

Proving, Attacking, and Defending: An Analysis of Debating in English Speaking Societies (ESS)

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**Proving, Attacking, and Defending:
An Analysis of Debating in English Speaking Societies (ESS)**

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Abstract

This article analyzes three major acts in tournament debate in Japan. The analysis reveals special ways of speaking in debate within the debate community in Japan. First, PROVING is often reduced to the act of presenting EVIDENCE, or a quotation from published sources. Second, ATTACKING is considered the act of presenting evidence that directly denies the point. If a team does not attack the opponent's point, the team is said to have GRANTED or DROPPED the point. Third, DEFENDING is understood by many debaters as repeating their own earlier point. Taken together, this simplification of the three major acts in debate shows that debate has come to be like a video game in which many attacks are launched so that some of them may reach the enemy's territory. Judges often encourage this way of debating in effect by awarding the victory to the team which gives more evidence and more counter evidence, or to the team which pulls more arguments at the end of a debate.

1. Introduction

This study is an analysis of three major acts (PROVING, ATTACKING, AND DEFENDING) in one communication situation in which English is used among speakers of Japanese.¹ The situation is a particular kind of debate, called ACADEMIC DEBATE or more specifically TOURNAMENT DEBATE. In Japan, such debate in English is practiced among members of English Speaking Societies, or ESS for short. They are extracurricular students' clubs in which members are supposed to be practicing speaking English.

Students in ESSs are sometimes negatively described as trying to assimilate American or British English and their cultures (Lummis 1976; Tsuda 1990). But they are not only practicing "conversation" in English but they are studying and discussing contemporary issues of political and economic importance. Among them, those who specialize in debate, called DEBATERS, are special breed. They participate in intercollegiate debate tournaments and prepare for them. Although Japanese students modeled their ways of debating after its American counterpart, they have adapted their practices to their settings.

In both countries, debaters have developed a particular way of speaking English, or a particular way of debating, which is difficult for outsiders to understand. Such

debate is characterized by, among other things, unnaturally accelerated delivery, complicated structures of arguments, and heavy reliance on quotations for proving arguments. Their immediate goal in communication is to persuade a special kind of audience, i.e., the judges who can understand and are willing to accept this kind of debate. The judges are coaches of such debate. In Japan they are mostly senior students and recent graduates. The debaters and the coaches form a discourse community in which the members share discourse conventions and content-area knowledge (cf. Swales 1990).

The typical format of the debate is called 2-MAN STYLE debate with the AFFIRMATIVE and the NEGATIVE teams each with two members. A typical format is as follows:

1st Affirmative Constructive Speech (1AC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Negative Speaker	4 min.
1st Negative Constructive Speech (1NC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the 1st Affirmative Speaker	4 min.
2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech (2AC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the 1st Negative Speaker	4 min.
2nd Negative Constructive Speech (2NC)	8 min.
Cross-Examination by the 2nd Affirmative Speaker	4 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.

One special feature of academic debate is its method of note-taking called FLOW or FLOWSHEET as shown in Figure 1:

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

Figure 1. Sample Flowsheet²

When we observe the participants of a debate, all of them (debaters, judges, and most other people in the room) are not looking at the speaker but are busy taking notes in a format called flowsheet. The chart in Figure 1 is a constructed example of a part of flowsheet. Real flowsheets are not as neat as this. The idea is to write down the contents of the first speech in the first column. If the next speaker has arguments concerning the same points as the first speech, those arguments are written down side by side in the second column. If there is no argument about the same point in another speech, that part of the column is left blank.

Among special discourse conventions and ways of debating, I focus on major acts in communication and their interaction with other components of communication. In the remaining sections, I will first analyze the act of PROVING especially in light of the special importance of evidence. Second, I will analyze the act of ATTACKING in terms of the perceived strength of different ways of attacking. Third, I will analyze the act of DEFENDING which consists of PULLING and EXTENDING original arguments. Fourth, I will discuss how arguments are dealt with in REBUTTAL speeches.

2. Proving

Classic Greek rhetorical tradition of Aristotle has been handed down to contemporary academic debate. The pamphlet of a debate tournament (The 15th Sophia University Invitational Debating Tournament, held at Sophia University, Tokyo, October 10, 11, and 12, 1980) put the following epigraph in the middle of the first page (Figure 2):

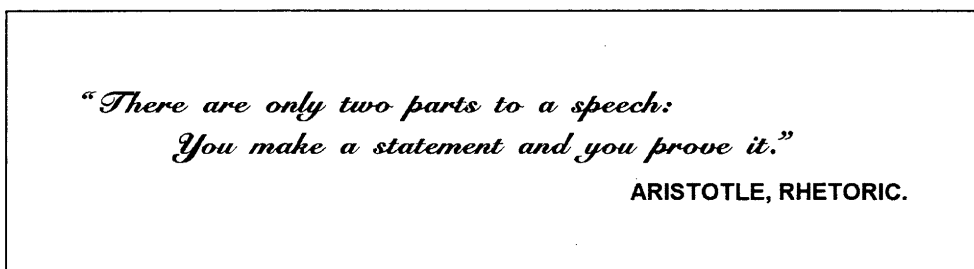


Figure 2. Epigraph in a Debate Tournament Pamphlet

Aristotle's influence on modern academic debate is acknowledged in a more generic way by a debate textbook: "The Rhetoric of Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) laid the foundation of argumentation and debate and is influential even to the present day." (Freeley 1976: 17-18).³

Proving is probably the most important concept in debate. Debaters all learn that they must prove their arguments. But proving has a special meaning in the debate community. Debate textbooks give a normative view of proof in academic debate. For example, a leading textbook defines the burden of proof as "*the inherent obligation of those advocating change to provide sufficient evidence and arguments to overcome the presumption of existing beliefs or policies.*" (Ziegelmüller, Kay, & Dause 1990: 19; emphasis original) They further note that the standard of proof depends on the community in which argumentation takes place.

To prove or a proof in the context of debate (and in many other contexts of argumentation) is different from proof in mathematics or in experimental sciences. Proving in debate is considered to be showing a probable truth of a claim, in contrast to proving in mathematics or in syllogism which is to show that a conclusion is necessarily true given the true premises. A probable truth is shown by means of offering evidence and reasonable justification for inference from evidence to the claim.

Although academic debate may have originated as a means of training students in proving arguments in real-world situations, it has developed its own standards of proof, which do not necessarily have any real-world equivalent. In the following three subsections, I will analyze these standards of proof as a case of cultural rhetoric in students' ways of speaking in debate.

2.1. Evidence/Support/Card

If a CLAIM is not accompanied by PROOF, it is called an ASSERTION. Students often say, "It's only your assertion," meaning that the claim without proof should not be accepted by the judge.

In tournament debate, proving is interpreted as reading EVIDENCE, or quotations from published sources. Such evidence is most likely statements of professors and analysts. This is not the only possible form of proof in debate and indeed any debate textbook (but not students' manuals) discusses evidence in certain detail, mentioning different types of proof and different types of evidence. But in debaters' language, "Did you prove it?" is synonymous with "Did you read evidence?" And EVIDENCE, in their mind, is "a quotation from a published source." "May I borrow your evidence?" and "May I borrow your card(s)?" are synonymous since each quotation is recorded on a small index card.

2.2. Sources of Evidence

Students collect a large amount of EVIDENCE from different sources since one common TOPIC (more technically called PROPOSITION or RESOLUTION) is used in most

tournaments in a year or half a year. Many of the quotes come from ordinary books and periodicals they read. They go to university libraries and public libraries. They buy books for themselves. Some schools provide a certain amount of budget to buy books for debate (via ESSs) but in most schools it is very limited.

Students can use the accumulated stock of EVIDENCE in their team. Even if the topic for the season is different from those of past years, some of the issues recur. For example, the problem of atomic power plants has come up under several different propositions. GENERIC DISADVANTAGES are used for many years, because they are disadvantages common to many affirmative plans, such as an abrupt change of government policies and increased government spending.

Another popular method of collecting evidence is copying evidence from transcripts of the past debates. These include MODEL DEBATES for the season's topic, transcripts of final rounds in some major national tournaments. MODEL DEBATES are given by seniors as a demonstration for younger debaters in the beginning of the season. Actually many teams which are either unable or unwilling to afford time and energy to do a lot of original research often use the AFFIRMATIVE CASE and DISADVANTAGES used in a model debate.

2.3 Translation, Distortion, and Fabrication of Evidence

The importance of evidence is reflected in debaters' attitudes toward the use of questionable evidence. The fact that distortion of evidence or sloppy translation of evidence is wide-spread can be seen as a consequence of a particular way of speaking in debate, i.e., using quotations from published sources as the primary mode of proving.

Since the outcome of the debate often depends on evidence, debaters are desperate for strong evidence. "Strong" for them is that the quotation directly makes their point. Although debaters do not want to cheat outright and make up non-existent evidence, they often come to lower their ethical standard for collecting evidence. Since most of the quotations they use are translated from Japanese sources into English, there is a lot of room for intentionally and unintentionally changing the meaning in the process of translation.

As the advisor in one school, I was on many occasions asked by my students to check the accuracy of a translation. Their translation is far from accurate. Although many of such translations do not change the gist of the original passage, some do change the meaning. If an author makes a prediction which is qualified by a complex of conditions, its translation may seem to become "stronger" evidence because some of those conditions were not translated or were simplified. Students sometimes translate what they consider the author's intent, not exactly what the author wrote in so many

words. Their intention may be truly for the sake of a more intelligible translation especially if the original passage was poorly written. But debaters often, consciously or unconsciously, translate Japanese into English in a way that will benefit them, with the excuse that they are "translating the author's intent."

Outright fabrication, i.e., completely fictional evidence, is rare. I have never encountered such a case. In fact, students think evidence should be facts and opinions they encounter in real-world (non-fiction) publications. Once I suggested that the affirmative might propose a case entirely based on a problem that happened in a novel. It might argue that the problem led to a serious consequence in the novel. The affirmative plan would solve the problem in the novel. But my students did not accept the idea. Students think that evidence must come from non-fiction publications, even while they allow themselves considerable latitude in translation.⁴

If a distortion of evidence (or fabrication, of course) is revealed during a debate, there are serious consequences for the offending team. Some judges including myself make it clear that such unethical practices will be penalized. Once I voted against a team because they quoted a passage which was made up of two (or more) passages appearing in different parts of an article in a newspaper. This distortion was found because the other team had the original article and showed it to me.⁵

There are several documented cases of evidence distortion and fabrication. Since the mid-1980s, the NAFA has been verifying quotations used in the final rounds of its tournaments. Many of the finalists in NAFA tournaments have been accused of distorting their evidence. The first of such cases is reported in its journal in 1985 (Zen Nippon Eigo Tooron Kyookai Rijkai 1985: i-iii). Some of the accused teams lost their prizes after questionable evidence was examined in NAFA board meetings. The frequency of problematic evidence in final rounds suggests that the problem is widespread.

This analysis of the use of evidence in debate has revealed that debaters have particular norms about standards of evidence. On the one hand, they observe a strict rule that evidence must come from published sources. On the other hand, many of them have a loose standard about accuracy of quotation, especially in translation. More precisely, even though they know that quotations must be accurate in theory, their actual practice is deviant. The quality of debaters' translations suggests that linguistic ability in English is not their priority in debate. At least their ability to translate Japanese into English is not at a level that enables them to comfortably translate passages about contemporary social issues.

3. Attacking

When an argument is presented by an opponent, the debaters' job is to refute or attack it. In textbook terms, debaters have the BURDEN OF REFUTATION or BURDEN OF REJOINER (e.g., Hanson 1990: 24-25). The term BURDEN OF REBUTTAL is also used to refer to the same concept in a textbook written by Ziegelmueller, Kay, and Dause (1990: 20) but it may be restricted to a narrower sense of the obligation to rebuild one's own argument when it is attacked (Hanson 1990: 24).⁶

There are two major ways of attacking an argument presented by the other side. One is to show that the proof offered by the other side has not been adequate; this is based on the norm that the one who initiates an argument has the burden of proving it. What debaters call DOUBTING and EVIDENCE ATTACK fall into this category. The other is to present and prove a claim that contradicts the argument. Debaters present COUNTERARGUMENT, COUNTER ANALYSIS, and COUNTER EVIDENCE for this purpose.⁷ Debaters are aware of these two ways of attacking and they do combine them in debate. However, they often see the first method (doubting and evidence attack) as weaker than the other method (counterargument etc.). Let me briefly discuss why this is the case in the debate community.

At a macro level, e.g., whether the affirmative team prevails,⁸ the negative team's doubting the affirmative case is considered weaker than the negative team's presenting their own arguments, e.g., disadvantages. If the affirmative argues that their plan would produce advantages, the negative could win the debate by showing that the affirmative proof was not enough, i.e., doubting. Many of the current judges, however, prefer that the negative has its own case. They think that the advantages of the affirmative plan would remain to a certain degree even if attacked by the negative. They are reluctant to vote for the negative unless it shows disadvantages of the affirmative plan or a new plan of its own (called a COUNTERPLAN). Those judges think that the affirmative plan, even weakened, is better than nothing.

At a micro level of individual arguments, debaters' preference for counterarguments and TURNAROUNDS is due to an approach of many judges who only ask for a minimum requirement of acceptable proof.⁹ They call this approach a TABULA RASA, a blank slate on which any kind argument can be written.¹⁰ This is contrasted to the CRITIC-OF-ARGUMENT approach in which a judge has a standard for acceptable quality of arguments. In front of a tabula-rasa judge, the debaters' effort to attack evidence and reasoning may be in vain unless they can completely destroy evidence or reasoning; otherwise the judge would accept the other side's claim, "They didn't deny our evidence. They didn't have any counterevidence. So our argument stands." An extreme

case of this kind of judging philosophy, sometimes called *suupaa tabura* 'super tabula rasa,' is found in the judging philosophy statement of a senior student:

Any kinds of argument is acceptable to me. ... I dislike intervention in evidence. I take evidence without reason because I can't deny authority.

(M. T.; original in English)

Even a critic-of-argument judge may have a very low standard of acceptable argument that makes him indistinguishable from a tabula rasa judge when he says:

I regard myself as a "Critic of argument" judge. I adopt argument only when it is logically constructed and well-proven by evidences. But my critical standard is so low and you can easily jump on it. Don't worry about my intervention.

(H. I.; original in English)

Doubting, in this situation, is a risky strategy. It is also easier for debaters to read prepared counterevidence or counterarguments than directly to attack evidence and reasoning which must often be done on the spot.

4. Defending

When one's argument is attacked, it must be defended. In tournament debate PULLING and EXTENDING original arguments are the keys to such defending.

From a normative viewpoint, to *extend* means '[to] rebuild a previous argument by adding fresh analysis and arguments to support that previous argument' (Hanson 1990:63). In contrast, to *pull* means '[to] restate the importance of a previously made argument' (Hanson 1990:144). EXTENDING, then, is to go beyond the original argument but PULLING is merely to restate the original argument.

An American debate textbook influential with leaders of the Japanese debate community discusses "extending arguments" in some detail (Patterson and Zarefsky 1983). Chapter 6 ("Refuting and Rebuilding the Case") introduces the concept of extending arguments as follows:

When people argue, they usually do not merely restate their original claims. In response to attacks and defenses, they amplify their initial claims and may introduce new ones. This process of elaborating the original claim is called *extending the arguments*, and it is a vital part of refuting or rebuilding a case.

(Patterson and Zarefsky 1983:72)

Then the authors discuss three ways of extending: using counter evidence, presenting counterarguments, and turning (i.e., turning around) the opposing arguments (pp. 72-

73). More specific discussion of extending arguments is found in their Chapter 7 "The Conventions of Academic Debate" and their Chapter 16 "The Rebuttal Speeches."

In a Japanese textbook for tournament debaters, PULLING is considered part of EXTENSION. Its Appendix 1 "Strategy and Rebuttal" gives four pieces of advice: (1) Selecting arguments is important; (2) Briefs for extension are needed; (3) Pulling is important; and (4) Extend [arguments] with combined refutation. Under (3) we find:

Many arguments are often dropped by both sides in rebuttal. At this moment [when an argument is dropped], you should immediately tell [the judge] to pull your arguments that the opponent has dropped. Since tournament debate is ultimately a battle on judges' flowsheets, it is one of the important tactics how to skillfully fill the flowsheet with your arguments. ...¹¹

(Kaniike et al. 1986: 251; translation by Inoue)

On the flowsheet (see Figure 3 for illustration), pulling an argument or evidence is usually marked with an arrow from the previous place of mentioning the argument (the initial place or the place where the argument was previously pulled) to the place where the argument is pulled. An extension is also written down on the flowsheet with an arrow connecting it with the previous argument in question (in most cases, the opponent's response to one's own argument).

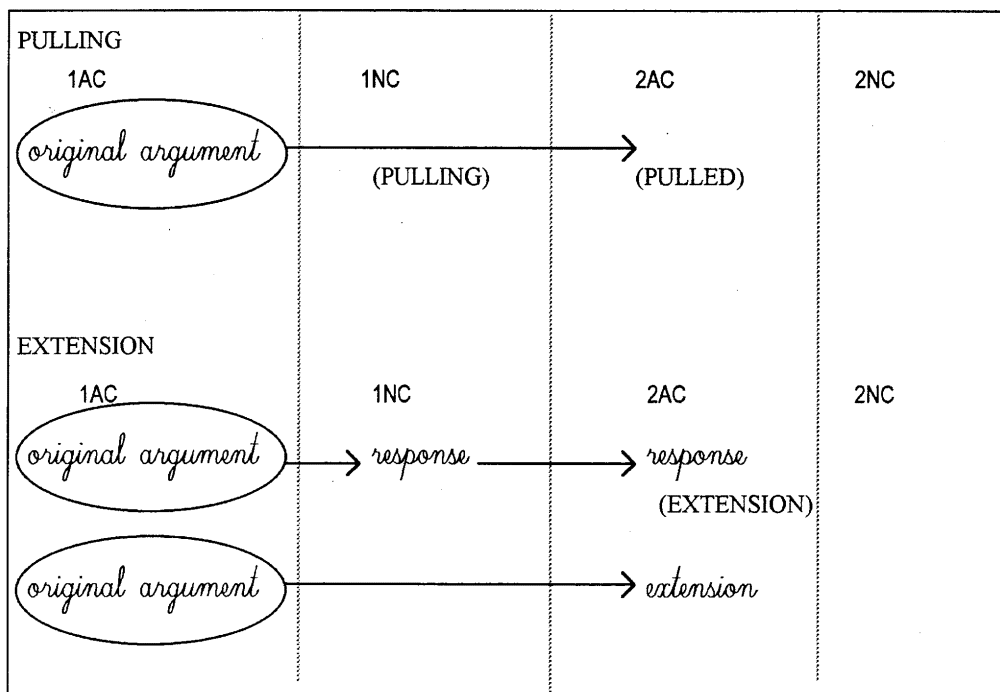


Figure 3. Pulling and Extension on Flowsheet

For Japanese students, extending means both going beyond the original argument (i.e., normative sense) and restating the original argument (i.e., the same as pulling), but when they say, "I'll extend argument X," they only restate their original argument more often than going beyond it. For one thing, many think that they are not allowed to go beyond the original argument in rebuttal speeches because of their understanding of the "no new argument in the rebuttal" rule (I'll discuss this more in detail in the next section). If they want to extend arguments but cannot go beyond the original arguments, they will pull, i.e., merely restate the original arguments. Moreover, some debaters cannot go beyond the original arguments, even if they want to, because they do not have enough time to introduce additional information (via their words or quotations) in rebuttal speeches which are only half the length of constructive speeches, or because they have not prepared anything beyond their original constructive arguments.

Some of the structural contrasts found in the transcribed data show how the word *extend* is used by debaters:

(1) *I'll extend X*. Debaters use *I'll extend X* in a ROADMAP (i.e., a preview of the organization of their speech) or, in the middle of a speech, as a transition to a new section. In this usage, extending means going beyond original arguments, unless the whole content of the extension is pulling subpoints and previously introduced evidence. Even in such cases, debaters usually say, "Subpoint A. They dropped. So pull this point," or something to this effect; their pointing to the opponents' failure to respond to their argument is at least something beyond the original argument.

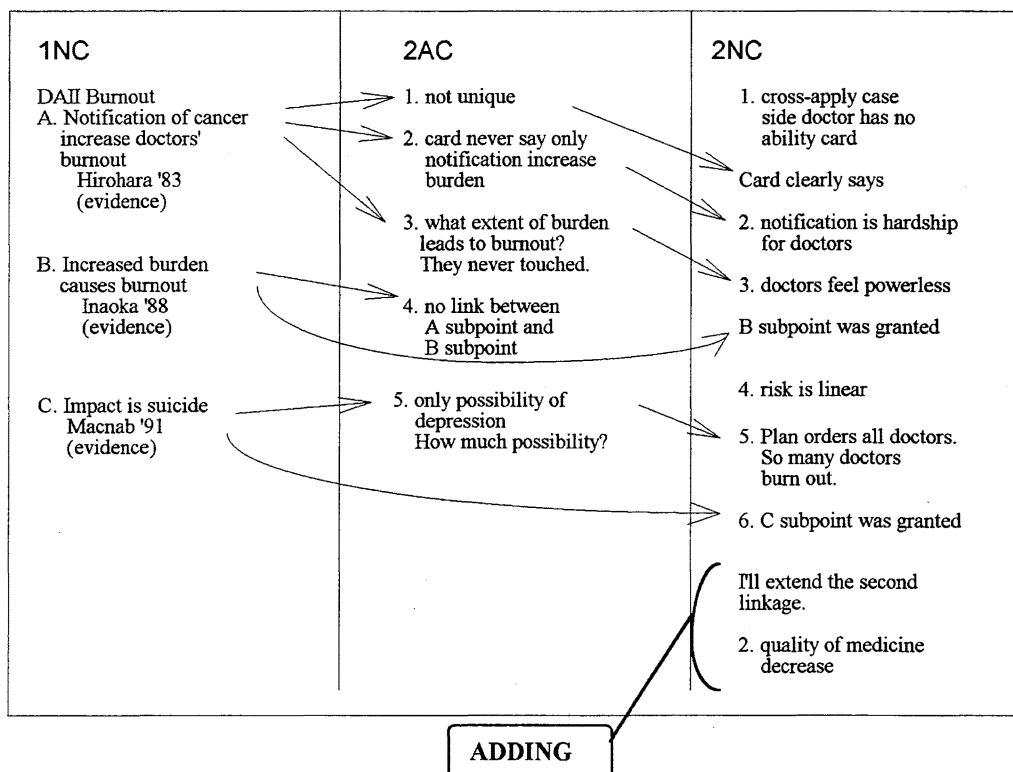
(2) *Please extend (X)*. Extending in this usage means pulling. First, the agent of extending is the judge but the judge cannot go beyond debaters' arguments.¹² It is apparent that the speaker is asking the judge to remember that the argument is still alive at the point of speaking. He is asking the judge to draw an arrow on the flowsheet to make sure that the judge indicates the pulling on his flowsheet. Second, *please extend* is often preceded by the referring to the opponents' dropping or granting the argument as in:

Next about advantage two uu turnaround notification counselor uu decrease the quality of life uu totally granted by affirmative so please extend. (Transcript 061792-2NR)

When an argument is GRANTED by the other side, debaters usually do not go beyond the original argument but simply pull it, unless they want to expand the argument so that it will be even stronger, possibly to influence the outcome. Third, *please extend* is placed at the end of one unit of refutation as something like a final reminder to the hearer before moving to the next unit.

(3) Extending an argument or evidence (a card). Usually evidence can only be pulled, not "extended," in the sense of going beyond the original. In fact in my data, I do not find any instance of *I'll extend X*, where X refers to evidence or a card.

(4) Extending as expanding and adding to one's own argument. In most cases, extending an argument means rebuilding one's own (or partner's) argument with refutation of the other team's responses to it. But in some cases, what a debater means by *extending* is expanding, i.e., giving more information about one's own argument in the absence of the other side's response.



(Reconstructed from Transcript 062192)

Figure 4. Extending as Adding on Flowsheet

Similar to expanding, *extending* is also used (at least used once in my transcripts) to mean "adding" as in *I'll extend the second linkage* (see the bottom of the 2NC column in Figure 4). What the speaker here did was to add another IMPACT to DAII (DISADVANTAGE II), not another linkage between the plan and the impact.¹³ The 1AC speaker said that an impact of Disadvantage II was doctors' suicides. The 2NC speaker (in the 3rd column in Figure 4) said that another impact was the decrease of quality of

medicine. She concluded this unit of her speech by saying, "Please extend on that point. Okay?" *That point* probably refers to Subpoint C, the impacts of Disadvantage II.

5. New Arguments

"No new argument may be introduced in rebuttal speeches." This is one of the few written rules of tournament debate. It is especially worth noting because it regulates the content of debate and is, unlike rules of speaker order and time limitation, liable to subjective interpretation. Normatively, new constructive arguments may not be presented in rebuttal speeches. The rationale behind this is that rebuttal speeches are for deepening arguments already presented in constructive speeches. This is considered to increase the analysis of issues, to help debaters acquire a dialectical skill, and to help the audience understand issues (Patterson and Zarefsky 1983: 244).

What is "new" varies depending on judges and debaters. This section discusses the interpretation of what is new in the current debate community in relation with pulling and extending arguments in rebuttals. As I discussed in the previous section, most (at least many) of the cases of extending an argument simply involve "pulling" the argument or the evidence. This usage reflects the debaters' interpretation of what is new in rebuttals. Extending an argument or going beyond the original argument is allowed by a rule only within the limit of "no new argument."

For many debaters and judges, any new idea in a rebuttal speech is considered a new argument. Some students even consider new evidence as a new argument (Igarashi & Shimizu 1991: 3-4). I once heard an interesting exchange between debaters and a judge who had a different interpretation of what is new. At the Nanakuma Trophy Debate Tournament in Fukuoka (December 11 & 12, 1993), two debaters from a local university were talking with N-san, the chief judge of the tournament. One of the debaters asked about new arguments. When I passed by them, N-san asked me if it was standard practice that no evidence might be read during the rebuttal. She said that she was surprised to hear that nothing new might be said during the rebuttal nor that any new evidence might be read. She then asked the debaters what they could possibly do in the rebuttal. I told her that some students mistakenly thought they could not present any new argument or evidence in the rebuttal. Later I told her that many students thought extending is the same as pulling.

A similar misconception among debaters exists in the American debate community as an American debate educator suggests:

Contrary to a widely held misconception about rebuttals, debaters may present new arguments in rebuttal, but these new arguments must conform to certain

rather specific guidelines. When debaters are taught the primary rule of rebuttals --that is, "No new arguments may be introduced in rebuttals"--what is meant is that the main arguments and positions of the two teams must have been presented in the constructive speeches.

(Thomas 1987:91 [originally published in 1973, see p. 562 for publication information])

In summary, rebuttalists may not present new *main* arguments for or against either side's case, but they should include extensions of previously made constructive arguments and also refutation of the opponents' arguments that damage one's own case. The rule about "no new arguments" does not mean "no arguments at all." While summaries are useful and needed in rebuttals, a judge who hears only summaries and repetitions of previously introduced arguments and evidence must wonder why the debate continued beyond the constructive speeches.

(Thomas 1987/1973: 93)

It is not known to me at this moment of writing whether the narrow interpretation of what is new was introduced to Japan from America or has been independently developed in Japan.¹⁴

What is going on in Japan is the interaction between several things: a JUDGING PHILOSOPHY called (2ND) REBUTTAL TABULA RASA, a great concern for PULLING and DROPPING arguments, and a narrow interpretation of NEW ARGUMENTS. For their decision, REBUTTAL TABULA RASA judges listen to what is EXTENDED (i.e., PULLED in most cases) in rebuttals. 2ND REBUTTAL TABULA RASA judges give decisions based on what the 2nd rebuttal speakers said. When an argument has been DROPPED (i.e., not mentioned) in rebuttals, it will be out of consideration for decision even if it has not been attacked by the other side. A justification for this is that debaters have made a strategic choice of dropping the argument, whether it's a good or bad choice, and so the judge must follow it for the sake of "objectivity."¹⁵ This kind of judging also saves judges' efforts because they do not need to weigh carefully arguments presented in both constructive and rebuttal speeches. DROPPING arguments is often fatal, and debaters tend to pull all arguments hoping that the opponent may drop some of them. It is understandable that NEW ARGUMENTS are interpreted very narrowly because NEW ARGUMENTS in rebuttal speeches would carry a greater weight for REBUTTAL TABULA RASA judges than for those who consider both constructive and rebuttal arguments. Such judges consider that any new argument in rebuttals is unfair. When debaters hear any new point in their opponent's rebuttal speeches, they clamor, "That's new. It's unfair," hoping that the judge will not accept the point.¹⁶ The consequence is a

reduction of debate into a simple game of PULLING and DROPPING arguments. One of the concerned students lamented:

Is the objectivity of the game a traffic control of judging whether an argument is attacked, pulled, or dropped only based on its claim regardless of the content of the card? Traffic control can be done if the numbering and the number of cards are correctly recorded even without the content of the claim. This would make debate not an intellectual game of logic any more but something only as valuable as a video game in a game center.

(Kadowaki 1993: 7; translation by Inoue)

6. Conclusion

I have discussed several important acts in argumentation, namely, proving, attacking, and defending. These acts have special functions in academic debate; they were developed in academic debate in America, and, then, were adopted and adapted into the Japanese debate community. Linguistic forms in which those acts are realized also show features characteristic of the debate community. The members of the debate community also have their own norms about those acts. We have a case here in which a peculiar system of speech acts has been developed by the members of a discourse community.

From the pedagogical viewpoint, the analysis revealed an unfortunate discrepancy between the ideal of debate as training of argumentation and the reality of debate as reduced to a video game. This has serious implications for educators including myself.

Notes

¹This article is a revised version of Chapter 6 of my dissertation (Inoue 1994). The current analysis of language and communication in debate is based on a sociolinguistic approach of ethnography of speaking/communication (Hymes 1974). The data came from students' writings and transcripts of recorded debates as well as introspection and participant observation of myself as a debater, coach, and judge.

²The noun *flowsheet* refers to both notes taken in the special format and the physical sheet of paper on which notes are written down.

³The influence of Aristotle is sometimes less visible. For example, Freeley's textbooks use Aristotle's syllogism and enthymeme to explain structures of reasoning in some editions (Freeley 1976; 1993) but not others (Freeley 1981; 1986). Most of the contemporary debate textbooks including those by Freeley use Toulmin's model of arguments (cf. Toulmin 1958).

⁴Because of its very nature, whether translation is accurate or not is vague. In contrast, the distinction between fiction and non-fiction is more or less clear-cut.

⁵Judges are unlikely to initiate a charge of unethical use of evidence while a debate is in progress; they will most likely check the questionable evidence after the debate and give a decision incorporating their finding about the evidence. Debaters are likely to point to the other team's unethical practice during the speeches or in the appeal time immediately after the last speech. Some tournaments have explicit rules about unethical uses of evidence including a provision that allows debaters to appeal to the tournament committee within a certain period of time after the tournament.

⁶The term *rebuttal* is used in two senses in debate: one referring to a speech in the second part of a debate in which both refutation and rebuilding take place; and the other referring to the rebuilding of one's own arguments when attacked. For example, Hanson's dictionary gives two separate entries "rebuttal (1)" and "rebuttal (2)." (Hanson 1990: 150).

Incidentally, the related verb forms commonly used in debate are to *rebuild* and to *refute*. To *rebut* is seldom used in students' debate; at least I do not remember the use of that word in their debate. I have observed a case of back-formation to *refutate* in a practice round (Transcript 061992-2NC; the speaker was Y.).

⁷ A COUNTERARGUMENT is an argument that directly contradicts the opponent argument. A COUNTER ANALYSIS is an analysis that contradicts the opponent analysis of the same problem; for example, if the affirmative presents an analysis that a disease X is caused by a chemical X, the negative may present a counter analysis that X is only caused by a chemical Z. COUNTER EVIDENCE is a piece of evidence that contradicts the opponent evidence. The difference between COUNTERARGUMENT and COUNTER ANALYSIS is not clear-cut.

⁸ It is difficult to find a neutral term to refer to the highest level of decision in a debate MATCH (or round). A team may "win" or do "better debating," depending on how the judge perceives the decision (called PERSPECTIVES of judging). Evaluation of individual skills and arguments is not the same as the ultimate outcome of major issues in a debate. It is analogous to how a game of sports is judged; a better-skilled boxer may not be able to knock out a poorer boxer, and a soccer team predominant in the game may still lose the game by a few unlucky goals by the opponent. Then there is a problem of decision-making PARADIGMS. For example, the affirmative team may "win" the debate by showing that (1) their plan would solve the persistent problem (STOCK-ISSUES PARADIGM), (2) their plan would be superior to the negative plan, either the status quo or a counterplan (POLICY-MAKER PARADIGM), or (3) the resolution is probably true (HYPOTHESIS-TESTING PARADIGM). See Rowland (1981) for discussion of different debate paradigms.

⁹ A TURNAROUND is a "response that makes an opponent's argument support your position" (Hanson 1990: 184). More specifically it refers to a response that changes an advantage into a disadvantage or vice versa.

¹⁰ The judging philosophy called TABULA RASA was originally conceived by an American debate judge as a view that judges must avoid their bias toward a particular

argument or a particular way of decision-making in debate even if they do not agree with it (cf. Ulrich 1981). When adapted into Japan, some judges who call themselves "tabula rasa" avoid evaluating arguments at all by themselves. They accept any argument presented by a debater, even without support, unless the other team completely denies it.

¹¹ The agent of the pulling in this quote is obviously the judge. Although it is the debater who restates the previously made argument, the textbook advises that the debater should remind the judge to take note of the fact that the argument has been pulled. Unless the judge writes down the pulling on the flowsheet, he cannot remember it when he reviews the arguments in deciding the winner.

¹² I have heard a judge make a joke about debaters' saying *please extend*. He knowingly took the literal normative meaning of extending and said that debaters were so demanding that they wanted him to extend, i.e., to go beyond the original argument.

¹³ IMPACT here means "[a] type of argument that explicitly shows the importance of a main argument or an issue" (Hanson 1990: 87). Japanese debaters use the term in the same meaning.

¹⁴ Dr. Michael Forman (personal communication) suggested that the slogan "no new arguments" as an oversimplified summary bears considerable responsibility for debaters' misconception.

¹⁵ A strong criticism has been raised by students and coaches themselves against this approach (e.g., Kaniike 1986: 197-201; Kadowaki 1993:6-7).

¹⁶ Debaters appeal to the judge about new arguments because some judges will not consider the violation of the "new argument" rule unless debaters initiates the claim. This also comes from such judges' "tabula rasa" approach. Many of the debaters' attitude is that it is better to appeal to the judge than not; even if he does not accept it, they won't lose anything.

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