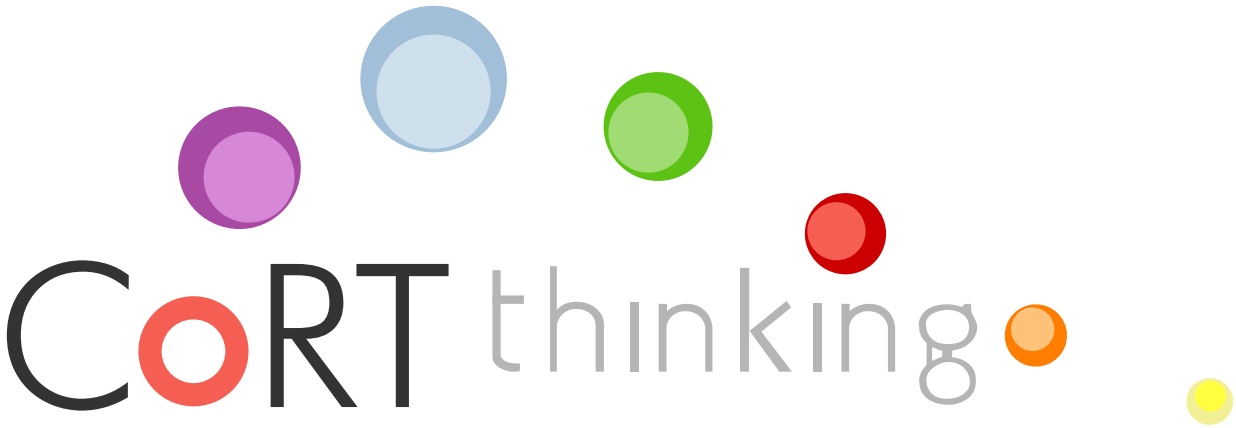

Teacher's Guide

CoRT 3

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INTERACTION

THIS BOOK CONTAINS THE FOLLOWING

CORT 3 OVERVIEW

FOREWORD

STANDARD LESSON FORMAT

PRACTICE AND PROJECT ITEMS

MODEL LESSON SEQUENCE

THE TEN LESSONS

1. EBS: Examine Both Sides
2. Evidence: Type
3. Evidence: Value
4. Evidence: Structure
5. ADI: Agreement, Disagreement, Irrelevance
6. Being Right 1
7. Being Right 2
8. Being Wrong 1
9. Being Wrong 2
10. Outcome

TEST MATERIAL

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OVERVIEW

CoRT 3 deals with two-people situations.

The thinker is no longer looking directly at the subject matter but at someone else's thinking.

The area is that of argument, debate, conflict, opinion, etc.

The lessons provide ways of assessing evidence.

They also examine the different strategies used to prove a point and the two main classes of error.

Two practical procedures for helping to solve conflicts are offered in

"Examine Both Sides (EBS)" and in the mapping operation called

"Agreement, Disagreement, Irrelevance (ADI)."

The aim of CoRT 3 is to encourage pupils to listen to what is being said and to assess its value.

They are also encouraged to adopt a constructive approach to resolving arguments.

FOREWORD

CoRT 1 was concerned with perception, CoRT 2 with organisation and now CoRT 3 is concerned with interaction. Many thinking situations involve other people. Such situations involve arguments, debates and negotiations. What should our thinking be in such situations?

Much of Western culture is based on the adversary system. Each side takes up a position and each side sets out to prove the other side wrong. That tends to be the essence of a debate. The CoRT 3 approach to interactive thinking is different. In keeping with the rest of the CoRT Thinking Program the emphasis is on constructive thinking. The purpose of the thinking is to achieve some aim - to bring something about. Winning an argument is to achieve some aim - to bring something about. Winning an argument for the

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sake of winning an argument is not especially worthwhile. The emphasis of the lessons in CoRT 3 is not on point scoring, proving someone else wrong or winning debates. The emphasis is on bringing forth something useful from the argument or the negotiation.

A great deal of attention has been paid to critical thinking, as if this were the only aspect of thinking or even the most important aspect. This is very dangerous because it leads to neglect of the more constructive aspects of thinking. Critical thinking is an important part of thinking but only one part. This part of thinking is dealt with specifically in the lessons of CoRT 3. Naturally it also plays an important role in other parts. For example, examination of the consequences of action (C&S, see CoRT 1) is automatically an evaluation of the proposed action.

A thinker in an interactive situation needs to know what is going on. One needs to be aware of the techniques used for being right and being wrong. This is not only so that the thinker can use such techniques but so that the thinker can recognise these techniques when used by others or when they intrude into the thinker's own thinking.

As always, the teacher needs to be very clear about the purpose of each lesson. It is essential that each lesson be firmly focused on the purpose of that lesson. If this is not done then each lesson dissolves into a general lesson on thinking and the students get bored and confused.

Because of the interactive nature of the thinking in CoRT 3, the teacher can use role-playing in order to produce the interaction. Modification of this nature can inject interest into the lessons. So long as the purpose of each lesson is kept absolutely clear and attention is focused on the thinking process in use, the teacher should try to introduce as much variety and interest as possible. If something seems too difficult or is not working well, the teacher should move on to something else rather than persist.

If one way of explaining the lesson is not working, the teacher should attempt another way. Complicated philosophical arguments should be avoided.

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One of the aims of CoRT 3 is that students learn to attain a clear idea of what is going on in an argument. They should be able to step outside the situation and regard it objectively instead of in terms of "I am right and you are wrong." Students should be encouraged to perceive an argument just as they have been encouraged in other CoRT lessons to perceive a situation. This applies to someone on the receiving end of an argument and to someone offering the argument.

Some teachers find the CoRT 3 lessons more difficult than the other CoRT sections. Other teachers have no difficulty with them. The differences seem to be that teachers in the first group tend to overcomplicate the lessons and to seek watertight philosophical divisions. The other teachers are more pragmatic and accept the value of practical frameworks.

Throughout the CoRT lessons it is best to give clear examples rather than to try to argue the niceties of borderline cases. With thinking there is always a great deal of overlap and blurring at the edges. It is much more useful to be absolutely clear about the centre than to try to remove all ambiguity from the periphery. It is perfectly permissible for a teacher to say of a grey area: "This could well be looked at as an example of this or, alternatively, it could equally well be looked at as an example of that."

Through a CoRT lesson a teacher should keep reminding herself or himself: What am I trying to show in this lesson? What aspect of thinking am I trying to make clear? Teaching thinking is not difficult, but like riding a bicycle it can be awkward at first. It is awkward to try to keep attention on processes when the natural tendency is to attend to content.

STANDARD LESSON FORMAT

The CoRT 3 lessons are rather different from the lessons in CoRT 1 and CoRT 2. They are simpler because there is only an introduction, which explains the particular thinking process that is central to the lesson, and then a practice section, which practices this process. There is a further difference in that the format for all CoRT 3 lessons is essentially a debating format.

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Alternatives for the practical operation of this in a classroom are given below under the Practice heading.

TIME

As usual each lesson is designed to be used over a single period of 35 minutes. In some cases this may turn out to be rather short. Where it is possible and where the teacher feels it to be necessary, a double period can be used. This is better than two single periods, as students are often reluctant to return to the same lesson again. The teaching should be crisp and brief, and should concentrate on the main process of the lesson, rather than meander after any interesting point that arises. It should be remembered that the purpose of the lesson is to examine and practice a particular thinking process, not just to have an interesting time with nothing to show for it at the end.

INTRODUCTION

The important thing is to go through the introduction very briskly. Older students can re-read it for themselves in their lesson notes. The fundamental process of the lesson should be crystallised in a sharp and definite manner. Philosophical discussion, justification and expansion should be avoided, since they add nothing to the lesson and serve only to confuse.

Confusion must at all costs be avoided, since it wrecks the lesson. It is better that the students have a clear idea of the process as an arbitrary process than a vague conception of something that seems reasonable to do. The student's achievement lies in carrying out the process in a sharp and effective manner. The approach should be more in line with: "This is what we are going to do today" (as in defining a new game) rather than: "Bear with me, and I will try and explain to you why it may be useful in thinking to do the following."

The actual lesson notes can be given out right at the beginning of the lesson, or after the teacher's introduction. The latter method ensures that the teacher has fuller attention and is also not just seen to be reading material the students could read at the same time.

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PRACTICE

In most of the lessons the first practice item is to be done as an open-class item. That is to say, the class tackles the practice item as individuals, who make their comments directly to the teacher, who can ask questions or collect the comments in any way wished (i.e. all from one person or one point at a time from a number of different people, etc.).

All the other practice items in each lesson are based on the debate format. That is to say an argument is presented, and one side of the argument is to be taken by Side A and the other side by Side B. Alternative suggestions for the debating format are given below:

Debate format 1: In some classes there are established debating formats, and these can be used if they seem suitable for these lessons.

Debate format 2: Individuals in the class can volunteer to take Side A or B in the argument or the teacher can pick students and ask them to assume these roles All assistant may be assigned to each debater. The rest of the class can act as observers.

Debate format 3: The class is divided into two halves by the teacher, and one half is designated Side A and the other half Side B. Any individual on Side A can volunteer an argument in support of the side (or can be asked to do so by the teacher). In this case there is no separate "audience," and each side must act as observer for the other side's arguments.

Debate format 4: Two groups (say of four students each) are chosen by the teacher to prepare a "brief' on the case to be argued. Group A then argues Side A of the case, and Group B the other side. The rest of the class can act as observers.

ROLE-PLAYING

In some of the practice items it may be possible to describe particular roles for each of the debating sides. Such roles can include committees, pressure groups, political speeches, etc.

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OUTPUT

The output will vary slightly from lesson to lesson, according to the basic process being practised. Some possible types of output are listed below (and will be repeated in the individual lesson notes).

General comments: Students listen to the opposing side's arguments and are then asked to make some general comments on these and to pick out specific points as requested (e.g. key points, facts, opinions, prejudice, etc.).

Written lists: Students listen to the arguments and are asked to make a written list of certain specified points (e.g. list all the items of fact used in the argument).

Teacher's halt: Here the teacher stops the argument at some point and repeats something that has just been said. The class is then asked to classify this piece of evidence or comment on it.

Buzzer: This is a metaphorical or imaginary buzzer, which is used like buzzers on radio shows when one contestant buzzes another who has used a forbidden word. Students use some signalling device (raising arm, rapping desk, etc.) in a similar manner. If students believe they have spotted some specified type of thinking being used in the course of the argument they signal to the teacher, who asks what they have spotted. For instance, students may be asked to look out for value judgement words.

On the whole, "general comments" and "teacher's halt" will be used most often. With more sophisticated groups "written lists" and the "buzzer" technique should be possible.

PROMPTING

When students are slow to develop any arguments on either Side A or B. the teacher can feed in suggestions in the form of a brief general discussion on the matter. Teachers may generate such suggestions for themselves

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or they can use the ones given in the actual lesson notes in the teacher's notes. The suggestions given in the notes are not meant to be the correct answers, but the sort of arguments that might be put forward on the subject.

PRACTICE AND PROJECT ITEMS

On the following pages are sets of lesson notes to accompany the CoRT student's notes. In practice, teachers should read through the lesson notes before the lesson and mark the items they are going to use.

The practice items have been carefully designed to be usable across a broad range of ages and abilities. Naturally a higher degree of thinking skill is demanded from the more able student even if the practice item is the same. Some of the practice items are more suitable for older students. This does not mean that they cannot be used with younger students but that the teacher should use the other items first.

Teachers are encouraged to modify the items and to adapt them to local circumstances or news items. For details, refer to the sections Teaching Points and Standard Lesson Format). Also consult individual notes for each lesson.

A MODEL LESSON SEQUENCE

ONE

Do not mention the subject of the lesson, but start with a story or an exercise which illustrates the aspect of thinking that is the subject of the lesson.

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TWO

Introduce the TOOL or SUBJECT of the lesson and explain simply what it does. You can use the introduction in the student's notes.

THREE

Carry out an open class example by setting a task and asking for individual responses. ALWAYS repeat the letters of the tool as often as you can. Make sure it is seen as a TOOL.

FOUR

Divide the class into groups of 4, 5 or 6. Assign a practice item from the student's notes. Allow about three minutes.

FIVE

Get feedback from the groups, for example by getting one suggestion from each of the groups.

SIX

Repeat the process with another item. Repeat practice items in this manner.

SEVEN

At the end of the lesson, allow some time for discussion of the subject of the lesson.

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Interaction

Module 3 deals with two-people situations. The thinker is no longer looking directly at the subject matter but at someone elses thinking. The area is that of argument, debate, conflict, opinion, etc. The lessons provide ways of assessing evidence. They also examine the different strategies used to prove a point and the two main classes of error.

1: EBS

Deliberate practice in examining both sides of an argument instead of blindly supporting one side.

2: EVIDENCE

The types of evidence put forward in an argument. Distinguishing between fact and opinion.

3: EVIDENCE - VALUE

Practice in the assessment of the value of evidence. Not all evidence is of equal value.

4: EVIDENCE - STRUCTURE

Examining evidence. Does it stand on its own, is it dependent on other evidence which in turn depends on something else.

5: ADI

Mapping out these areas to increase areas of agreement and reduce areas of disagreement.

6: BEING RIGHT - 1

Two of the main ways of being right. (1) Examining the idea itself, its implications and effects. (2) Referring to facts, authority, feelings.

7: BEING RIGHT 2

The other two ways of being right. (1) Use of names, labels, classifications. (2)Judgment, including the use of value words.

8: BEING WRONG 1

Exaggeration - false generalizations, taking things to extremes. Basing conclusions on only part of the situation.

9: BEING WRONG 2

The remaining two ways of being wrong: mistake and prejudice.

10: OUTCOME

What has been achieved at the end of an argument? Seven possible levels of achievement short of complete agreement

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Lesson 1 Examine Both Sides

EBS

Deliberate practice in examining both sides of an argument instead of blindly supporting one side.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the lesson is to establish EBS as a definite operation or tool that can be used deliberately - or asked for.

This is similar to the use of the PMI. A student may be asked to "do an EBS" on a question.

This is a vital lesson because it is unnatural to examine both sides of a question. It may seem an obvious thing to do, and indeed many people claim that it is something they do naturally. But how many people will have examined the other side so well that they could take over and carry through the opponent's argument?

It is an unnatural thing to do because in an argument people are anxious to prove their point. They know that they are right so why should they bother to listen to the other side? They may listen enough to be able to score debating or courtroom points, but not enough to see the question from the other side (and even beyond the other person's presentation of it).

Alternatively, one may be under such heavy attack that one does not have the time or inclination to examine the other side. That is why a deliberate effort must be made to examine both sides. This deliberate effort is crystallised in the EBS operation.

An EBS requires one to examine both sides.

People taking part in the argument are required to examine the opponent's side (since it is assumed they know their own). One might assume that people generally do an EBS anyhow, but in practice this is not so.

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An EBS means more than a general awareness of the other side's arguments - it means being able to take them over and argue them oneself in a switch of sides.

In an argument, disagreement, quarrel, dispute or debate there are two sides. Each side believes that it is right, and that the other side is wrong.

Once upon a time there were people who argued that the earth was flat and others who argued that it was round.

There were people who argued that the earth was the centre of the universe and others who argued that the sun was the centre.

There are times when the workers in a business want more money and the management argues that wages cannot be increased further.

In such an argument each side is usually so busy saying what it thinks and why it is right that it never really listens to the arguments of the other side.

EBS STANDS FOR EXAMINE BOTH SIDES

This means that each side should examine the other side›s arguments so well that it could present these arguments if asked to do so.

Example:

Should the minimum age that a student can quit school be raised by one year?

Side A:

- More education is needed for jobs nowadays.
- It may be necessary to change jobs later on.
- More education makes people happier.
- It would help unemployment.

Side B: Many students are already too bored at school.

- Students could be earning good money instead of sitting in class.
- School education is not helpful for all jobs. It may be better to learn the job directly by starting young.
- There would be a need for more schools and more teachers.

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Side A should be able to give the exact arguments of Side B. if asked to do an EBS.

Similarly Side B should be able to give the exact arguments of Side A if asked to do an EBS.

The EBS should be introduced as a definite operation, or even a game, without too much philosophy as to its value.

Any question on which there are two points of view can be used as an example, or the example given in the student notes can be elaborated.

Though there is some overlap, an EBS is not the same as an OPV, since an EBS examines the other side of the question in full, and not just the other person's view of it. (If no one raises this question it is best to leave it out since it might be confusing.)

The general usefulness of doing an EBS is self-evident.

In an argument situation it can help one to win an argument or to lose it (if you realise the other side does have a better case); to reach agreement or compromise; and not to argue aimlessly just because you have never listened to what the other side is actually saying.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1 Teachers Notes:

A debating format is arranged (see Standard Lesson Format for some alternatives).

For instance, one student may be asked to represent Side A of (he argument in practice item I and another student to present Side B.

The rest of the class acts as observers, but it is made clear to them that at any moment they might be asked by the teacher to give arguments for either Side A or Side B.

An alternative format is to divide the class into A and B halves.

Individuals in the A half give arguments on the A side of the question and in the B half on the B side.

Then the sides are deliberately switched, and the students have to give arguments for the opposite side (in doing this they are at least expected to give all the arguments previously given by the other side).

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There will probably be time for only two items and these can be selected from the four items given in the student notes.

There is evidence that cigarette smoking is dangerous to health and can cause lung cancer, chronic bronchitis, heart disease, etc.

Should smoking be banned by law or should people just be warned about the dangers and allowed to smoke if they want to?

Only some people will get the diseases and the tax from tobacco helps pay for government services.

But more than three times as many people die of lung cancer each year as are killed on the roads.

Side A: Arguments for the complete banning by law of cigarette smoking - showing why the present system is not good enough.

Side B: Arguments against the complete banning by law and arguments to show why the present system is better.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A:

- People cannot really know all the possible dangers.
- If cigarettes were not around people would not be tempted.
- There is no real need to smoke - if one never starts.
- The present system does not work - deaths are too high.

Side B:

- People should be free to take risk if they want to.
- Alcohol, car driving, skiing also are dangerous - you cannot ban everything that involves risk.
- The government needs the taxes and would otherwise have to raise taxes elsewhere.
- Better education about dangers, especially at school, should be enough.

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PRACTICE ITEM 2

A debating format is arranged (see Standard Lesson Format for some alternatives). For instance, one student may be asked to represent Side A of the argument in practice item I and another student to present Side B.

The rest of the class acts as observers, but it is made clear to them that at any moment they might be asked by the teacher to give arguments for either Side A or Side B.

An alternative format is to divide the class into A and B halves. Individuals in the A half give arguments on the A side of the question and in the B half on the B side. Then the sides are deliberately switched, and the students have to give arguments for the opposite side (in doing this they are at least expected to give all the arguments previously given by the other side).

There will probably be time for only two items and these can be selected from the four items given in the student notes.

Some people argue that local industries should be protected from foreign competition.

For example the government might limit the number of foreign cars that can be imported or the quantity of foreign shoes.

Others argue that there must be free trade and if a business cannot compete it should close down.

Side A: Arguments for protection of local industries.

Side B: Arguments for free trade and no limits on foreign imports.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- There would be a loss of jobs and high unemployment.
- Revenues from local workers and local industry would decrease.
- Foreign competition is often unfair.
- Foreign workers are often exploited.
- The standard of living of foreign workers is often very low.
- There may be a need for protection when a local industry is modernising.

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Side B.

- If we restrict imports other countries will restrict our exports.
- Consumers will have to pay higher prices.
- Consumers will not get such choice or quality.
- The best producers should do the producing.
- There is no point keeping alive for a while longer an industry that will eventually die.
- Free competition spurs improvement and modernisation.

PRACTICE ITEM 3)

A debating format is arranged (see Standard Lesson Format for some alternatives). For instance, one student may be asked to represent Side A of the argument in practice item I and another student to present Side B.

The rest of the class acts as observers, but it is made clear to them that at any moment they might be asked by the teacher to give arguments for either Side A or Side B.

An alternative format is to divide the class into A and B halves. Individuals in the A half give arguments on the A side of the question and in the B half on the B side.

Then the sides are deliberately switched, and the students have to give arguments for the opposite side (in doing this they are at least expected to give all the arguments previously given by the other side).

There will probably be time for only two items and these can be selected from the four items given in the student notes.

In some countries TV broadcasting is limited to a fixed number of hours every day.

It is said that people then spend more time reading, talking and doing their hobbies. In other countries there is continuous TV.

Side A: Arguments for limiting the number of hours of TV. What is to be said for this? Why could it be a good thing?

Side B: Arguments against restricting TV by law. Arguments for letting people watch as much TV as they wish.

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Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- People would talk to their friends and family more.
- People would develop their own interests and achievements and not be passive.
- There would be less advertising and pressure to buy things.

Side B.

- People are not forced to watch TV if they do not want to.
- Different people want so many different programs - sports, drama, news, etc., - that it would be difficult to fit everything into two hours.
- Extra moneys from longer TV hours makes for better quality.
- People would drink more and get into more trouble.

PRACTICE ITEM 3

A debating format is arranged (see Standard Lesson Format for some alternatives). For instance, one student may be asked to represent Side A of the argument in practice item I and another student to present Side B.

The rest of the class acts as observers, but it is made clear to them that at any moment they might be asked by the teacher to give arguments for either Side A or Side B.

An alternative format is to divide the class into A and B halves.

Individuals in the A half give arguments on the A side of the question and in the B half on the B side. Then the sides are deliberately switched, and the students have to give arguments for the opposite side (in doing this they are at least expected to give all the arguments previously given by the other side).

There will probably be time for only two items and these can be selected from the four items given in the student notes.

Is it better to live in the country or in a town?

Side A: Arguments in favour of country living and against city living.

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Side B: Arguments in favour of city living and against country living.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- Cleaner air and less pollution.
- Prices are cheaper.
- People are friendlier.
- Better for children: fields, horses, streams, etc.

Side B.

- The country is boring.
- Work is easier to find in town.
- One can have more friends in town.
- Better shops are in town.

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Lesson 2 Evidence Types

The types of evidence put forward in an argument. Distinguishing between fact and opinion.

INTRODUCTION

"Evidence" is a general term covering points, arguments, ideas, thoughts, support, etc., which are used as evidence for a point of view.

This lesson is concerned with looking at the nature or type of evidence that may be used.

There is a very simple classification into FACT and OPINION.

It is definitely not suggested that facts are valid evidence and that opinions are not.

There are cases when the facts may be correct in themselves but may be out of context, or incomplete, and may therefore be wrong in use.

There are situations which must depend on opinions (for instance, what people like, believe or want).

The purpose of the lesson is to get students to examine each piece of evidence put forward and to decide whether it is a FACT or an OPINION.

FACT includes ordinary fact, personal experience, common experience, examples which have actually occurred.

OPINION includes ordinary opinion, feeling, prejudice, belief and guesses.

Anything which is subjective is an opinion; anything which is objective is a fact.

The separation of evidence into these two types has the main purpose of getting students to look closely at evidence in a neutral manner (i.e., to see what it is, not whether they agree or not).

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There is the secondary purpose that fact and opinion are indeed different types of evidence.

Facts have universal application insofar as they should be accepted by everyone. The emphasis is therefore on seeing whether the fact is correct and whether it is correctly used.

Opinions are much more personal and do not have a universal application.

On the other hand it is very difficult to show that an opinion is wrong, or to change it.

Sometimes people claim as facts what are only opinions, and it is useful to be able to point out the distinction.

In practice, facts need checking and opinions need noting.

How do you support your arguments?

How does the other side support its arguments?

Both sides support their arguments with evidence and this evidence can be of various types.

There are two types of evidence: opinion and fact.

OPINION: This includes

- Ordinary opinion,
- Feeling,
- Prejudice,
- Belief and guesses.

FACT: This includes

- Ordinary fact,
- Personal experience,
- Common experience and actual examples.

Opinions can sometimes be just as valid as facts, and sometimes facts can be out of place.

The important thing is to be able to distinguish fact from opinion.

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Example:

Should stores be open on Sundays?

Opinion:

- Shopping is enjoyable and people may want to have this pleasure on weekends.
- People won't go to church.
- Most people would prefer shopping at their leisure instead of in a rush during the week.
- Stores would make more money.

Fact:

- Many people work and do not have enough time for shopping during the week
- Store assistants would not be able to spend all weekend with their families.
- There are those who are against Sunday shopping on religious grounds.
- Many stores already stay open late in the evening.
- People now manage to do all their shopping without stores being open on Sunday.

It is intended that this simple classification should be a "rough and ready" one. It is not necessary to go into subtle philosophical distinctions.

There may be borderline cases, where something could be classified as a fact or an opinion (e.g., "That driver nearly had an accident"; fact: he passed within two inches of the divider; opinion: he might well have hit it - but for all I know he might be an expert driver who was in no danger of hitting it at all.)

Such borderline cases should be avoided, and the simple test is: if it actually happened it is a fact.

In this lesson, facts are taken as events which have really occurred.

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This includes the usual figures and data but it also includes actual experience (e.g., "I was in a car crash yesterday" is a fact).

The interpretation of experience may, however, be an opinion (e.g., "I was lucky not to get killed in the car crash").

There is no point in trying to make subtle philosophical distinctions in the lesson.

If it is subjective it is an opinion, if it is objective it is a fact.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: The first item is done on an open-class basis. Every student looks at the list of points given in the student notes and decides which of them are fact and which is opinion.

Alternatively the teacher can read out the points one by one and ask individual students to classify each one. In some cases there might be a short discussion.

It is proposed to build a new highway which will destroy some towns and farmland. The following arguments are put forward in favour of the highway and against it. Can you separate the arguments into opinion and fact?

A. I do not think we should allow highways to be built all over the country, destroying beautiful countryside.

B. The cost of the highway will be greater than 4 million dollars a mile.

C. The highway will bring new industries and so provide more jobs for the people in the area.

D. If the highway is not built the roads will be so congested in three years that driving will be very difficult.

E. I think this trend toward greater speed is always harmful.

F. Everyone knows that highways help the people at either end of them but not those along the way.

G. I asked ten people what they thought of the highway and not one of them was in favour of it.

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H. Forty-two houses and eight hundred acres of farmland will be destroyed.

I. I think these beautiful towns are unique and should be preserved.

J. Planners are paid for planning, so they are always trying to build unnecessary roads.

It is suggested that the following points be regarded as fact:

B.

F.

G.

H.

PRACTICE ITEM 2

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). For this lesson it may be better if there are two individuals or groups arguing Sides A and B. with the rest of the class acting as observers.

The teacher may then stop the argument at any point and ask the observers to listen to one side of the argument and simply list all the facts used.

In many countries young men have to do compulsory military service after leaving school. Do you think this is a good idea?

Side A: Arguments in favour of this military service, from the point of view of both the people involved and the country.

Side B: Arguments against all young men having to do military service.

Suggestions;

Side A.

- All young men would get some military training.
- Without compulsory service there may not be enough volunteers for the army.
- It is good for the young men - gives them some discipline.
- It is a useful pause between school and whatever follows.

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Side B.

- Military service interrupts education (if further education is intended).
- It is very boring.
- It is a waste of time at a very important stage in life.
- Some people are totally unsuited to army life and it can ruin them.

PRACTICE ITEM 3 (FORMULA ONE TIME)

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). For this lesson it may be better if there are two individuals or groups arguing Sides A and B. with the rest of the class acting as observers.

The teacher may then stop the argument at any point and ask the observers to listen to one side of the argument and simply list all the facts used.

Big cars use more fuel and also occupy more of the road. Should there be a special tax on cars over a certain size?

Side A: Arguments in favour of this special tax.

Side B: Arguments against such a tax.

Suggestions;

Side A.

- Bigger cars waste fuel and should be discouraged.
- Bigger cars wear out the roads more.
- Someone who owns a big car can afford to pay the taxes.
- Big cars cause more damage in an accident.
- There would be more money for road improvement.

Side B.

- The rich already pay higher taxes.
- Big car owners already pay more in gasoline tax.
- Big car owners are contributing more to the economy.
- If people stopped buying cars there might be unemployment.

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- There are already too many taxes.
- It is unfair to tax people's preferences.

PRACTICE ITEM 4 (WORKING NINE TO FIVE)

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). For this lesson it may be better if there are two individuals or groups arguing Sides A and B. with the rest of the class acting as observers.

The teacher may then stop the argument at any point and ask the observers to listen to one side of the argument and simply list all the facts used.

There are some organisations that let people work whatever hours they like, provided they put in the same total of hours and get the work done.

Side A: Arguments in favour of flexible working hours.

Side B: Arguments against flexible working hours.

Suggestions;

Side A.

- People have different lifestyles.
- People have different needs at home (children in school, etc.).
- Some people work better in the morning; others do not.
- People will work harder.
- People like more control over their lives.

Side B.

- It will cause confusion.
- People will cheat and not put in their hours.
- It will be difficult for people to communicate with each other.
- Some things have to be done in groups.
- There will be money wasted on more light and heating.
- Security will be a problem.

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Lesson 3 Evidence Value

Practice in the assessment of the value of evidence. Not all evidence is of equal value.

INTRODUCTION

This lesson is concerned with the value of a particular piece of evidence to the argument it supports. We know that in criminal cases there may be a "key" piece of evidence on which the whole case rests. This approach is carried over into the argument situation.

Not everything that is said is equally important. A great deal of time can be wasted in chasing or disagreeing with minor or even irrelevant points without ever getting to the core of the argument. There is a very strong natural tendency to tackle an immediate point because the answer is known.

We are concerned with examining the importance of a piece of evidence to the argument it supports. This importance is called value. Three types of value are suggested:

KEY (evidence): The central point or key point on which the whole argument depends. If it were not there or were destroyed, the argument would collapse.

STRONG (evidence): Gives strong support to the argument, but the argument does not collapse without it. Certainly needs to be considered.

WEAK (evidence): May seem important or true, but really adds very little and could be ignored.

The purpose of the lesson is to get students to examine the evidence in a deliberate manner and to assess its value.

The classification divisions are indeed subjective, but this does not matter so long as students can justify their own classification.

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Thus a student who picks out a different key point must justify it as being vital.

The lesson is concerned only with stated evidence, not with implied evidence that is never stated.

An effort is also made to pick out the strong points. These are points which really need considering, even though they are not actually key points.

Similarly, points which are classified as weak can be ignored until the more important point have been dealt with.

There may be one or more key pieces of evidence, but an effort must be made to keep the number down since it is unlikely that every point is a key one.

The test is: What would happen to the argument if this point were omitted?

This lesson can be very useful when applied to one's own thinking.

When one is putting forward an argument, it is well worth knowing the key point, the strong points and the weak points.

In an effort to sort them out, one may well find fewer strong points than supposed.

In an argument the supporting evidence on each side is not all of equal value. Some evidence may give very strong support to the argument but other evidence may be of much less value. For practical purposes we can consider the value of evidence in the following manner:

KEY: The whole argument depends on the key point, just as an arch depends on the keystone. If the key point is destroyed the argument tends to collapse.

STRONG: Evidence which gives strong support to the argument but which is not key evidence. If the strong evidence were removed the argument would be weakened but not destroyed.

WEAK: By itself, weak evidence adds little to an argument and it would not much matter if it were left out. A lot of weak evidence considered together can provide some support. Evidence may be so weak as to be irrelevant.

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Example:

Should there be school tests? The following arguments are put forward:

- Teachers find they can teach better if they have a definite test in mind. (Strong)
- Tests are a lot of bother. (Weak)
- If a school is used to having tests it should continue to do so. (Weak)
- When there are tests the students take the subjects more seriously and actually work harder. (Key point in favour)
- Students learn only what is necessary to pass the test and nothing else. (Strong)
- Some subjects are rather difficult to test. (Weak)
- Tests are unfair to those students who do not work at their best in tests. (Key point against)
- Most students do not like tests. (Weak or Strong?)

A local example can be used as well.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: his first item is done on an open-class basis. The teacher can go through the practice points one by one and ask the students to classify each point as key, strong or weak.

Disagreements can be discussed first and then accepted if properly justified. Alternatively, students can go through all the points alone and then the whole item is discussed.

The following arguments are used either in favour of higher taxation for the rich or against it. For each argument indicate whether it is key, strong or weak.

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a. Rich people must expect to make a bigger contribution to society.

b. As long as poor people see rich people spending their money freely the poor will not feel there is social justice.

c. Most wealth is ultimately derived from someone else's work or ignorance.

d. Social equality demands that no one should be very much richer than anyone else.

e. No matter how high the taxes, rich people will always be able to earn enough money to pay them.

f. The amount of money taken from the rich actually makes very little difference when spread out among the rest.

g. Jealousy of the rich is not a good basis for justice.

h. If taxes are too high there will be no incentive for people to work harder or to invest, and society as a whole will suffer.

i. Rich people spend their money and so give employment to other people.

j. Rich people do not use the roads, the police or the community services more than others, so why should they pay more?

k. Taxing the rich encourages neither the rich nor the poor to work harder.

The following classification is suggested (but is open to alteration):

Key: a. k.

Strong: b. c. f. g.

Weak: d. e. h. i. j.

PRACTICE ITEM 2)

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). With this lesson it may be better for the audience or observer students to listen to the whole of one side of the argument and then say which particular points they consider key, strong or weak.

In addition, teachers can extract a point from the argument (or supply a fresh one of their own) and ask the class to assess its value.

Should there be film censorship or should people of all ages be allowed to see whatever they want to see?

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Side A: Arguments in favour of censorship and against completely free viewing.

Side B: Arguments against censorship and in favour of completely free viewing.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- If there is no censorship at all, producers will be free to make the most awful movies just for money.
- Young people may be shocked or influenced by things which older people, having more experience, can dismiss as nonsense.
- Though sophisticated people may be able to watch a harmful movie with detachment, others may not.
- People are protected from poisons, road accidents, electricity, etc. why not from harmful movies?

Side B.

- No one is forced to see a movie.
- If you start censoring some things, you will soon censor everything and have a police state.
- No one takes movies seriously enough to be influenced by them.
- After a while people stop being shocked and get bored.

PRACTICE ITEM 3

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). With this lesson it may be better for the audience or observer students to listen to the whole of one side of the argument and then say which particular points they consider key, strong or weak.

In addition, teachers can extract a point from the argument (or supply a fresh one of their own) and ask the class to assess its value.

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There is a suggestion that drivers convicted of dangerous driving should have yellow and black stripes painted on their cars so that other motorists can steer clear of them.

Side A: Arguments in favour of the yellow and black stripes, showing why it might be a good idea.

Side B: Arguments against the idea, showing why it would not work or the harmful effects it might have.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

Other drivers would avoid them.

- It would be like being in the stocks - people would be ashamed to have the stripes on their cars.
- The effect would last much longer than a fine or short prison sentence.
- The cars would look ugly and this would be a deterrent.

Side B.

- Some people might consider it a mark of distinction and try hard to "win" the stripes.
- People with the stripes might feel they had a license to drive dangerously.
- What would happen the second time such a driver was caught?
- The stripes would not be visible at night.

PRACTICE ITEM 4

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). With this lesson it may be better for the audience or observer students to listen to the whole of one side of the argument and then say which particular points they consider key, strong or weak.

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In addition, teachers can extract a point from the argument (or supply a fresh one of their own) and ask the class to assess its value.

It is claimed that experiments on live animals (cats, dogs, rabbits, guinea pigs) are sometimes necessary in medical research in order to find out how to cure diseases.

These experiments may cause suffering to the animals.

Side A: Arguments against the use of animals in medical research.

Side B: Arguments in favour of continuing the use of animals where necessary in medical research.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- Some of the experiments seem very cruel and inflicting pain cannot ever be justified.
- An effort should be made to find other ways of doing research.
- Animals are defenceless and at our mercy.
- Most understanding of disease did not in fact arise from research on animals but from observation of humankind itself.

Side B.

- Most people eat meat from animals that have been grown and killed as food - research can help many sick people.
- Some things (like testing vaccines) could not possibly be done on people.
- Provided there is no deliberate cruelty, the use of animals is justified.
- We must also look at the human suffering in disease, not only at the animals who suffer in research.

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Lesson 4 Evidence Structure

Examining evidence. Does it stand on its own, is it dependent on other evidence which in turn depends on something else.

INTRODUCTION

This lesson is concerned with the way evidence is used, with the way it is put together, with the way it hangs together. Two simple classifications are given:

DEPENDENT EVIDENCE and INDEPENDENT EVIDENCE

Dependent evidence rests on other evidence. In an argument one point may rest on another and that other on yet another point.

At the bottom of that particular line of evidence is some point that is accepted as true or assumed to be true.

In analysing an argument (reading a book or listening to a speech), it is useful to examine each point to see what it depends on.

For instance, several quite reasonable points may be found ultimately to depend on some assumption that has not been proved.

Sometimes there may be a long line of points, each one dependent on the next. At other times it may just be one point that rests on another.

Some pieces of evidence can stand alone, but others depend on some other piece of evidence.

For instance, "the room is cold" may depend on "the heating is off," which in turn may depend on "there is a power failure," which in turn may depend on "there is too little coal at the power stations," which in turn may depend on "there is a coal miner's strike." This sort of thing can happen just as easily in an argument.

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The effort here is not so much to classify but to unravel the structure of dependence. In other words, in order to classify a point as dependent or independent you have to make an effort to determine what it depends on. If a point cannot be found to depend on another point it is termed "independent."

This may only be an admission of failure on the part of the person pursuing the line of dependence. The important thing is not to have classified the evidence, but to have some picture of the structure of dependence in the argument.

The purpose of the lessons is to get students to look at the structure of evidence - at the way evidence is put together to make up the argument. With more able students it may be possible to look at the whole structure of evidence in an argument: the basic points, what depends on them, etc. Otherwise it is best to keep things very simple and just to show how some pieces of evidence depend on others.

The simplest way to proceed is to repeat the piece of evidence and then ask, Why? This reveals the next level, and so on.

We have had a look at the type of evidence (fact, opinion) used in an argument and also at the value of the evidence (key, strong, weak). The next thing is to look at how the evidence is put together - in other words the structure of the evidence.

Each piece of evidence is either dependent or independent.

DEPENDENT: Most evidence used in an argument is dependent. That is to say it depends on another piece of evidence.

Sometimes this other piece of evidence is given. At other times it is assumed or accepted without actually being stated.

Some dependent evidence depends on something else being true or accepted.

INDEPENDENT: When evidence does not appear to depend on anything else but seems to stand by itself it can be called independent.

Independent evidence has to be challenged in its own right. But with dependent evidence you can challenge what it rests upon.

Example:

Should very smart boys and girls go to a special school, or should they be mixed in with everyone else at an ordinary school?

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Those in favour of a special school argue that bright students would learn more in a special school. This argument depends on the following three items:

- Classes could proceed at a rapid pace.
- Students would be competing with others at the same level.
- They would probably have special teachers.

The last item depends on special teachers being attracted by the idea of bright students.

Finally, an independent piece of evidence:

- Such special schools have been very successful.

In fact in this example all the evidence depends on the assumption that the most important thing in school is to do well at school work.

It can happen that evidence depends on some assumption that is implied but never actually stated.

This assumption can be drawn forth and then examined.

For instance, the statement, "It is necessary to kill animals for food" depends on the assumption that the food we get from the animals cannot be obtained anywhere else.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first practice item is done on an open-class basis. Each student looks at the list of practice points given and decides which points rest on which.

The whole practice item is then discussed with the class. The teacher asks one or two students for their views of the matter, and then the individual points and their dependence can be looked at.

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The following suggestions can be made:

f depends on e.

e. depends on both d. and c.

d. depends on a.

b. depends on e.

Some jobs are unpleasant, like sewage work or garbage collection. Other jobs, like mining, may be both unpleasant and dangerous.

It is suggested that people in such jobs should get paid as much as people in jobs that are more difficult but more pleasant (teachers, doctors, etc.).

The following arguments are put forward in favour of this idea. Can you indicate which items are dependent on which?

A. Society depends on having these jobs done.

B. Money can be raised by charging much higher prices for coal, etc.

C. No one would ever enjoy doing these unpleasant jobs.

D. The consequences are very serious if these workers have to strike for better pay.

E. They should be paid enough to compensate for the unpleasantness or danger.

F. So much the better if the higher pay attracts more people.

PRACTICE ITEM 2

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). In this lesson it is best if the argument proceeds until halted occasionally by the teacher, who repeats a point that has been made.

The class is asked whether this point is dependent on any other point (or assumption).

Should only women design advertisements directed at women consumers?

Side A: Arguments in favour.

Side B: Arguments against.

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Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- Women would have a better feel of what appeals to other women.
- Women are more likely to focus on the product than to show the users of the product.
- As users themselves of the products, women will know which things are most appealing.
- Women will avoid being as patronising as male advertisers.

Side B.

- Because they may know the product well, women will not use the sort of advertising copy that will attract people who are not yet users.
- Women cannot see themselves objectively, which men might be able to do.
- Because you know the subject it does not make you more skilled at advertising.
- Women will focus on what suits them personally and this might have less appeal to other women.

PRACTICE ITEM 3

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). In this lesson it is best if the argument proceeds until halted occasionally by the teacher, who repeats a point that has been made. The class is asked whether this point is dependent on any other point (or assumption).

A businessman is kidnapped and the kidnappers demand a ransom of 2 million Dollars.

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If this is paid the police think there will be many other kidnappings.

If it is not paid then the man might be killed by the kidnappers.

Side A: Arguments in favour of paying the ransom.

Side B: Arguments against paying the ransom.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- If it is not paid he will be killed.
- Better to pay it and then try to find the kidnappers.
- The money can be taken out of profits, or prices can be raised.
- If the man is killed the kidnappers will try again anyway- knowing that the next time they will be paid.

Side B.

- If the ransom is paid, there will be many more kidnappings.
- The kidnappers can just go on asking for more and more money without limit.
- There is no way to prevent kidnapping except to refuse to pay ransom.
- With the money, the kidnappers can organise more kidnapping.

PRACTICE ITEM 4

This item can be chosen for the debating format (see Standard Lesson Format). In this lesson it is best if the argument proceeds until halted occasionally by the teacher, who repeats a point that has been made.

The class is asked whether this point is dependent on any other point (or assumption).

Suddenly it becomes scientifically possible to determine the sex of a baby, so that if a couple wants a son or daughter they can arrange this.

This could have a lot of consequences and a debate arises as to whether it should be allowed.

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Side A: Arguments against allowing this new process.

Side B: Arguments in favour of making use of this new development and allowing couples to choose the sex of their children.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

There might be a dangerous imbalance in the ratio of boys to girls.

It is better left to nature.

If it is used then governments might try to use it for special purposes - to breed more soldiers, etc.

Side B.

If a Couple wants a boy or a girl why should they not have one? - Things will even out in the end.

There might be fewer children if couples could determine what they wanted they would not go on having boys in the hope of having a girl (or vice versa).

Some families might be better at bringing up boys or girls, and should be allowed to choose.

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Lesson 5

Agreement, Disagreement, Irrelevance

A D I

Mapping out these areas to increase areas of agreement and reduce areas of disagreement.

INTRODUCTION

Doing an ADI is a natural sequel to doing an EBS, but it is much more specific. An EBS is used to examine the other side of the argument, whereas an ADI is used to map out the areas of agreement, disagreement, and irrelevance. In practice, an ADI need not cover the whole of the argument - it is possible to pick out the major points of agreement or disagreement.

In an argument it is quite natural to assume that everything the other side says is wrong and must therefore be opposed. This makes agreement or compromise extremely difficult.

The purpose of the ADI is to provide a deliberate device for mapping out the areas of agreement, disagreement and irrelevance.

It does require an effort to find the areas of agreement between your own position and that of your opponent. The areas of disagreement can also be mapped out in a definite manner. Finally, the irrelevant points can be labeled as such, so that they no longer muddle the argument proper.

Students can be asked to "do an ADI" just as they can be asked to "do a PMI". This means listing the points of agreement first, then the points of disagreement, and finally the points which seem irrelevant.

In practice, an ADI may be applied to the whole of an opponent's argument or only to the main points. It is usually more convenient to apply it to the main points.

An EBS covers the whole of the opposing position (even beyond what the opponent says) and makes no distinction between agreement and disagreement.

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In politics it is usual to believe, or to pretend, that everything the other side says is wrong or mistaken. It is not uncommon to find this blanket view of things in any other situation where two sides are accustomed to disagreeing. It does, however, make any sort of agreement or compromise very difficult. A deliberate ADI solves this problem by directing attention to finding the areas of agreement and disagreement.

The ADI should be introduced as a definite operation or even a game without too much philosophising about its value.

It is wrong to suppose that in an argument the two sides disagree about everything. There is usually disagreement on some points and agreement on others.

There may also be points which are so irrelevant that agreement or disagreement does not matter. It is worth making a deliberate effort to find out the points of agreement, disagreement and irrelevance by doing an ADI.

A - AGREEMENT (points on which the two sides agree)

D - DISAGREEMENT (points on which the two sides disagree)

I - IRRELEVANT (points which are irrelevant and do not matter)

To do an ADI you list the points under A,

Then the points under D,

And finally the points under I.

Example:

Should there be special school uniforms or should everyone wear what they like?

A.

Both sides agree that school uniforms:

- Are more easily recognisable
- Are an added expense for parents
- Remove the bother of wondering what to wear
- Remove the difference in clothing due to parents' income or choice

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D.

- Side A maintains that ordinary clothing is more comfortable but Side B disagrees.
- Side B says that uniforms lead to a greater pride in the school but Side A disagrees.
- Side B claims that uniforms are much tidier but Side A says that this need not be so.
- Side A says that student comfort is more important than the school image but Side B disagrees and says that the school image is in the students' own interest.

I

- The colour of the uniform.
- The style
- Etc

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first practice item is done as an open-class item. This means that the students look at all the points and decide which of them might be agreed upon, which might be a source of disagreement, and which might be considered irrelevant.

Alternatively the teacher can take the points one by one and get the class to decide on them.

For instance: Agreement: a. c. e.

Disagreement: b. d. g. h.

Irrelevant: f.

There is an argument about the effect of TV violence (gunfights, fights, westerns, bombs, etc.) on young people.

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Side A claims that so much TV violence must influence young people and make them more violent themselves.

Side B disagrees and says that TV only entertains and does not make people do what they would not have done anyway.

The following points arise during the argument. Can you decide which might be?

The points of agreement (A),

The points of disagreement (D),

And the irrelevant points (I)?

A. The average person spends 4-5 hours watching TV each day.

B. Most programs on TV are very realistic and so easily imitated.

C. Violence has always been around in stories, games, books, etc., And so its presence on TV is nothing new.

D. TV is bound to have a stronger effect than any other medium.

E. There is no need for TV to show so much violence.

F. Violence should only be shown when children are in bed.

G. Because of TV, people take violence for granted and become very casual about it.

H. People do not regard TV as the real world but as a fairy tale, and you do not imitate fairy tales.

PRACTICE ITEM 2

The debating format can be used with item. In this lesson it might be best to divide the class into an A half and a B half.

Individual students in each half can then put forward single points to support their side of the argument.

At the end the students are asked to pick out the main points of agreement, disagreement, and irrelevance.

There is a suggestion that students who are less intelligent could have shorter vacations so that they would have more time to work and keep up with the others.

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Side A: Arguments in favour of shorter vacations for students who are less bright.

Side B: Arguments against shorter vacations and in favour of everyone having the same vacations.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- They could work longer and so keep up.
- They could get special attention.
- Students that fall behind get further and further behind the class as the school year progresses - this would provide an opportunity for catching up.
- Lazy students would work harder so as not to be considered less intelligent.

Side B.

- Teachers would also have to have shorter vacations.
- Less intelligent students probably have to work harder so they need more vacation, not less.
- It would not be a good idea to divide students into two types.
- Students who are bored would get even more bored.

PRACTICE ITEM 3

The debating format can be used with this item. In this lesson it might be best to divide the class into an A half and a B half.

Individual students in each half can then put forward single points to support their side of the argument.

At the end the students are asked to pick out the main points of agreement, disagreement, and irrelevance.

Should a person who is trying to destroy free speech have the right to free speech?

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Should a political party that aims to destroy free speech be given free speech?

Should an organisation that disrupts other people's meetings be allowed to hold meetings?

Side A: Arguments in favour of free speech for everyone, no matter what their aim or intention might be.

Side B: Arguments against allowing free speech to those who do not believe in it for others.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- Free speech means free speech for everyone.
- Who is going to decide who can have free speech?
- Soon the government might decide that someone it did not like should not have free speech.
- It is better to give them the chance of trying to persuade people by free speech.

Side B.

- Once such people have power, they will stop free speech for everyone.
- Why should someone use a privilege he/she would deny to others?
- A clever person could use deceit and persuasion to build up a big following.
- The first duty of any political system is to safeguard its own survival.

PRACTICE ITEM 4 (STEALING BASES)

The debating format can be used with this item. In this lesson it might be best to divide the class into an A half and a B half.

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Individual students in each half can then put forward single points to support their side of the argument.

At the end the students are asked to pick out the main points of agreement, disagreement, and irrelevance.

It is sometimes claimed that a person who is very hungry and has no money has a right to steal food, for instance from a supermarket.

Side A: Stealing is always wrong and a person has no right to steal.

Side B: The right to survive is stronger than the right to property.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- A person who is lazy and does not want to work might also be hungry - and could make it a way of life.
- Who is to decide whether a particular thief was hungry enough to justify theft?
- A law is no law if there are exceptions.
- It is better to keep the law and show mercy in special circumstances.

Side B.

- Human life is more important than property.
- Such people would only take enough for their own immediate needs and this would not harm anyone.
- The government should pay the store owners for the goods as a form of social relief.
- There would be more insistence by everyone on relieving poverty if everyone could suffer in this way (i.e., by being robbed).

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Lesson 6

Being Right 1

Two of the main ways of being right. (1) Examining the idea itself, its implications and effects. (2) Referring to facts, authority, feelings.

INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with two of the four main ways of proving a point or being right in an argument. The students are asked to observe an argument and then to comment on which way is being used.

The two ways described in this lesson are:

1. SHOW
2. REFER.

SHOW: This includes showing what something means; showing why an idea would work (or would not work); showing what would happen if an idea were carried out; showing all the implications and logical deductions. In fact, "show" covers all the usual ways of proving a point.

REFER: This includes referring to some outside source of support for the argument. It can mean bringing in facts and figures. It can mean referring to feelings or instincts.

The distinction between the two is quite straightforward: you are either "showing" how something is or you are "referring" to something to support your argument.

In an argument there are four important ways people use to show that they are right.

The first two of these ways are dealt with in this lesson and the next two ways in the following lesson.

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SHOW:

- You try to show what would happen.
- You try to show why an idea is impossible.

- You try to show the implications.
- You try to show how the idea can be looked at your way.
- You try to show how an idea is wrong by examining it
- You try to show how an idea is right by examining it.

REFER:

- You refer to facts.
- You refer to authority.
- You refer to what the experts say.
- You refer to personal experience.
- You refer to common experience.
- You refer to your own instincts or feelings.
- You refer to common instincts or feelings.

Example:

Education should be useful rather than interesting.

Someone arguing in favour of this point uses the show and refer method of being right in the following way:

Show:

- If everyone did only what interested them there would be chaos and everyone would play around all day.
- Some useful things like mathematics may be boring to many people.
- Some subjects may be boring at first but interesting later.

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Refer:

- The principal and teachers should know best.
- For certain jobs definite qualifications are required - even if it is very boring getting them.

- A lot of people may all be interested in the same thing but society needs different jobs to be done.

A simple or local example can be used in addition to the one given in the student's notes. "I can show you (or explain to you) why a car with square wheels would be uncomfortable; but I would have to refer to the maker's handbook to tell you the exact gear ratios.

"

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first item is done on an open-class basis.

The teacher can take the listed points one by one and ask the class whether the point uses the show or refer method of being right.

There is a suggestion that ordinary citizens should be paid definite monetary rewards for reporting crime to the police (burglary, shoplifting, assault, fraud, etc.).

In the argument about this suggestion the following points are made. Can you indicate which points use the show method and which use the refer method?

A. We know that many police forces are under-staffed, especially in cities.

B. If criminals know that anyone might report them they would be deterred (especially shoplifters).

C. I don't like the idea of everyone snooping on everyone else.

D. In fact, police already use paid informers to catch criminals.

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E. Some people might invent crimes and accuse people in order to earn money.

F. It would cost a lot of money.

Suggested points for practice item:

A. Refers to common knowledge and the fact that police forces are understaffed.

B. shows what might happen if the idea were adopted.

C. Refers to personal feeling of dislike in the matter.

D. Refers to the fact that police do use paid informers already.

E. shows what might happen if the idea were adopted.

F. shows what might happen (possibly refers to the cost, but this is only an opinion and not a fact).

There is a suggestion that ordinary citizens should be paid definite monetary rewards for reporting crime to the police (burglary, shoplifting, assault, fraud, etc.).

In the argument about this suggestion the following points are made. Can you indicate which points use the show method and which use the refer method?

PRACTICE ITEM 2.

The debating format is used with this item. In this lesson it is probably best to let one side of the argument run for a while (with an individual or a group taking up each side), and then stop it and ask the "observer" students which method of being right had been used and where.

The argument can then continue again for a while. This is better than trying to take the argument point by point, or waiting until the end of the argument.

Should there be small grocery stores (often owned by families), or should there be supermarkets only?

The food is often cheaper in the supermarkets, but the service and attention is more personal in the corner grocers.

Side A: Arguments in favour of preserving the small grocers and against letting the supermarkets take over entirely.

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Side B: Arguments in favour of the supermarkets and showing why it is better to let them take over.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A.

- Small grocery stores are nearer and easier to get to.
- You meet your neighbours in the corner grocers.
- Lonely people and old people can have someone to talk to and someone to help them.
- The service is more friendly and helpful.

Side B.

- Supermarkets are cheaper because they have less staff for the volume of food.
- The food is fresher and more carefully supervised.
- There is a greater variety of goods.
- You are less dependent on the efficiency of one person.

PRACTICE ITEM 3

The debating format is used for this item. In this lesson it is probably best to let one side of the argument run for a while (with an individual or a group taking up each side), and then stop it and ask the "observer" students which method of being right had been used and where.

The argument can then continue again for a while. This is better than trying to take the argument point by point, or waiting until the end of the argument.

There is an argument about whether the existing airport in a town should be doubled in size or whether a new airport should be built somewhere else.

Side A: Arguments in favour of doubling the existing airport.

Side B: Arguments in favour of a new airport elsewhere.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- With two airports, people would get confused.

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- People near the existing airport are already used to the sound.
- Organisation would be much easier.
- Support services would be cheaper in the existing airport.
- Transferring from plane to plane would be easier.

Side B

- The present airport is overcrowded.
- More landings will be possible.
- It is a good chance to start a modern airport.
- More businesses might locate near the new airport.
- More employment and construction work will be provided.

PRACTICE ITEM 4

The debating format is used for this item. In this lesson it is probably best to let one side of the argument run for a while (with an individual or a group taking up each side), and then stop it and ask the "observer" students which method of being right had been used and where.

The argument can then continue again for a while.

This is better than trying to take the argument point by point, or waiting until the end of the argument.

Some people argue that it is the duty of Scientists only to discover things and that they have no responsibility regarding the use of their discoveries.

Other people argue that if scientists invent an atom bomb then they are responsible for all the people killed by the bomb.

Side A: Arguments that it is a scientist's job to discover things and that society must be responsible for how these things are used.

Side B: Arguments that the scientists are themselves responsible and must be careful about what they work on.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

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- Scientists are not trained to examine the social consequences of everything they did
- It is not the duty of a scientist to tell society how to behave.
- Even the most helpful discovery can be turned to evil purposes - for instance, biotechnology in germ warfare.
- Even if the scientists on one side refuse to work on something, the scientists on the other side might do so with dangerous consequences - for instance, the atom bomb.

Side B

- Scientists must know better than anyone else the implications of what they are doing.
- Dangerous weapons must be kept out of the hands of children and often politicians are like children.
- If all scientists refused to work on things that were dangerous to society these things would not get developed.
- It would not be wise to let scientists work on anything they like, because some of them might be crazy or power hungry.

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Lesson 7

Being Right 2

The other two ways of being right. (1) Use of names, labels, classifications. (2)Judgment, including the use of value words.

INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with the remaining two ways of being right:

1. NAME
2. JUDGE.

At first sight both these ways of being right may seem false. It may seem that they are tricks used by people to make them-selves appear right.

It is quite true that these particular ways of being right are very frequently abused and it is useful to be able to pick out the abuses. But, just as a hammer can be used for driving in a nail or breaking a window, these two ways of being right are valid in themselves.

NAME: Someone identifies a situation and gives it a name. In this way the experience and value attached to that name become attached to the argument either in favour of something or against something.

This point is best explained with multiple examples. If you call someone a 'sneak ' then you are attaching all we know about sneaks to that person.

If you call the disappearance of a book a "theft," then you are attaching all we know about theft to the disappearance.

If you call something a "record," then you are attaching all we know about records and record-breaking.

JUDGE: Here a value-word or value-adjective is used directly to indicate whether something is good or bad.

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For instance, if you call an idea “ridiculous” you are trying to say it is not worth considering. If you say that someone is “dirty” you may be trying to prove why you are right in disliking him/her.

If you say that some arrangement is “fair” you are trying to prove that you are right to support that arrangement. Even though it does not cover the whole situation, it is probable best to confine this method to value judgements and in particular the use of value-adjectives.

We often put a label on things. We give things a name which is a noun or we judge some quality by using an adjective.

It is necessary to explain that both these ways of being right are very often abused. For instance, to call someone “dirty” does not prove anything, except that you want to call him/her that. Value-adjectives are used to express feeling but rarely prove anything at all. The method may, however, be validly used, as in: “No one liked him, but we must admit that he was sincere in his beliefs”.

The crucial test is, of course:

What is the evidence for the judgement?

In an argument people use four main ways to show that they are right. Two of these ways, show and refer, have been dealt with in the previous lesson. The remaining two ways are name and judge.

NAME; Someone claims to recognise the situation and proceeds to name it or attach some label to it. This name or label has its own value and this value then supports the argument.

For instance:

- This is a trick.
- This is nothing but blackmail.
- You are all fascists.
- This is a communist plot to destroy the government.
- We would expect this from capitalists.
- He is a sneak.
- That is just cheating.

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Once the situation has been named then everyone is supposed to react to the name.

JUDGE; Here it is a matter of using value words. These words carry with them a value with which no one could disagree. By using these value words a person judges the situation and puts on it a value which is thought to be right.

Examples of value words: right, proper, just, normal, fair, honourable, honest, clever, brave, direct, open, sincere, etc.

Silly, ridiculous, unjust, abnormal, unfair, immoral, dishonest, cowardly, stupid, devious, insincere, etc.

Example:

Are music artists a good or bad influence on young people?

The following points are raised in an argument on this question:

1. They are wonderful people. (Judge)
2. They are so free and alive they must be a good influence. (Judge)
3. They are sensitive and sincere. (Judge)
4. They are decadent and stupid. (Judge)
5. They are very limited and selfish. (Judge)
6. The whole pop scene is just a commercial venture to make money. (Name)
7. Their culture is only an image with nothing behind it. (Name)
8. They are leaders of fashion and youth culture. (Name)
9. They are not real - they are plastic people attached to a recording company. (Name)

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PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first item is done on an open-class basis.

The teacher takes each listed point by itself and gets the class to classify the particular way of being right that has been used (i.e.; name or judge).

There are often discussions as to whether the U.S. should intervene militarily in the Middle East.

The following points often arise in arguments on this matter.

Indicate which points are using the name method and which the judge method.

1. The militarists always want a military solution.
2. The U.S. should not be a bully.
3. The opponents of intervention are ignorant of what is going on.
4. We must show that we are strong and will resist aggression.
5. These are people's movements and we should support them.
6. Too often one tyranny is just replaced by another.
7. The U.S. must always be on the side of freedom.

Suggested points for practice item:

1. Name by using "militarists".
2. Name by using "bully".
3. Judge by using "ignorant".
4. Judge by using "strong," "resist," "aggression".
5. Name by using "movements".
6. Both judge and name with "tyranny".
7. Judge with "freedom".

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PRACTICE ITEM 2

The debating is used for this item. Each side of the argument is taken by an individual or a group and the rest of the class act as observers. These observers are free to press the metaphorical "buzzer" (i.e., signal by raising a hand) whenever someone uses a value-word or a name. The argument then continues.

It is not that value-words and names are forbidden, but that they are to be "spotted." In each case there may be a brief discussion as to whether the word is being used properly or abused.

Some people argue that it is a woman's place to stay at home, do housework and look after children. Others say that a woman should be free to go out and do an interesting job, and that men should share the housework with women.

Side A: Arguments for women staying at home in their traditional role.

Side B: Arguments against women having to stay at home and in favour of their having the same sort of opportunities as men.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- Most women would really prefer to stay at home if they did not have to go out to earn money.
- If a woman is out at work all day she cannot bring up her children properly.
- If women become like men in everything, what is the point of being a woman?
- If men stayed home they might discover they prefer housework to office work.

Side B

- Women have minds and ambitions as well as men.
- If women go out and work they increase the family income.
- Women should have the same opportunities as men and use them if they want to - and not use them if they don't want to.
- It depends more on personality than on being a man or a woman.

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PRACTICE ITEM 3

The debating format is used with this item. Each side of the argument is taken by an individual or a group and the rest of the class act as observers.

These observers are free to press the metaphorical "buzzer" (i.e., signal by raising a hand) whenever someone uses a value-word or a name. The argument then continues.

It is not that value-words and names are forbidden, but that they are to be "spotted." In each case there may be a brief discussion as to whether the word is being used properly or abused.

Should there be free migration between different countries so that people can live and work where they like or should there be strict controls so that only those born in a country can live there?

Side A: Arguments in favour of free migration.

Side B: Arguments against free migration and in favour of very strict controls.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- People should be free to move out of a country that does not suit them and to live in a country that does.
- National boundaries are artificial - underneath we are all human beings.
- Free migration would make nationalism and wars obsolete.
- Migrants can sometimes bring in new talents.

Side B

- It is unfair that newcomers should just arrive and enjoy the benefits that natives have had to build up over years.
- Too much mixture may cause conflict, jealousy and racial troubles.
- How do you stop a popular country from being flooded with people?
- If all the best people leave a poor country it will get even poorer.

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PRACTICE ITEM 4 (A DEDICATED FOLLOW OF FASHION)

The debating format is used for this item. Each side of the argument is taken by an individual or a group and the rest of the class act as observers.

These observers are free to press the metaphorical "buzzer" (i.e., signal by raising a hand) whenever someone uses a value-word or a name. The argument then continues.

It is not that value-words and names are forbidden, but that they are to be "spotted." In each case there may be a brief discussion as to whether the word is being used properly or abused.

Should people be judged by their appearance and the clothes they wear?

Should a person with long hair and jeans be thought less capable of doing a job than a person with a suit and tie?

Side A: Arguments against judging people by their appearance.

Side B: Arguments in favour of judging people to some extent by their appearance.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- Clothes are just a fashion and tell nothing about the person inside - for instance, almost all teenagers wear jeans.
- Clothes may depend on income and it would be unfair to exclude poor people from the jobs they really need.
- People can always change their clothes later if they find them unsuitable for the job.
- It is easy to be fooled by clothes and a neatly dressed person may in fact be lazy or a con-man.

Side B

- If people cannot be bothered to put on neat clothes they show too little consideration for others.
- People who are sloppy about their appearance will probably be sloppy in work.

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- A poor appearance may affect customers (in a store, etc.).
- If no one pays any attention to clothes and cleanliness everyone will get dirtier and sloppier.

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Lesson 8

Being Wrong 1

Exaggeration - false generalizations, taking things to extremes. Basing conclusions on only part of the situation.

INTRODUCTION

This lesson is concerned with two of the main ways of being wrong. The emphasis of the lesson is on being able to recognise and pick out both ways. The both ways to be wrong are

1. EXAGGERATE
2. MISS-OUT

At first, this applies to the other side's arguments, but once the concepts become clear it applies to one's own thinking. It is important to illustrate each way very clearly with definite examples and not to try to clarify the processes by distinguishing them from others.

EXAGGERATE includes false generalisations. It also includes the "magnitude error," which is very common in thinking and arises from a lack of sense of proportion.

Indeed it could be said that mathematics was invented to stop this magnitude error. For instance, to say that "a ten percent rise in the cost of living will make it impossible for anyone to support a family" is clearly an exaggeration because, although the trend will be in that direction. The portrayed magnitude of the effect is quite wrong.

Straightforward exaggeration (the U.S.A. spent so much money on the Apollo program it had none left for other things") is part of the same error.

So is taking things to extremes: "The advocates of women's liberation are all neurotic man-haters."

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Very many arguments are not about whether an effect exists, but about how big it is or how important, and this is why the exaggeration error is so fundamental.

MISS-OUT means that some parts of the situation or the evidence are simply ignored.

This is the basis for many arguments in which a person's thinking seems to be very plausible and indeed logical, but leads to a false conclusion. It is also at the bottom of those arguments in which each side seems to be logically correct and yet arrives at opposite conclusions.

Politicians are often guilty of this type of error in their public pronouncements. In order to make a point, they look at that part of the situation which supports the point, and ignore or miss-out on the rest.

For instance, one politician may look at the rise in the price of frozen fish and base a wage demand on that. Another politician may look at the adverse balance of payments and deny a low-paid worker a wage rise on that basis.

This type of error is extremely dangerous, because it is indeed possible to build a perfectly logical argument based on false premises or assumptions.

Since it is not possible to attack the validity of the logic, the conclusion seems to be impregnable.

Yet the whole argument may have ignored certain crucial factors (like estimates of Japan's world dominance by 2000 AD seem to have missed out her dependence on imported fuel), and when these are brought in the argument collapses - no matter how logical it appeared in the first place.

No one is ever wrong on purpose.

Nevertheless there are four standard ways of being wrong which you may notice in other people>s thinking or they may notice in yours. The first two ways are exaggerate and miss out.

EXAGGERATE - This can involve three processes:

1. Straightforward exaggeration: "If you jump up and down like that the whole building will collapse."
2. Taking things to extremes: "If public transportation were free then everyone would ride around all day and no work would get done."

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3. False generalisation (exaggerating an example into a general rule): "I know one Australian and he is very happy so perhaps we ought to emigrate to Australia."

MISS OUT - If you look at only part of a situation you may be perfectly right with regard to that part but quite wrong with regard to what you have ignored or missed out.

"If we are short of energy the obvious thing to do is to build a lot of nuclear power stations." (Missing out the dangers of radioactivity, both in the case of accident and also waste disposal.)

"We should abolish all tests because students do not like them." (Missing out the effect of tests on getting students to work and the difficulty of selecting for college admissions.)

"All motor traffic should be banned completely from city centres." (Missing out on buses and the need to unload from trucks in order to fill up stores.)

Example:

Teenagers over the age of 14 should be allowed to stay out as long as they like in the evening.

- Many of them would stay out all night. (Exaggerate)
- If a teenager tells her parents where she is going the situation is quite safe. (Missing out the possibility of her not telling the truth)
- A person who does not drink is in no trouble. (Missing out the fact that other people drink and may cause trouble, such as driving drunk)
- I know one boy who got beaten up by a gang late in the evening, so I think everyone should be home by 9 p.m. (Exaggerate)
- If parents control what time you come home they will want to control everything: clothes, friends, toothpaste, etc. (Exaggerate)
- Parents do not understand what young people do. That is why they want them home early. (Missing out the possibility that if they did understand they might want them home early even more)

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For this reason, very clear examples with frequent repetition of the words exaggerate and miss-out is better than philosophical definitions.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first item is done on an open-class basis. Each point is taken in turn and examined with the class to see whether it is an example of exaggerate or miss-out.

Subtle distinctions should be avoided, and there may be instances when a point may be seen to be an example of both - if looked at in a particular way.

Is it right that a union should be able to call a strike in order to get the wages it wants for its members?

In an argument on this subject the following points arise. Some of them are examples of exaggeration and others of missing out.

Indicate which are which.

1. There is nothing to stop unions from striking for huge amounts of money if they want to.
2. If there were no right to strike, workers would be slaves.
3. A strike is a fair form of bargaining between employer and workers.
4. If a company can afford to pay more money to its own workers it should be forced by law to do so.
5. If there were no strikes there would be twice as much productivity.
6. If workers got the pay they wanted there would be no more strikes.

Suggested points for practice item:

1. Exaggeration - an example of taking things to extremes.

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2. Exaggeration to call workers slaves if they cannot strike (for instance, fixed contracts might be used).
3. Missing-out the effect of the strikes on the general public - is it fair to them?
4. Missing-out the fact that other companies would be forced to pay the same wages as the most profitable company, so they would be forced out of business.
5. A gross exaggeration - in fact, productivity might increase by 5% or 10%.Also missing-out the problems of individual bargaining and deciding how much a company can afford from year to year.
6. Missing-out the other factors causing strikes: dismissals, work conditions, etc.

PRACTICE ITEM 2

The debating format is used for this item. Individuals or groups are asked to take up sides A and B of the argument.

In the course of the debate the teacher can stop it at any point and, repeating one of the arguments used, ask the class to classify it as miss-out or exaggeration.

Alternatively, the "buzzer" method can be used and individuals asked to signal as soon as they spot the use of an exaggeration or obvious miss-out.

The landlord wants to raise the rents in a block of apartments. He claims that the extra money is needed for repairs. The tenants committee is resisting this demand.

Side A: Arguments in favour of the rent increase.

Side B: Arguments against the rent increase.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- The cost of repairs is always going up.

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- Tenants always resist rent increases no matter how justified.
- The building must show a profit.
- Other landlords have had to increase the rent.
- If tenants do not like it they can leave.

Side B

- The landlord does not use the money for repairs.
- The landlord's service is very poor.
- The landlord is being very greedy. * There has to be a line drawn somewhere.
- The tenants do not believe the landlord.

PRACTICE ITEM 3 (A SMALL STEP OR A GIANT LEAP)

The debating format is used for this item. Individuals or groups are asked to take up sides A and B of the argument.

In the course of the debate the teacher can stop it at any point and, repeating one of the arguments used, ask the class to classify it as miss-out or exaggeration.

Alternatively, the "buzzer" method can be used and individuals asked to signal as soon as they spot the use of an exaggeration or obvious miss-out.

A very great deal of money was spent on the Apollo program which landed people on the moon. Would this money have been better spent on schools, hospitals, medical research, aid to poor countries, etc.?

Side A: Arguments to show that the money would have been better spent on these things.

Side B: Arguments in favour of the Apollo program and landing on the moon.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- Nothing at all was gained from the moon landings except a little more expertise in rockets and their control.

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- A huge number of new schools or hospitals could have been built for this money.
- It is wrong to be seen spending money on such luxuries when poverty exists in a country.
- If given the choice most people would have preferred the money to be spent more usefully.

Side B

- Landing on the moon is probably humankind's greatest achievement, since it is the first one to take us outside our own Earth's environment.
- The money would not have made any lasting difference to those other areas, but the fact of having landed on the moon is everlasting.
- Humanity needs inspiration and spiritual encouragement, not just food.
- The management techniques developed for this tremendous program can now be applied to other areas.

PRACTICE ITEM 4 (CHILD LABOUR)

The debating format is used for this item. Individuals or groups are asked to take up sides A and B of the argument.

In the course of the debate the teacher can stop it at any point and, repeating one of the arguments used, ask the class to classify it as miss-out or exaggeration.

Alternatively, the "buzzer" method can be used and individuals asked to signal as soon as they spot the use of an exaggeration or obvious miss-out.

Should children try to earn some money to help their parents by taking jobs? Such as in the morning (like newspaper routes), in the evening, and weekends, or during vacations?

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Side A: Arguments in favour of children taking jobs in this way.

Side B: Arguments against children taking jobs to help their parents.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- If children do jobs they will soon learn the value of money.
- Parents often have to work too hard to support their children, who take things for granted.
- Doing a job gives a child a sense of satisfaction and independence.
- Children might work harder at school if they realise that without qualifications it is not easy to get a job.

Side B

- You are only young once and you should enjoy yourself - in time you will be a working parent too.
- Other people who need the money more would not get the jobs.
- You cannot really study hard if you have no time to play.
- Most parents would not want to be helped by their children in this way.

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Lesson 9

Being Wrong 2

The remaining two ways of being wrong: mistake and prejudice.

INTRODUCTION

Mistake, and Prejudice

This lesson is concerned with the remaining two ways of being wrong. As before, it is best to give clear examples of each, rather than try to explain the processes in a philosophical fashion.

Some examples are given in the student notes and others are given below.

MISTAKE covers exactly what it seems to cover: mistakes in facts, mistakes in identification, misinterpretations, misunderstandings, getting things wrong in a variety of ways.

Usually the mistakes are genuine, but sometimes they are deliberate. For instance a person may genuinely get a fact wrong, but may deliberately misinterpret what the opponent is saying in order to win a point.

It is not always easy to pick out a mistake. For instance, you can only pick out a mistaken fact if you happen to know the correct fact. Nor is it always easy to get someone to admit a mistake. Nevertheless it is useful to be able to say: "That is a straightforward mistake," or "I think that is a mistake".

MISTAKE: This covers all the examples of the ordinary type of error or mistake. "The Japanese drive on the right-hand side of the road" (mistake of fact, since they drive on the left).

"That is Joe's handwriting" (mistake of recognition, since it is really Peter's).

"You are arguing for longer vacations" (misunderstanding if the person was arguing for less work during the same school semesters).

No attempt should be made to distinguish between these different types - they are simply different illustrations of mistake.

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PREJUDICE covers all those fixed ideas which are not open to alteration by argument or evidence, no matter how strong it is.

There may be a fixed idea that opponents are idiots, dishonest or crooks. There may be a fixed idea of conflict between "them" and "us" (fixed polarisations). Clichés and fixed generalisations also come under this heading. So do doctrinaire beliefs and dogmas.

The actual content of the fixed idea may sometimes be valid. What is wrong is the way the fixed idea is used as proof in an argument. The more evidence there is against a particular fixed idea, the more "wrong" it is to use that idea as fixed.

In effect, prejudice renders all argument useless.

PREJUDICE: This applies to those fixed ideas which are not the result of thinking. In practice it may be difficult to distinguish between an idea that seems to be prejudice but for which some scanty arguments can be brought forward. In such cases it is still possible to say: "That seems to be prejudice since those arguments are not sufficient."

Prejudice may of course be for the good, although it is usually the opposite. For instance, there may be a prejudice that all Swiss are very efficient. The important point is that the error lies in using fixed ideas (whether good or bad) which are not open to discussion.

Any fixed idea that is not based on evidence and not open to alteration is an example of prejudice.

"Claudia will cheat if she gets a chance."

"Juan cannot have done this because he is always so honest."

"Old people cannot understand young people."

"Union leaders are only interested in their power".

Two ways of being wrong in an argument, exaggerate and missing out, were examined in the previous lesson.

The remaining two ways of being wrong are mistake and prejudice.

MISTAKE - Genuine mistakes can take several forms:

1. Getting a fact wrong: The moon is 500,000 miles from the earth. (actually it is 250,000 miles)

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2. Mistake in recognition or identification: Those cows are Friesian cows. (when they are really Herefords)
3. Wrong interpretation of opponent's argument: You are in favour of capital punishment. (when you are in favour of stricter prison sentences)

PREJUDICE - Prejudice covers all fixed ideas such as:

- Fixed idea that the other side is stupid and whatever they say must be wrong- as in politics.
- Fixed idea that there is only one possible way of looking at things - your way.
- Fixed idea that all Americans are very rich, all Frenchmen love garlic, all British houses are cold; all children are angels, etc.
- Fixed idea that there must be a division into "them and us".

Example:

Is there any point in trying to teach people how to think?

In an argument on this subject the following points arose:

- People should do as they are told. If they start thinking they only cause trouble. (Prejudice)
- You are born with a fixed intelligence and nothing else matters. (Prejudice)
- If you have not been to college your thinking is worthless. (Prejudice)
- Thinking is valuable only when there are difficult problems. (Mistake)
- Thinking lessons should be more interesting. (Mistake)
- Intelligent people are always good at thinking. (Mistake)

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PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1

Teachers Notes: This first item is done on an open-class basis. Each point in turn is discussed with the class and it is decided whether it is an example of mistake or prejudice.

Quite often the two can go together and there is no harm saying so.

Should buildings be beautiful to look at or should they be practical to work in?

It is sometimes claimed that the most beautiful buildings are not very practical and that some ugly buildings are easier to use. In an argument about this the following points arose.

Some of them show prejudice and some show mistakes - can you indicate which is which?

1. Beautiful buildings are always very expensive.
2. You cannot please everyone and one person's beauty is another person's ugliness.
3. If people are surrounded by beauty they are bound to be happier.
4. Concrete buildings can never be made beautiful.
5. More people work in a building than look at it from the outside.
6. When you are using other people's money, as in public buildings, cost is the most important thing.

Suggested points for practice item:

1. The idea that beautiful buildings must always be expensive seems to be a prejudice.
2. Another example of prejudice which leads to no attempt being made to make anything beautiful.

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3. A further example of prejudice: a fixed belief that beautiful surroundings make people happy. It may in fact be true but it is nevertheless a prejudice.
4. A prejudice against concrete buildings. Also a mistake.
5. A simple mistake, since the same people work inside a building, but there are thousands of different passers-by.
6. A mistake, since beauty of surroundings is as much a public duty as cost.

PRACTICE ITEM 2

The debating format is used for this item. There are three alternatives.

The arguments (on an A and B basis) can be allowed to run for a short time and then the observers are asked for comments on the use of mistake or prejudice.

Alternatively (and it may be best for this lesson), the teacher halts the discussion and repeats one of the points to the class, who then discuss whether or not it is an example of prejudice or mistake.

The third alternative is the "buzzer" method in which the observers signal when they think they have spotted examples of mistake or prejudice in the ongoing argument.

Should people be paid according to how hard they work or according to how much money they need?

For instance, should a person with four children and a parent to support be paid the same as a bachelor?

Or should someone who works hard be paid less than a lazy person who has a large family?

Side A: Arguments in favour of people being paid according to how hard they work.

Side B: Arguments in favour of people being paid according to how much they really need.

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Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- People would never work hard if it made no difference in their pay-checks.
- People should not be rewarded merely for having many children.
- How do you determine how much a person needs? People have different needs and tastes.
- A person with greater needs should be given the opportunity to work harder.

Side B

- No one should extract more from the world than they really need - this way there would be no waste.
- People with real needs may not be able to work hard for various reasons such as ill health.

PRACTICE ITEM 3 (AND TIME TICKS BLANK AND BUSY ON THEIR WRISTS)

The debating format is used with this item. There are three alternatives.

The arguments (on an A and B basis) can be allowed to run for a short time and then the observers are asked for comments on the use of mistake or prejudice.

Alternatively (and it may be best for this lesson), the teacher halts the discussion and repeats one of the points to the class, who then discuss whether or not it is an example of prejudice or mistake.

The third alternative is the "buzzer" method in which the observers signal when they think they have spotted examples of mistake or prejudice in the ongoing argument.

Some people say that they are pacifists and would not fight a war or kill another person under any circumstances.

Other people say that it may be necessary to fight a war to defend one's country against an attacker, and that pacifists can only exist so long as there are others to do the fighting.

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Side A: Arguments in favour of pacifism and how it can be made to work.

Side B: Arguments against pacifism both as a general policy and also in practice. Arguments in favour of justified defense.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- If people are prepared to suffer or die for their beliefs then pacifism can work.
- Pacifism might be impractical if everyone acted that way, but that does not mean it is wrong for a few people to hold such beliefs.
- If pacifism really spread so that everyone was affected then all problems of war and aggression would be ended.
- One should not cease to strive for an idea merely because it seems impractical - the striving itself can have a good influence.

Side B

- You might be a pacifist yourself but how do you defend your family?
- Pacifism is fine so long as enough other people do the fighting - rather like not being vaccinated against smallpox, so long as everyone else is.
- What is one to do about aggression and aggressive wars - is no form of self-defence justified?
- Weakness may encourage aggression rather than remove it.

PRACTICE ITEM 4 (WEDDING BELLS)

The debating format is used for this item.

There are three alternatives.

The arguments (on an A and B basis) can be allowed to run for a short time and then the observers are asked for comments on the use of mistake or prejudice.

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Alternatively (and it may be best for this lesson), the teacher halts the discussion and repeats one of the points to the class, who then discuss whether or not it is an example of prejudice or mistake.

The third alternative is the "buzzer" method in which the observers signal when they think they have spotted examples of mistake or prejudice in the ongoing argument.

In some countries it is the custom for parents to arrange marriages for their children.

They find someone who is suitable in background or even useful from a business point of view.

It is said that the partners start out with a more realistic view of marriage and try to make it work Also there are fewer disappointed or unmarried people.

Side A: Arguments against arranged marriages and in favour of everyone choosing a marriage partner for himself or herself.

Side B: Arguments in favour of arranged marriages and against the direct choice system.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A

- It is impossible for parents to know what their children really want.
- Love is one of the most beautiful things in life, and arranged marriages throw this gift away.
- Why should a person have to adjust to another person instead of being delighted to live with the other person?
- There is more to life than business arrangements.

Side B

- Young people have no experience and marry for infatuation and soon regret it.
- You can grow to love an arranged marriage partner instead of getting bored with a love partner.

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- Marriage is for family and stability - perhaps love can be found elsewhere.
- People who arrange marriages often have a great deal of experience with human nature.

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Lesson 10 Outcome

What has been achieved at the end of an argument? Seven possible levels of achievement short of complete agreement

INTRODUCTION

The whole emphasis of this lesson is to get students to make a conscious and deliberate effort to assess what has been gained from an argument.

On the one hand it is very easy to feel that nothing at all has been gained, and on the other hand it is easy to feel that something has been gained but does not need expressing in words.

The teacher emphasises all the different things which can be gained - from the least to the most:

1. We have wasted our time.
2. We at least know each other's views (EBS, OPV).
3. We agree on these points but differ on those (ADI).
4. We have agreed to differ on this matter.
5. We are agreed about priorities and what needs agreement most (FIP).
6. We have these alternatives to choose from (APC).
7. We have reached a compromise.
8. We have reached an agreement.

As soon as people decide which of these could be the outcome, they should then concentrate on deliberately spelling it out.

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For instance, if people decide the outcome can be no higher than item 5, "We are agreed about priorities and what needs agreement most," then they should deliberately list the priorities for agreement.

Arguments do not always have neat endings.

Occasionally there may be complete agreement. At other times there may be a compromise.

But when there is neither agreement nor compromise has the argument been just a waste of time?

The purpose of this final lesson is to get students to assess what has been achieved in the argument.

- Each side may have a much better knowledge of the other's views.
- It may be possible to map out the points of agreement and the points of disagreement.
- There may be an agreement to disagree on certain issues - at least for the time being.
- There may be an agreement about the priorities and the points which need agreeing most urgently.
- There may be some agreed alternatives even though there is no agreement as to which one is to be chosen.
- There may be an agreement to seek further information.

What happens at the end of an argument?

What has been achieved?

What does it boil down to?

What is the conclusion?

What is the outcome?

Quite a lot may have been achieved, or not very much. The following list shows some possible outcomes, with number 1 being the least useful and number 8 the most useful.

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1. We have wasted our time.
2. We at least know each other's views. (EBS, OPV)
3. We agree on these points but differ on those. (ADI)
4. We have agreed to differ on this matter. 5.
5. We have agreed on the priorities and what needs agreement most. (FIP)
6. We have these alternatives to choose from. (APC)
7. We have reached a compromise.
8. We have reached agreement.

The important thing is to be definite about what has happened in the argument - what the OUTCOME is.

Example:

Should students have a direct say in running their school or not?

The outcome of this argument was in the form of a conclusion agreed on by both sides:

There should be a definite opportunity for the students to put forward their views, either as suggestions for what might be done or objections to what has been proposed.

There should also be a way of showing that these views have been considered.

All these are valid outcomes, and yet they are not obvious until one makes a deliberate effort to see what has been achieved by the agreement.

The important point in the lesson is that every argument does have some sort of outcome and this can be stated in a definite manner.

PRACTICE ITEMS

PRACTICE ITEM 1 (SOME CAPITAL ISSUES)

Teachers Notes: This first item is done on an open-class basis but in this lesson the item is rather different from the usual type. Students can work on their own or in groups.

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Three possible argument situations are given.

Each situation is tackled in turn.

The students are asked to imagine or invent the sort of outcome there might be.

For instance, they might say, "I think they would reach a compromise in that situation," or "I think they could reach agreement," or "I think they would agree on some points and differ on some points."

The students are not asked to examine the different arguments in each situation.

A brief class discussion can follow each point.

Invent some possible outcomes for the following arguments:

1. Side A argues that prison sentences for any sort of violence must be made much longer.

Side B argues that keeping people in prison only makes them into hardened criminals, and in any case it would be very expensive.

2. Some people enjoy rock climbing or mountaineering, but when they get stuck other people may have to risk their lives to rescue them.

Side A argues that rock climbing or mountaineering is dangerous in places and should be banned.

Side B argues that this would take all the fun out of sport and that there is a risk in everything.

3. Transplanting human hearts requires special equipment and a large team of doctors and helpers and the whole thing is very expensive. In any case, it is only possible to transplant a few hearts a year.

Would the money be better spent elsewhere - for instance on research into preventing heart disease?

Side A argues in favour of heart transplants and Side B against them.

Suggested points for practice item:

1. We at least know each other's views.

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2. We have reached a compromise (e.g. every climber gets insurance which is paid to the rescuers - who are themselves volunteers).
3. We are agreed about priorities (e.g., examining the true cost and success rate).

PRACTICE ITEM 2 (THE STATE OF HOUSING)

A debating format is used for this item. If the arguments are kept fairly brief it may be possible to do two items, since with this lesson the argument runs smoothly without interruption for analysis.

Alternative debating formats are possible (class into A and B halves; individuals taking A and B sides, groups taking sides, etc.). Side A gives its case first and then Side B.

The argument can go back and forth for a while, and then the teacher cuts it short and gets two sides (and the observers) to discuss what the outcome could be.

Should the government own a number of houses which would be rented out at low rents to deserving families who otherwise could not find accommodations?

Side A: Arguments in favour of the government owning such houses.

Side B: Arguments against the government being involved in this way.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A:

- Some deserving families may never have what they can't afford.
- The government is accountable, private landlords are not.
- The government has the resources.
- The children of such families should be given a chance to grow up in decent surroundings.

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Side B

- It is not the business of government to get involved.
- People will cheat.
- The incentive to work harder will be removed.
- Government expenditures are already too high.
- Who is to choose these "deserving" families?

PRACTICE ITEM 3 (A GENERAL ARMY ISSUE)

A debating format is used for this item. If the arguments are kept fairly brief it may be possible to do two items, since with this lesson the argument runs smoothly without interruption for analysis.

Alternative debating formats are possible (class into A and B halves; individuals taking A and B sides, groups taking sides, etc.). Side A gives its case first and then Side B.

The argument can go back and forth for a while, and then the teacher cuts it short and gets two sides (and the observers) to discuss what the outcome could be.

Should women play the same role in the armed forces as men?

Side A: Arguments that they should be allowed this equality if they want it.

Side B: Arguments to show that women should not play the same role in the military as men.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A:

4. Women already fight in some armies (e.g... Great Britain).
5. Women have more stamina than men.
6. Modern war is technical and hand-to-hand fighting is rare.
7. Women should be able to make their own choices.

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Side B:

- Having both men and women might cause jealousies and disruptions on a personal level.
- The men might always be trying to protect the women.
- Women tend to be nurturers, not killers.
- Many women are not physically strong or fast enough.
- Pregnancy might cause a problem.
- Men might feel uncomfortable fighting alongside women.

PRACTICE ITEM 4 (SHARING STOCKS)

A debating format is used for this item. If the arguments are kept fairly brief it may be possible to do two items, since with this lesson the argument runs smoothly without interruption for analysis.

Alternative debating formats are possible (class into A and B halves; individuals taking A and B sides, groups taking sides, etc.).

Side A gives its case first and then Side B.

The argument can go back and forth for a while, and then the teacher cuts it short and gets two sides (and the observers) to discuss what the outcome could be.

Are shareholders a good or bad influence on companies?

Side A: Argue in favour.

Side B: Argue against.

Suggested points for practice item:

Side A:

- If shareholders make a profit, they are likely to build more factories and employ good managers to look after their profits.
- No one will take a risk if there is no reward.
- Individual enterprise tends to be more dynamic than central state control.

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- Would people be prevented from using their money to start up a business and then selling part of it?

Side B:

- Once the factory is successful, then there is no more risk and the shareholders are taking the money that should go to the workers.
- The workers have no control over their jobs or security if the management is responsible mainly to the shareholders.
- Profit is the sole motive of the shareholders and, yet there are more important things (living conditions, security, pollution, etc.).
- If the workers owned the factory, they would have to work harder to get more money instead of just striking for it.

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TEST MATERIAL

CORT 3 – INTERACTION

The CoRT 3 lessons are concerned with interaction: argument, controversy, dispute, discussion. Nevertheless it is possible to use written formats.

Some suggestions are given below.

1. The students are asked to write an essay or use note format on a controversial subject.

2. The students are asked to write an essay or use note format on a controversial subject and are directly instructed to give both sides.

3. The students are asked to write about one side of an issue for 15 minutes and are then asked to write about the other side for 15 minutes. In this case it is better that they do not know that they are going to be asked to switch sides.

4. The students are asked to write an essay to support one side of a controversial subject the essays are then switched around so that each student has someone else's essay (preferable without knowing whose it is). They are then asked to pick out different things: types of evidence, different ways of being right or wrong, etc.

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5. Same as 4, but using some other source material, such as a book (e.g., passage from a novel or play) or newspaper.

PURPOSE

The test material has two main functions. The first and most important function is to allow the student to apply the processes which they have learned in the CoRT lessons. Because they are working on their own and using the written form, students have more time to be deliberate and organise their thoughts. In this way they can become more conscious of the application of the processes. The second function is to test the effect of the lessons. This is rather difficult to do with the CoRT 2 lessons, because there are only two specific operations and the rest is a matter of observation. Students' observations on someone else's thinking are not necessarily expressed in their writing unless they are specifically asked to make these observations. For this reason it is best to set specific instructions: assess the value of the evidence and its structure; indicate which ways of being right are being used; what is the outcome?

USE

The test material and written format can be used at the beginning and end of the CoRT 3 terms, in order to assess the effects of the lessons. With more-able students the written form should be interspersed among the lessons, since such students often require a more tangible expression of their skill than simple discussion. For test purposes it also helps to be able to translate thinking processes into the written form, since that is how most tests are conducted. Nevertheless fluency in written expression does not automatically guarantee good thinking (since style can easily obscure content).

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1. Thoroughness: When students are asked to write on both sides of a controversy the teacher may assess the thoroughness with which they do so. Is it a genuine attempt to see both sides, or is it simply a defence of one side with an acknowledgement of the other? The number of points or arguments offered for each side can be counted.

2. Content: This is rather difficult to assess. The teacher can assess for clarity, type of argument used, structure, etc. The difficulty is that many of these things are independent of the thinking lessons as such and also very subjectively judged.

3. Phenomena: Students are asked to examine a controversy and to pick out the type of evidence used, etc. Assessment is relatively easy: the teacher simply counts the phenomena noted by the student and assesses the validity of each.

4. Cross-assessment: This is when students are asked to assess each other's work. Only the more general overall effects may be noted. For instance, at the beginning of the term the students might be far more tolerant of other people's arguing style than at the end or the other way round.

As usual the two main points of assessment are:

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1. How much of the picture is being seen? (Exploration, breadth, depth, number of points, different points, other points of view, etc.)

2. What is made of the ideas? (Relevance, framework, objectivity, balanced judgement, argument structure, conclusions, etc.)

MATERIAL

There are three possible sources of material. Teachers may use practice items that have not actually been used in the lessons. Teachers may produce their own controversies either from the newspaper or current topical events (e.g. should air traffic controllers get paid more?) or from the local school situation. Finally teachers may make use of some of the items listed below.

1. Should there be corporal punishment in school? Some say it is necessary in order to maintain discipline and that it is swift, effective and soon forgotten. Others maintain that it is unnecessary and old-fashioned.

2. Some people argue that TV has a great influence on young people: on their ideas, ambitions, values, etc. Others say that it has no more influence than the furniture in a room. What are the arguments on each side?

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3. It is suggested that instead of paying a cable subscription fee and then watching as much TV as you like, there should be a coin slot on each TV set and you would pay for only what you wanted to watch. What are the arguments on each side? For instance, it could be said that people would watch only programs they really wanted to watch.

4. To help poor people it is suggested that the government put subsidies on fish, milk and bread and raise the money by increasing income tax. What are the arguments on each side?

5. It is suggested that tests are unfair because some people get very nervous and also because it is a matter of luck whether or not you are asked about a topic you know well. It is claimed that a teacher's report on each student would be better. What are the arguments on each side?

6. Should students in schools be made to take part in sports even if they do not want to? It is said that sports are good for them physically and mentally (team spirit, etc.) Unless it was compulsory, lazy students might not want to take part. What are the arguments?

7. Should the oil-producing countries charge as much as they can get for their oil, or should they pay careful attention to the effect on the economy of their customers?

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8. Should Children at schools be paid a small wage by the government? What are the arguments on each side?

9. Lots of windows have been broken lately in a school. A boy finds out that a friend of his is responsible, should he tell the teacher or not? What are the arguments?

10. If children do earn money doing odd jobs should they keep it for themselves or use it to help their parents? What arguments could be put forward on each side?

11. Should students be allowed to choose all their own subjects in schools? Should some of the subjects (like maths) be compulsory?

12. What are the arguments in favour of a scheme which would encourage people to go to college later in life instead of directly after high school? And what are the arguments against such a scheme?

13. Juries are sometimes moved more by sympathy than by justice and sometimes the matter is too technical for them to understand. What are the arguments on each side?

14. Three boys are found by a principal to be bringing drugs (cannabis) into school for their own use. Should they be expelled? Are there arguments on each side?

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15. Arguments for and against arranged marriages with suitable partners, as sometimes happens in India and Japan.

16. Is it better for children to make their own way in life or to inherit money from their parents?

17. Some people say that it is too depressing to read newspapers or listen to the news. They say they do not need to know what is going on in the world and if it is important they will hear about it sooner or later anyway. What are the arguments on each side: for and against reading the news?

18. In the future there may not be enough work to go around. Would it be better for everyone to work half a day and get paid - or for those who liked work to work very hard and the others not to work at all, but get money from the state? What are the arguments on each side?

19. Should prisons be made so uncomfortable that prisoners will not want to go back and other people will be deterred from going there in the first place - or should prisons be made comfortable and an effort made to reform the criminal in pleasant surroundings?

20. It is suggested that, for minor crimes, offenders should be sent to prison for a number of weekends and be able to work during the week in between. What are the arguments for and against this idea?

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21. In the old days a child learned a trade by being apprenticed at an early age to someone in the trade. The child earned very little, but over the years picked up the trade. Today many trades are learned at special colleges. What are the arguments in favour of each system?

22. For each job should there be a special test and then the job be given to the person who does best in that test? What are the arguments on each side?

23. There are those who argue that all medical care should be free (and paid for by the state). Others say that unless the patients pay a charge there will be a great deal of waste. Discuss this matter.

24. Should families which have old people (grandparents) be made to pay a special tax if they refuse to look after them?

25. Should everyone hold the same beliefs - or should people hold their own beliefs even though they seem primitive and wrong to some people?

26. Some artists claim that what they do is just as important to society as making cars or catching fish. They say that the state should pay them a good salary and let them paint what they like. What are the arguments on each side, for and against this?

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27. Many museums have introduced a charge for admission. There are those who say this is unfair and that it will mean that fewer young people will visit museums. Others say that if people can afford candy, video cassettes, records, or going to the movies they can afford to go to a museum and why should the state pay all the costs?

28. A large part of the national budget is spent on defence (paying for the army, navy and air force: developing weapons and buying them, etc.) Should the government spend this money elsewhere (education, health) and not be concerned about defence?

29. Should students in school have any say at all in the selection of the principal? On the one side there is the argument that they are only at the school for a short time, but the principal for much longer. On the other side is the argument that students know better about what goes on in the school than do people outside. What other arguments are there on each side?

30. In elections a lot of people do not bother to vote. Should there be a law making it compulsory for everyone to vote?

31. Should people only think about their own immediate problems or about general problems that concern us as a whole?

32. A president or prime minister finds that most people in the country are against him (as shown by an opinion poll). Should he resign or stay in office?

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33. Is it better to maintain friendly relations with a country that is known to have opposite interests or to keep the country at arm's length?

34. A general in a war disobeys an order and launches an attack. The attack happens to be very successful. Should he be court-martial for disobeying orders or treated as a hero?

35. It is said that industry should spend money on cleaning up pollution. The industrialists argue that this would increase their costs so that they could no longer compete with foreign industry. What are the arguments on each side?

36. Should newspapers give people exactly what they want (sports, entertainment, scandal, etc.) or should newspapers try to educate people and tell them what they need to know even if it seems not to be very interesting?

37. TV is very powerful, since most people spend 4-5 hours every day watching it. Should the purpose of TV be to entertain or to educate?

38. Beef is a very expensive way of getting protein since it takes one acre of land to feed every steer. Protein could be produced more cheaply in factories and the land released for other things.

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39. In some countries people are not allowed to choose their own jobs but are directed by their government to certain jobs that need doing. This is said to be more efficient than the method whereby each person does what he/she wants to do or remains unemployed. What are the arguments on each side: in favour of directed labour or in favour of free choice?

40. It is said that the beautiful oyster catcher bird is eating up all the mussels and so threatening the livelihood of the people who collect mussels. Should the birds be shot to reduce their numbers? What are the arguments on each side?

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