basic premise for the OA.

## 2. Criticizing and Replacing the Irrational Basic Premise

We have accepted that every argument is based on the IBP, and that when the audience has accepted the IBP then accepting the argument will be much easier. Consequently the only way to prove an argument is to come to common terms with the audience in accepting your IBP first, or alternatively, in not accepting the opponent’s IBP. In these examples, as we are deconstructing first then reconstructing later, we will talk about not accepting the opponent’s IBP first before then establishing your own IBP.

The classic ways to shake the opponent’s IBP and convince the audience not to believe in it are:

- Bringing a deeper analysis to refute that IBP: in this way, you are treating the IBP just as another argument, and making another IBP within that IBP (the new IBP can be called IBP2), or
- Emotionally interacting with the audience to make them emotionally feel the truth/falsehood of the IBP in question, so that they irrationally accept/refuse that IBP. Here, you are treating the IBP as an irrational point as it naturally is, or
- A combination thereof.

Now let us try to apply it to the examples:

### ➤ Example 1:

#### **Good is more preferable than bad**

We could respond this by saying that such a statement is only possible when the first variable could be determined to be of a higher quality than the second variable. Therefore, there is another IBP behind that, which is ‘more is better than less’. This is the IBP 2.

Consequently, it is not enough to prove smoking is bad for your health simply by saying that ‘it has bad effects to your body’. It must be proven that ‘smoking is worse than not smoking’.

Certainly, that statement does not seem to make things sound any better yet for the PA. But pay attention to the shift of paradigm. The IBP only requires you to prove that smoking has bad effects to the body, while IBP 2 requires to actually make a comparison. This will be advantageous later, but for now we can come to common terms first that if one were to prove that smoking is bad for your health, we must prove first that smoking is worse than not smoking. And consequently, we can also come to common terms to agree that ‘if smoking is better than not smoking’, then ‘smoking is good for your health’.

### ➤ Example 2:

#### **Life is better than death**

Such a statement is only true when you assume life as an open possibility to all the chances, while death is a stop to everything. However, such a premise is irrelevant in context of terminally ill patients. The terms 'life' and 'death' in such a context would have a different meaning. 'Life' means to extend life as long as possible, as terminal illness usually is predicted to lead to death quite shortly, while 'death' would mean to just end it at the choice of the patient while it is actually possible to extend it further.

Is extending a life, in terminal illness, necessarily better than shortening the life? If one sees it just like that, it is still better to extend a life if we still use the same assumption as stated in the first line of the previous paragraph. Now let us provide some additional information, which in terminal illness, over time the disease will consume the patient and make the patient suffers before death. For some people, this is enough to make them conclude that perhaps sometimes death is indeed better than living in such a situation. For others, it is normal to suffer to extend life – after all, doesn't the battle for survival always involve suffering anyways?

When this argument was delivered in a debate exhibition, the speaker resorted to an emotional and dramatic approach. Certainly, writing it down here will have a very different effect than the actual speech, but the following paragraphs will try its best to describe it.

The speaker first tried to illustrate the death of a terminally ill patient, who was estimated to die in three months. Over time, pain will start creeping over the body of the patients, but at the start it is a mere inconvenience. However, as time continues, the level of pain escalates more and more that the patient starts to spend his/her day in agony, but that is not the end. The pain further escalates so immensely that the patient can no longer even think clearly anymore, yet it is still not the end. It keeps on escalating more and more that the only conscious brain function that still works is a message shouted out loud "Please stop! Please stop!" but it is so much that the mouth does not even have any energy left to advocate that message, and let alone the body. That message of "Please stop! Please stop!" will continue until at some point it becomes "Please st...", and the switch goes off. With all the meanings and values, memories and laughter, with all the things that have happened throughout the patient's life, is this really how his/her life should end?

Then the speaker continued to illustrate what it is like if the patient does not have to go through all that, and chooses euthanasia. After doctors declaring that the patient would die in three months, that patient could spend some time to do anything he/she wants to do, and try best to settle any unfinished business. Overtime, the patient will feel some pain creeping through his/her body, and overtime it will go worse. But while the patients could still utilize their brain properly and communicate well, they will be aware that it is time.

The patient can just go to the hospital and request euthanasia. On the bed, pills already in hand, he/she would perhaps be surrounded by friends, lovers, families. While tears are usually a sign of sadness and pain, but when these tears are spent for you because they love you, such tears can actually be really beautiful. Then the patient can take a last gaze to his/her loved ones –and at life itself—, smile, and say 'goodbye', and take the pills.

His/her view will start to dim and fade, until all that could be seen is a dark tunnel with a light at the end, so that all he/she needs to do is to pass through that light and slip away into a good night.

The speaker then concluded, in a new IBP 2, that 'sometimes, death can be better than life'. And by such an emotional and dramatic approach in the speaker's speech, he intended and successfully came to common terms of agreement with the audience about that IBP 2.

### 3. Criticizing and Replacing the Irrational Basic Premise

After replacing a new IBP 2, now we can reconstruct a new argument in our favor, which is the PA. There is a reason why the term 'reconstruct' is used instead of 'constructing'. 'Constructing' somewhat implies that the argument constructed is an independent one, while the term 'reconstruction' is intended to imply that such argument was constructed on top of the ruins of another argument –to replace it. Here, the arguments will be constructed with the same old technique as mentioned in the previous chapters on arguments.

#### ➤ Example Motion 1 PA: Smoking is good for the individual's health

If one still wonders what the use of making an IBP 2 was here, this is perhaps a clearer explanation, with quite a lot of room for creativity also. The IBP 2 was 'more is better than less', which is then understood as to say 'if not smoking is better than not smoking, then it is bad for health' and 'if smoking is better than not smoking, then it is good for health'.

In order to prove the former statement, or the PA, then one would insert a certain circumstance to explain how smoking is better than not smoking. Sounds hard? Bear in mind that the number one killer in the world would be heart and blood related disease (stroke and coronary heart attacks), the second would be traffic accidents. Other than food intake, stress is a major cause of both of those killer factors. For the second factor, many traffic accidents were caused by lack of focus and concentration – which is among the primary symptoms of stress.

In a modern lifestyle today, cities are either metropolitan or on their way to become metropolitan, office workload is by default unhealthy and stressful. Working hours could go as long as 9-10 hours and that does not include over hours. Lawyers, accountants, consultants, etc., could almost every day work over 12-14 hours a day, barely having much time to sleep and eat properly. Fatigue and stress, as direct result of such a lifestyle, would result in a general deterioration in bodily function – among them would be the heart and blood system as well as the brain, thus the number one and two killers.

A cigarette contains nicotine that provides a feeling of relief, which could push back and mitigate the stress to some extent. Consumed regularly on a daily basis, it will help push quite a large amount stress away. Indeed it causes bad implications, which is the deteriorating of the lungs, but even with that it is not the first or even second killer in the world. In fact, perhaps smoking has either avoided people from that first and second killer, or at least buying some time so those first and second killers can come a bit later than it would have had these people did not smoke. Smoking is not the only way to reduce stress, but it is one of the ways.

The effectiveness of smoking in reducing stress compared to other means would be a separate argument. But in the end, although smoking also gives bad effects, but on the whole, given the situation, 'smoking is better than not smoking'. PA is proven from the ruins of the OA.

➤ Example 1:

**A doctor's duty is to sometimes kill patients**

Before entering the use of IBP, it is necessary to first suggest an inductive argument to remember and understand what the duties of doctors are in context of saving people. When one has a skin condition and wants to fix it, despite not life-threatening, they go to doctors. When one wants to enlarge their breasts, despite not life-threatening (except socially, perhaps), they go to doctors. When one has hearing problems, despite not life-threatening, they go to doctors. Therefore, a doctor's job is not only to save lives.

However, for a person with skin condition, it is an inconvenience caused by the body, and the doctor tries to remove that. For the person with small breasts, it is an inconvenience caused by the body, and the doctor tries to deal with that. When one has hearing problems, it is an inconvenience caused by the body, and the doctor tries to fix that. When one has a problem of illness that is possibly terminal, it is an inconvenience caused by the body, and the doctor tries to remove that. Therefore, a doctor's duty is to remove inconveniences caused by the body.

We have previously agreed on the IBP 2, which is 'sometimes, death can be better than life'. All the pain that it causes, that the patient cannot enjoy and bring quality to the last seconds of their lives. In such times, it is clear that it is life that has become the inconvenience caused by the body. If a doctor's duty is to remove inconveniences, and that life has become an inconvenience in such a situation, then a simple deduction will show that it is a doctor's duty to remove life in such a situation. The PA is therefore proven.

## D. CHALLENGES AND PRACTICE

Certainly, it will definitely not be easy to apply this. It will take some understanding to grasp the whole concept, as well as a lot of practice to refine the skills. However, if it is mastered then any argument or rebuttal could be easily killed, and any audience will be convinced – except, of course, if the opponent masters it too.

This method is not widely known and used, at least to the knowledge of the author of this section, thus there hasn't been much feedback on what the difficulties might be. However, mere speculations suggest that there might be a few difficulties involved:

1. **Actually understanding the concept of this technique.**

To fully understand the conceptual basis of this technique, one would really need to do more reading on empiricism and rationalism, as well as irrationalism and the way a human brain accepts and perceives things. This section was trying its best to make everything as simplified as possible, but also as understandable as possible. Hopes are high that it can at least provide sufficient understanding to apply it.



**2. Identifying the IBPs**

As previously explained, the chain of reasoning and logic will never have an ending. Identifying on what point is it generally accepted as a basic premise will prove to be quite a problem. While many people in Indonesia would take some vague statements as the irrational basic premise (e.g. that corporations are inherently evil, simply due to the fact that they are “profit oriented”, or “Israel is just evil and Palestine is right, despite not knowing much facts), the environment of debating communities would generally go beyond that and have their IBP much deeper than that.

Therefore, it is imperative to understand the concept first, and practice often. Through these practices, debaters can discuss arguments and how to identify the IBPs. Through practice we can not only find the best way to identify the IBPs and construct arguments, but we could then identify patterns in those IBPs and arguments, to shorten the thinking process needed for different but similar debate topics.

**3. Manipulating emotions of the audience to accept the IBPs**

The element of Pathos and Ethos in the Aristotelian rhetoric plays a major role in this aspect. Public speaking skills, especially to influence the emotions of the audiences, are not commonly known as a skill that people are born with. The first key to this, after managing to identify the IBPs, would be seeing whether or not it would be possible to manipulate it emotionally. Usually topics about love, hate, suffering, health, happiness, welfare, disease, are very closely attached to emotions.

The next key to this would be to practice public speaking skills as often as possible. A start would be to build confidence, understand the aspects of public speaking, and to enjoy the speech. Further, it would also be great to improve that to take into account the feelings and perspectives of an audience, thus feedback from a mixed variety and background of audiences would be really helpful. Looking at online speeches of various characters could also be helpful as reference, and explore the different emotional effects that each speech provides (e.g. V from the film “V for Vendetta”, Barrack Obama, Hugo Chavez, Khalid Yasin, Yusuf Estes, and other known public speakers).

An advanced key would be to learn more about human psychology and the patterns of human thought and acceptance. Reading those kinds of literature would surely increase your understanding on the way the human brain works, and therefore you will have better knowledge on how to work with those brains.

**4. Being creative in reconstructing arguments**

As could be seen in the examples, the arguments used (especially the PA) are very out of the box, and they are not commonly used. The only way to be more creative in reconstructing arguments would be by widening one’s horizon of knowledge. Read more about certain topics or theories, and discuss with people who are more experienced especially those that are known to think out of the box. However, it is imperative to make sure one can make a distinction between an ‘out of the box argument’ and a ‘ridiculous argument’, despite such distinction could be very thin.

There does not seem to be any shortcuts for this technique, so it will indeed take quite some time to get used to it. As a concept it seems to be quite promising, the very few people known to apply it are getting really good reviews. However, a wider usage would still need so much time and effort to attempt on, therefore feedback would be highly appreciated.



## CHAPTER VII

### RESEARCH IN DEBATE

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The aim of this chapter is to equip you with basic necessary information from which you can then work your case, starting from: contextualization, setting up, and building arguments. Many debaters tend to misunderstand research, in a way that they only do so to understand the motion and in finding facts and details about the given motion. Actually, that is only half of the job.

It is highly important to research on theories and principles, which will be the tool for analyzing the facts. Not to mention, there are many different motions that would actually talk about the same principles. For example, one may debate about death penalty, abortion, and euthanasia at three separate motions, but they all discuss about the rights to life. To understand the rights of life, you need to understand first the concept of human rights. Therefore, research must be done holistically on all these aspects to acquire maximum results.

There are steps you need to take:

#### A. MOTION UNDERSTANDING

When you see a motion, the first thing you'll need to do is identifying the important key words. This has already been explained in the chapter on Definitions. After identifying the keywords, find all the information necessary related to these keywords which would then reveal the issues revolving around them. This will help you get a better understanding of what the motion demands.

- Example: THW Conduct Humanitarian Intervention to Zimbabwe  
Keywords are "Humanitarian Intervention" and "Zimbabwe". Now you know that you need to find out what is going on in Zimbabwe, and what does it have to do with Humanitarian issues. Or something like "what is 'humanitarian intervention'?" Then more actors will appear such as UN Security Council and P-5 countries etc.

#### B. RESEARCH ON ISSUE

After you have identified these things to look up, it's time to find out what is going on around the topic. This is when you need to start finding reliable search engines and websites that can provide information for you such as Google, Wikipedia, BBC, The New York Times, publicagenda.com, debatabase.org, guardian.com, and theeconomist.com. There are plenty of sites very useful in the internet from which you can dig. Books and scientific journals will help provide not only information on issues, but in-depth analysis on certain aspects of that issue.

Each topic would have its own recommended must-read list. It is important however for you to put in the right key words in the search engine. The most important things to research on an issue would be: problem identification, actors involved, history, and timeline.

### C. RESEARCH ON PRINCIPLE

Every motion on every debate will then lead to a clash of basic principle, at least one but mostly entangling many. These basic principles will be contested upon each other, or arguments will compete to best fulfill better the same principle.

Thus it is very important to know the most commonly used principles in debating. Below are some most used principles and a brief description of it. Remember that these are not the only principles that might be used, those mentioned here are only explained briefly. Thus it is at the utmost essence for you to research deeper on these principles.

#### 1. Human Rights

Human rights are international norms that help to protect all people everywhere from political, legal, and social abuses without exception. Examples of human rights are the right to freedom of religion, the right to a fair trial when charged with a crime, the right not to be tortured, and the right to engage in political activity. These rights exist in morality and in law at the national and international levels. They are addressed primarily to governments, requiring compliance and enforcement. The main sources of the contemporary conception of human rights are the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR) and many human rights documents and treaties that followed in international organizations such as the United Nations, the Council of Europe, the Organization of American States, and the African Union.

Regarding the manifestation of human rights is closely related but not only related to formal institution and law enforcement entities, we can conclude that human rights is not always negative rights as the practices need to be arranged and regulated through law and government regulations in order to avoid abuse and violation but it does not close the possibility that individuals exercise and secure these rights.

The UNDHR sets out a list of over two dozen specific human rights that countries should respect and protect. These specific rights can be divided into six or more families: security rights that protect people against crimes, due process rights that protect against abuses of the legal system, liberty rights that protect freedoms in areas such as belief, expression, association, assembly, and movement; political rights that protect the liberty to participate in politics through actions such as communicating, assembling, protesting, voting, and serving in public office; equality rights that guarantee equal citizenship, equality before the law, and nondiscrimination; and social (or “welfare”) rights that require provision of education to all children and protections against severe poverty and starvation.

There are some general ideas or concepts of human rights that need to be understood as it helps discussion in debate. These concepts are:

- Human rights are political norms dealing mainly with how people should be treated by their governments and institutions. They are not ordinary moral norms applying mainly to interpersonal conduct (such as prohibitions of lying and violence)
- Human rights exist as moral and/or legal rights. A human right can exist as (a) a shared norm of actual human moralities, (b) a justified moral norm supported by strong reasons, (c) a legal right at the national level (here it might be referred to as a “civil” or “constitutional” right), or (d) a legal right within international law.
- Human rights are minimal—or at least modest—standards. They are much more concerned with avoiding the terrible than with achieving the best. Their dominant focus is protecting minimally good lives for all people.
- Human rights are international norms covering all countries and all people living today, thus it is often appraised for its universal character. Note must be taken, though, that the Islamic countries have made their own Cairo Declaration of Human Rights based on Islamic laws. A comparative study between the two would enhance our perspective on human rights.
- Human rights are high-priority norms.
- Human rights require robust justifications that apply everywhere and support their high priority. Without this they cannot overcome cultural diversity and national sovereignty. Robust justifications are powerful but need not be understood as ones that are irresistible.

In discussing about human rights, all parties must concern on its features which are: the agency or the right holders, the function or the benefits the human rights can give to the holder, and the addressee which hold the duties and responsibilities to assure the human rights fulfillment.

Not to mention, sometimes there are times where we must debate to violate one right for the sake of another. Battles always happen between *Collective Rights* versus the *Individual Rights*, and means must be found as a standard as to which one in each particular debate must be won.

#### *Related Motions*

- THW allow gun ownership for all citizens, THW ban torture in terrorist investigation, THBT USA and its allies should invade North Korea in the name of human rights, THW impose legally actionable socio economic rights

## 2. Theory of Power, Social Contract, and Democracy

Government obey the people, or people obey the Government? This is the paradox of power, which will be the core of answering a great range of debates thus is of a great essence to understand.

Power is the key concept in political science. However, power is a general concept that can be found in many aspects as it can be Political power, economic power, etc. But again, it becomes the main issue in the discussion of political process. Many scholars in political science defined power as the ability of a person or a group to influence the behavior of another person or group in accordance with their wishes/goals. I.C. MacMillan, however, separates the concepts power (to restructure actual situations) and influences (to modify perceptions of others).

Power in relation to societies, would always touch the issue of Social Contract Theory. The original version of social contract (Plato) is the belief that the state only exists to serve the will of the people, and they are the source of all political power enjoyed by the state. J.J. Rousseau

extended that concept by saying that a government is based on the idea of popular sovereignty –thus the will of the people as a whole gives power and direction to the state. John Locke extended the Social Contract Theory by stressing the role of the individuals.

This talk of public participation in political process is also a talk about democracy. The term literally means "rule of the people" in Greek. According to some theories of democracy, popular sovereignty is the founding principle of such a system.

Democracy has become very popular within the last century. It has been claimed as a required system for all countries, and it has even justified many wars. Democracy can be a value and ideology, but at the same time it can be a system, political system. Debates will further extend to ideas of representation, government transparency, voting, and at a certain extent towards international relations and whether democracy can be imposed.

#### *Related motions*

- THW make voting compulsory, THW impose democracy, THB in the universality of democracy

### 3. Right or wrong: morality perspectives

Right or wrong can, in the eyes of science, have multiple perspective. Classic views of religion and culture around us would be very easy to see, perhaps you even share such views. But as an alternate approach which is essential to understand, would be the "postmodernist" views.

Postmodernists do not believe in an absolute/ universal truth, and do not attempt to define their thoughts about what is right or wrong –the world outside of them is in error, that other people's truth becomes indistinguishable from error. Therefore, no one has the authority to define truth or impose upon others his idea of moral right and wrong.

Another key concept to understand 'right' or 'wrong', is the theory of "constructivism". Nothing is naturally 'right' or 'wrong', but it is social construction that gives such labels. This is also part of psychology, that personality is constructed by experience from the surroundings. Lyotard further explains similarly, but extends to a concept of 'cultural relativism' which says that an individual human's beliefs and activities should be understood by others in terms of that individual's own culture.

George Marcus and Michael Fischer explained that Cultural relativism was in part a response to Western ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism varies, among which it says that one may consciously believe that one's people's arts are the most beautiful, values the most virtuous, and beliefs the most truthful.

In debating about social values, deconstructing-reconstructing for purpose of social engineering, these are concepts which really need further understanding for a broader approach.

#### *Related Motions*

- THW legalize prostitution, THW legalize euthanasia, THW allow the consumption of recreational drugs

#### 4. Secularism Concept and Its Relation to Liberal Democracy

Secularism is a relatively new term coined by George Jacob Holyake in 1851. In general, the concept advocates the idea of state and church (religion) separation. In a more detailed understanding, secularism champions the notion of not allowing any government policies and/or political decisions to be affiliated/influenced by religious institutions and doctrines. Therefore, its application can reach up to the banning of the involvement of religious parties/groups or individuals associated with religious dignitaries in the executive, legislative and judiciary bodies.

The secularism concept is considered crucial to exist in a democratic nation. It is due to one of the principles of liberal democracy that emphasizes on the citizen's liberty/ freedom. To be free in a liberal democracy, at the very least mean that people are capable of forming opinions and achieving their goals of life, up to the extent of independently defining their own ideas of what constitutes a good and moral life. Thus, everybody will possess equal position before the government and society.

The freedom principle will be violated under the state that promotes certain ideology of any one religion because under that state, the rules and laws formed are based on a certain truth of moral standard and religious teaching which can demonize and alienate other values or standards outside the believed norms. Perhaps a history check on the Dark Age and Catholic Church would be helpful, and what then triggered the Renaissance era along with rise of thoughts of secularism.

The alienation of certain people because of their backgrounds may cause to the denial of their rights as citizen. Therefore, in the opinion of pro-secularism, it is important to keep the state's decision makers away from any interference of religious leaders and institutions that want to impose some particular theistic conception of what is good.

In secularism, religious citizens can choose to accept theistic commands about what constitutes morality, but neither atheists nor theists can have such commands imposed to them in a secular state. In a liberal democracy which promotes liberty and freedom, a person's status as Catholic rather than Jew, or Hindu rather than Muslim can have absolutely no bearing on how they are treated or viewed by the state. Jews and Muslims, Catholics and Hindus should all be treated in exactly the same way; thus, someone's conversion from one to the other — or to nothing at all — must have absolutely no impact on their status in the political community.

##### *Related Motions*

- THW ban the use of burka in secular countries, THBT religious groups in the newly democratized Arab nations should not be involved in general elections, THBT the international community should stop sending aid to countries whom criminalize homosexuality

#### 5. Islam

Many people do not know that the word 'Islam' is not a name but a verb. It surprises even more people that the word 'Islam' means 'to be at peace'. Actually, word 'Islam' can be translated into many other words, which are 'to be sincere', 'submitting (to God)', 'to be saved', and 'to obey (God)'. However those translations do not serve justice to the real literal definition of 'Islam', which must include all those five translations in one sentence altogether.



Islam teaches its believers to believe in all the Abrahamic holy books (Torah, Zabuur, Injil, and some scholars also claim that the Vedas are also among the holy books), but claims that the Holy Quran is the final and perfect revelation, revealed by God Himself to the Prophet Muhammad (Upon Whom Be Peace), which has never changed ever since it was first revealed until today, and has been preserved in its original language (a special kind of Arabic). The Quran serves as the primary and universal source of Islamic laws and teachings, along with the Prophet Muhammad's Hadith (what he said, did, or deliberately omitted).

The Quran and Authentic Hadith are memorized by the letter, so new social occurrences throughout time are ruled upon based on interpretation of those primary sources. Islam sees that these rulings may be mistaken due to human error, there may also be some problems in the authenticity of the Hadith, but there can be no error in the Quran. There are many scientific miracles that exist in the Quran, including facts in history, mathematics, physics, embryology, neurology, hydrology, geology, *etc.*, which were absolutely impossible to be known or even guessed at the time it was revealed. However these are a small part of what Islam is all about.

Islam provides a set of rules and guides on the conduct of human life holistically. It provides rules concerning every single thing, starting from non-earthly things such as what happens after death, angels, Satan, until very earthly things such as economy, law, politics, morality, war, family, friendship, and even sex. While some people argue that so many rules are such a hindrance, but Islam claims that these rules are absolutely necessary both for this life and after, and also provides many leniencies. Islam sees that the act of worshiping God must always be manifested in conduct of life and behavior.

The largest issue about Islam is its alleged confrontation with human rights. Many criticize Islam for abusing human rights, treating women as subordinates, inciting hatred and violence as many Islamic countries are currently doing. However, many Islamic countries today do not apply pure Islamic laws, and in fact deliberately transgress many of Islamic laws. History has shown that the Arab world in the 7th century was at its most primitive when Muhammad came and changed them into the most civilized society at the time. That the last pure Islamic regime was the Bani Umayyah regime in Islamic Spain, where both economic and social welfare was achieved and enjoyed by every single soul in the lands so much that the Jewish people would abandon their own Jewish court and prefer to seek justice at the Islamic Courts instead. This regime was not toppled down due to its failure to manage, but by external attack by the Christians.

Actually, Islam holds many principles that are very similar to international human rights. Islam recognizes rights of life, gender equality, rights to education, freedom of religion (See the Cairo Declaration of Human Rights in Islam, 1990, but has a different approach to it. In gender equality, for instance, Islam sees that both genders have different roles but are equal in degree before God. In providing freedom, Islam has a more communal approach rather than an individual approach. This gives the most unique approach of Islam, that doesn't really prescribe a human rights but human responsibility. Islam provides a long series of commandments, which starts with *imaan* (or believing in God, holistically in heart and action).

Seems like trouble? Islam sees, however, that when these commandments are done correctly, and starts with the first one (*imaan*), then automatically the human rights will be fulfilled. For



example, Islam teaches that if one really believes in God, then they will be grateful for every blessing, and disasters are tests, which will lead to a blessing later (in this world or the after). So if one really practices *imaan*, will they ever feel unhappy? Islam teaches that a man with *imaan* will not threaten his/her neighbors with his/her mischief. So if a man claims to be Muslim, but his neighbors are insecure because of him, then he certainly lack faith, which is the primary commandment of Islam. On education, for instance, it is more of a responsibility than that of a right. The first revelation of the Quran, in fact, was Surah Al Alaq which says: *Iqra!* (An Arabic word that means: Read!).

Other critics are towards the justice system, where the penalty for thievery is hand-cutting. However, this only applies to thievery by greed. In the event of thievery by hunger, it is the surrounding neighbors that are fined for letting the culprit starve, as evidence of Islam's communal foundation. Furthermore, this penalty must be seen in conjunction with the *zakaat* and economic welfare system in Islam.

Sharia Economics (Sharia means Islamic Law) is an important subject also. It provides a taxation, banking, and other micro and macro-economic system very distinct to that of a capitalist or socialist system. During the 1997 and 2008 international economic crisis, countries applying Sharia Economics stood firm and unbroken. Even in non-Sharia countries, Sharia banks has always stood strong against every monetary crisis. It is essential to understand this distinct economic system.

#### *Related motions*

- THBT Sharia Economics is the way to go, THW Apply Sharia Law in Indonesia, THBT Islam and Human Rights are Incompatible, THBT Islamic Countries should become Democratic

## 6. Discrimination

The word '**discriminate**' essentially means '**to distinguish**'. Socially, discrimination happens due to a distinguished character between two or more portions of that society. For example, men and women, or Negroid and Caucasians, or Arabs and Africans, or Christians and Muslims, *etc.* To this point this fact only suggests nothing more than a difference of character. However, these characteristics can form identities, where people can feel a sense of belonging to this identity. That added with *chauvinism*, can cause identity conflicts. When different identities are roughly as strong as each other, this can cause war. But when one clearly outmatches the other, usually by resources and/or quantities, the privileged will tend to oppress the less-privileged. This is what is usually referred to as discrimination.

The criteria for discriminations take many forms such as race or culture, sexuality, and many others. Discrimination is basically a social construction. However, discrimination being a social symptom is only recognized as a problem when a certain (or enough) element of society start to consciously feel harmed by it and demand change.

Discrimination could be present in the negative form, those that cause inherent harms or take away privileges, and also in the positive, by giving preference or privileges towards a side. Keep in mind that every time discrimination happens, these two forms are always apparent. The US civil rights movement of the 60's fought against negative discrimination against blacks, which in itself is a form of positive discrimination for the whites.

When we question whether or not one or the other form discrimination is required, we are talking about issues of necessity, and weigh the benefits and harms of such a proposal. Certain proposals, such as those for positive discrimination require the affirmative team to draw and rhetorically create from history, a picture that presents a critical need for empowerment to a certain group.

It is also important to understand how certain parts of society and governments behave, or should behave in a context where discrimination is happening. Because law aspires to give equal rights and responsibilities, and minimize harms while striving for benefit, debaters are required to analyze whether the demands of those advocating for certain changes are reasonable to be thus implemented as a law, by analyzing and weighing the contradicting values involved as well as the practical impacts thereof.

Debates would usually center on how to achieve equality upon a discrimination problem, depending on the social reality and roots around the particular discrimination.

#### *Related Motions*

- THW Stop Discriminative Cultural Practices; THW Allow Homosexual Couples to Adopt Children, THW Give Affirmative Action to; THW Allow Racial Profiling, etc.

### 7. Feminism

This term has many (debatable) uses and meanings. In the mid-1800s the term '**feminism**' was used to refer to "**the qualities of females**", and it was not until after the First International Women's Conference in Paris in 1892 that the term, following the French term *féministe*, was used regularly in English for a belief in and advocacy of equal rights for women based on the idea of the equality of the sexes. Although the term "feminism" in English is rooted in the mobilization for woman suffrage in Europe and the US during the late 19th and early 20th century, of course efforts to obtain justice for women did not begin or end with this period of activism.

Some see these movements in waves. The struggle to achieve basic political rights during the period from the mid-19th century until the 19th Amendment in 1920 is known as "First Wave" feminism.

Feminism waned between the two world wars, to be "revived" in the late 1960's and early 1970's as "Second Wave" feminism. In this second wave, feminists pushed beyond the early quest for political rights to fight for greater equality across the board, e.g., in education, the workplace, and at home.

Third Wave feminism pays more attention to the differences among women due to race, ethnicity, class, nationality, religion, and emphasize "identity" as a site of gender struggle.

Feminism is generally a movement to achieve social justice for woman and to end sexism, but it varies in kind. They differ on what is and what to do with sexism; what it means to be a woman or a man, and gender social and political implications. In addition, recently, feminists start to set concern on equality and equity as feminism goals.

Some feminists believe in an understanding that men and women have different gender role in the society which implicates to the manifestation of their rights as a part of the society. They struggle to fulfill women's rights based on that particular gender role. In contrary, other feminists believe that gender role is a patriarchal society construction which needs to be deconstructed. Their struggle is mainly on the struggle to establish a social system where men and women are equal in all aspects of life.

For social justice, feminist inquiry provides a wide range of perspectives on social, cultural, economic, and political phenomena. Many debates would include: the body, class and work, disability, the family, globalization, human rights, popular culture, race and racism, reproduction, science, the self, sex work, human trafficking, and sexuality.

#### *Related Motions*

- THBT women soldiers should be allowed to fight at the frontline in warfare, THBT female athletes should obtain equal salary with male athletes, THBT feminist movements should not celebrate slut walk, THBT feminist movement in the first world countries have violated their sisters in third world countries

#### 8. Law

There is no consensus on what its real definition is, law is a background of many motions, and is the center of some. As many tend to be mistaken, it is imperative for debaters to understand: subjects of law ('persons' are subjects of law, but find the difference between 'natural persons' and 'legal persons' as subjects of law), and other basic principles of law. However, at least most (if not all) scholars at least agree that law is a set of rules.

At some point of time, law has always been about justice, where it regulates a standard conduct of human behavior. As St. Augustine puts it, "an unjust law is not a law". This was time when the Catholic Church reigned over a large part of Europe with a natural law approach, and kings sought authority by the blessings of that church. This reign fell down with so many historical events including the French Revolution, as a regime of natural law provides no certainty of law and oppression.

A new regime of legal positivism emerged, which provides a more formalistic approach, providing a certainty of which body may issue what legal product, and how these bodies or products relate with each other. The whole point of this is so that there is always a clear authority on who may make which kind of law, and who may interpret it. Unlike natural law, legal positivism claims "if a law exists, even if you don't like its content, it still exists". A law is a law and is binding as long as it has been issued by the competent authority, and has not been dismissed also by a competent authority.

This has become the backbone of modern legal systems, but also presents its own challenges. Relying on the formalization of legal rules, which takes procedures and time, one cannot simply regulate every single thing, which leaves room for legal vacuums.

This is where it is important to understand what the sources of law are. As primary sources of law, we have statutory regulations (constitutions, acts, government regulations, etc., which usually corresponds to a certain hierarchy), and customary laws (laws that live with the customs

of the people). In Indonesia, statutory regulations prevail over customary laws, except when there is a vacuum in the former. Other countries may have different systems. Past judicial decisions and scholar works can become subsidiary sources of law to further explain the primary ones.

Debates usually are around the making of certain legal products, or functions of certain legal bodies, but must always be done within the scope of the provided legal framework. For example, when one debates about not requiring consent of domestic violence victim reports, it certainly does not mean that the victim will not be obliged to testify, neither does it mean that there will be no further investigation. Or, when debating about whether children may sue their parents on mistreatment, certainly the legal system provides legal counsel for these children.

It is also important to know some general principles known in some specific fields of law, so that debates will not go blindly. For example, in contract law, while consensus between parties would bind those parties to a contract, but a contract to commit something illegal would naturally be null and void. In the field of criminal trial law, one must understand that we cannot assume “what if the person is guilty”. The presumption of innocence is made because according to the judge, before the trial has commenced, there is no evidence yet that the person is guilty, and that is why there is a trial. Many average joes also do not know that other than a lawyer who defends the criminal defendant even if he/she is actually guilty, there is also a prosecutor who will attack that defendant even if he/she is actually innocent (which in both cases, the court will not know yet until the end of the trial).

#### *Related Motions*

- THBT Courts should not recognize prenuptial marriage agreements, THW give amnesties to dictator leaders whom agree to step down voluntarily, TH Justifies Vigilante Justice, TH regrets special autonomy, etc.

### 9. International Law

In principle, international law is also a part of the study of law, but there may be some distinct characters between the two. National law is enforced by a sovereign government whom legally has power above the subjects of laws (both natural persons/individual humans and legal persons/legal bodies). International law is a different matter, as there is no sovereign body to enforce that law.

In one hand, each country has their own sovereignty thus can only be bound by law under their own consent via principle of *pacta sunt servanda*. Read further about treaty law and ratification. But in the other hand, the world is evolving into a complex global village, thus there should be norms generally acceptable and binding such as customary laws and *jus cogens* norms.

Not only state's position as subject of international law may need deeper understanding. In fact, the legal personality and capacity of international organization as a subject of international law has its own controversy and may have its own legal problems and worth searching about because many debates can talk about duties and powers of international organizations.

Debates will usually revolve around on state-state or state-international organization relations and issues surrounding them. It may talk also about norms of the international community (for

instance, preemptory norms as the highest hierarchy of international law: the *jus cogens*.) versus the pragmatic political reality of their enforcements. Among these issues would be conflict resolutions and humanitarian law/actions, United Nations functions, international human rights, sovereignty and intervention, and so much more.

#### *Related Motions*

- THW give peacekeeping troops the power to intervene, THBT the UN Security Council (UNSC) should abolish its veto rights, THBT the UNSC should cease its referral and deferral function towards the International Criminal Court, THBT ASEAN should revoke its non-intervention policy, THW Oblige the International Committee if the Red Cross agents to testify as witness in front of Criminal Tribunals, etc.

### 10. Intellectual Property Rights

The role of intellectual property has grown from merely ascribing simple protection of 'Writings and Discoveries' (*United States Constitution* art. I, § 8, cl. 8) to granting complex protection of technological advances in genetic resources. However, we should not forget that this lawyers' lucrative job field originates from the innocent concept of property/ownership rights.

Like ordinary ownership rights, intellectual property deals with the relation between individuals. It also concerns with the contest for the control of objects that people need or want (or popularly coined with the term 'the right to exclude others'). Nevertheless, one basic thing that distinguishes intellectual property law from ordinary property rights is that it posits rights in incorporeal objects, rather than corporeal.

Intellectual property is traditionally divided into two branches: industrial property and copyright. Please refer to Article 2(viii) of the WIPO Convention to see the classification if intellectual activities and their corresponding branch.

Intellectual property concept can be justified by a number of approaches. The most popular approaches are the natural right theory and utilitarian theory. John Locke's explanation on property rights is central in many discussions about intellectual property. Locke presents an idea that property rights are individual in nature and it is fundamental. In order to justify this idea, he assumes that by default, society tends to avert to laboring.

Property rights would then act as an incentive for scientists and experts to continue working for the advancement of science and technology.

Questions arise in opposition of this principle: why would a society avert to laboring just because they do not have property or monopoly rights? The truth is many societies have achieved spectacular outcomes in science and innovation even though they have no concept of intellectual property. In any way, creative and inventive work is carried out by employees, who work for monetary reasons, not for intellectual property. Centuries before copyright and patent laws were established, invention and discoveries flourished throughout the world. As evidence, Imperial China has a profoundly impressive series of innovations, discoveries, and literary works, in the absence of intellectual property rights. There was no legal or customary equivalent to intellectual property in Imperial China.



On the notion of Locke's theory of 'natural law', an important question remains in opposition. Natural law or *lex naturalis* is regarded as an eternal and unwritten law. It concerns the most primal essence of human's life; thereby it surpasses the power of written law. The teaching of natural law lies on the thought that there are certain rights or laws that are integral with human's persona that even positive law cannot abrogate, for example right to life, right to have property, and *pacta sunt servanda*. The proposition that supports intellectual property law as a part of natural law cannot answer the question why, if it is indeed a natural law, the government has the power to limit the duration of intellectual property rights.

In some places, the Lockean view of intellectual property is in contrast with the Indonesian *adat* law (or indigenous laws). According to Michael Barry Hooker, *adat* law describes the relationship between man and nature (including non-empirical natural forces). In such behavior, individualistic and liberalistic views cannot live in the minds of Indonesians.

#### *Related Motions*

- THW Patent Cultural Products, THW Remove Patents for Anti-Retroviral Drugs, THB in Open Source

### 11. Economy

Economy is one of the most insidious subject of sciences, and subject to hot debates in almost all areas of life.

As a basic, it is imperative to understand the nature of man and needs. One may classify three levels of need: primary, secondary, and tertiary needs. These classifications can then lead to a broader perspective as to its relation to governmental policies, e.g. the relation between the ability of a society to fulfil which level of need and concluding level of welfare level of that society.

Another basic knowledge is the relations between "supply", "demand", "price", and "elastic/inelastic goods". The aforementioned terms are highly essential to understand what happens in a market (not the market you visit to buy meat and vegetables—but the economic activities occurring in the society).

Bringing the perspective to the policy-making perspectives, it is essential to understand the difference between a macro-level economy policy approach (*trickle down*/top-bottom) and micro-level economy approach (bottom-top), and how both approaches are interlinked and used in combination or alternative.

There are three distinct ideologies of economic policy which would result in different policy system and purpose. Two among them would be the classic debate between the socialists and liberals.

The socialists (one might want to look up its difference with "communism") believe in government intervention to stabilize the market and achieve social welfare, resulting in policies such as subsidies. Such ideology is as opposed to capitalist belief, where market stability and social welfare is achieved without government intervention, resulting in policies such as free trade and privatization. Although of course, practice shows that the two ideologies are indeed combined to certain proportions.



The third ideology of economic policy is very unique: sharia economics (also pronounced as *syariah*). Based on *fiqh* of Islamic sharia laws, the Muslims constructed a different understanding in carrying out economic policies. For example, they have their own ways of banking, for instance, which is said to be among the reasons why countries using sharia economics were not affected by the financial crisis in 1997 and 2008. Understanding sharia economics is really good for alternate approaches to economic debates.

Debates will revolve around arguing which kind of approach will achieve social welfare and/or poverty eradication better, be it in national policy levels or international relations to topics such as the WTO and free trade. Most of which will relate to other issues such as the environment.

#### *Related motions*

- THW Subsidize Education, THW Disband the WTO, THW Privatize State Owned Enterprises

## 12. Population, Migration, and Labor Market

The advancement of agriculture, medicine, technology and the organization of social structure have made this planet much more comfortable for human life, so comfortable in fact, that we have seen a greater increase of human population that it took us less than 200 years to explode from our first billion people to six, incredible when we consider that it took humans its entire history until the 1800s to reach our first billion.

This number however, is not distributed equally. Many countries with higher education and welfare have zero or negative population growth, whereas those otherwise tend to experience unchecked growth, both of which causing their own set of internal problems.

The debates about the limitation of population (e.g. China's 'one child' policy) or advocating growth (e.g. Australia's 'the third child is for the government' policy) demands teams to explain the rights and responsibilities of governments as agents of social engineering and social betterment in contrast to the citizen's rights and responsibilities as autonomous human beings. The understanding and presentation of practical economic and sociological impacts of such policies are pivotal towards a good debate.

When these disparities come into play in the international field, people start to find ways to adapt themselves or their ideas with these realities. When living in rampant poverty, conflict or plagued with overpopulation or other social illnesses, people immigrate to other lands seeking better living conditions or job opportunities (e.g. Palestinian refugees, Chinese workers to name a few). Issues on migration demand debaters to analyze both contradicting philosophical values such as the human rights aspect of the immigrants and the economical and sovereign aspects of the countries the immigrants wish to go to.

When immigration is largely driven by political issues or conflict, it is also very important to discuss the nature of the causative issue (e.g. Burmese immigrants in Thailand fleeing racial persecution) and the political, ethical and legal implications of it. Discrimination towards immigrants (e.g. only allowed educated immigrants in) will also require an analysis on the idea of equality and humanity.

Business often use these disparities in welfare to their advantage, outsourcing unskilled work to developing countries, at cut-throat wages sometimes barely enough for subsistence. But whether it is outsourcing or the delegation of unsavory work to a less fortunate actor (e.g. Dumping of electronic waste to developing countries, a highly hazardous job), debaters must first be able to present an explanation of the situations and capabilities of the actors involved. We must ask whether or not the job fields are legitimate, humane and necessary forms of labor.

These factors will always be in conflict, the duty of either teams is to show that their case (e.g. necessity justifies bad work conditions) better fulfills the need of the actors involved, whether as human beings or the object of economics. Debates regarding these issues also emphasize a need to understand how societies themselves respond, benefit or are harmed in such problems. Some societies see an influx of refugees or immigrants as a threat towards their culture and nation, often sparking violent conflicts.

#### *Related Motions*

- TH Believes in Zero-Population Growth; THW Only Allow Educated Immigrants; THW Have a Salad-Bowl Society; TH is Against Outsourcing; THW Return (insert conflicting state) Immigrants; THW Force Transmigration, etc.

### 13. Environment

Mankind has been exploiting nature since a very long time, yet it is not until the recent few decades did we realize that it is leading us to our doom. Ozone depletion, global warming, pollution, non-natural disasters, you name it. The classic debate about environment would typically revolve around its relation towards economic needs (read further on the *tragedy of the common*), and how mankind could achieve the idea of “Sustainable Development”.

Many environmental groups (Greenpeace, Walhi, and Earth Liberation Force) strive to get support for the environment, sometimes going extreme to eco-terrorism. On the other hand, huge manufacturers oppose the idea by saying how global warming is a hoax until debating further on issues such as liability.

The issue is indeed broad and can escalate to the necessity, justification, and effectiveness of public policies (e.g. green tax) and international treaties (e.g. Kyoto Protocol) etc.

Debates on environment is always about the common end goal of preservation, but by giving additional economic burden to certain parties which might also bring its own harms –or sometimes even doing preferential treatments (see the distribution of responsibilities under Kyoto Protocol, or debates about how the first world countries should be responsible for pollution in the third world countries).

Other debates on environment may involve issues of animal protection, which is also a similar debate with the previous but not necessarily involving natural disasters.

#### *Related motions*

- THW apply green tax, THW pay developing countries to preserve their forests, THW justify eco-terrorism,

#### 14. Energy and Nuclear Power:

Man will always need energy, food to fuel his body, wood to feed his fires and inevitably, electricity to fuel his technologies. In our histories we are continuously searching and inventing newer, better methods to fulfill our demands, in the face of fluctuating prices and availability of fossil fuels.

There is always a problem on certain aspects for every alternative energy. Fossil fuel, as we know it, is very market friendly and cheap (despite great fluctuations in the global market) but on the other hand it's not clean and is very inefficient. Geothermal, wind energy, are known to be clean but they are neither efficient nor market friendly. Nuclear power provides great amount of power and efficiency, but it has great risks (see Chernobyl and Fukushima incident) and needs special waste management systems. That is not yet mentioning all the political drama around the issue.

Debaters are recommended to research each source's technical specifications including the infrastructure and requirements to build one, on organizations and international agreements related (OPEC, IAEA, Non-Proliferation Treaty and STAR but these relates to the spread of nuclear weapons, etc.), and when the power source has certain dangers, the past histories of nuclear incidents (Chernobyl, or Fukushima for example) and the causes behind them.

Care should be exercised when incorporating arguments regarding nuclear weapons, since bombs and power-plants are two very different things. Issues regarding possession of nuclear weapons questions talks about rights of ownership, the standards of which should be the focus of the debate. Political and military impacts of such weapons must also be included in the discussion thereof, try analyzing what happened in the Cold War.

It is up to debaters to present a clear energy problem, identifying the causes and creating clear indicators of what the solution should like, and then to present their case in such at a way that it fits into the initial problems (or not), and or bring benefits.

##### *Related Motions*

- THBT Nuclear Energy is the Future; THBT All Countries Should Have Rights to Civilian Nuclear Programs; THBT Renewable Energy is Superior to Nuclear Power, etc.

#### D. USING FOR CASEBUILDING

After having an issue and identifying principles involved for the motion, case building will be much easier. You may employ the information you gain to identify the issues or problems generating the debate. From your research you also can prioritize which issues come primary and which issues are just less crucial to be discussed, and also try to identify who are the actors and stakeholders who are involved and affected in the issue. By this way, then you can identify better what are the problems and implications surrounding the issues and the relations between the stake holders, actors, and the problem itself.

Once you decide the problems/ issues you can develop the case by producing arguments. The layers of arguments can be enriched by the inclusion of principles you have read before from your research materials. The same system can also be employed when you are preparing your negation. Last but not

least, you can add facts and statistics to complete your arguments and claims. Regarding the use of facts, you must bear in mind that the facts you use should be the most relevant one. You have to also ensure that the sources of the facts are credible enough. This is important to prevent you from delivering erroneous fact during your speech.

#### E. RESEARCHING AND COMPILING NOTES

You will find that a good bit of your club time will be taken up by researching and compiling notes on topics for upcoming tournaments or club debates. Students can work on topics in teams or small groups, and should be required to prepare notes or issue briefs to be shared with the rest of the class. As the tournament approaches, these briefs can be photocopied for everyone in the club and compiled in three-ring notebooks to bring to the tournament.

## CHAPTER VIII

### RHETORICS IN DEBATE

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#### A. INTRODUCTION TO RHETORICS

Previously, it was explained that according to Aristotle's work, that an argument must have *Logos* (Logic), *Ethos* (Credibility), and *Pathos* (Emotion) in order to be successfully proven. *Logos* is commonly known as the most important aspect out of the three in a debate, as explained in previous chapters. However, merely mastering logic alone does not automatically win you the favor of the adjudicators. Many debaters often neglect to use the *Ethos* and *Pathos* when creating and presenting arguments. In debating terms, these two elements are commonly referred to in conjunction as **rhetoric**, which is a combination of the two.

Instances have happened before where debates have been won based mainly on rhetoric. An example would be the debate that happened in the Medsco 2013 between Team Pendidikan Dokter (Affirmative) and Team Titik (Negative). The motion for the grand finals was "THBT Doctors Should Not Require Parents' Consent to Perform Medical Procedures on Children." Team Negative won with a 2 - 1 split decision. Team Affirmative managed to prove that the situation was medical, therefore a doctor would know more than the parent, which gave them a logical advantage. On the other hand, Team Negative managed to prove a link between the parent and child on emotional grounds that doctors would not understand. Although lacking completion on the grounds of logic, this argument was very appealing on the grounds of human nature. It therefore won them the favor of a majority of the adjudicators.

Based on that example, we can conclude that if used correctly, rhetoric may serve just as much importance as logic. Although adjudicators generally accept logic as the main parameter for evaluation, they too are human beings that can be affected by emotional prejudices, social construction, and appealing public speaking style. This chapter will explain to you exactly how to use those things to your advantage.

#### B. ETHOS (CREDIBILITY)

*Ethos*, or Credibility, refers to trustworthiness of the speaker. Audiences tend to believe your speech more if you present yourself as someone who seems sincere and full of integrity. This can be affected by two things -- a speaker's previous reputation and the tone and style of the through which the argument is conveyed. Although a reputation cannot be directly affected, it is very much possible to rely on good public speaking skills to make yourself sound more convincing. Your style should be able to **convince and persuade** the judges that your arguments are better than the other side. In order to do this, it is best to:



1. **Be Confident**

Confidence is the gateway to all other public speaking skills. In most (if not all) aspects of life, confidence is what brings out the best in us. It is natural for us to not pull out the best and hesitate when we are not confident. It affects our train of thought, concentration, voice and gesture control, etc. Basically, it affects your performance as a whole.

Not to mention, it is not so easy to be convinced by a speaker whom does not seem to be convinced him/herself.

2. **Use Eye Contact**

Remember that when you debate, you should face the judges and not your opponents since they are the ones you want to convince. It is also not wise to look notes all the time. Avoiding eye contact will make you seem as if you don't want to connect with the audience or the judges. Share an equal eye contact to all of the adjudicators, or at the very least, the friendliest one. Eye contact makes you look confident. *Tip: for those who don't feel comfortable looking at another person's eyes, try looking at their forehead. This makes you more at ease and the audience still feel that you're talking to them.*

3. **Be Clear in Explaining your Points**

Being clear means using tone, volume and language that makes other people understand your points. Choose simple language or words to make sure that other people know what you are talking about. Good grammar is helpful, though making one or two mistakes would not matter so long as people understand what you are talking about.

When assigning arguments, it is important to remember that speakers should bring important cases first. Central arguments should be brought earlier in the case. This will help the speaker to have a good structure of the speech.

Signposting is also a must. Make sure to:

- State how many points you will bring. This must be brought in the beginning of the speech.
- Flag every time you will start/end an argument.

In addition, remember that having popular tag lines will also be beneficial to be the heading of the arguments. This will help the team and the adjudicator to classify the clash.

Before the teams arrange their speech, taking notes does help. It aims to be the general outline of the speech. Some steps that can be done for note taking are:

- Sort out a clear chronology in your notes for what you want to bring first until the last.
- Write the headline or the most important part of the logic and let your critical thinking develop it more.

4. **Avoid being Monotonous**

Changes make people notice, so it's good to have variations in your speech so that people stay interested. It would be a pity if the judges miss a good point you made simply because your speech was boring. Here are some tips to be not monotonous:



- For the pace, there is no need to try and speak as fast as you can. Do not be too loud; do not be too quiet.
- Use intonation to make your speech more dynamic. Try to make it raise and fall at different times. You can also emphasize your point by using either a slower tempo or a lower voice.
- Use words effectively. Go straight to the point and do not beat around the bush. It's unnecessary to repeatedly use filler words, such as "Ladies and Gentlemen" and "Actually."
- Use appropriate expressions and gestures to convince others. Your speech will lose appeal if, for example, you giggle or use humor while talking about a serious matter such as the famine in Africa.

5. **Adapt to the Audience**

Merely preparing your beforehand via research and practice is not enough. You must also be able to actively analyze and adapt to your audience to make sure that they are receiving the full impact of your points. This can be done within a debate setting by paying close attention to the nonverbal clues, which are as follows:

a) *Eye Contact*

If your audience is continuously looking at you in the eyes, chances are they are listening to and receiving the message that you are trying to give. But if they are looking down, or worse, closing their eyes, then they are most likely uninterested in what you have to say. Squinting or narrowed eyes indicate confusion.

b) *Facial Expression*

Attentive audiences will make facial expressions indicating that they are hanging on to every word you say. An interested expression, however, should not be confused with a "stupor look." This look typically consists of a slightly tilted head, glazed eyes, a slight smile, and often a hand on the chin. Although it may seem like they are paying attention, listeners making this look are most likely daydreaming or focusing on something other than your words.

c) *Movement*

Interested audiences do not tend to move much. An uninterested audience may start fidgeting their fingers, playing with things in their hand, jiggling their leg, squirming in their seats, etc.

d) *Actions*

An attentive audience will show various responses when prompted to by the speaker. Frequent nods of the head indicate agreement and support. Shaking of the head indicates disagreement or confusion. They may even quietly express their agreement/disagreement to a person sitting nearby.

By paying attention to these clues, you will be able to tell what is going through an audiences mind and appropriately modify your speech on the spot. If your listeners are showing signs of disinterest, then you can try making your tone more dramatic, using more examples of which the audience can relate to, or pick up the pace of your delivery.

If they seem confused or don't seem to understand your point, you can try rephrasing your points, use more examples, attempt to slow your speaking speed (if you were previously speaking rapidly), or clarify the overall organization of your message to the listeners.

### C. PATHOS (EMOTION)

*Pathos* refers to the persuasion of the audience by appealing to their emotions. The use of emotions in a speech will make the audience not only understand your speech, but also to identify with your point of view. In other words, it will make the audience feel what you feel. Needless to say, your speech will be a lot more convincing if you manage to make the listeners truly believe in what you are saying.

When using emotion, you create an opening for your words to take effect. You can make someone feel pity for the victims of the status quo, contempt for existing injustice, or indignation at certain actions that have been proposed.

Here is a list of common emotions that can be exploited inside a speech:

#### 1. Fear

This includes fear of pain, sickness, natural disaster, sexual abuse, individual rejection, or economy.

➤ Example:

**THW Invade North Korea**

North Korea already declared that they will start the war, thus we must take preventive action. They threaten the whole world with mass death and destruction. We don't want the world to suffer from the tremendous effects of nuclear power...

#### 2. Compassion

This includes feeling sorry for physical disabilities, battered woman, neglected pet, jobless people, hungry kids, and people with HIV.

➤ Example:

**THW Legalize Surrogate Mother**

The level of jobless women in Indonesia is rising, and there are very few job options available for them. This affects not only themselves; these woman also have family and kids living in poverty. Their kids are in need education, food, housing...

#### 3. Pride

This includes one's pride of one country, family, school, ethnical inheritance, and pride in achievements.

➤ Example:

**THW Give full scholarship for student who want to take traditional culture related degree in university**

Traditional culture is part of one's country's identity. These culture gives a track back about who we are in the past. Unfortunately, the development of technology degrades the willingness of our youth to take education about traditional culture. Thus this culture need help and we need more people to preserve it.

4. Anger

This includes anger towards terrorist, corrupt public server.

➤ Example:

**THW Give Death Sentences for Terrorist**

Terrorists are everyone's' enemy. All countries hate them. They not only cause physical and infrastructural damage, terrorist strip down the very pride of a country.

5. Guilt

This includes feeling guilty for not helping people in needs, guilty feeling for not doing the best.

➤ Example:

**THW Regrets Abortion**

Nowadays, many countries started have started to legalize abortion. The number of this atrocity is raising every year. We are responsible for the deaths of more and more babies. This is a problem that we must stop.

6. Reverence

This includes respect for someone, tradition, institution, beliefs.

➤ Example:

**THBT Eco-Terrorism is Justifiable**

People who fight for a noble cause deserve our respect. They risk their jobs and lives in order to help others. And what cause could be nobler than the protection of Mother Nature, the very source of our lives?

## D. SENSITIVE ISSUES

Different audiences respond differently to different issues. I the matter of debate, however, there are several things that cannot be tolerated. It is especially important to avoid any kind of potentially offensive language and arguments. Since a speaker is evaluated by credibility, not intentions, it does not matter whether or not you intend to offend a particular group of people. If adjudicators detect any sort of hate speech coming from a debater, they will not hesitate to severely cut your speaking score.

You must be particularly wary of the following:

1. Swear Words

In a debate, there is a severe ban on any and all kinds of swear words. This also includes the use of derogatory terms, and impolite phrases in general. Using them can be used as grounds to cut your speaking score, regardless how brilliantly your points are delivered.

**2. Gender-based Stereotypes and Sexist Language**

A person's sex is determined by their anatomical and biological being. A person's gender is one's socially constructed perception of them self-based on the scale of femininity and masculinity. Because of this, it is inappropriate to assume that all people of a particular sex fall into the same stereotypes. (Ex. Not all men are fanatic about sports and not all women choose to pursue a life as a housewife.)

It is also very important to avoid sexist prejudices and remarks. A sexist prejudice is to assume one's reactions and capabilities based solely on his or her sex. (Ex. Do not differentiate women from men in fields of educational and/or political proficiency based only on whether they are a man or women.)

It is also important to note, however, that there is a fine line between being sexist and stating facts that are backed up with cold, hard scientific evidence. The best stance to take when it comes to gender issues is to be inclusive towards both genders and fully analyze all the factors that take part and not make any rash assumptions based on sex. (Ex. It is a real life statistic that states how women tend to opt to become a housewife as opposed to working. However, this may just be a result of social construction which has stuck with us since the era before emancipation, not because of specific capabilities. Even more so, this does not mean that all women choose to be housewives.)

That being said, it is also important to keep in mind that even research is not absolute. Different studies produce different data. For example, early research once concluded that females were more susceptible towards persuasion than men. Some modern research, however, states that both genders are equally sensitive towards persuasion. And yet, other research programs show that women are socialized to be more emotional, which then becomes the truth.

**3. Sexual Orientation based Stereotypes and Offensive Language**

Another demographic factor to look out for is sexual orientation. Any personal opinions on a specific sexual orientation should be kept out of your speech. As a debater, you have the responsibility to show utmost respect towards sensitive issues. Do not make prejudices based only on sexual orientation. Be sure to carefully monitor your arguments and delivery. (Ex. Do not differentiate homosexuals as a separate class from heterosexuals with different ideals, political views, and religions merely based on their sexual preference.)

**4. Remarks mocking ones race, ethnicity, and culture are not allowed.**

The main thing to avoid when it comes to race, ethnicity, and culture is ethnocentrism, which is the assumption that your own cultural approaches are superior to those of other cultures. As a debater, you must be sensitive towards cultural differences and avoid saying anything that hints at an attack at one of another's. The best approach to take would be to learn more about diversity and cultural differences.

**5. Offensive Remarks Based on Religion.**

For most people, very few beliefs are held quite as closely as religion. It is an especially sensitive issue which you must tread carefully around. Do not make debates involving religion personal.

When making arguments closely related to religion, note that there are real people in this world who are deeply involved in a certain set of beliefs. Speak with great caution and respect.

6. **Personal Attacks on Opponents**

When debating, remember that it is the case of the opponents that you are trying to criticize -- not the opponents themselves. It is prohibited to say anything directly intended to offend or criticize the opposite team. And violations will be penalized accordingly.

E. **PRACTICE**

There is no absolute way to deliver your speech when it comes to manner. Different people use different styles to convince the audience, it all depends on one's individual style. However, when it comes to manner, there is one rule that holds true. *Practice makes perfect*. In other words, the more you practice, the better you get. It's as simple as that. A debater who actively tries to improve their manner is almost guaranteed to do better than if they made no effort whatsoever.

Here are some useful tricks to help improve your manner:

1. **Simple and Easy Methods:**

- **Make the mirror your best friend.** The best person to help you out with your style is yourself. Make a speech in front of a mirror and judge on your own what kind of expression and gestures works best for you. This method will help you be able to actively regulate and evaluate the way you present your speech.
- **Record yourself while practicing.** You could tape/record yourself while practicing/debating and analyze your manner afterwards. This method will help you evaluate the manor of your speech as a whole. You will be able to check if any of your hand gestures are off, if you are not speaking loud enough, etc.
- **Distance speeches.** Ask a friend/friends to help you out by listening to your speech from a great distance or very close. This method will help you practice controlling your voice volume level.
- **Ask your friend to help you out.** Make a speech in front of your friend and ask him/her to comment on your style. This method will help you get fresh new ideas through a perspective which is not your own.
- **Voluntarily Making public speeches.** Make a speech in front of a lot of people to practice intonation, gestures, eye contact, and generally how to persuade a large number of audience. Making the audience circle around you for a more advanced practice on eye contact. This will help you to overcome any stage fright or uneasiness once you get used to talking in front of a crowd.

2. **Find Examples**

Watch movies or download clips.

Having good examples will really help you find reference as to which character suits you best. Try downloading various types of public figures doing various styles of speeches.



Some notable speakers to look up include Barrack Obama (President of USA), Margaret Thatcher (former Prime Minister of the UK), Mufti Menk (Islamic Preacher), Sheikh Yusuf Estes (Islamic Preacher), Dalai Lama (Spiritual Leader), Mahmoud Ahmadinejad (former President of Iran), Alan Shore (fictional character from Boston Legal Series) etc.

Here are some useful steps to take:

- Find a speaking style that you find to be attractive and convincing.
- *Check to see if the style is appropriate for you to adapt to.*

Not every style is suited for every person, so you must find one that is compatible with you. Some things to look out for are, is the style appropriate for debate competition? Will I feel overly uncomfortable if I try to mimic this style?

It is important that you pick a style that you feel comfortable using. If the style that you use seems too forced, it could project an image of insincerity to the adjudicators, therefore hampering the message that you are trying to deliver. (Ex. A typically timid person with a weak voice who has trouble speaking loudly may have trouble mimicking a style of one with an overconfident, fast-paced, and generally loud manner. They could instead opt for a style more slow-paced, personal, and emotional that puts emphasis on only certain parts.)

*a) Observe the speech carefully.*

Try to find patterns in the manner of the person of your choice. Try identifying:

- What is the general mood of the speech? What emotions do they put into play? Do they make a deep, moving speech full of anger and concern? Do they play off of feelings of hope and a bright future?
- How is the speech paced? Do they tend to talk with a quicker/slower tempo in certain parts?
- How does the speaker add emphasis to their speech? Do they talk in a softer or louder voice? Do they use a certain gesture when making assertions?
- What kind of body language does the speaker make? On which parts do they make gestures for emphasis? How often does the speaker use body language throughout their speech?
- Is there any particular pattern in which they structure their arguments?

*b) Assimilate the style with your own.*

Just because you are taking tips from another speaker, it does not mean that your style must be exactly the same. Incorporate your own, personal manners to the one you watch. That way, you will be able to create a style that is unique and best fit for you.

### 3. Games

Practicing manner doesn't always have to be serious -- it is encouraged to also try doing some of the more "fun" activities as well! Learning becomes a lot more effective if done with enjoyment. It stimulates the brain and breeds enthusiasm in debaters-in-training. Not to mention, debating games are a great source of laughs which can brighten up the day and become the highlights of practice.

The following is a list of recommended games to try:

**a) *Ridiculous Debates***

Instead of debating with serious topics that can have a great impact on the lives of the society, try debating about something lighter for a change. The motions could be funny (e.g. THBT Superman lack intelligence) or to attempting prove something morally wrong (e.g. THBT Santa Claus loves naughty girls too).

Debating with topics like these are great ways to exercise confidence and persuasion. It encourages debaters to try thinking outside of the box, which is a very useful skill. It also functions as a refresher and allows you to focus more on how to persuade the audience via style and manner while worrying less about arguments.

**b) *The Style-Card Game***

This game involves requiring a debater to convey different types of emotions and styles all in one speech. This game is a great way to help debaters to attempt more dynamic variations in their speech. It also forces you to be able to think and respond quickly to different situations, grow more comfortable to speaking in public, all while unfalteringly continuing with their message despite the distractions.

How to play:

- Prepare a number of Style Cards -- Different pieces of paper cut into squares with different types of speaking styles/emotions written on them. E.g. Angry, Confident, Timid, Sad, Hopeful, Honest, Mean, Sleepy, Worried, Bored, etc. (Make sure that the writing on the cards are big enough to be read by the speaker from a distance.)
- Give all the debaters time to case build for different motions. Make sure that they brain storm separately.
- One by one, call the debaters up to make a speech as usual.
- During the course of their speech, hold up various Style Cards. Upon seeing one, the debater must then deliver the speech using the particular manner that is written on the card.
- Hold up different style cards periodically throughout the speech.
- Once the speech is over, have all participants evaluate the speech together and provide useful input.

**c) *Motion Match-Up***

Through requiring a debater to both create and make arguments for a motion based on a random set of words, this game requires debaters to maximize their creativity, rationality, and persuasion skills. This is useful in helping them think and evaluate motions and arguments from different perspectives to give them a better understanding.

How to play:

- Cut up pieces of paper. Hand out two pieces to every participant and have them write down two different words of their choice. (The words chosen are completely up to the person who writes them. They do not even have to be related to debate.)

- Mix up all the pieces of paper and require one debater to randomly choose two pieces.
- The debater then has 10 minutes to create a motion involving both words, complete with arguments. After the time is up, they must deliver their speech.
- Repeat steps ii and iii until all participants have finished delivering their arguments.
- Evaluate the speeches of all the participants together.

d) *Story Telling*

Sometimes, during practice, debaters are too caught up on their arguments to successfully focus on improving public speaking skills. Therefore, you can have a session where instead of making speeches, you tell stories. The goal of this game is to help debaters practice telling a story while still keeping their tone interesting and dynamic all throughout the 7 minutes.

How to play:

- Give all debaters some time to prepare a story. It can be about a book they've read, a movie they've watched, a fairy tale, an original story, or a past experience.
- Divide crumpled pieces of paper to all of the listeners and have them make speeches one by one.
- Each time the current speaker's speech becomes monotone or boring, the listeners must throw pieces of paper at them.
- At the end of a story, all the debaters must evaluate each other's story telling performance.

e) *Debate-War*

This game was totally inspired by Rap-War. It helps you to think quickly on your feet, be efficient, be dynamic and responsive, be creative, and all that would help you maintain your cool during speeches.

The game would require the participants to be put in pairs, and to have one 'referee'. The chronology works as follows:

- Divide the participants in pairs, where one would be Pro and the other would be Contra
- Make them all stand up, Pros standing in line facing their pair (the Contra) also facing towards them and standing in lines. Make sure you have enough space.
- The referee must prepare a stopwatch, as everything will happen really fast and under command of the referee
- The referee will announce a motion (may be serious, could also be humorous), and declares a thirty second case-build time. Bear in mind that this case-building may not include writing or moving from their spot.
- After thirty seconds, the referee will command "Pro, NOW!", and then the Pro speakers will start a thirty second speech facing their pair. Yes, everyone at the same time. Bear in mind that as soon as the referee commands "NOW", the Pro speaker

must immediately start speaking without delay, as the thirty seconds of speech does not start from the start of the speech but at the command of that referee.

- After exactly thirty seconds of the Pro speech, the referee will command “Contra, NOW!” Immediately, the Pro speakers must stop and the Contras will start a thirty seconds speech facing their pair to respond.
- This will continue until each speaker speaks for a total of three times, or any amount depending on the referee’s discretion or initial agreement.
- The very fast pace of this game would perhaps require the referee to not reset the timer on every speaker, but to keep it running and always be attentive. Also, due to that fast paced speech, the Pro teams will not need to think about definitions or set ups, as this is purely about shooting out at the other person. Perhaps to add clarity, the motion should be as obvious as possible or the context is already given earlier.





## CHAPTER IX

### SPEAKER ROLES

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Principally debate is a team-competition in which three speakers constitute a team and share different roles to achieve the team's goal: winning the battle. Hence, it is essential to comprehend the role of each speaker as one's substantive speech will determine the run and the result of the debate. As an initial briefing, it is important to note that the simplest role of each speaker is required to move forward to face the audience, recognize the Chairman and then address the audience - speakers should avoid addressing the presentation to the opposing team, it is the audience and adjudicators that they should be seeking to persuade.

#### A. SPEAKER'S ROLES

The roles of the individual speakers are summarized as follows:

1. **First Speaker of Team Government:**

Other formats would call this speaker as 'prime minister'. This speaker opens the debate and sets the direction of debate. Many prime ministers open up with a little background, team splits, but essentially the main roles are as follows:

- To provide definition and contextualization
- To provide substantial arguments for the government

2. **First Speaker of Team Opposition**

Also known as 'leader of opposition', this speaker clarifies the position of the opposition stance in adjustment to the directives set up brought by Team Government. Styles may vary, but in essence the duties are as follows:

- To enter the definition and context set by team government, by clarifying stance (and counter-model, if necessary)
- To provide rebuttals towards the case presented by Team Government
- To provide substantial arguments for the opposition

3. **Second Government & Opposition**

Both second speakers have the same duty. Also called 'Deputies', they respond the previous speakers of the opponent, also defending their preceding partner's arguments after being responded by the other team. Afterwards, they should extend the debate by providing substantial arguments from different perspectives than that of their preceding speakers. In summary, their duties are as follows:

- To provide rebuttals towards the opponent (both offensive and defensive)
- To provide extension arguments, which are basically new arguments which are different or another view point from what their previous speaker has already brought.

#### 4. Third Government & Opposition

Third speakers, or also known as “whips” have the sole duty of providing rebuttals towards the other team’s case. No new arguments are allowed to be brought by the third speaker of team negative as it is not fair for team government, thus for further fairness the same rule extends to the third speaker of team government (although some formats may tolerate third speaker governments providing new arguments, but they still at least put a low weight on these new arguments).

The role of a third speaker is simply to respond the other team and providing rebuttals, but usually some more advanced speakers would package this duty by the following techniques:

- To map out how the debate went, by clustering the issues and summarizing the dynamics of debate regarding the battle of both sides on each issues.
- With the ‘map’ set in the previous point, rebuttals are now provided in a much more focused and directed way which is issue based.
- For each points of rebuttals in one issue. After deconstructing what the other team have said, then usually the third speaker will claim that it is his/her team whom has provided a better argument regarding that same issue.

An additional remark on point (iii), some third speakers make mistakes by thinking that “summarizing own case” is a bigger priority than providing rebuttals. Do not be mistaken by doing so. It is more recommended to just remind the adjudicators that after you provide a rebuttal, “not only their argument is bad, but our arguments were better”.

#### 5. Reply Speeches

Reply speeches are the last chance to convince the adjudicators. No new arguments and rebuttals may be given. A reply speech is simply a summary of the debate, identifying crucial points by referring back to points already delivered previously in the debate, and explaining why their team should win with tools of comparison. Some say it’s just like a biased verbal adjudication. The end goal is to remind the adjudicators what are the burdens of each team, and that it is his/her team who managed to prove it –and not the other team.

Some little tips for a reply speech is that it should be packaged as interesting as possible. Truth be told, the adjudicators have already heard all the arguments. You may not bring new points, but then letting the adjudicators hear the same thing again would be excruciatingly boring. Sometimes, adjudicators are already really tired at this point or even using the time to calculate scores instead. Narrating your points or using interesting analogies may help make your reply speech memorable.

There are certain duties which are not mentioned above, such as “summarizing own arguments at the end” or “sign posting” and many more (or even in some competitions, “introducing team members”).

It is not that they are not important thus not worthy of noting on speaker roles. It is just that such duties are not unique duties of a specific speaker role, but they are merely etiquettes of a public speaker which are embedded in any public speeches which would generally make any speech easier to understand.

All these roles are imperative for any speaker to understand. Perhaps you may have certain specialties or preference for certain roles, but there are always times when your team would need a more flexible role. Plus, through experience you will also usually be able to be more flexible.

## B. DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGES

In a perfect world, this section would not be necessary – both teams would agree on the same definition, so there would be no need for definitional rebuttal. In fact, not even a perfect world would be necessary – most definitional disputes would be avoided if both teams had chosen an appropriate and even-handed definition.

However, avoidable or not, definitional disputes do happen. What's more, when they happen, your adjudicator will expect you to follow a relatively standard approach in dealing with the situation. Of all the aspects of debate, this is one of the driest; however, it is also one of the most technically demanding.

The roles of the individual speakers in a **Definitional Challenge** are as follows:

### 1. First Opposition

#### a) *Challenge the Definition*

Make it clear that you are challenging your opponents' definition. It is helpful to actually use the word 'challenge' – for example, "First, we challenge our opposition's definition."

#### b) *Explain*

Provide the reason **WHY** your opponent's definition is wrong; use the criteria's which have been explained; truistic, squirreling, tautological, etc.

#### c) *Bring Your Team's Definition*

This is vital, because every debate needs a definition – if your opponents' definition is not good enough, you need something to replace it.

#### d) *Explain WHY your team's definition is more reasonable.*

#### e) *Give Even-If Rebuttals*

In a nutshell, even-if rebuttals are used to rebut the fallacies in the opponent's arguments, EVEN-IF their definition is correct.

- E.g. "Even if their definition is correct, in which it is obviously not, their arguments still cannot stand because of the following reasons...."

**Outline** the team's structure. Indicate the team's stance, basic theme (theme line) of the team's case, and the aspects to be dealt with by each speaker (team split).

| Deliver substantial **Arguments**

2. Second Government

- a) *Defend the Government's definition*  
Explain **WHY** your team's definition is perfectly reasonable.
- b) *Rebut the opposition's definition*  
Explain **WHY** their definition is incorrect.
- c) *Give the Even-If Rebuttals towards the opposition's case.*
- d) *Deliver the Extensions.*

3. Second Opposition

- a) *Defend the Opposition's definition*  
Explain **WHY** your team's definition is perfectly reasonable.
- b) *Restate WHY the opposition's definition is incorrect.*
- c) *Give the Even-If Rebuttals towards the opposition's case.*
- d) *Deliver the Extensions.*

4. Third Government & Opposition

- a) *Defend the Government's definition.*  
Explain **WHY** your team's definition is perfectly reasonable.
- b) *Rebut the opposition's definition.*  
Explain **WHY** their definition is incorrect.
- c) *Give the Even-If Rebuttals towards the opposition's case.*

5. Government and Opposition Reply

- a) *Provide a summary or overview of the definition debate.*
- b) *Identify the issues raised by both sides*
- c) *Provide a biased adjudication of the debate.*

## CHAPTER X

### STRATEGY/METHOD

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Strategy constitutes **20%** of an Asian Parliamentary Debate total score. It covers these concepts:

- Whether the speaker understands what the issues of the debate are.
- Structure of the speaker's speech.
- Timing of the speaker's speech.
- Consistency.

Below are the explanations of each concept:

#### A. UNDERSTAND THE ISSUES OF THE DEBATE

A debater should know what are the important issues raised up in the debate. If a debater fails to recognize critical points, then he/she seems to be out of the debate. For instance, a speaker who answers a critical issue with weak responses would get poor marks for content but good marks for strategy.

#### B. STRUCTURE OF THE SPEAKER'S SPEECH

Structure of a speech answers these vital questions:

1. Did you fulfill your role as 1<sup>st</sup>/2<sup>nd</sup>/3<sup>rd</sup>/reply speaker?  
As has been mentioned above, each speaker has a role that they should fulfill. Failing to fulfill these roles could reduce the speaker's marks for strategy.
2. Is your speech easy to follow?  
Some speeches throw a bunch of ideas without any order, this kind of speeches are difficult to follow because the speaker jumps from point to point. Speeches with logical order of arguments, flowing naturally from one point to the other are easy to follow.

One way to structure a speech is by **sign posting**. Sign posting is when you say what you want to explain, then you explain them, then at the end you say what you have just explained.

- For example a 3<sup>rd</sup> speaker could open his speech by saying:

*"As the 3<sup>rd</sup> speaker I am going to rebut three main arguments of the Opposition: One, on the argument that zoo protects animals. Two, on the point that zoo is an educational venue. And three, on the assumption that it is significant to the tourism industry."*



Afterwards he explains the rebuttals of each point.

And at the end of his speech he concludes it by saying:

*“So I have explained that zoo exposes animals to bad condition and does not protect them. I have also described the failure of zoo being an educational venue and last I have showed that zoo do not give significant contribution to the tourism industry.”*

## C. TIMING OF THE SPEAKER’S SPEECH

An effective timing of a speech answers these questions:

### 1. Did you allocate appropriate time according to your role of speaker?

Each speaker has their own role and thus should allocate time according to those roles. For example, if a 1<sup>st</sup> Opposition speaker spends 5 minutes of his/her speech rebutting the 1<sup>st</sup> Government, then he/she is likely to get poor mark in strategy since he/she only allocates 3 minutes to lay down the case of the Opposition and explain his/her points.

### 2. Did you allocate appropriate time in dealing with significant issues?

Strong arguments should be prioritized. Don’t waste too much time on one point and forgets to bring other things. If a strong argument is explored in less than 1 minute, while a weak argument is explored for 3 minutes, then the speaker did not allocate appropriate time to deal with the important issues in the debate.

## D. CONSISTENCY

Consistency has to show in the following conditions:

### 1. In the whole case

One speaker in a team shouldn’t contradict or become inconsistent with the other speakers. Team member’s usually becomes inconsistent after they think their case is being rebutted well by the opposition.

### 2. In an individual speech

When responding to a POI or the other team’s arguments, make sure that your responses don’t contradict or is inconsistent with your own arguments.

#### ➤ Example of Contradiction:

*“This new national stadium will not cost the taxpayers any money because it will be financed by the National Lottery.” ... afterwards he/she explains that “This stadium will need funding from the taxpayers but its use is worth the cost.”*

This kind of contradiction would make a team seem unsure or confused of their own case.

Good strategy is when a speaker:

1. Understands the critical issues in the debate
2. Fulfills his/her roles of speaker
3. Delivers a speech that is easy to follow (preferably using sign posting)
4. Allocates appropriate time for his/her jobs and in dealing with arguments
5. Is consistent within his/her own speech and with his/her teammates

## CHAPTER XI

### HOW A DEBATE IS ADJUDICATED

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#### A. WHY DEBATERS NEED TO LEARN HOW TO ADJUDICATE

Before this chapter, you have learned what skills are needed to be enhanced as a debater. This chapter will serve as a closure to those. Although you may be training as a debater, it is imperative to understand also how an adjudicator sees a debate. One must understand how those skills are actually perceived by the adjudicator, to understand the market first before you sell.

During practices, usually not everyone debates at the same time. Most of the time, there will be spare participants that do not participate in the debate. These spare participants will usually help evaluate the debate from outside of the debate. Thus, to maximize the quality of practice sessions, it is important for everyone to know how an adjudicator thinks, especially for teams that do not have coaches, or with coaches that are not experienced as an accredited adjudicator yet.

Throughout the activity of a debating club or society, it is important to be active in adjudicating competitions, or at least observing competitions while taking role as shadow adjudicator (shadow adjudicators, meaning that you just sit in the audience, pretend to adjudicate, then later discuss with your friends or the adjudicator in that room). When you can understand the way an adjudicator thinks, especially when you have experience in sitting in their perspective, then you can find patterns in the way teams argue.

The thing is, on many occasions there are things that we usually think are good or cool when we do them, but when we see it from a third person's perspective, it is exactly the opposite. Sometimes you will find that teams could have done something to help their performance, and you tell them that during feedback session, and then realize that you could have done the same. More importantly, you can find a pattern in strengths to reproduce them, and a pattern of weaknesses to know how to avoid them.

#### B. 8 PRINCIPLE – STEPS IN ADJUDICATING

Bear in mind that convincing a panel of adjudicators may be different from convincing a crowd of public. To begin with, a panel of adjudicators may come from different backgrounds, but usually they would at least have some level of competence (accreditations) and would have already been briefed with or even mastered the rules of parliamentary debating. A crowd of public may be comprised of a very much larger quantity, and therefore a very large range of diversity in background, age, competence, and knowledge of rules. This is why sometimes hate speeches with minimum substantive

quality could grasp the minds and hearts of many, which is also a reason why debating education is essential to be proliferated.

Generally, there are 8 principles to follow, which will form steps. What must be remembered is, as has been discussed in Chapter I, there are many misconceptions in debating. There are some competitions where teams can lose for slight grammar mistakes, despite having much better arguments or other misled things. These principles (and the entire content of this book, actually) are based on the common practicing in most national and international competitions.

These are the steps:

**1. Keeping Notes on the Track of the Debate**

Debating is a qualitative competition, as opposed to quantitative. It requires a detailed holistic approach to then compare both teams. It is therefore imperative for an adjudicator to take notes on the how each teams tried to prove their case.

The main purpose of this is so that the adjudicator can remember what has happened in the debate to the most substantive detail necessary. Not only to assist in qualitative decision making, but also so that the adjudicator could answer to participants question as specific as “What do you think about my first speaker’s second argument, how did I prove it, what flaws did you see, and what do you think I should do to improve that point.”

Please note that an adjudicator’s verdict is final and not subject to appeal, therefore it gives a moral burden to explain and live up to that verdict.

Every adjudicator may have their own way of note-taking. Some make flowcharts, some make points, some make short paragraphs, and some may even make very abstract scribbles or not taking any notes at all! It is not necessary to remember every single word the speakers mentioned, as it is almost impossible to make an actual verbatim of the debate (later on we will see how it will be the debaters burden to make sure the adjudicators get all the necessary points). It does not matter, as long as it helps the adjudicator remember necessary details about the debate.

**2. Identifying the Debate Contextualization, as Eyes to Perceive the Rest of the Debate**

Since the very start of the debate, Team Government must define and contextualize the motion to a specific room of debate. Team Opposition generally must abdicate to the definition and contextualization set by Team Government. This is done to avoid confusions and irrelevancy during the debates.

Motion definitions and contextualization are not to be confused with “word definition”. Not necessary to define the motion word-by-word using dictionaries, the main purpose of this is just to clarify what is to be debated and what is not.

A motion on THW Privatize Its State Owned Enterprises, for an example, may be confused with many forms of privatizations. A definition would clarify from the start, which form of privatization is to be debated upon. A definition must be clear, given by the first speaker of government, and must be fair.

Contextualization refers to the divisions of stances between the teams especially in proposal debates. In response to a new solution/proposal brought by Team Government, Team Opposition may opt to say that the status quo is better or that they have another solution – but they must be clear from the start, and be consistent with that stance.

The purpose of this is to make sure that we understand where the debate should be going, that the teams know how to position themselves against each other, and to see whether they are consistent in directing their case. A greater depth of this could be seen in Chapter III in this book.

**3. Focus Not on What Argument/Rebuttal They Bring, But How They Prove Them**

The challenge of a debating competition is similar to that of scientific challenges. The statements of teams that “A is bad because it is against human rights” or “B is good because it promotes social welfare better” are merely hypothesis. The real point is how to prove those hypotheses in order to prove that they are right. Without that, it appears that the teams are relying on the adjudicator’s minds and prejudice to try proving both sides of the arguments for them.

The first thing which a team must pay attention to is indeed choose a relevant argument which is consistent with their stance. But the real deal is to prove them by providing a hypothesis (or assertion), giving analysis (*Das Sollen* vs *Das Sein* or “theory” versus “reality” or other deduction methods), and giving evidence/facts to support it.

After keeping track on how teams prove their arguments and provide rebuttals towards each other, an adjudicator will be able to see which team has proven their arguments better than the other team (in a constructive, deconstructive, or both ways). This is elaborated deeper in Chapter IV.

**4. Adjudicators Must Not Use Specific Personal Knowledge**

Adjudicators may have specific knowledge in certain motions. For example, a professor of political science would know best about the detailed facts on the *Bureaucratic Politics Model* application in the United States of America. While judging a motion on THBT the USA Should Ratify the Kyoto Protocol, the said professor could easily spot out some factual flaws brought by the teams. Or, a very experienced or informed adjudicator can easily prove that a certain argument is wrong.

The adjudicator may provide inputs with his/her specific knowledge. But he/she may not use that knowledge to deduce/give points to the teams. Although debating requires scientific-ways of proving, this is not a specialized scientific debate competition. This is more of a popular debating competition one would experience in a parliament and viewed by people from various backgrounds and also the society.

Furthermore, it is unfair if one team loses because an adjudicator knows that they brought a wrong fact, while a team in the next chamber wins because the adjudicator coincidentally did not know that wrong fact. Plus, if adjudicators unilaterally prove that a team’s argument is wrong then they are no longer neutral.

An adjudicator is a passive person, considering the debate as it is.

5. Exceptions to Principle 4

There are certain mistakes which can be reasons to deduce a team even when the opponent did not point it out. Also, there are certain facts which the adjudicator may unilaterally penalize because they are wrong. These certain situations are when the mistakes are universally known as a mistake. They would include:

- Contradictions and inconsistencies between arguments,
- Irrelevant arguments,
- Facts or theories which people would generally know is wrong (e.g. Palestine is a country in South America, with a majority Hindu population and aborigine ethnicity),
- Arguments which are clearly morally incorrect and despicable (e.g. we will reduce the poverty rate by killing all poor people).

Another exception is in context of evaluation and educational purposes. Adjudicators must endeavor to the furthest extent possible to provide feedback even if it has to include using personal knowledge – but it is essential to state a disclaimer that this part is feedback and not part of *ratio decidendi* (or reason behind judgment).

6. Public Speaking Skills as a Subjective Element in Proving

Skills of public speaking are essential, but only to the extent of helping teams send their message to the adjudicators. Analogous to handwriting, the minimum standard one would expect is so that it is at least readable and the sentence construction is understandable.

The average public speaker would at least enable adjudicators to understand their speech without difficulty. Nothing impeding the adjudicator's ability to understand, but nothing impressive either.

Just like handwriting, it would be very special if the handwriting is beautiful, the choice of words and sentence construction is so artful that it attracts us further than simply "understanding it". More skilled public speakers will use their gestures, expressions, intonations, choice of words, *etc.* to persuade the adjudicators to believe in their arguments.

Then consequently, the final output of public speaking is how well the adjudicators get the message which the teams wish to deliver throughout their speech. That is all. Further details on this subject could be seen in Chapter VIII and Chapter X.

7. Observations of Role-Based Dynamics

In line with Principle 2 and 3, a debate is about how both teams: establish the grounds/platform of their case, provide arguments and prove them well, and try destroying each other with rebuttals. In the end, the adjudicator can see which team's case still stands stronger.

It is imperative to know that for the sake of fairness and quality, every speaker in a debate has a role to fulfill – not as a procedural requirement, but for imperative substantive necessity. For example, please refer again to Principle 2. If a definition was brought in the second speaker of Team Government, then only God knows what the first speakers were debating about.



Furthermore, it is unfair if the Reply Speaker of Team Government brings a new argument. Nobody is there to rebut them. It is therefore important to know what these roles of speakers are, and why are those roles there.

There are a few things which are not necessarily in the speaker's role *per se*, but are essential also: team splits, background, and summarizing. These items are matters of etiquette (or functional) of general public speaking which would be missed but its absence not necessarily fatal to the dynamics of the debate, while the table includes speaker-specific job descriptions which their absence would indeed be fatal. Deeper explanations on these roles could be read in Chapter IX.

#### 8. Qualitative Judgment First, then Quantify

After following and considering Principle 1 to 7, it all comes down to one simple question: which team convinced the adjudicator more?

The aforementioned 'one million dollar question' should be answered considerately, responsibly, and accurately. Adjudicators, in deducing the debates from the previous principles, must not only observe each teams individually but also both teams comparatively.

In practice, sometimes adjudicators are faced with easy choices when one team clearly outshines the other. At another other time, adjudicators may face a team with a great argument but no rebuttals at all, versus another team with no arguments but really good rebuttals. It can go harder when one team is at advantage at some arguments, while the other team is at advantage at other arguments – or one team has a really good speaker and two very bad ones, while the other team has three average speakers.

Adjudicators must consider all elements holistically and fairly. Making their priorities based on the given principles. And it still comes down to that same simple question: which team is more convincing?

Deciding who wins is the first thing that an adjudicator must do. After that, they fill in margins, and then lastly, speaker scores. But then, that priority may seem absurd. While margins are essentially the difference between the scores of both teams, why do we do the margins first before the speaker scores?

Every adjudicator has their own way in adjusting their scores to the margins. The provided steps here is just one of the recommended ways, but what matters is that decisions are made first before margins and scores. The guide will be given first before the recommended steps.

Standards of margins:

- Close Margin (0.5 – 4), the differences between both teams are very minor. A tight fight. It took effort to determine who won.
- Clear Margin (4.5 – 9), one team has a clear advantage compared to the other, but not entirely free from fault. It is relatively easy to determine that winner.

- Very Clear Margin (9.5 – 11.5), one team clearly outruns the other team by really far. This team has a very great advantage and minimum fault, while the other has minimum advantage and major faults.
- Absolute Margin (12), one team having a very great advantage in the debate while the other team barely contributes at all. Similar to Superman fighting Tukul Arwana.

Landmarks for substantive speaker scores:

- Minimum (67), pure silence/something just as good as pure silence
- Average (75), the speaker:
  - Fulfilled their speaker role,
  - Provided relevant and consistent arguments (and rebuttals, if applicable),
  - Made logical attempt to prove the arguments, although not yet proven,
  - Made adjudicators not in need for extra effort to understand speech, but not impressive,
  - Was not under time (under time is less than 6 minutes) nor overtime (overtime is over 7 minutes and 20 seconds). Please be mindful of significance, e.g. as 7 minutes and 21 seconds is not too far from the limit
- Maximum (83), this speaker is so convincing that if he/she claims to be a God/Prophet, people will believe him/her. Certainly, this is an exaggeration.

(Remember that reply speakers are given scores with half the range of substantive speakers.)

Principally, the job is to give scores to the speakers and the totals should correspond to the margins. It is a tough job for those that have minimum abilities in basic mathematics, thus some may need calculators. Plus, how does one really tell the difference between a 3, or 3.5, or 2.5 margin?

This is one way to do it. After deciding the winner, decide which category of margin does the debate correspond to (close, clear, very clear, or absolute), without giving any number yet. Then, fill in the scores, and see whether the score difference actually corresponds to the margin category decided earlier. If not, then reconsider again either the margin or the scores. By this, there may be virtually no difference between a 0.5 and 4 margin. But then, both of those are under “close margin” anyways.

### C. EXTREME SITUATION: DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGE

Generally, what has already been explained above would be what your average debate would be like. Sometimes, however, really strange things could happen, that could change the way for the adjudicators to see the debate and change all priorities. The most major one would be the definitional challenge.

A definitional challenge starts with a government team making an unfair definition, the opposition responding to it by proposing a definitional challenge, then finally judging it.

1. Unfair Definitions:

- **Truistic definition**, a definition which doesn't allow any debate to happen. For instance, basing the definition on certain religious value.
  - Example: THBT Prostitution is Not Justifiable.  
Definition: Prostitution is an act of selling one's body for sexual pleasure, which is a sin according to Islam. We set this debate to a Sharia country.
- **Squirreling definition**, a definition which has no logical relation with the actual meaning of the motion or the words in it.
  - Example: THBT Smoking Should be Banned.  
Definition: Smoking is an act of emitting residual gas waste from vehicles, which causes lots of pollution.  
The correct definition should mention smoking as an act of consuming cigarettes.
- **Tautological definition**, a definition with circular logic. Also known as *self-proving definition*.
  - Example: THBT Megan Fox is Beautiful.  
Definition : Megan Fox means "a beautiful woman".  
If we substitute the phrase 'Megan Fox' in the motion with its proposed definition, the motion would become 'THBT a beautiful woman is beautiful'.
- **Unfair time and/or place setting**, a definition which brings the debate to a particular time or place with no significant issue. A definition which is based upon controversies or conflicts that have been resolved is also unfair.
  - Example: THBT Germany Should Not be a Permanent Member of the UN Security Council.  
Definition : We set this to 1944.  
Not only UN was not even there yet, but Germany was a mass murderer.

2. Definitional Challenge

An Opposition team can offer a definitional challenge if the Team Government proposed an unfair definition as stipulated previously. This means, they have to try to change the definition. The following are the things that must be brought:

- The 1st Team Opposition should immediately point that the definition brought by the affirmative team is invalid, unfair, or not debatable. If a challenge is brought by the 2nd Team Opposition, this may result in an extreme inconsistency. Usually guidebooks would write that the 1st Team Opposition must explicitly declare "we wish to challenge their definition". But let it be noted that even without that explicit declaration, if at least these first three points are satisfied, then it is a legitimate definitional challenge (although there are many adjudicators that may decide otherwise).

- Explain *why* it is invalid, unfair, or not debatable, by choosing the most suitable explanation out of the four unfair definitions in the previous section.
- Provide a correct definition. The first three steps are imperative to be the first thing brought, and mentioned as clear as possible.
- Offer 'even-if' rebuttals. Even though Team Opposition believe that Team Government's case is not valid because it was built on an unfair definition, Team Opposition still has to negate it to preserve the dynamic of the debate. This is due to the fact that even though a team set an unreasonable definition, their arguments may still have elements of logic. So, opposition still has to work to breakdown the logic by attacking the arguments through even-if rebuttals.
- Team Opposition must present their own case, based on the newly-proposed definition.

After a definitional challenge, all subsequent speakers must defend their own definition (proving that the challenge was invalid/valid).

### 3. Judging a Definition Debate

Judging a definition debate is very tricky. Being mindful of the principles set in the guide, an important note should be taken especially on Principle 2. Definitional challenges provide very different contexts among different teams.

The first thing to consider is the definition versus the challenge itself, on whether the definition was reasonable and whether the challenge was actually proven. Having that said, then it should be decided which context (thus, definition) should be used as perspective from which to see the debate.

Secondly, is then how – provided the confusion going on in terms of context and definition— did the teams respond to it. Did they position themselves properly to always contribute to the dynamics of the debate?

And thirdly, within their own context, how did the teams manage to prove their case and rebut the opponents?

All these elements are holistic. Adjudicators must observe very carefully and decide very wisely.

Please note also that Team Opposition does not always necessarily provide a definitional challenge. Sometimes it is due to their ignorance, which would then very likely put them out of the debate (which is a very big blunder). But there are cases where a definitional challenge is not necessary, even when the definition is unfair. There are teams that, except in cases of truism and tautology, prefer not to challenge the definition because it is still debatable. In such a case, the following must be considered.

First, they must show the adjudicators that they are aware of the Team Government mistake in making a bad definition. They must complain by showing what is wrong with that definition.

Second, they must be able to show that they are aware of how the motion should have been defined.

Third, managing to perform the first, second, or both, does not necessarily mean that Team Opposition wins. It only means that they should be credited for managing to spot out the Government's problem, while Team Government must be marked down for this mistake.

The debate is still going to be assessed as per usual, but bearing in mind that a crucial mistake has been done by Team Government, and Team Opposition managed to point that out.

#### D. EXTREME SITUATION: OTHER CASES

There are other situations that require a reconsideration of the basic rules of debating, caused either by the chaos of two teams that both do not understand what they are doing, or overly creative debaters (or overly enthusiastic) feeling like giving the adjudicators extra work. When these situations occur, the adjudicators must be very wise and sharp in understanding the situation and making decisions. At this point, adjudicators may differ in how they decide.

The following are a few among the extreme situations that may happen in a debate, and some recommended ways to anticipate them:

##### 1. Definitional Challenge: With No Correct Definition Present

Imagine a debate where Team Government provides a truistic definition, but when team opposition comes up with a definitional challenge, they came up with a squirreling one. Result: both of them killed themselves. But then, a draw is not an option.

The solution is actually quite simple (at least in the standard of a definitional challenge). The debate should be assessed the same way like any other definitional challenge debate, to see how both try to defend their own definition and attack the other's definition. The other steps are the same, but it is not likely for even the winning team to get good scores!

##### 2. Flip Stance

A flip stance is when Team Government assumes the stance of Team Opposition (or vice versa). Such situation could be caused by poor grammar, poor English, or poor knowledge. An example would be a debate by the motion: "We would justify radical violence to protect the environment". Team Government was supposed to support these radical violent acts, or known as eco-terrorism. But then, in a certain competition held in Yogyakarta sometime around 2007, Team Government (due to poor English) thought that the term "justify" means "to judge" or "to put before a judge", which implies "to punish". Totally against what they were supposed to defend.

Team Oppositions usually respond in different ways. The most proper way is to first explain to the adjudicators how Team Government made a mistake, and then adjust accordingly by flipping their stance as well. This is due to the fact that the main duty of Team Opposition is to respond Team Government.

In this situation, the debate will generally be judged as a normal debate, but a high extra credit is given to Team Opposition and a discredit will be given to Team Government for their mistake.



Improper Team Oppositions will do nothing about it, resulting in two teams having exactly the same stance, which is not quite a debate. Both teams should be discredited for their mistake: Team Government for failing to understand the motion, and Team Opposition for failing to do their job. Then the debate would be assessed accordingly, where Team Opposition will then consequently be entirely supporting Team Government.

Sometimes Team Oppositions would do a definitional challenge. However, flip stances are not *per se* legitimate grounds of definitional challenges. The debate will be then assessed as a definitional challenge debate.

### 3. Truistic Definition versus No Definitional Challenge: Bizarre Situation

As a matter of basic principle, a truistic definition means that Team Opposition cannot negate everything. Therefore, naturally, when Team Opposition does not submit a definitional challenge towards a truistic definition, such team would lose the debate. It seems elementary logic.

Yet, it so happens that a semifinal round of a national debating competition in Indonesia has witnessed a very rare case. The motion goes more or less as follows: “THBT Eco-Terrorism is a Justifiable Means to Protect the Environment”. Simply put, the debate should be defined so Team Government will submit that violence can be used by civilians to combat parties or companies who degrade the environment, whether they are legal or not.

Team Government, however, due to bad English, did not understand the term ‘means’ in that motion. Rather than understanding it as ‘method’ or ‘way of doing something’, they thought it meant ‘reason’ or ‘because’. Further, due to lack of knowledge, they did not know that ‘eco-terrorism’ is ‘violent acts to protect the environment’, but they instead defined it as ‘people who terrorize the environment and degrade it’.

So, in essence, they defined the motion as such: because there are people terrorizing and destroying the environment, we have good reason to protect the environment. This is a case that actually cannot be argued against, as it is plain logic (except someone wishes to argue that it is good for the earth to be destroyed). Team Opposition, though, chose to make a different maneuver.

One of the rights of Team Opposition is to assume or define a word that Team Government has not defined yet. It was a clever play of words, but in essence, they claimed that Team Government has not defined the word ‘means’ yet, and defined it for them – properly.

This may not have succeeded if Team Government was clear to begin with (although team opposition attentive enough to realize this fast and conjuring up such an interesting strategy was very commendable). Concluding what the previous paragraphs mentioned did take some effort of understanding, as that government team just assumed that everyone knew that ‘eco-terrorism’ and ‘means’ meant the way they thought, and did not dwell long in the definitions.

Team Opposition, with their new assumption of the word ‘means’, submitted to the adjudicator that Team Government was really claiming that “terrorizing and destroying the environment is a justifiable means (or way) to protect the environment”. They therefore declare their stance

“terrorizing and destroying the environment is NOT a justifiable means to protect the environment”. Through their clarifying assumption, they have altered the definition to be truistic in their favor instead.

The adjudicators were now faced with a situation where both definitions were truistic. However, this was not a definitional challenge debate, so the analysis in Point A under this chapter is not relevant. It was very easy to be inclined towards Team Opposition at the time, as Team Government clearly had no idea what they were doing while the former clearly did it on purpose with an obvious plan.

At the time, it was not hard to determine the winner. The adjudicators accepted the claim by Team Opposition that the definition was incomplete (the term ‘means’ was not defined yet), and therefore accepted that Opposition’s definition of the term. Thus the definition was now truistic against Team Government, who consequently lost the debate.

#### 4. Deliberately Trashing Own Case

It is basic debating knowledge that a speaker should not negate their own case, or point them out irrelevant. However, there may be a situation that would call for more thinking.

It is not uncommon for certain teams to completely misunderstand the other team’s case, especially when they are acting as Team Opposition. Now imagine that a Team Opposition, maybe due to lack of English or clarity of any sort, they completely misunderstood Team Government’s case. 1st Speaker Opposition then came up with a totally irrelevant case towards the debate, but only after his or her speech did Team Opposition realize their mistake.

In such situations, some experienced teams, in their 2nd Speaker, have explicitly submitted an apology and declared the irrelevance of their previous speaker and then started new. Many coaches and adjudicator will advise against this, as this would mean that one of their speakers is now totally irrelevant and the other speakers would be contradicting – which is very correct. However, such an option is something that must be considered further.

Most likely such a team would lose, because of the previously mentioned reason. But there should be a distinction between “contradicting one’s own team mate” and “returning to the right track” should definitely be treated differently. Therefore, Team Opposition may deserve some credit for that, at least for the speakers who clarified (and a reduction to the one which was irrelevant).

At some extreme cases where Team Government was really unclear and bad, some oppositions have been known to win the debate despite doing this mechanism. But this is very, very rare, and is perhaps only possible in a situation where Team Government was really, really bad anyway and Team Opposition (the remaining non-irrelevant speakers) was very good.



## CHAPTER XII

### DEBATE CLUBS: STARTING AND MANAGING

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This chapter is the guide for teachers who want to coach and establish a debate club or society at school. Considering the student-teacher interaction in a daily learning process, it is a great opportunity to have a strong debate club under the management of teachers.

#### A. STARTING THE TEAM

In one sense, a teacher needs only two personal attributes to start and sustain a successful debate program: time and dedication. If you are willing to invest these assets into coaching, you will be able to provide your school's students with a valuable and enjoyable experience. Of course, there are a number of more concrete things you will need to use your time and dedication to acquire or accomplish, and these things are the topic of this chapter.

##### 1. The bare necessity

The debate team will need a home – which is typically referred to as the “Team Room”. Often, it may be a classroom for after-school meetings. The Team Room should have a white board and enough seats and desks for every member of the team. Ideally, there should be storage space in it as well. Policy debate teams quickly acquire a large amount of materials and information that they need to keep somewhere. If these materials end up in a closet or office that is not under the coach's control, it could easily disappear or be inaccessible when needed.

Computers and internet access are also very helpful. Internet-based research in debate has become a necessity. If there are no computers in the Team Room, the coach should attempt to secure access to a computer lab or a bank of computers in the library. Students may have access to computers at home and would be able to do some of their research there after school. The ability to find, process, and evaluate information from the internet is one of the most valuable skills students will learn from debate. For this skill to be developed to the fullest, the coach should be on-hand at the start to guide the debaters.

##### 2. Recruiting members

Once the above structural resources are in place, the coach needs to find debaters to comprise a team. The first priority of building a debate team has to be recruitment. No other factor influences the long-term success of a debate team as much as student interest. Recruitment strategies have a direct bearing on the enthusiasm levels of your students.

The good news is there are several ways to recruit students to be on the debate team.

Most coaches hold an introductory meeting --we'll call it the Informational Meeting-- which allows them to tell interested students about the debate team. At the Informational Meeting, find out which students want to take on the challenge and opportunity of being a member. Attrition rates from these meetings can be well over 50%, which means that to end up with a core group of 8-10 committed students, you should try to get 25 or more to come to this first meeting.

Obvious recruitment choices include students who are considered 'talkative' or who have displayed an interest in government or politics. It is important, however, not to overlook students who are shy about speaking or who struggle with their class work. Although it may take a personalized and concerted effort to recruit these students, they are typically the ones who have the most to gain from an activity such as debate. Other teachers at your school may be willing and able to help identify potential team members based on these criteria.

### 3. The informational meeting

One goal of the Informational Meeting is to outline the benefits of participating in the debate team to the recruits. These benefits include competition, opportunities to travel, positive effects on grades, and enhancing opportunities for school scholarships. The critical thinking skills of reasoning, listening, and speaking are also obvious points to highlight, as is the development of inter-personal qualities of self-confidence and communication. Don't forget to make the point that arguing can be fun! To demonstrate the potential travel destinations, the coach could hand out a tentative tournament schedule.

As with most other important extra-curricular activities, being on the debate team is not all fun and games. It takes hard work to succeed. The self-discipline and work habits the students learn from participating in debate are another compelling reason for their involvement, but are probably not the most persuasive reasons to tell them at the start.

From the beginning, students should have a realistic expectation of the time commitment it takes to be an effective debater – just like it is a substantial time commitment to be successful in the marching band, academic teams, or athletic squads. Students who join the team with false expectations will be more difficult to retain once the true costs in terms of time become evident.

#### **Setting Expectations**

Clear communication of expectations to students is essential. Here are a few of the issues to be resolved before holding the Informational Meeting with the prospective student recruits:

**Practices.** How many weekly practices will be held, and how many must they attend?

**Tournaments.** How many tournaments will each student have to attend?

**Notice for Missing Events.** What kind of notice will a student have to give if they are late for or absent from a practice or tournament?

**Research.** How much research or other work will they have to do on their own time?

Of course, if the Informational Meeting is nothing more than a list of demands, few if any students will want to join the team. The best way to hook students on debating is to let them



try their hand at it. At the Informational Meeting you can have the students engage in mini-debates. The topics for these debates should be ones they already know a lot about and would consider fun or interesting to argue about.

Give every student the opportunity to present one or two short speeches (one minute in length) on these topics. This activity can have as much or as little organization as you choose to give it, as the primary goal is just to let the students do a little spontaneous debating and leave them eager to do more. It is important that the topics concern issues the students know a lot about so they will not be as nervous while speaking in public. Compliment their efforts speeches by pointing out strengths in their speeches.

#### **Following Up with Potential Recruits**

**Tell them how to participate.** Be prepared to tell students when and where the next Team Meeting will be. Distribute an informational flier or brochure that contains this information, along with other materials summarizing the benefits of being a member of the team.

**Get commitments.** Before students leave the Informational Meeting give them an opportunity to commit to coming to the next Team Meeting.

Track them down. Some students won't want to commit on the spot, but don't leave it up to them to report later that they are interested. Find other students who were at the Informational Meeting and use them to encourage the rest of the students to attend the Team Meeting.

**Show confidence in them.** Students who aren't confident that debate is right for them will often be persuaded to give it a try if a teacher makes clear that he/she believes it is. For students whose parents are frequently busy or largely absent from their life, the opportunity to connect with an adult who takes a meaningful interest in their personal development is a tempting and ultimately rewarding one.

#### **4. Building support in the school**

While students are the most important part of the debate team, coaches should also try to build support among their fellow teachers, the parents of students at the school, and the school administration. These other supporters can assist in recruitment, advocacy for the team, securing access to school resources, and otherwise making the coach's job more manageable.

##### **a) Teachers**

The support of other teachers is valuable for many reasons, not least of which is that students may need to get permission to miss class on occasion to attend tournaments or other events. Teachers are much more likely to make this concession if they know the educational benefits of the activity. They may also recommend students from their classes whom they feel would make good debaters.

##### **b) School administration**

The support of the school administration may be a little more difficult to win, but it is no less important. As school administrators are less likely than other teachers to see the benefits of debate immediately, you should make a special effort to exhibit them. Announce team achievements over the school intercom and post them on your

classroom door, display trophies and other awards prominently, and talk up the benefits of debate for students and the school. Of course, the students themselves are the best evidence. When possible, arrange for them to speak at faculty meetings or obtain permission for them to come to a meeting with the principal.

c) *The principal's bottom line*

As undesirable as they may find this fact, school principals are frequently forced to think in terms of their own bottom line: standardized test scores. Fortunately, debate makes students better at reading, writing, critical thinking, and organizing their thoughts logically.

Giving the principal an opportunity to participate genuinely in formulating the vision for the team is another way to entice interest and secure long-term support. Above all, be aware of the principal's situation and respect the many demands on his/her time.

d) *Parents*

Finally, informing parents of students about the debate team is very important. Even parents who don't generally take an active interest in their child's education have the power to forbid their son or daughter from attending a tournament or staying after school for practice. However, if these same parents understand that debate can help their child improve grades or be accepted to and pay for college, they may be more willing to permit him/her to participate. Some parents who are convinced about the value of debate may encourage their child to join and agree to support.

## B. RUNNING THE TEAM

Getting a team off the ground is often the most difficult part of coaching. Once the infrastructure for the team is in place, the coach has to keep the ball rolling while helping students get the most out of the activity, both competitively and educationally. While this may sound relatively simple, there are many aspects of actually running the team that takes thought and effort.

### 1. Recruitment and retention

The first year's group of students is always the hardest to assemble. Once they are established as members of the team, they will attract friends and younger siblings in future years. Others will join the team as they observe the fun and success experienced by its current members.

Coaches also face a battle against attrition, however. High school students are often busy, and debate requires a serious commitment of time and energy that not all of them can or want to make. Some will join the team not realizing how much work it will be, and later decide it is too much for them. Jobs, responsibilities at home, schoolwork, personal relationships, or other extracurricular activities may cut into the time students once had for debate. Still, others will simply lose interest and quit.

### 2. Weekly meetings

The team should meet after school at least once a week – we'll call it the Team Meeting. For the sake of establishing a memorable routine it is best for the Team Meeting to always be at

the same time and place if possible. Even if the team moves quickly to the school library or computer lab, students should still begin the Team Meeting in their usual classroom and then leave to go to another location. This reinforces the idea that debate is a regular commitment that must be kept and prevents students from forgetting to show up or showing up in the wrong place (intentionally or unintentionally). Team Meetings should also end at a standard time so that parents will know when to expect their children to be home.

#### **Setting the Agenda for Weekly Team Meetings**

Debaters tend to be social by nature, even more so if the coach has done a good job at cultivating team unity. Although this should generally be encouraged, it can make Team Meetings slow, inefficient, unproductive, and annoying to everyone involved. Establish a clear agenda and objectives for each Team Meeting. This will focus the students' energy.

**Brainstorming.** Especially at the beginning of a new season or after a long break, teams should discuss how arguments have changed and what they will need to be prepared to debate.

**Strategizing.** Lead a discussion of the pros and cons of different affirmative cases or develop strategies for answering a new affirmative case or negative off-case position being run in. Assign at least one member of the team to keep a list of the arguments you discuss. At subsequent meetings you can return to this list to check on progress.

**Researching.** The team could visit the computer lab or library in order to research a new argument. Or, they could settle down with scissors and tape to process and brief evidence.

**Learning.** Of course students should always be learning, but the coach might set aside an entire practice to teach a new skill, concept, or argument. This could include a lecture and a follow-up activity.

**De-Briefing.** After a tournament, the team should share their experiences to learn what worked, what didn't, and what arguments are out there that hadn't been previously considered

### **3. Establishing partnership**

In policy debate, students compete in teams of two. A debater's partner is the closest ally and learning companion on the team, so it is important for the two of them to get along. They don't have to be best friends. Debating with someone you consider your best friend has both advantages and disadvantages. But whether or not debate partners are best friends, they must be able to work together constructively. Following are some common problems that may arise and solutions that you should explore before breaking up a team:

#### **a) *Strategic disagreements.***

Partners frequently disagree about which arguments to make or extend during a round.

**Solution:** Help them make these decisions as much as possible before the round begins and then encourage them to stick with what they've decided. At the very least, discuss the criteria they should use so that they have some common ground to resort to when making these decisions. Finally, there should be a firm rule that in the event of a dispute that cannot be resolved quickly. The debater giving the last rebuttal has the final word, as she/he is the one who will have to sell the team's case at the end of the round. This

works best when one partner is the last rebutter on the Affirmative and the other on the Negative, so that they will share this power equally.

*b) Personality conflicts*

The partners have had a fight or are otherwise angry with each other.

**Solution:** If the students cannot resolve the problem themselves, the coach or a mature member of the team can play the role of mediator. As a last resort, the coach could separate them for one tournament for a cooling off period.

*c) Imbalanced Partnership*

One partner feels like the other is holding him/her back or constantly making mistakes in the round.

**Solutions:** Watch the team debate together and talk to their judges. If there is some truth to this claim, discuss with the better debater methods for helping their partner to improve. Encourage them to focus on the skills that their partner does possess. They should be encouraged to learn from each other. Although in the end, substantial differences in ability may be a valid reason to separate a team, especially if caused by one student working much harder than the other.

*d) Romantic involvement*

Debate partners spend a lot of time working closely together, and among high school students this can easily lead into romantic involvement. This isn't actually a problem in itself, but it can create some real headaches. Debate partners often spend a substantial amount of time alone together, and you must be able to trust that they will behave appropriately while they are on your watch. Break-ups, of course, are likely to lead to a host of problems.

**Solution:** As long as you make the expectations concerning conduct clear and feel that you can trust the students, you don't need to play a heavy-handed role here. Following a break-up, however, you will probably want to separate the debaters at least temporarily. At least one of the two will most likely be uncomfortable around the other; therefore interfering with their ability to work together at best and creating opportunities for sexual harassment at worst.

*e) Chronic absenteeism*

One student routinely misses practices or competitions, leaving the partner hanging.

**Solution:** This may require breaking up the team. It is simply not fair to the student who works hard and shows up regularly to miss out on opportunities to compete because of an unreliable partner. Hopefully, you will nip this problem in the bud by communicating expectations about attendance early and often. Try making it clear to the unreliable debater the impact that she/he is having on his/her partner, but if this doesn't work, re-assign the debaters so that the harder-working student is not adversely affected any further. Students who are not meeting attendance expectations may need to be temporarily suspended or barred from further involvement with the team.



## C. EXTERNAL RESOURCES

A coach can both make his/her job easier and maximize the benefits given to his/her students by helping them take advantage of educational resources in their school, league, and community. In particular, you can use these resources to compensate for gaps in your own knowledge. For example, if you are not an expert in policy debate then you can help your students seek out opportunities to learn from those who are.

### 1. Seminars and workshops

If possible, both coaches and students should attend these seminars. This is likely to increase turnout among students both because you will be able to make sure that they go and because your willingness to spend your own valuable time on them communicates the importance of the seminar to students.

You may also consider offering extra credit to students who attend these optional seminars. After all, they generally entail several hours of learning about reading, speaking, critical thinking, and note taking skills.

Sometimes, debate communities also offer seminars or workshops specifically designed for coaches who want to learn more about policy debate and how to teach it. You may even be able to count the time you spend at these seminars towards the in-service professional development required by a school, district, or union.

### 2. Debate experts and communities

Inviting experts from debate communities is an alternative way to help your debate club. They may volunteer as assistant coaches for the school, providing students with another source of policy debate knowledge and the opportunity to learn more about college life. The experts on the topic area might agree to speak with the team and help them gain a stronger understanding of the arguments they are debating.





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## ABOUT THE AUTHORS



**Fajri Matahati Muhammadin**, who has just recently completed his master's degree in international law at the University of Edinburgh (UK), is the chair of the authors of this book since the first until this third edition. Having a long standing debating career since 2002, he has become breaking adjudicator for numerous national and provincial competitions until this day. He has also served as Deputy Chief Adjudicator in BIND (2009), and as Chief Adjudicator in too many provincial level competitions to keep track. He has an extensive experience in trainings, being former coach for UGM English Debating Society, UNY, D.I.Y. Provincial Team, and the National Team of Indonesia, and has spoken in a number of debating and adjudicating workshops and seminars. Fajri is currently the head of JDF Advisory Council, and recently won an Indonesian university students debate championship in Kings College, UK. He is also experienced in Model United Nations and International Moot Court. Fajri can be contacted through email at [fajri.matahati@gmail.com](mailto:fajri.matahati@gmail.com).



**Vitri Sekarsari** has been contributing to this book since its first edition. She was champion and finalist in a number of national and even an Asian level competition in 2007. Vitri also became a delegate for Worlds University Debating Championship (WUDC) in 2008 and 2009. Her adjudication career in national level is not disputed as she has served as Chief Adjudicator for numerous national competitions –not to mention local contributions. Also active as trainer for national debate and adjudication trainings for high school teachers, she is now assisting the Ministry of Education in programs related to NSDC and Team Indonesia delegate sending. Now working for the Project REDD+, Environment Unit of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Vitri can be contacted through email at [vitrisekarsari@gmail.com](mailto:vitrisekarsari@gmail.com).



**Mohammad Fikri Pido** holds a master's degree in International Relations from Gadjah Mada University, and is the Program Coordinator for the Asian Muslim Action Network (AMAN) in Thailand. Contributing to this book since the first edition, he has experience extends not only to national but also international tournaments where he became Runner Up and 4<sup>th</sup> Best Speaker of Asian Universities Debate Championship (AUDC) for EFL Category in 2008. He has also adjudicated numerous national and local competition, and was former coach for SMAN 8 Yogyakarta and D.I.Y. Provincial team. Fikri can be contacted through email at [fikri.pido@yahoo.com](mailto:fikri.pido@yahoo.com).



**Keinesasih Hapsari Puteri** or Inez has graduated from Communication Science in Atma Jaya Yogyakarta University, where she was finalist and ranked top 10 best speakers in numerous national and local competitions. Inez served as Deputy Chief Adjudicator in JOVED 2010, and has become breaking adjudicator in many other national and local competitions. In debate proliferation, she is former coach of SMAN 3 Yogyakarta, Air Force Academy, and has spoken in a number of debating and adjudicating workshops/seminars. She is now a member of JDF Advisory Council and has contributed to this book since the first edition. Inez, who is now a writer at Nusantaraanger, can be contacted at [keinesasih.hp@gmail.com](mailto:keinesasih.hp@gmail.com).



**Rangga Dian Fadillah** holds a bachelor's degree from Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta University and a master's degree from the University of Dundee (UK), and is currently an analyst for Bower Group Asia, a consultant group. During his debating carrier, he became finalist and best speaker in a number of national and Asian level debating competitions. Rangga has served as Chief and Deputy Chief Adjudicator in various national and local competitions, and was breaking adjudicator for many more. As coach, he used to train Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta University and SMAN 1 Kasihan Bantul. After winning the JDF Awards of Best Newcomer in 2007 and Best Debater in 2008, he has contributed to this book since the first edition. Rangga can be contacted through email at [ranggafadhillah@yahoo.com](mailto:ranggafadhillah@yahoo.com).



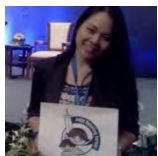
**Karlina Denistia** holds a master's degree in English Literature from Gadjah Mada University. She has been in the debating world since 2006, and became the runner up for Jogja English Dormitory English Debate Championship in 2007. After participating in a number of national debating competitions, she then became breaking adjudicator in numerous national and local competitions, coached Sanata Dharma University, and has contributed to this book since the first edition. She is a member of JDF Advisory Council, and can be contacted through email at [karlinadenistia@gmail.com](mailto:karlinadenistia@gmail.com).



**Muhammad Rifky Wicaksono** has contributed to this book since the first edition while he was still in high school, where he became champion and ranked high on the speaker tabs for numerous national and local competitions. He became captain of the National Team of Indonesia, broke through the elimination rounds and got 5th best speaker of ASDC (Manila, 2009), and became among the most successful Team Indonesia for WSDC (Qatar, 2010). His adjudicating career started early also in his high school days, judging a number of national competitions and numerous local competitions until today while also training the SMAN 8 Yogyakarta debating squads. Rifky, also a national champion and Indonesian representative in the Phillips. C. Jessups International Moot Courts in the USA, Rifky is now an associate at the prestigious law firm Assegaf Hamzah and Partners. He can be contacted through email at [muhammad\\_rifky@yahoo.com.au](mailto:muhammad_rifky@yahoo.com.au).



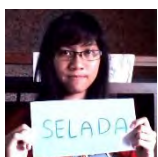
**Ibrahim Hanif** is a law student at Gadjah Mada University International Undergraduate Program, and was a former president of Jogja Debating Forum (2011-2012). During high school, he has won all local and most national debating competitions he attended, and became best speaker of almost all of them. Resigning from Team Indonesia selections did not withdraw him from contributions to the world of debating. Starting to join the author team for this book at the second edition, he has adjudicated numerous local competitions and also recently adjudicated in JOVED, was former assistant coach for D.I.Y. Provincial team and now is coaching SMAN 9 Yogyakarta. Apart from English Debating, Hanif is also a national champion and Indonesian representative in the Phillips. C. Jessup International Moot Court in the USA (together with Rifky), as well as national champion and Indonesian representatives in the Asia-Pacific Red Cross Humanitarian Law Moot Court in Hong Kong. Hanif can be contacted at [hanif.ibrahim.law@gmail.com](mailto:hanif.ibrahim.law@gmail.com).



**Thalita Hindarto** graduated from the Faculty of Social and Politics at Atma Jaya Yogyakarta University, and joined the author team in this 3rd edition. As a debater, she was a grand finalist of NUEDC 2010. She focused more in adjudicating, through where she became breaking adjudicator for various national competitions and even grand final adjudicator for the Asian English Olympics in 2012. As coach, she coached SMK 1 Kalasan and her alma mater. Currently she is the Vice President of Jogja Debating Forum, the first person ever to hold the same executive position twice, and is managing JDF's sister organization –Kulon Progo Debating Forum. This Indonesian delegate in Y20, Mexico (2012) can be contacted at [thalitahindarto@gmail.com](mailto:thalitahindarto@gmail.com).



**Dwi Supriono** is an English teacher at SMAN 1 Ponorogo, East Java. Originally not having any debating background whatsoever, he went on learning by doing from one tournament to another, and became one of the most inspirational high school coaches in the country. Under his tutelage, the debate team of SMAN 1 Ponorogo has grabbed many trophies from competitions. As an adjudicator, Dwi has adjudicated numerous competitions and has become Deputy Chief Adjudicator for East Java Kopertis for NUEDC. For SMAN 1 Ponorogo's very active involvement in Jogja competitions and closeness, JDF awarded them with an honorary membership in 2010. He joined the author team for this third edition. For further correspondence, Dwi can be contacted at [mustdowe@gmail.com](mailto:mustdowe@gmail.com).



**Marsa Harisa** was a senior student at SMAN 9 Yogyakarta when she joined the author team for the 3rd edition, and she is the youngest member of the team. However, her age does not reflect her skills. From the start of her debating career, she won the Best Newcomer Award by JDF, and became one of the most feared debater in high school competitions while winning many best speaker and champion trophies from them. Even during JDF trainings, Marsa is feared even among varsity students. She also passed her first adjudicator accreditation, and has qualified as a chair

adjudicator. Recently represented Indonesia in WSDC 2014 who managed to break to Octo Finals (after not doing so in 10 years), Marsa now starts her tertiary studies in the Medical School of Gadjah Mada University. She can be contacted at [saso.ragon@yahoo.com](mailto:saso.ragon@yahoo.com).



# TESTIMONIALS

## From Readers of Previous Editions



"All of debate materials in JDF handbook have been being a big help for me in giving a complete and thorough debate teaching and practice activity for my debate students from junior to senior high school students and university students. The way how the materials being delivered are so easy to comprehend and they are also being presented in a step by step explanation that is easy to follow. Yet it is also in my deepest hope that the newest edition of JDF handbook will provide a complete example of debate competition transcript and a complete example of the transcript of adjudicator verbal evaluation toward that debate example. So that the readers, especially the very beginner ones, can see the right way on how to deliver debate speech from the opening until the closing even though they do not have any coach to teach them about it."

**Teguh Adimarta** Teacher at SMAN 2 Surabaya

"The JDF Books is more than a debating guide book for me, because I can grab more than theory of debating. Simply, I do not consider it as debating guidance book, but it is more about book with lots of tips to be more critical and logical. The book has helped me also in understanding things about debate in my very early experience. Surely, it is so useful. Great!"

**Lawrence Riski Bobby** Student at Sekolah Tinggi Bahasa Asing  
Lembaga Indonesia Amerika, Yogyakarta

"This book is very good. All about debate is here, this book are teach you how to doing debating well. At first, as a newbie I don't understanding about debate, but after read this book it increased my knowledge in debate and what actually debate are. Also make me better when doing debating specially in competition. It's very helpful."

**Agustin Wahyuningtyas** Student of Poltekkes Kemenkes Surabaya

"First time reading the JDF Handbook was very useful. It grasps all there is to the basics of debate. The guide in speaker roles are also very clear. It clearly shows the essence of debate and especially how to debate. It can be a guide for both beginners and debaters that have debated for quite a while. I hope the rest can gain benefit from reading it like I have."

**Arifah Hasanbasri** SMAN 8 Yogyakarta



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