

Let's Practice Debating in English

with advanced exercises from
euthanasia debates



Narahiko INOUE

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PREFACE

This book will help the reader to understand the basics in debating and work on note-taking exercises and critical questions on a debate about legalizing euthanasia.

Part I of the book is an introductory textbook of debating, especially academic or educational debate. Part II is a brief manual for conducting a debate round and hosting a competitive tournament. Part III includes more advanced exercises based on the first International Bioethics Debate Tournament.

The author hopes that this book will help the reader not only understand the importance of decision making based on reasoned debate but also understand critical questions about bioethics, especially euthanasia.

At the New Ito Campus Office in March 2009

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PART I

BASICS IN DEBATING

Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

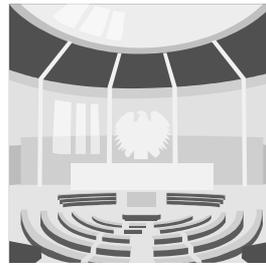
This text is a brief introduction to formal debate but also a more general introduction to argumentation. By the end of the text, readers will have learned to prepare for and engage in a formal debate. At the same time, those concepts and skills learned in this text are more widely applicable to a variety of communication situations when readers try to critically examine controversial issues and find better ways to defend their opinion developed through critical examination.

This introductory Chapter tries to define debate, introducing a special kind of debate called “Academic Debate”. Chapter 2 will discuss the nature and selection of topics for debate. Chapter 3 will go step by step through the process of preparing for a formal debate. Chapter 4 will examine the nature of arguments. Chapter 5 will explain how to organize speeches. Chapter 6 will briefly consider ethical aspects of debate. Chapter 7 gives more advanced exercises based on an actual debate about euthanasia.

Some of the rules and principles in this text are based on a particular style of Academic Debate, in which a specific topic for debate is announced well before the debate round and debaters are allowed to read manuscripts and quotations in speeches. If you are to practice a different style of debate, you should adjust accordingly. Still most of the principles and skills discussed here will be applicable to any kind of debate and more broadly to many other communication situations. Whether you may actually practice Academic Debate or not, it will be a great asset for you to develop the skills and attitudes in critical thinking and strategic communication outlined in this text.

1.1. What is Debate?

Debate is a communication process in which participants argue for and against a given topic. There are many kinds of debate. Typical real-world debates may be found in a law court and a legislative assembly such as a parliament, congress, or diet.



Some people think of a business meeting. An employee proposes a new marketing plan but another opposes it. You and your friend may have an informal debate. You are talking about a plan for the coming long weekend. You suggest a trip to a spa resort but your friend disagrees.



You can also debate by yourself. You are trying to make a future plan. “Do I want to go to a graduate school or to find a job in a company?” You consider good points and bad points about those two future plans. All these are daily examples of debate.



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

Decision Making by Debate

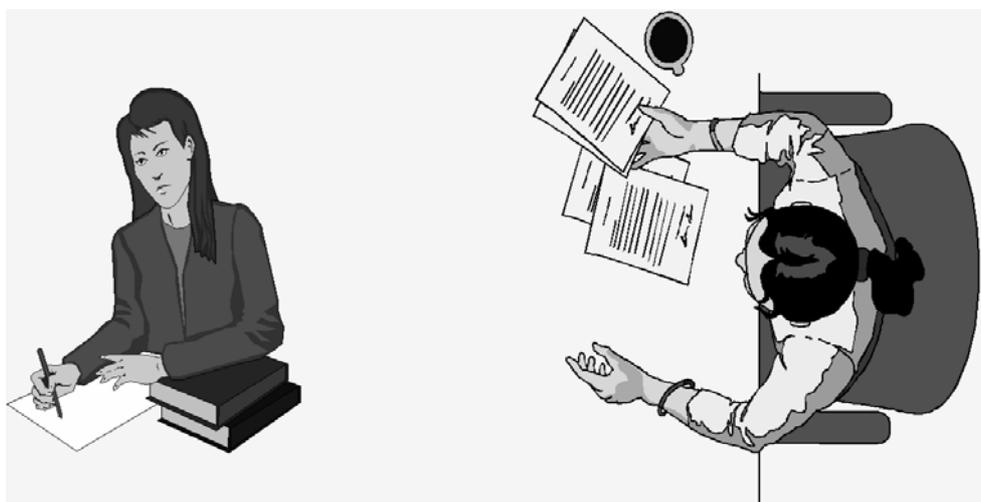
Let me illustrate the point. Suppose an electric power company proposes the construction of an atomic power plant in your town. Some people in your town welcome the plan. Others oppose it. Still many others cannot make up their mind. There will be a town meeting about the plan of the atomic power plant. You are concerned about the safety of atomic power plants and want to speak up in the meeting. You will start preparing for the meeting.



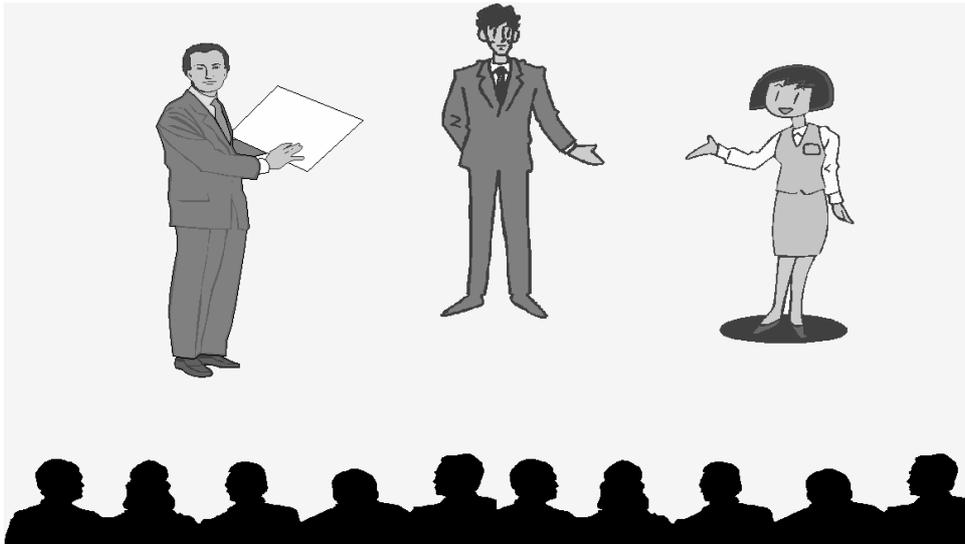
You call the power company and ask for information. You also find a group of people opposing atomic power plants in other area and ask for information. You go to a library to find several books and articles in magazines discussing the safety of atomic power plants.



By carefully reading all that information, you may arrive at a conclusion that the atomic power plant in your town will be dangerous. You then write up a short speech so that you can give it at the town meeting. You also study what your electric power company has to say about those safety questions so that you can criticize them as well as defend your opinion against possible criticism.



In the town meeting, you and some others give opinions against the construction of the atomic power plant in your neighborhood. Some others present their opinions for the construction. You exchange some questions and answers about your opinions. You also criticize some of the points raised by the proponents of the construction. They also attack your opinion. There are more exchanges of opinions for and against atomic power plants.



In this illustration, debate is not only the discussions which take place at the town meeting but it includes the whole process of analyzing the question of the safety of the plant, searching for information, and preparing your speech and possible attacks and defense. At the end of this process, the audience is able to make the best possible decision. In this sense, debate is a special kind of argumentation by which issues are critically examined and a certain position is strategically defended. Argumentation skills can be applied in both producing and receiving messages in writing, public speaking, negotiating, and in other communication situations.

1.2. What is Academic Debate?

When you are using this textbook in class, you will encounter debate as educational exercise. This is called Academic or Educational Debate. Academic Debate is different from debate in the real world like the above debate in the town meeting. In the real-world debate, the purpose is often to decide the future plan of the participants. In Academic Debate, the primary purpose is educational training. Suppose we have a debate in this class on whether we should build an atomic plant in our town. Even if we decide to build it, it will not actually be built.

There are several characteristics of Academic Debate for maximizing its educational benefits. There are strict rules of speaking in terms of time, order, the use of evidence, etc. Judges often give criticism and advice for arguments regarding both contents and skills, as well as making a decision. Academic Debate is offered as one type of speech course at colleges and high schools in the United States and some other countries, where students are taught how to debate. It is also popular in extracurricular activities and there are local and national level competitions. In Japan you also find some classes using debate and tournaments (contests) both in the Japanese and English languages.

Debate has been practiced for a long time in Western societies since the time of Ancient Greece. It is often used in classrooms and business training. Many leaders in politics, business, and academics learned debate. Many of the U.S. presidents and British prime ministers used to practice debate in schools and universities. In Japan, debating in English has an established tradition in extracurricular clubs (mostly called English Speaking Societies). More recently, the high school curriculum for English includes debate as one of the optional activities. Debate in Japanese is also becoming increasingly popular.

In a typical setting of communication for Academic Debate, the following elements are involved as in Figure 1.

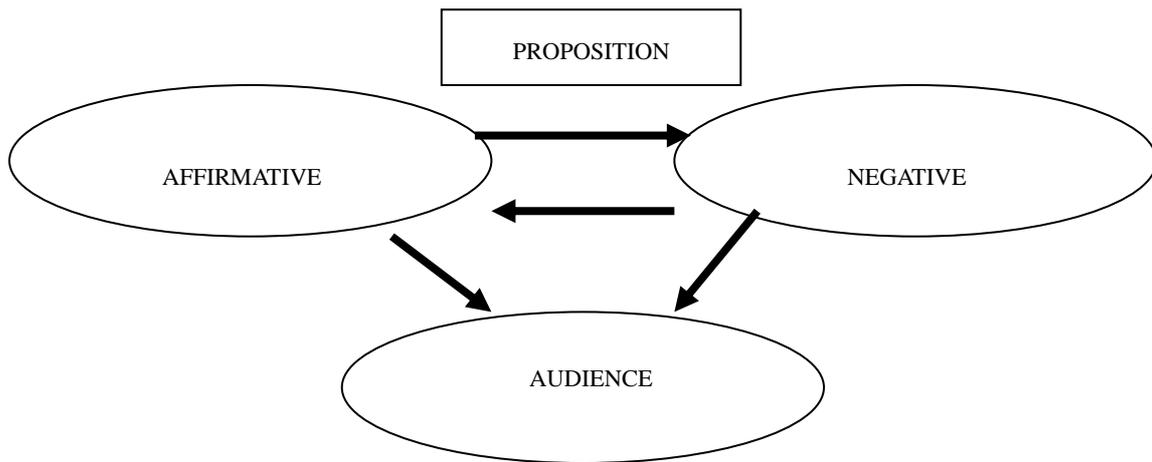


Figure 1. Communication Setting for Academic Debate

A debate as a verbal communication event is primarily conducted between two matched sides which are represented by two teams: the “affirmative” side to support the topic and the “negative” side to oppose the topic. The topic for debate is officially called the “proposition” or “resolution” (or sometimes called a “motion”). In classroom debates, students either sign up for those teams or the instructor may assign them to each group. In tournaments and contests, the participating teams consist of the same number of people and each team usually stands at least once on the affirmative side and once on the negative side. The speakers (debaters) from the two teams in a debate then give speeches for and against the topic or they give pros and cons of the questions under debate. They take turns giving speeches to support their position. In some formats, they ask the other team questions after a speech (called “cross-examination”). In this sense, they communicate with each other.

The two teams not only communicate with each other but also communicate with a third party. In many cases, the debate is presented in front of an “audience”. The affirmative and the negative teams try their best to persuade the audience to believe their side. There are also special kinds of audience, “judges” or “critics” (or “adjudicators”). The audience may give their decision at the end of the debate. Judges and critics also sometimes give comments and advice so that debaters can improve their analyses or speeches.

1.3. Format of Academic Debate

Academic Debate allows a variety of formats (such as the length and number of speeches). The important point is that the affirmative and the negative sides have the same amount of time for their speeches. A full format in a tournament is given below. The length and number of speeches may be decreased to fit classroom purposes.

A Full Format of an Academic Debate

1st Affirmative Constructive Speech (1AC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the Negative Team	3 min.
1st Negative Constructive Speech (1NC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the Affirmative Team	3 min.
2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech (2AC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the Negative Team	3 min.
2nd Negative Constructive Speech (2NC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the Affirmative Team	3 min.
1st Negative Rebuttal Speech (1NR)	4 min.
1st Affirmative Rebuttal Speech (1AR)	4 min.
2nd Negative Rebuttal Speech (2NR)	4 min.
2nd Affirmative Rebuttal Speech (2AR)	4 min.
(10-min. flexible preparation time may be allocated to each team.)	

Preparation time is used to organize a speech before it is orally presented. In the flexible-time system, each team decides how many minutes to spend before a speech until the given time is used up. In the fixed-time system, a fixed amount of time (e.g., 2 minutes) is given before each speech except for the 1st Affirmative Constructive, which is prepared before the debate round. Cross-examination is conducted immediately after the speech.

Study Questions

1. Compare Japanese “tooron” and “debate” defined here. What are similarities and differences?
2. Compare “debate”, “discussion”, and “negotiation”. What are similarities and differences?
3. What are the merits and demerits of making a decision in a classroom debate?

Chapter 2. CHOOSING A PROPOSITION

Selecting an adequate proposition is essential for meaningful debate. A proposition is expressed in a clear statement that represents the affirmative side of the controversy. An official statement of the proposition is written as “Resolved: That. . . .” Propositions may be about judgments of fact/value or about desirability of a policy/plan of action. For example:

- Resolved: That UFOs are spaceships from another planet. (FACT)
- Resolved: That private universities are better than national universities. (VALUE)
- Resolved: That school uniforms should be abolished. (POLICY)

The topic may be presented in a question form as in “Should school uniforms be abolished?” But a WH-question like “What should we do about our uniform?” cannot serve as a debate topic since it does not draw a line between the affirmative and the negative grounds.

There are four other points to consider when we decide a proposition.

- (1) The proposition should be controversial. The proposition should be phrased so that it may give more or less an equal chance of winning. Both the affirmative and negative arguments should be balanced. “Resolved: That the Hawks will win the baseball championship” may be an adequate debate topic in the beginning of the season but cannot be debated after the winner becomes obvious.
- (2) The proposition should be neutrally worded. “Resolved: That Japan should ban the sale of harmful cigarettes” presupposes the harm of cigarettes and thus unfairly favors the affirmative.
- (3) The proposition should indicate a change from the present system. In a typical setup, the affirmative side is an advocate of change and the negative side is a defender of the present or the status quo. The affirmative has the burden of proof to show that the change is necessary; the negative side opposes the change.
- (4) The proposition should be suitable for the participants. The topic should be interesting

to participants, not too easy or too difficult both in contents and language in the process of research as well as writing and presenting speeches. In classrooms, reading materials from other classes may be used to decrease the students' burden of original research.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

1. Write two possible resolutions for classroom debate. Attach a relevant article for each about the subject matter from newspapers, magazines, and Web sites (written in English).
2. Write three possible reasons for the affirmative and the negative of each resolution.
3. Discuss the relative merits of the candidate resolutions for the class debate. Choose the best one in class or group.

Chapter 3. PREPARATION FOR DEBATE

This section follows the process of preparation for debate after the proposition is decided until the oral debate is conducted. The process is not linear but individual stages may be repeated a number of times. Debate is often conducted in teams and thus preparation is also shared by the group members.

3.1. Analysis of Proposition

If you selected the proposition for yourself, you have already started the analysis. Otherwise, you must make a fresh analysis of the given proposition. This process involves interpreting the meaning of the proposition and finding the issues involved in the proposition.

3.1.1. Interpreting the Proposition

Unless the meaning of the proposition is clear, we cannot have a fruitful debate. The first step of analysis is defining the terms in the proposition and determining the meaning of the proposition as a whole. You must often go beyond finding dictionary definitions of the terms. If you are debating the topic “Resolved: That the Japanese government should prohibit smoking in public places,” you should consider, for example, what constitutes “smoking” and “public places” in the controversy.

3.1.2. Finding Issues

Both the affirmative and negative teams must consider all potential issues involved in the proposition. In a murder trial (Resolved: That X is guilty of murder.), both the prosecution (affirmative) and the defense (negative) must consider not only the physical act of killing but

also motive, alibi, and other issues which are determined by criminal law. In Academic Debate, such issues must often be found in the nature of the controversy. In debating policy propositions, debaters and coaches have developed a set of standard issues (called “stock issues”). These stock issues help you systematically analyze the proposition. These issues are expressed in a question form and must be answered “YES” by the affirmative and “NO” by the negative. Let us briefly discuss the major stock issues.

- (1) Is there a serious problem that calls for change? The affirmative wants to show the quality and quantity of the problem(s) in the present system. It may also show that the plan will produce a significant advantage over the present system. (The lack of such an advantage is considered a problem in the present system.)
- (2) Is the problem inherently connected to the present system? The affirmative may want to show that the problem is caused by the present system or the problem cannot be solved without changing the present system. The negative could show that the problem is temporary or accidental to the present system.
- (3) Is there a practical plan to solve the problem? The affirmative must present a feasible plan within the frame of the given proposition. Technological, personal, natural resources may be at issue. Constitutionality and current political popularity of the proposed plan are not at issue because Academic Debate about a policy proposition examines whether the proposed plan would be desirable if it were to be carried out.
- (4) Would the affirmative plan solve the problem? Assuming that the proposed plan is indeed carried out, this issue examines the process of solving the problem or producing the advantage.
- (5) Are the advantages of the plan bigger than its disadvantages? This is an issue that should be raised by the negative side. It must show that the disadvantages are significant, unique to the affirmative plan, and also show how they would occur. The negative side tries to show that the disadvantages would be more significant than the problems to be solved.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

4. Discuss possible interpretations of the chosen proposition. If necessary, find definitions of the terms in the propositions from dictionaries, encyclopedias, and subject-area textbooks.
5. Find issues specific to the chosen proposition. If the proposition is a policy, then use the stock issues to guide your analysis.

3.2. Research

Research is an important aspect of Academic Debate. In some cases, you can simply find information from your own knowledge. In most debates, however, you want to go beyond what you already know. You also want to find definitions, facts, statistics, and expert opinions to back up your arguments. In the beginning of preparation, you may want to conduct a broad/generic research to better understand the proposition and possible issues. Later, you want to look for specific information to support particular points in your arguments.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

6. Make a tentative list of references (books, articles, and Web pages). Use a standard style sheet to format the list. This list is tentative and should be updated throughout the process of debating the same proposition.

3.3. Building Cases

A case is a set of arguments that supports the affirmative or the negative position. One proposition allows more than one case. For example, the resolution calling for the prohibition of cigarette smoking may be justified by a case of smokers' health risk, of passive smoking, or of fires caused by smoking. A few cases may be combined to make one case. An affirmative case may be based on an intolerable current problem or may be based on the attainable benefits currently ignored.

A negative case may be based on one or more of the following strategies:

- (1) Straight Refutation. The negative team tries to refute individual affirmative arguments and issues.
- (2) Disadvantages. The negative shows that the affirmative plan would produce serious disadvantages that would outweigh the affirmative advantages (or the problems that the plan would solve).
- (3) Defense of the Status Quo. The negative tries to show that the present system is working well or is capable of solving the problem that the affirmative has identified.
- (4) Counterplan. The negative could concede the problem of the present system but argue that an alternative plan (different from both the present system and the proposition) would solve the problem better than the affirmative plan.

Both the affirmative and the negative teams must present an entire case in Constructive Speeches and must not change or add major issues in Rebuttal Speeches. This rule enables debaters to develop arguments on focused issues.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

7. Discuss possible affirmative and negative cases in groups. Even if your team does not want to use a particular case, try to develop it and then make a possible case against it.

3.4. Refutation and Rebuttal

This is a unique feature of debate that is different from more or less one-way communication of public speaking. But the same critical examination can be applied when you are simply receiving messages as a listener or a reader. Debate, or argumentation in general, is a process of approaching the truth through defending one's own opinion, attacking the other's, and further defending one's own in light of the opposition's refutation. Refutation and rebuttal also rigorously train your critical thinking and effective communication skills.

In a formal Academic Debate, "refutation" (= attacking) occurs in any speech except for the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. The principle is that you must respond to the opposition's argument in the earliest available speech; otherwise, you will be assumed to grant the argument. That is, silence is admission. In order to refute an argument, you can expose its weaknesses (lack or inadequacy of evidence and reasoning) or present counter evidence, which contradicts the opposition's argument.

The term "rebuttal" is used in two meanings. One is "rebuilding" your own argument, which is tried in response to the opposition's refutation of your argument. It occurs in the team's second or later speeches. You can rebuild your own point by refuting the opposition's refutation or adding new support to your argument/issue under attack.

The other meaning of "rebuttal" is used for the names of speeches in the second half of the debate round, i.e., rebuttal speeches. Rebuttal speeches may not present new major arguments but must develop already introduced issues and arguments. The last rebuttal speech of both teams also summarizes the entire debate from their respective viewpoints.

Preparation is important for effective refutation and rebuttal. You must anticipate the opposition's arguments and prepare against them. In a particular debate round, you must adapt

the prepared arguments to the opposition's points. Such prepared arguments can be stocked in the form of "briefs", written arguments complete with evidence. Given below are two sample briefs in the debate "Resolved: That private high schools are better than public high schools." The first one (**Sample Brief 1**) is an affirmative team's brief to strengthen the argument that private schools are better. This could also be used to respond to some problems of the private schools that the negative may bring up.

Sample Brief 1

Affirmative: flexibility

Private schools are ready to change.

Private schools are more flexible and ready to change.

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

The second brief (**Sample Brief 2**) is another affirmative brief in response to a negative issue that "public schools are more economical because their tuition is cheaper than private schools." Since the affirmative cannot deny the fact, it tries to minimize the effect of the argument.

Sample Brief 2

Affirmative: tuition

Difference of fees is small.

(Negative: Public schools' tuition is cheaper.)

- I. Even if the tuition is more expensive in private schools, it is worth paying it.
The quality of education is more important than its cost.

- II. The difference in tuition is small. The difference in tuition between private and public school is small in the total money parents spend on education.
 - A. The difference is about 1,000,000 yen for three years. According to the Ministry of Education's statistics in 1991, the total expenses that parents pay are about 310,000 yen in public high schools and 640,000 yen in private schools. The difference is 330,000 yen a year. That makes a total of 1,000,000 yen for three years.

 - B. The total money parents spend on one child from birth to university graduation ranges from 24,000,000 to 60,000,000 yen. This information comes from a study done by AIU Insurance, reported in the Asahi Shimbun, April 6, 1991.

 - C. The difference between private and public high schools is about 1.7 to 4% of the total money for one child. If a child goes to a public high school and then to a private medical school, the parents must pay much more than a case in which a child goes to a private high school. Therefore, the difference is not important.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

8. Assign each member of the team one or two issues involved in the chosen proposition. Each member conducts research and two briefs for the affirmative and two briefs for the negative. The team will share those briefs and increase the stock while debating the same proposition.

3.5. Writing & Presenting Speeches

Preparation for oral presentations is necessary before the debate round and during the round. Before the round, the team must prepare the manuscript of the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. Each team must prepare briefs about all, or at least the major, potential arguments. Individual members must practice reading such manuscripts and briefs. During the debate round, debaters must take notes while listening to speeches, write down some notes for refutation, and organize their next speech by adjusting their prepared briefs.

Writing a debate speech is like writing a research paper for oral presentation (See Section 5 below). One piece of advice for effective writing is that you should write the manuscript within the grammar and vocabulary of your own English level. Of course, certain new words and phrases must be used depending on the subject matter and they may be found in a Japanese-English dictionary. But DON'T write your complete manuscript in Japanese and then translate it into English. If you use difficult words and structures in Japanese, you will not be able to accurately translate them into English, unless your English is as good as your Japanese. If you translate word-by-word, the result will be something far away from communicative English. You must try to write in English from the beginning.

If you participate in oral debate rounds, speeches except for the 1st Affirmative Constructive will be extemporaneous, meaning that you must prepare them on the spot based on the prepared briefs and notes during the debate. As classroom practice, students may participate in "scripted debate" where the 1st Affirmative Speech is passed to the negative team, which writes the 1st Negative Speech in response and passes it back to the affirmative

team, and so on. This exchange of written speeches itself is one form of debate. Those speeches then may be orally presented to the audience who will listen to them and evaluate the debate.

In orally presenting your speech, you must consider the oral delivery in public speaking. In debate, you are presenting your speech to the audience in a public place, even in a classroom; you are not talking to one another in a private conversation. You must speak loud enough and project your voice so that it may reach people in the back of the room. If you are using a microphone, you must adjust yourself to such a device. After practicing your speech a number of times, you should be able to keep some eye contact with your audience. You do not need to memorize your speech but should look at the audience from time to time. In public speaking, delivery (loudness, clarity, speed, body language, etc.) is often much more important than the pronunciation of individual words.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

9. Write a complete 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. Practice reading it.
10. Exchange the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech and write a complete 1st Negative Constructive Speech. This speech must include both the refutations against the Affirmative Speech and the negative team's independent issues such as disadvantages from the proposed plan. Practice reading the speech.

3.6. Taking Notes

In order to accurately follow the development of the arguments in debate, for refutation and rebuttal as well as for judging, you should learn a special method of note taking called “flow sheet” (Figure 2). This flow sheet is also effective in planning arguments during preparation before the debate round.

affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative	
I. XXX				
A. XXX	1. XXX	XXX		[To continue right.]
	2. XXX	XXX		
B. XXX			1. XXX	
			2. XXX	
II. XXX				
A. XXX	XXX		XXX	
[To continue below]				
	I. XXX	XXXX	1. XXXXX	
			2. XXXXX	
	II. XXXX	1. XXXX		
		2. XXXX		

Figure 2. Sample Flow Sheet

You should prepare large sheets of paper (or facing pages of your notebook) to have as many vertical columns as the number of speeches in one debate round. In the left-most column, you will write down the major points of the 1st Affirmative Speech from the top in an outline format. Refutations in the 1st Negative Speech are written down in the next column side by side with the matching affirmative points. If a particular affirmative point is not refuted, the place next to it should be left blank (See Point I.B in Figure 2). If the points of

one speech cannot be written down in one column, you must use another sheet of paper. For example, the negative team's arguments about the disadvantage against the plan may be written down in a separate sheet of paper. You can use arrows to connect matching arguments if the connection is not apparent.

This flow sheet shows how a particular point is originally presented, responded (or not responded) by the opposition, and further responded, and so on. Such development of arguments is shown as a flow of notes on the paper from left to right. By reviewing this flow sheet, you can easily track down the flow of arguments during the debate and at the end of the debate. This flow sheet together with the tight organization of the speeches helps debaters and judges to develop and follow the highly complicated arguments in Academic Debate.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

11. Listen to a sample debate (live or on video) and take notes on the flow sheet.

3.7. Cross-Examination

A typical Academic Debate format has a cross-examination period after each constructive speech. The purposes of questioning in cross-examination are:

- (1) to clarify the opposition's points,
- (2) to expose weaknesses of the opposition's arguments, and
- (3) to set up a basis for your team's later arguments.

Cross-examination is different from speeches. The examiner can only ask questions and may not present arguments. Many students are confused with cross-examination and refutation in a speech. Although a major purpose of questioning is to weaken the opposition's arguments, you must do so by asking questions. You are not allowed to make statements or

read quotations in cross-examination. They should be in later speeches. In cross-examination, the affirmative and negative debaters directly confront each other as well as addressing the audience; in speeches, the speaker only addresses the audience. Thus, in cross-examination, you may ask “Did you say X in your speech?” directly addressing the opposition, but in a speech, you should say “The negative team (they/he/she etc.) said X in the 1st Negative Constructive” referring to the opposition as a third party.

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

12. Read another team's constructive speech and prepare a list of questions to ask.
13. Make a pair of two students. One student reads his/her team's constructive speech and the pair will practice cross-examination.

3.8. Evaluating Debate

There are two major ways to evaluate debate. One is to decide the winner of the debate in light of the strength of the arguments. The other is to evaluate the essential skills in debating.

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

In making the decision, judges must only consider what the debaters said in the debate. They must disregard their personal opinion about the proposition or other issues in the debate.

They must believe the debaters' arguments as long as they are supported by a reasonable amount of evidence and valid reasoning even if the judges themselves do not personally believe them.

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

Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate

14. Listen to/Watch a debate on audio/video tape. Take notes on the flow sheet and decide the winner.

We have introduced to you major stages of preparation and oral presentation of debate. If you have been through the Step-by-Step Tasks to Debate, you are now ready to participate in debate. In the next two sections, we will discuss more about two important aspects of debate: the nature of arguments and organization of speeches.

Chapter 4. NATURE OF ARGUMENTS

Whether you are engaged in debating or public speaking, or any other argumentative situation, you must be aware of the nature of arguments in order to develop logical arguments. Arguments or arguing has two meanings: one in the sense of making an argument (= reason giving) and the other in the sense of having an argument (= disagreement). Throughout this text we are more concerned with the first sense (reason-giving aspect of argument) than the second. This section is particularly examining the reason-giving aspect of arguments. Understanding the nature of arguments is important not only for you as a sender of messages but also for you as a receiver of messages. In modern society with its overabundance of information, critical thinking abilities are essential and understanding the nature of arguments is the core of such abilities.

4.1. Structure of Arguments

An “argument”, in its simplest form, consists of a “claim/conclusion” that the speaker/writer tries to advance, “evidence/data” that serves a ground for the claim, and a “warrant/reasoning” that connects the claim and the evidence. Figure 3 illustrates this simple structure.

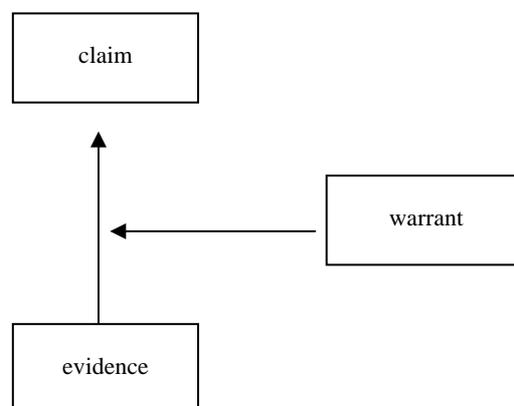


Figure 3. Structure of Argument

Let us examine an argument “Japan’s atomic power plants are likely to cause serious accidents because those in Three Mile Island and Chernobyl caused big accidents.” The claim is “Japan’s atomic power plants are likely to cause serious accidents.” The evidence consists of two pieces of information: the explicit one is “Atomic power plants in Three Mile Island and Chernobyl caused big accidents.” The other implicit evidence is “Japan’s atomic power plants are similar to those in Three Mile Island and Chernobyl.” The warrant is an “analogy” by which we can claim a new similarity based on the known similarity.

4.2. Evidence

Evidence, or more broadly data or grounds that supports the claim, means both quotations from published sources (i.e., external evidence) and shared knowledge in this analysis. Since it is difficult to determine whether a particular piece of information is shared by all participants of a debate round, quotations from published sources are very important in Academic Debate. If a claim is once established in debate, it will then function as evidence for another claim.

Commonly used external evidence includes facts, statistics, and expert opinions. The following points should be considered to find quality evidence and critically evaluate evidence presented by others:

- (1) Is the evidence consistent with other evidence? If different sources disagree about the same point, one of them (or both) may be wrong.
- (2) Is the evidence consistent within itself? Inconsistency or contradiction within the same source is also a problem.
- (3) Is the statistics sound? If evidence is a statistic, you must apply standard tests of statistics such as those about the size and method of sampling, the way of asking questions in a survey, and appropriateness of the statistical measures.
- (4) Is the source of evidence competent? Was the author able to get access to the

information concerned? Is the source updated? Is the author a qualified expert in the field? In this world of advanced science and exploding information, we cannot know everything by ourselves. We must rely on “experts” or “authorities” in a given field. But in discussing nuclear power plants, a famous movie director is not an expert even though he is an expert in moviemaking.

- (5) Is the evidence neutral? Isn't the source or author biased? Are there special interests involved? Will the witness gain benefits from his or her testimony? An engineer in a power company may be an expert in nuclear power but his/her statements about its safety are likely to be biased.

4.3. Warrants

It is often unlikely that you can find evidence which exactly shows your claim. You must prove your claim with available evidence. If there is a gap between the claim and the evidence, there is an inferential jump from the evidence to the claim. A warrant is a justification that guarantees such a jump, or a bridge that connects the evidence and the claim. Warrants are processes of inference or rules in logic, which are valid or invalid. The following sections will discuss three common types of warrants.

4.3.1. Analogy

In our earlier example of an argument about atomic power plants, the claim that Japan's atomic power plants are likely to cause serious accidents based on evidence that the atomic power plants in Three Mile Island and Chernobyl caused serious accidents. The warrant is analogical reasoning like “if two things are similar in known features, they must be similar in unknown features.”

In the warrant of analogy, those two compared phenomena must be similar in their

“essential” features, “essential” in the sense of being relevant to the claim being made. In the argument of atomic power plants above, those atomic power plants must be similar in their structures and safety measures so that the analogy about accidents will be valid.

4.3.2. Generalization

This is a logical process of making a generic statement based on a number of specific examples. For example, in order to prove a claim “There is a defect in the brake installed in the cars Model X of Maker Y,” you may be able to find evidence “Mr. A’s Model X had a defect in its brake. Ms. B’s Model X also had a defect in its brake. Mr. C, Ms. D, and Mr. E had Model Xs and they had defects in their brakes.” The warrant that justifies a jump from specific examples to a generalized conclusion is an assumption of regularity among the cars of the same model. Usually we can assume that different cars of the same model have the same design and thus the same problem if any.

When we use the warrant of generalization, we should be careful about such factors as whether the quantity of examples is enough, whether such examples are typical to the group in question, and whether there are some serious counterexamples that cannot be ignored.

4.3.3. Cause-Effect

If there is a causal relationship between an element in the evidence and an element in the claim, the warrant is of cause-effect. There are two kinds of cause-effects inferences. One type of inference is that you have evidence to show the existence of cause. You can prove the claim that shows the effect of that cause. The other type is the inference to the opposite direction. If you have evidence to show the effect, you can infer the existence of the cause that brought about that effect. If the relationship is one-to-one, the both directions of inference are warranted. But if the relationship is not one-to-one, you must use a caution.

Suppose that a causal relation has already been proven in the evidence that says,

“habitual smoking causes lung cancer.” If you have evidence “Mr. A is a habitual smoker,” you can support your claim “Mr. A will probably develop lung cancer.” On the other hand, you cannot prove the claim “Mr. B is a habitual smoker” based on the evidence “Mr. B had lung cancer.” For there are other possible causes of lung cancer.

In a policy proposition, causal warrants are often used in proving the issue of solvency (the plan would solve the problem). As a result, caution is necessary. If the proposition is to prohibit smoking and the problem in the status quo is lung cancer, the elimination of smoking would not solve all the lung cancers. Habitual smokers like Mr. A above may have already inhaled enough carcinogens so it is too late for such people. Lung cancer caused by other factors is also outside the solvency. The affirmative can only solve lung cancers which may be caused in the future because of relatively new exposure to smoke.

You can sometimes use statistical “correlations” between the two phenomena whose “causality” cannot be proven. A correlation is weaker than causality but you can still build many of the arguments in debate based on such a relation.

A special note is necessary before leaving this section. “Proof” in debate is different from “proof” in mathematics or in formal logic. Proof in debate is a matter of “probable truth.” You only need to show that your claim is probably true based on your evidence and warrant. Even if there is one counterexample to your proof, it will not destroy the whole of your argument. You must also avoid strong statements such as “My proof is perfect” or “The opponent’s argument is completely wrong.”

Chapter 5. ORGANIZATION OF SPEECHES

Effective debating requires a logical and easy-to-follow organization of speeches. Much of this is common to formal essays such as research papers. In this section, first, the organization of a whole speech is illustrated with an example of the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. Second, the organization of a unit of refutation and rebuttal is discussed.

5.1. 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech

A debate speech is a kind of speech in public speaking, thus, consisting of Introduction, Body, and Conclusion. Introduction includes a statement of position (= thesis statement) and a roadmap of major points in Body (= preview or blueprint). Body consists of several major points, which are then supported by subpoints. Each point is equivalent to a paragraph consisting of a topic sentence and support/details. Conclusion of the speech summarizes (reviews) the already-discussed major points with a concluding statement of the team's position.

When you organize your speech during preparation, outlining is very helpful. Some of you may want to write an outline first and then convert it into a full speech. Others may want to start writing a rough draft and convert it into an outline to examine its organization. The following outline and speech manuscript are for the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech in the debate "Resolved: That private high schools are better than public high schools."

Sample 1st Affirmative Speech Outline

- I. Private schools promote variety in education.
 - A. Variety in education is good.
 - 1. People have different opinions and values.
 - 2. The education before World War II was responsible for the war.
 - B. Private schools are freer than public schools.
 - Public schools are controlled by the Ministry of Education.

- II. Private schools make more efforts to improve themselves than public schools.
 - ..
 - ..
 - ..

- III. Private schools are more active in international exchange than public schools.
 - ..
 - ..
 - ..

A completed manuscript will look like the example below.

Sample 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech

We believe that private high schools are better than public high schools. There are three major reasons: (1) Variety in Education; they offer variety in education, (2) Efforts to improve; they put more efforts into improvement, and (3) International exchange; they play a more active role in international exchange. Let me explain them one by one.

Reason number one, variety in education. Private schools promote variety in education. Subpoint A. Variety in education is good. First, people have different opinions and values. If schools teach the same things in the same way, students will suffer some potential psychological damage. Second, the uniformed nationalistic education before World War II was responsible for the war. Japan must not repeat the same mistakes. Private schools are the key to stop the revival of the nationalist.

Subpoint B. Private schools are freer than public schools. So they offer more variety in education. Private schools are guaranteed by law to promote their founders' spirits and individuality, as is reported by the Asahi Shimbun, January 11, 1993: "On the other hand public schools are controlled by the Ministry of Education through prefectural boards of education." Therefore, the variety in education provided by private schools is good.

.
. .
.

For these three reasons: variety in education, efforts to improve, and international exchange, private schools are better than public schools.

This kind of debate speech has a very short Introduction and a very short Conclusion partly because of the time pressure. They also assume that the participants including the

audience members know the topic very well and that they listen to the speech carefully with taking notes. Otherwise, like in a demonstration debate in a school festival, you must give a longer Introduction with some background of the resolution and a longer Conclusion to help the audience remember the major points.

5.2. Refutation Unit

When you are refuting or rebuilding an argument or an issue, a prototypical pattern of organization of “refutation unit” is helpful. A generic pattern is given first and then a sample part of a speech is given.

Organization of Refutation Unit

1. Locate the argument to attack.
2. Summarize the argument to attack.
3. Give your response.
4. Support your response.
5. Conclude the response.

The example given next is based on a brief given earlier (Section 19.3.4). Most of the speeches in debate are made up of a number of these units.

A Sample Unit of Refutation in Speech

About the negative team's third argument, cost. They said that tuition is cheap in public schools. I have two responses. First, the quality of education is more important. Even if the tuition is higher in private schools, it is worth paying it. Quality is more important than cost in education. Second, the difference in tuition is small. . . . [Supporting evidence is omitted here.] Thus, the difference is not so important. Therefore the negative side cannot say that public schools are better because of lower tuition.

Chapter 6. DEBATE AND ETHICS

Since debating skills are powerful tools in communication, we must also be concerned with the ethical responsibility of those engaged in debate. The abuse of debating skills has been criticized as sophistry since the beginning of Academic Debate in Ancient Greece. More recently in Japan, a spokesperson of a cult religion group attracted people's attention when he was called liar for his abuse of the debating skills learned in college. When you practice debate you should be aware of your ethical responsibility. You must also learn to expose the problems of "liars" when they try to erroneously defend unjustifiable positions.

Some people worry about the practice of debating both sides in Academic Debate when the same person or team defends one position in one debate and attacks that position in another debate. We must understand that Academic Debate is different from real-world debate in that students are debating for the sake of learning and training. They can develop an unbiased attitude by looking at both sides of the question. Even in real-world debate, some speakers serve as devil's advocates so that the question can be rigorously tested. So debaters who are arguing against their own belief are by no means unethical or irresponsible. In debate, speakers are playing a role of either supporting or denying one position. After you have debated both sides of the question, you will be able to broaden your view about the question and will be able to come up with a better-informed opinion of your own.

In Academic Debate, especially in competitions such as tournaments, we must be especially careful about evidence. In competition, quotations from books and articles are crucially important for defending one's position. Debaters must be responsible for the accuracy of information given in debate. If debaters were to distort or fabricate evidence, they would be severely penalized. The rule is that debaters must record sources of information as accurately as possible and give them (if truncated) in their speeches. Debaters are also encouraged to question the sources of information presented in their opponent's speeches.

Chapter 7. CONCLUSION

Chapters 1 - 6 cover the essentials of debating, especially Academic Debate in which the critical examination of arguments and their rhetorical presentation are important. As the old saying goes, practice is important in debate as well. Even if you do not have a chance to participate in debate, try to apply your critical thinking skills in other communication situations. The best thing, of course, would be to participate in debate in some form; a short format adapted to your class period, an exchange of written speeches, or even an e-mail debate or Web-based bulletin board debate are all possibilities. We hope that you can enjoy debate to some degree in your lives.

Appendix 1

Sample Syllabus

Course Overview: This course is an introduction to debating in English. In this course, students will learn how to argue in English by participating in competitive debates. They will learn step by step how to prepare for participating in competitive debates. The steps include (1) analyzing the topic, (2) researching the topic, (3) preparing arguments for and against the topic, (4) writing speeches, (5) preparing questions and answers, (6) delivering speeches, and (7) taking notes in debate. Students will form debate teams and participate in debates. Classroom debates will be judged by students and the instructor. The final grade will be based on the assigned tasks and debates.

Course Objectives:

- (1) Students will be able to analyze debate resolutions.
- (2) Students will be able to give an organized speech supporting a position.
- (3) Students will be able to refute the opposing arguments.
- (4) Students will be able to evaluate a debate.

Grading: The grade will be based on the participation (not winning) in debates as a debater and a judge.

Class Schedule:

1. **Introduction to Debate. HW. Task 1. Finding Resolutions & Articles.** Write two possible resolutions for classroom debate. Attach a relevant article for each about the subject matter from newspapers, magazines, and Web sites (written in English). Give the standard bibliographic information about the articles.
2. **Task 2. Brainstorming Reasons.** Write three possible reasons for the affirmative and the negative of each resolution.
3. **Task 3. Choosing the Resolution.** Discuss the relative merits of the candidate resolutions for the class debate. Choose the best one in class or group.
4. **Task 4. Interpreting the Resolution.** Discuss possible interpretations of the chosen proposition. If it is a policy proposition, write a possible plan for the affirmative including when, who, how, the plan will be carried out. Find definitions of the terms in the propositions from dictionaries, encyclopedias, and subject-area textbooks. (Do not forget the bibliographic information of the sources.)
5. **HW. Task 5. Finding Issues.** Write issues specific to the chosen proposition. If the proposition is a policy, use the stock issues to guide your analysis.
6. **HW. Task 6. List of References.** Make a tentative list of references (books, articles, and Web pages). Use a standard style sheet to format the list (See Chapter 17). This list is tentative and should be updated throughout the process of debating the same proposition. The initial list must contain at least 10 items.
7. **HW. Task 7. Affirmative & Negative Cases.** Discuss possible affirmative and negative cases in groups. Even if your team does not want to use a particular case, try to develop it and then make a possible case against it. Write one affirmative case outline and one negative case outline.

8. **Task 8. Writing Briefs.** Assign each member of the team one or two issues involved in the chosen proposition. Each member conducts research and two briefs for the affirmative and two briefs for the negative. The team will share those briefs and increase the stock while debating the same proposition.
9. **12/1 HW. Task 9. Writing the 1AC.** Write a complete 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. Practice reading it.
10. **Task 10. Writing the 1NC.** Exchange the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech and write a complete 1st Negative Constructive Speech. This speech must include both the refutations against the Affirmative Speech and the negative team's independent issues such as disadvantages from the proposed plan. Practice reading the speech.
11. **Task 11. Taking Notes on the Flowsheet.** Listen to a sample debate (live or on video) and take notes on the flow sheet. **HW. Task 12. Preparing for Cross-Examination.** Read another team's constructive speech and prepare a list of questions to ask.
12. **Task 13. Practicing Cross-Examination.** Make a pair of two students. One student reads his/her team's constructive speech and the pair will practice cross-examination.
- 13-15. **Task 14. Presenting & Judging Debate.** Each team debate at least twice. While listening to debate by other students, take notes on the flow sheet and decide the winner.

Round 1, A vs. B (Judges: E); Round 2, C vs. D (Judges: F)

Round 3, E vs. F (Judges: A); Round 4, B vs. C (Judges: D)

Round 5, D vs. E (Judges: B); Round 6, F vs. A (Judges: C)

Appendix 2

Assignment Sheets

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 1. Finding Resolutions & Articles

Write two possible resolutions for classroom debate. Attach a relevant article for each about the subject matter from newspapers, magazines, and Web sites (written in English).

Give the standard bibliographic information about the articles. (Staple the photocopies or printouts.)

Example Resolutions.

- English should be taught as a compulsory subject in elementary schools in Japan.
- Fukuoka is a better city to live than Sapporo.
- Hillary Clinton will be the next president of the United States of America.

Example List of Articles.

- Nakajima, Heizo. May 3, 2004. Teach Elementary Kids English in a Holistic Way. *The Asahi Shimbun*, p. 21.
- Lee, George. November 1987. A Comparative Study of Japanese Major Cities. *Urban Planning* 65, pp. 365-381.
- Election Watch 2004. No date. [Http://www.electionwatch2004.com/articles/presidents/bush/123456.html](http://www.electionwatch2004.com/articles/presidents/bush/123456.html). Retrieved October 6, 2004.

Resolution 1:

Article 1:

Resolution 2:

Article 2:

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 2. Brainstorming Reasons

Write three possible reasons for the affirmative and the negative of each resolution.

Resolution 1.

Reason (1)

Reason (2)

Reason (3)

Resolution 2.

Reason (1)

Reason (2)

Reason (3)

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 3. Choosing the Resolution

Discuss the relative merits of the candidate resolutions for the class debate. Choose the best one in class or group.

Resolution chosen in your group:

Resolution chosen in the class:

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 4. Interpreting the Resolution

Discuss possible interpretations of the chosen proposition. If it is a policy proposition, write a possible plan for the affirmative including when, who, how, the plan will be carried out.

Find definitions of the terms in the propositions from dictionaries, encyclopedias, and subject-area textbooks. (Do not forget the bibliographic information of the sources.)

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 5. Finding Issues

Write issues specific to the chosen proposition. If the proposition is a policy, use the stock issues to guide your analysis.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 6. List of References

Make a tentative list of references (books, articles, and Web pages). Use a standard style sheet to format the list. This list is tentative and should be updated throughout the process of debating the same proposition. The initial list must contain at least 10 items.

Example List of References.

- (1) Ampontan, Tarosuke. 2004. *How to Win Debate in Class*. Fukuoka: Itonokuni Press.
- (2) Election Watch 2004. No date. [Http://www.electionwatch2004.com/articles/presidents/bush/123456.html](http://www.electionwatch2004.com/articles/presidents/bush/123456.html). Retrieved October 6, 2004.
- (3) Lee, George. November 1987. A Comparative Study of Japanese Major Cities. *Urban Planning* 65, pp. 365-381.
- (4) Nakajima, Heizo. May 3, 2004. Teach Elementary Kids English in a Holistic Way. *The Asahi Shimbun*, p. 21.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 7. Affirmative & Negative Cases

Discuss possible affirmative and negative cases in groups. Even if your team does not want to use a particular case, try to develop it and then make a possible case against it.

Write one affirmative case outline and one negative case outline.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 8. Writing Briefs

Assign each member of the team one or two issues involved in the chosen proposition. Each member conducts research and two briefs for the affirmative and two briefs for the negative. The team will share those briefs and increase the stock while debating the same proposition.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 9. Writing the 1AC

Write a complete 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech. Practice reading it.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 10. Writing the 1NC

Exchange the 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech with a negative team and write a complete 1st Negative Constructive Speech. This speech must include both the refutations against the Affirmative Speech and the negative team's independent issues such as disadvantages from the proposed plan. Practice reading the speech.

Submission Date:_____ ID:_____ Name:_____

Task 12. Preparing for Cross-Examination

Read another team's constructive speech and prepare a list of questions to ask.

Task 14. Presenting & Judging Debate

Each team debate at least twice. While listening to debate by other students, take notes on the flow sheet and decide the winner.

Format of Debate

1st Affirmative Constructive Speech (1AC)	5 min.
Cross-Examination by the Negative Team	2 min.
1st Negative Constructive Speech (1NC)	5 min.
Cross-Examination by the Affirmative Team	2 min.
2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech (2AC)	5 min.
Cross-Examination by the Negative Team	2 min.
2nd Negative Constructive Speech (2NC)	5 min.
Cross-Examination by the Affirmative Team	2 min.
1st Negative Rebuttal Speech (1NR)	3 min.
1st Affirmative Rebuttal Speech (1AR)	3 min.
2nd Negative Rebuttal Speech (2NR)	3 min.
2nd Affirmative Rebuttal Speech (2AR)	3 min.

(2-min. preparation time is allocated before each speech.)

Debate Competition Schedule

Day 1 Round 1 A vs. B (Judges: E)
 Round 2 C vs. D (Judges: F)

Day 2 Round 3 E vs. F (Judges: A)
 Round 4 B vs. C (Judges: D)

Day 3 Round 5 D vs. E (Judges: B)
 Round 6 F vs. A (Judges: C)

Appendix 3

Sample Flowsheet/Ballot

(reduced in size)

Class:	Date:	AFF:	total: /40	This debate was won by:				
ID:	Name:	NEG:	total: /40	Reasons:				
Resolved: That								
1AC: /10	1NC: /10	2AC: /10	2NC: /10	1NR: /10	1AR: /10	2NR: /10	2AR: /10	

PART II

MANUAL FOR STAGING DEBATE

A Manual for Debate Round

1. Introduction

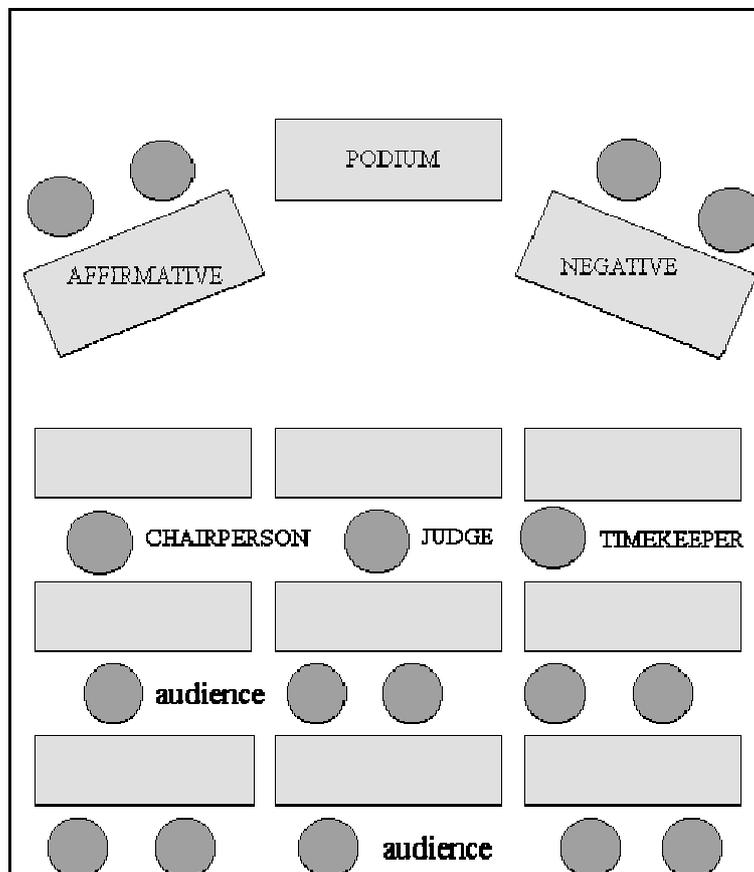
This manual explains how to conduct a formal debate round.

2. Setting

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

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

A Typical Setting of Debate



3. Chairperson

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

Examples of Chairperson's Words:

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

[Optional]

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

[Other expressions]

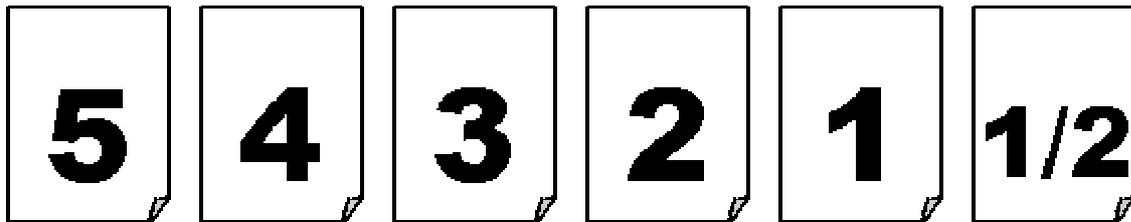
After preparation time, we will welcome the second negative rebuttal speech. The time limitation is 3 minutes. The next speaker is the second negative constructive speaker. The first affirmative speaker will be cross-examined by one of the negative speakers.

[When the last speaker finishes:]

The debate is over. Thank you for both sides. The next debate starts

4. Timekeeper

Timekeeper tracks the time of each speaking period and preparation time of both sides with a stopwatch or a countdown timer (kitchen timer). For speaking time, Timekeeper can use and shows the remaining minutes by using cards like:



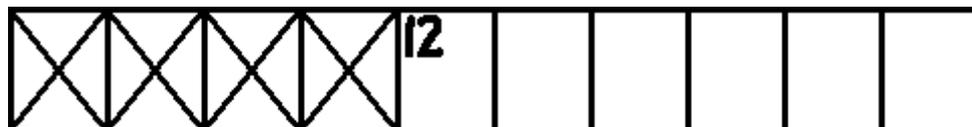
If the cards are not used, Timekeeper orally gives the remaining time saying “three minutes” or “30 seconds.” When the speaker runs out of time, Timekeeper declares: “Time (is up).” etc.

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

Affirmative:



Negative:



The above charts show that the affirmative team has used 3 minutes 30 seconds and the negative team has used 4 minutes 12 seconds. If necessary (and available), Timekeeper can use separate stopwatches/timers to measure speaking time and preparation time. When a

team uses up all the preparation time, Timekeeper tells the team that it has no more preparation time left.

5. Judges

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

Judges listen to all the speeches and cross-examination exchanges during the debate. They do not interfere with the debate unless it is absolutely necessary. They give the decision after the debate. They give oral/written feedback about debaters' skills and issues/arguments in the debate so that the debaters and audience members learn more from the debate.

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

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

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

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

Example of Judge's Critique (Comments)

I voted for the affirmative team because of the following reasons.

1. The affirmative demonstrated a clear advantage of the plan. It would probably save more than 10,000 people every year. The negative team did not challenge the importance of this advantage.
2. The practicality of the plan was weakened because of the negative attacks: (1) the technology of XXXX was still in experimental stage; (2) it might be difficult to find some of the patients. But those points did not seriously weaken the plan. The practicality of the plan in general was demonstrated by the two pieces of evidence in the second affirmative constructive speech.
3. Disadvantage I (XXXXXX) was shown not unique to the affirmative plan by the second affirmative constructive speaker. Her second and third responses about this point were persuasive. The negative team failed to refute this point in later speeches. [This means that Disadvantage I would occur whether the affirmative plan was adopted. Therefore, it cannot be the reason to reject the affirmative plan.]
4. Disadvantage II (risk of economic damage) was successfully defended by the negative team.
5. In the end, I found that the affirmative plan would save at least 10,000 people a year but it would also produce some economic damage. The second affirmative speaker effectively showed that the advantage of saving people was more important than a possible economic damage. The negative team was weak in demonstrating the certainty and the magnitude of the economic loss (the evidence in the second rebuttal was weakened by the following cross-examination; the negative did not give any further evidence).

I have some advice to the debaters.

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

Sample Tournament Guide
(from International Bioethics Debate 2009)

Tournament Format

Participants will convene to debate the motion/resolution:

Resolved: That Euthanasia Should Be Legalized.

Parameters

- (1) The resolution should be considered as a generic/universal proposition, but the Affirmative team may offer a specific policy statement for a particular country (i.e., Affirmative Plan).
- (2) Euthanasia may include active and/or passive euthanasia.
- (3) The contents of the legalization may be subject to debate

Two two-person teams represent the affirmative and negative sides of the resolution that “Euthanasia should be legalized” in each round.

Each team debates once on the affirmative, once on the negative, and judges one round in the preliminary, which will lead to the final round. Each round is judged by at least one faculty member and two debaters (from participating teams).

The faculty judges will include:

- Dr. Joseph Zompetti, Illinois State University
- Dr. Jack Yu, Shih-Hsin University, Taiwan
- Mr. Loke Wing Fatt, SAID, Singapore
- Professor John Anscomb-Iino, Kyushu University
- Professor Mark Weeks, Kyushu University
- Mr. Takafumi Yoshimura, Kasumigaoka High School
- Professor Mariko Ueda, Sasebo National College of Technology
- Professor Duncan Wotley, Kitakyushu University

Participating teams will consist of members from Illinois State University (U.S.A.), Beijing Language & Culture University (China), X'ian International Studies University (China), Mahidol University (Thailand), Assumption University (Thailand), Shih Hsin University (Taiwan), Kyoto Pharmaceutical University, Kyushu University, and Fukuoka Debating Society.

Team Notes and Time Standards

1. There are two teams: Affirmative (comprised of the First and the Second Speaker) and Negative (the First Speaker and the Second Speaker). The speeches of each side will occur in the following order and duration:

1st Affirmative Constructive Speech_____6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Negative Speaker_____3 minutes
1st Negative Constructive Speech_____6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 1st Affirmative Speaker_____3 minutes
2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech_____6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 1st Negative Speaker_____3 minutes
2nd Negative Constructive Speech_____6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Affirmative Speaker_____3 minutes
1st Negative Rebuttal Speech_____3 minutes
1st Affirmative Rebuttal Speech_____3 minutes
2nd Negative Rebuttal Speech _____3 minutes
2nd Affirmative Rebuttal Speech_____3 minutes

2. 8 minutes of preparation time will be allowed in flexible amounts to each team, and may be used at any point before a team's speech or questioning in cross-examination, including before rebuttal speeches.
3. Debaters are requested to adhere to the time standards outlined above. After the limit of each speech, the speaker shall stop to speak.
4. Judges shall ignore any part of the speech delivered after the time limit.
5. Debaters are not allowed to interrupt the opposing team during their constructive or rebuttal speeches for any reason. It is the responsibility of the judge to intervene in a speech if appropriate.
6. Speakers are allowed to read from the prepared manuscript either on paper or on computer screen. Such manuscripts shall be accessible for all the debaters and the judges in the round after the speech is delivered.
7. Evidence from sources external to the debaters shall be documented. At least the author and the year of publication shall be identified in the speech. Other bibliographic information shall be disclosed upon request from the other team or a judge. Direct quotations and paraphrases shall be marked as such.
8. During the Cross-Examinations period, the speaker who has delivered the immediately preceding speech is questioned by one of the speakers from the other team as specified above. The examiner may only ask questions and may not make a statement. The examinee may only answer questions and may not ask a question except for clarification. The examiner shall control the cross-examination; he/she may respectfully interrupt the examinee when deemed appropriate.

Notes on Cultural and Style Difference

Rounds in this tournament are unique in that debaters and judges might (a) have different assumptions about what constitutes relevant types of evidence and argumentation and (b) will possess very different English language abilities. For the sake of judging consistency, the following broad guidelines should be observed:

Evidence and Argumentation

Arguments that cite evidence from external sources are encouraged. Such evidence may be judged persuasive because of their author's academic or professional esteem, because of their rhetorical force, or because they substantiate a relevant fact. Evidence should be documented and a source (bibliographic information) must be given if requested. Evidence from external sources can be challenged by debaters in the round and the speaker is expected to defend them. All things being equal, an argument might appropriately be deemed more persuasive if it is substantiated by a quotation from a noted authority than if it is not.

English Language Ability

The tournament will be conducted in English, but as an international event, English ability alone should not be confused with impressive style. In fact, judges should make a good faith effort to pay attention to each team's speech and to be vigilant against any bias to preference teams with a stronger command of the English language.

Impressive stylistic quality can be appropriately be demonstrated in any number of ways (effective time management, organization, creativity, emotionality) which might be helped by but should not be excessively limited by language fluency alone. Given the research nature of Policy Debate, the quality and strength of arguments should take preference over stylistic concerns.

Judging Assessment Guide

After the conclusion of the round, judges shall make independent determinations of which team won, and without conferring with other judges on the substance of the round, assign ranks and speaker points to each speaker.

When making a decision, the judge should only evaluate arguments made by the debaters during the debate round. A judge's personal opinions or prior preferences should not enter into their decision

Judges will rank the speakers in the round individually in order of 1 through 4 and assign speaker points (1-10) individually according to their overall performance in the round considering Analysis, Evidence, Reasoning, Organization, and Delivery. No half-point scores such as 7.5 are allowed.

Judges are permitted to assign low-point wins; the winning team may have speaker-points lesser and/or ranks greater than or equal to those of the losing team.

Judges should assign automatic losses to teams that do not arrive to their rounds within 15 minutes of releasing pairings, and who are not prepared to debate within 20-25 minutes.

After each round, one or two judges shall give oral feedback about the arguments and delivery of the speakers as well as the number of the votes for each team.

Speaking Roles and Responsibilities Guide

The following is a general guide but not intended as absolute rules. Participants are advised to debate with good intentions so that fruitful exchanges of ideas about euthanasia may be promoted.

Cross Examination: During Cross Examination periods, a questioner will have uninterrupted time to ask questions of a debater under question. The questioner will control the time during these periods, and has the right to interrupt the debater under question at his/her discretion and to move onto new questions. Debaters are advised, however, to be respectful to one another - to deliver brief answers under questioning and allow speakers to finish answers unless there is a compelling reason to interrupt.

First Affirmative Constructive (1AC): As the First Speaker of the Affirmative, this speaker's responsibility is to advance a clear case statement consistent with the resolution and its parameters. He/She is encouraged to offer any explanation or background of his/her case statement as necessary, including a definition of the resolution within which the debate is to occur. This speaker may present a specific plan within the limit of the resolution, which would (1) produce significant advantage(s) over the absence of such a plan, or (2) solve the serious problem(s). Finally, he/she must present a series of constructive arguments that support the case statement.

First Negative Constructive (1NC): As the First Speaker of the Negative, this speaker may state any important objections to the 1AC's case or the resolution. The speaker is encouraged to attack the case proposed in 1AC (including any objection to the 1AC's definition of the resolution and predicted disadvantages to be produced from the plan proposed in 1AC). He/she may also construct the negative team's independent arguments, including predicted disadvantages to be produced from the resolution. The Negative team must accept the 1AC's interpretation/definition as long as it is reasonable and fair. If the speaker objects to 1AC's interpretation of the resolution/motion, he/she should voice this objection at the beginning of 1NC. The objection should be stated and explained, which may be subjected to debate in the round.

Second Affirmative Constructive (2AC): As the Second Speaker of the Affirmative, the 2AC speaker should introduce any remaining new arguments for the Affirmative team, respond to the 1NC independent arguments, and reconstruct the Affirmative team's case in part by responding to the 1NC's arguments.

Second Negative Constructive (2NC): As the Second Speaker of the Negative, the 2NC speech should introduce any remaining new arguments for the Negative team and respond to the 2AC's arguments. It is advised that 2NC and 1NR should divide the coverage of arguments so that any overlap may be avoided. For example, 2NC may want to extend the Negative team's independent arguments and 1NR may want to extend the 1NC's refutation against the Affirmative case.

First Negative Rebuttal (1NR): The First Negative Speaker should continue to respond to the Affirmative arguments and/or reconstruct the Negative case in light of the 2AC responses. Major new arguments may not be introduced in the 1NR speech or any other rebuttal speech, and new argumentation should take the form of extensions or developments of arguments already made in earlier speeches.

First Affirmative Rebuttal (1AR): The First Affirmative Speaker should continue to defend the Affirmative case by responding to any major new arguments made in the 2NC and reconstructing the case from attacks made in the 1NR. As a rebuttal speech, major new arguments may not be introduced in the 1AR speech, and new argumentation should take the form of extensions or developments of arguments already made in earlier speeches.

Second Negative Rebuttal (2NR): The Second Negative Speaker must summarize the round in order to frame the debate from the Negative's point of view. The 2NR should explain each of the reasons why the Negative has won the round and why these reasons outweigh the arguments the Affirmative has made. Because the 2NR is a rebuttal speech, no new arguments are allowed except for the responses to the 1AR arguments. New examples (evidence) are permitted.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal (2AR): The 2AR must summarize the debate from the Affirmative's point of view. Like the 2NR, the 2AR will spend time arguing the key arguments which might win the Affirmative the round. A good 2AR will not simply restate the arguments, but demonstrate why the Affirmative case outweighs the Negative's. A 2AR might also point out arguments the Negative team missed or ignored and explain their impact on the round. Like the 2NR, new arguments are not allowed except for the responses to the 1AR arguments. New examples (evidence) are permitted.

International Bioethics Debate Tournament Ballot (3/14/2009)

Round: _____ Room: _____ Judge: _____

Affirmative: _____ Negative: _____

Speaker	Name	Rank	Point	Team Total
1AC			/10	Affirmative
2AC			/10	/20
1NC			/10	Negative
2NC			/10	/20

In my opinion, this debate was won by AFF / NEG
(Team: _____).

Judge's signature: _____

Comments and Basis for Decision:

PART III

ADVANCED PRACTICES

**based on the International Bioethics Debate
Tournament 2008**

Exercises on Organizing Evidence

- 1. Suppose you collected nine quotations after you conducted some research on the controversy whether to legalize euthanasia. Crop a long quote into a shorter quotable piece of evidence if necessary.**
- 2. Decide whether each of the nine pieces of evidence may be used for or against the proposition to legalize euthanasia.**
- 3. Make an outline of the arguments for and against legalizing euthanasia with the quotations.**

Quotation 1

Karen was in a critical comatose state of unknown cause and was being given oxygen through a mask taped over her nose and mouth. She had been brought to the hospital by two friends who had been with her at a birthday party. After a few drinks, she had started to pass out, and her friends decided she must be drunk and put her to bed. Then someone checked on her later in the evening and found that Karen wasn't breathing. Her friends gave her mouth-to-mouth resuscitation and rushed her to the nearest hospital.

Blood and urine tests showed that Karen had not consumed a dangerous amount of alcohol. They also showed the presence of .6 milligram of aspirin and the tranquilizer Valium. Two milligrams would have been toxic, and five lethal. Why Karen stopped breathing was mysterious. But it was during that time that part of her brain died from oxygen depletion.

After Karen had been unconscious for about a week, she was moved to St. Clare's Hospital in nearby Deville, where testing and life-support facilities were better. Dr. Robert J. Morse, a neurologist, and Dr. Ashad Javed, a pulmonary internist, became her physicians. Additional tests were made. Extensive brain damage was confirmed, and several possible causes of the coma were ruled out.

NO LONGER THE SAME

During the early days, the Quinlans were hopeful. Karen's eyes opened and closed, and her mother and her nineteen-year-old sister, Mary Ellen, thought that they detected signs Karen recognized them. But Karen's condition began to deteriorate. Her weight gradually dropped from 120 pounds to 70 pounds. Her body began to contract into a rigid fetal position, until her five-foot-two-inch frame was bent into a shape hardly longer than three feet. She was now breathing mechanically, by means of an MA-1 respirator that pumped air through a tube in her throat. By early July, Karen's physicians and her mother, sister, and brother had come to believe it was hopeless to expect her ever to regain consciousness.

Only her father continued to believe it might be possible. But when he told Dr. Morse about some encouraging sign he had noticed, Dr. Morse said to him "Even if God did perform a miracle so that Karen would live, her damage is so extensive she would spend the rest of her life in an institution." Mr. Quinlan then realized that Karen would never again be as he remembered her. He now agreed with Karen's sister: "Karen would never want to be kept alive on machines like this. She would hate this" (Munson 2003, 326-7).

[Source: Munson, Ronald. *Outcome Uncertain: Cases and Contexts in Bioethics*. Singapore: Thomson Wadsworth, 2003.]

Quotation 2

The Oregon law is written so that only Oregon residents can ask physicians to assist them in suicide under the stipulated conditions. Thus, sick people have not migrated to the state with the idea of getting a physician's help in killing themselves.

Although the way seems clear for any terminally ill Oregon resident to seek help in dying, so far few people seem to have done so. In February 1999 state officials reported that in the first year under the new law, fifteen people in the state ended their lives with drugs legally prescribed for that purpose. (There were 29,000 deaths in Oregon in 1998.)

The average age of the eight men and seven women was 69. Thirteen had cancer, one congestive heart failure, and the other chronic lung disease (Munson 2003, 342).

[Source: Munson, Ronald. *Outcome Uncertain: Cases and Contexts in Bioethics*. Singapore: Thomson Wadsworth, 2003.]

Quotation 3

Critics charged that without the safeguard of a psychiatric evaluation, patients who sought out Kevorkian to help them kill themselves were likely to be suffering from depression. Hence, they couldn't be regarded as having made an informed, rational decision to end their lives (Munson 2003, 348).

[Source: Munson, Ronald. *Outcome Uncertain: Cases and Contexts in Bioethics*. Singapore: Thomson Wadsworth, 2003.]

Quotation 4

The construct of medical futility has been used to justify a physician's unilateral refusal to provide treatment requested or demanded by a patient or the family of a patient. Such decisions may be based on the physician's perception of the inability of treatment to achieve a physiologic goal, to attain other goals of the patient or family, or to achieve a reasonable quality of life.

Although there is general agreement with the notion that physicians are not obligated to provide futile care, there is vigorous debate and little agreement on the definition of futile care, the appropriate determinants of each component of the definition, or who should be the agents whose values determine the definition of futility. Proposed definitions of medical futility require 1 or more of the following elements:

The patient has a lethal diagnosis or prognosis of imminent death

Evidence exists that the suggested therapy cannot achieve its physiologic goal.

Evidence exists that the suggested therapy will not or cannot achieve the patient's or family's stated goals.

Evidence exists that the suggested therapy will not or cannot extend the patient's life span.

Evidence exists that the suggested therapy will not or cannot enhance the patient's quality of life

(The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists 2004, 791).

[Source: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. "Medical Futility." ACOG Committee Opinion no. 362 (March 2007), http://www.acog.org/from_home/publications/ethics/co362.pdf.]

Evidence 5

A sort of equality-based slippage has indeed happened in the Netherlands. Dutch courts began by declining to punish doctors who assist the suicides of the terminally ill. They then extended this to those who are subject to 'unbearable suffering,' without any requirement that they be terminally ill.

They then extended this to a person who was in seemingly irremediable mental pain, caused by chronic depression, alcohol abuse, and drug abuse, on the theory that the suffering of the mentally ill is 'experienced as unbearable' by them, presumably comparably to how the physically ill experience physical suffering.

Dutch courts then extended this to a 50-year-old woman who was in seemingly irremediable mental pain caused by the death of her two sons, again on the theory that 'her suffering was intolerable to her' (Volkh 2003, 25).

[Source: Volkh, Eugene, "The Mechanisms of the Slippery Slope." *Harvard Law Review* 116 (2003): 2-91.]

Quotation 6

Most critics rely predominantly on Dutch evidence of cases of 'termination of life without an explicit request' as evidence for the slide from voluntary euthanasia to non-voluntary euthanasia. According to the three national surveys of 'medical behaviour which shortens life' in the Netherlands, the cases in the 'termination of life without an explicit request' category represent less than one percent of all deaths.

The critics who rely on this slippery slope argument often omit two important elements, thereby using flawed logic. First, the argument is only effective against legalization if it is legalization which causes the slippery slope. Second, it is only effective if it is used comparatively, to show that the slope is more slippery in the Netherlands than it is in jurisdictions which have not legalized assisted suicide or euthanasia. Since these questions have not been addressed by critics, little attention has been paid to available evidence on causation and comparability.

There is no evidence demonstrating that the Netherlands has a greater rate of non-voluntary or involuntary euthanasia than other Western countries. Indeed, there is a significant amount of evidence demonstrating the prevalence of both voluntary and nonvoluntary active euthanasia in various jurisdictions in which euthanasia has not been legalized, looking at criminal prosecutions, admissions by doctors and anonymous surveys of medical professionals" (Lewis 2007, 200).

[Source: Lewis , Penney. "The Empirical Slippery Slope from Voluntary to Non-Voluntary Euthanasia." The Journal of Law Medicine & Ethics 35 no. 1 (2007): 197-210.]

Quotation 7

Requests for Assistance

Of the respondents, 18.3 percent (unweighted number, 320) reported having received a request from a patient for medication to use with the primary intention of ending the patient's life (Table 3), with a median of three such requests since the physician entered practice. Fewer physicians (11.1 percent; un- weighted number, 196) reported having received a request for a lethal injection, with a median of four such requests since the physician entered practice.

Compliance with Requests for Assistance

Only the 320 physicians who reported having received a request from a patient for a prescription for a lethal dose of medication were asked if they had ever written such a prescription. Sixteen percent of these respondents (unweighted number, 42), or 3.3 percent of the entire sample, reported that they had written a prescription for a lethal dose of medication, with a median of 2 such prescriptions (range 1 to 25) since they entered practice; 59 percent of the patients used the prescriptions to end their lives.

All the respondents were asked whether they had ever given a patient a lethal injection (Table 3); 4.7 percent (unweighted number, 59) reported that they had done so, with a median of 2 instances (range 1 to 150) in which they had administered lethal injections since entering practice (Meier 1998, 1195).

[Source: Meier, Diane, Carol-Ann Emmons, Sylvan Wallenstein, Timothy Quill, R. Sean Morrison and Christine K. Cassel. "A National Survey of Physician-Assisted Suicide and Euthanasia in the United States." *The New England Journal of Medicine* 338, no. 17 (April 23, 1998), <http://content.nejm.org/cgi/reprint/338/17/1193.pdf>]

Quotation 8

People with disabilities are more likely than those without disabilities to live below the poverty line, to be without insurance, and to use government insurance versus private insurers. Many persons with disabilities have personal histories of traumas and objectification at the hands of doctors, and there is a distrust, if not an antipathy, in the disability community toward medical professionals. Having two doctors (or, just as likely, employees of a health maintenance organization) making a determination of informed consent does not seem like an adequate safeguard for people with disabilities.

Inherent in the request for PAS [physician-assisted suicide] is the idea that one's quality of remaining life is sufficiently impaired that continued life would be cruel. But people without disabilities judge the quality of the lives of people with disabilities more harshly than do the people with disabilities themselves. If professionals think that of course the disabled person would want to die, might not these expectations play a disheartening role in someone's decision to seek PAS? Would a request for PAS from a person with disabilities be subject to less scrutiny because the decision makes sense to others?

In a society in which people with disabilities are one of the most disadvantaged minority groups, we do not have the luxury of thinking of PAS as a final act of self-determination. We are a vulnerable population, subject to forced sterilization, ostracization, stigma, and discrimination. It is not paternalistic to think that people with disabilities will be coerced into PAS (or killed without their permission); to argue that people with disabilities have as much free will as the nondisabled is to ignore the oppression of people with disabilities (Olkin 2005, 68).

[Source: Olkin, Rhoda. "Why I Changed My Mind About Physician-Assisted Suicide: How Stanford University Made a Radical Out of Me." *Journal of Disability Policy Studies* 16, no. 1 (Summer 2005): 68-71.]

Quotation 9

Physician-assisted suicide conjures fear that someone else will determine what is to be considered excessive suffering or costs, and that others might seek to eliminate the suffering or the costs by eliminating those persons who are perceived to be suffering or costly. The elderly are particularly vulnerable to the effects of inadequate health care resources and the attendant constraints on medical decision making.

Care of those who are elderly, particularly those approaching the end of life, has proven to be expensive. In an era when resources are increasingly being squeezed while the population ages and health care needs increase, the elderly and the dying compete against other portions of the population for health care services. Given the high and seemingly disproportionate costs of health care for the elderly and those in the final phase of life, these 'users of excessive medical resources' may be the targets of cost-saving efforts.

The calls for legalizing physician-assisted suicide arise in a social system that is inattentive to the complex physical, emotional, and spiritual needs of people as they near the end of life. Additionally, abuse is a real risk, especially among those who are elderly.

[Source: Cohn, Felicia and J. Lynn. "Vulnerable People: Practical Rejoinders to Claims in Favor of Assisted Suicide." In *The Case Against Assisted Suicide: For the Right to End-of-Life Care*, edited by K. Foley and H. Hendin, 238-260. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 2002.]

Evidence Exercise

Sample Answers

Evidence

1 Karen was in a critical comatose state of unknown cause and was being given oxygen through a mask taped over her nose and mouth... Her body began to contract into a rigid fetal position, until her 5-foot 2-inch frame was bent into a shape hardly longer than three feet... By early July, Karen's physicians and her mother, sister, and brother had come to believe it was hopeless to expect her to ever regain consciousness. Only her father continued to believe it was possible. But when he told Dr. Morse about some encouraging sign he had noticed, Dr. Morse said to him, 'Even if God did perform some miracle so that Karen would live, her damage is so extensive she would spend the rest of her life in an institution.' Mr. Quinlan then realized that Karen would never again be as he remembered her. He now agreed with Karen's sister: 'Karen would never want to be kept alive on machines like this. She would hate this' (Munson 2003, 326-7).

2 The construct of medical futility has been used to justify a physician's unilateral refusal to provide treatment requested or demanded by a patient or the family of a patient. Such decisions may be based on the physician's perception of the inability of treatment to achieve a physiologic goal, to attain other goals of the patient or family, or to achieve a reasonable quality of life.

Although there is general agreement with the notion that physicians are not obligated to provide futile care, there is vigorous debate and little agreement on the definition of futile care, the appropriate determinants of each component of the definition, or who should be the agents whose values determine the definition of futility (The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists 2004, 791).

3 The Oregon law is written so that only Oregon residents can ask physicians to assist them in suicide under the stipulated conditions. Thus, sick people have not migrated to the state with the idea of getting a physician's help in killing themselves.

Although the way seems clear for any terminally ill Oregon resident to seek help in dying, so far few people see to have done so. In February 1999 state officials reported that in the first year under the new law, fifteen people in the state ended their lives... The average age of the eight men and seven women was 69. Thirteen had cancer, one congestive heart failure, and the other chronic lung disease (Munson 2003, 342).

4 Critics charged that without the safeguard of a psychiatric evaluation, patients who sought out [euthanasia doctor] Kevorkian to help them kill themselves were likely to be suffering from depression. Hence, they couldn't be regarded as having made an informed, rational decision to end their lives (Munson 2003, 348).

5 A sort of equality-based slippage has indeed happened in the Netherlands. Dutch courts began by declining to punish doctors who assist the suicides of the terminally ill. They then extended this to those who are subject to 'unbearable suffering,' without any requirement that they be terminally ill.

They then extended this to a person who was in seemingly irremediable mental pain, caused by chronic depression, alcohol abuse, and drug abuse, on the theory that the suffering of the mentally ill is 'experienced as unbearable' by them, presumably comparably to how the physically ill experience physical suffering. Dutch courts then extended this to a 50-year-old woman who was in seemingly irremediable mental pain caused by the death of her two sons, again on the theory that 'her suffering was intolerable to her (Volokh 2003, 25).

- 6 Most critics rely predominantly on Dutch evidence of cases of 'termination of life without an explicit request' as evidence for the slide from voluntary euthanasia to non-voluntary euthanasia. According to the three national surveys of 'medical behaviour which shortens life' in the Netherlands, the cases in the 'termination of life without an explicit request' category represent less than one percent of all deaths... There is no evidence demonstrating that the Netherlands has a greater rate of non-voluntary or involuntary euthanasia than other Western countries (Lewis 2007, 200).
- 7 Eleven percent of the physicians [1,902 total] said that under current legal constraints [in which euthanasia is not allowed], there were circumstances in which they would be willing to hasten a patient's death by prescribing medication, and 7 percent said that they would provide a lethal injection... Since entering practice, 18.3 percent of the physicians...reported having received a request from a patient for assistance with suicide and 11.1 percent...had received a request for a lethal injection. Sixteen percent of the physicians receiving such requests...or 3.3 percent of the entire sample, reported that they had written at least one prescription to be used to hasten death, and 4.7 percent...said that they had administered at least one lethal injection" (Meier 2003, 1195).
- 8 People with disabilities are more likely than those without disabilities to live below the poverty line, to be without insurance, and to use government insurance versus private insurers. Many persons with disabilities have personal histories of traumas and objectification at the hands of doctors, and there is a distrust, if not an antipathy, in the disability community toward medical professionals...

Inherent in the request for PAS [physician-assisted suicide] is the idea that one's quality of remaining life is sufficiently impaired that continued life would be cruel. But people without disabilities judge the quality of the lives of people with disabilities more harshly than do the people with disabilities themselves. If professionals think that of course the disabled person would want to die, might not these expectations play a disheartening role in someone's decision to seek PAS?

In a society in which people with disabilities are one of the most disadvantaged minority groups, we do not have the luxury of thinking of PAS as a final act of self-determination. We are a vulnerable population, subject to forced sterilization, ostracization, stigma, and discrimination. It is not paternalistic to think that people with disabilities will be coerced into PAS (or killed without their permission); to argue that people with disabilities have as much free will as the nondisabled is to ignore the oppression of people with disabilities (Olkin 2005, 68).
- 9 Care of those who are elderly, particularly those approaching the end of life, has proven to be expensive. In an era when resources are increasingly being squeezed while the population ages and health care needs increase, the elderly and the dying compete against other portions of the population for health care services. Given the high and seemingly disproportionate costs of health care for the elderly and those in the final phase of life, these 'users of excessive medical resources' may be the targets of cost-saving efforts...

The calls for legalizing physician-assisted suicide arise in a social system that is inattentive to the complex physical, emotional, and spiritual needs of people as they near the end of life. Additionally, abuse is a real risk, especially among those who are elderly" (Cohn 2002, 238).

Evidence Bibliography

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Meier, Diane, Carol-Ann Emmons, Sylvan Wallenstein, Timothy Quill, R. Sean Morrison and Christine K. Cassel. "A National Survey of Physician-Assisted Suicide and Euthanasia in the United States." *The New England Journal of Medicine* 338, no. 17 (April 23, 1998), <http://content.nejm.org/cgi/reprint/338/17/1193.pdf>

Olkin, Rhoda. "Why I Changed My Mind About Physician-Assisted Suicide: How Stanford University Made a Radical Out of Me." *Journal of Disability Policy Studies* 16, no. 1 (Summer 2005): 68-71.

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Outline of Arguments

For Euthanasia

Euthanasia candidates' should be able to die with dignity and avoid unnecessary suffering

1. Illustrates a true account of a euthanasia candidate's suffering

Legal standards can be defined strictly so that they are not abused

3. In the Oregon case the laws governing euthanasia were defined strictly enough so that they were not abused
6. In the Netherlands the amount of non-voluntary euthanasia has not increased after euthanasia was legalized.

In the absence of a legal rule to allow euthanasia, euthanasia will still occur, except in secret and outside of the scope of regulation

7. In the United States doctors have admitted in surveys to having broken the law and ended their patients' lives in medically invasive ways in order to avoid their patients' future suffering

Against Euthanasia

Any standard used to qualify patients for euthanasia will be open to abuse

2. The standard by which you qualify for euthanasia by being considered medically futile is difficult, perhaps impossible, to define.
4. Euthanasia candidates are sometimes so depressed that their consent cannot be clearly given

Any legal euthanasia policy will become more and more permissive and potentially dangerous as the practice becomes seen as normal

5. In the Netherlands, after euthanasia was legalized, legal standards have evolved to make euthanasia an increasingly acceptable practice.

If euthanasia is legalized, the most vulnerable of society will be coerced into ending their lives.

8. The history of oppression and stigmatization of the disabled community suggests that they might be pressured to kill themselves by doctors who consider their lives to have less value
9. Elderly patients, who often require expensive and controversial life-sustaining medical treatment, are especially susceptible to abuse

Note Taking and Critical Exercises
on the Euthanasia Debate

International Bioethics Debate Tournament 2008 at Kyushu University

Final Round

Affirmative: Team USA (Bateman - Bonnifield)
Negative: Keio-Kyushu (Suzuki - Ishijima)

Resolution: "Resolved: That Euthanasia Should be Legalized."

March 17 & 18, 2008
Kyushu University Ropponmatsu Campus

(A complete recording of the debate is included in the attached DVD.)

Opinions expressed in the debate are NOT personal beliefs or opinions of debaters. Debaters in a competition represent the assigned side of the resolution and try to present possible arguments for their side.

This tournament was conducted based on the *Tournament Guide 2008* attached at the end of this book, which was modified into the *Tournament Guide 2009* included in Part II. Note that the *Tournament Guide 2008* less emphasized the importance of quotations than the 2009 guide.

Note Taking Exercise (Listen to the debate and fill in the blanks.)

Masako—1AC

- Affirmative proposes *legalizing euthanasia under the following conditions*: (1) have a terminal illness with less than 6 months to live, according to 3 doctors.
(2) _____;
(3) express a clear will to die; and
(4) _____.
- Many *patients are in agony* and want this option.
- There is *public support for euthanasia*—80% of Japanese would not want to prolong their lives if they became terminally ill.
- There is *support among* _____ *for euthanasia*—__% want living wills to be respected.
- But since euthanasia is illegal, *doctors are threatened with prosecution*. Recently the first doctor was charged in Japan.
- Eventually, *palliative drugs* can cause patients to _____, and *deprive them of a dignified death*.
- Suicide is legal but morally suspect. So *if suicide is accepted, why not euthanasia* when euthanasia seems more humane?
- Doctors still commit euthanasia illegally. *Without a legal framework, doctors may* _____.

Jon—1NC

- *Negative agrees that euthanasia can be justified*. The real question is *how* the decision should be made, to ensure that euthanasia only occurs in justifiable circumstances. *The status quo*, in which euthanasia remains illegal but happens anyway, *strikes a better balance than the model does*.
- *The model has no human element* to determine whether patients

_. Doctors only diagnose; the living will is only paper.
- *A patient's doctor* knows his patient's history and family. He *can judge her* _____ *better than a bureaucracy*.
- Doctors are willing to act because the threat of prosecution is _(high/low)_. But a _(high/low)_____ *threat helps make sure euthanasia only happens when necessary*.
- *Legalizing euthanasia makes* it seem like the default choice. *Patients* will believe that euthanasia is typical and *feel a burden to* _____.
- *The right model should err on the side of life*.

Ishijima—2AC

- ***Euthanasia***, unlike suicide, is very _____. Therefore, it ***will not become perceived as typical or expected***.
- ***Legalizing euthanasia will create more open discussion about death, which society needs***. More people will discuss death with their families and doctors, and write living wills.
- Open ***discussion will reduce the amount of non-consensual euthanasia***, which occurs when doctors do not have living wills to guide them and make decisions in secret.
- ***In the Netherlands, non-consensual euthanasia _____ after euthanasia became legal***.

Adam—2NC

- Many terminal patients live in agony, so euthanasia should be acceptable sometimes. But ***the framework for making this choice must be _____, rather than procedural and bureaucratic***.
- ***A terminal diagnosis can shock patients into rashly choosing death***. If a doctor knows that the patient may cope later, he should be able to prevent euthanasia.
- ***Patients may feel pressure from their families to die because the family might want to _____***.
- ***Open discussion of euthanasia could actually make decisions more difficult, if patients feel _____***.
- If patients truly need euthanasia, they should not have to be told about it.
- ***After legalization, euthanasia increased in the Netherlands*** because of changing attitudes toward death.

Jon—1NR

- Both sides agree that euthanasia should be allowed for terminal patients in great suffering. *The important thing is to guard against patients being euthanized against their will. Whichever side best prevents that problem should win.* An illegal, informal system is the best way to err on the side of life.
- Patients may perceive that society wants them to die, even if this pressure is only imagined.
- *To guard against decisions made under pressure, the doctor should be able to use his knowledge of _____ to veto euthanasia.* This is possible in the status quo, since euthanasia happens informally. But under the model, euthanasia would be an automatic right.

Masako—1AR

- It is possible that a patient's living will might not reflect her true desire—but *this risk is small compared to the risk of _____*, operating outside of the law, killing patients against their will.
- *The model contains many checks, including the _____.*
- *Patients are free to consult their family doctors and others if they wish.*
- *Under the model, euthanasia will only happen in extreme cases.* Creating this legal option is important for those with intolerable suffering.

Adam—2NR

- ***There are two consent problems.*** First, a doctor may know that his patient _____.
This kind of murder can happen on both sides. Second, a doctor _____.
This kind of mistaken euthanasia would happen more often under the model than in the status quo.
- ***Society should err on the side of life.*** This means telling uncertain patients that the law supports their continued life, rather than telling them that euthanasia is expected.
- ***The model provides no way to determine whether patients are of sound mind,*** except for the living will, which is only paper.
- ***No model that relies on bureaucratic processes can reliably determine consent,*** because _____.

Ishijima—2AR

- ***Society should perfect its laws*** to provide legal means for people to be happy.
- If euthanasia remains illegal, ***the guilt of law-breaking will*** _____.
- The Netherlands statistics prove that creating legal regimes reduces the amount of non-consensual euthanasia.
- ***Legalizing euthanasia will cause people to think more deeply*** and profoundly ***about life-and-death choices,*** and make these choices easier.
- ***There must be a clear line dividing good euthanasia from bad euthanasia.*** Without a legal regime, _____.

Final Round Flowsheet

1AC Masako	1NC Jon	2AC Yosuke	2NC Adam
<p>Affirmative proposes <i>legalizing euthanasia under the following conditions</i>: have a terminal illness with less than 6 months to live, according to 3 doctors. The patient must have unendurable pain; express a clear will to die; and be of legal age.</p> <p>Many <i>patients are in agony</i> and want this option.</p> <p>There is <i>public support for euthanasia</i>—80% of Japanese would not want to prolong their lives if they became terminally ill.</p> <p>There is <i>support among doctors</i>—80% want living wills to be respected.</p> <p>But since euthanasia is illegal, <i>doctors are threatened with prosecution</i>. Recently the first doctor was charged in Japan.</p> <p>Eventually, <i>palliative drugs</i> can cause patients to die or enter a coma, and <i>deprive them of a dignified death</i>.</p> <p>Suicide is legal but morally suspect. So <i>if suicide is accepted, why not euthanasia</i> when euthanasia seems more humane?</p> <p>Doctors still commit euthanasia illegally. <i>Without a legal framework, doctors</i> have a free hand, and <i>may kill patients self-righteously</i>, without proper consent.</p>	<p>Negative agrees that euthanasia can be justified. The real question is how the decision should be made, to ensure that euthanasia only occurs in justifiable circumstances. The status quo, in which euthanasia remains illegal but happens anyway, strikes a better balance than the model does.</p> <p>The model has no human element to determine whether patients have sound mind or are overwhelmed by social pressure. Doctors only diagnose; the living will is only paper.</p> <p>A patient's doctor knows his patient's history and family. He can judge her state of mind better than a bureaucracy.</p> <p>Doctors are willing to act because the threat of prosecution is low. But a small threat helps make sure euthanasia only happens when necessary.</p> <p>Legalizing euthanasia makes it seem like the default choice. Patients will believe that euthanasia is typical and feel a burden to justify their own lives.</p> <p>The right model should err on the side of life.</p>	<p>Euthanasia, unlike suicide, is very rare. Therefore, it will not become perceived as typical or expected.</p> <p>Legalizing euthanasia will create more open discussion about death, which society needs. More people will discuss death with their families and doctors, and write living wills.</p> <p>Open discussion will reduce the amount of non-consensual euthanasia, which occurs when doctors do not have living wills to guide them and make decisions in secret.</p> <p>In the Netherlands, non-consensual euthanasia declined after euthanasia became legal.</p>	<p>Many terminal patients live in agony, so euthanasia should be acceptable sometimes. But the framework for making this choice must be individual and humanized, rather than procedural and bureaucratic.</p> <p>A terminal diagnosis can shock patients into rashly choosing death. If a doctor knows that the patient may cope later, he should be able to prevent euthanasia.</p> <p>Patients may feel pressure from their families—to save money, or ease family discomfort.</p> <p>Open discussion of euthanasia could actually make decisions more difficult, if patients feel pressured and scrutinized.</p> <p>If patients truly need euthanasia, they should not have to be told about it.</p> <p>After legalization, euthanasia increased in the Netherlands because of changing attitudes toward death.</p>

(to be continued on the next page)

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1NR Jon	1AR Masako	2NR Adam	2AR Yosuke
<p>Both sides agree that euthanasia should be allowed for terminal patients in great suffering. The important thing is to guard against patients being euthanized against their will. Whichever side best prevents that problem should win. An illegal, informal system is the best way to err on the side of life.</p> <p>Patients may perceive that society wants them to die, even if this pressure is only imagined.</p> <p>To guard against decisions made under pressure, the doctor should be able to use his knowledge of the patient, the patient's family, and the disease to veto euthanasia. This is possible in the status quo, since euthanasia happens informally. But under the model, euthanasia would be an automatic right.</p>	<p>It is possible that a patient's living will might not reflect her true desire—but this risk is small compared to the risk of self-righteous doctors, operating outside of the law, killing patients against their will.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The model contains many checks, including the living will requirement, and the requirement that 3 doctors agree. <p>Patients are free to consult their family doctors and others if they wish.</p> <p>Under the model, euthanasia will only happen in extreme cases. Creating this legal option is important for those with intolerable suffering.</p>	<p>There are two consent problems. First, a doctor may know that his patient does not consent to euthanasia, but kill her anyway. This kind of murder can happen on both sides. Second, a doctor may want to follow his patient's wishes, but may misunderstand them. This kind of mistaken euthanasia would happen more often under the model than in the status quo.</p> <p>Society should err on the side of life. This means telling uncertain patients that the law supports their continued life, rather than telling them that euthanasia is expected.</p> <p>The model provides no way to determine whether patients are of sound mind, except for the living will, which is only paper.</p> <p>No model that relies on bureaucratic processes can reliably determine consent, because individual patients and their cases are so different.</p>	<p>Society should perfect its laws to provide legal means for people to be happy.</p> <p>If euthanasia remains illegal, the guilt of law-breaking will prevent doctors and patients from talking openly about this difficult decision.</p> <p>The Netherlands statistics prove that creating legal regimes reduces the amount of non-consensual euthanasia.</p> <p>Legalizing euthanasia will cause people to think more deeply and profoundly about life-and-death choices, and make these choices easier.</p> <p>There must be a clear line dividing good euthanasia from bad euthanasia. Without a legal regime, doctors have no line. The government should establish one by adopting the model.</p>

Notes and Critical Questions
on the Speeches
of the Final Round

Masako 1AC

Types of Evidence: In order to illustrate the suffering of patients requesting euthanasia, Masako uses special types of evidence that make her claims more persuasive.

- In explaining the pain of the terminal patient, she uses a personal anecdote told from the patient's voice. This choice allows her to draw attention to the most extreme, sympathetic cases of patients requesting euthanasia, immediately forcing the audience to contemplate the suffering of real people like themselves.
- Later in her speech, when Masako describes the body breaking down, Masako uses scientific evidence in order to support the stance that dealing with euthanasia patients can be done in a systematized way.

Legal Framework: Masako's argument that doctors commit euthanasia without consent in the absence of a legal framework adds an independent reason to reject the case. In other words, even if the Negative team successfully disputes the argument that people should have the right to die, Affirmative can still win the round by arguing that if euthanasia will occur either way, it is better for it to be legally regulated. This second line of argumentation therefore allows the Affirmative team to hedge their bets in case their main line of argumentation does not persuade the judges.

Question:

1. Why did Masako choose the three criteria for her model? How would her arguments and the round change if the criteria were different?

Jon 1NC

Changes Premise of the Debate: Instead of contesting that euthanasia can be justified for some patients, Jon concedes this argument, acknowledging it as a point of agreement between both teams. He then proposes that the type of euthanasia that occurs under the Status Quo is better than the type supported by the Negative team's legal framework, making this the point of debate in the round. This strategic choice had several advantages:

- It refocused the question being debated in the round from whether or not euthanasia is justified for the most suffering patients, a claim which the Negative team felt was very difficult to dispute, to the question of whether it is better that euthanasia occur out in the open or privately, which the Negative team felt more comfortable debating.
- It neutralized all of the Affirmative team's argumentation that illustrated the patient's suffering, since both teams strive to eliminate that suffering albeit with different plans.
- It surprised the other team and the judges, making the Negative case seem more interesting or novel.

Killing Without Consent: Jon contests the argument that killing without consent will happen more on the Negative side by explaining that the legal framework proposed by the Affirmative team does not prevent a doctor from killing his patient and reporting it as an accidental death. This observation rebuts the Masako's strongest argument why a legal model is better.

Question:

1. What stylistic choice(s) does Jon make in his speech to match his strategic decisions?

Yosuke 2AC

New Reasons to Support a Legal Framework: Yosuke accepts the Negative team's strategy to argue about which model of euthanasia is best and gives two major reasons why an open, public system would provide a more supportive environment for the euthanasia patient:

- His first reason, that euthanasia is rare enough that there is no real social effect, is an argument against the claim by the Negative team that a legal, public system would pressure patients to take their own lives.
- His second reason, that an open discussion would reduce non-consensual euthanasia, is an argument to strengthen his team's claim that a legal model is advantageous to the patient.

Adam 2NC

Reframing the Debate Using Language: Adam begins his speech by returning to the central question of the debate, using new terms to characterize a public, legal system as inflexible and unsupportive versus a private, illegal system as individual and humanized. He refers to the legal steps to qualify for euthanasia as a "bureaucracy" and compares the "procedurally focused" system to the "individualized" system of the Negative team.

Challenging Netherlands Statistic: Adam also takes issue with Yosuke's cited statistic that euthanasia in the Netherlands without consent decreased after a legal euthanasia policy was implemented. He claims that since overall euthanasia increased in the Netherlands, assuming that a legal euthanasia policy leads to cases of legal, non-consensual euthanasia, then the policy actually led to more wrongful death than under the Status Quo. In his argument, Adam is rebutting Yosuke's use of statistics by accepting the basic facts cited but challenging the interpretation of the evidence.

Jon 1NR

Weighing the Sides: After summarizing the Negative position, Jon asserts that "erring on the side of life" (in other words, avoiding innocent deaths) must be society's top priority. He states that whichever team can prevent more patients from dying against their will should win the debate round. This strategy has two advantages:

- It provides the judges with a mechanism for weighing each side's arguments to determine who should win. The judges may have their own weighing mechanisms in mind, but they might not be as favorable to Negative.
- It draws the judges' attention away from on Affirmative's strongest arguments. The Affirmative team would rather err on the side of relieving patients' suffering, which gives them important advantages. But by framing the loss of innocent life as the most important issue, Jon brings the debate back to Negative's strongest arguments.

Changing Rhetoric: In describing each team's position, Jon chooses words that highlight his underlying arguments. He calls the status quo "informal euthanasia" rather than "illegal euthanasia." This focuses on how euthanasia in the status quo can function as a flexible system, while downplaying the fact that serious rules are being violated. Jon also accuses the Affirmative of granting patients an "automatic right" to euthanasia. This emphasizes Negative's argument that the model is too bureaucratic and doesn't have enough checks.

Question:

1. Jon says that patients may imagine that others want them to die, even if no one is actually pressuring them. How does this reinforce the pressure argument?
2. Is this a new argument?

Masako 1AR

Comparing the Risks: Masako begins her speech by directly addressing the topic of Jon's speech—the risk of mistaken euthanasia. Masako implies that this problem would be rare under the model. But in the status quo, she argues, doctors are likely to murder or self-righteously kill their patients, because there is no legal framework to constrain and guide doctors' actions. Instead of simply responding to the Negative arguments one-by-one, Masako chooses to directly link a key Negative argument with a related Affirmative argument. This technique gives the judges a new way to look at the debate, and helps frame the round in Affirmative's favor. Even if Affirmative cannot defeat Negative's argument about mistaken euthanasia, Masako can try to show that this problem is smaller than another problem in the status quo.

Question:

1. Masako points out that the model still allows patients to consult with anyone they want about the euthanasia decision, including family doctors. Does this address Negative's argument that family doctors, who know their patients best, should be allowed to influence their decisions?
2. Masako ends her speech by reminding the audience that the model only allows euthanasia in extreme cases—not with obesity, for example. Was this an area of dispute in the round?

Adam 2NR

Categories of Consent: Adam draws a distinction between two different challenges for respecting a patient's consent: first, where a doctor knowingly kills his patient without her consent; and second, where a doctor mistakenly believes his patient consents to euthanasia when she actually wants to live. This distinction allows Adam to clearly contrast the two sides, by weighing the extent of each challenge for the Affirmative and the Negative. Adam argues that the first problem is equal on both sides, because even under the model, doctors can kill patients before the oversight process is triggered. But the second problem, according to Adam, is much more serious for Affirmative, because the model doesn't check against pressure or bad decisions. Adam realized that Negative doesn't need to beat Affirmative on both consent problems. It would be enough to draw on one problem and win on the other.

Question:

1. Adam claims that no bureaucratic model can account for the individual differences

between patients. Can you think of any variations on the model that could attempt to address this concern?

Yosuke 2AR

Returning to the Importance of the Legal Framework: Much of Yosuke's speech refocuses the audience's attention on the fact that the Negative team is proposing a plan that operates against the law. By reiterating the importance of society striving to perfect a legal balance between right and wrong, he is using the audience's intuition that laws are made to be followed in order to gain sympathy for the Affirmative's stance that a legal framework is more humane.

International Bioethics Debate Tournament 2008

at Kyushu University

Tournament Guide

Tournament Committee
Narahiko INOUE (Director)
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March 17 & 18, 2008

Kyushu University Ropponmatsu Campus
4-2-1 Chuo-ku, Fukuoka City
810-8560 JAPAN

Preliminary Tournament Schedule

Date: March 17 (Mon.) & 18 (Tue.)

March 17

13:00 Opening

14:00 Preliminary rounds 1

16:00 Preliminary rounds 2

18:00 Lecture "Issues in the Euthanasia Debate" by Dr. Carl Becker, Kyoto University

19:00 Reception Party

March 18

9:00 Preliminary rounds 3

13:00 Semi-finals

15:00 Final

16:00 Comments/Lecture

17:00 Closing

Preface

As medical science progresses, the ethical question of life and death, or more broadly bioethics, has become all the more important in decision-making in both public and private domains. Since informed debate is one of the effective ways to examine such vital questions, this debate tournament is a timely opportunity in which we can test how debate helps our understanding of one important question in bioethics, i.e., the legalization of euthanasia.

This tournament is a test case of intercultural communication in many senses, beyond a simple sense of an international tournament in which people from different countries participate. In debating bioethics, we have debaters of different backgrounds--medical and non-medical students as well as judges of different backgrounds--those debaters, competitive debate experts, and medical and medical ethics professors. In the style of competitive debating, some participants have been competing in Parliamentary Debate (extemporaneous style) and in Policy Debate (research-based style called "Academic Debate" in Japan).

Because of this "intercultural" nature of the tournament, we hope that each debate round will not simply be a competitive game but also an opportunity to exchange different opinions and perspectives about bioethics and debating. We hope that all the participants including audience members will enjoy both well-researched speeches and witty exchanges on the spot. Moreover, we will all learn more about the controversy around euthanasia and more broadly challenges in bioethics we are facing in this modern world.

I believe that this tournament is the first attempt of this kind and it has been materialized thanks to the help of many people including debaters and judges. I am also grateful to the tournament committee members, especially Adam Bonnifield, who helped me organize the tournament from the beginning of the planning and drafted this guide.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge with sincere gratitude that this tournament is generously funded by Kyushu University Interdisciplinary Programs in Education and Projects in Research Development (P&P), Kyushu University Faculty of Languages & Cultures (FLC), and Kyushu University FLC Department of English.

Narahiko INOUE

Professor, Kyushu University Faculty of Languages & Cultures

Tournament Format

Participants will convene to debate the motion/resolution:

Resolved: That Euthanasia Should Be Legalized.

Parameters

- (4) The resolution should be considered as a generic/universal proposition, rather than a specific policy statement in a particular country.
- (5) Euthanasia may include active and/or passive euthanasia.
- (6) The contents of the legalization may be subject to debate

Two two-person teams represent the affirmative and negative sides of the resolution that “Euthanasia should be legalized” in each round.

Each team debates once on the affirmative, once on the negative, and judges one round in the preliminary, which will lead to the semi-final and final rounds. Each round is judged by at least one debate expert/subject area expert and two debaters (from participating teams).

The dedicated judges will include the following invited experts:

Dr. Carl Becker, Professor of Medical Ethics, Kyoto University,

Dr. Shuji Shimizu, Associate Professor, Kyushu University Hospital,

Mr. Loke Wing Fatt, President of Society for Associated Inter-Tertiary Debaters (SAID), Singapore,

Mr. Logandran Balavijendran, Professor of Communication, Chung Ang University, Korea

Participating teams will consist of four international teams with debaters from Ewha Womans University (Korea), Kyunghee University (Korea), Hong Kong University, University Technology MARA (Malaysia), Cambridge University, Harvard University, and Cornell University; and four Japanese teams from Kyoto University, Kobe University, Kyoto Pharmaceutical University, and Kitakyushu University.

Team Notes and Time Standards

There are two teams: Affirmative/Government (comprised of the First Speaker or Prime Minister and the Second Speaker or Member of Government) and Negative/Opposition (comprised of the First Speaker or Leader of Opposition and Second Speaker or Member of Opposition). The speeches of each side will occur in the following order and duration:

1st Affirmative Constructive Speech_____	6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Negative Speaker_____	3 minutes
1st Negative Constructive Speech_____	6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 1st Affirmative Speaker_____	3 minutes
2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech_____	6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 1st Negative Speaker_____	3 minutes
2nd Negative Constructive Speech_____	6 minutes
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Affirmative Speaker_____	3 minutes
1st Negative Rebuttal Speech_____	4 minutes
1st Affirmative Rebuttal Speech_____	4 minutes
2nd Negative Rebuttal Speech _____	4 minutes
2nd Affirmative Rebuttal Speech_____	4 minutes

8 minutes of preparation time will be allowed in flexible amounts to each team, and may be used at any point before a team's speech or questioning in cross-examination, including before rebuttal speeches.

Debaters are requested to adhere to the time standards outlined above. After the limit of each speech, a 15 second grace period shall be extended to the speaker. Judges are instructed to disregard any argument made after the 15 second grace period unless: (1) a previous speaker on the opposing team exceeded the 15 second grace period; or (2) the remarks reasonably conclude the topic, and the speech ends immediately after.

Judges are permitted to penalize the debater's speaker points if the speech is unreasonably long, and are requested to take speech length into consideration when assigning ranks.

Debaters are not allowed to interrupt the opposing team during their constructive or rebuttal speeches for any reason. It is the responsibility of the judge to intervene in a speech if appropriate.

During the Cross-Examinations period, the speaker who has delivered the immediately preceding speech is questioned by one of the speakers from the other team as specified above. The examiner may only ask questions and may not make a statement. The examinee may only answer questions and may not ask a question except for clarification. The examiner shall control the cross-examination; he/she may interrupt the examinee when deemed appropriate.

Notes on Cultural and Style Difference

Rounds in this tournament are unique in that debaters might (a) have different assumptions about what constitutes relevant types of evidence and argumentation and (b) will possess very different English language abilities. For the sake of judging consistency, the following broad guidelines should be observed:

Evidence and Argumentation

Arguments that cite quotations are permitted. Quotations may be judged persuasive because of their author's academic or professional esteem, because of their rhetorical force, or because they substantiate a relevant fact. They should be documented and a source (bibliographic information) must be given if requested.

Debaters are not expected to provide quotations to substantiate their arguments, and should not be penalized outright for not relying on them. Quotations can be challenged by debaters in the round, however, as if they were the original speaker's own words, and the speaker is expected to defend them in the same way. All things being equal, an argument might appropriately be deemed more persuasive if it is substantiated by a quotation from a noted authority than if it is not.

Debaters should not be penalized outright for building a case primarily on a fact-driven basis or logic/intuition-driven one. More important in the judging process is whether the arguments of their case meet its assumptions, and whether overall it proves to be a compelling affirmation or negation of the round's resolution. A case whose premises require a set of facts to be substantiated might be deemed appropriately unpersuasive if those facts are not defended convincingly in the same way as a case whose premises require a rigorous analytic structure might be deemed appropriately unpersuasive if that structure is not defended convincingly.

Engaging the opposing teams arguments is a key responsibility of both teams, and is consistent with the overall responsibility of proving the strength of each team's case.

English Language Ability

The tournament will be conducted in English, but as an international event, English ability alone should not be conflated with impressive style. In fact, judges should make a good faith effort to pay attention to each team's speech and to be vigilant against any bias to preference teams with a stronger command of the English language.

Impressive stylistic quality can be appropriately be demonstrated in any number of ways (effective time management, organization, creativity, emotionality) which might be helped by but should not be excessively limited by language fluency alone.

Judging Assessment Guide

After the conclusion of the round, judges shall make independent determinations of which team won, and without conferring with other judges on the substance of the round, assign ranks and speaker points to each speaker.

Judges will rank the speakers in the round individually in order of 1 through 4 and assign speaker points (1-10) individually according to the scoring standards listed on the following page. No half-point scores such as 7.5 are allowed.

Judges are not permitted to assign low-point wins; the winning team shall have speaker-points greater and/or ranks lesser than or equal to those of the losing team.

Judges should assign automatic losses to teams that do not arrive to their rounds within 15 minutes of releasing pairings, and who are not prepared to debate within 20-25 minutes.

It will be left to the discretion of the chief judge to provide time for comments from the judges after the conclusion of the round. Judges are encouraged to provide substantive feedback, but not to reveal their decision in the round or otherwise make that decision obvious.

Scoring Standards

Speaker points will be assigned based on three subjective categories: Overall Quality, Stylistic Quality, and Argumentative Quality.

Quality (Points)	Overall Quality	Stylistic Quality	Argumentative Quality
Poor (1-2)	The speaker fails to perform important duties of his or her speech. This speech may contain some serious technical errors (diverges from the time standards). The speaker failed to address several important arguments/themes.	This speech is of poor quality. The speaker might have become flustered and failed to recover or was incoherent.	The arguments of this speech were unimpressive or incomprehensible; simple or superficial analysis proves them incorrect.
Fair (3-4)	The speaker performs nearly all of the duties of his or her speech. This speech may seriously diverge from the time standards. The speaker failed to address several moderately important arguments/themes.	This speech is of moderate quality; it is not impressive in creativity, tone or theme, and may contain serious rhetorical errors. The speaker may pause, become flustered, or seriously lack clarity.	The arguments of this speech are not impressive, and possibly refuted through simple analysis. The speaker may contradict his- or her- self.
Average (5-6)	The speaker performs all of the duties of his or her speech. This speech may diverge from the time standards. The speaker may fail to address several moderate to unimportant arguments/themes.	This speech is of moderate quality; it is not stylistically impressive, nor stylistically abrasive. The speaker may pause shortly, have moments of creativity and rhetorical flourish, might become momentarily flustered but recover, or lack clarity.	The arguments of this speech are neither obviously impressive nor clearly incorrect. The speaker attempts to address important arguments with new responses or examples.
Good (7-8)	The speaker performs all of the duties of his or her speech. This speech may slightly diverge from the time standards.	This speech is of above average quality. It contains several demonstrations of stylistic ability—is persuasive, thoughtful, or funny—but still contains some errors.	The arguments of this speech are more impressive than not. Important arguments are addressed with new responses. The speaker does not contradict his- or her- self unless by misspeaking.
Excellent (9-10)	The speaker performs all of the duties of his or her speech. This speech may only slightly diverge from the time standards.	This speech is of excellent quality. It consistently demonstrates creativity and thematic ability and may contain few errors that are barely noticeable.	The majority of the arguments of this speech are very impressive. Important arguments are addressed with new responses. The speaker does not contradict his- or her- self unless by misspeaking.

Speaking Roles and Responsibilities Guide

The following is a general guide as to what is expected in speeches and cross-examination but not intended as absolute rules. Participants are advised to debate with good intentions so that fruitful exchanges of ideas about euthanasia may be promoted.

Cross Examination: During Cross Examination periods, a questioner will have uninterrupted time to ask questions of a debater under question. The questioner will control the time during these periods, and has the right to interrupt the debater under question at his/her discretion and to move onto new questions. Debaters are advised, however, to be respectful to one another - to deliver brief answers under questioning and allow speakers to finish answers unless there is a compelling reason to interrupt.

First Affirmative Constructive (1AC): As the First Speaker of the Affirmative (Prime Minister), this speaker's responsibility is to advance a clear case statement consistent with the resolution/motion and its parameters. He/She is encouraged to offer any explanation or background of his/her case statement as necessary, including a definition of the resolution/motion stating the parameters within which the debate is to occur. This speaker may present a specific plan within the limit of the resolution/motion, which would (1) produce significant advantage(s) over the absence of such a plan, or (2) solve the serious problem(s). Finally, he/she must present a series of constructive arguments that support the case statement. The 1AC case will ordinarily consist of a proposed plan (or a definition of the resolution/motion) and three to five major arguments that support the case statement he/she has made.

First Negative Constructive (1NC): As the First Speaker of the Negative (Leader of Opposition), this speaker must state any important objections to the 1AC's case or the resolution/motion. The speaker is encouraged to attack the case proposed in 1AC (including any objection to the 1AC's definition of the resolution/motion and predicted disadvantages to be produced from the plan proposed in 1AC). He/she must also construct the negative team's independent arguments, including predicted disadvantages to be produced from the resolution/motion. The Negative team must accept the 1AC's interpretation/definition as long as it is reasonable and fair. If the speaker objects to 1AC's interpretation of the resolution/motion, he/she should voice this objection at the beginning of 1NC. The objection should be stated and explained. 1NC should then proceed with the round, leaving the matter for the judge to decide.

Second Affirmative Constructive (2AC): As the Second Speaker of the Affirmative (Member of the Government), the 2AC speaker should introduce any remaining new arguments for the Affirmative team, respond to the 1NC independent arguments, and reconstruct the Affirmative team's case in part by responding to the 1NC's (Leader of Opposition's) arguments.

Second Negative Constructive (2NC): As the Second Speaker of the Negative (Member of the Opposition), the 2NC speech should introduce any remaining new arguments for the Negative team and respond to the Member of Government's arguments. It is advised that 2NC and 1NR should divide the coverage of arguments so that any overlap may be avoided. For example, 1NC may want to extend the Negative team's independent arguments in 1NC and 1NR may want to extend the 1NC's refutation against the Affirmative case.

First Negative Rebuttal (1NR): The First Negative Speaker (Leader of Opposition) should continue to respond to the Affirmative arguments and/or reconstruct the Negative case in light of the 2AC responses. Major new arguments may not be introduced in the 1NR speech or any other rebuttal speech, and new argumentation should take the form of extensions or developments of arguments already made in earlier speeches.

First Affirmative Rebuttal (1AR): The First Affirmative Speaker (Leader of Government) should continue to defend the Affirmative case by responding to any major new arguments made in the 2NC and reconstructing the case from attacks made in the 1NR. As a rebuttal speech, major new arguments may not be introduced in the 1AR speech, and new argumentation should take the form of extensions or developments of arguments already made in earlier speeches.

Second Negative Rebuttal (2NR): The Second Negative Speaker (Member of Opposition) must summarize the round in order to frame the debate from the Negative's point of view. The 2NR should explain each of the reasons why the Negative has won the round and why these reasons outweigh the arguments the affirmative/government has made. This would also be the last opportunity to remind the judge briefly of any objections the 1NC raised about the case or the case statement. If the Affirmative has dealt with an issue vaguely, a 2NR might point out to the judge that the Affirmative has not made its position clear before the 2AR and that the Affirmative's exact position has not had to bare the brunt of the Negative's attack. A 2NR might point out any arguments that the Affirmative team failed to address, and explain why that failing helps the Negative team win the round. Because the 2NR is a rebuttal speech, no new arguments are allowed except for the responses to the 1AR arguments. New examples (evidence) are permitted.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal (2AR): The 2AR (Member of Government) must summarize the debate from the Affirmative/Proposition's point of view. Like the 2NR, the 2AR will spend time arguing the key arguments which might win the Affirmative the round. A good 2AR will not simply restate the arguments, but demonstrate why the Affirmative case outweighs the Negative's. A 2AR might also point out arguments the Negative team missed or ignored and explain their impact on the round. Like the 2NR, new arguments are not allowed except for the responses to the 1AR arguments. New examples (evidence) are permitted.