REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE ROLE OF USING SOCRATIC METHOD IN IMPROVING EFL STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

METEHAN İNCİ

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2016

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE ROLE OF USING SOCRATIC METHOD IN IMPROVING EFL STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

METEHAN İNCİ

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU
Jury Member: Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU
Jury Member: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ
Jury Member: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM
Jury Member: Asst. Prof. Dr. Silvia ZİNZADE

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2016

To Çukurova University Institute of Social Sciences

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU

Jury Member: Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

Jury Member: Assoc. Dr. Şehnaz Şahin KARAKAŞ

Jury Member: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM

Jury Member: Asst. Prof. Dr. Silvia ZİNZADE

I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

.../... /2016

Prof. Dr. Yıldırım Beyazıt ÖNAL

Director of Institute

PS: The uncited usage of reports, charts, figures, and photographs in this thesis, whether original or quoted from other sources, is subject to the Laws of Works of Arts and Thought No: 5846

Not: Bu tezde kullanılan özgün ve başka kaynaktan yapılan bildirilerin, çizelge, şekil ve fotoğrafların kaynak gösterilmeden kullanımı, 5846 Sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserler Kanunu'ndaki hükümlere tabidir.

ETİK BEYANI

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında;

- Tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi,
- Tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu,
- Tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi,
- Kullanılan verilerde ve ortaya çıkan sonuçlarda herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı,
- Bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu,

bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim. 07 / 06 / 2016

Metehan İNCİ

ÖZET

BULDURMA YÖNTEMİNİN YABANCI DİL SINIFLARINDA KULLANIMININ TARTIŞMACI YAZMA BECERİLERİNİN GELİŞMESİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

METEHAN İNCİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU
Haziran 2016, 180 sayfa

Sözün etkin biçimde kullanılması sorunu, geçmişten günümüze bilim insanlarının ilgisini çeken bir konu olmuştur. Bu yönde yapılan araştırmalarda, düşüncelerin etkin biçimde sözlü ve yazılı kanallardan ifade edilmesinde eleştirel düşünme becerisinin önemi vurgulanırken, eğitimciler bu becerinin öğrencilere hangi yöntemle kazandırılacağı konusuna odaklanmışlardır.

Öğrencilere eleştirel düşünme becerisinin kazandırılmasına yönelik ilk dizgesel çalışma, bugün yaygın bir öğretim yöntemi olarak kullanılan Sokrat yöntemi, ilk olarak Adler (1982) tarafından kendi eğitim programında kullanılmıştır. Bu yöntem sınıf içi tartışmada, Sokrat yöntemiyle sorular sorarak, öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünmelerine katkıda bulunma amacı taşır. Adler'e göre, temel değer ve düşüncelerin kavranması, didaktik eğitim yoluyla pek olası değildir ve bu noktada Sokrat yöntemi, öğrencinin söz konusu değer ve düşünceler konusunda içgörü edinmesini sağlar.

Daha önce alanda yapılan çalışmalar, buldurma yönteminin, öğrencinin eleştirel düşünmesi üzerinde etkin bir rolü olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu çalışmalardan elde edilen bulgular gösteriyor ki, söz konusu yöntem, mantıklı ve eleştirel düşünme ve etkin üstbilişsel stratejiler kullanma gibi alanlarda olumlu etkiler sağlamaktadır. Söz konusu çalışmaların çoğu buldurma yönteminin, sözlü tartışmacı anlatıma yönelik olduğunu göstermektedir. Ne var ki, bu alanda özellikle Sokrat yönteminin tartışmacı yazılı anlatım üzerindeki etkisini araştıran çalışmaların sayısı azdır.

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil sınıfında, yazma derslerinde Sokrat yönteminin kullanılmasının öğrencilerin tartışmacı kompozisyon yazma becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesini ve betimlenmesini amaçlamaktadır. Sokrat yönteminin

uygulandığı katılımcıların kompozisyonlarında, argüman, karşı argüman, destekleyici fikirler ve verilen örneklere bakıldığında, bu bahsedilen öğeleri, birbiri ile olan ilişki ve tutarlılıkları açısından ne düzeyde kullandıkları incelenmiştir. Çözümleme ölçütleri, tartışmacı kompozisyonun ikna etme ve okuyucunun fikrini değiştirmenin dışında daha çok mantıklı düşünme yoluyla argüman, karşı argüman ve örnekleri konuyla ilgili yerinde ve tutarlı sunması ölçütleri göz önüne alınarak oluşturulmuştur.

Daha güvenilir sonuçlar elde etmek için, katılımcıların kompozisyonlarını Turnitin, intihal tespit hizmeti veren web tabanlı bir program, aracılığıyla teslim etmeleri talep edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular hem nitel hem de nicel olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, araştırma sonucu elde edilen bulgular, Sokrat yönteminin, öğrencilerin tartışmacı yazılı anlatım becerilerini geliştirme amaçlı kullanılabilecek etkili bir araç olduğu savını destekler niteliktedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların kompozisyonlarında kullandığı söz konusu incelenen öğelerin büyük bir kısmında beklenen ortalama kullanımın üstünde bir performans sergilediği gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sokrat yöntemi, tartışmacı kompozisyon, eleştirel düşünme.

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF USING THE SOCRATIC METHOD IN IMPROVING EFL STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

METEHAN İNCİ

Master Thesis, English Language Teaching Department
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU
June 2016, 180 pages

If there is a strong relationship between thinking clearly and writing well, critical thinking as a phrase should be taken into consideration to make sense of its applications in relation to writing. One of the areas to apply critical thinking is writing on a subject through argumentation. Written language provides a way to refine our thoughts and it makes our thinking visible. Written argumentation requires careful planning, analysis of one's audience, and sufficient evidence to prove oneself that his/her opinion is worth being considered and valid as the way one intends to do the same when arguing orally (Reid 1988).

From this perspective, it might be argued that a teacher should be able to implement such a method in the classroom that will help learners think critically in order to analyze and evaluate the reasoning of an argument.

In this respect, used today as a teaching strategy, the concept of Socratic Seminar is first introduced by Adler (1982) who used Socratic questioning for the mode of classroom discussion in his program. Adler also states that it is not possible to understand basic values and ideas through didactic teaching. Recent studies done in the field of ESL and education show that there is an effective use of the Socratic Method on students' critical thinking when arguing on a subject, or analyzing any piece of written text. These studies on the Socratic Method have suggested a variety of results showing the findings of its effect on reasoning skills, critical thinking, and metacognitive strategies.

It is possible to say that most of the studies using the Socratic Method focused on critical thinking skills through an oral argumentation. However, there has been no

detailed research on the roleof using the Socratic Method in improving EFL students' argumentative writing skills. Accordingly, this study aims to explore whether and/or to what extent the Socratic Method helps students think critically in order to develop and organize their ideas, and write an effective argumentative essay.

This research was designed as a case study aiming at improving argumentative writing skills through the Socratic Method of 17 Grade 9 English Class students at Tarsus American College (TAC). Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. To provide data about the effects of the Socratic Method on the development of argumentative writing skills of the participants, the participants' argumentative essays, document analysis checklists, and Socratic Seminar graphic organizer were used. In order to enhance the reliability of the results, students were asked to submit their papers via Turnitin.

To conclude, the results of the research showed that the Socratic Method might be an important tool for students to develop their argumentative writing skills. More specifically in the participants' essays, it has been observed that regarding an essay's counterarguments, arguments, supporting ideas, and the examples, students have performed more efficiently when using these elements with its relevance and coherence in their essays. In addition, when the Socratic Method was used before writing an argumentative essay, the participants were highly competent in using text-to-self examples in their essays.

Keywords: the Socratic Method, argumentative essay, critical thinking.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would not have been able to finish this dissertation without the guidance and support of the kind people around me whom I would like to mention here particularly.

First and foremost, I offer my sincerest gratitude to one of the most helpful people I had in my life, Assoc. Prof. Dr.Fehmi Can SENDAN, who initiatied me to start the master's program and wanted me to improve myself. He is not with us any more but his smile in his blue eyes is still with us; and I attribute the level of my Master's degree to his encouragement and advice, and without him, this thesis would not have existed.

Second, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU, for her feedback, support and unceasing encouragement throughout the writing of this thesis. I would like to thank for her constant professional and personal support.

Third, I would like to thank you the committee members Prof. Dr. Hatice Sofu, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz Şahinkarakaş, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rana Yıldırım, Asst. Prof. Dr. Silvia ZİNZADE for having accepted to be the members of the examining committee and guiding me with their invaluable insights from which I have profoundly benefited.

Last but not least, I owe a very important debt to my parents, Musa and Suat İNCİ. Words cannot express how grateful I am to have them in my life. Their endless support throughout my life is quite appreciated. I love you…

Metehan İNCİ

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ÖZET.....iv
ABSTRACT.....vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....xiii
LIST OF TABLES.....xiv
LIST OF FIGURES.....xvi
LIST OF APPENDICES.....xviii

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction.....1
1.2. Background to the Study.....3
1.3. Statement of the Problem.....6
1.4. Purpose of the Study.....6
1.5. Research Questions.....7
1.6. Limitations.....8
1.7. Operational Definitions.....9

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Historical Background of Socratic Method.....11
2.2. Socratic Method in Modern Education.....14
2.3. Socratic Circle.....16
2.3.1. Characteristics of Socratic Circle.....16
2.3.2. Overview of Procedure.....19
2.3.3. Core Elements of Socratic Teaching.....21
2.3.3.1. Teacher Role.....21
2.3.3.2. Selecting a Text.....22
2.3.3.3. Questions.....22

2.3.3.4. Inner Circle.....26
2.3.3.5. Outer Circle.....27
2.3.3.6. Assessment and Follow-up Activities.....28
2.3.4. Some Possible Drawbacks and Solutions.....30
2.3.4.1. Inner Circle.....30
2.3.4.2. Outer Circle.....32
2.4. Argumentation.....32
2.4.1. Inference.....36
2.4.2. Deductive and Inductive (Non-deductive Reasoning) 39
2.4.3. From General to Specific, Specific to General.....41
2.4.4. Deductive Reasoning.....41
2.4.4.1. Class Logic - Relationships between Classes.....41
2.4.4.2. Class Logic and Deductive Syllogism.....43
2.4.5. Truth, Validity, and Soundness.....44
2.4.6. The Subject and the Predicate.....46
2.4.7. Guilt by Association.....46
2.4.8. More on Syllogism.....48
2.4.9. Hypothetical Arguments.....48
2.4.9.1. The Valid Hypothetical Argument.....49
2.4.9.2. The Invalid Hypothetical Argument.....50
2.4.10. Necessary and Sufficient Conditions.....51
2.4.11. Hypothetical Chains.....51
2.5. Logic in Writing.....52
2.5.1. Induction in Writing.....52
2.5.2. Deduction in Writing 53
2.6. The Structure of Argument.....54
2.7. Standard Form.....57
2.8. Diagramming Arguments.....57
2.8.1. Serial Argument.....59
2.8.2. Convergent Argument.....60
2.8.3. Linked Argument.....61
2.8.4. Divergent Argument.....62
2.8.5. Combination of Arguments.....63
2.9. Ambiguous Argument Structure.....64

2.9.1. Logical Relations Between Ideas-Indicator Words.....65
2.9.2. Hidden Assumptions in Argument.....66
2.9.3. Validity and Soundness of an Argument.....66
2.10. Logical Fallacies.....69
2.11. Types of Logical Fallacies.....70

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview.....78
3.2. Research Design.....78
3.3. Context of the Study.....79
3.4. Participants.....79
3.5. Data Collection Tools.....80
3.5.1. Essays.....80
3.5.2. Document Analysis Checklists.....82
3.5.3. Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer.....83
3.6. Procedure.....85
3.7. Data Collection.....89
3.8. Data Analysis.....92

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction.....95
4.2. Number of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays……..…...95
4.3. Relevance of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays……...97
4.4. Coherence of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays…….....98
4.5. The Number of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays
...……100
4.6. Relevance of Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……..102
4.7. Coherence of Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……..……...103
4.8. Number of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays……105
4.9. Relevance of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

……107
4.10. Coherence of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays
……108
4.11. Number of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays
……109
4.12. Relevance of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays
……110
4.13. Coherence of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays
……111

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction.....113
5.2. Evaluation of the Research Questions.....113

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Conclusion and Implications for ELT.....119
6.2. Recommendations for Further Research.....121
6.3. Personal Reflections.....122

REFERENCES.....124
APPENDICES.....130
CURRICULUM VITAE.....180

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AE : Argumentative Essay

SM : Socratic Method

SS : Socratic Seminar

P : Participant

CA : Counterargument

ReA : Relevant Argument

CoA : Coherent Argument

SI : Supporting Idea

ReSI : Relevant Supporting Idea

CoSI : Coherent Supporting Idea

TSE : Text-to-self Example

TWE : Text-to-world Example

TAC : Tarsus American College

ELT : English Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

RQ : Research Question

IB : International Baccalaureate

CCR : Common Core Standards

ELA : English Language Arts Standards

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 1. Dialogue vs. Debate Comparison Chart.....18
Table 2. Discussion and Dialogue Chart.....19
Table 3. Socratic Questions and Pedagogical Implication.....25
Table 4. Socratic Circle Feedback Form.....27
Table 5. Logical Relationships between Ideas to Understand an Argument.....56
Table 6. Joining Chart of Indicator Words.....65
Table 7. The Fourfold Path to Good Thinking.....67
Table 8. Types of Logical Fallacies.....69
Table 9. Distribution of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays…....96
Table 10. Percentage of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays……97
Table 11. Distribution of Relevant Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays…….97
Table 12. Percentage of Relevant Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays…….....98
Table 13. Distribution of Coherent Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays…….....99
Table 14. Percentage of Coherent Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays……100
Table 15. Distribution of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays .....……100
Table 16. Percentage of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays .....……101
Table 17. Distribution of Relevant Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……...102
Table 18. Percentage of Relevant Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……...103
Table 19. Distribution of Coherent Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……....104
Table 20. Percentage of Coherent Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays……....105
Table 21. Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays…….106

Table 22. Percentage of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....106
Table 23. Distribution of Relevant Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....107
Table 24. Percentage of Relevant Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....107
Table 25. Distribution of Coherent Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....108
Table 26. Percentage of Coherent Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....108
Table 27. Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....109
Table 28. Percentage of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....110
Table 29. Distribution of Relevant Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....110
Table 30. Percentage of Relevant and Coherent Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....111
Table 31. Distribution of Coherent Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....111
Table 32. Percentage of Coherent Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays.....112

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 1. Adler's three objectives for basic schooling.....16
Figure 2. Elder and Paul's critical-thinking framework based on the Socratic approach 25
Figure 3. Socratic circle mapmaker example.....29
Figure 4. Socratic circle scorekeeper tally sheet.....29
Figure 5. Differences between persuasive and argumentative writings.....35
Figure 6. The structure of an argument.....37
Figure 7. Illustration of inferences and facts.....39
Figure 8. Illustration of inclusion.....42
Figure 9. Illustration of inclusion 2.....42
Figure 10. Illustration of exclusion.....43
Figure 11. Illustration of overlap.....43
Figure 12. Illustration of deductive syllogism.....44
Figure 13. Illustration of the subject and the predicate.....46
Figure 14. Illustration of guilt by association.....47
Figure 15. Particular proposition.....48
Figure 16. Illustration of serial argument.....59
Figure 17. Illustration of convergent argument.....60
Figure 18. Illustration of linked argument.....61
Figure 19. Illustration of divergent argument.....62
Figure 20. Illustration of divergent argument II.....62
Figure 21. Illustration of combination of two patterns (convergent and serial argument).....63
Figure 22. Sample of participants' essays showing arguments and counterarguments 81
Figure 23. Document analysis checklist showing the content and number counter arguments in participants' essays.....83
Figure 24. Sample Socratic seminar graphic organizer.....84
Figure 25. Socratic seminar - appropriate language poster.....88

Figure 26. Snapshot of Turnitin showing participants' argumentative essays……...90

Figure 27. Sample argumentative essay showing similarities……91

Figure 28. Sample argumentative essay in text-only report mode……92

Figure 29. Document analysis checklist showing relevance of arguments in participants' essays……..93

Figure 30. Ratio of supporting ideas in participants' essays.....96

Figure 31. Ratio of counterarguments in participants' essays.....101

Figure 32. Ratio of relevant arguments in participants' essays.....103

Figure 33. Ratio of coherent arguments in participants' essays.....104

LIST OF APPENDICES

Page

Appendix 1. Sample List of Suggested Socratic Seminar Texts.....119
Appendix 2. Socratic Seminar Rules and General Responsibilities.....122
Appendix 3. Responsibilities of Circles.....124
Appendix 4. Socratic Circle Reflection on Performance.....127
Appendix 5. Socratic Circle Feedback Form.....128
Appendix 6. Socratic Circle Rubric.....129
Appendix 7. Socratic Circle Scorecard.....130
Appendix 8. Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer.....131
Appendix 9. Parent Permission Letter.....134
Appendix 10. Lesson Plans for the Study.....135
Appendix 11. Organizing Your Argument.....136
Appendix 12. Basic Components of an Argumentative Essay.....151
Appendix 13. Argumentative Essay Classwork Handout.....152
Appendix 14. The Giver—Final Essay Guideline—Grade 9 English Course.....161
Appendix 15. Argumentative Essay Outline.....165
Appendix 16. Sample Argumentative Essays.....166

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"*He, who will not reason, is a bigot: he who cannot is a fool; and he who dares not, is a slave."*

Lord Byron

1.1. Introduction

We live in an information age and rapid technological changes have revolutionized the way of receiving and processing information. We are bombarded with information and messages on the Internet, television, books, billboards, and many more. Since the world is a 'global village' now, it is possible to receive any information such as events happening miles and miles away on a wide range of public and personal issues. Our sources of information are myriad and it is essential to know how to evaluate and conclude about these messages and arguments we receive (Groarke & Tindale 2004). Thus, the idea of 'thinking skills' have become a significant concern not only regarding academic or professional issues but also when weighing about the practices of everyday life. Which political candidate would do a better job, making assumptions about the weather, or your choice of breakfast might be some examples to quick critical thinking (Missimer 1990)? In other words, thinking skills we develop can be applied to all aspects of our life. Being able to apply these critical skills systematically in any context (having a talk with friends, reading the newspaper, and so on) shows that critical thinking plays a significant role in our daily lives (Groarke & Tindale 2004).

The word 'critical' comes from the Greek *kriticos* and Latin *criticus* meaning able to discern and separate. It is a thought characterized by careful analysis and judgment. Denise Seleck states: "Thinking critically is the ability to understand a concept fully, taking different sides of an issue or idea while not being swayed by the propaganda or other fraudulent methods used to promote it" (qtd. in Cooper & Patton p. 3). Seleck recognizes the importance of being open-minded and self-defending in critical thinking. Like Denise Seleck, Richard Paul stresses the importance of listening attentively to the views of others as the disposition to think clearly and accurately in order to be fair. Examining the implications of Denise Seleck and Richard Paul's

definitions, critical thinkers might "question their own beliefs as well as those of others, formulate well-reasoned arguments to support their beliefs, recognize the possibility of change in their beliefs, and express their beliefs in clear, coherent language." (Cooper & Patton 1993 p. 4). To conclude, they stand both fair and reliable in conclusions to draw and actions to take.

One of the areas to apply critical thinking is writing skills; and specifically when writing through argumentation. Written language provides a way to refine our thoughts and it makes our thinking visible. Written argumentation requires careful planning, analysis of one's audience, and sufficient evidence to prove oneself that his/her opinion is worth being considered and valid as the way one intends to do the same when arguing orally (Reid, 1988). Shortly, since written argument is a piece of writing intending to change how the reader thinks or feels about a topic (Messenger, 1989), one needs to know how to structure his/her thoughts and put them into words through the lens of reasoning to be able to construct convincing arguments to change reader's mind.

Such a systematic brainwork calls for the ability to think critically both in oral and written modes of expression. From this perspective, it might be argued that a teacher should be able to implement a method in the classroom that will help learners think critically in order to analyze and evaluate reasoning of an argument. In the city of Athens about 2500 years ago, Greek philosopher, and a teacher, who never called himself so, Socrates developed a method as a way to think critically in an oral dialogue. Socrates was reported to have undertaken rhetorical investigations (Socratic questioning) with his pupils to confront with the difference between their words and their actions, which arose 'shame' (elenchus) as a result of the confrontation. It was well expressed in a prominent saying that a life not devoted to investigation, was not worth living (Rossem, 2006).

In fact, Socrates was willing to argue with anyone, young and old, a slave and master, in public, or wherever he happened to be, such as in the market place, outside the gymnasium, etc. He would begin with a simple question (for example, the key moral concepts at the time such as justice, virtue, courage, etc.) and respond with another question in order to think more deeply (Wang, 2010). The Socratic Method is also called Socratic Questioning (the method of elenchus) which is used to describe a kind of questioning in which an original question is responded to as though it is an answer.

This, in turn, forces the first questioner to reformulate a new question in the light of the progress of the dialog.

According to Miller (cited in Wang, 2010), this method has been regarded as perhaps one of the earliest teaching strategies ever described in education history. The names applied to this method vary greatly; a "Socratic seminar," a "fishbowl conversation," or an "open forum." Used today as a teaching strategy, the concept of Socratic seminar was first introduced by Mortimer Adler in his published work called *The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto* in 1982. He defined this method as an extension of the current and most predominant mode of instruction by using a mode of teaching called 'maieutic' because it helps the student bring ideas to birth (Copeland, 2005). Socratic Questioning is used for the mode of classroom discussion in the program. Adler also states that it is not possible to understand basic values and ideas through didactic teaching. Recent studies conducted in the field of EFL and education also show that there is an effective use of the Socratic Method on students' critical thinking when arguing on a subject, or analyzing any piece of written text.

1.2. Background to the Study

Recent studies on the Socratic Method have suggested a variety of results showing the findings of its effect on reasoning skills, critical thinking and metacognitive strategies.

First, an action research done by Jason Shea (2006) is an example to investigate the connection of the Socratic Method and critical thinking. This study is based on the inquiry whether Socratic seminars encourage metacognition and critical thinking with eighth Grade Humanities students. The project mainly investigates how students make sense of and understand history as a result of using primary sources. Three different classroom activities used in those three seminars are a class reading of a longer primary source, a primary source, and document-based questions on an exam, and a five-paragraph analytical essay based on a primary source of the student's choice. The results show that Socratic seminars have provided opportunities for students for engaging in metacognitive activities and consequently developing their abilities to think critically.

Second, Mariel Yuhas (2014) highlights the effect of the Socratic Method on students' critical thinking with the study based on a Socratic seminar with an Advanced English Eleven class, a course designed around American Literature. In the study, she selected the texts to be discussed, which are Ralph Waldo Emerson's *Self-Reliance*, and Henry David Thoreau's *Civil Disobedience*. At the end of the study, it was reported that the method takes time to implement and it becomes more successful with practice. Students thought that the method was a sophisticated way to explore a text and they were active in discussion, evaluation, and critical thinking. They could also hypothesize about what factors might have made a better dialogue, which in itself was an act of critical thought (Yuhas, 2014).

Another study is an MA degree paper by Bridget Doklan (2011) entitled "Allowing Students to Think for Themselves: Critical Thinking through Socratic Circles" which focuses on critical thinking enhanced through the use of the Socratic Method, as well. The study was conducted with twelfth grade college preparatory students who participated in six Socratic circle discussions relating to literature in the Anglo-Saxon and Medieval periods of British literature. By having students converse about texts in a student centered and collaborative environment, the study aimed to promote the students' use of critical thinking skills. Findings of the study are as follows:

> Through the use of Socratic circles, participants in the study demonstrated critical thinking skills including the analysis of textual details, questioning of ideas, connections to outside topics, consideration of multiple perspectives, and evaluation and synthesis of ideas. Further, because students became active participants in their own learning processes, they demonstrated a sense of ownership, accountability, and motivation (p. iii).

Another scholar, Servet Çelik (2009), wrote an article called "Socratic Method: Dialectic and Its Use in Teaching Culture in EFL Classrooms" first explains the core elements of the method, the text, the question, the leader, the participants. Secondly, the paper discusses the adoption of the Socratic Method in EFL Teaching with regard to its advantages and disadvantages, along with some suggestions for language teachers. The study also includes sample questions to be used while teaching about the target culture in a language classroom with the Socratic Method. Çelik (2009) concludes:

> [An] appropriate use of the Socratic Method tailored to the needs of our particular contexts in EFL teaching can provide the students with opportunities for critical study of cultural texts, active learning of the target language culture through a well-versed dialogue, the acquisition of an intercultural awareness through mutual respect for others and their ideas, and by and large, a positive learning environment where a prevailing community of inquiry is built and collaborative effort is celebrated (Çelik, 2009).

Finally, in his college honors thesis entitled "The Socratic Method as an Approach to Learning and Its Benefits," Faith Lam (2011) discusses that the Socratic Learning Method enhances students' learning by minimizing (1) the impacts of one's misconceptions, (2) helping learners build a knowledge organization system, and (3) fostering metacognitive skills. After investigating the Socratic Method and its relevance to the Constructivist vs. Instructionist debate in education, Lam states that these three crucial outcomes are important elements to successful learning. He also proposes that students who use the Socratic Method as a mental habit will become more independent and autonomous thinkers.

On the other hand, it is possible to say that the Socratic way of teaching is not only used in classrooms, e.g. teaching language, law, math and many more, but also in the digital world, such as blogs, and online discussion forums.

To specify, Eric Moberg (2008), who made a review of literature and documented some studies carried out in the field of EFL, math, business, law and teacher instructions, aims to argue for the ongoing use of dialogue as a modern pedagogical and andragogical method. He also searched for the indications of reflective learning via the use of dialogue in his paper. The author concludes that dialogue in different forms remains an effective method of instruction in wide applications such as online dialogues.

The research done earlier in the field shows that the Socratic Method might also be used outside the classroom setting. A significant example of that is an article called "Using Socratic Questioning to Promote Critical Thinking Skills Through Asynchronous Discussion Forums in Distance Learning Environments" written by Yang, Newby and Bill (2005). The paper mainly investigates the effect of Socratic questioning in critical thinking. The results show that teaching and modeling of Socratic questioning help students demonstrate a higher level of critical thinking skills and those

students maintain their critical thinking skills after exposure to and modeling of Socratic questioning in asynchronous discussion forums.

Second example is Shahsavar and Hoon's (2013) study that investigates the effects of pedagogical blogging on tertiary level students' critical thinking by using Socratic questions. Through this study, they explore the role of Socratic questions in promoting students' critical thinking through Web 2.0 tools. Using qualitative and quantitative methods to evaluate the efficiency of Socratic questions in students' blogging, the findings suggest that implementing Socratic questions in students' blogging helps students promote their critical thinking. These studies show that Socratic questioning is not only limited to physical classrooms also web-based applications.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Earlier studies have shown that the Socratic Method helps students be aware of their inadequate reasoning and logical flaws, hypothesize on what factors might make a dialogue better, that is to say, it helps them develop their abilities to think critically. Secondly, the method also supports learners to become more motivated, active, and responsible contributors in the classroom helping students to be autonomous and independent thinkers in a positive learning environment. In the light of studies related to the Socratic Method, it is possible to say that most of the studies using the Socratic Method focused on critical thinking skills through an oral argumentation. However, there is no research on the role of using the Socratic Method in improving EFL student's argumentative writing skills to the best knowledge of the researcher.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

Given the significance of the Socratic Method with regard to enhancing students' critical thinking, and considering the scarcity of studies investigating the Socratic Method's impact on students' argumentative writing skills, this study aims to explore the potential impact of the Socratic Method on the development of students' argumentative writing skills.

1.5. Research Questions

While trying to explore the possible impact of the Socratic Method on improving students' argumentative writing skills, the following research questions will be launched:

1) Does the Socratic Method help students have more effective supporting ideas in relation to their arguments? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.

a) Does the essay include sufficient number of supporting ideas to present the arguments?
b) Does the essay develop supporting ideas that are relevant to the arguments presented?
c) Does the essay develop arguments that supply coherent (logical and consistent) supporting ideas?

2) Does the Socratic Method help students understand and analyze counterarguments and how to refute these counterarguments in an argumentative paper? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.

a) Does the essay include sufficient number of counterarguments when presenting the arguments?
b) Does the essay construct arguments that are relevant to the counterarguments?
c) Does the essay establish a coherent (logical and consistent) link between arguments and counterarguments?

3) Does the Socratic Method help learners develop the habit of making text-to-self and text-to-world connections in order to have more effective argumentation? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.

a) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to writer's own life, ideas, and experiences to the points provided in the reading text?
b) Are these text-to-self connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

c) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to the larger world—past, present, or future to the points provided in the reading text?

d) Are these text-to-world connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

1.6. Limitations

The results presented in this study were obtained from one English classroom and twelve essay papers. Although the data from these sources made it possible to draw some significant conclusions, the findings cannot be generalized because of the smallness of the data. Furthermore, the participants were exposed to both the argumentative essay and the Socratic Method (SM) for the first time during this study. In other words, if the participants had become familiar with the Socratic Method before, the result could have been more fruitful.

Based on previous research (Yuhas 2014) which suggests that when students become more familiar with the SM, they become more efficient and produce better results, it may be assumed that if there had been enough time to practice Socratic seminar several times with different topics, the participants would have gained better practice and become more efficient in their argumentation.

Lastly, the analysis was conducted with ninth grade students. The researcher believes that such study could have shown different results with upper classes or with the IB (International Baccalaureate) (see Operational Definitions for the definition) students of the same institution, who are more proficient with the English language.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Argument: A rational piece of discourse, written or spoken, which attempts to persuade the reader or listener to believe something. Composed of at least one premise in support of a conclusion (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 48).

Argument Diagram: A sketch of an argument in which all assertions are numbered in order and then laid out in a diagram with arrows connecting them to the conclusion to illustrate the precise logical relationship between assertions (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 49).

Conclusion: The key assertion in an argument, the statement which the other assertions support; the point one hopes to make when presenting an argument (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 48).

Counterarguments: Arguments refuting the claims or positions that are opposed to those being forwarded by the arguer (Mauk & Metz, 2006, p. 553).

Indicator Words: Words or phrases which indicate, or signal, the logical relationship between assertions in an argument. "Therefore" and its synonyms signal a conclusion; "because" and its synonyms signal a premise (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 48).

Interlocutor: One who takes part in dialogue or conversation (*Webster's*, 1996, p. 742).

Logical Fallacies: Flaws in the structure of an argument that make the claims invalid. A fallacy is a falsehood, so a logical fallacy is a logical falsehood that makes no sense within a given situation (Mauk & Metz, 2006, p. 41).

Premise: A reason that supports the conclusion in an argument (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 48)

Rebuttal (Refutation): Present[ing] a counterargument and then explain[ing] why this position is false, misleading, irrelevant, or weak [to] discredit it in some well-reasoned way (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 64).

Socratic Method (SM): A student-centered teaching method, in which the teacher acts as a guide and helps students develop their abilities to discover the aspects of a subject via questions instead of providing the answers.

Text-to-self Connection: A strategy that helps students develop the habit of making a connection to something one can personally relate to his or her own life (Cohen & Cowan, 2011, p. 469).

Text-to-world Connection: A strategy that helps students develop the habit of making a connection to something one knows about in the outer world (Cohen & Cowan, 2011, p. 469).

The International Baccalaureate (IB): a non-profit educational foundation offering four highly respected programmes of international education that develop the intellectual, personal, emotional and social skills needed to live, learn and work in a rapidly globalizing world (www.ibo.org/about-the-ib/).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"Socrates was the first to call philosophy down from the heavens and to place it in cities and even to introduce it into homes and compel it to enquire about life and standards and good and ill."

Cicero

2.1. Historical Background of the Socratic Method

The Socratic Method is in the form of conversation or dialectic[1]. Socrates would start a conversation with any person and try to elicit interlocutor's ideas on a subject, e.g. courage, wisdom, etc. Socrates would acknowledge that the interlocutor is ignorant on the subject and ask him if he knows anything on the subject. Alternatively, Socrates would continue the conversation in that direction, and when that person uses the word, for example, "courage," Socrates would ask him what courage is, and show his own ignorance and would show that he, himself, is ready to learn. He believes that if a person uses a word, he must know what it means, as Socrates assumes the same for his companion using the word "courage." When a definition or description is given him, Socrates asks for the definition to be clarified while keeping the course of conversation under his control. The process goes on with modified definitions on courage, with or without final success. As the dialectic moves from one example to a universal definition, the argument proceeding from the particular to the universal—it may be said to be a process of induction (Copleston, 1962).

Socrates is believed to be one of the greatest teachers of all times. The Socratic Method, named after him, is a teaching method that one teaches by asking leading questions to guide students to discover the subject matter rather than only giving answers. It is possible to trace the method in Plato's *Apology*,[2] in which Socrates gives most of his speech by asking questions (Brickhouse, 2000). Although Socrates is believed to be one of the greatest teachers, he does not really think that he is a teacher.

[1] The art or practice of logical discussion as employed in investigating the truth of a theory or opinion (*Webster's* 397).

[2] For detailed inquiry on Socrates's questions in *Apology*, see from 24b to 28a, 462b to 466e, 470b to 475c.

Is he the practitioner of so-called the Socratic Method to teach citizens of Athens? Brickhouse (2000) quotes from *Apology*:

> (Socrates speaking) I have never been anyone's teacher . . . I am equally ready to question the rich and the poor if anyone is willing to answer my questions and listen to what I say. And I cannot justly be held responsible for the good or bad conduct of these people, as I never promised to teach them anything and have not done so. If anyone says that he has learned anything from me, or that he heard anything privately that the others did not hear, be assured that he is not telling the truth (p.73-74).

While Socrates does not believe that he is a teacher, he also does not think that he knows about life, and he accepts his ignorance about it; and he claims that he only has a dialogue with anyone he meets. Claiming that if someone has learned something from him, he believes that is not true by asking questions about it; he wants to show that he does not know about the subject. Instead of describing himself as a teacher, Socrates depicts himself as a gadfly image. In *The Ironic Defense of Socrates,* Leibowitz states: "Athens, he says, is like a big sleepy horse, and he is a gadfly who spends his life biting that horse, waking it up" (p.146). Leibowitz argues that a gadfly benefits for itself, not for a horse. The gadfly image also shows that benefiting himself is his basic concern. He also adds that when he asks more as a student seeking knowledge rather than a teacher who knows the answer. It overlaps with the idea that he is more of a student, learning from people, rather than a teacher, teaching people.

The most apparent result of this dialogue is not that interlocutor possesses some new knowledge or understanding; he becomes perplexed and finds himself in confusion, ignorance, or pretense (Brickhouse, 2000). Each of these points leads one to some other questions; Socrates claiming not to know, Socratic irony[3] and Socrates claiming not to teach.[4] Although Socrates states that he does not teach anyone, one might claim that Athenian citizens learn ideas from him and one might argue that he is not an ordinary knowledge seeker but an extraordinary virtuoso on revealing others' ignorance (Brickhouse, 2000).

[3] The idea that he does not teach anyone also overlaps with his famous saying—which is also known as Socratic irony— "I know that I know almost nothing". For Socratic irony, see Brickhouse (2000), 58.

[4] For Socrates not to claim to teach, see Brickhouse (2000), 69.

To reveal one's ignorance and cause confusion, Socrates employs a style, which is known as "elenchus[5]" or "elenchos" (from the Greek word *elenchos,* which means "to examine" or "to refute"). During his speech with the interlocutor, Socrates asks questions and insists the interlocutor to answer in accordance with his own sincere beliefs. Using these premises, Socrates contradicts the interlocutor with his own premises and his initial moral claim. It results in the elenchos of the interlocutor with the help of the questions of Socrates (Brickhouse, 2000). Is this teaching? In a sense, certainly it is. Socrates does not deny that he shows or teaches one to recognize his own ignorance but he says plainly that this is his mission to show others' their ignorance (Brickhouse 2000).[6] To understand what he means by saying that, his mission to show others' their ignorance, the following speech that he made before his conviction might be useful (Leibowitz, 2010):

> If you kill me, you will not easily discover another of my sort, who–even if it is rather ridiculous to say–has simply been set upon the city by the god, as though upon a great and well-born horse who is rather sluggish because of his great size and needs to be awakened by some gadfly. Just so, in fact, the god seems to me to have set me upon the city as someone of this sort: I awaken and persuade and reproach each one of you (p.167).

Socrates uses the metaphor of gadfly to show what he intends to do with the conversations he has with Athenians. Using the expression of the city sleeping, he means that people do not question the authority and other important concepts in their lives. As a result, he believes that he awakens them just as a gadfly trying to bite a horse. Another metaphor Socrates uses is midwifery. In *A Companion to Socrates* (2006), it reads Socrates's questioning thus: "Through Socrates' maieutic[7] art, others "have themselves discovered many admirable things in themselves, and given birth to them" (p.8). Socrates compares himself to his mother, Phaenarete, who is a midwife, she of bodies, and he of minds. She believes that like a midwife, he helps people to give

[5] 1. A logical refutation; an argument that refutes another argument by proving the contrary of its conclusion. 2. A false refutation; a sophistical argument *Webster's* (1996), 461.

[6] To see the examples and details of elenchus, see Brickhouse (2000), 70.

[7] Noting the method used by Socrates in bringing forth knowledge in the mind of a person by interrogation and insistence on close and logical reasoning. [< Gk *maieutik(ós)* of, pertaining to midwifery, equiv. to *maieú(esthai)* (to) serve as a midwife (akin to *maîa* midwife) + -tikos –TIC] (*Webster's* 1996, 864).

birth to new ideas and having them suffer birth pains when he disabuses them of the silliness they believe and he refutes their ideas.[8]

It is ironic that Socrates was sentenced to death by drinking hemlock, where the idea of democracy originated (Ahbel-Rappe & Kamtekar 2006):

> Athens, birthplace of democracy, executed the philosopher Socrates in the year 399 BCE for the crime of impiety (*asebeia*) i.e., irreverence toward the gods of the polis, which his accusers–Meletus, Anytus, and Lycon–had said was a corrupting influence on the young men who kept company with Socrates and imitated his behavior (p.5).

Why are we here? Where do we come from? Traditionally, these are questions for philosophy, but philosophy is dead.
—Stephen Hawking

2.2. The Socratic Method in Modern Education

In modern education, Mortimer Adler, an American philosopher and educator, is the first who introduced the idea of Socratic teaching in the curriculum that he made with his friends. He founded the Paideia[9] Proposal[10] and he is developer of the "Great Books" seminars and curricula with Robert M. Hutchins. The Great Books were based on works of major classical and modern Western authors (Schultz, 2001). The Great Books movement, developed between 1910 and 1940 by Alexander Meiklejohn at Amherst College, John Erskine at Columbia University, Stringfellow Barr and Scott Buchanan at the University of Virginia, and Adler and Robert Hutchins at the University of Chicago. They decided to implement Socratic questioning into their curriculum and developed their 12-year basic schooling system based on three objectives (Copeland, 2005). Schultz argues Adler's three objectives for basic schooling in *Sources*: Children should be provided with the opportunity to fully develop

[8] On comparison and paradox of elenchus and maieutic by Gregory Vlastos and Richard Robinson, see Rob Reich's article "*Confusion about the Socratic Method: Socratic Paradoxes and Contemporary Invocations of Socrates*" on Philosophy of Education Archive (1998).

[9] From the Greek language, *pais, paidos*, which means the upbringing of a child (Adler 1982).

[10] To read more about Paideia Proposal, see Adler's The Paideia Proposal (1998), also to read more about updated information, e.g. schools using the program in the U.S. or developments in the program, see http://www.paideia.org/.

themselves, basic schooling must do everything to make children good citizens, basic schooling must prepare children earn a living later in life.

To achieve these three objectives, 12 year of basic schooling must be general and liberal, and the only elective offered to students is a foreign language. Basic schooling consists of three main columns of teaching and learning, from the simple to the more complex. These columns represent three distinct mode of teaching, not a series of courses.

The first column is based on didactic teaching using textbooks to learn information about nature, man, and society via three subject areas: (A) language, literature, and the fine arts; (B) mathematics and natural science; (C) history, geography, and social studies.

The second column is based on developing the intellectual skills of learning with the help of teachers coaching (monitorial) and/or didactic teaching. The language skills needed are reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Instead of linguistic knowledge, students also acquire mathematical, scientific, and historical knowledge. These skills help students to think clearly and critically.

The third column is based on extending the understanding of ideas and values via Socratic, or maieutic, method of questioning and discussing. Here, students move progressively from less to more in terms of understanding.

The materials used are not textbooks, but books and other artistic products. The books might include various topics and areas of interests, e.g. history, science, philosophy, poems, music, art, dramas, films, etc. Music and different forms of art can be used in seminars to discuss ideas, whereas with poetry and fiction, they are to be experienced aesthetically, and be admired for their excellence. Therefore, poetry, a piece of music, or visual art or drama should be used to develop the appreciation of excellence. In addition, classroom setting does not follow a traditional way, but is in a seminar style (Adler, 1982).

An illustration of how those three columns are organized according to Adler's three objectives for basic schooling (Adler, 1982) is given below in Figure 1:

Figure 1. The Paideia Curriculum.

	Column One	Column Two	Column Three
Goals	Acquisition of Organized Knowledge	Development of Intellectual Skills —Skills of Learning	Improved Understanding of Ideas and Values
Means	by means of Didactic Instruction Lecturing Textbooks	by means of Coaching, Exercises, and Supervised Practice	by means of Maieutic or Socratic Questioning and Active Participation
Areas Operations and Activities	in the four areas of subject-matter Language, Literature, and Fine Arts; Mathematics and Natural Science; History, Geography, and Social Studies	in the operations Reading, Writing, Speaking, Listening, Calculating, Problem Solving, Observing, Measuring, Estimating, Exercising Critical Judgment	in the Discussion of Books (Not Textbooks) and Other Works of Art and Involvement in Artistic Activities —Music, Drama, Visual Arts

Note: The three columns do not correspond to separate courses, nor is one kind of teaching and learning necessarily confined to any one class.

Figure 1. Adler's three objectives for basic schooling (Adapted from Adler, 1982)

"Socratic seminar" is first used by Scott Buchanan as a term in his work with the St. John's College New Program, and the idea has continued with organizations such as The Center for Socratic Practice, The Touchstones Project, Junior Great Books, the National Paideia Center, and the Coalition of Essential Schools. Various educators, such as Dennis Gray, Lesley Lambright, and Margaret Metzger, among others, also developed the strategy and started using it in their own classrooms and curricular content (Copeland, 2005).

To find yourself, think for yourself.
—Socrates

2.3. Socratic Circle

2.3.1. Characteristics of Socratic Circle

Socratic Circles are in the form of a dialogue rather than a discussion or a debate. The definition of "discussion" suggests that "ideas are being shared, that varying points of view and opinions are being accommodated, and that each participant walks away from the conversation having broadened her own horizons and expanded her thinking" (Copeland, 2005). Instead, some factors such as behavior control, time

management turns a classroom discussion into a lecture that is veiled in an illusion of correctness and etiquette.

Discussion is a meeting of a group of people in which a subject is discussed to come to a conclusion or a resolution and it is a deductive process. In a discussion, people move from many ideas at the beginning and it results in having fewer ideas (Copeland, 2005).

On the other hand, dialogue helps to illuminate an idea or an issue that incorporates many opinions and many points of view to broaden our knowledge and understanding. It is an inductive process by which the number of different ideas and voices are increased as the conversation proceeds. One might find frustrating that there is no clear end or conclusion in the end, even there might be new thoughts and alternatives coming into our brains, e.g. as in the early stage of brainstorming for a piece of writing (Copeland, 2005).

It is important to note that Socratic circles are not a form of classroom debate or a subject of discussion since debate suggests that students are competing with one another to convince the validity of their line of thinking. In a Socratic circle, students work collaboratively to construct a common vision of truth and understanding by doing a close, critical reading of the selection of text being discussed (Copeland 2005).

In his same work, Copeland states: “There is no concept of “winning an argument” in a Socratic circle; there is only the search for deeper and more thorough understanding.” He discusses the characteristics of a dialogue as opposed to those of debate, as illustrated in Table 1 (Copeland, p.47).

Table 1

Dialogue vs. Debate Comparison Chart

Dialogue	Debate
Dialogue is collaborative. Two or more sides work together toward common understanding.	Debate is oppositional. Two sides oppose each other and attempt to prove each other wrong.
In dialogue, finding common ground is the goal.	In debate, winning is the goal.
In dialogue, one listens to the other side(s) to understand, find meaning, and find agreement.	In debate, one listens to the other side to find flaws and to counter its arguments.
Dialogue enlarges and possibly changes a participant's point of view.	Debate affirms a person's own point of view.
Dialogue complicates positions and issues.	Debate simplifies positions and issues.
Dialogue reveals assumptions for reevaluation.	Debate defends assumptions as truth.
Dialogue causes introspection on one's own position.	Debate causes critique of the other position.
It is acceptable to change one's position.	It is a sign of weakness and defeat to change one's position.
Dialogue is flexible in nature.	Debate is rigid in nature.
Dialogue stresses the skill of synthesis.	Debate stresses the skill of analysis.
Dialogue opens the possibility of reaching a better solution than either of the original solutions.	Debate defends one's own position as the best solution and excludes other solutions.
Dialogue strives for multiplicity in perspective.	Debate strives for singularity in perspective.
Dialogue affirms the relationship between the participants through collaboration.	Debate affirms one's own strength in opposition to other points of view.
Dialogue creates an open-minded attitude, an openness to change.	Debate creates a close-minded attitude, a determination to be right.
In dialogue, one submits one's best thinking, knowing that other people's reflections will help improve it rather than destroy it.	In debate, one submits one's best thinking and defends it against challenges to show that it is right.
Dialogue calls for temporarily suspending one's beliefs.	Debate calls for investing wholeheartedly in one's beliefs.
In dialogue, one searches for basic agreements.	In debate, one searches for glaring differences.
In dialogue, one searches for strengths in the other position.	In debate, one searches for flaws and weaknesses in the other position.
Dialogue involves a real concern for the other person and seeks to not alienate or offend.	Debate involves a countering of the other position without focusing on feelings or relationship, and often belittles or deprecates the other position.
Dialogue assumes that many people have pieces of the answer, and that together they can put them into a workable answer.	Debate assumes there is a right answer and that someone has it.
Dialogue encourages depolarization of an issue.	Debate encourages polarization of an issue.
In dialogue, everyone is part of the solution to the problem.	In debate, one person or viewpoint wins over the other.
Dialogue affirms the idea of people learning from each other.	Debate affirms the idea of people learning individually in competition with others.
Dialogue remains open-ended.	Debate implies a conclusion.

Adapted from Kristof Van Rossem, 2006

One should be aware of the form of dialogue as a form of communication, and know how it operates to understand the idea of collaboration and teamwork to achieve an effective classroom dialogue. Kristof Van Rossem (2006) compares how a dialogue differs in several respects from a discussion as illustrated in Table 2:

Table 2

Discussion and Dialogue Chart

Discussion (means 'shaking out')	Dialogue (means 'knowing through')
Rhetoric	Dialectic
Aimed at decisions and actions	Aimed at insight in the value of judgements
Going for your own right	wanting to know the truth
Convincing	investigation
Taking a standpoint	listening to yourself and others
Defensive or offensive attitude	attitude of taking the others point of view
Answering	questioning
Speed	Slowness
Individually orientated	community orientated

Adapted from Rossem, 2006

Shown in Table 2 by Rossem (2006), a dialogue is based on a mutual agreement of individuals instead of siding and supporting an individual opinion. In a dialogue, one investigates or discusses the truth of opinions, whereas in a discussion he speaks and writes in an effective way to persuade the other side.

2.3.2. Overview of Procedure

Socratic Circles do not follow a traditional form regarding teacher role and classroom setting. In a traditional manner, classroom discussions operate in a following way: a teacher stands in front of a group of students—usually seated at desks arranged in straight rows—, and raises a question. Students contemplate the question; one or two

come up with an answer. Afterward, the teacher eliminates incorrect answers they offer, and delivers the correct answer if not given and moves to the next question. It is obvious to see teacher's exertion of power, control, and voice in such conversation that takes place in classroom. Socratic inquiry is not "teaching" in the conventional sense of the word. The leader of Socratic inquiry is not filling the empty minds of passive students with information. In other words, the Socratic teacher is not "the sage on the stage." In the Socratic Method, there are no lectures and memorization as in the traditional way. Nevertheless, neither is the Socratic teacher "the guide on the side." In the Socratic Method, classroom experience is established on a shared dialogue between teacher and students conveyed through questions. "Teacher", as a leader of dialogue, asks probing questions to expose the values and beliefs of the participants. The participants also ask the teacher and each other questions. The open-ended inquiry proceeds interactively with no specific pre-determined argument or an end that the leader tries to lead the participants. Without a lesson plan or a PowerPoint slide, the group follows the dialogue where it goes (Denman, 2003).

Typically, Socratic Method used in an English classroom is built upon a foundation of the following components: a short passage of text that students have read critically, two concentric circles of students, –one circle focusing on exploring the meaning conveyed in the text, and a second circle observing the conversation. While the inner circle discusses and examines the text, the outer circle takes notes on the quality of the dialogue-taking place and the individual and group dynamics that facilitate the dialogue. After this period of reflection, inner and outer circles change places and roles, and the process repeats itself with new voices and ideas. Copeland (2005, p. 28-29) explains the basic procedure for a Socratic circle:

> 1. On the day before a Socratic circle, the teacher hands out a short passage of text.
> 2. That night at home, students spend time reading, analyzing, and taking notes on the text.
> 3. During class the next day, students are randomly divided into two concentric circles: an inner circle and an outer circle.
> 4. The students in the inner circle read the passage aloud and then engage in a discussion of the text for approximately ten minutes, while students in the outer circle silently observe the behavior and performance of the inner circle.
> 5. After this discussion of the text, the outer circle assesses the inner circle's performance and gives ten minutes of feedback for the inner circle.
> 6. Students in the inner and outer circles now exchange roles and positions.

7. The new inner circle holds a ten-minute discussion and then receives ten minutes of feedback from the new outer circle.

There are many variations to each aspect of Socratic circles; however, discussion-feedback-reverse pattern is essential. The interaction between the inner and outer circle enables students to control the direction and process of the dialogue-taking place (Copeland, 2005).

2.3.3. Core Elements of Socratic Teaching

Socratic Teaching encompasses various important elements to establish a classroom dialogue. These elements -teacher's role, selection of text, questions, Socratic circle roles, and assessment- are investigated in the following section.

2.3.3.1. Teacher Role

One might think that a teacher in Socratic teaching is a passive observer standing on the corner of classroom, assessing students' behaviors, and listening to their dialogues. However, being the leader of the seminar is more challenging than being a didactic teacher. The leader needs to follow the course of student dialogues to have them participate equally. Moreover, the teacher needs to be flexible and adaptable in order to control students' contribution and the flow of conversation. For example, if the subject is diverged or an example is elaborated too much, he needs to keep the dialogue on track by asking the right questions that help participants develop an understanding of the text.

Teacher's role in a Socratic circle process is fourfold: "(1) to select the text for discussion, (2) to keep the discussion of the inner circle focused and moving, (3) to direct the feedback of the outer circle, and (4) to assess and evaluate the individual student and group performances" (Copeland, 2005). It is essential that the teacher plans the lesson and employ strategies that help students participate in the seminar effectively. Otherwise, the result might be unsatisfactory because of haphazard and inept manner in the order of organization and the conduct of the seminar. It is important to add that the teacher should be patient with the students:

> [While] devising, organizing and transforming their ideas during the somewhat lengthy process of nonstop questioning, [he] should be tolerant of any likely conventional and rigid thinking practices the students may demonstrate every now and then (Çelik, 2009).

In addition, the teacher should be aware of reluctant speakers and encourage them to participate the conversation, while limiting the voices who are dominantly taking part in the conversation.[11]

2.3.3.2. Selecting a Text

Texts can be chosen from a wide variety of subjects, e.g. social sciences, art works, films, and music (see Appendix 1 for a sample list of suggested Socratic Seminar texts). It is beneficial to use short texts at beginning stages, which helps students get familiar with the method and the teacher will have the opportunity to see the details of different aspects of the method and the strategies to use. It will also help the leader to control the conversation efficiently since the topic is easy to contemplate on for the students and the teacher. Accordingly, a long text might be challenging and cause boredom resulting in lack of motivation. A longer text in time might be used after becoming more proficient and effective in conducting the seminar and student's familiarity with the seminar and its functions. Most importantly, the text should be chosen appropriately according to the language level of students, the subject aligned with the curriculum–relevant and thematically connected works. Finally yet importantly, the text chosen should stimulate critical thinking. Accordingly, selection of text should be considered carefully and thoroughly regarding possible arguments that might be produced by students (Copeland, 2005).

It is not the answer that enlightens, but the question.
—Eugene Ionesco

2.3.3.3. Questions

The art of Socratic questioning is essential for a critical thinker since it is fundamental for an excellence of thought. Aligned with Socratic ideas, "'systematicity' [helps] depth, and a keen interest in assessing the truth or plausibility of things" (Elder and Paul, 1998). There is a relationship between critical thinking and Socratic questioning, both sharing a common end. In their same work, Elder and Paul (1998)

[11] Strategies to follow when a student not participating, see Copeland (2005), 62-64.

state that: “The goal of critical thinking is to establish a disciplined "executive" level of thinking, a powerful inner voice of reason, to monitor, assess, and reconstitute–in a more rational direction–our thinking, feeling, and action. Socratic discussion cultivates that inner voice by providing a public model for it.”

There are numerous ways of Socratic questioning in a classroom, and principles guiding a Socratic dialogue. According to Elder and Paul (1998), teachers engaged in a Socratic dialogue should:

- respond to all answers with a further question (one that calls on the respondent to develop his thinking in a deeper way);
- seek to understand–where possible–the ultimate foundations for what is said or believed and follow the implications of those foundations through further questions;
- treat all assertions as connecting points to further thoughts;
- treat all thoughts as being in need of development;
- recognize that any thought can only exist fully in a network of connected thoughts, stimulate students–through his/her questions–to pursue those connections;
- recognize that all questions presuppose prior questions and all thinking presupposes prior thinking, when raising questions, be open to the questions they presuppose (Elder and Paul, 1998).

Teachers engaged in Socratic dialogue should systematically raise questions based on the following recognitions and assumptions:

- recognize that all thoughts reflect an agenda,
- assume that you do not fully understand the thought until you understand the agenda behind it (What are you trying to accomplish in saying this? What is your central aim in this line of thought?),
- recognize that all thoughts presuppose an information base, assume that you do not fully understand the thought until you understand the background information that supports or informs it (What information are you basing that comment on? What experience convinced you of this? How do we know this information is accurate?),

- recognize that all thoughts require the making of inferences, the drawing of conclusions, the creation of meaning, assume that you do not fully understand a thought until you understand the inferences that have shaped it (How did you reach that conclusion? Could you explain your reasoning? Is there an alternative plausible conclusion?),
- recognize that all thought involves the application of concepts, assume that you do not fully understand a thought until you understand the concepts that define and shape it (What is the main idea you are putting forth? Could you explain that idea?),
- recognize that all thought rests upon other thoughts (which are taken for granted or assumed), assume that you do not fully understand a thought until you understand what it takes for granted (What exactly are you taking for granted here? Why are you assuming that?),
- recognize that all thought is headed in a direction, it not only rests upon something (assumptions), it is also going somewhere (implications and consequences), assume that you do not fully understand a thought unless you know the implications and consequences that follow from it (What are you implying when you say that? Are you implying that . . . ?),
- recognize that all thought takes place within a point of view or frame of reference, assume that you do not fully understand a thought until you understand the point of view or frame of reference that places it on an intellectual map (From what point of view are you looking at this? Is there another point of view we should consider?),
- recognize that all thought is responsive to a question, assume that you do not fully understand the thought until you understand the question that gives rise to it (I am not sure exactly what question you are raising. Could you explain it?) (Elder and Paul, 1998).

The example questions shown above and their pedagogical implications might also be displayed as follows:

Table 3

Socratic Questions and Pedagogical Implications

Example of Questions	Pedagogical Application
Could you give us an example? Could you explain further?	Questions for clarification
Why this word is important? Why do you think that?	Question about initial question or issue
Why would someone make this assumption? What could we assume instead?	Question for assumption
What would be an example? Why do you think this is right?	Question for reason and evidence
Where did you get that idea? What caused you to feel that way?	Question for origin or source
What effect would that have? What is an alternative?	Question for implication or consequence
How would other groups of people respond this question? Why?	Question for opinion

Adapted from Elder & Paul, 2013

The process of Elder and Paul's critical-thinking framework based on the Socratic approach to inquiry might also be seen in Figure 2 as "critical thinkers routinely apply intellectual standards to the elements of reasoning in order to develop intellectual traits" (Drake, 2013).

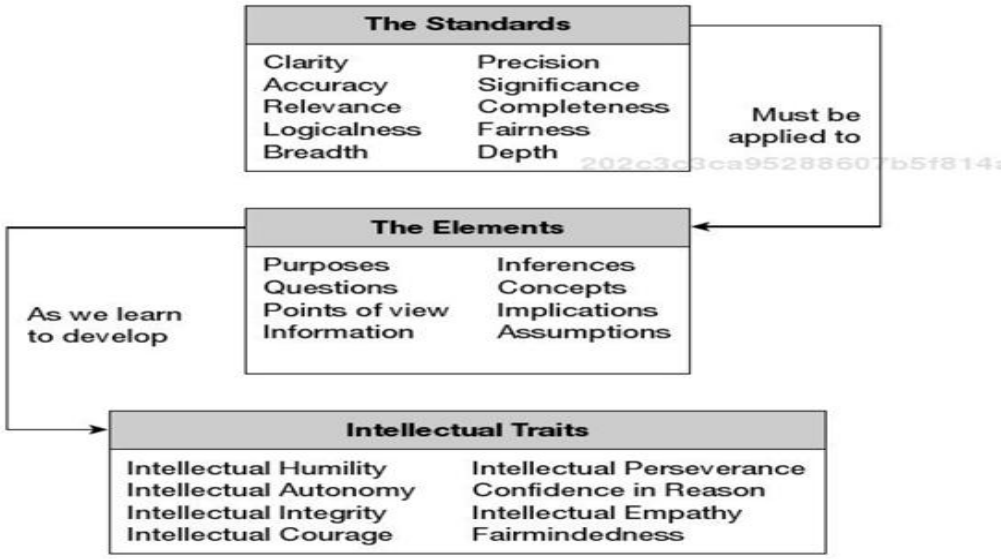


Figure 2. Elder and Paul's critical-thinking framework based on the Socratic approach (2013)

Another point to lead an efficient Socratic discussion is pre-thinking the main question to discuss by using the approach of developing prior questions–that are "questions presupposed by another question" (Elder and Paul, 1998). For instance, to determine the question "What is digital life?", the teacher first needs to settle the question "What is digital?" and to settle that question, s/he should be able to settle the question "What aspect of our life is digital?" or "What are the possible areas of our life determined as digital?". To construct a list of prior questions, he simply writes down the main question that he is going to focus in that discussion on and then poses a question he will have to be able to answer before he can answer the first. Afterwards, one takes the second question and does the same for it. Then he follows the same procedure for every new question on his list.[12]

Secondly, the teacher should recognize the importance and the role of the initiation question of the seminar. One should remember that a good initiating question has some characteristics, among them are "specificity, being based in opinion, being focused on the meaning the writer is attempting to convey, and having the potential to elicit multiple answers that may conflict with each other" (Copeland 61). Too broad questions, such as "what is your opinion about the text?" do not help the students make progress into a meaningful and insightful analysis of the text.[13]

2.3.3.4. Inner Circle

The teacher should inform the students about seminar rules (see Appendix 2 for Socratic Seminar Rules and General Responsibilities) and about the responsibilities of inner circle members (see Appendix 3 for Responsibilities of Circles). The teacher's job at the beginning of the Socratic circle is as follows: s/he randomly divides the class into two, equal-sized groups; s/he suggests an initiating question to the inner circle to analyze the text and start the dialogue (Copeland, 2005). This way of starting the dialogue is one of the alternatives to follow. For example, the teacher might also give the opportunity of starting the dialogue to the discussion leader–assigned before the seminar.

[12] How to construct a list of prior questions and find an example of how to construct logically prior questions, and to find a sample Socratic dialogue, see Elder and Paul (1998).

[13] To find examples of possible effective initiating questions, see Copeland (2005), 61.

It is important to note he might face some possible problems, such as some students never talking, distracting the group, or monopolizing the conversation, and disagreement among groups.[14]

2.3.3.5. Outer Circle

The role of an outer circle member is to provide feedback on the behavior of an inner circle member. The leader clarifies the specific responsibilities of outer circle before the seminar (see Appendix 3 for Responsibilities of Circles). Constructive and positive feedback helps the learner to improve oneself, especially not given by teacher but one's fellow students. One of the methods to observe inner circle is to use feedback forms–as seen in Table 5–for the first few Socratic circles, which help learners to get accustomed to the seminar and their roles.

Table 4

Socratic Circle Feedback Form

Socratic Circle Feedback Form

Name _____ Hour_____ Date_____

1. Rate the inner circle's performance on the following criteria: (circle the appropriate number)

Did the participants . . .	Poor		Average		Excellent
dig below the surface meaning?	1	2	3	4	5
speak loudly and clearly?	1	2	3	4	5
cite reasons and evidence for their statements?	1	2	3	4	5
use the text to find support?	1	2	3	4	5
listen to others respectfully?	1	2	3	4	5
stick with the subject?	1	2	3	4	5
talk to each other, not just the leader?	1	2	3	4	5
paraphrase accurately?	1	2	3	4	5
avoid inappropriate language?	1	2	3	4	5
ask for help to clear up confusion?	1	2	3	4	5
support each other?	1	2	3	4	5
avoid hostile exchanges?	1	2	3	4	5
question others in a civil manner?	1	2	3	4	5
seem prepared?	1	2	3	4	5
make sure questions were understood?	1	2	3	4	5

2. Name specific people who did one or more of the above criteria well.
3. What was the most interesting question asked?
4. What was the most interesting idea to come from a participant?
5. What was the best thing you observed?
6. What was the most troubling thing you observed?
7. How could this troubling thing be corrected or improved?

Adapted from Copeland, 2005

[14] To read about possible problems and strategies to solve them, see Chapter 2.3.4.

Copeland states that in the early process of Socratic circle, a feedback form serves as an effective way to center learner's attention since they do not have many variables to assess and reflect on at the beginning of the process.

After having more experience of Socratic circle, learners begin to observe the dialogue of inner circle members more consciously. As the group members become more efficient in observing the inner circle, the teacher might use some other methods, e.g. critical reflection.[15]

Rather than only focusing on the content of the inner circle's dialogue, the outer circle might also focus on the inner circle's behavior and process, assessing the quality of the dialogue, and establishing goals for future performance (see Appendix 4 for Socratic Circle Reflection). The teacher needs some experience in order to manage the dynamics of outer circle, such as students who are overly critical or avoiding criticism, or students who over-praise.[16]

2.3.3.6. Assessment and Follow-up Activities

Assessment of Socratic circle is important in terms of documenting their achievement and for student reflection, reinforcing the process of continuous growth. It helps to create goals to guide future learning and possible strategies to improve or eliminate for future seminars. Effective assessment of Socratic circle performance should involve multiple strategies, both formal and informal (Copeland, 2005).

Socratic circle feedback forms are one of the formal types of assessment (see Appendix 5 for a sample Socratic Circle Feedback Form). Teachers might also develop a rubric to use (see Appendix 6 for a sample Socratic Circle Rubric) or a scorecard (see Appendix 7 for a sample Socratic Circle Scorecard.) to give students written feedback.

Other informal assessment forms are note taking, mapmaking, and scorekeeping, which shown below in Figure 3 (Copeland, 2005).

[15] To read more about critical reflection and its use in Socratic circle, see Copeland (2005), 77-78.

[16] To read about possible problems and strategies to solve them, see Chapter 2.3.4.

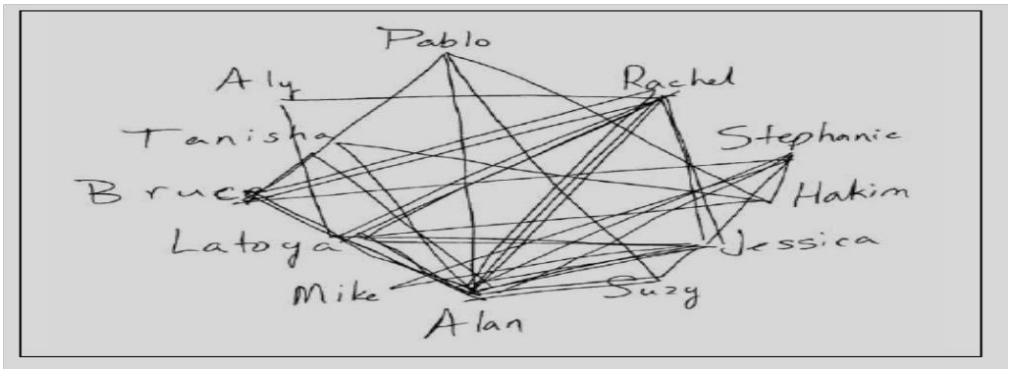


Figure 3. Socratic circle mapmaker example (Copeland, 2005, p. 130)

Note taking is one of the most productive ways for the teacher to observe and give feedback to students. It is important to note that this technique needs attention and it is time consuming; however, it helps the teacher in many aspects, e.g. to keep track of the content of the seminar and how the seminar progresses so as to see the strengths and weaknesses to improve future seminars. Additionally, it might be useful to use a simple chart—made of columns—each showing different aspects. For instance, teacher might take notes on the following aspects: behaviors of students, leadership, participation, subtopics discussed, important questions raised, references used, off-topic ideas presented by inner circle (Copeland, 2005). As Copeland suggests a weakness of this techniques is that it only represents one observer's point of view. In order to have multiple points of view, the teacher might ask one or two students to fulfill the role of note taker.

Another strategy to record information of the inner circle, which is far easier, is to keep score. Each time the student participates, the teacher adds tally marks next to student's name. Figure 4 (Copeland, 2005) below illustrates an example of scorekeeper tally sheet.

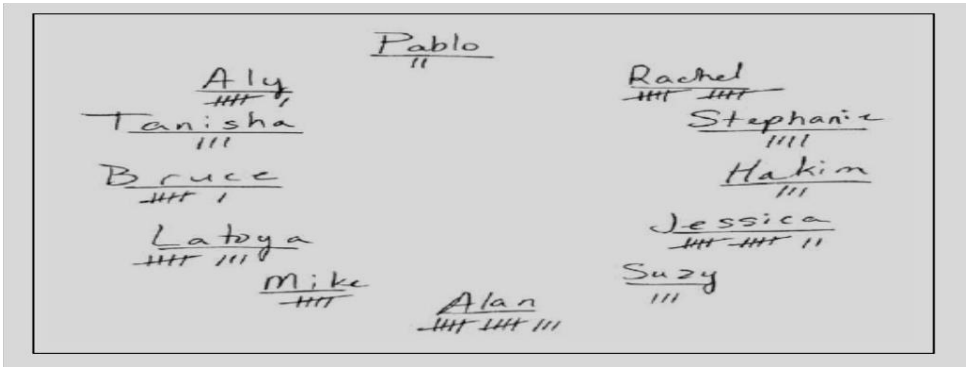


Figure 4. Socratic Circle scorekeeper tally sheet (Copeland 2005, p. 128)

The teacher might also distinguish between the comments made and the questions raised by students. Each question asked by a student might be indicated by adding question marks next to student's name. These "tallies" should not be considered as "points." Students should not think that they compete with one another. On the other hand, although the essence of Socratic seminar is based on sharing ideas through dialogues instead of competition, the teacher might use this technique to motivate students (Copeland, 2005, p. 126).

2.3.4. Some Possible Drawbacks and Solutions

As the form of dialogue differs from discussion in classroom, teacher might face some problems during Socratic seminar. The following section discusses possible problems and solutions in inner and outer circle during Socratic seminar.

2.3.4.1. Inner Circle

First, it is known that most students have the habit of traditional classroom discussion (teacher lecturing, always guiding with questions, and asking for one on one answer). Namely, some of them might have difficulties about being a part of a dialogue. They might even need the teacher to assist and control the flow of the dialogue. In his work *Socratic Circles* (2005, p. 64), Copeland suggests that as a solution for the beginning of the seminar, he also becomes a member of the inner circle to join the dialogue and has to leave his neutral role as a teacher. He even thinks it might be useful to have students join a hot-debated dialogues looking for deeper meanings for them to get used to the idea of Socratic circle.

Another strategy to help students begin to guide and control the dialogue might be the feedback discussion of the outer circle. Sometimes, students' initial observations and comments might be more useful than teacher's comments since they value their friends' opinions more than a person as an authority figure. Alternatively, the teacher might make comments about a student's performance together with the outer circle member's observations and comments. Finally, with experienced Socratic circle performers, simple silence could be another strategy that might help. However, it is essential that students are fully aware of the Socratic circle concept.

Second, there might be the possibility of some students' not talking in the inner circle. The reasons might be as follows:

> The topic the text addresses makes students uncomfortable in discussion with their peers or in the presence of an adult, students cannot identify or make connections with the text that allow them to explore the underlying philosophical questions the text seeks to address, or students found the text too difficult or did not spend enough time preparing for the dialogue (Copeland, 2005, p.63).

If a problem arises because of any reasons above, the teacher might follow some procedures. First, the teacher might ask the leader to ask the circle members initiating questions to explore their comfort level; or the teacher might empathize with students and tell them that s/he [teacher] also feels a bit uncomfortable but also wants to have a better understanding through their dialogue. Second, effective opening questions might help students make connections with a piece of text (Simple questions such as, When you first read this text, what kind of things did it remind you of? Alternatively, has anyone been through a situation similar to what is being described in this text?) or the circle leader might be the model to make a connection to his own life (for instance, he might say: Every time I read this text, it reminds me the movie The *Fight Club* and the message of the importance of being free from your belongings. Can anyone else explain this connection?).

Third, the leader can temporarily take the reins and guide the students when they find it too difficult or have not read (Let's look at the first sentence. Why do you think the author started with such an eerie and spooky image?). Questioning at hard times is crucial to go on the discussion in a fruitful way. After the leader sees other circle members participating the conversation, he can simply pull back from the participatory role and allow the dialogue to continue on its own. In addition, open-ended, low-risk questioning might help students be motivated and encouraged to join the dialogue. Copeland suggests reading about three types of questions (fact, interpretation, and evaluation) in order to prepare effective questions for a Socratic circle (Copeland, 2005).[17]

Lastly, it is important for the teacher to observe and control the dynamics of the inner circle for an effective and high-quality dialogue. For instance, there might be

[17] To read about the type of questions to use, see Adler's study called *How to Start a Great Books Discussion Group (2007),* also see Copeland (2005) pp. 66-67.

students who try to monopolize the conversation, distract the group, or make rude and inappropriate comments with no courtesy. In a case of student's distracting a group, the teacher should take an action to refocus the class and continue with the activity or pose a new question or a question to refocus the conversation and end the conflict between and among students. Alternatively, the teacher might ask outer circle members to discuss about the misbehavior to establish new goals to correct such problems to improve the dialogue for future seminars. It also helps students create their own methods of dealing with such problems. As mentioned earlier, many times, constructive criticism from peers is more effective than teacher's feedback. If the disruption is more severe than the ones stated above, e.g. offensive language, personal verbal attacks, etc., it might be a good idea to remove the student from the activity, e.g. changing his location in the classroom that he cannot join the activity. When a student dominates the conversation and other students have trouble telling their opinions, the leader might step in and redirect the dialogue with another open-ended question so that other students will have the chance to voice their ideas. Similarly, if a student has the habit of indoctrinating his ideas to other students occasionally, the teacher might talk to the student outside the classroom and explain the importance of hearing other voices in a conversation (Copeland, 2005).

2.3.4.2. Outer Circle

It is also important for the teacher to control the dynamics and involvement of the outer circle since some students might over-praise or over-criticize. Students might be advised to listen to their teacher's constructive criticism and listening to their teacher's phrasing and wording might help students see how to be sensitive and considerate to their peers. Another method might be to write their comments of their peers anonymously and have a student or the teacher read them aloud to the members without stating who the commentator is.

The aim of argument, or of discussion, should not be victory, but progress.
—Joseph Joubert

2.4. Argumentation

People live in a complex society where clear writing is important to be able to articulate a request, complaint, or an endorsement in succinct, powerful written

language. If they cannot write a persuasive letter, the job or graduate school position might go to someone else. Cited in Cooper & Patton's work, *Ergo* (1993, p. 2), Robin Lakoff comments in her book *Talking Power*:

> In a meritocracy such as ours, we believe that those who best demonstrate the ability to think and persuade should have the lion's share of power. Articulateness according to the rules goes a long way; and its possessors are assumed to possess intelligence and virtue as inseparable concomitants. People who say things right, who plead their cases well, will be listened to and their suggestions acted upon. They will make the money, win the offices, find love, get all the goodies their society has to give. (cited in Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.2)

Lakoff shows the power of persuasion via argumentation. It brings e.g. money, love, position, and many more as a result. The quality of being facile in speech and writing helps one to achieve the goals he aims along with the possession of intelligence and virtue.

Another example of the power of persuasion is a Japanese writer Yoshimi Ishikawa, who came to the U.S. at the age of 18 and spent two years working and observing the country. Cited in Cooper & Patton's work, *Ergo* (1993, p. 2), Ishikawa claims: "the violent impression that America makes on foreigners is a result not just of its high crime rate but also of the one-sided nature of the conversation here." Nevertheless, he also concludes, "the power to persuade and be eloquent are weapons one needs to survive in America." (cited in Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.2) A weapon or a virtue, it is obvious that the power of persuasion is an important asset in many societies. Ability to analyze different perspectives and try to understand them not only widen our perspective also helps us to see what our stand is. Writing an argumentation to persuade provides us to embrace the multiplicity of views represented in our culture and helps us to avoid dogmatic, one-sided advocacy (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.3).

Yet, one should know that modes of persuasion and argumentation differ in many ways although they are stated as same concepts in some sources. Persuasive papers are meant to cause change(s) and a specific action(s) to be taken. Yet, argumentation papers follow the same organizational styles but with a significant difference. Kreml (2004) argues:

> Argumentation papers present reasons and evidence to support position without necessarily intending a change in action. A persuasion paper would include an argument with reasons and evidence, but it would also include a call for action by the readers. An argument paper would focus on analyzing a topic or explaining a position to simply convey information to the reader and then let the reader decide what, if any, action is called for (Kreml, 2004, p.306).

As Kreml (2004) suggests, "the purpose of argument papers is to inform and educate readers by explaining a position on an issue" (2004, p. 306). While one might use persuasive methods to appeal emotions, s/he should remember that argumentative papers rely heavily on logic and reasoning. The chart below indicates differences between persuasive and argumentative papers (smekenseducation.com):

The subtle, *but significant* differences between

Persuasive & Argumentative Writing



Persuasive Writing	V.	Argumentative Writing
The writer aims to get the reader to agree with him/his perspective.	**GOAL**	The writer aims to get the reader to accept his perspective/his side as truth.
Opinions are blended with facts, all in an attempt to convince the reader that the writer is "right."	**GENERAL TECHNIQUE**	Relevant reasons and credible data are blended to demonstrate the writer's argument as valid.
The writer needs an intended audience to address his request or need to. *Who can give him what he wants?*	**AUDIENCE**	To write an argument, the writer doesn't need an intended audience. The writer is satisfied with simply "putting the truth out there."
Since the writer is communicating directly to a person, group, or organization, it's common to use first-person (i.e., *I*) and second-person (i.e., *you*) point of view.	**POINT OF VIEW**	With no specific audience in mind, this more formal writing addresses the multiple sides of an issue using the more objective third-person point of view.
Persuasive writers "go after" their readers more aggressively. They consider the emotional strategy that will work best on their audience (e.g., manipulation, motivation, inspiration, etc.). Persuasive writing is personal, passionate, and emotional.	**ATTITUDE**	Argumentative writers maintain a tone of fairness and reasonableness. Their attitude is respectful, tactful, and formal.
Persuasion has a single-minded goal— *Get what the writer wants*. It is based on the writer's personal conviction that his way of thinking is the best. Consequently, the writer's viewpoint is typically the only one presented. (See the lopsided scales above.)	**PERSPECTIVES PRESENTED**	Argumentative writing acknowledges opposing views within a pro/con piece. (See the more balanced scales above.) This demonstrates the writer as a fair-minded person and gives him the opportunity to counter these perspectives with more logic, reasoning, and proof.
1. Pick a topic of interest. *(What do you want?)* 2. Choose a side to "fight" for. 3. Start writing.	**STARTING POINT**	1. Conduct initial research on a debatable topic. 2. Align with the strongest side. 3. Continue gathering facts and research.
Persuasive pieces rely almost solely on opinions and feelings. The writer uses his own passion and/or plays off reader emotions to get what he wants. The audience agrees with the writer because of strong emotional appeals.	**SUPPORT**	Arguments rely on logical reasons that are all substantiated by facts, data, expert quotes, and evidence. The audience agrees with the writer because of the strong logical appeals.

© 2012 **Smekens Education Solutions, Inc.** *www.SmekensEducation.com*

Figure 5. Differences between persuasive and argumentative writings

Adapted from smekenseducation.com

Both persuasion and argumentation require a through consideration of one's position and the position of others. At this point, writer needs an understanding of his/her audience. When making one's points reasonable and giving relevant evidence, one can rely on many types of evidence: personal experience and observations, research or testimonies from others. The topic also guides one to determine the types of evidence to use. For instance, a paper on a public policy may be effective if it relies on facts and statistics (Kreml, 2004, p. 306).

When developing an argumentation, one should be aware that his/her argument is based on assumptions. The writer also needs to determine what assumptions underlie his beliefs as well as the beliefs of the reader. Since the argument reveals writer's values, s/he needs to show the reader how his/her assumptions, values, and evidence are connected. This complex issue often involves "explaining what others believe and showing either the faults in their reasoning or how to reach another conclusion" (Kreml, 2004, p. 307). Instead of saying that what the reader believes is wrong, writer needs to show alternative ways of thinking about the subject. Making connection between the claims with supporting evidence and the assumptions shows that the writer purposefully thinks through his argument in a logical and reasoned way. That is to say, argumentation follows a different pattern and a goal to achieve compared to persuasion.

To conclude, it is plausible to understand the connection between critical thinking and argumentation. Since persuasion or stating one's arguments through argumentation is a part of one's daily life, it does not only help one to facilitate his daily life decisions but it also helps him to achieve his goals with the tool of writing in many different contexts.

2.4.1. Inference

A writer considers an inference (conclusion) to be warranted and validates it by finding evidence that operate as strong supporting alternative arguments. The structure of an argument is visualized with house analogy, it might look as following:

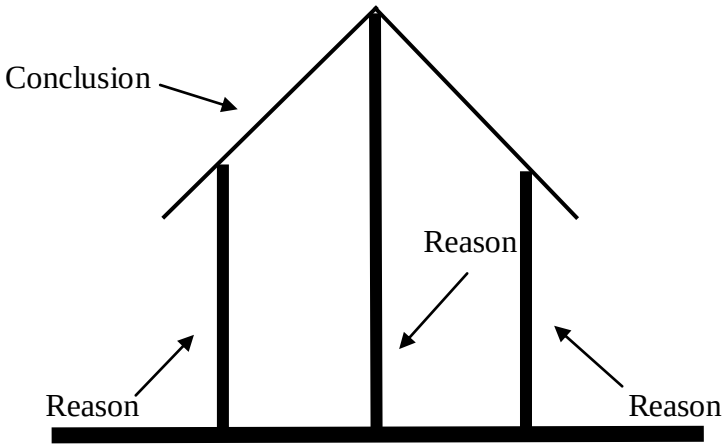


Figure 6. The structure of an argument (Missimer, 1990, p. 18)

As seen in the chart, all posts strongly support their roofs. The inference is the roof and the spot where the posts join the roof (Missimer, 1990). An inference might also defined as "a conclusion about the unknown made on the basis of the known" (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.12). For instance, one sees a car on the freeway with several old and new dents and she infers that the driver must be a bad one. Alternatively, when a close friend of hers does not call her for several weeks and does not return her calls, she infers that her friend is angry with her. People refer about their casual observations and personal relationships. The question is how reliable an inference is. Some inferences are quite credible but some are based on very little or no evidence supporting many different interpretations. The latter might be treated with skepticism. For example, speaking of the examples given above, the driver of the dented car might not be the owner; the driver may have borrowed the car from a friend. About the second example, that friend who has not called her for a while might have many possible reasons: a heavy work schedule, two university degree papers, or a family crisis. Obviously, the more evidence one supports the inferences and the fewer interpretations one makes, the more he can trust in its accuracy (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.13).

People make inferences mostly based on their own and others' observations and they receive them by print or speech. These observations are as follows; there are dents in the car, you have not spoken to your friend for several weeks, etc. Their own observations attest the truth of the claims they have on such occasions. However, they are also dependent on the observations of others about people, places, and events that

they cannot directly observe. These observations mostly consist of facts and information that can be verified. Facts come in very different forms—statistics, names, events. For instance, one might need a book, newspaper, magazine, or a television program with reports to find out about the last American troop left Vietnam in 1973. It is important to note that he does not only make on his observations and others' observations, he might also base on his judgments when he tries to reach a conclusion. For instance, he might infer that the driver does not have good driving skills. It includes a statement of disapproval. Inferences might express the writer's approval or disapproval (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.14-15).

It is crucial for a writer to distinguish inferences, facts, and judgments from one another. Writers also need to evaluate the reliability of their own inferences. He also needs to ask these questions; Are there other interpretations of the facts? Have I considered all other possible interpretations? Do I need more information before I draw a conclusion? (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

The following paragraph is useful to distinguish between statements of fact and inference:

> (1) Members of Congress work very hard. (2) Indeed, the average member of Congress works 70 to 80 hours a week on public business, ranging from committee hearings to floor debate to meetings with constituents. (3a) The workweek is usually seven days, four or five in Washington and the weekend back in the district—(3b) a nomadic existence that strains family life and physical well-being. (4) During their district work periods they meet with individuals, visit senior-citizens homes or community centers, respond to large amount of mail and read reports on significant issues facing their districts. Adapted from "Don't Be Beastly to Congress" by Norman J. Ornstein (cited in Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.19)

This paragraph contains two inferences; the other statements are factual and verified as illustrated below:

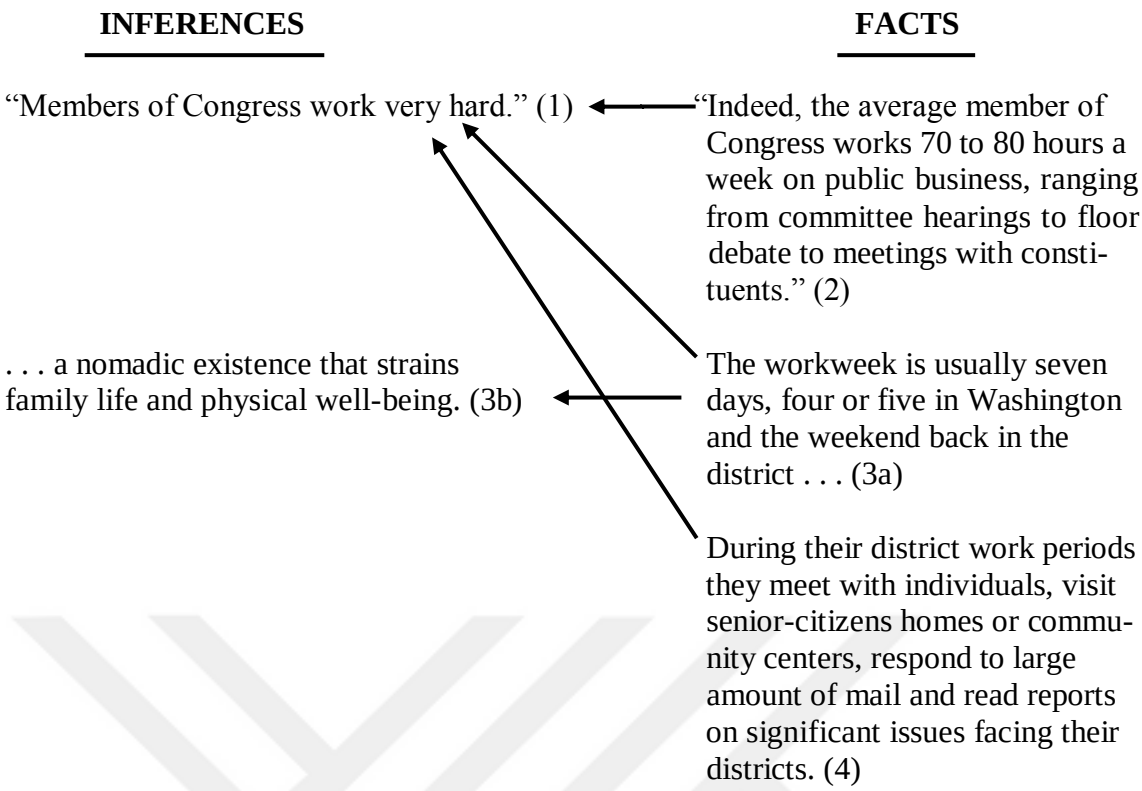


Figure 7. Illustration of inferences and facts (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.19)

The blend of inference and fact to support an argument makes a paper more interesting to read. Otherwise, a paper only consisting of facts would be of no interest to the reader because reading facts fail to support a conclusion. It is also possible to make a mistake if only writing a paper consisting of inferences and judgments without any facts to support opinions. A logical, convincing paper should draw inferences and support them with relevant facts (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

2.4.2. Deductive and Inductive (Non-deductive) Reasoning

Before discussing the structure of an argument, it might be more useful to identify deductive and non-deductive reasoning and its relation with class logic to understand it fully. The distinctive features of deduction and induction are mostly analyzed under two categories: necessity and probability. The following definitions and examples of logic and arguments are heavily based on *Ergo* (1993, p. 104) by Cooper and Patton.

The conclusion of a deductive argument is followed by necessity from the premises if it is based on a valid reasoning. The centuries-old example below shows a classical example:

1. All men are mortal.
2. Socrates is a man.

   ∴ Socrates is mortal. (∴ is a symbol in logic meaning "therefore.")

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.104)

The conclusion of an inductive argument is followed with some degree of probability (from the unlikely to the highly probable). In his book *The Problems of Philosophy*, Bertrand Russell exemplifies "The man who has fed the chicken every day throughout his life at last wrings its neck instead" as following:

1. He has fed me today.
2. He has fed me this next day.
3. He has fed me this day too.
4. He has fed me yet another day.

   etc.

   ∴ He will feed me tomorrow (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.105).

Relying on its experience, the chicken makes a reasonable prediction. Yet, he might be butchered the following day. The example shows that the conclusion of an inductive argument goes beyond the premises. Cited in Cooper and Patton's *Ergo* (1993, p. 106), an Italian Renaissance physician, Ambert Peré, shows his distrust in inductive reasoning as "the rapid means to the wrong conclusion." For this reason, some might prefer the certainty of a deductive reasoning to the probability of an inductive one.

2.4.3. From General to Specific, Specific to General

The inference in a deductive argument usually moves from a generalization to a specific example that fits that generalization. An example:

1. All students who complete this course successfully will fulfill the critical thinking requirement.
2. Jane has completed this course successfully.

∴ Jane has fulfilled the critical thinking requirement

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.105).

The inference in an inductive argument usually moves from a series of specific instances to a generalization. Below is another example:

1. Temperatures in the western states have been above normal this year.
2. Temperatures in the Midwest have been above normal this year.
3. Temperatures in the East have been above normal this year.
4. Winter all over the nation was milder than usual.
5. Drought has been increasing across the country.

∴ The first stages of the dreaded "Greenhouse Effect" are upon us.

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.106)

2.4.4. Deductive Reasoning

The following section explores class logic and relationships between classes, e.g. inclusion, exclusion, deductive syllogism. It also discusses what a valid argument requires to be a valid one.

2.4.4.1. Class Logic - Relationships between Classes

There are three possible relationships between classes: inclusion, exclusion, and overlap (Cooper and Patton, 1993).

Inclusion: One class is included in another if every member of one class is a member of the other class. To illustrate this relationship letter A and B are used. Using circle diagrams is also called Euler diagrams after Leonhard Euler, an eighteenth-century mathematician. A relationship of inclusion is illustrated below in Figure 6 (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.117):

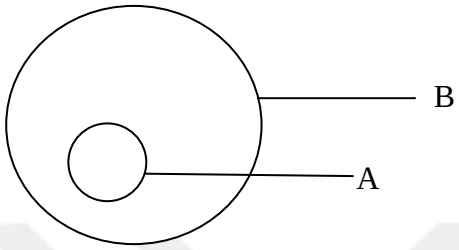


Figure 8. Illustration of inclusion (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 117).

For example, since all professional swimmers are also professional athletes the following figure shows the relationship of these classes.

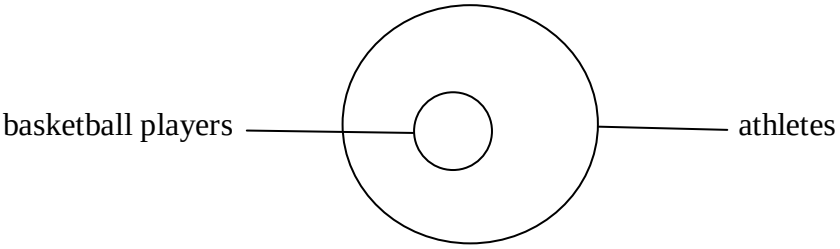


Figure 9. Illustration of inclusion 2.

Adapted from Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 117

Exclusion: One class excludes another if they do not share any members, which shows that no A's are B's. The diagram below shows such relationship:

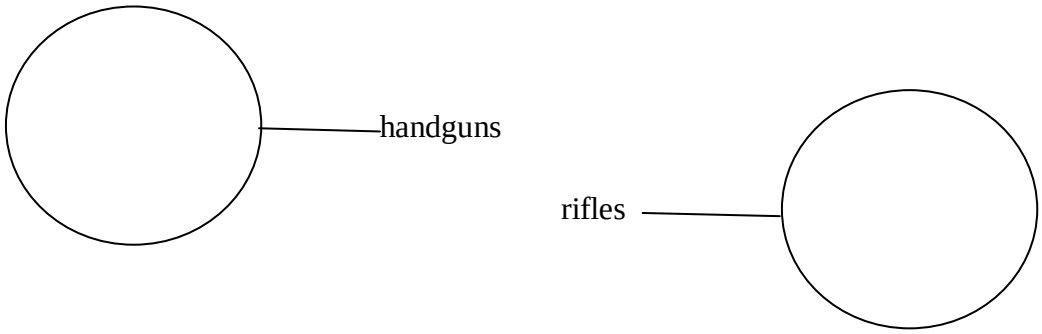


Figure 10. Illustration of exclusion (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 117).

Overlap: One class overlaps with another if they have at least one member in common- if at least one A is also a B. Such diagram is illustrated below (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 118):

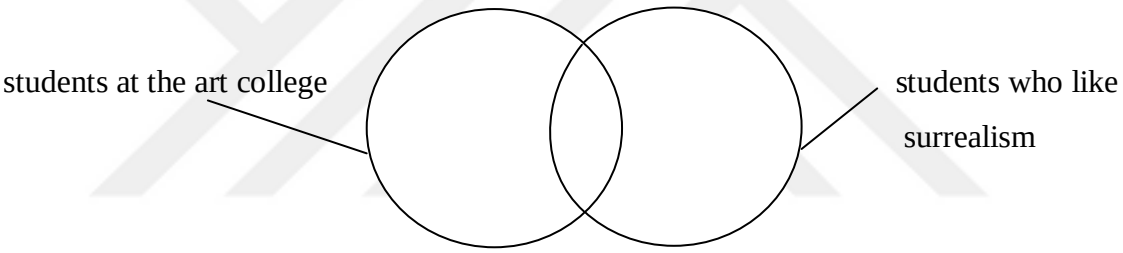


Figure 11. Illustration of overlap (Cooper & Patton, 1993, 118)

2.4.4.2. Class Logic and Deductive Syllogism

Both inductive and deductive reasoning often depend on a conclusion on the basis of relationships between classes. Related example and an illustration are shown below both in written form and a diagram of Figure 10 (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 119):

All people are mortal.

Socrates is a person.

∴ Socrates is mortal.

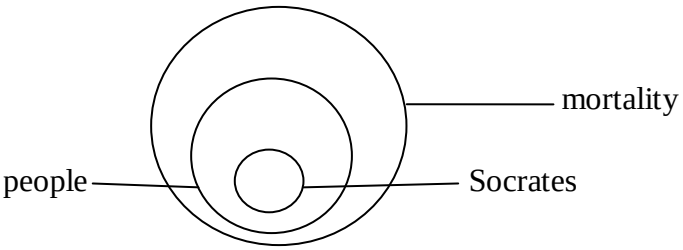


Figure 12. Illustration of deductive syllogism (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 119)

As shown in Figure 12 above, it is a deductive argument composed of three classes; two premises and one conclusion derived from the two premises. This type of argument is also called categorical syllogism.

2.4.5. Truth, Validity, and Soundness

A valid argument has the conclusion following of necessity from the premises as it does in the syllogism about Socrates as follows:

All people are mortal.

Socrates is a person.

∴ Socrates is mortal.

In logic, validity has the following meaning: the conclusion follows of necessity inescapably from the premises. For a successful deductive argument, the premises must be true or acceptable. True is used by logicians when a proposition can be evaluated by absolute or mathematical standards. However, it might be a better idea to prefer the term acceptable in the critical thinking field because in writing one settles for what is reasonable to believe in his argument, which is adequately supported and explained by premises. To sum up, two requirements are needed to accept the conclusion of a deductive argument (Cooper and Patton, 1993):

1. The structure of the argument must be valid—the conclusion must follow of necessity from the premises.

2. The premises must be acceptable (true) (p. 120).

A sound argument is a deductive argument whose premises are acceptable and whose structure is valid. That is to say, if the argument is valid and the premises are acceptable, then the conclusion cannot be false. One should keep in mind that the terms validity and soundness can refer only to the argument as a whole. On the other hand, individual statements can only be described as acceptable or unacceptable (true or false). It is not reasonable to describe an argument as being true or a premise as valid.

Some examples of sound and unsound arguments (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.120-121) are shown below:

1. A sound argument—the premises are acceptable and the structure valid.

Drift-net fishing kills dolphins.

Mermaid Tuna uses drift nets.

∴ (therefore) Mermaid Tuna kills dolphins.

2. An unsound argument-one of the premises (in this example the first one) is false or not acceptable, even though the structure is valid.

All Spaniards are noisy.

Jose is a Spaniard.

∴ Jose is noisy.

3. An unsound argument-the premises are true but the structure is invalid.

All athletes are people.

All basketball players are people.

∴ All basketball players are athletes (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.120-121).

2.4.6. The Subject and the Predicate

Identifying the subject and the predicate of each premise helps identify the three classes of a categorical syllogism. These terms are both shared by grammar and logic and they mean the same thing in both disciplines. As Cooper and Patton (1993) states: "The subject is that part of the sentence about which something is being asserted, and the predicate includes everything being asserted about the subject" (p.119).

All people	are mortal.	Socrates	is a person.
the subject	the predicate	the subject	the predicate

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.119)

The subject identifies one class, the predicate the other as shown below in Figure 13:

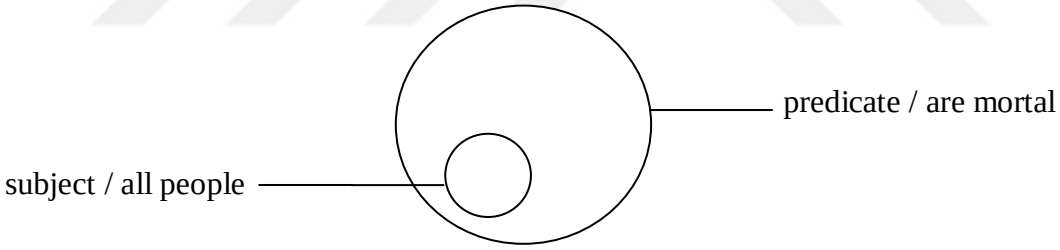


Figure 13. Illustration of the subject and the predicate (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 119)

2.4.7. Guilt by Association

An example of invalid argument with true premises is shown below:

Drug dealers wear electronic pagers.

Doctors wear electronic pagers.

∴ Doctors are drug dealers (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 121).

Although one can easily reject this ridiculous argument, this pattern of erroneous reasoning is fairly common. Here is an example given in *Ergo* (1993), which took place in 1950 when communism was referred to as the "red menace," and Joe McCarthy started their witch-hunt against anyone who had ever had an association, no matter how slight or distant, with communism:

Communists favor measures x, y, and z.

My opponent, Helen Gahagen Douglas, favors these measures.

∴ Helen Gahagen Douglas is a Communist (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 121).

Although this is a faulty reasoning, it was effective and Douglas lost the election. It assumes that if two classes share one quality, they share all qualities, which is also a source of much racism and sexism. A diagram with Figure 14 can show how the logic fails.

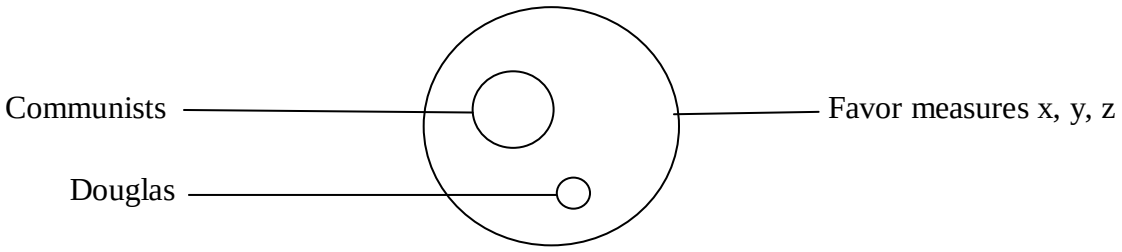


Figure 14. Illustration of guilt by association (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 121)

Another example is as follows (Groarke and Tindale, 1997):

The anti-hunt organizations are associated with the hunt saboteurs.

The hunt saboteurs behave in a questionable (violent) way.

∴ (therefore) The motives of anti-hunt organization are questionable. (p. 376).

The argument assumes that the organizations and the saboteurs share the same ideological views at least that they are working for the same end. It is possible to say that it is a wrong association and results in as an argument that is not sound.

2.4.8. More on Syllogisms

A universal proposition is an assertion that refers to all members of a designated class. When a premise is qualified with "some," it is called a particular proposition by logicians. An example is shown below, followed by the Figure 15:

All gamblers are optimists.

Some of my friends are gamblers.

∴ Some of my friends are optimists (Cooper & Patton p.122).

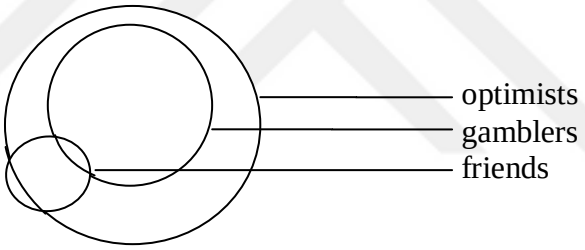


Figure 15. Illustration of particular proposition (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 122)

2.4.9. Hypothetical Arguments

Hypothetical or conditional argument is another common type of deductive argument. Unlike the categorical syllogism, it is not concerned with classes but with conditions. For example (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.126),

If Maria drops that glass, it will break.

It is a condition that will lead to a specified consequence if met. The condition is called the antecedent; the consequence is called, the consequent. The second premise establishes whether that condition has been met.

Maria dropped the glass.

The antecedent is affirmed in this case. The conclusion follows of necessity: The glass broke. The argument pattern is as follows:

If A, then B.

A.

∴ B (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.126).

2.4.9.1. The Valid Hypothetical Argument

This argument pattern affirms the antecedent.[18] Although this pattern is valid, whether we accept the conclusion depends on the acceptability of the premises as well as the validity of the argument.

Another valid argument pattern (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.126) is one with the minor premise denying the consequent.[19]

If Maria drops that glass, it will break.

It did not break.

∴ Maria did not drop it.

[18] This argument pattern is referred as modus ponens by logicans (Cooper and Patton, 1993).

[19] This argument pattern is referred as modus tollens by logicans (Cooper and Patton, 1993).

It can also be shown in the following form:

If A, then B.

Not B.

∴ Not A (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 127).

The rule is as follows; the minor premise must either affirm the antecedent or deny the consequent.

2.4.9.2. The Invalid Hypothetical Argument

Denying the antecedent or affirming the consequent leads to invalidity. For instance:

If Maria drops the glass, it will break.	[If A, then B.
Maria did not drop the glass.	Not A.
∴ The glass did not break.	∴ Not B.]

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.126)

It affirms that if Maria does not drop the glass, it will not break. However, there are many other ways for the glass to break. For instance, someone else may drop it, or someone may pour hot liquid into it.

To affirm the consequent will also produce an invalid argument. For instance:

If Maria drops the glass, it will break.	[If A, then B.
It broke.	B.
∴ Maria dropped it.	∴ A.]

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.127)

It does not necessarily mean that Maria broke it; there are many other ways for the glass to break.

Examining the validity of the hypothetical arguments, it shows that many conditions or causes can lead to the same result but one should not assume that there is only one specific condition for a particular consequence unless it is told so that it is the case.

2.4.10. Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

A necessary condition is a condition without which the consequence cannot occur. For instance, fire cannot occur without oxygen; that is to say, oxygen is a necessary condition of fire. However, oxygen alone cannot start a fire; it needs a matter to burn to ignite it, so it is not, by itself, a sufficient condition.

A sufficient condition is one possible cause of a consequence to happen but not the only one. The death of someone you love is a sufficient condition of grief but it is not the only one for someone to have grief, other events can also cause grief.

2.4.11. Hypothetical Chains

A hypothetical argument might also consist of entire chains of conditions, as in the following example.

> If gun control advocates mount a very strong, well-funded campaign in the fall, then Congress will pass a law banning handguns.
>
> If Congress passes a law banning handguns, then fewer people will able to purchase them.
>
> If fewer people are able to purchase them, then there will be fewer guns.
>
> If there are fewer guns, then there will be less violence in our society.
>
> ∴ If gun control advocates mount a very strong, well-funded campaign in the fall, there will be less violence in our society (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 128).

The pattern is as follows:

If A, then B.

If B, then C.

If C, then D.

If D, then E.

∴ If A, then E (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 128).

If the first condition is affirmed, the other conditional claims lead us inescapably to the result, like falling dominoes (Cooper and Patton, 1993).

" *Logic is the anatomy of thought."*

John Locke

2.5. Logic in Writing

When convincing readers, writer appeals primarily to readers' intelligence, or their reasons. Appeals to reason depend on logic. While supporting one's proposition, s/he will necessarily be engaging in reasoning processes, two basic kinds of which are inductive and deductive. With induction, one moves from particular facts to a generalization. Using deduction, one moves from general truths or assumptions to a particular statement (Messenger, 1989, p.205).

2.5.1. Induction in Writing

Inductive reasoning moves from a group of statements about some events to a generalization about all such events. As Messenger (1989) exemplifies: "Suppose you've noticed a number of your friends (Jan, Ken, Eddie, Audrey, and Carl) are all college students and that none of them has much money. You would be probably right to conclude—by inductive reasoning—that college students generally don't have much money" (p.205). Making an "inductive leap" from some specific instances to all or most

such instances, one might see that induction always leaps beyond the evidence at hand and it cannot prove something or establish certainty, only probability—but high probability if careful enough about the reasoning process. Induction is also common in everyday thinking as Messenger (1989, p. 205) exemplifies: "This is the third police car that's passed us in ten minutes. Something must have happened up ahead." Messenger (1989) illustrates another example as follows: "That's the sixth time Harold's number has been busy this afternoon. He must always be on the phone. Or else there's something wrong with the line" (p. 205).

The latter example shows that principle of induction is common both to everyday conversation and to scientific thinking. It indicates that after many sets of observations, a conclusion to draw or generalization is possible. People find themselves trying to decide among competing inductive conclusions, known as hypotheses. As a result, an argument leads a person to sort through several possible hypotheses to find the most probable one. Science also relies on the number of specific observations to draw a probable conclusion. A hypothesis becomes a law in science when it has been verified by so many observations resulting in an invariable truth, e.g. the law of gravity, the law of diminishing returns in science. In everyday life, such truths are known as "common sense." At that point, instead of citing hundreds of specific examples, writer might use statistics to appeal to common sense. However, writer needs to be aware that there should be no *exceptions* to explain away because he might lose readers' confidence and a chance of convincing them. He needs to ask the question "How much evidence do I need to supply for these readers on this particular occasion?" Accordingly, conclusions or generalizations are only good to use as long as it has the support or evidence behind them (Messenger, 1989, p. 206).

2.5.2. Deduction in Writing

Below is a traditional example of deductive reasoning (Messenger, 1989, p. 206):

1. All men are mortal.
2. Socrates is a man.
3. Therefore Socrates is mortal.

The two general statements, (1 and 2) called the premises, provide the conclusion as the proof. Two premises followed by a conclusion is called syllogism. The first premise—major premise—is more important because it is more general. The second premise, less general, is called the minor premise. For the conclusion to be valid, its subject must be the subject of the minor premise (*Socrates*) and its predicate as of the major premise (*is mortal*).

Writer should keep in mind that only if the generalizations in the premises are true or accepted as true by readers. Here is an example (Messenger, 1989) to test the truth of the premises by inductive reasoning:

1. Athletes injured in violent sports can sue.
2. Basketball is a violent sport.
3. Therefore, athletes injured in the basketball should be able to sue (p. 207).

This will result in such a similar thesis statement that "Injured basketball players, as other injured in violent sports, should be able to sue." This deduction shows that writer accepts the assumption that basketball is a violent sport as some other contact sports like American football or baseball. It shows that the writer would also have to argue for that minor premise first (Messenger, 1989).

When using deduction, for the conclusion to be a certainty, writer must mention an "absolute," an *all* or *every* or *none* or some other wordings that are explicitly or implicitly stated in one of the premises. For instance, words like *most, many, usually, few* might help to qualify premises at least to try to establish absolute proof or certainty.

2.6. The Structure of Argument

The structure of all arguments consists of two key components: premises and conclusions. Premises play a vital role to decide whether a particular conclusion is acceptable or not. To assess the credibility of a premise, one might evaluate premises under scrutiny with following questions (Cooper and Patton, 1993):

1. Is the premise necessarily true? Is it impossible for it to be false because of the language of the proposition? (Claims Necessarily True by Virtue of Language)
2. Is the premise a factual proposition that is common knowledge, easily verifiable with no widely known evidence against it? (Claims of Fact)
3. Is the premise supported by an appropriate authority on the subject? (Claims of Authority)
4. Is the premise a judgment? (Claims of Judgment)

(Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 87-91)

The conclusion is the key assertion that the other assertions support. These other assertions are the premises, reasons to support the conclusion. To exemplify:

> Because a child born with ancephaly (a developmental disorder that prevents the brain from forming) has no capacity for mental functioning, and because there are infants in desperate need of organ transplants, the organs of such a child should be harvested (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 28).

The conclusion—that the ancephalic child's organs should be harvested—is supported by two premises: that such a child has no capacity for mental functioning and that there are infants in desperate need of organ transplants. As illustrated in the example, an argument must contain both of these elements—a conclusion and at least one premise (Cooper and Patton, 1993).

It is important to note that indicator words, conjunctions and other transitions—which show logical relationships between ideas—help the reader to understand an argument distinctively and clearly. "Because" and "since" are two of the most common premise indicators while "so", "therefore", "thus", "hence", and "consequently" are the most common conclusion indicators. "And" as well as "but" often connect premises. They operate in a sentence as following:

conclusion because *premise*

premise therefore *conclusion*

The following one is an example to display the two alternative transitions between premises:

> Alternative 1. The decision to deny Former Cincinnati Reds manager Pete Rose admittance to the Hall of Fame was just *because* he violated organized baseball's rule against gambling.
>
> Alternative 2. Former Cincinnati Reds manager Pete Rose violated organized baseball's rule against gambling, *therefore* the decision to deny him admittance to the Hall of Fame was just (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 29).

Table 5 is the alternative list to find out logical relationships between ideas to understand an argument (Missimer, 1990; Groarke & Tindale, 1997):

Table 5

Logical Relationships between Ideas to Understand an Argument

Therefore (Conclusion Indicators)	**Because (Premise Indicators)**
in short	since
so	for (before a clause)
it follows that	for the reason that
it is believed that	as
shows (indicates) that	can be deduced from
proves that	given that
we may conclude that	the reasons are
necessitates	the source is
consequently	
thus	
hence	

(Groarke & Tindale,1997; p. 14, Missimer, 1990, p. 24)

Table 5 displays conclusion and premise indicators to be used to indicate logical relationships between ideas to understand an argument.

2.7. Standard Form

With the help of indicator words, it is possible to analyze the structure of an argument and then put it into standard form—reducing an argument to its essence, its premises, and conclusion. To state it differently, it is an outline of an argument. The example argument given earlier on infant organ transplants is displayed as following in standard form:

Premise 1 A child born with ancephaly has no capacity for mental functioning.

Premise 2 There are infants in desperate need of organ transplants.

∴ (therefore) The organs of such a child should be harvested.

(∴ is a symbol in logic meaning "therefore")

(Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 29).

Clarifying an argument by numbering the premises "P1," "P2," and so on, drawing a line between the last premise and the conclusion—that is marked with a "C"—is another way to set out a style for standard form. The line between premises and conclusion is called an "inference bar." The bar might also be read as 'therefore' (Bowell & Kemp, 2002). The example below is in standard form:

(P1) Car use is seriously damaging the environment.

(P2) Reducing car journeys would reduce damage to the environment.

(P3) we should do what we can to protect the environment.

(C) We should use cars less (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 12).

2.8. Diagramming Arguments

Diagramming arguments is another way to analyze the structure of an argument. When putting an argument into standard form, the argument is reduced to its premises

and conclusions. It emphasizes major points while ignoring statements that serve as premise support. Nevertheless, when an argument is diagrammed, it illustrates the logical relationship between all assertions (claims of fact or opinion) regardless of their function, and shows the logical direction in which ideas flow (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

Types of argument structures might be identified depending on how the inference is linked together in a chain of reasoning. The simplest type, the single argument has only one premise given used as the basis for inferring a conclusion. Below is an example of an argument that can be classified as a single argument (Walton, 2006):

> Diseased cattle can transmit fatal diseases to humans who consume beef products. Therefore, inspection of cattle for such diseases is essential for human safety (Walton, 2006, p. 139).

However, many of the arguments have at least two premises. When having premises more than one in an argumentation, every assertion in the sentence is numbered as a simple chronology, such as #1, #2, #3, and so on. If a sentence contains more than one assertion, they are numbered separately. For example: "Because the flag is a symbol of our country, no one should be allowed to burn it" (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 34). It consists of two assertions and it must be numbered accordingly.

After numbering the assertions, arrows are used to connect the assertions and they symbolize a "therefore" relationship. To test the accuracy of the diagram, one might read "therefore" for each arrow as followed in downward direction. Alternatively, one might also substitute "because" for the arrows when reading from the conclusion upward. The following example shows the process (Cooper & Patton, 1993):

> (1) The state's Office of Traffic Safety has reported that compliance with seat belt laws is 13 percent to 17 percent higher in states with secondary enforcement. And (2) it follows, according to statistics quoted in a report by Chronicle economics editor Vlae Kershner, that traffic deaths are 8 percent to 9 percent lower in the primary enforcement states. Therefore, (3) primary

> enforcement would save about 300 lives a year in our state, where some 3,500 people die in traffic accidents annually (p. 34).

2.8.1. Serial Argument

The diagram with Figure 16 below shows a *serial argument*—each assertion supports the one that follows it. Argument diagrams can reflect different relationships between premises in addition to the serial example shown below (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

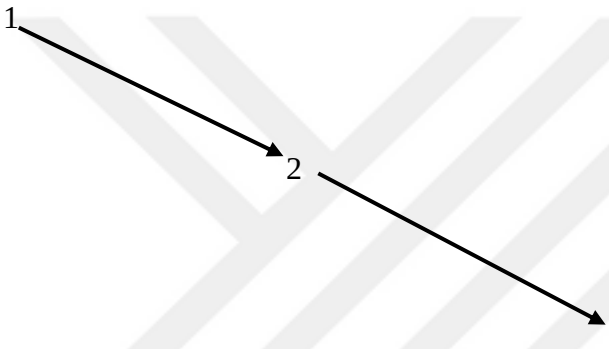


Figure 16. Illustration of serial argument (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 34)

> (1) Customers often tip just because it is the accepted practice. (2) Therefore, a customer's tip is not necessarily a good criterion of excellent service. (3) Therefore, you cannot argue that tipping is good just on the basis that it rewards excellence of service (Walton, 2006, p. 146).

The middle proposition has two functions: as the conclusion drawn from the first premise and a premise to draw the conclusion as the third premise. This type of dual function is characterized as a serial argument (Walton, 2006).

2.8.2. Convergent Argument

Convergent argument is a type of an argument that the premises support the conclusion (converging on the conclusion) separately, and each provides a different, unrelated reason (Cooper & Patton, 1993). The diagram with Figure 17 and an example of a convergent argument are shown below (Butterworth & Thwaites, 2013):

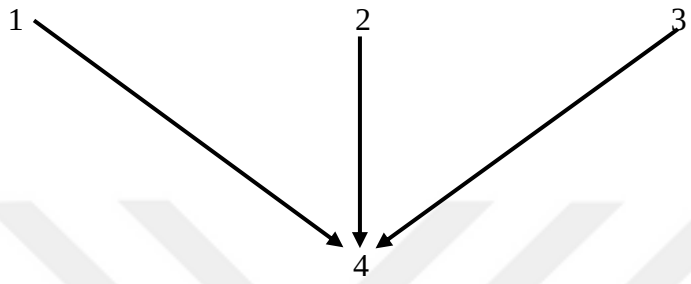


Figure 17. Illustration of convergent argument (Cooper and Patton, 1993, 35)

> (1) Flying is responsible for ten times the carbon emissions of rail travel. (2) Flying is twice as stressful (as rail travel). (3) Trains take you to the heart of a city, not to some far-flung airport. (4) Rail travel makes a lot more sense than short-range flights (Butterworth & Thwaites, 2013, p. 40).

Another example (Groarke & Tindale, 2004) of convergent argument—where premises are separate and distinct, and offer independent evidence for a conclusion—is a kind of argument attributed to the mythical detective Sherlock Holmes and it is diagrammed as follows:

> (1) Although the living room window is open, there are no footprints outside despite the softness of the ground after yesterday's rain. (2) The clasp on the box was not broken but opened with a key that had been hidden behind the clock. (3) The dog did not bark. (4) The crime was committed by someone in the house (p.38).

The premises in this argument are separate and indicating independent reason for that conclusion. The premises do not need each other to support the conclusion (Groarke & Tindale, 1997).

2.8.3. Linked Argument

A linked argument is an argument that two premises are independent, together providing support for a conclusion. The diagram with Figure 18 and an example of the argument are shown below:

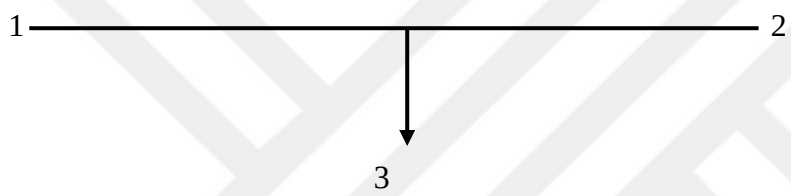


Figure 18. Illustration of linked argument (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 35)

> (1) Linda is now in law school, and (2) we all know that lawyers are more concerned with making money than with justice, so (3) I assume that Linda will soon be more concerned with money than with what's right (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 35).

The following argument illustrates another example of linear argument (Groarke & Tindale, 1997) and these premises support a conclusion only when they are conjoined:

> (1) Literacy skills are essential for the development of productive citizens. (2) This program has been teaching people basic literacy skills for over two decades. (3) providing continued funding for the program is clearly justified (p.48).

2.8.4. Divergent Argument

Divergent argument is an argument that two propositions are inferred as separate conclusions from the same premise (Walton, 2006). The diagram with Figure 19 and the example of the divergent argument are shown below:

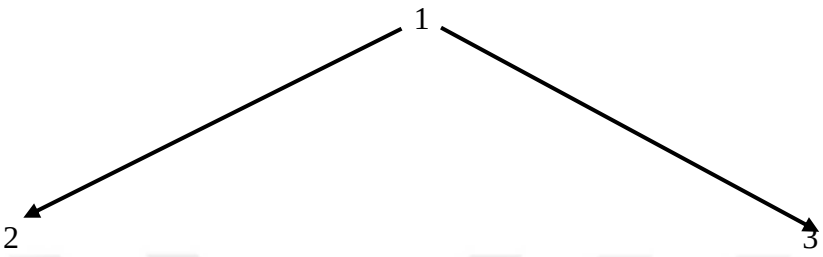


Figure 19. Illustration of divergent argument (Walton p.147)

> (1) Smoking has been proved to be very dangerous to health. (2) Therefore, commercial advertisements for cigarettes should be banned. (3) And also, warning that smoking is dangerous should be printed on all cigarette packages (Walton, 2006, p. 147).

A divergent argument might also be in the form of a set of premises leading to two (or more) separate conclusions—that is shown in a diagram with Figure 20 and an example below.

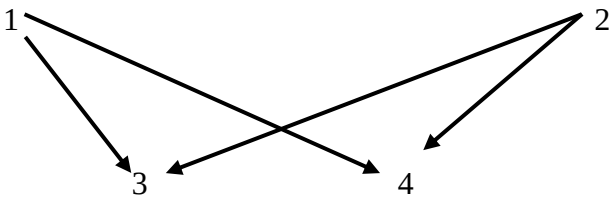


Figure 20. Illustration of divergent argument II (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 35)

(1) Destroying the flag, a symbol of freedom, does not destroy the thing it represents. Indeed, (2) this freedom gains strength from our tolerance of dissent. Therefore, (3) an individual should not be prosecuted for expressing his political views by burning the flag and (4) a constitutional amendment prohibiting such an act is not needed (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 35).

2.8.5. Combination of Arguments

Any combination of the patterns stated earlier is also possible. For instance, one conclusion might be supported by both a serial sequence of premises and one or more convergent premises. A diagram with Figure 21 and an example are shown below:

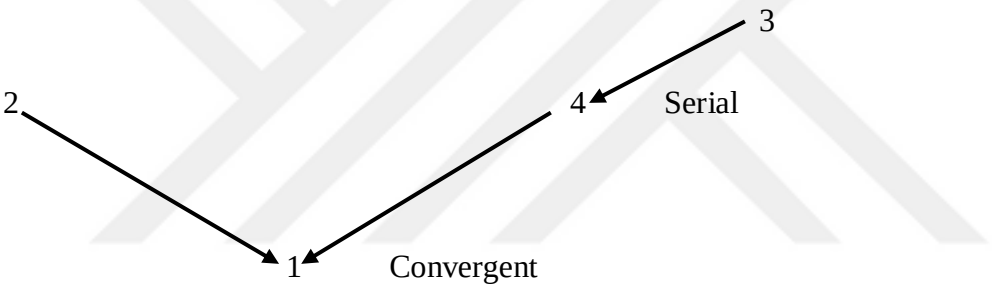


Figure 21. Illustration of combination of two patterns (convergent and serial argument) (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 36)

(1) Supreme Court deliberations should be televised. (2) Similar coverage of proceedings in the House and Senate has proved enormously successful. And (3) the American public would become more informed, (4) which would in turn lead to their being more politically active (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 36).

Distinguishing among the different types of arguments with its premises and conclusion might help to clarify the precise logic of arguments (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

2.9. Ambiguous Argument Structure

The direction of argument sometimes might be difficult to identify; as a conclusion or supporting premises. In such cases, it is important to look for what is most reasonable to believe; to *give the benefit of the doubt.* One might try each assertion as the conclusion and see if the premises offer logical support for it, beginning with its most probable conclusion.

The ancient methodological principle known as Occam's razor is also connected with the benefit of the doubt. Named for William of Occam, the most influential philosopher of fourteenth century Europe, it advocates economy in argument. As Occam says, "What can be done with fewer assumptions is done in vain with more" (cited in Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 37). Cooper and Patton (1993) state:

> Convoluted arguments, often those that sound the most impressive, can be difficult to unravel and rarely advance good reasoning. The ultimate question, however, when constructing an argument is always: What is enough? In the words of Toni Morrison, in her novel Beloved, "Everything depends on knowing how much, and good is knowing when to stop (p. 37).

Below is an example of an ambiguous argument (Bowell & Kemp, 2002):

> (1) Sharemasters is the leading personal investment service. (2) If I employ a personal investment service, then I should employ the leading personal investment service. (3) If I employ a personal investment service, then I should employ Sharemasters (p.172).

The argument above seems to be a deductively valid argument. However, the first premise is ambiguous. What makes this company leading and is it based on any support?

A writer should be clear and precise in his reasoning. If the construction of an argument is not easy to follow, he should question it and should remember that he needs

to be able to convey the meaning to reader with appropriate argument structure with a clear argumentation.

2.9.1. Logical Relations between Ideas- Indicator Words

In order to have an argument dependent on the clarity of the relationships between the premises and the conclusion, indicator words are essential in written argument. They convey a logical sequence of thought. The absence of logical connections might cause the reader not to be able to follow the line of reasoning and the reader might stop reading and/or cause the reader make connections that may not be intended by the writer. Most indicator words might be classified as three categories: coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and major transitions (referred to as transitional or conjunctive adverbs in grammar texts). These categories are displayed in Table 6 (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 39) below:

Table 6

Joining Chart of Indicator Words (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 39)

Logical Relationship	**Coordinating Conjunctions**	**Subordinating Conjunctions**	**Major Transitions**
Addition	and		also moreover
Contrast and Concession	but yet	while whereas although though even though	however on the other hand
Cause	for	because since as	
Result Effect	so and so	so that in that in order that	therefore thus hence consequently
Condition		if unless provided that	

As seen in Table 6 above, the list of coordinating conjunctions is complete, and the other two lists are partial, showing only the most common indicator words (Cooper & Patton, 1993).

2.9.2. Hidden Assumptions in Argument

Some arguments might be incomplete, depending on hidden assumptions, unstated premises, and conclusions. Here are some examples:

> The burglar had dark hair, so Tracey certainly wasn't the burglar.
>
> [Missing premise: Tracey does not have dark hair.]
>
> Ken is lazy and lazy people don't last long around here.
>
> [Missing conclusion: Ken won't last long around here.]
>
> John is Lisa's father, so clearly he is obligated to support her.
>
> [Missing premise: All fathers are obligated to support their daughters.]
>
> (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 42)

The last example shown above displays some dangers of hidden assumptions. The missing premise is all fathers are obligated to support their daughters or their children. However, is it acceptable for everyone under all conditions? What about the age factor or special circumstances, e.g. the father being penniless or terminally ill, or the daughter being legally adopted? These incomplete arguments (sometimes called by their Greek name, enthymemes) might lead the reader supply their own assumptions, and if the issue is controversial, the risks of distorting an argument might increase (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 42).

2.9.3. Validity and Soundness of an Argument

Below is an example—that is a popular argument against homosexuality—to explain the validity and soundness of an argument (Lau, 2011): "Homosexuality is morally wrong because it is unnatural" (p. 100).

Lau suggests applying *the fourfold path to good thinking* is to investigate the validity and soundness of an argument. It also helps to identify hidden assumptions. To follow the method, the following four basic questions about the ideas, indicated in Table 7 (Lau, 2011, p. 5) below, are used:

Table 7

The Fourfold Path to Good Thinking

Question	**Issues to think about**
What does it mean?	Are the keywords and the main concepts clear? Can the ideas be made more precise? How is it related to other things? Any examples to illustrate what is meant?
How many supporting reasons and objections?	List the reasons for and against the claim. Count and evaluate these reasons. Think about both sides of an issue. Any counterexamples to the claim?
Why is this important or relevant?	What are the major consequences? How does it affect people? Is it useful? Is it surprising? Have I learned something new and interesting?
Which are the other possibilities to consider?	What other information might be relevant? Any similar cases to think about?

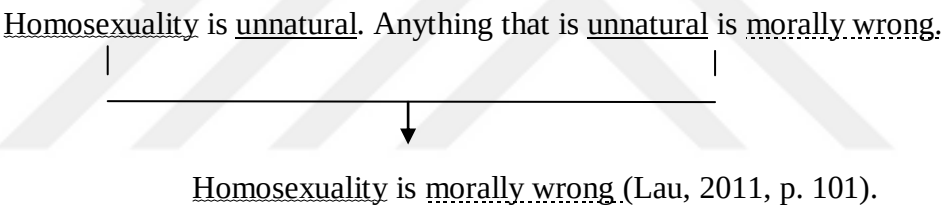
As shown in Table 7 above, in order to evaluate the argument given as an example from Lau (2001), one might start with the question "What does it mean?" In this argument, what does the word *unnatural* mean? If *unnatural* means that it does not occur in the natural environment, then it is not so true that homosexuality is unnatural because homosexual behavior in over a thousand species of animals has been observed by biologists. The next one to ask is, "Is it reasonable?" Since this argument suggests that homosexuality is wrong, it assumes that "whatever is unnatural, it is wrong."

However, is this premise true? Brain surgery or sunglasses are also unnatural but are they wrong? If these ideas are acceptable, why is homosexuality any different?

Lau (2011) suggests another method that is useful in argument mapping to have a valid and sound argument. It necessitates following two guidelines indicated below:

- **The holding hands rule:** Every key term appearing in a premise of an argument but not in the conclusion must also appear in some other premise.
- **The rabbit rule:** Every key term appearing in the conclusion of an argument must also appear in at least one of the premises (p. 101).

These two guidelines might be useful in formulating arguments to make the reasoning more explicit from the premises to the conclusion. If it is applied in the last argument, it might be displayed as follows:



Since the hidden assumption has been added, the argument map satisfies both the rabbit rule and the holding hands rule. It might be said that the reasoning of the argument is clearer. Note that even that method is used the argument might still be a bad argument. It might still not be sound and valid as it is in the last argument. Since *anything* still violates the handing hands rule, it can be seen that even a clear argument can still contain bad reasoning and false premises.

"He uses statistics as a drunken man uses lampposts for support rather than illumination."

Andrew Lang

2.10. Logical Fallacies

Since argument papers are based on logic and reasoning, one should understand the common problems or errors in logic that writers (and speakers) often make. It might be useful to mention the classification of fallacies to understand logical fallacies fully. It went back as far as Aristotle (384-322 B.C.E.) in Greece and Xünzi (around 310-220 B.C.E.) in China. It should be noted that there is no single correct way of classification system and it can be classified in all sorts of ways (Lau, 2011). Lau divides fallacies into four types as illustrated in Table 8 below:

Table 8

Types of Logical Fallacies

Type of fallacy	Nature
Inconsistency	Making an inconsistent or self-defeating claim
Inappropriate assumption	Assuming something without good reason; ignoring relevant alternatives
Irrelevance	Appealing to irrelevant information
Insufficiency	Evidence too weak to support conclusion

(Lau, 2011, p. 174)

Table 8 might be useful to identify a type of a fallacy in a more systematic way. One might categorize logical fallacies as shown below:

- Inconsistency: contradiction, self-refuting claims,

- Inappropriate assumption: circular and question-begging arguments, false dilemma, loaded questions (also known as complex questions),
- Irrelevance: irrelevant responses and diversions, personal attack (ad hominem),
- Insufficiency: hasty generalization (overgeneralization), ignoring alternatives, weak analogy, invalidity due to wrong argument pattern (Lau, 2011, p. 174-179).

"*All generalizations are false, including this one.*"

Mark Twain

2.11. Types of Logical Fallacies

Hasty Generalization. Relying on inadequate evidence to reach a conclusion. Avoid jumping to conclusions by adding evidence or alternative types of evidence.

Example 1. It is useless to go to university because successful entrepreneurs such as Bill Gates (Microsoft), Steve Jobs (Apple), and Zuckerberg (Facebook) all dropped out of university (Lau, 2011, p.178).

Example 2. I recently read about a homeless man with a burst appendix who was turned away from a hospital emergency room to die in the street. It's obvious that hospitals don't care about people, only money (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 170).

Sweeping Generalizations (Poisoning the Well). Using words such as "always," "never," "everybody," and "none." These words indicate that there can be no exceptions, and reader can find exceptions to every claim writer makes.

Ex. 1. Every patriotic American supports the war in the Gulf (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p.166).

Ex. 2. All Belgian chocolates are good (Lau, 2011, p. 60).

Either-Or Thinking (also called Oversimplification, False Dilemma or Dichotomy, Black and White Thinking). Presenting only two solutions to a problem. This type of argument does not allow for other possibilities. Severe reduction of choices, sometimes limited to an either/or dilemma.

Ex. 1. Either you are in favor of recalling the mayor or you are a supporter of his political platform (Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 164).

Ex. 2. Is human nature good or evil? (Lau, 2011, p. 176).

Character or Personal Attack (Argumentation ad hominem). Faulting a person instead of focusing on the actual beliefs of the person and how they relate to writer's argument.

Ex.1. I don't see why we should accept the new Criminal Justice Bill when the Minister presented it to us in such an imperious way (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 134).

Ex. 2. You can't expect insight and credibility from the recent book *The Feminist Challenge* because its author David Bouchier is, obviously, a man (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 168).

Begging the Question (Argumentation ad Ignorantiam, Circular Reasoning, Petitio Principii). Asserting that a proposition is true (because it has not been proved false) or false (because it has not been proved true), instead of providing evidence for your argument.

Ex. 1. The dinosaurs obviously became extinct because of a single catastrophic event such as a large meteorite or dramatic upheaval in the climate. This would mean that they did not undergo a gradual disappearance lasting many centuries or millennia, but that they were wiped out practically overnight. The fact that

> they died out so quickly also means that there could only have been one cause of their extinction, not many as was once assumed; and that whatever the cause was, it was immense and final (Butterworth & Thwaites, 2013, p. 190).
>
> Ex. 2. Marriage is by definition between a man and a woman. Therefore, gay marriage is unacceptable (Lau, 2011, p. 176).

Jumping on the Bandwagon (Argumentation ad Populum). Appealing to popular opinion and bias by stating that since everyone is doing it, it must be right. This is an emotional appeal that speaks to positive (such as patriotism, religion, democracy) or negative (such as terrorism or fascism) concepts rather than the real issue at hand (Weida & Stolley, 2014).

> Ex. 1. If you were a true American you would support the rights of people to choose whatever vehicle they want (Weida & Stolley, 2014)
>
> Ex. 2. 25 million people own a Maytag washer. Maybe they know something you don't know (Groarke & Tindale, 1997, p. 364).

Appealing to an Inappropriate and/or False Authority (Argumentation ad Verecundiam). Using testimony from someone who has no qualifications in the field or who has no expert knowledge of the topic being discussed.

> Ex. 1. Abortion to save the life of a mother is an irrelevant issue because a former surgeon general, a well-known pediatric surgeon, claimed that in all his years of surgical practice he had never seen a case in which such a dilemma had arisen (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 156)
>
> Ex. 2. It is always better to drink white wine with fish. Tony Blair says so, he must know what he's talking about, he's the Prime Minister (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 139).

Illogical Causality (Post Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc). Asserting that because A came before B, A caused B. For example, a person may say, "I washed my car. Therefore, it rained." These events may have occurred sequentially, but there is no evidence of a cause/effect relationship.

Ex. 1. It was only three months after Harold got married that he started smoking pot. His wife must have got him started on the stuff (Damer, 2001, p. 58).

Ex. 2. Generally, people who make a will live longer than those who don't (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 145).

Appeal to Fear (aka Argumentation ad Baculum, Promise of Doom, Scare Tactics, Appeal to Force). Threatening that something will happen if your argument or your point is not accepted by the reader.

Ex. 1. Will there be a *job* waiting when *you* leave college? (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 157, italics in the original).

Ex. 2. Now, all young men, a warning take,

And shun the poisoned bowl (alcohol);

'Twill lead you down the hell's dark gate,

And ruin our own soul.

(Anonymous, from Carl Sandburg, ed., The American Songbag, cited in Cooper and Patton, 1993, p. 170)

Appeal to Pity (Argumentation ad Misericordiam). It attempts to win reader's sympathy in order to convince him with the conclusion. Like an appeal to fear, it appeals to one's emotions rather than his intellect.

Ex. 1. Professor Hall, I must get an A in your course. If you don't give me an A, I won't be able to go to law school (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 180).

Ex. 2. Socrates, during his trial on 399 B.C.: "My friend, I am a man, and like other men, a creature of flesh and blood, and not of wood or stone, as Homer says; and I have a family, yes, and sons, O Athenians, three in umber, one almost a man, and two others who are still young; and yet I will not bring any of them hither in order to petition you for an acquittal."

(Plato, the "Apology" cited in Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 169)

Appeal to Ignorance. Concluding either that because a claim has not been proven it must be false (the negative form), or that because it has not been disproved it must be true (the positive form) (Bowell & Kemp p.149)

Ex. 1. As no one has proven that UFOs exist, it's reasonable to assume that they don't (the negative form) (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 149).

Ex. 2. No one has managed to prove that UFOs don't exist, so we can reasonably conclude that they do (the positive form) (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 149).

Sterotyping. Making assumptions about your audience, events, places, and so on, without sufficient evidence.

Ex. 1. Rich families never have problems because they have enough money to solve them.

Ex. 2. An athlete never gets sick as he is a sportsman and always has a healthy diet.

*Red Herring. (aka Smoke Screen and Wild Goose Chase)*Introducing an argument that sidetracks readers with a discussion of ideas that are irrelevant to writer's argument.

Ex. 1. A: Why are you not willing to support the gun-control legislation? Don't you have any feelings at all for the thousands of lives that each year are blotted out by the indiscriminate use of handguns?

B: I just don't understand why you people who get so worked up about lives being blotted out by handguns don't have the same feelings about the unborn children whose lives are being indiscriminately blotted out? Is not the sanctity of human life involved in both issues? Why have you not supported us in our efforts at abortion legislation? (Groarke & Tindale, 1997, p. 271)

Ex. 2. The judge should rule against the plaintiff's charge of sexual harassment against the president. The President is very popular, and presides over an extremely healthy economy (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p.141).

False or Weak Analogy. Comparing two situations that are more unlike than alike.

Ex. 1. I don't want to die falling off a rock. . . But you can kill yourself falling in the bathtub, too. —John Bachar (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 162).

Ex. 2. I don't see what all the fuss is about guns. Of course, gun ownership wouldn't be prohibited, you can kill someone with a cricket bat, but no one proposes to ban ownership of cricket bat (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 143).

Statistics or Unrepresentative Data. Using false use of numbers and drawing a conclusion based on data from an unrepresentative or biased sample.

Ex. 1. The United Pacifists of America decide to run a poll to determine what Americans think about guns and gun control. Jane is assigned the task of setting up the study. To save mailing costs, she includes the survey form in the group's newsletter mailing. She is very pleased to find out that 95% of those surveyed favor gun control laws and she tells her friends that the vast majority of Americans favor gun control laws (LaBossiere, 2002, p. 27).
Ex. 2. We had a mock election on campus today, and the democratic candidate won. So I am pretty confident that she will win the election in November, especially because more than 2,000 students voted. That seems to be a big enough sample. Don't you agree? (Damer, 2001, p. 175)

Slippery Slope (also called Domino Effect, The Camel's Nose). A conclusion based on the premise that if A happens, then eventually through a series of small steps, through B, C, . . . , X, Y, Z will happen, too, basically equating A and Z. Therefore, if one does not want Z to occur A must not be allowed to occur, either.

Ex. 1. The decriminalization of cannabis would be just the start. It would lead to a downward spiral into widespread abuse of harder drugs like heroine and cocaine (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 157)

> Ex. 2. The Handgun Initiative would create a huge bureaucracy equal to that in Russia, where handgun ownership is a serious crime. And we all know that bureaucracy in Russia kills people by locking them up in gulags. Are you ready for gulags in the U.S.? (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 167)

Genetic Fallacy. A conclusion is based on an argument that the origins of a person, idea, institute, or theory determine its character, nature, or worth.

> Ex. 1. Eugenics is wrong because the Nazis promoted eugenics, and the Nazis were bad (Lau, 2011, p. 181).
>
> Ex. 2. Arthur Conan Doyle, who created Sherlock Holmes, probably had a drinking problem. His father was an alcoholic (Lau, 2011, p. 177).

Straw Man. A writer creates and then attacks a distorted version of the opposition's argument.

> Ex. 1. How can you support giving doctors the right to end a person's life just because they decide that the person's life is no longer worth living; no one should have that power over another person's life, and doctors should not kill patients (Bowell & Kemp, 2002, p. 158)
>
> Ex. 2. Euthanasia is just wrong to kill the old and the sick to get rid of them (Lau, 2011, p. 182).

Equivocation. The shifting of the meaning of a given term within a single argument. It stems from the often ambiguous nature of language. For instance, the word "affair" may mean a party, a controversial incident, or an extra-marital relationship.

> Ex 1. Anti-abortion advocates stress that the unborn child has the right to life. But doesn't the woman hosting the child in her body have a right to have her own life? (Cooper & Patton, 1993, p. 160).

Ex. 2. There is no need for legislation ensuring the equal treatment of citizens, because people are naturally different from one another and will just as naturally be treated differently by others (Lau, 2011, p. 180).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

"Science is what you know, philosophy is what you don't know."

Bertrand Russell

3.1. Overview

This chapter presents the nature of the research, the selection of the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedures, and the methods used for data analysis. The basic concern of this study is to explore the role of using the Socratic Method in improving EFL students' argumentative writing skills based on the research questions stated earlier in the introduction section, under 1.5.

3.2. Research Design

This research was designed as a case study aiming at observing the possible role of the Socratic Method (SM) when writing argumentative essays of seventeen ninth grade English class students at Tarsus American College (TAC). The study was conducted during the second semester of 2014/2015 academic year at TAC and it lasted ten weeks.

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. The researcher gathered the data from the participants' essays, which include the elements of an argumentative essay, arguments, counterarguments, supporting ideas and examples used in the essay. Each element evaluated under various aspects, such as relevance and coherence between arguments and counterarguments and between arguments and supporting ideas. The elements stated above displayed in numbers according to the possible number of expected and detected number of the items above. The participants' argumentative essays were the basic data: they were analyzed based on the document analysis checklists, the feedback provided by the participants during the Socratic seminar sessions through feedback forms and Socratic Seminar graphic organizers to evaluate the seminar process and its role in their argumentative essays. In order to

enhance the reliability of the results, the paticipants were asked to submit their papers via Turnitin[20].

3.3. Context of the Study

The study was carried out in Tarsus district of Mersin, Turkey. The school chosen for this study—Tarsus American College—is one of the most reputable high schools in Turkey. Since the school has many graduates who are known figures in business life, academic and political arenas across the country and internationally. The history starts with a journalist Eliot F. Shepard, planning to establish an institute in the name of "St. Paul" during his visit to Tarsus in 1888 and then the first grade consisting of only eight students. Now TAC, with 354 students, is an international school with International Baccalaureate Diploma Program (IBDP) and with its full accreditation from the Council of International Schools (CIS).[21] The school offers one-year preparatory English program, which is compulsory for all students. Since the medium of education is English, Science and Math courses are also taught in English. It provides an intensive English language teaching program throughout the whole education.

The students have four strands—language, reading, writing, listening and speaking. Moreover, they have Math and Science courses in English.

3.4. Participants

The participants of the study are seventeen ninth grade English–Language Arts class students of TAC, consisting of seventeen students (eight female, and nine male participants). The data for the study was obtained from twelve of the participants from the group since only twelve of them submitted their essays. The students' ages ranged

[20] Turnitin is an online tool used for deterring and detecting plagiarism. It works by scanning students' work against a large database of websites, books, journals and previously submitted papers. It then establishes matches in students' work by producing a similarity score and an originality report (http://www.ed.ac.uk/information-services/learning-technology/assessment/ plagiarism/turnitin).

[21] More information on the school, see the link (tac.k12.tr).

between 15 and 16 (One exception is the 18 year old student who needs to repeat the class since he came from a school in Germany). These participants had twenty-five hours of English class per week during the prep year. In ninth grade, the participants take seven hours of English per week. According to the curriculum, students study various aspects of English language. For example, they write different types of essays, e.g. argumentative (comparative) character and theme analysis essays. The participants also analyze short stories, a novel (*The Giver* by Louis Lowry) and a play (*Romeo & Juliet* by Shakespeare) throughout the school year. Additionally, the participants complete performance-based and interdisciplinary projects related to the texts they study during the academic year. The researcher worked as a full-time English teacher at TAC during the study.

3.5. Data Collection Tools

To achieve the results of the study, the researcher used the participants' essays and examined the categories formulated in document analysis checklists. Additionally, Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizers.[22] were detected to observe how much the participants benefited from the Socratic Seminar. The basic means of data collection tools used in this study are the essays of the students, document analysis checklists, and Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer towards answering the research questions.[23]

3.5.1. Essays

The essays, as the final product of the participants' works, are assessed under the categories stated in research questions. The research questions were generated so as to identify and evaluate the basic ingredients of the argumentative essay relying on the related literature. Shortly, these are arguments and counterarguments, supporting ideas, and the examples of personal experience, and of the world. All these elements are analyzed with respect to its relevance and coherence with the counterarguments and arguments presented in the paper. The researcher grouped all the topic sentences including arguments and counterarguments used in the participants' essays as shown in the table below.

[22] See Appendix 8.
[23] See Section 1.5.

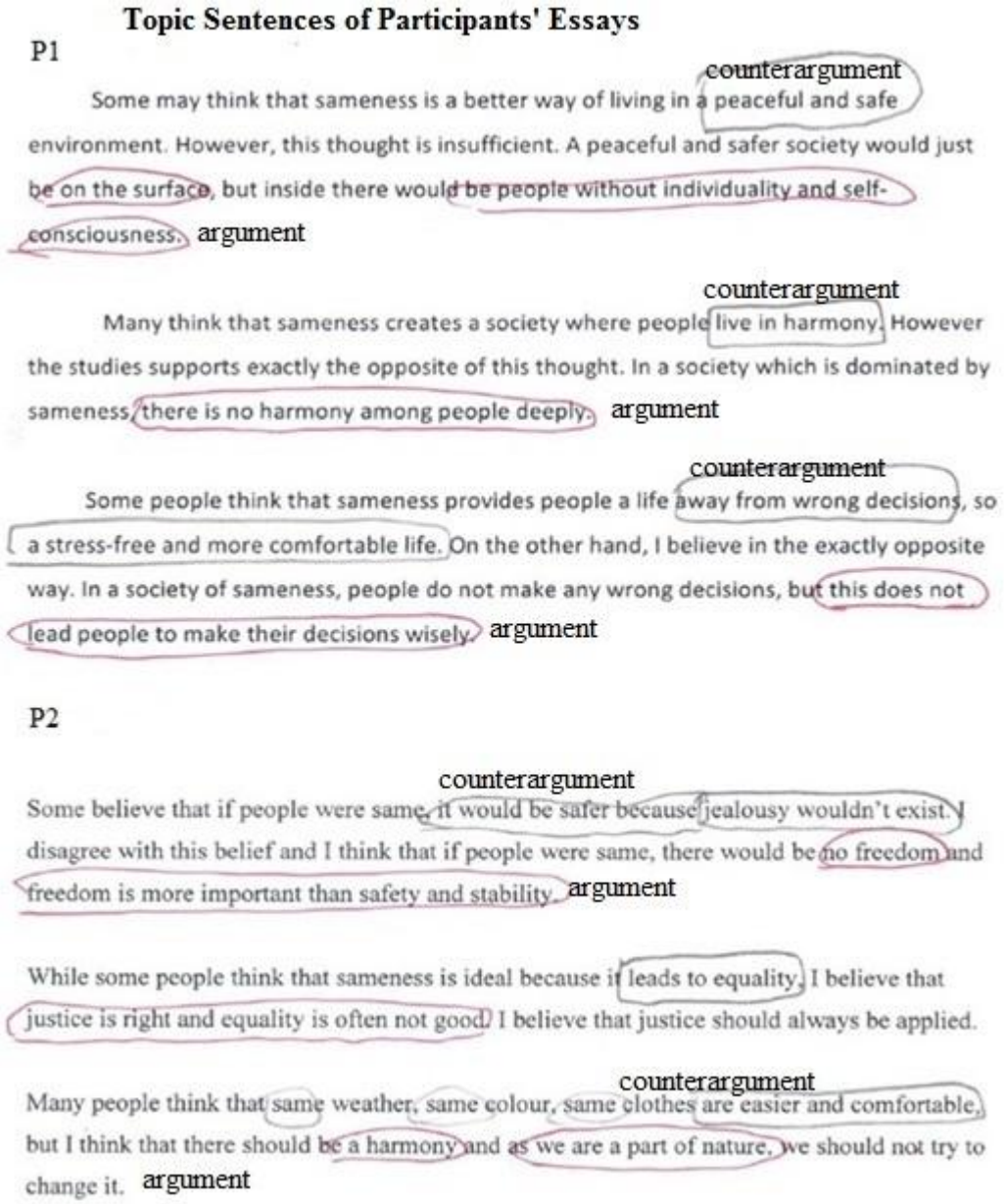


Figure 22. Sample of participants' essays showing arguments and counterarguments

As seen in Figure 22, the researcher examined whether the participants' essays included arguments with their counterarguments. After identifying them, they were categorized according to their relevance and coherence as elaborated in document analysis checklists.

3.5.2. Document Analysis Checklists

In order to evaluate the elements of an argumentative essay in relation to the research questions, the researcher has prepared the questions below that served as the Document Analysis Checklists. They consist of ten categories as follows:

1) Does the essay include supporting ideas to present the arguments?

2) Does the essay develop supporting ideas that are relevant to the arguments presented?

3) Does the essay develop arguments that supply coherent (logical and consistent) supporting ideas?

4) Does the essay include counterarguments when presenting the arguments?

5) Does the essay construct arguments that are relevant to the counterarguments?

6) Does the essay establish a coherent (logical and consistent) link between arguments and counterarguments?

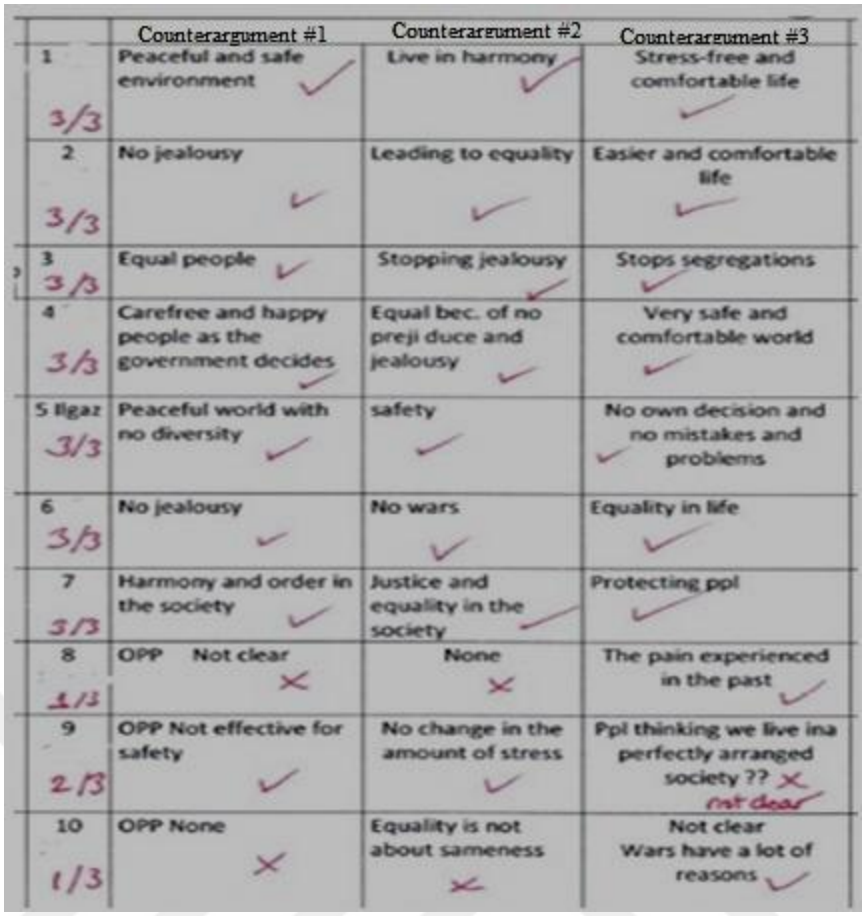
7) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to writer's own life, ideas, and experiences to the points provided in the reading text?

8) Are these text-to-self connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

9) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to the larger world—past, present, or future to the points provided in the reading text?

10) Are these text-to-world connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

In relation to the checklists shown above, the researcher examined each element by spreading them in tables. For instance, the researcher gathered the data regarding the elements stated above and evaluated the topic sentences of each paragraph and supporting ideas in their essays accordingly. The following table shows one of the checklists displaying the participants' counterarguments in their essays.



	Counterargument #1	Counterargument #2	Counterargument #3
1 3/3	Peaceful and safe environment ✓	Live in harmony ✓	Stress-free and comfortable life ✓
2 3/3	No jealousy ✓	Leading to equality ✓	Easier and comfortable life ✓
3 3/3	Equal people ✓	Stopping jealousy ✓	Stops segregations ✓
4 3/3	Carefree and happy people as the government decides ✓	Equal bec. of no preji duce and jealousy ✓	Very safe and comfortable world ✓
5 Ilgaz 3/3	Peaceful world with no diversity ✓	safety ✓	No own decision and no mistakes and problems ✓
6 3/3	No jealousy ✓	No wars ✓	Equality in life ✓
7 3/3	Harmony and order in the society ✓	Justice and equality in the society ✓	Protecting ppl ✓
8 1/3	OPP Not clear ✗	None ✗	The pain experienced in the past ✓
9 2/3	OPP Not effective for safety ✓	No change in the amount of stress ✓	Ppl thinking we live ina perfectly arranged society ?? ✗ not clear
10 1/3	OPP None ✗	Equality is not about sameness ✗	Not clear Wars have a lot of reasons ✓

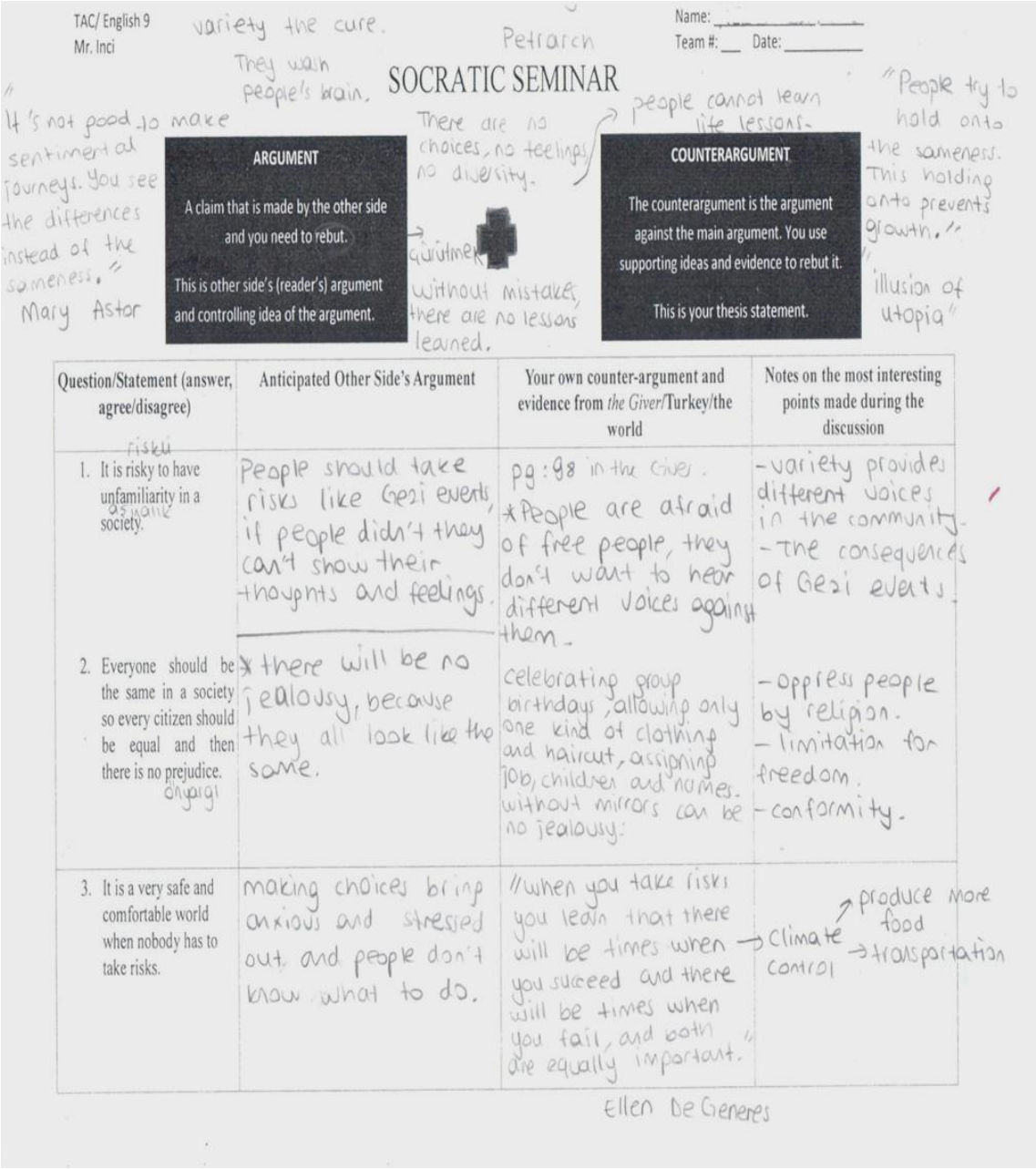
Figure 23. Document analysis checklist showing the content and number counterarguments in participants' essays

As illustrated in Figure 23, after the researcher investigated each separate element and the possible 32 counterarguments that were expected from the participants to produce is compared with the results gathered as presented in further detail in Chapter 4.

3.5.3. Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer

Socratic Seminar (SS) Graphic Organizer aims to find out how much the participant benefited from the arguments used during the SS so that s/he could use relevant ideas in his/her paper. The SS Graphic Organizer includes six statements related to the essay prompt that the participants needed to write after the seminar. The chart also has categories of arguments and counterarguments to make relevant

connections between the novel "The Giver" that the participants studied and examples from Turkey and the world. A sample of a Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer is shown below.



TAC/ English 9
Mr. Inci

variety the cure.

They wash people's brain.

Petrarch

Name: _____
Team #: ___ Date: _____

SOCRATIC SEMINAR

"It's not good to make sentimental journeys. You see the differences instead of the sameness."
Mary Astor

ARGUMENT

A claim that is made by the other side and you need to rebut.

This is other side's (reader's) argument and controlling idea of the argument.

There are no choices, no feelings, no diversity.

people cannot learn life lessons.

Without mistakes, there are no lessons learned.

COUNTERARGUMENT

The counterargument is the argument against the main argument. You use supporting ideas and evidence to rebut it.

This is your thesis statement.

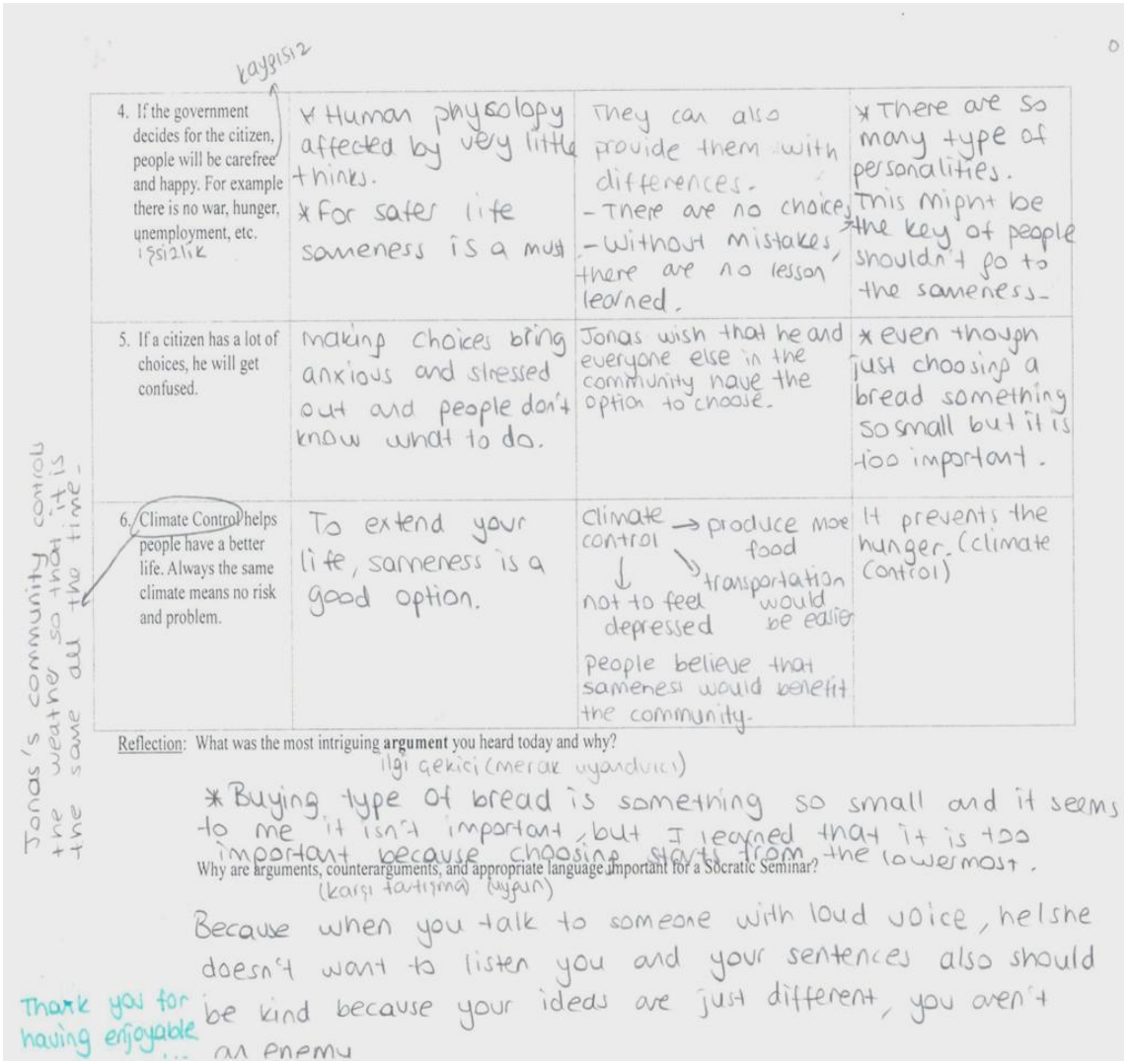
"People try to hold onto the sameness. This holding onto prevents growth."

"illusion of utopia"

Question/Statement (answer, agree/disagree)	Anticipated Other Side's Argument	Your own counter-argument and evidence from *the Giver*/Turkey/the world	Notes on the most interesting points made during the discussion
1. It is risky to have unfamiliarity in a society.	People should take risks like Gezi events, if people didn't they can't show their thoughts and feelings.	pg: 98 in the Giver. *People are afraid of free people, they don't want to hear different voices against them.	-variety provides different voices in the community. -the consequences of Gezi events.
2. Everyone should be the same in a society so every citizen should be equal and then there is no prejudice.	*there will be no jealousy, because they all look like the same.	celebrating group birthdays, allowing only one kind of clothing and haircut, assigning job, children and names. without mirrors can be no jealousy.	-oppress people by religion. -limitation for freedom. -conformity.
3. It is a very safe and comfortable world when nobody has to take risks.	making choices bring anxious and stressed out and people don't know what to do.	"when you take risks you learn that there will be times when you succeed and there will be times when you fail, and both are equally important."	Climate control → produce more food → transportation

Ellen DeGeneres

Figure 24. Sample Socratic seminar graphic organizer



4. If the government decides for the citizen, people will be carefree and happy. For example there is no war, hunger, unemployment, etc.	* Human physiology affected by very little things. * For safer life sameness is a must	They can also provide them with differences. - There are no choices, - Without mistakes, there are no lesson learned.	* There are so many type of personalities. This might be the key of people shouldn't go to the sameness.
5. If a citizen has a lot of choices, he will get confused.	making choices bring anxious and stressed out and people don't know what to do.	Jonas wish that he and everyone else in the community have the option to choose.	* even though just choosing a bread something so small but it is too important.
6. Climate Control helps people have a better life. Always the same climate means no risk and problem.	To extend your life, sameness is a good option.	climate control → produce more food, transportation would be easier; not to feel depressed; people believe that sameness would benefit the community.	It prevents the hunger. (climate control)

Jonas's community control the weather so that it is the same all the time.

Reflection: What was the most intriguing **argument** you heard today and why?

* Buying type of bread is something so small and it seems to me it isn't important, but I learned that it is too important because choosing starts from the lowermost.

Why are arguments, counterarguments, and appropriate language important for a Socratic Seminar?

Because when you talk to someone with loud voice, he/she doesn't want to listen you and your sentences also should be kind because your ideas are just different, you aren't an enemy

Thank you for having enjoyable

Figure 24 (Continued)

Figure 24 displays a sample organizer that aims to help the learners' organize their arguments and counterarguments before and after the seminar regarding the credibility and validity of the opposing ideas s/he intends to use in his/her essay.

3.6. Procedure

First, the researcher informed the headmaster and the vice-principal about the study and consulted about the possible changes in the ordinary flow of the teaching program. Second, the parents of the participants were asked for their permission.[24] In the permission letter, the researcher informed the parents that the names of students

[24] See Appendix 9 for Parent Permission Letter.

would be assigned pseudonyms in their writing if requested. Regarding the ethical issue considerations, the researcher left this choice to the students and the parents. The participants did not have any preference whether pseudonyms would be used or not in the study. The researcher decided to name the participants as Participant 1 (P1), Participant 2 (P2), and so on.

The participants had seven hours of English class a week. The researcher used three hours out of those seven hours English lessons to present and practice the Socratic Method. He also used extra four hours once requested from other subject teachers during the research process in order to conduct the SM efficiently. He used extra hours so that he did not fall behind the curriculum. Although it was difficult to align with the curriculum of all classes, the researcher was able to conduct the study without any delay or shortfall despite the difficulties of the heavy schedule of the curriculum. The lesson plans were prepared by the researcher. In preparing the lesson plans, there were two criteria for the researcher. The first one was infusing the SM into the curriculum before teaching argumentative essay and the second one was preparing in-class tasks that involve spoken and written argumentative skills.[25]

The study lasted thirteen weeks, including reading the novel and the deadline for the submission of the essay. The participants started studying the novel "The Giver" from the second week of October to the second week of February. It took nine weeks for the participants to finish reading the novel. The implementation and the practice of the Socratic Method and the teaching and practice of argumentative essay lasted eight days and sixteen periods.

First two periods on the second week of February (9th), the researcher presented the topic, argumentative essay, via a slide show.[26] He also provided a handout showing basic components of an argumentative essay.[27] After showing the slide, the students were provided with a study pack on AE,[28] an excerpt taken from a coursebook *Writing Academic English*. Students studied the handout, which provided the definitions and different types of organizations towards writing an argumentative paper.

[25] See Appendix 10 for Lesson Plans for the Study.
[26] See Appendix 11.
[27] See Appendix 12.
[28] See Apeendix 13.

The students were told that they were expected to use point-by-point pattern in their essays. Such decision was taken because of time restriction and it was considered that focusing on only one specific pattern could make the work more solid and less complicated. In the same handout, the students studied one model essay and outlined the essay, i.e. its counterarguments, and arguments with the supporting ideas.

On the second day of the study (February 10), exercises on thesis statement and supporting arguments were completed with the students. Additionally, the elements of argumentative essay were reviewed during class time. Afterwards, the students were introduced with the rules and responsibilities of the Socratic Seminar[29] and a video showing how the Socratic Seminar was conducted—the video was Stephen Daniels's eighth grade AVID class discussing "I Have a Dream" in a Socratic Seminar.[30] The researcher told the students that they were to be assessed by Socratic Circle Feedback Form[31] and Socratic Circle Scorecard[32] during the seminar.

At the end of the teaching period, the students were given a Socratic Seminar assignment (Appendix 8) including six statements to be completed with possible arguments and counterarguments related to the concept of sameness studied in the novel called *The Giver* by Louis Lowry (the class had been reading the novel for the last eight weeks).

On Day 3 (February 11), the students were expected to have the Socratic Seminar and share their ideas with each other. Additionally, the participants were provided with the poster below on persuasive language the day before the seminar that is shown in Figure 25.

[29] See Appendix 2 and 3.
[30] See the link for the video.
[31] See Appendix 5.
[32] See Appendix 7.

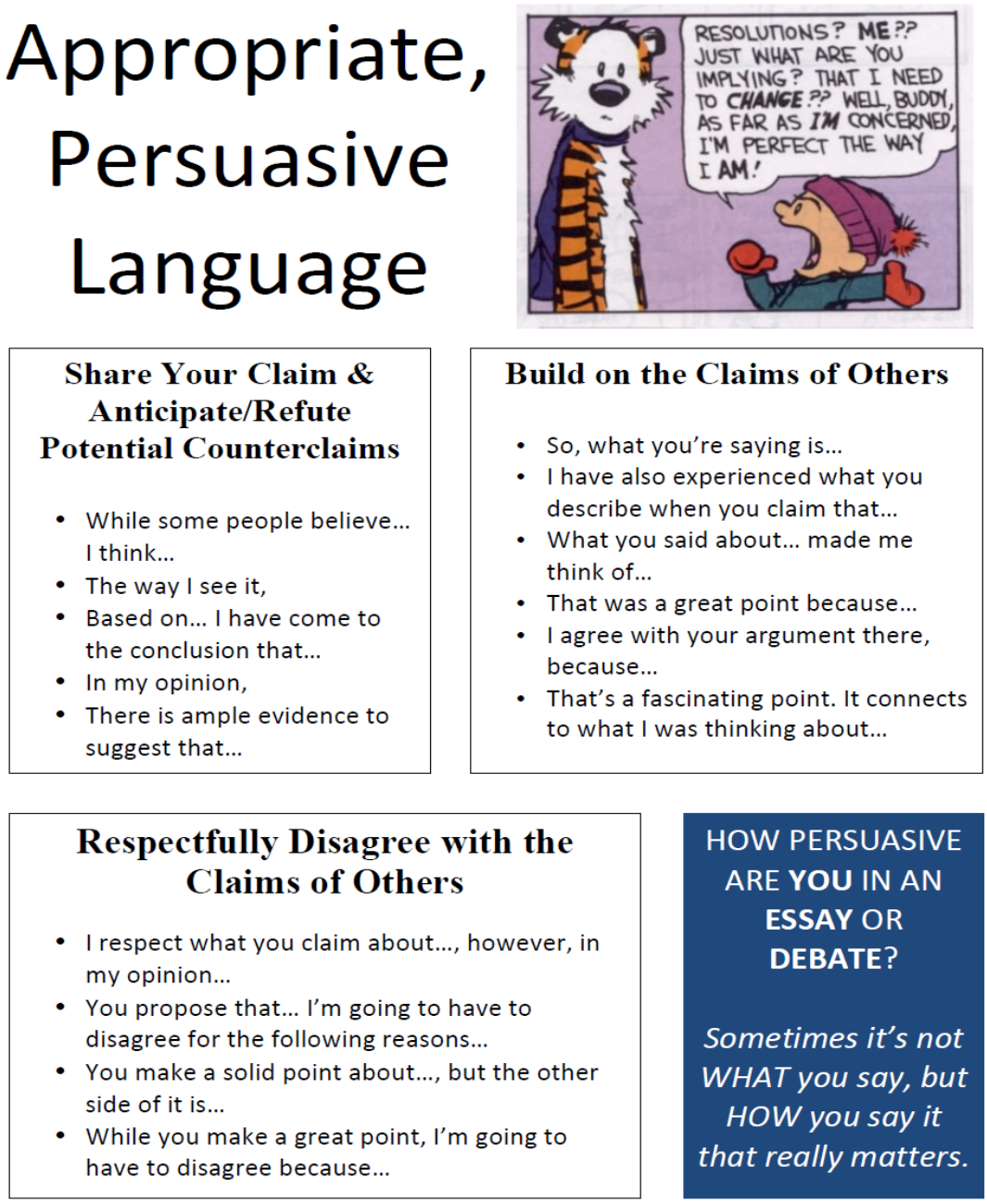


Figure 25. Socratic seminar - appropriate language poster (valhallaschools.org)

Figure 25 aims to display the researcher's goal of having the participants use the poster, which intends to help the participants' use appropriate language to agree and disagree with others' opinions in a respectful way. He also intended to have the participants promote their open-mindedness and being insightful on his/her opinions and others' opinions. The seminar language to be used shown above also overlaps with

the language and the scope of the type of the essay they were expected to write after the seminar.

The participants completed the seminar during the two periods. After completing the first period, inner circle group members swapped their roles with outer circle group members. After completing the Socratic Seminar, the participants were told that they were expected to write an argumentative essay on the topic of sameness. The students were provided with the Giver Final Essay Guideline[33] and argumentative essay outline[34] to complete their essay.

On Day 4 (February 11), the participants completed reflection forms of the Socratic Seminar.[35] The whole process, regarding its pros and cons, was discussed with the participants. The purpose of the reflection form is to observe whether the seminar promoted the participants become self-observant and observe some aspects, which also serve to their critical thinking and mutual understanding. The related form aimed to promote the participant to make self-reflection helping them to assess their own attitude towards the other participants and evaluate his/her own attitudes and opinions with a critical eye.

On Day 5 (February 13), the students were assisted for the beginning of the introduction and the thesis statement of their essays. During the two periods on the last day of instruction for the study, the researcher helped the students develop their tentative thesis statements and their outlines—in relation to the validity of the arguments that they produced.

3.7. Data Collection

First, the participants in the case study group were informed about the argumentative essay and its elements the day before and they were asked to study for the following day. The next day, they were instructed about the argumentative essay via the slide and a handout.[36] Second, the participants were expected to submit their essays by following the due date assigned earlier via the online academic plagiarism detector

[33] See Appendix 14.
[34] See Appendix 15.
[35] See Appendix 17 and 18.
[36] See Section 3.6.

called Turnitin. Turnitin is an Internet-based service, first launched in 1997, that checks the documents for unoriginal content. The software helps students learn how to avoid plagiarism and improve their writing. After the submission of their essays through Turnitin, the researcher analyzed the papers from various aspects, i.e. arguments, counterarguments, supporting details, and examples used (in terms of their relevance and coherence). The relevant submission details are shown in Figure 26, with a snapshot from the website, Turnitin.

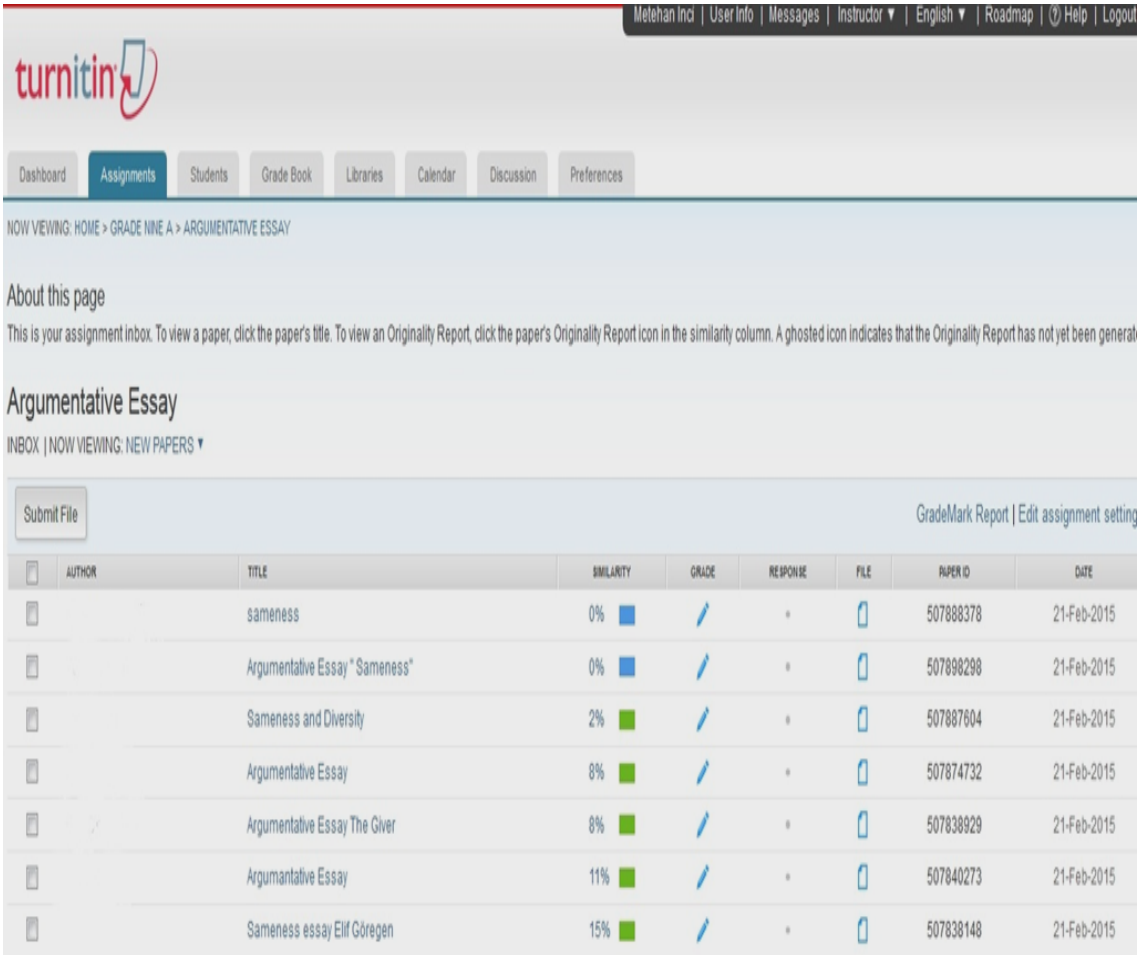


Figure 26. Snapshot of Turnitin showing participants' argumentative essays

Figure 26 shows that there have been three missing papers in each group, as three of these participants did not submit their papers.

Figure 26 also displays the ratio of possible similarity of the students' essays. These aspects are investigated and all detected as unintentional plagiarism, e.g. the

student forgot to use quotation marks while quoting an excerpt from the novel, *The Giver*. The reader might also find two sample essays of the participants.

As stated earlier, the program helps the teacher to detect whether there is any similarity from any sources available online. As seen in the figure below, one might see whether the student's paper has any similarity with any other sources published before.

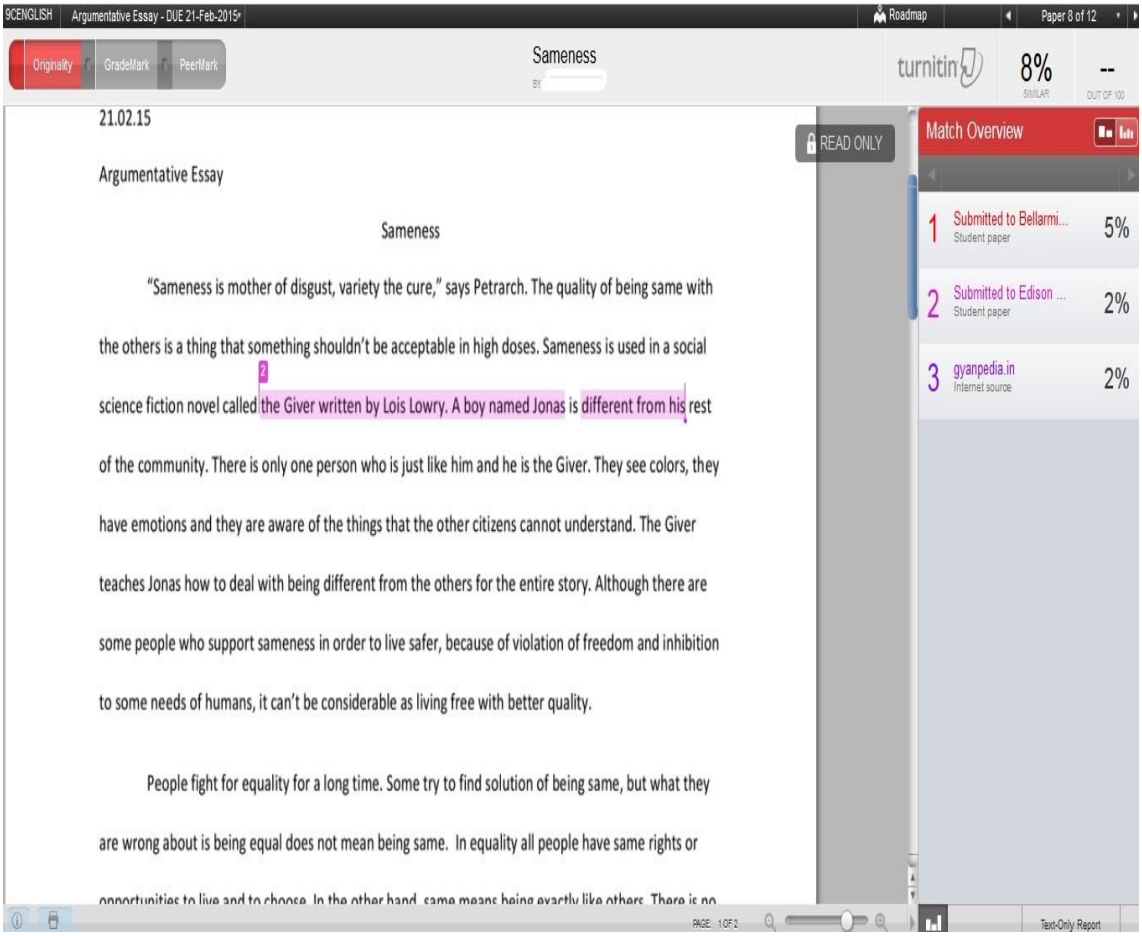


Figure 27. Sample argumentative essay showing similarities

Figure 27 shows possible similarities in the essay compared to any other sources, e.g. written essays. The program also shows the included quotes, bibliography and small matches as seen in Figure 28. There is another possible way to check any similarity with some changes in the program by choosing some other options regarding quotes, bibliography and small matches to be excluded as seen in Figure 28.

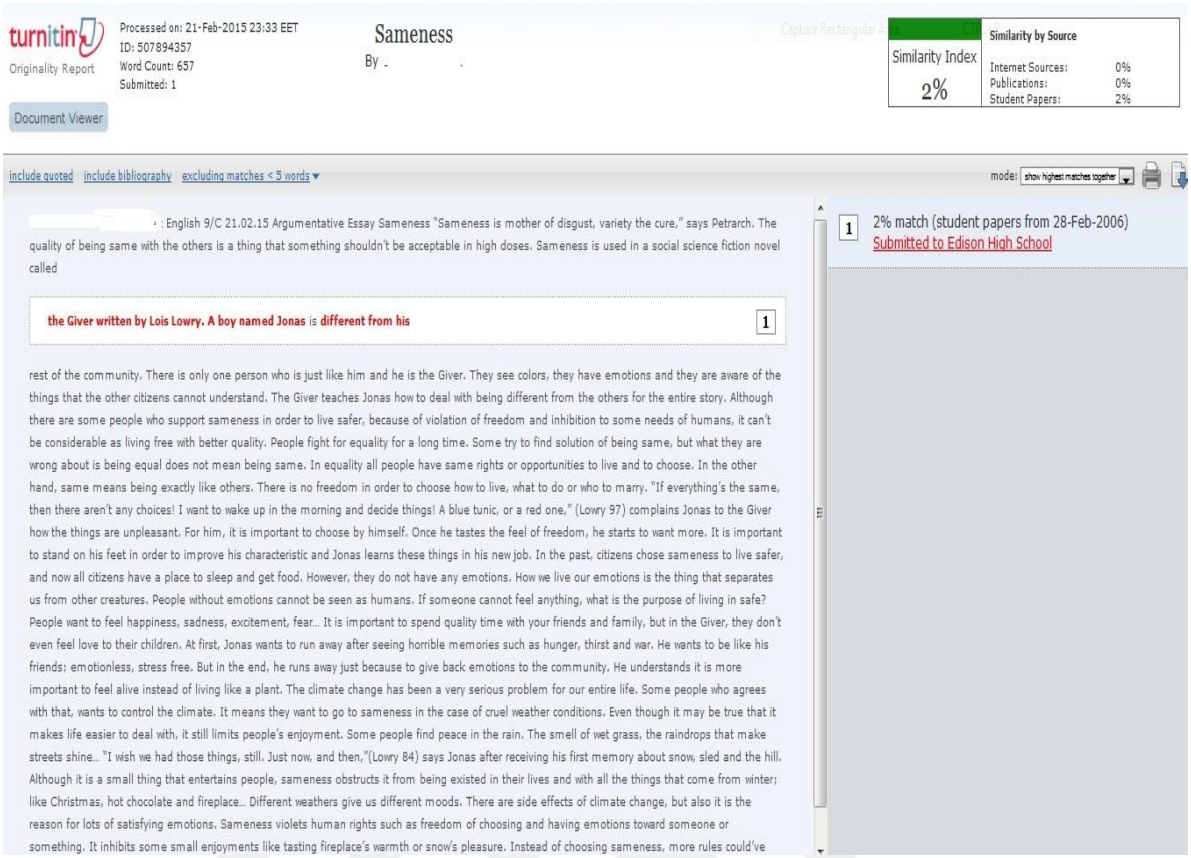


Figure 28. Sample argumentative essay in text-only report mode

As seen in Figure 28, text-Only Report Mode in Turnitin helps one to discern plagiarism easier as one might see the options named include quotes, include bibliography and excluding matches.

3.8. Data Analysis

The data obtained through the essay papers of the case study group members were analyzed by ten different categories through document analysis checklists. Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizers, collected following the completion of their essay papers, were also examined by the researcher to gather more detailed information about the arguments and counterarguments the participants used in their essays. Most importantly, the information elicited from the participants' essay papers was an essential medium of qualitative data collection procedure. In the following table, one

might see in Figure 29 showing whether the counterarguments are relevant with the arguments stated in their essays.



Figure 29. Document analysis checklist showing relevance of arguments in participants' essays

Figure 29 helps the researcher to discern and identify possible irrelevant ideas used in the participants' essays. In order to investigate the relevance and coherence of the examples used in the participants' essays, these examples are gathered and analyzed separately. Some other examples showing text-to-self and text-to-world examples used by the participants are below.

> Ex 1. We all remember people protesting, getting injured and still keeping fighting for the freedom at The Revolution of Dignity (Ukraine 2013-2014), Gezi Events (Turkey, 2013), ''Umbrella Revolution'' protests (Hong Kong, 2014). As I am for the freedom, I am proud of those people who had chosen to be free even facing danger, so I am against safety with sameness. (Participant #2)

> Ex 2. As a connection to human-life, I can propound you the comparison of the harmony between my country, Turkey, and Canada. In Turkey, people are used to be denigrated and ostracized the ones who do not have the same thoughts or lifestyles with themselves. People get killed because they are homosexual. People get labelled as prostitutes because they wear short pants. Even politicians beat one another in the assembly because of a lack of respect to a different one. This can be seen as a consequence of diversity, but why does not it happen in Canada? There are tons of different people in there. Different colors, different sexual interests, different thoughts, ideas; but not a single problem or conflict. The real thing happening in Turkey is a symbol of illiteracy, ignorance, and arrogance. And this can be fixed only with education. In other words, peace and order can be provided by diversity. (Participant #7)

Some examples from the participants' essays shown above are all investigated under different categories, e.g. relevance and coherence of the examples used in relation to the participant's argument in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

"The supreme function of reason is to show man that some things are beyond reason."
Blaise Pascal

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings based on the analyses of the data including the following elements detected and analyzed in the participants' essays:

1) Number of supporting ideas when refuting counterarguments;

2) Supporting ideas that are relevant to the arguments presented;

3) Arguments that supply coherent (logical and consistent) supporting ideas;

4) Number of arguments and their relevance to the counterarguments;

5) Arguments that are coherent (logical and consistent) with counterarguments;

6) Ideas that relate to writer's own life, ideas, and experiences;

7) Relevant and coherent text-to-self connections regarding the arguments presented;

8) Ideas that relate to the larger world—past, present, or future;

9) Relevant and coherent text-to-world connections regarding the arguments presented.

The researcher presents the data by using tables of demonstration, distribution, and percentages of the relevant aspects mentioned above.

4.2. Number of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section expands the number of supporting ideas used in the participants' argumentative essays with Table 9 below. As there is no specific limit for the number of supporting ideas to use in their essays, they differ from three to seven. As can be seen in

the table below, there are twelve participants in this study, and the members are encoded as P1 (Participant #1), P2, etc.

Table 9

Distribution of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Supporting Ideas**
P1	6
P2	8
P3	3
P4	6
P5	7
P6	5
P7	7
P8	4
P9	5
P10	3
P11	6
P12	4
Total number of Supporting Ideas	64

As illustrated in Table 9, one participant in the group used eight supporting ideas (SIs); two participants having seven SIs; three participants having six SIs; two participants having five SIs; two participants having four SIs; and two participants having three SIs their papers. Figure 30 below shows the ratio of the supporting ideas used in the participants' essays.

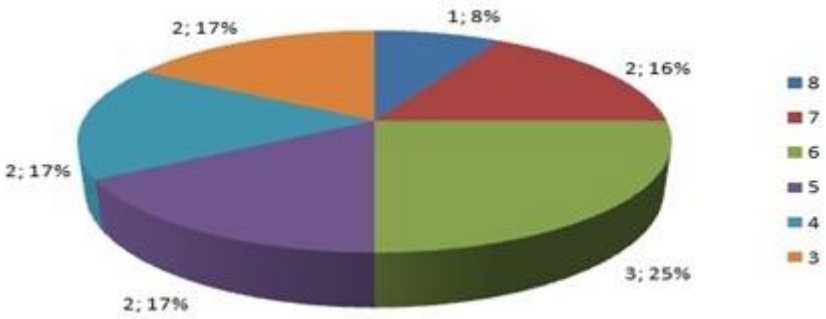


Figure 30. Ratio of supporting ideas in participants' essays

Table 10

Percentage of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Detected Supporting Ideas (nr)	Expected Supporting Ideas (nr)	Percentage
64	36	177.7

Table 10 shows the number of supporting ideas in the participants' essays is 64 out of 36, with the percentage of 77.7 higher than the expected number of supporting ideas. Statistical data above shows that the participants have exceeded the expected limit in the production of SIs in total.

4.3. Relevance of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section tries to explore whether the supporting ideas detected and presented in the previous section are relevant. It is followed by the distribution of each participant's essay including the number of relevant supporting ideas. Table 11 displays the numbers of the relevant supporting ideas in the participants' papers.

Table 11

Distribution of Relevant Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Relevant Supporting Ideas / Supporting Ideas**
P1	6/6
P2	7/8
P3	2/3
P4	5/6
P5	6/7
P6	4/5
P7	6/7
P8	3/4
P9	5/5
P10	1/3
P11	4/6
P12	2/4
The ratio of Relevant Supporting Ideas to Supporting Ideas	49/64

As seen in Table 11, one participant in the group used eight supporting ideas (SIs) in his/her essay and seven of them were relevant. Two participants had seven SIs and six of them were relevant in those papers. Three participants had six SIs and their relevance is as follows: six, five, and four out of six items. Two participants had five SIs and one of them had five, and the other one had four relevant ones out of five SIs. Two participants had four SIs, and one of them had four, and the other one had three relevant ones out of four SIs. Lastly, two participants had three relevant SIs in their papers, which had two and three relevant SIs out of three SIs.

Table 11 also shows that two participants in the group used five supporting ideas (SIs), one of them had three relevant SIs and the other one had one relevant SI. Ten participants had three SIs in their papers. Out of these participants, two of them had three relevant SIs, five of the participants having two relevant SIs, and three of them had no relevant SI.

Table 12

Percentage of Relevant Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Supporting Ideas	Number of Expected Relevant Supporting Ideas	Percentage
49	64	76.5

Table 12 displays the percentage of relevant supporting ideas in the participants' argumentative essays. The number of relevant supporting ideas in the essays is 49 out of 64, with 76.5 percent. It might be argued that the participants used relevant supporting ideas successfully.

4.4. Coherence of Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section explains the coherence of supporting ideas in the participants' argumentative essays. As illustrated in essay guideline (see Appendix 14), the participants were expected to have a supporting detail for each of their argument, which could be a piece of evidence from the novel *The Giver*, or any text-to-self, text-text, text-to-world example. As each paper has three arguments, it needs to have at least three supporting ideas. The table below shows the numbers of the coherent supporting ideas

in the participants' papers. The coherent supporting ideas concerning the arguments used in the papers of the group are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Distribution of Coherent Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Coherent Supporting Ideas/ Supporting Ideas**
P1	6/6
P2	7/8
P3	1/3
P4	5/6
P5	6/7
P6	3/5
P7	5/7
P8	3/4
P9	3/5
P10	1/3
P11	1/6
P12	2/4
The ratio of Coherent Supporting Ideas to Supporting Ideas	43/64

As seen in Table 13, coherent supporting ideas in the group were 43 out of 66 supporting ideas (SIs). One participant in the group used eight supporting ideas in his/her essay and six of them were coherent with the counter arguments. Two participants had seven SIs and six of them were coherent. Three participants had six SIs and the coherent SIs in the papers differed in numbers, which were six, five, and three out of six SIs. Two participants had five SIs and one of them had five, and the other one had three coherent ones out of five SIs. Two participants had four SIs, and one of them had three, and the other one had two coherent SIs out of four SIs. Lastly, two participants had three coherent items their papers, which both had one coherent one out of three items as displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Percentage of Coherent Supporting Ideas in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Coherent Supporting Ideas	Number of Expected Coherent Supporting Ideas	Percentage
43	64	67.1

Table 14 shows the percentage of coherent supporting ideas in the participants' essays. As suggested in Table 14, the number of coherent supporting ideas in the essays is 43 out of 64, with 67.1 percent. It might be argued that the participants used the coherent supporting ideas successfully. However, the findings show that out of 51 supporting used in total, the participants were not able to use nine of them in a coherent way in their essays.

4.5. The Number of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

As it was stated in the essay guideline (see Appendix 14), the participants were asked to write argumentative essays with three arguments, together with related counter arguments, focusing on the concept of sameness in the society in the novel *the Giver*. As each participant was asked to use three arguments and counterarguments, the expected number of 36 arguments and counterarguments in their essays was one of the criteria when assessing the participants' essays.

Table 15 below shows the numbers of counterarguments (CAs) used by the participants. The total number of CAs used in the participants' essays is 26 out of 36. On the other hand, the total number of CAs used in the control group essays is 21 out of 36.

Table 15

Distribution of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Counterarguments**
P1	3
P2	3
P3	3
P4	3
P5	3

(Table 15 continued)

P6	3
P7	3
P8	1
P9	2
P10	1
P11	none
P12	1
Total number of counterarguments	26

As illustrated in Table 15, when the performance assessed on an individual basis, seven participants in the group used three counterarguments (CAs) in their essays; one participant had two; three participants had one, and one participant had no CA in his/her paper. The overall performance of the participants is illustrated in Figure 31 below.

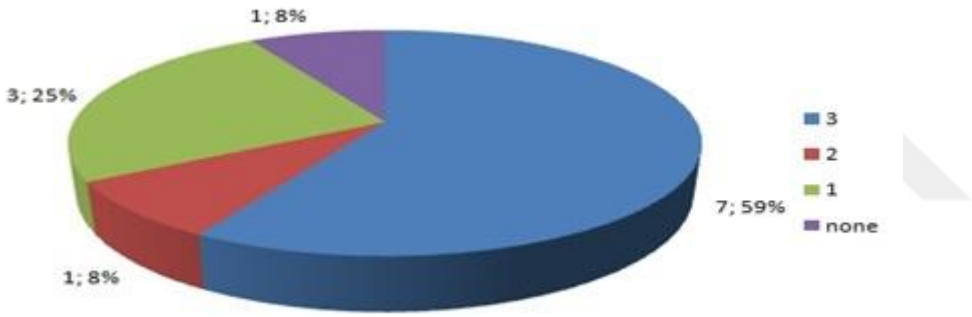


Figure 31. Ratio of counterarguments in participants' essays

As indicated in Table 16, the percentage of counterarguments in participants' essays is shown followed by the comments.

Table 16

Percentage of Counterarguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Counterarguments	Number of Expected Counterarguments	Percentage
26	36	72.2

Table 16 presents the results by statistics. The number of detected counterarguments (CAs) generated by the participants in their essays constitute 72.2 percent, with the ratio of 26 out of 36. One might observe that more than half of the participants were able to use at least three counterarguments in their essays. It is important to note that the participants with no counterarguments, or only one had some language skills problems regarding writing and language use.

4.6. Relevance of Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

With the arguments presented in their essays, the participants were expected to relate them to the counterarguments, presented with each topic sentence of their body paragraphs, with regard to the subject of sameness being discussed in their papers. In the participants' essays, it is possible to see the detected number of relevant arguments used by each participant. The total number of relevant arguments used by participants is shown in numbers. Percentage of the related results is also presented in the tables to follow. Table 17 illustrates the numbers of relevant arguments used in the participants' papers. The table displays the total number of relevant arguments (ReAs) used in the essays, which is 19.

Table 17

Distribution of Relevant Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Relevant Arguments**
P1	3
P2	3
P3	2
P4	3
P5	2
P6	1
P7	2
P8	1
P9	2
P10	none
P11	none
P12	none
Total number of Relevant Arguments	19

Table 17 displays the number of the relevant arguments (ReAs) in each participant's essay. In the group, three participants used three relevant arguments in their essays; four participants two ReAs; two participants one ReA; and three participants used no ReA in their papers. The overall performance of the participants is shown in Figure 32.

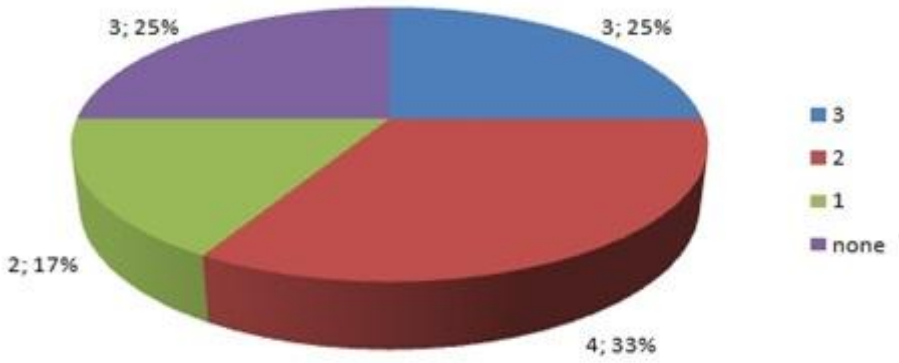


Figure 32. Ratio of relevant arguments in participants' essays

Table 18

Percentage of Relevant Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Relevant Arguments	Number of Expected Relevant Arguments	Percentage
19	36	52.7

According to Table 18, each participant is expected to have three relevant arguments, which equals to 36 with 12 papers. The most frequent number of relevant arguments in the control group essays constitutes 52.7%, with the ratio of 19 out of 36. One might argue that although the participants were able to produce expected arguments in their essays, they were not successful enough when producing relevant arguments.

4.7. Coherence of Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section questions whether these arguments are coherent with the counterarguments presented in the participants' papers. Table 19 illustrates the number

of coherent arguments in the participants' papers. It is possible to see the number of relevant arguments used by each participant.

Table 19

Distribution of Coherent Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Coherent Arguments**
P1	3
P2	2
P3	2
P4	2
P5	1
P6	none
P7	1
P8	none
P9	1
P10	none
P11	none
P12	none
Total number of Coherent Arguments	12

Table 19 presents the numbers of coherent arguments (CoAs) used by participants as follows: One participant had three coherent arguments, three participants generated two, three participants generated one, and five participants generated no CoA in their papers. Overall performance of the participants is shown in Figure 33.

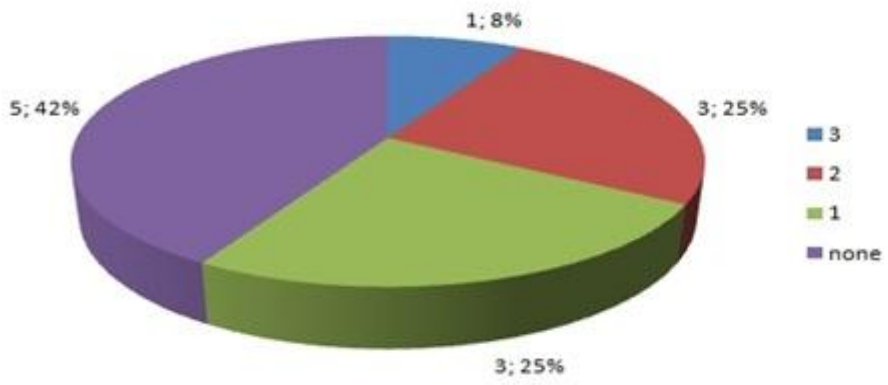


Figure 33. Ratio of coherent arguments in participants' essays

Figure 33 shows the percentage of coherent arguments in the essays. Table 20 shows percentage of coherent arguments in participants' essays.

Table 20

Percentage of Coherent Arguments in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Coherent Arguments	Number of Expected Coherent Arguments	Percentage
12	36	33.3

The results displayed in Table 20 show that the number of coherent arguments used in the essays is 12 out of 36, with 33.3 percent. One might say that the participants have difficulties regarding producing coherent arguments in their essays.

4.8. Number of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Text-to-self examples are types of examples that help students develop the habit of making a connection between the text and any connection related to his or her own life based on experiences (Cohen & Cowan p.469). For instance, these might be any similarities or differences, which are drawn from one's life in connection with the text.

Accordingly, Table 21 illustrates whether and/or to what extent the participants used text-to-self examples in their essays.

Table 21

Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Text-to-self Examples**
P1	Freedom of speech in Turkey
P2	Gezi protests
P3	Journalists in prison in Turkey
P4	None
P5	Gezi Events
P6	Turkish government, avoiding citizens' ideas
P7	Some minorities, e.g. gay people, denigrated and ostracized in Turkey
P8	None
P9	A piece of news from Turkey (murder of Özgecan Aslan)
P10	A piece of news from Turkey (suicide of a poor lover)
P11	Gezi protests
P12	None
Total number of TSEs	9

The quantitative results are displayed in Table 22 below. As the table suggests, the total number of text-to-self examples used in the participants' papers are 9 out of 12 text-to-self examples. Table 22 below also shows the percentages of the text-to-self examples in the participants' essays.

Table 22

Percentage of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Text-to-self Examples	Number of Expected Text-to-self Examples	Percentage
9	12	75

The results in Table 22 show that the number of text-to-self examples in the participants' essays is nine out of twelve, by 75%. It might be said that the participants were able to produce text-to-self examples successfully with 75 percentages.

4.9. Relevance of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section questions whether examples presented in the essays are relevant with the arguments presented in the participants' essays. Table 23 illustrates the relevant text-to-self examples in the participants' papers.

Table 23

Distribution of Relevant Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Relevant Text-to-self Examples**
P1	1
P2	1
P3	1
P4	none
P5	1
P6	1
P7	1
P8	none
P9	1
P10	1
P11	1
P12	none
Total number of Relevant Text-to-self Examples	9

As shown in Table 23, the total number of relevant text-to-self examples used in the essays is nine out of twelve items. The following table also shows the percentages of the relevant text-to-self examples in participants' essays.

Table 24

Percentage of Relevant Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Relevant Text-to-self Examples	Number of Expected Relevant Text-to-self Examples	Percentage
9	12	75

As can be seen in Table 24, the number of relevant text-to-self examples in the essays is nine out of twelve, by 75%. One might say that the participants were able to produce relevant text-to-self examples successfully with 75 percent.

4.10. Coherence of Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

This section questions whether examples presented in the essays are coherent with the arguments stated in the participants' essays. Table 25 illustrates the coherent text-to-self examples in the participants' papers.

Table 25

Distribution of Coherent Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Coherent Text-to-self Examples**
P1	1
P2	1
P3	1
P4	none
P5	1
P6	1
P7	1
P8	none
P9	1
P10	none
P11	1
P12	none
Total number of Coherent Text-to-self Examples	8

As shown in Table 25, the total number of coherent text-to-self examples used in the essays is eight out of twelve items. The following table also shows the percentage of the coherent text-to-self examples in the participants' essays.

Table 26

Percentage of Coherent Text-to-self Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Coherent Text-to-self Examples	Number of Expected Coherent Text-to-self Examples	Percentage
8	12	66.6

As can be seen in Table 26, the number of coherent text-to-self examples in the essays is eight out of twelve, by 66.6%. It might be argued that the participants were

successful at producing text-to-self examples, however, they had some difficulties regarding the coherence of the examples they used in their essays.

4.11. Number of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Text-to-world examples are types of examples that a student makes a connection between the text and what s/he knows about in the outer world (Cohen & Cowan p.469). These examples might be seen in Table 27 illustrating whether and/or to what extent the participants used text-to-world examples in their essays.

Table 27

Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Text-to-world Examples (TWEs)**
P1	none
P2	Protests (Gezi, Dignity, etc), Soviet Union and North Korea
P3	none
P4	none
P5	none
P6	none
P7	North Korea
P8	none
P9	none
P10	Black and white people in the US
P11	none
P12	Fight for freedom in Turkey (Independence War)
Total number of TWEs	4

Table 27 shows that some of the participants were able use examples from the world and the country they live in. For example, one of the participants included recent protests all over the world. Another participant used an example from American history.

Table 28 shows the percentage of text-to-world examples used in the participants' essays.

Table 28

Percentage of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Text-to-world Examples	Number of Expected Text-to-world Examples	Percentage
4	12	33.3

Table 28 also suggests that the number of TWEs in the essays is four out of twelve, with 33.3 percent. One might say that the participants used text-to-world examples less in numbers compared to text-to-self examples they used in their essays.

4.12. Relevance of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

The total number of text-to-world examples is detected and presented with percentages in the previous section. This section tries to explore whether these examples detected in the previous section are relevant to use as supporting ideas in the participants' essays. Table 29 illustrates the relevant text-to-world examples in the participants' papers.

Table 29

Distribution of Relevant Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Relevant Text-to-world Examples**
P1	none
P2	1
P3	none
P4	none
P5	none
P6	none
P7	1
P8	none
P9	none
P10	1
P11	none
P12	1
Total number of Relevant Text-to-world Examples	4

As can be seen in Table 29, the total number of relevant text-to-world examples used in the essays is 4 out of 12. The table below shows the percentages of these findings.

Table 30

Percentage of Relevant Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Relevant Text-to-world Examples	Number of Expected Relevant Text-to-world Examples	Percentage
4	12	33.3

The related results presented in Table 30 show that the number of relevant text-to-world examples in the participants' essays is 4 out of 12, corresponding to 33.3%.

4.13. Coherence of Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

The total number of relevant text-to-world examples is detected and presented with percentages in the previous section. This section tries to explore whether these examples detected in the previous section are coherent. Table 31 illustrates the coherent text-to-world examples in the participants' papers.

Table 31

Distribution of Coherent Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Participants	**Number of Coherent Text-to-world Examples**
P1	none
P2	1
P3	none
P4	none
P5	none
P6	none
P7	1
P8	none
P9	none
P10	none
P11	none
P12	none
Total number of Coherent Text-to-world Examples	2

As can be seen in Table 31, the total number of coherent text-to-world examples used in the participants' argumentative papers is 2 out of 12 text-to-world examples. In the control group, the total number of coherent text-to-world examples used is 1 out of 12 items. The table below shows the percentages of these findings.

Table 32

Percentages of Coherent Text-to-world Examples in Participants' Argumentative Essays

Number of Detected Coherent Text-to-world Examples	Number of Expected Coherent Text-to-world Examples	Percentage
2	12	16.6

The related results presented in Table 32 show that the number of coherent text-to-world examples in the argumentative essays is 2 out of 12, corresponding to 16.6%. As suggested in 4.10., the ratio of coherent text-to-world examples used in the participants' essays is low in number as the ratio of coherent TSEs used in their essays.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the results of the data analysis of the participants' argumentative essays towards discovering the possible role of the Socratic Method (SM) on the participants' argumentative writing skills. The purpose of this chapter is to present the conclusions derived from the findings of the data. Section 5.2 below aims to evaluate the research questions investigated in this study. Section 5.3 covers the discussions and implications for ELT. Section 5.4 explores the implications for further studies. The study is concluded with the final section 5.5 discussing the personal reflections.

5.2. Evaluation of the Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the SM facilitates learners to be able to produce more valid and sound arguments; and help the participants connect with real-life examples when it comes to writing. The analyses of the checklists are elaborated quantitatively and qualitatively in the previous section. In order to see whether there is any possible effect in the participants' argumentative writing skills through the findings are evaluated on the research questions presented below:

Research Question (RQ) 1: *Does the Socratic Method help students have more effective supporting ideas in relation to their arguments? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.*

a) Does the essay include sufficient number of supporting ideas to present the arguments?

Since there are twelve participants, each participant is supposed to have at least three supporting ideas in his/her essay. That is to say, the expected total number of supporting ideas is 36 in total. When the expected number of supporting ideas (SIs) for

each group was 36, the observed number of SIs used in the participants' essays were 64. The results have shown that the participants have exceeded the expected limit in the production of SIs. One of the most important elements to use in one's essay is to support his/her view with examples. The use of various examples in the seminar might have promoted the use these examples in their essays. For example, one of the participants discussed about how Gezi protests in Turkey portrays the necessity of different voices in a society. The participant also elaborated on the idea that union of different voices in a society.

b) Does the essay develop supporting ideas that are relevant to the arguments presented?

As shown in details in the earlier section, the results show that the relevant supporting ideas produced in the essays are 49 out of 64. The findings overall show that the participants performed well when producing relevant supporting ideas. It might also indicate that the participants were successful regarding the relevance of the examples they used in their essays.

c) Does the essay develop arguments that supply coherent (logical and consistent) supporting ideas?

The findings show that the coherent supporting ideas produced in the essays by the participants are 49 out of 64. One might argue that the participants performed effectively when producing coherent supporting ideas.

To sum up, out of 12 papers, and possible 36 supporting ideas, the participants are considerably successful in producing supporting ideas according to the data gathered. Likewise, relevant and coherent supporting ideas have also been higher in frequency in the participants' essays.

RQ 2: *Does the Socratic Method help students understand and analyze the counterarguments and how to refute these counterarguments in an argumentative paper? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.*

a) Does the essay include sufficient number of counterarguments when presenting the arguments?

The results obtained from the participants' essays show that the number of detected counterarguments in the participants' essays are 26 out of 36, with 72.2 percent. These findings imply that the participants were able to use counterarguments in their papers adequately when arguing about a topic in terms of producing counterarguments. It is possible to say that the Socratic seminar promoted the habit of developing the practices of the participants in hearing voices against their ideas. Consequently, they needed to think about this opposing idea and answer them by providing reasonable evidence or any idea to elaborate the idea further.

b) Does the essay construct arguments that are relevant to the counter arguments?

The findings obtained from the document analysis checklists demonstrate that number of detected relevant arguments in the participants' papers is low in numbers than the category of counterarguments only. The results suggest that the participants were able to use counterarguments; however, they had difficulty in having the relevance between the arguments and counterarguments in their essays. Additionally, one might argue that the Socratic Method helped the participants to question whether the counterarguments they produce are plausible and relevant to their arguments. For instance, during the seminar, some students presented some opposing ideas. However, they were irrelevant and some students claimed that it had somewhat connection with the idea but not answering to the point they made about the topic.

This also indicates that the method helps the students question the validity of the ideas presented during the seminar. It might be suggested that this process contributed to the logical reasoning of the participants regarding the arguments and the counterarguments they use in their papers. Nevertheless, it did not provide benefit for some of the participants as some had difficulty in expressing themselves in a spoken and written way.

c) Does the essay establish a coherent (logical and consistent) link between arguments and counterarguments?

The study shows that coherent arguments used in the participants' papers are less in numbers compared to the relevance of their arguments by having 19.4% difference. The results indicate that the participants have had the chance to investigate the validity of their arguments during their experiences of Socratic circles compared to the counterarguments regarding the consistency of their ideas, in a similar way, as mentioned in the previous section. The previous section displays that the participants had the chance of evaluating the opposing ideas regarding its relevance. Yet, it is possible to observe that the participants have difficulty in establishing the relevance and coherence of the arguments and counterarguments they use in their argumentative essays.

To conclude, out of 12 papers, and possible expected 36 counterarguments, the number of counterarguments in participants' essays display that they were able to produce counterarguments efficiently. However, regarding relevant and coherent counter arguments used in their essays have been less frequent. One might argue that, according to the results obtained, there has been positive impact of the Socratic Method on the participants when writing an argumentative paper in terms of producing counterarguments. It seems that the participants have developed better study skills regarding their arguments and counterarguments. On the other hand, they were not able to identify whether the ideas were valid and sound to promote in their oral or written argumentation in an efficient way.

RQ 3: *Does the Socratic Method help learners develop the habit of making text-to-self and text-to-world connections in order to have more effective argumentation? Accordingly, the following sub questions are launched.*

a) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to writer's own life, ideas, and experiences to the points provided in the reading text?

The participants were asked to use some examples in their essays as indicated in their final essay guideline as stated in Appendix 14. These examples could be from their personal life, which are called text-to-self examples. That is to say, they could use some ideas in their essays relating to their own life, ideas and experiences. Text-to-self examples (TSEs) produced in the participants' essays are nine out of twelve, with 75%. For instance, seven students in the EG mentioned freedom of speech, Gezi events, the

rights of minorities, and Turkey's agenda in their essays in relation to the topic of sameness, which they were assigned to write about in relation to the novel *The Giver* they have read. The ideas that they used in their essays were the examples that they discussed during the seminar. In line with the teachings of the SM, which encourages dialogue over discussion (See Appendix 14) —i.e. their job was not to win over the discussion but to share their ideas, they elaborated their ideas, and it resulted in different aspects to discuss revolving around the topic of sameness.

The findings suggest that the Socratic Method have had some positive impact on the participants when using text-to-self examples in their essays. The participants were able to use the examples they discussed during the seminar in their argumentative essays.

b) Are these text-to-self connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

It has been reported that all the text-to-self examples used in the participants' essays are relevant and in connection with the essay prompt that they are supposed to write about (See Appendix 14). However, one of the examples used by the participants is not coherent. That is to say, out of nine examples, nine of them are relevant but eight of them are coherent. The findings show that the participants were able to use text-to-self examples more efficiently compared to the counterarguments or supporting ideas that they used in their essays. Although they had difficulty in producing relevant and coherent counterarguments or supporting ideas, they were more successful in producing relevant and coherent text-to-self examples.

c) Does the essay include any ideas that relate to the larger world—past, present, or future to the points provided in the reading text?

The participants were asked to make a connection between the ideas in the text they read and the larger world—past, present, and future. For instance, one of the participants used the examples of protests around the world-Gezi, Dignity, Umbrella. Some other participants used the examples showing the discrimination between black and white people in America; another one used the example of the Independence War in Turkey to show the importance of being different as a country. Furthermore, two of the

participants used North Korea as an example to elaborate the idea of sameness in a society.

d) Are these text-to-world connections relevant and coherent regarding the arguments presented?

The analysis has shown that the number of text-to-world examples used in the participants' essays is four out of twelve, with 33.3%. Furthermore, the number of relevant ones is also four but two of the examples given by the participants are not coherent. Namely, it suggests that the participants performed well when presenting text-to-self examples, however, they had difficulties when producing coherent text-to-world examples in connection with arguments that they used in their essays.

To sum up, the most noticeable results regarding the quantitative aspect of the study are found in the category of supporting ideas (SI) and text-to-self examples (TSE). The participants used SIs and TSEs more frequently than the other elements, e.g. text-to-world examples. However, the participants had difficulties when producing the relevant and coherent SIs and TSEs. The scores obtained from these categories were more frequent, and more than the average passing score assigned for the course and the school's pass/fail policy. These results might suggest that the SM had a role in participants' generating the elements in their essays under the categories stated above. However, it is important to note that in the categories of relevance and coherence of the examples and arguments that the participants used in their essays they were not able to perform efficiently.

In conclusion, the results of the study indicate that the implementation of the SM before having ninth grade students write argumentative essays promote their generating the elements that are investigated under six different categories, e.g. counterarguments, arguments, supporting ideas, and text-to-self examples. In some categories, such as supporting ideas and text-to-self examples, the results show that the overall success rate is above the passing grade valid at school. However, one might argue that the category of relevance and especially coherence does not have the same possible impact of the implementation of the SM in the participants' argumentative essays.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Conclusion and Implications for ELT

This section discusses the results of this study regarding the studies done earlier in ELT and its possible implication in a national curriculum.

The results obtained in this study support the recent studies done on the Socratic Method[37] regarding its effect on critical thinking. For instance, the results of Shea's (2006) action research done with eighth grade Humanities students are as follows; when writing a five-paragraph analytical essay based on a primary source of the student's choice, the students are able to make sense of and understand history as a result of using primary sources via engaging in metacognitive activities and consequently developing their abilities to think critically. The results of this study also show that the participants were able to use the primary source, *the Giver* (the novel they studied), to understand the concept of sameness, assigned as a topic to focus on when writing an argumentative essay, via engaging in the dialogues through the Socratic Method. One might argue that the method had a positive impact on the participants' writing argumentative papers through developing critical thinking abilities and metacognitive strategies.

Furthermore, Yuhas's (2014) and Doklan's (2011) studies[38] also substantiate the result of this study in terms of the effect of the Socratic Method on students' critical thinking including the analysis of textual details, questioning of ideas, connections to outside topics, consideration of multiple perspectives, and evaluation and synthesis of ideas. The results of this study also showed that the students were able to make connection with their own lives, and experiences, and with the outer world in their argumentative papers via the effect of the Socratic Method. It also helped the students to acknowledge others' ideas and include these multiple perspectives as counterarguments in their papers.

Second, to understand the significance of the contribution of the Socratic Method in education, specifically English language teaching, one might refer to the standards used in education in the U.S., which is called Common Core Standards (CCR)

[37] See Section 1.2.
[38] See Section 1.2.

for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects.[39] CCR is a reputable nationwide known program, which aims to prepare American students for college and standards, and also widely accepted and used in many schools in the U.S. According to Common Core Standards:

> [Students] comprehend as well as critique, [they] are engaged and open-minded—but discerning—readers and listeners . . . they also question an author's or speaker's assumptions and premises and assess the veracity of claims and the soundness of reasoning (corestandards.org/ ELA-Literacy/).

It might be argued that the Socratic Method via writing an argumentative paper or engaging in a dialogue as a listener to understand speaker's assumptions and premises seems to be a very effective tool to use in education, specifically in English language arts. The method helps learner to evaluate and understand an opinion that one disagrees with or an argument s/he refutes. Second important aspect is as follows (corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy/):

> [Students] value evidence. [They] cite specific evidence when offering an oral or written interpretation of a text. They use relevant evidence when supporting their own points in writing and speaking, making their reasoning clear to the reader or listener, and they constructively evaluate others' use of evidence.

One might argue that the Socratic Method in a Language Arts class aims to develop students' habit of using evidence as supporting ideas and acknowledge other's arguments in their writing and speaking.

Also in relation to ELA (English Language Arts) Standards "represent the next generation of K–12 standards designed to prepare all students for success in college, career, and life by the time they graduate from high school" (corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy/). It might be contended that the Socratic Method is a very beneficial method to employ in a language class not only for success in higher education but also for students to be critical thinkers, problem solvers, and to be competent in their analytical skills throughout their careers as lifelong learners.

---

[39] For more information, visit http://www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy/.

Third, it is observed that the participants performed well in producing the elements, e.g. supporting ideas, examples and counterarguments in their essays. However, they were not able to perform well compared to the relevance and coherence of these elements in their essays. These results indicate that these aspects might have been instructed elaborately in order to assess these categories in a more effective and analytical way.

Finally, it is possible to argue that the Socratic Method might be beneficial in Listening and Speaking Class when teaching English as a Foreign Language. It facilitates students' learning by sharing their ideas in a dialog so that they hear other voices and understand the opinions of others.

As a result, this study has tried to explore the possible role of using the Socratic Method in improving EFL students' argumentative writing skills with respect to its basic ingredients, i.e. counterarguments, arguments, supporting ideas, and the examples used in the essay with its relevance and coherence both quantitatively and qualitatively. It is concluded that the Socratic Method might be an important tool for students to develop their argumentative writing skills. More specifically in the participants' essays, it has been observed that regarding an essay's counterarguments, arguments, supporting ideas, and the examples, students have performed more efficiently when compared to using these elements with its relevance and coherence in their essays. In addition, when the Socratic Method was used before writing an argumentative essay, the participants seemed to be highly competent in using supporting ideas and text-to-self examples in their essays. Furthermore, the result of this study supports the outcome of the studies done earlier in the field.

6.2. Recommendations for Further Research

Since this research is a case study investigating a small number of student essays, it is suggested that a comparative study might be held based on an experimental study to observe more specifically the possible impact of the SM on students' writing skills.

This study was limited to the impact of the Socratic Method (SM) through the analysis of an argumentative essay (AE) with respect to arguments, counterarguments, supporting ideas, and examples—with their relevance and coherence. However, the researcher was not able to analyze the aspects of relevance and coherence of these

elements more thoroughly. The findings show that the participants need assistance to improve these aspects in their essays.

Another study might also focus on these aspects more elaborately. For example, the researcher might teach these aspects more specifically and show the importance of these elements regarding the reasoning of an argumentation. It might include the analyses of types of logic, and other aspects of writing such as types of reasoning employed in the paper. Additionally, logical fallacies might be analyzed to see if the SM has any positive impact on logical reasoning. Second, a possible implementation of the Socratic Method into English Language Arts course to improve learners' reading and writing abilities via critical thinking skills might also be investigated. The results might be analyzed in order to see if there is any positive impact on thinking skills and investigate whether it has any effect on students' further education regarding critical thinking abilities.

For example, the researcher is going to present the use of the Socratic Method to the foreign and Turkish faculty in his workplace to introduce the method to all subject courses. He also plans to establish interdisciplinary cooperation between Turkish and English department in order to promote the use of the SM. Additionally, he intends to implement the Socratic Method in next year's ninth grade English curriculum in his school as his new partner is familiar with the method and he has been using the method for many years at various schools he worked in New York, USA. To conclude, as a suggestion, one might also argue that the Socratic Method seems to be a useful tool to implement in a curriculum as it fosters learners' critical thinking skills.

6.3. Personal Reflections

First, this study has contributed much to my personal and professional development giving me chance to have an insight into the world of Socrates, and his important contributions to philosophy. As I am interested in philosophy very much, this research enabled me to enjoy what I research and try to contribute a piece of work from a philosophical perspective in ELT field. Second, as I am a person heavily relied on logic and reason, this study helped me a lot in terms of exploring the types of argumentation and also the subject of logic in fundamentals. As a person, who tries his

best to be self-aware of his self, people around him, and the world, this study improved my critical and reflective skills in terms of my philosophical way of questioning of life, work life, and personal life as a human and a lifelong learner.

I would like to share one of my experiences with the new ninth grade English students on implementing the Socratic Method this year. According to the curriculum, I teach Romeo and Juliet by Shakespeare in the second term and I decided to teach them Freudian concepts, the three components of self-id, ego, superego so that they could make connection with the play stated above regarding the dualities of dream vs. reality and individual vs. society and these three levels of consciousness. The students had an amazing performance on using these concepts to find relevance between the dualities in the play and Freudian concepts. In the seminars, they even started analyzing the characters from a Freudian perspective. I am planning to ask them to write a theme analysis essay after finishing the seminars so that they will have the chance to use these interesting ideas and examples in their essays.

Last, I would like to thank you, the reader, for reading this paper and I hope it helped you to widen your perspective and contributed to your life personally and academically. Life is splendid, especially when knowledge is shared to help humankind achieve one's potential.

REFERENCES

Adler, M. (1982). *The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto*. New York: Macmillan.

Adler, M. (2014). "*How to Start a Great Books Discussion Group.*" Retrieved 3 July, 2014, from *http://dianehjohnson.com/uploads/1/3/4/5/13452203/starterkit-hand book.pdf*

Ahbel-Rappe, S., and Rachana K., eds. (2006). *A Companion to Socrates*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub.

Al-Darwish, S. (2012). "The Role of Teacher Questions and the Socratic Method in EFL Classrooms in Kuwait." *World Journal of Education* 2.4.

Apology by Plato. (2013). *The Internet Classics Archive | Apology by Plato*. Trans. Benjamin Jowett. Web Atomic and MIT, Retrieved 16 November, 2013, from *http://classics.mit.edu/Plato/apology.html*

Argumentative vs. Persuasive Writing. (2014). *Argumentative v Persuasive*, Retrieved 28 April, 2014, from *http://smekenseducation.com/argumentative-v-persuasive-writing.html*

Bowell, T. and Kemp G. (2002). *Critical Thinking: A Concise Guide*. London: Routledge.

Brickhouse, T. C. and Smith, N. D. (2000). *The Philosophy of Socrates*. Boulder Colo: Westview Press.

Brizee, A. (2015). "Organizing Your Argument Presentation." Purdue Online Writing Lab. Purdue U., Retrieved 14 June, 2015, from *http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/724/1/*

Butterworth, J. and Thwaites G. (2013). *Thinking Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.

Chan, H. and Iwan Z. (2014). "GRIN - Maximizing Learning Outcomes by Socratic Questioning: Exploring the Pedagogical Applications and Challenges among Language Lecturers at University Malaysia Kelantan." Retrieved 1 July, 2014,

from *http://grin.com/en/e-book/208743/maximizing-learning-outcomes-by-socratic -questioning-exploring-thepedagogical*

Cohen, V. L. and Cowan J. E. (2011). *Literacy for Children in an Information Age: Teaching Reading, Writing, and Thinking*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning. 469.

Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects. (2015), Retrieved 27 November, 2015, from *http://corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy. com*

Confusion about the Socratic Method: Socratic Paradoxes and Contemporary Invocations of Socrates. (2013). *Philosophy of Education Archive.* Retrieved 10 November, 2013, from *http://ojs.ed.uiuc.edu/index.php/pes/article/download/ 2086/781*

Cooper, S. and Patton R. (1993). *Ergo: Thinking Critically and Writing Logically*. New York: HarperCollins College.

Copeland, Matt. (2005). *Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School*. Portland, Me.: Stenhouse.

Copleston F. (1962). *A History of Philosophy*, New York: Doubleday.

Çelik, S. (2014) "Socratic Method: Dialectic and Its Use in Teaching Culture in EFL Classrooms, 2009." Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://hltmag.co.uk/*

Damer, T. E. (2001). *Attacking Faulty Reasoning*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Pub.

Daniels, S. (2015). "Walker Middle School Socratic Seminar." *YouTube*.

David M. (2010). *The Ironic Defense of Socrates : Plato's Apology.* New York: Cambridge UP.

Denman, M., ed. (2013). "The Socratic Method: What It Is and How to Use It in the Classroom." *Speaking of Teaching* 13 (Fall 2003): n. p. The Center for Teaching and Learning (CTL). Retrieved 14 November, 2013, from *http:// tomprof.stanford.edu/posting/810*

Doklan, B. M. (2014). "Allowing Students to Think for Themselves: Critical Thinking through Socratic Circles." Master Thesis. Moravian College, 2011. Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://home.moravian.edu/public/educ/eddept/mEd/2011/Thesis/Doklan.pdf*

Drake, Jayne K., Jordan, Peggy, and Miller, Marsha A. (2015). "Academic Advising Approaches: Strategies That Teach Students to Make the Most of College." Somerset, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons, 2013. *ProQuest Ebrary*.

Elder, L., and Paul, R. (2013). "The Role of Socratic Questioning in Thinking, Teaching, and Learning." *EBSCOhost*. The Clearing House, May-June 1998. Retrieved 1 July, 2014 from http://www.criticalthinking.org/pages/the-role-of-socratic-questioning-in-thinking-teaching-amp-learning/522

Groarke, Leo, and Christopher W. Tindale. (1997). *Good Reasoning Matters!: a Constructive Approach to Critical Thinking*. 2nd ed. Toronto: Oxford UP.

Kreml, N. M. (2004). The User's Guide to College Writing: Reading, Analyzing, and Writing. New York: Pearson/Longman.

Labossiere, Dr. Michael C. (2015). "42 Fallacies." 2002. Retrieved 29 October, 2015, from *http://aphilosopher.files.wordpress.com*

Lam, F. (2014). *The Socratic Method as an Approach to Learning and Its Benefits*. Honors Thesis. Carnegie Mellon U, 2011. Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://repository.cmu.edu/hsshonors/134/*

Lau, J. Y. F. (2011). *An Introduction to Critical Thinking and Creativity: Think More, Think Better*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Leibowitz, D. (2010). *The Ironic Defense of Socrates: Plato's Apology*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.

Lowry, L. (1993). *The Giver*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Mauk, J and Metz, J. (2006). *Inventing Arguments*. Australia: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Messenger, W. E. and Taylor, P. A. (1989). *Essentials of Writing*. Scarborough, Ont.: Prentice-Hall Canada.

Metzger, M. (1998). "Teaching Reading: Beyond the Plot." *Phi Delta Kappan 80.3 (1998): 240-246.*

Missimer, C. A. (1990). *Good Arguments: an Introduction to Critical Thinking*. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs (N.J.): Prentice Hall.

Moberg, E. M. (2014). "ERIC - Socrates Lives: Dialogue as a Means of Teaching and Learning, 2008" Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://files.eric.ed.gov/ fulltext/ED507870.pdf*

Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. (2006). *Writing Academic English*. White Plains, NY: Pearson/Longman.

Overholser, J. C. (2014). "ERIC - Socrates in the Classroom, 1992." Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://eric.ed.gov/ ?id=EJ443095*

Paideia – Active Learning. (2013). Retrieved 31 August, 2013, from *http://paideia.org*

Pihlgren, A. S. and Lärarhögskolan i Stockholm. (2014). "The Features of Socratic Seminars." *The 13th International Conference on Thinking June 17–21, 2007 Norrköping, Sweden*. 2007. Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://ep.liu.se/ ecp/021/vol1/022/ecp2107022.pdf*

Pokorná, J. (2014). *Socratic Method and Its Use in English Language Teaching*. Bachelor Thesis. Masaryk Uni., 2009. Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://is. muni.cz/th/217139/pedf_b/ Bachelor_ Thesis_ Julie_Pokorna.pdf*

Reid, Joy M. (1998). *The Process of Composition*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Russell, B. (1959). *The Problems of Philosophy*. New York: Oxford UP.

Schultz, F. M. (2001). *Sources.* Guilford, CT: McGraw-Hill/Dushkin.

Shahsavar, Z. and Hoon, T. B. (2014). "Pedagogical Blogging: Promoting Tertiary Level Students' Critical Thinking by Using Socratic Questions." Retrieved 4 May, 2014, from *http://ELTWorldOnline.com* 5 (2013).

Shea, J. (2014). "Socratic Seminars Encourage Metacognition and Critical Thinking in Grade 8 Students, 2006" Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://researchgate.com*

Socratic Seminar - Appropriate Language Poster. (2013). Retrieved 10 November, 2013, from *http://vhs.valhallaschools.org/ourpages/auto/2013/5/20/34895606/GLI_-_Socratic_Seminar_Appropriate_ Language_ Poster.pdf*

The Giver- Final Persuasive Essay. (2015). Retrieved 14 June, 2015, from *Lugoff-Elgin Middle School*. *http://teachers.sduhsd.net/moliphant/GiverPrompt__1.pdf*

The Paideia Proposal: Rediscovering the Essence of Education. (1982). *American School Board Journal* 169, no 7 (July 1982): 17-28.

The Subtle, but Significant Differences between Persuasive & Argumentative Writing. (2014). Retrieved 3 July, 2014, from *http://smekenseducation.com*

Van Rossem, K. (2006). "What is a Socratic Dialogue." *Filosofische praktijken, Filosofie Jgr* 16.1.

Walton, D. N. (2006) *Fundamentals of Critical Argumentation*. Cambridge [UK: Cambridge UP.

Wang, H. (2014). The Influence of the Socratic Tradition on Cambridge Practice and Its Implication on Chinese Higher Education, *Journal of Cambridge Studies*, 5,1. (2010): The Student-Run Computing Facility (SRCF). Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://journal.acs-cam.org.uk/ data/archive/2010/201001-article1.pdf*

Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language. (1996). New York: Gramercy.

Weida, S. and Stolley, K. (2014). "Welcome to the Purdue OWL." *Purdue OWL: Establishing Arguments*. Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from https://owl.english. purdue.edu/owl/owlprint/588/

Westerhof-Shultz, J. and Weisner, J. (2014). "ERIC - Breaking the Silence: Dialogical Learning in the Middle Grades, Educational Foundations, 2004." Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ739885.pdf*

Yang, Y. C., Newby, T. J. and Bill , R. L. (2014). "Using Socratic Questioning To Promote Critical Thinking Skills Through Asynchronous Discussion Forums in Distance Learning Environments." *The American Journal of Distance Education 19.3 (2005): 163-181*.

Yuhas, M. (2014). "The Socratic Method in the Secondary English Classroom." Retrieved 1 July, 2014, from *http://ed.psu.edu/englishpds/inquiry/projects/yuhas04.htm*

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Sample List of Suggested Socratic Seminar Texts

Some Recommended Socratic Seminar Texts

Martin Luther King, Jr.	I Have a Dream (Speech)
Heywood Broun	The Fifty-First Dragon(Short Story)
Joanne Greenburg	Certain Distant Suns (Short Story)
	Apollo I: For the First Manned Moon Orbit (Poem)
	Bambi, chapter VIII (Excerpt)
W. H. Auden	Musée des Beaux Arts (Poem)
Sherwood Anderson	Hands (Short Story)
Milton Meltzer	They That Take the Sword (True Story)
George Bird Grinnell	Scarface (Short Story, Legend)
Georgia B. Adams	Winter's Birthday Gifts (Poem)
Ralph Waldo Emerson	We Are Never Old (Poem)
	Render Unto Caesar, the Things That Are Caesar's...And Unto Thyself? (Essay)
Kurt Vonnegut, Jr.	Harrison Bergeron (Short Story)
Yani	Paintings at age 5-6 "Pull Harder"(from Gifted Children, E. Winner)
Nadia	Sketch at age 5.5 "Horse" (from Gifted Children, E. Winner)
Holbein	painting: The French Ambassadors
Johnnie Lee Gray	painting: Backbone of the South
Margaret and Luther (Gutierrez)	Santa Clara polychrome pottery: Owl
Joyce Carol Oates	Where Are You Going? Where Have You Been? To Bob Dylan (Short Story)
Isabelle Huggins	End of the Empire from You Never Know (Short Story)
Budd Schulberg	The Wonderful Lousy Poem (Essay)
Maxine Hong Kingston	Silence (Short Story)
Richard Wright	The Man Who Killed a Shadow (Short Story)
Cynthia Ozick	SHE Portrait of the Essay as a Warm Body (Essay)
John Allen Paulos	Fractals (Essay)
Gary Soto	Blackmail (Short Story)
Ray Bradbury	All Summer in a Day (Short Story)
Luis Valdez	Los Venidos (The Sellouts) (Short Play)
Bruce Coville	Am I Blue? (Short Story)
Gingher	Camouflage (From Teen Angel) (Excerpt)
Isaac Asimov	The Fun They Had (Short Story)
Emily Dickinson	The Wind's Visit (Poem)
Portia Nelson	Autobiography in Five Short Chapters (Poem)
	Gone Fishin' (From Athletic Shorts) (Short Story)
Mark Mathabane	The Road to Alexandra (Short Story)
Bob Schultheis	Bone Games (Excerpt)
Nadine Gordimer	"The farm children play together..." (Excerpt from A Day in the Country)
	"We stood patiently waiting..." (Excerpt from Roll of Thunder Hear My Cry)
Dana Stabenow	Prologue and Epilogue (Legend, Excerpt from Blood Will Tell)
Nadine Gordimer	A Chip of Glass Ruby (Short Story)
Franklin Delano Roosevelt	Declaration of War Against Japan (Speech)
Gish Jen	Who's Irish? An American Education (Essay)
Don Marquis	a spider and a fly, chapter viii (Excerpt from archy and mehitabel)
S. Elizabeth Bird	Constructing the Indian 1830's-1990's (Excerpt from Dressing in Feathers)

(Appendix 1 continued)

Shirley Jackson	The Lottery (Short Story)
Marie G. Lee	An Education (Short Story)
Alice Walker	Never Offer Your Heart to Someone Who Eats Hearts (Poem)
Pablo Neruda	Ode to the Americas
Charlotte Perkins Gilman	The Yellow Wallpaper (Short Story)
Jamaica Kincaid	Girl (Short Story)
Charles Krauthammer	So Sorry? An Apology For Slavery Says Too Much and Too Little (Editorial Essay) use with Ray essay below
John Ray	Slavery: America Should Apologize (Editorial Essay use with Krauthammer essay above
Helen Buckley	The Little Boy (Poem)
Mario Bencastro	A Clown's Story (Short Story)
Franz Kafka	A Hunger Artist (Short Story)
Ralph Waldo Emerson	Blight (Poem)
	Women's Novels - For Lenore (Essay)
Thucydides	Chapter 23 (Excerpt from The Peloponnesian Wars)
Art Spiegelman	A Jew in Rostock (Excerpt in comic book style from Maus)
Langston Hughes	I, Too, Sing America (Poem)
	"Success is as dangerous as failure. Hope is as hollow as fear...(Poem)
Abraham Lincoln	The Emancipation Proclamation (Speech)
U. S. Constitution	The Bill of Rights
Robert browning	My Last Duchess (Poem)
Gary Soto	Oranges (Poem)
Rodolfo Gonzales	I Am Joaquín (Poem)
	The Cancer March (Poem)
George Harrison (The Beatles)	Piggies (Poem)
	The Third Floor Bedroom (art)
	The Other Giving Tree (Short Story)
Virginia Woolf	Shakespeare's Sister (Essay)
Spencer Holst	The Zebra Storyteller (Short Story/Essay)
Hammurabi	The Code of Hammurabi (Law)
C. K. Williams	The World's Greatest Tricycle Rider (Poem)
Alice Walker	After the Shrink (Short Poem)
Alice Walker	At First (Poem)
Mekeel McBride	Loneliness (Poem)
Ursula K. LeGuin	The Ones Who Walk Away From Omelas (Short Story)
Sandra Cisneros	The Monkey Garden (Short Story)
Edgar Allen Poe	The Oval Portrait (Short Story)
Maya Angelou	On the Pulse of Morning (Poem)
Wuther Crue	Ordeal by Cheque (series of checks allude to story)
Jorge Luis Borges	Death and the Compass (Short Story)
	On Societies as Organisms (Essay/Excerpt from the Lives of a Cell)
Annie Dillard	From Living Like Weasels (Essay)
Ishmael Reed	Grizzly (Poem)
Tadeusz Borowski	Silence (Short Story)
Charles Darwin	From The Origin of Species (Excerpt)
	Pledge of Allegiance 1892 edition and 1954 edition (Pledges)
JMH	Canaries (Letter)
Jane Bendetson	I Am More Than Hands (Essay)
Peter Gray & David Chanoff	When Play is Learning: A School Designed for Self-Directed Education (Essay)
Lao-tzu	Tao Te Ching (Poem)

(Appendix 1 continued)

	My Lucy Friend Who Smells Like Corn (Short Story)
Art Spiegelman	"Tell me more about 1941 and 1942..." (Excerpt from Maus) Short Story in comic book form
Machiavelli	Chapter XVIII Concerning the Way in Which Princes Should Keep Faith (Excerpt from The Prince)
Confucius	Rules of Conduct
Karl Marx	The German Ideology (Excerpt)
Marguarite Yourcenar	How Wang-Fo Was Saved (Short Story)
Lorine Niedecker	Paen to Place (Poem)
Tim O'Brien	The Things They Carried (Short Story)
	Axioms, or Three Laws of Motion (Physics Laws)
Oliver Byrne	Excerpt from The First Six Books of the Elements of Euclid using colored diagrams and symbols
James Baldwin	A Talk to Teachers (Essay)
John Skoyles	History (Poem)
Jorge Luis Borges	Borges and Myself (Short Story)
Pablo Neruda	A Few Things Explained (Poem)
Alfred, Lord Tennyson	The Charge of the Light Brigade (Poem)
Jorge Luis Borges	The Circular Ruins
Andrea Maruniak (grade 5)	The Autumn Lady (Poem)
Fredric Brown	Pattern (Short Story)
JohnCollier	"Allen Austin is in love with Diana..."The Chaser (Excerpt from The Chaser)
Christopher Logue	War Music: An Account of Books 16-19 of Homer's Iliad (Poem)
Amy Tan	"The old woman remembered a swan..." (Excerpt from The Joy Luck Club)
Douglas Hofstadter	The Prisoner's Dilemma Computer Tournaments and the Evolution of Cooperation (Excerpt)
U.S. Court of Appeals	Martinez vs Santa Clara Pueblo (Court decisions)
Guy Davenport	Pyrrhon of Elis (Short Story)
Simon Singh	Hilbert's Hotel (Excerpts from Fermat's Enigma, Math Essay
Alan Lightman	Einstein's Dreams (Essays on Time)
Kathleen Cushman	Conversations in Classrooms: Who are Seminars For? (Essay)
Dennis Gray	Putting Minds to Work: How to Use the Seminar Approach in the Classroom (Essay)

Copeland, Matt. *Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School*. Portland, Me.: Stenhouse, 2005. Print.

Appendix 2. Socratic Seminar Rules and General Responsibilities

Socratic Seminar Rules

A Socratic seminar is a dialogue, not a debate. In other words, we are not looking for a winner. In a Socratic seminar, every person in the room not speaking is expected to listen respectfully.

Inner circle participants may:

- ask for clarification if a person's comment confuses you.
- add to a comment made by another person.
- voice an opposing viewpoint.

No one may:

- criticize anyone's opinions, comments, or beliefs.
- interrupt when someone is speaking.
- respond in a manner that is in any way derogatory.

General Responsibilities

Before each class:

1) Read and annotate the assigned chapter(s) from the novel and other text(s) on the topic.

2) Formulate and write down 4-5 discussion questions based upon the assigned reading (the subject is sameness vs diversity, collectivity vs individuality, freedom vs security, choice, etc.).

3) On the assumption that you will lead the day's discussion, write a brief (nearly one minute) statement about the reading. Your statement should set the stage for, and end by raising, one or more of your discussion questions.

(Appendix 2 continued)

During class:

Students in the inner circle

1) Listen to the introduction by the designated discussion leader and consider the discussion question(s) or issue(s) s/he raises.

2) Discuss (inner circle) or take notes on (outer circle) the issues raised, keeping to the subject of the readings, attempting to analyze, criticize, and connect.

a. Analyze the readings to gain a deeper understanding of difficult concepts, examples, or arguments.

b. Criticize the readings, articulating and defending personal opinions about the adequacy of the arguments.

c. Connect the issues to analyze and criticize together with the articles provided by the teacher in order to discern broader themes, similar concepts, and comparable or contrasting opinions.

3) As you participate, make good use of the references, at times calling attention to specific passages relevant to the issue at hand. When working with such a passage, cite the page number and allow time for others in the class to locate it. Then, read it aloud.

4) Ignore the teacher, who will not speak. Direct your attention to other students and regard the teacher as a recording secretary on hand to take down information for use later in the course.

5) Take brief notes of points and examples that deepen your understanding; opinions that differ from your own; and arguments that you find helpful, convincing, or worth trying to refute. These notes will be useful when you write your argumentative essay. Do not, however, allow note-taking to cause you to lose the thread of the discussion.

Source adapted from http://teachers.sduhsd.k12.ca.us/mcunningham/grapes/Socratic_ Seminar_Inner_ Outer_Circles.pdf Used with permission.

Appendix 3. Responsibilities of Circles

Specific Responsibilities of Inner Circle

❖ You engage in discussion, actively participating but not dominating. (Total silence, consent, silly comments, not reading the references are not acceptable)

❖ You read aloud excerpts from the references to support or make a point, drawing our attention to the words the author chose to use.

❖ Listen to each other carefully.

❖ Look the speaker in the eye.

❖ Do not interrupt.

❖ Use each other's names: "What Onur said about Lowry's use of euphemism..."

❖ Paraphrase what the speaker before you have said to respond responsibly. Support or refute the prior speaker's ideas.

❖ Stick to the text. Your point or opinion only matters if you can support your ideas.

❖ If you are confused about another's point, question her/him.

❖ Discuss ideas; do not attack people. It is dialectic, dialogue, that makes us all more informed. Changing your mind or adding to your understanding means that your mind was open. We all win, if we learn from our discussions.

Discussion Leader

Discussions, like sleepy horses, need some urging to keep them moving. Additional consideration (in terms of grading) will go to those who assume the role of discussion leader. A leader helps to keep the discussion moving and on track. Of course, if you can contribute something useful, do so; but other kinds of comments or actions on your part can sustain the discussion just as well as an injection of insight. Here are some suggestions for a discussion leader:

(Appendix 3 continued)

❖ Get students to talk to each other. Ask for a response to the most recent comments. (Does anyone have a response to Elif's opinion?) Or ask a specific student to respond. (Ege, do you agree with Deniz?)

❖ Get students to defend or explain their opinions. (Tuna, why do you say that? What's your evidence or reasoning?)

❖ Encourage an exploration of differing points of view. When you hear conflicting views, point them out and get the holders of those views to discuss their differences. Perhaps ask a third person to sum up the two positions.

❖ Keep the class on the subject. If you are even halfway familiar with the material, you know when the discussion is no longer connected to it. Just say so (We've gotten pretty far from the readings; let's get back on the subject). Or simply consult your list of questions. Any sensible response to one of your questions is bound to be pertinent.

❖ Point to a particular passage in the text relevant to a comment made by one person, or to a discussion among several. This might be a passage that challenges, or sums up and confirms, the views being expressed.

❖ Don't fill every silence with your own voice. Any discussion will lapse occasionally. It is not your job to avoid all silence. Some quiet periods are productive. Students who are not so quick to speak will frequently get the chance they need when others are quiet.

Hot Seat

This is an empty seat in the inner circle. Outer circle participants may "jump in" to make a point, but then "jump out." Students in the outer circle have the option of joining the inner circle when:

1) the discussion appears to be off topic.

2) the discussion becomes nonproductive with arguments and "put downs."

3) inner circle members have not discussed an area deemed important.

(Appendix 3 continued)

They may not stay and debate the entire point. They comment, and then they leave! The discussion leader must acknowledge the hot seat as soon as it becomes pertinent to do so. Do not allow students to jump into the hot seat twice in a row. Another student must occupy the hot seat before an outer circle participant is allowed back in. You may want to limit the number of times they can "jump in," because your gregarious students who are relegated to the outer circle sometimes will attempt to dominate the discussion. That is not their role in this!

Specific Responsibilities of Outer Circle

- You are silent but "talking back" by taking notes.
- When do you think the inner circle "sparked"? How did that happen?
- Track the person most directly in front of you. Did he/she contribute well (neither dominate nor duck discussion)? Explain.
- To what idea were you dying to respond? What would you have said?
- What was the single most important idea that was discussed? Why?
- What was the single most important idea that didn't get discussed? Why?
- What could have made the discussion even more constructive?

Source adapted from http://teachers.sduhsd.k12.ca.us/mcunningham/grapes/Socratic_ Seminar _Inner _Outer_Circles.pdf Used with permission.

Appendix 4. Socratic Circle Reflection on Performance

This section will be divided into two paragraphs: (1) a description of how you performed as an individual in the Socratic circle and (2) a description of how your group performed in both the role of the inner circleand the role of the outer circle. Again, there is no right or wrong answer here, only well-expressedopinions. You might consider the following questions for each paragraph:

(1) Individual Performance

How would you rate your preparation for this Socratic circle? Why?
How would you rate your contributions (both the number of times you spoke and the quality of what you said) on the conversation of the inner circle? Why?
How would you rate the level of teamwork you displayed in the inner circle? Why?
How could you personally have improved what transpired during the Socratic circle?
What goals do you have for your next Socratic circle performance?

(2) Group Performance

How would you rate your group's preparation for this Socratic circle? Why?
How would you rate the quality of the overall conversation of your inner circle? Why?
How would you rate the level of teamwork displayed by your inner circle? Why?

Copeland, Matt. *Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School*. Portland, Me.: Stenhouse, 2005. Print.

Appendix 5. Socratic Circle Feedback Form

Socratic Circle Feedback Form

Name_____ Hour_____ Date_____

1. Rate the inner circle's performance on the following criteria: (circle the appropriate number)

Did the participants . . .	Poor		Average		Excellent
dig below the surface meaning?	1	2	3	4	5
speak loudly and clearly?	1	2	3	4	5
cite reasons and evidence for their statements?	1	2	3	4	5
use the text to find support?	1	2	3	4	5
listen to others respectfully?	1	2	3	4	5
stick with the subject?	1	2	3	4	5
talk to each other, not just the leader?	1	2	3	4	5
paraphrase accurately?	1	2	3	4	5
avoid inappropriate language?	1	2	3	4	5
ask for help to clear up confusion?	1	2	3	4	5
support each other?	1	2	3	4	5
avoid hostile exchanges?	1	2	3	4	5
question others in a civil manner?	1	2	3	4	5
seem prepared?	1	2	3	4	5
make sure questions were understood?	1	2	3	4	5

2. Name specific people who did one or more of the above criteria well.

3. What was the most interesting question asked?

4. What was the most interesting idea to come from a participant?

5. What was the best thing you observed?

6. What was the most troubling thing you observed?

7. How could this troubling thing be corrected or improved?

Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School by Matt Copeland. Copyright © 2005. Stenhouse Publishers. All rights reserved. No reproduction without written permission from the publisher.

Appendix 6. Socratic Circle Rubric

Student: _____ Hour: _____ Date: _____ Topic: _____

Socratic Circle Rubric	Reading of text and preparation for circle.	Engaged in discussion and stays on-task.	Supports ideas with references to the text.	Encourages thinking and participation in others.	Listens respectfully and builds from ideas of others.	Presents self and ideas in a civil and proper manner.	Questions insightfully and uses sound reasoning.	Accepts more than one point of view on the text.
5 Outstanding	Remarks and written work reveal a close, critical reading of the text and thorough preparation.	Demonstrates active and eager participation throughout entire circle. Keeps group on-task.	Makes specific references to text to support and defend ideas on a consistent basis.	Guides the direction and success of the circle and takes steps to involve all participants.	Listens unusually well. Comments indicate very accurate and perceptive listening.	Demonstrates respect and enthusiasm. Works to support all participants at all times.	Questions and ideas are apt, insightful, and logical; and contribute to construction of meaning.	Accepts points of view other than own and uses them to expand ideas and discover new meaning.
4 Good	Remarks and written work reveal a close, critical reading of the text, but preparation appears incomplete.	Active and eager participation in more than 80% of circle. Keeps self on-task always and others at times.	Makes specific references to text to support and defend ideas often and when challenged.	Attempts to guide circle and draw in participants and is most often successful.	Listens well. Pays attention and generally responds well to ideas and questions from others.	Demonstrates respect and enthusiasm. Supports all participants most of the time.	Questions and ideas are apt, insightful, and logical but may not fully help meaning construction.	Accepts points of view other than own and attempts to use them to discover new meaning.
3 Average	Remarks and written work reveal a close reading of the text, but ideas seem to be less than complete.	Active and eager participation in more than 50% of circle. Stays on-task most of the time.	Makes specific references to text to support and defend ideas only when challenged.	Attempts to guide circle and draw in participants but is not always effective.	Generally listens well but is not always attentive as evident in responses or body language.	Demonstrates respect but may be less than totally supportive of others at times.	Questions and comments are apt and logical but lack insight to move group forward.	Acknowledges other points of view but struggles to use them to expand meaning.
2 Below Average	Remarks and written work do not reveal a close, critical reading of the text.	Some active participation in circle; may be less than eager. Off-task frequently.	Makes few references to text to support and defend ideas even when challenged.	Attempts to guide circle and draw in reluctant participants are not successful.	Comments tend to reflect an earlier failure to listen carefully to what was said.	Speech and manner suggest lack of understanding of purpose. Lacks sense of teamwork.	Questions and ideas reveal personal reactions, but not logical, apt arguments.	Argues with other points of view and reluctantly acknowledges them as a possibility.
1 Not Acceptable	Remarks and written work suggest the text was not read.	No active participation in circle. Others may be distracted by behavior.	Makes no specific references to text to support and defend ideas.	Makes no attempts to guide circle or draw in reluctant participants.	Does not listen adequately. Comments or body language suggestive of inattentiveness.	Does not display respect or enthusiasm for circle or other participants.	Remarks are illogical, difficult to follow, and offer the group no benefit.	Does not acknowledge or accept other points of view.

Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School by Matt Copeland. Copyright © 2005. Stenhouse Publishers. All rights reserved. No reproduction without written permission from the publisher.

Appendix 7. Socratic Circle Scorecard

Socratic Circle Scorecard

5 = Outstanding 4 = Good 3 = Average 2 = Below Average 1 = Not Acceptable

Class:_____ Hour:_____ Date: _____ Topic: _____

Student's Name (Initials)	Reading of text and preparation for circle.	Engaged in discussion and stays on-task.	Supports ideas with references to the text.	Encourages thinking and participation in others.	Listens respectfully and builds from ideas of others.	Presents self and ideas in a civil and proper manner.	Questions insightfully and uses sound reasoning.	Accepts more than one point of view on the text.
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								
6.								
7.								
8.								
9.								
10.								
11.								
12.								
13.								
14.								
15.								

First Inner Circle Second Inner Circle Time in Discussion: _____ minutes

Socratic Circles: Fostering Critical and Creative Thinking in Middle and High School by Matt Copeland. Copyright © 2005. Stenhouse Publishers.

Appendix 8. Socratic Seminar Graphic Organizer

TAC/Grade 9 English
Mr. Inci

Name: _____
Date: _____

SOCRATIC SEMINAR

ARGUMENT
A claim or opinion that is powerful, unique, and can be supported by evidence. This is another word for "thesis" or "controlling idea".



COUNTERARGUMENT
The prefix "Counter" means against, so the counterargument to your argument is any opposing idea. Anticipate, mention, and disprove counterarguments as part of presenting your argument.

Question/Statement (answer, agree/disagree)	**Our ARGUMENT/S and EVIDENCE from *the Giver*[40]/Turkey/the world**	**Anticipated COUNTERARGUMENTS and how we can refute them**	**Notes on the most interesting points made during the discussion**
1. It is risky to have unfamiliarity in a society.			
2. Everyone should be the same in a society so every citizen should be equal and then there is no prejudice.			

[40] The novel (1993) by Louis Lowry.

(Appendix 8 continued)

3. It is a very safe and comfortable world when nobody has to take risks.			
4. If the government decides for the citizen, people will be carefree and happy. For example there is no war, hunger, unemployment, etc.			
5. If a citizen has a lot of choices, he will get confused.			
6. Climate Control helps people have a better life. Always the same climate means no risk and problem.			

(Appendix 8 continued)

Reflection: What was the most intriguing argument you heard today and why?

Why are arguments, counterarguments, and appropriate language important for a Socratic Seminar?

Adapted from https://www.teachingchannel.org/videos/using-socratic-seminars-in-classroom

Appendix 9. Parent Permission Letter

Dear Parent of_____,

I am currently attending Çukurova University and am pursuing a Masters Degree in Education. I am planning to conduct a study of seventeen students in my classroom. This letter is to inform you that your child has been selected to take part in this study and to request your consent. All information gathered in this study will remain confidential and the names of all people and places will be assigned pseudonyms in my writing if requested so. I am leaving this choice to the students and the parents.

While one purpose of the study is to help me become a better teacher by learning about my students, and their academic skills. I also expect this research to give way to new ways and methods towards enhancing my students' writing and critical thinking skills. and eventually for future educational methods to be used in our school. As a part of this study, I will collect samples of your son's or daughter's schoolwork and will conduct a classroom teaching method with your child surrounding a variety of topics (sameness vs. diversity, collectivity vs. individuality, freedom vs. security, choice, etc.) to write an argumentative essay on an assigned topic. I truly appreciate your support in helping me to become a better teacher. Thank you for your support.

Regards,

Metehan Inci

Please sign the permission slip at the bottom of this letter and return to me at your convenience.

_____

Yes, I give permission to Mr. Inci to include my child, _____ as part of his educational research study.

_____ _____

Parent or Guardian Name Signature

_____

Date

Appendix 10. Lesson Plans for the Study

DAY 1 (09.02.2015 Monday) (2 Periods)

Introduce argumentative essay and study the elements of the essay in class with students. First, present the slide show. Second, study the handout—taken from *Writing Academic English* coursebook—with students. Assign homework—some exercises in the handout.

DAY 2 (10.02.2015 Tuesday) (2 Periods)

Review the elements of an argumentative essay and complete the assigned homework together with the students. Introduce Socratic Seminar. Show a video. Distribute the handout of the guidelines of the seminar. Discuss the elements of the seminar with the students (how to be assessed, to use it for the writing assignment etc.) Tell them they are going to have the seminar tomorrow. Assign it—the handout to read and understand the basics of Socratic Seminar— as homework for the seminar on the following day.

DAY 3 (11.02.2015 Wednesday) (2 Periods)

Before starting the seminar, remind the students (inner and outer circle group) their responsibilities, also the function of the hot seat. Start the session.

DAY 4 (12.02.2015 Thursday) (2 Periods)

Session completed. At the end of the session, provide them with reflection forms. Listen to their feedback and make comments on the whole process with them.

DAY 5 (13.02.2015 Friday) (2 Periods)

Now assign the argumentative essay to write. Distribute the essay prompt handout. Discuss it with them. Walk the class and help the students about how to write the paper in relation to using the seminar handout. Answer their questions about the outline and the organization of the essay. Give them feedback on their tentative thesis statements. Follow the class as same as it is planned to have with the control group class.

Appendix 11. Organizing Your Argument

Organizing Your Argument



Purdue OWL staff
Brought to you in cooperation with the Purdue Online Writing Lab

Adapted by Metehan Inci



An **argument** involves the process of…

- establishing a claim and then
- proving it with the use of
  - logical reasoning,
  - evidence form the text,
  - examples, and,
  - research.

(Appendix 11 continued)



Why is **organization** important in argument?

- Guides an audience through your reasoning process.
- Offers a clear explanation of each argued point.
- Demonstrates the credibility of the writer.



Title

- **Introduction**
  - Hook and Thesis statement
- **Body Paragraphs**

  A. Statement of the counterargument #1
  Supporting idea(s)
  Rebuttal with your own argument

  B. Statement of the counterargument #2
  Supporting idea(s)
  Rebuttal with your own argument

  C. Statement of the counterargument #3
  Supporting idea(s)
  Rebuttal with your own argument
- **Conclusion**

  (It may include a summary of your point of view)

(Appendix 11 continued)

Considering Titles

Imagine you just wrote a paper arguing about separating boys and girls during the middle school years

Which do you consider to be the best title?

- Separating Boys and Girls
- No Opposite Sex in School
- Separating the Sexes, Just for the Tough Years

Methods for Constructing an Introduction

- Personal anecdote
- Example—real or hypothetical
- Rhetorical Questions
- Quotation, Saying, Proverb, Parable, etc.
- Shocking statistics
- Striking image
- . . .

(Appendix 11 continued



Choose a thesis for an argument about the need for V-chips in television sets?

- Parents, often too busy to watch television shows with their families, can monitor their children's viewing habits with the aid of the V-chip.
- To help parents monitor their children's viewing habits, the V-chip should be a required feature for television sets sold in the U.S.
- This paper will describe a V-chip and examine the uses of the V-chip in American-made television sets.



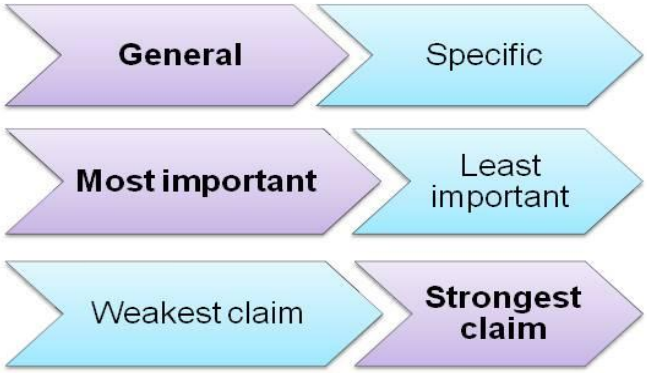
Body paragraphs: (1) build upon the claims made in the introductory paragraph(s); (2) are organized with the use of topic sentences that illustrate the main idea of each idea.

Tip: Offering a brief explanation of the history or recent developments of topic within the topic sentences can help the audience become familiarized with your topic and the complexity of the issue.

(Appendix 11 continued)

Body Paragraphs

Paragraphs may be ordered in several ways, depending upon the topic and purpose of your argument:



Offering a Counterargument

Addressing the claims of the opposition is an important component in building a convincing argument.

- It demonstrates your credibility as a writer—you have researched multiple sides of the argument and have come to an informed decision.
- It shows you have considered other points of view - that other points of view are valid and reasonable.

(Appendix 11 continued)



Counterarguments are located before you have your main arguments within your body paragraphs. That is to say, in your essay, you will use:

- a counterargument before you have articulated your main claims.



Consider your audience when you offer your counterargument:

- Conceding to some of your opposition's concerns can demonstrate respect for their opinions.
- Using rude or deprecating language can cause your audience to reject your position. Remain tactful yet firm.

(Appendix 11 continued)



Researched material can aid you in proving the claims of your argument and disproving oppositional claims.

Be sure to use your research to support the claims made in your topic sentences—make your research work to prove your argument.



Conclusion: Reemphasizes the main points made in your paper.

- You may choose to reiterate a call to action or speculate on the future of your topic, when appropriate.
- Avoid raising new claims in your conclusion.

(Appendix 11 continued)



ORGANIZING YOUR ARGUMENT
Purdue OWL staff
Brought to you in cooperation with the Purdue Online Writing Lab

Adapted by Metehan Inci

Appendix 12. Basic Components of an Argumentative Essay

I. Introduction

A. Background Information: basic information about the issue (i.e. sameness vs. diversity) and the position being argued (i.e. diversity should not be accepted in the society).

B. Thesis Statement: states the position to be argued in the essay.

II. Body Paragraphs

A. Statement of counterargument #1
Rebuttal with your own argument
Supporting idea(s)

B. Statement of counterargument #2
Rebuttal with your own argument
Supporting idea(s)

C. Statement of counterargument #3
Rebuttal with your own argument
Supporting idea(s)

Notes about reasons/arguments section:

1. Since this is a longer paper, you will most likely have **more than one paragraph** per main point. This means that your discussion will be more detailed.

2. Think carefully about how you order your reasons/arguments. Possible ways to order your arguments include **most familiar→least familiar** or **least important (weakest) →most important (strongest).**

III. Conclusion

Summarize the main points of your essay. What further issues need to be researched or addressed? In other words, where do we go from here?

Adapted from original http://www.deil.uiuc.edu/eslservice/units/researchpaper/ argoutline.htm

Appendix 13. Argumentative Essay Classwork Handout

CHAPTER

9

Argumentative Essays



Mani stones, Nepal

An **argumentative essay** is an essay in which you agree or disagree with an issue, using reasons to support your opinion. Your goal is to convince your reader that your opinion is right. Argumentation is a popular kind of essay question because it forces students to think on their own: They have to take a stand on an issue, support their stand with solid reasons, and support their reasons with solid evidence.

In a general writing test such as the TOEFL exam, you might encounter questions such as these:

> The U.S. Declaration of Independence states that "all men are created equal." Agree or disagree with this statement. Support your opinion with reasons and examples.
>
> The most important element in a friendship is trust. Agree or disagree with this statement. Support your opinion with reasons and examples.

(Appendix 13 continued)

In an academic class, your instructor might ask questions such as these:

CRIMINAL JUSTICE — Some cities in the United States and the United Kingdom have passed laws establishing curfews for young people. Young people (usually age 17 and younger) may not be out on the streets after 9 or 10 P.M. Do you agree or disagree with such curfews?

HEALTH SCIENCES — Stem cell research offers a potential cure for many fatal diseases. Many people oppose stem cell research because it involves using cells from human embryos. Do you agree or disagree that stem cell research should be prohibited?

BUSINESS ETHICS — Companies that do business abroad sometimes find that local business practices include activities considered unethical at home—offering gifts of money or awarding contracts to family members, for example. Should companies go along with local business practices in order to become successful, or should they refuse to do so and risk failure as a result?

What is unique about an argumentative essay is that you do not just give reasons to support your point of view. You must also discuss the other side's reasons and then rebut them. (*Rebut* means to point out problems with the other side's reasons to prove that they are not good reasons.) We do this because we want readers to know that we have considered all sides of the issue. When we show that we are reasonable and open-minded, readers are more likely to listen to our point of view.

Organization of Argumentative Essays

There are several ways to organize an argumentative essay. You can use a block pattern or a point-by-point pattern. The outlines in the following chart show these two possible patterns.

Block Pattern	Point-by-Point Pattern
I. Introduction Explanation of the issue Thesis statement	**I.** Introduction Explanation of the issue, including a summary of the other side's arguments Thesis statement
II. Body	**II.** Body
Block 1 **A.** Summary of other side's arguments **B.** Rebuttal to the first argument **C.** Rebuttal to the second argument **D.** Rebuttal to the third argument	**A.** Statement of the other side's first argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument **B.** Statement of the other side's second argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument **C.** Statement of the other side's third argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument
Block 2 **E.** Your first argument **F.** Your second argument **G.** Your third argument	
III. Conclusion—may include a summary of your point of view	**III.** Conclusion—may include a summary of your point of view

(Appendix 13 continued)

There are many variations on these two patterns. Which pattern you use will depend on your topic. With some topics, one pattern works better than others. The important thing is to present your side and rebut the other side in a logical and organized way.

As you read the following model essay, study its organization.

MODEL
Argumentation

Separating the Sexes, Just for the Tough Years

1 The middle school years (grades 7 and 8) are known to be the "tough years." These are the years when the uneven pace of girls' and boys' physical, emotional, and cognitive development is most noticeable. Girls are ahead of boys on all counts, and both suffer. Educators debate whether separating boys and girls during these difficult years might improve students' academic performance. Separate classes are now prohibited in public schools that receive federal funds, but a change in the federal law that prohibits them is under consideration. Although some parents and educators oppose same-sex classes, there is some evidence that separating boys and girls in middle school yields positive results.

2 Opponents of single-sex education claim that test scores of students in all-girl or all-boy classes are no higher than those of students in mixed classes ("Study").[1] However, the research is inconclusive. Despite the fact that some research shows no improvement in test scores, other research shows exactly opposite results (Blum).[2] More important, many psychologists believe that test scores are the wrong measuring sticks. They believe that self-confidence and self-esteem issues are more important than test scores. In same-sex classes, girls report increased confidence and improved attitudes toward math and science, for example ("Study"). These are results that cannot be calculated by a test but that will help adolescents become successful adults long after the difficult years of middle school are past. New York University professor Carol Gilligan is certain that girls are more likely to be "creative thinkers and risk-takers as adults if educated apart from boys in middle school" (Gross).[3] Boys, too, gain confidence when they do not have to compete with girls. Boys at this age become angry and fight back in middle school because they feel inferior when compared to girls, who literally "out-think" them. With no girls in the classroom, they are more at ease with themselves and more receptive to learning (Gross).

3 Opponents also maintain that separate classes (or separate schools) send the message that males and females cannot work together. They say that when students go into the work force, they will have to work side-by-side with the opposite sex, and attending all-girl or all-boy schools denies them the opportunity to learn how to do so ("North").[4] However, such an argument completely ignores the fact that children constantly interact with members of the

[1]"Study: All-Girls Schools Don't Improve Test Scores." CNNinteractive 12 Mar. 1998. 2 June 2004 <http://www.cnn.com/US/9803/same.sex.classes/>.
[2]Blum, Justin. "Scores Soar at D.C. School with Same-Sex Classes." washingtonpost.com 27 June 2002. 2 June 2004 <http://www.washingtonpost.com/ac2/wp-dyn/A52023-2002Jun26?/language=printer>.
[3]Gross, Jane. "Splitting Up Boys and Girls, Just for the Tough Years." The New York Times 31 May 2004: A16.
[4]"North Carolina School Stops Same-Sex Classes." American Civil Liberties Union News 5 Apr. 2000. 2 June 2004 <http://archive.aclu.org/news/2000/w040500d.html>.

(Appendix 13 continued)

opposite sex outside school. From playing and squabbling with siblings to negotiating allowances, chores, and privileges with their opposite-sex parent, children learn and practice on a daily basis the skills they will need in their future workplaces.

4 The final argument advanced by opponents of same-sex education is that it is discriminatory and, therefore, unconstitutional. However, research supports exactly the opposite conclusion: that discrimination is widespread in mixed classes. Several studies have shown that boys dominate discussions and receive more attention than girls and that teachers call on boys more often than they call on girls, even when girls raise their hands ("North"). Clearly, this is discriminatory.

5 It should be evident that the arguments against same-sex classes are not valid. On the contrary, many people involved in middle-school education say that same-sex classes provide a better learning environment. Boys and girls pay less attention to each other and more attention to their schoolwork (Marquez).[5] As one teacher noted, "Girls are more relaxed and ask more questions; boys are less disruptive and more focused" ("North"). Girls are less fearful of making mistakes and asking questions in math and science; boys are less inhibited about sharing their ideas in language and literature. Furthermore, schoolchildren are not disadvantaged by lack of contact with the opposite sex because they have many opportunities outside the school setting to interact with one another. Finally, discrimination occurs in mixed classes, so discrimination is not a valid argument. Therefore, in my opinion, the law prohibiting same-sex classes in public schools should be changed.

Writing Technique Questions

1. In which paragraph does the writer give background information to help readers understand the issue?
2. Does the thesis statement mention both sides of the issue, or does it give the writer's point of view only?
3. How many opposing arguments are given? Where are they given?
4. Where does the writer rebut the opposing arguments—in one paragraph or in separate paragraphs?
5. What is the function of the last paragraph?
6. Which type of organization does this essay use—block or point-by-point?

[5]Marquez, Laura. "No Distractions? Proposed Title IX Changes Would Allow Separate Classrooms for Girls and Boys." ABC News 13 May 2004. 2 June 2004 <http://abcnews.go.com/sections/WNT/US/same_sex_classrooms_040513.html>.

(Appendix 13 continued)

PRACTICE 1
Outlining

Complete the outline of the model essay.

Separating the Sexes, Just for the Tough Years

I. Introduction (explanation of the issue)

Thesis statement: _____

_____

II. Body

A. Opposing argument 1

Opponents of single-sex education claim that test scores show that there is no advantage to all-girl or all-boy classes.

Rebuttal to argument 1

1. Research is inconclusive—show opposite results
2. Other results that cannot be calculated
   a. Girls _____
   b. Boys _____

B. Opposing argument 2

_____

Rebuttal to argument 2

_____

a. Settling squabbles with siblings
b. Negotiating with opposite-sex parent

C. Opposing argument 3

_____

Rebuttal to argument 3

_____

a. _____
b. Teachers call on boys more often

D. Own point of view

1. Same-sex classes provide a better learning environment
2. Reasons
   a. Boys and girls _____
   b. Girls _____
   c. Boys _____

III. Conclusion

Five Keys

An argumentative essay contains these five key elements:

1. An explanation of the issue
2. A clear thesis statement
3. A summary of the opposing arguments
4. Rebuttals to the opposing arguments
5. Your own arguments

(Appendix 13 continued)

The Introductory Paragraph

The introductory paragraph of the model contains an explanation of the issue, which is a necessary part of an argumentative essay. However, you may also begin an argumentative essay with a more engaging introduction—with surprising statistics, for example, or with a dramatic story. For instance, the writer of the model essay could have opened with a dramatization of typical boys' and girls' behavior in a mixed middle school class.

If you write an attention-getting introduction, you may need to explain the issue in a second introductory paragraph and write your thesis statement at the end of this (the second) paragraph.

> In an eighth-grade English class at Kent Middle School, the students are discussing *The Diary of Anne Frank*, written by a 13-year-old Jewish girl while she hid with her family in an Amsterdam attic for more than two years during the Holocaust. The girls in the class identify easily with Anne and freely share their feelings about the book. The boys, by contrast, snicker[1] or snooze[2]—anything to avoid revealing any tender feelings. In the next class, math, the dynamic is reversed: The girls sit quietly, while the boys shout out answers and race each other to the blackboard to solve algebra equations. These scenes are typical in most middle school classes in the United States.
>
> The middle school years (grades 7 and 8) are known . . .

Thesis Statement

The thesis statement in an argumentative essay states clearly which side you are for:

> Curfew laws are unfair and should be abolished.
>
> In my opinion, stem cell research should receive the full support of our government.

A thesis statement often mentions the opposing point of view. Notice that the writer's opinion is expressed in the main (independent) clause, and the opposing point of view is normally put into a subordinate structure.

> SUBORDINATE STRUCTURE
> Despite the claims that curfew laws are necessary to control juvenile gangs,
> MAIN (INDEPENDENT) CLAUSE
> **curfew laws are clearly unconstitutional.**
>
> SUBORDINATE STRUCTURE
> Although there are certainly reasons to be cautious with stem cell research
> MAIN (INDEPENDENT) CLAUSE
> or any new technology, **I believe that its potential benefits far outweigh its dangers.**

[1] **snicker:** laugh quietly in a way that is not nice
[2] **snooze:** sleep

(Appendix 13 continued)

Use expressions such as the following to introduce opposing points of view.

Some people feel that the United States should have a national health care plan like Canada's.

Many think that genetically engineered crops are a grave danger to the environment.

Smokers say that they have a right to smoke.

It may be true that the U.S. Constitution gives citizens the right to own weapons.

Then connect the opposing point of view to your own with transition signals of contrast.

Some people feel that the United States should have a national health care plan like Canada's**; however,** others feel that government should stay out of the health care business.

Although/Even though many think that genetically engineered crops are a grave danger to the environment, such crops can alleviate world hunger and malnutrition.

Smokers say that they have a right to smoke **in spite of the fact that/despite the fact that** smoking will kill them.

While/Whereas it may be true that the U.S. Constitution gives citizens the right to own weapons, the men who wrote the Constitution lived in a different time.

PRACTICE 2
Thesis Statements

Add an opposing point of view to each of the following thesis statements. If necessary, rewrite the part of the sentence that is given to you. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. Doctors or family members should never be allowed to "pull the plug."[1]
   Although some people believe that doctors and family members should never be allowed to "pull the plug," I believe that it is sometimes more humane to do so.
2. The sale of CDs with songs containing lyrics that degrade women should be prohibited.
   _____
   _____
3. Television is the worst invention of modern times.
   _____
   _____
4. Environmental protection laws go too far.
   _____
   _____

[1]**pull the plug:** let a person who is in an irreversible coma die by disconnecting him or her from life-sustaining machines

(Appendix 13 continued)

5. The advertising industry performs many public services.

_____

_____

6. Choose your own topic. Then write a thesis statement that expresses both sides of the issue.

_____

_____

PRACTICE 3
Supporting Arguments

Think of two or three supporting arguments for each thesis statement. Notice that two of the thesis statements state only the writer's point of view, and two state both sides of the argument. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. Censorship of the arts is always wrong.
   a. Freedom to express oneself is a fundamental right stated in the U.S. Bill of Rights.
   b. Public morality is relative—what is objectionable in some cultures is acceptable in others.
   c. Many masterpieces—books, sculptures, and paintings—would be banned.
2. Violence in video games, movies, and television programs should be censored.
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
3. Despite the fact that education's primary responsibility is to train minds, not bodies, I believe that schools should require students to practice a sport at least one hour each day.
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
4. Although some people think that curfew laws will help control teenage gangs, they are wrong for several reasons.
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
5. Engaged couples should be required to take marriage preparation classes for one full year before their wedding.
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
6. Your own topic: _____
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

(Appendix 13 continued)

Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter.

1. An argumentative essay is a kind of essay in which you try to persuade your reader to agree with your opinion about a controversial topic.
2. An argumentative essay contains these five elements:
   - An explanation of the issue
   - A clear thesis statement
   - A summary of the opposing arguments
   - Rebuttals to the opposing arguments
   - Your own arguments
3. Use either a block pattern or a point-by-point pattern. Be sure to include the opposite point of view as well as your own.
4. Use contrast transition signals to connect opposing arguments and your counter-arguments.

Oshima, Alice, and Ann Hogue. *Writing Academic English*. White Plains, NY: Pearson/Longman, 2006. 142-150. Print.

Appendix 14. The Giver—Final Essay Guideline—Grade 9 English Course

In Lois Lowry's novel, The Giver, the people of Jonas's community decided to convert their world into a "safer" place to be, which they call sameness. In order to achieve this safety, they have decided to eliminate anything they believe might cause physical or emotional conflict. Some of these dangerous aspects of the world include weather, color, choices, and deep emotions. Because of the decided changes, Jonas's world runs incredibly smoothly, but is the cost to achieve such smoothness too high? Or is a safe world worth the sacrifices?

Essay Prompt: ***Should society today convert to sameness?*** Decide whether or not sameness is worth the sacrifices it requires. Write an essay in which you try to persuade the reader either that sameness is a positive way to live or that sameness is a negative way of life.

Thesis: You should create three main reasons why you believe what you are arguing. These reasons should be more general than specific. For example, instead of saying that sameness is good because there is no sadness, say that it is good because there are no negative emotions. Or, instead of saying that sameness is bad because a person cannot choose his/her job, say sameness is harmful for a person because a person has no choices. Once you have identified three reasons, find one piece of evidence, for each reason. There will be three ***chunks*** total in this argumentative essay.

Step-by-Step Recipe

Use the following to format your essay.

I. Introductory Paragraph (Introduction):

a. Begin with an attention-grabbing hook. The hook should be a famous quotation, a startling statistics, a simile or metaphor, or a strong statement related to the main argument. Whatever hook you choose, it should relate to the essay's argument. Always avoid questions as long as it isn't a powerful rhetorical question with an anecdote. If necessary, include a bridge that connects the hook to the essay. Not all hooks need a bridge; their function is to help ensure the essay flows.

b. Follow the hook with the TAG (title, author, and genre) + plot summary.

(Appendix 14 continued)

c. Include a brief summary of what sameness is.

d. Next, write the thesis. Here, the thesis is the position taken either for or against sameness. Include three main reasons to support the argument (these will be the main three arguments of the essay).

Example: If the essay is arguing for sameness, the three reasons to argue for it might be that it relieves people of social pressure, that it allows more freedom from pain, and prevents extreme weather. The thesis might end up something like:

Sameness creates an amazing life because it relieves people of social pressure; it allows more freedom from pain; and prevents extreme weather conditions.

II. Body Paragraph One (The first argument):

a. Begin with **the first reader's (other side's) argument** for/against Sameness. For example, *Sameness would strengthen society because it relieves people of social pressure.*

b. State your **first argument against the reader's idea.** (e.g. some may say that freedom of choice allows people to choose which path to take in life and learn from his or her own mistakes.)

c. Include two sentences of **rebuttal**, explaining why other side's argument is incorrect and your argument is correct.

d. Next, write the evidence from the book. Again make sure that it explains what was happening in the novel at the time of the quotation (Who? What? When? Where?). Follow MLA Rules with citation.

e. Write two sentences of commentary. Explain how it proves that Sameness argument is good/bad as it relates to Jonas's society; be sure to relate this to the first argument. Also, explain how this aspect of sameness would be positive or negative for society today. Be sure to be academic and polite and use rebuttals that truly make sense.

(Appendix 14 continued)

f. Close the paragraph with a closing sentence that restates counterargument and your own argument.

III. Body Paragraph Two (The second argument):

a. Begin with **the second reader's (other side's) argument** for/against sameness.

b. State your **second argument against the reader's idea.**

c. Include two sentences of **rebuttal**, explaining why other side's argument is incorrect and your argument is correct.

d. Next, write the evidence from the book. Again make sure that it explains what was happening in the novel at the time of the quotation (Who? What? When? Where?). Follow MLA Rules with citation.

e. Write two sentences of commentary. Explain how it proves that sameness argument is good/bad as it relates to Jonas's society; be sure to relate this to the first argument. Also, explain how this aspect of sameness would be positive or negative for society today.

f. Close the paragraph with a closing sentence that restates counterargument and your own argument.

IV. Body Paragraph Three (The third argument):

a. Begin with **the third reader's (other side's) argument** for/against Sameness.

b. State your **third argument against the reader's idea.**

c. Include two sentences of **rebuttal**, explaining why other side's argument is incorrect and your argument is correct.

d. Next, write the evidence from the book. Again make sure that it explains what was happening in the novel at the time of the quotation (Who? What? When? Where?). Follow MLA Rules with citation.

(Appendix 14 continued)

e. Write two sentences of commentary. Explain how it proves that sameness argument is good/bad as it relates to Jonas's society; be sure to relate this to the first argument. Also, explain how this aspect of sameness would be positive or negative for society today.

f. Close the paragraph with a closing sentence that restates counterargument and your own argument.

V. Conclusion

a. Begin with a restatement of the essay's thesis. Summarize the main arguments of your essay (this is optional)

b. Add a few more sentences explaining why this way is the only acceptable way.

Did you remember…

… to put the proper heading on your paper: your name, my name, class period, date-top, left corner?

… last name and page number in the top righthand corner?

… to include three subpoints and use those as an organizational tool for the placement of your body paragraphs?

… to include three chunks?

… to double-space?

Source adapted from "The Giver- Final Persuasive Essay." *Lugoff-Elgin Middle School*. Web. 14 June 2015.

Appendix 15. Argumentative Essay Outline

INTRODUCTION

Hook:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thesis statement:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

BODY PARAGRAPHS

Paragraph #1

Statement of the counterargument #1: (Topic sentence)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Rebuttal with your own argument

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

(Appendix 15 continued)

Supporting idea(s) (evidence, examples, statistics, authorities' opinion, facts, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Paragraph #2

Statement of the counterargument #2: (Topic sentence)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Rebuttal with your own argument

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Supporting idea(s) (evidence, examples, statistics, authorities' opinion, facts, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

(Appendix 15 continued)

Paragraph #3

Statement of the counterargument #3: (Topic sentence)

Rebuttal with your own argument

Supporting idea(s) (evidence, examples, statistics, authorities' opinion, facts, etc.)

CONCLUSION

(It may include a summary of your point of view)

Appendix 16. Sample Argumentative Essays

P1
Metehan İnci
Argumentative Essay
16.02.15

Sameness or Diversity

"Conformity is the jailor of freedom and the enemy of growth" is an aphorism of John Fitzgerald Kennedy. According to this aphorism, what kind of a society would be better to live in; a society limiting people in every respect or a society which allows people to live as they wish? In the dystopian novel "The Giver" Lois Lowry discussed a society living with the rules of sameness and the main character Jonas, having unique and opposite features over his society, standing against sameness and trying to change his society. Sameness is a behavior or lifestyle that is the same as the behavior of most other people in a society. Even though some people believe that sameness is a concept that provides good results for human beings, I believe that sameness brings loss of indivudiality, lack of self-consciousness and emotions, also people without impoving and experiencing, into a society.

Some may think that sameness is a better way of living in a peaceful and safe environment. However, this thought is insufficient. A peaceful and safer society would just be on the surface, but inside there would be people without individuality and self-consciousness. According to the researches made all around the world show that, people having self-conscious live a happier and more successful life over others. Also people who don't have self-consciousness lead the society to become such place where people are not able to express themselves and share their ideas freely. For example in Turkey, people seem to have free-speech right, but they actually can't, and it is very obvious that Turkish people are not satisfied with this situation. Also this uneasiness, lead people to protest and make the environment unsafe. These are the reasons, based on studies, which indicate a society would be more peaceful and safer, with not living with the rules of sameness.

Many think that sameness creates a society where people live in harmony. However the studies supports exactly the opposite of this thought. In a society which is dominated by sameness, there is no harmony among people deeply. Diversity between

(Appendix 16—P1—continued)

people is what brings real harmony to them, because in a society which is ruled by sameness, it is impossible to find emotional bonds among people. "He wept because he was afraid now that he could not save Gabriel. He no longer care about himself" (Lowry 173). In The Giver, after Jonas left his society of sameness he started to feel emotions that he has never had before. That indicates, a society of diversity brings emotions and bonds among people. Also, studies that have been made for long times showed that diversity and different people with different features creates a more organized society and people living in harmony. A study that was made in Boston University, showed these facts exactly. In the study, a group of people with the same attributes and a group of people with different attributes (according to test results) were put in seperate houses to live together for a month. This study made for many times. The study results were against sameness, because people who were sharing the same attributes, had discrepancies more than the other group, in every respect. These studies are enough to say people who do not prefer sameness, live in harmony and have emotional bonds among them by comparison to people who prefer sameness. These emotional bonds among people also creates a society which is more organized and living in harmony.

Some people think that sameness provides people a life away from wrong decisions, so a stress-free and more comfortable life. On the other hand, I believe in the exactly opposite way. In a society of sameness, people do not make any wrong decisions, but this does not lead people to make their decisions wisely. Actually it is because of people don't make any decisions, good or bad. Instead of people, governments make the decisions as they wish, and that is something limits people's rights, as well. Also, once people learn they can decide whatever they want, they don't want any limitations about it, like Jonas in the Giver. In the Giver, once Jonas understands that he can make decisions, he shows his unhapiness about this situation angrily. "If everything is the same, then there are not any choices! I want to wake up in the morning and decide things! A blue tunic, or a red one?" (Lowry 97). Also different than making decisions, also there would be a huge problem about people's and societies' improvement. Without making any decisions nobody can improve and go further. "But they don't want change. Life here is so orderly, so predictable-so painless. It's what they've chosen." (Lowry 103) In this quote, The Giver explains his society briefly and complains about it. The most important point here is "a predictable and painless" life.

(Appendix 16—P1—continued)

Without experiencing the bad and hard sides of the life, people would make no headway and become their lives would be boring. "I attribute my success to my experiences, and my experiences are my wrong decisions" said Rahmi Koç once. This aphorism is a brief for disadvantages of not making any decisions or progress in a society of sameness.

Although some believe that living in a society that is controlled by sameness is better for everyone, I believe that living in the exact opposite way , people with self-consiousness, harmony, emotions and decisions made by themselves, is way better in every respect. I think that sameness is an obstacle for people in every part of their life, and if they can get through the sameness, than they would have happier, more successful and free lifetimes.

(Appendix 16—P4—continued)

P4

Metehan Inci

Argumentative Essay

02.21.2015

Sameness and Diversity In The Society

Could you eat the same food or wear the same clothes everyday? Would you want your friends to have the same features, same look, exact same characteristics with you? Would it be better for you, or would it be boring? Sameness is a term in which every member of a whole is the same with one another. We can also call it monotony, or lack of variety. The sameness in the dystopic story " The Giver" by Lois Lowry is a condition of which everyone in the society is limited to the same basic rights and capability of making one's own selections. By looking at this situation and to our society, some people infer that sameness has a chance to provide the order and prevent conflicts among people. However, I believe it limits freedom, violates justice in a mask of equalizer, and decreases both humans' productivity and creativity by limiting their identity.

People who defend sameness claim that sameness can gather humans into harmony and can bring order to the society. Despite this, I believe the way to create harmony does not overlap with the concept of " sameness". Even in the music, as we can observe, the feature that makes music is the combination of different notes and billions of different ways to combine them. That takes my reasoning to judge that harmony is made of the unity of different voices, not only with one. As a connection to human-life, I can propound you the comparison of the harmony between my country, Turkey, and Canada. In Turkey, people are used to be denigrated and ostracized the ones who do not have the same thoughts or lifestyles with themselves. People get killed because they are homosexual. People get labeled as prostitutes because they wear short pants. Even politicians beat one another in the assembly because of a lack of respect to a different one. This can be seen as a consequence of diversity, but why does not it

(Appendix 16—P4—continued)

happen in Canada? There are tons of different people in there. Different colors, different sexual interests, different thoughts, ideas; but not a single problem or conflict. The real thing happening in Turkey is a symbol of illiteracy, ignorance, and arrogance. And this can be fixed only with education. In other words, peace and order can be provided by diversity.

Defenders of sameness also believe that sameness brings justice. If the same rules were applied to everyone, given the same rights, than equality would be obtained, they say. What I believe is, you cannot behave the same way to everyone. Think about a normal child and a mentally retarded child. Could you give them the same education? If a kleptomaniac steals, would you put him to jail? It's an illness he or she can't stop. It would not be fair to apply the same, classical punishment of stealing to that kind of a person. Another example, a person with a fast and another with a slow metabolism. Would it be right if you have given both the same amount of food? These conditions of disparity is related with features that come from the birth, such as IQ and EQ, body types, mental characteristics and others that a person cannot change. So, it seems impossible to bring justice by treating every person in the same way, unless you have an army of clones.

Although defenders of sameness say that it protects people, I do not approve this idea since the sameness limits people's capability and right of free will. In this system, a model is given and everyone has to impersonate it. This condition can be seen in many countries right now, mostly in the eastern countries. One of the most known of these countries is North Korea. There is a model they have to be like, their hairstyles, the way they dress, the way they talk, the food they eat are all selected by their government. Sameness is totally used in there, freedom is banished, and we can see the consequences. No one gets to have the opportunity to reveal or improve his or her strengths and specialties. Everyone is same; no one does have a value. "If you don't fit in, you can apply for Elsewhere and be released" (Lowry 48) as it is told in The Giver, probably talking about the place you go after you die. And if you die, another one will be put in your place. If we look from a wider range, we can see that sameness and prevention of people's free will also avoid people's productivity and creativity. Through the history, important eras like Middle Ages or the Nazi regime in Germany are some true life examples of this consequence. People's freedom was taken from them, they

(Appendix 16—P4—continued)

were forced to confirm to the system and become robots. As a result, they were not able to get out of the boundaries and innovate anything new. Nevertheless, when freethinking and free will became legalized, all chains broke and humanity rose behind new inventions, new pieces, which generate our culture.

People might believe sameness brings equality, justice, safety, or order. For all that, my general opinion about sameness is that it is a block to freedom, lack of harmony, a term which is not about equality, only about turning people into subjects, a way to keep people passive and a structure that humiliates human value and human rights. The line keeps people away from being themselves, as unique, independent, productive individuals.

Appendix 17. Socratic Circles Reflection Form

Reflection on Performance

This section will be divided into two paragraphs: (1) a description of how you performed as an individual in the Socratic circle and (2) a description of how your group performed in both the role of the inner circle and the role of the outer circle. Again, there are no right or wrong answers here, only well-expressed opinions. You *might* consider the following questions for each paragraph:

Individual Performance

- How would you rate your preparation for this Socratic circle? Why?
- How would you rate your contributions (both the number of times you spoke and the quality of what you said) to the conversation of the inner circle? Why?
- How would you rate the level of teamwork you displayed in the inner circle? Why?
- How would you rate the quality of feedback you gave while you were in the outer circle? Why?
- How could you personally have improved what transpired during the Socratic circle?
- What goals do you have for your next Socratic circle performance?

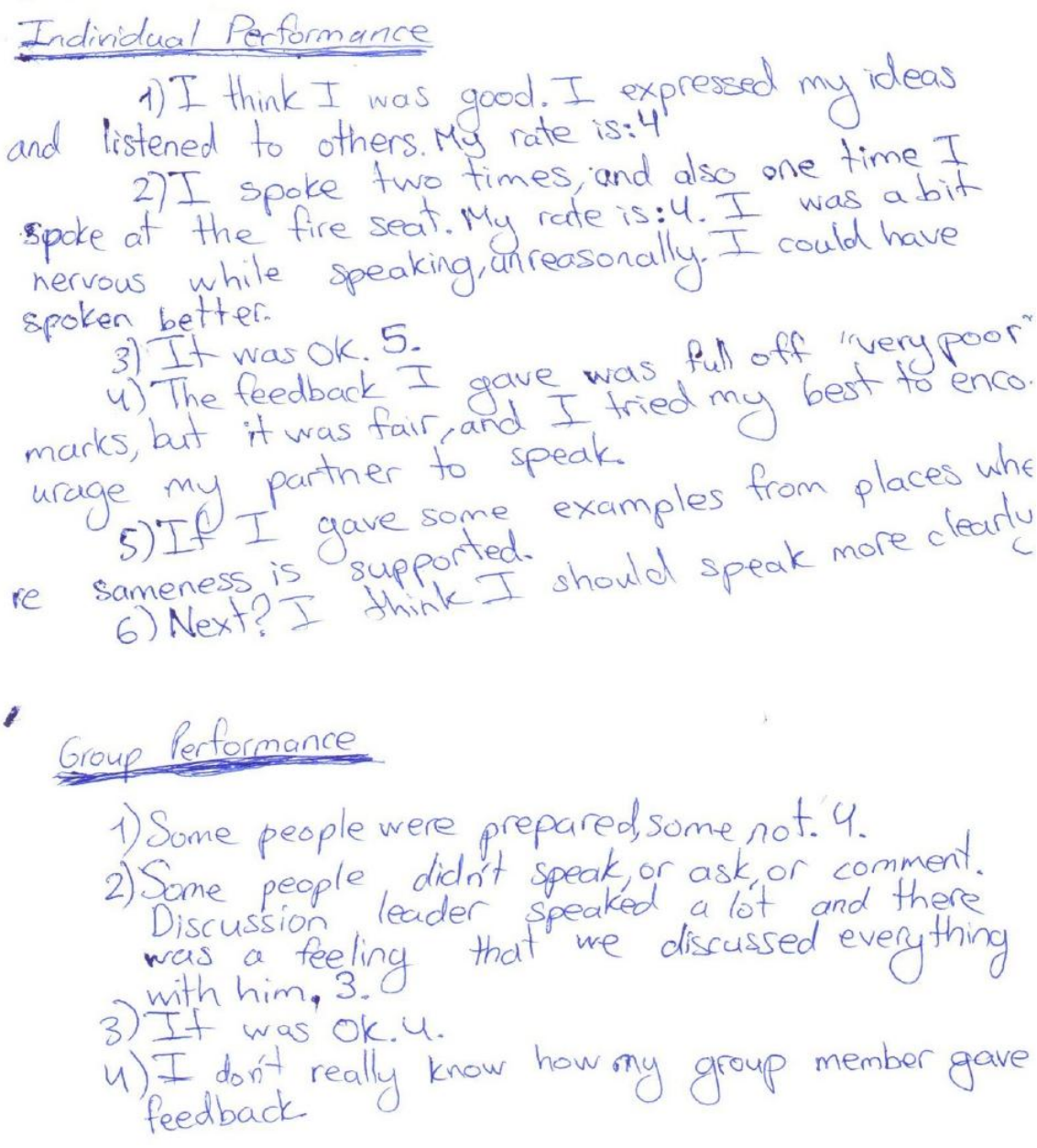
Group Performance

- How would you rate your group's preparation for this Socratic circle? Why?
- How would you rate the quality of the overall conversation of your inner circle? Why?
- How would you rate the level of teamwork displayed by your inner circle? Why?
- How would you rate the quality of feedback your group gave while in the outer circle? Why?

ht © 2005. Stenhouse Publishers.

(Copeland, 2005, 156)

Appendix 18. A Sample Socratic Circles Reflection Form



Individual Performance

1) I think I was good. I expressed my ideas and listened to others. My rate is: 4

2) I spoke two times, and also one time I spoke at the fire seat. My rate is: 4. I was a bit nervous while speaking, unreasonally. I could have spoken better.

3) It was OK. 5.

4) The feedback I gave was full off "very poor" marks, but it was fair, and I tried my best to encourage my partner to speak.

5) If I gave some examples from places where sameness is supported.

6) Next? I think I should speak more clearly

Group Performance

1) Some people were prepared, some not. 4.

2) Some people didn't speak, or ask, or comment. Discussion leader speaked a lot and there was a feeling that we discussed everything with him, 3.

3) It was OK. 4.

4) I don't really know how my group member gave feedback

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Name : Metehan INCI

Date / Place of Birth : 22. 06. 1979 Adana

Occupation: English and IB Film teacher, Tarsus American College

E-mail : meteinci@gmail.com , minci@tac.k12.tr .

Educational Background

Date	Degree	Institution	Field
2009-2016	Master of Arts	Çukurova University, Social Sciences	English Language Teaching
2010-2015	Master of Arts	Dalarna University, School of Humanities and Media Studies	English Literature
1998-2002	Bachelor of Arts	Marmara University, Faculty of Education	English Language Teaching

Job Experience

Date	Title	Institution
2011-present	English, IB Film Teacher	Tarsus American College
2007-2010	EFL Teacher	Uzman School of English
2006	EFL Teacher	Deulcom Language School
2003-2006	EFL Teacher	Discover Education Center
2002-2003	EFL Teacher	SDM Language School