

THE CODE OF THE DEBATER:

Introduction to the Way of Reason

Alfred C. Snider

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements & Thanks	2	Part Four: Debaters have skills	64
Part One: Initiation	3	Speaking	65
What is debate?	4	Flowing	67
Why debate?	5	Speaking drills	71
What is debate all about?	6	Organization	75
Outline of a debate	9	Debating as a team	79
Start debating right away	11	Cross examination	80
Code of the Debater	13	Evidence	82
Part Two: Basic knowledge	14	Evidence drills	83
The affirmative case	15	Research	84
Attacking the affirmative case	21	Briefing	95
The disadvantage	30	Analysis drills	97
The counterplan	34	Rebuttals	98
The process of critique	37	Adapting to judges	100
The topicality argument	42	Part Five: Endless journey	103
Part Three: Debate steps	47	The better debater	104
1AC	48	How the decision gets made	106
1NC	49	Cross application of ideas	108
2AC	50	Strategic handling of disadvantages	109
2NC	52	Magic words used by debaters	112
1NR	54		
1AR	55		
2NR	57		
2AR	60		
Timeline for a debate	61	Appendices	
		Appendix One: Videos	124
		Appendix Two: Sample flow	125
		Appendix Three: Sample brief	126
		Appendix Four: Websites	127

Sponsored by the Open Society Institute, the World Debate Institute, and the Univ. of Vermont.

MAIL: Alfred C. Snider, Speech & Debate, 475 Main Street, UVM, Burlington, VT 05405

EMAIL: asnider@zoo.uvm.edu

WEB: <http://debate.uvm.edu>

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

While my name is on the cover and I am very willing to accept any and all blame for errors and faults found in this volume, this is certainly not something that I have authored alone. Since 1972 I have been gathering and evaluating debate training materials for my own use. I have stolen every good teaching technique I have ever encountered.

One main source I have borrowed from is the Emory National Debate Institute. Melissa Wade and the Barkley Forum at Emory University have been national leaders in developing training materials for new debaters. Year after year they have refined their materials. The 1999 ENDI policy training manual was the best single debate training document I have ever seen. My sincere thanks and gratitude to Melissa Wade, Bill Newnam, Joe Bellon, Anne Marie Todd and all of those at Emory who have worked through the years to produce these materials.

Another major source I have borrowed from has been the World Debate Institute held each summer at the University of Vermont. This program has also emphasized producing training materials for new debaters over a period of 18 years.

Where other people's works have been used I have tried to refer to them and give credit where credit is due.

I want to specifically thank the Open Society Institute for its support in this project. Their compulsion to bring debate to communities which really need it has been an inspiration to me.

I want to thank the many, many novice debaters I have worked with through the years who have taught me what works and what doesn't work. I have, of course, not fully learned this lesson from them, but I am still ready to learn more.

This volume has been produced in tandem with a 14-tape series of instructional videos sponsored by the Open Society Institute and distributed nationally to Urban Debate League schools. While the entire series is not available, a simple 15 part video novice training series is available free at <http://debate.uvm.edu/broadcast.html>, and also available on CD-ROM at <http://debate.uvm.edu/ee.html>.

Debate isn't just another game and it isn't just another educational activity. It is a path of critical advocacy which is life changing and empowering. I invite you to learn the code of the debater and follow the way of reason.

Alfred C. Snider, University of Vermont
November, 1999

PART ONE

INITIATION

What is debate?	4
Why debate?	5
What is debate all about?	6
Outline of a debate	9
Start debating right away	11
Code of the Debater	13

WHAT IS DEBATE?

Debate is about change. We are constantly engaged in a struggle to make our lives, our community, our country, our world, our future, a better one. We should never be satisfied with the way things are now - surely there is something in our lives that could be improved.

Debate is that process which determines how change should come about. Debate attempts to justify changing the way we think and live. In the real world, debate occurs everyday on the floor of the United States Senate and the United States House of Representatives. Debate occurs at the United Nations, the faculty meetings at your school, and at your dinner table. The procedures for these debates may differ, but the process is the same - discussion that resolves an issue which will determine whether change is good or bad. The United Nations debated whether or not the Iraq invasion of Kuwait was good or bad; the faculty meetings debate school policies; you may recently have debated with your parents after dinner about the size of your allowance or when you can begin to drive your own car.

In the classroom, we will attempt to "formalize" this debate process.

- 1 . You will work with a partner. You and your partner form a "debate team". Sometimes you will have to be for the issue (the affirmative) and sometimes you will have to be against the issue (negative). In any instance, you will have plenty of time to get ready for the debate.
2. You will deliver speeches in a format that is unique to debate. The speeches are called constructives and rebuttals. Each person on each team will speak twice. There are affirmative constructives and negative constructives. There are affirmative rebuttals and negative rebuttals.
3. You will learn rules and techniques that will seem strange to you. The way we learn how to debate may at first seem difficult. But once you take on the challenge, you will begin to understand its relationship to debating. The most difficult part of debate is the first few weeks, after that it gets easier and easier once you have learned the rules.
3. We will debate only one resolution. Most of our emphasis will be on competitive or tournament debating. In order to compete at tournaments and to give the debaters sufficient time to prepare, a standard topic or resolution is used all year. Thousands of high schools at this very minute are researching and debating the very same issues and ideas that you will be. The resolution determines the debate area. From this area there can be thousands of issues so that all of the debates are never the same and are always changing.
3. Those students who want to be challenged can participate in debate tournaments against other high schools during the school year.

WHY DEBATE?

Debating can take time and effort. Millions of students have, through the years, found that it is more than worth it.

Debating is fun. You debate with a partner and against other students. You and your team at school become a debate squad, a community, where you work for and with each other to win. You will make friends and meet lots of interesting new people. You will engage in thrilling contests and travel outside of your school.

Debating is a sport of the mind and voice. You compete using your brain and your mouth. You have a chance to win and even when you don't win you learn. Unlike some sports, where you need to be fast, tall, big or something else physical, debate is for everyone. You don't have to be book-smart or test-smart to be a good debater. If you feel you can learn and if you think you are clever, debate is for you. Even if you don't think you are talented in any special way, debate can improve the abilities you already have.

Debating is controlled by you. You get to speak, you get to pick the arguments, and you get to use your strategy. Instead of being told what to do and told what to study, in debate you can create your own learning project and follow ideas and issues which interest you.

Debating creates the skills you need for success. Studies show that employers and colleges are looking for students with oral communication skills, and debate is based on developing oral communication skills. Studies also show that those with good oral communication skills are identified as "leaders" by others and get promoted faster on the job. Unlike some activities and areas of study, debating will help you succeed wherever your life may lead you.

Debate can give you the power to change things. Things need changing, and your voice can be a powerful instrument for change -- in your school, in your community, in your nation, in the world. Malcolm X's life was turned around in prison when he learned how to debate. Listen to what **Malcolm X** later wrote about it:

"I've told how debating was a weekly event there, at the Norfolk prison colony. My reading had my mind like steam under pressure. Some way, I had to start telling the white man about himself to his face. I decided I could do this by putting my name down to debate ... Once my feet got wet, I was gone on debating. Whichever side of the selected subject was assigned to me, I'd track down and study everything I could find on it. I'd put myself in my opponents' place, and decide how I'd try to win if I had the other side; I'd figure a way to knock down all those points." **[Autobiography of Malcolm X, 1964]**

Debating is not just for geeks or nerds. Malcolm X, Marcus Garvey, John F. Kennedy, and many others loved debate, and you can't say they were nerds.

WHAT IS DEBATE ALL ABOUT?

The Elements of Debate (Adapted From the Peach State Debate Classic Handbook)

The Debate Tournament

Debate tournaments are held so that students from various schools can gather and compete in order to determine who has a superior plan to solve a problem that exists within the present system. When one arrives at the tournament location, it is generally a good idea to wait in the main lobby or in the student center where the pairings are posted. It is relatively easy to locate this place by following the largest crowd of people. The pairings or schematics are lists indicating the teams that are debating, the room number, and the judge. There is a different pairing for every round. Generally, the debate rounds occur in classrooms. After one reads the pairing, it is a wise idea to find the assigned room as soon as possible so as not to delay the tournament. Maps are often available to help find the location of the rooms.

When both of the teams and the judge arrive in the room, the round begins. Most students do not have a clear idea of what to do in the first few debate rounds. When unsure about procedures, one should not hesitate to ask the judge for help. Eventually one becomes more comfortable debating and the nervousness will subside.

There are usually several preliminary rounds in a tournament. All teams present at the tournament participate in these rounds. Sometimes, there are also elimination rounds. Generally the top teams advance to the elimination rounds. Once elimination rounds begin, the team who wins a debate round advance while the other team is eliminated from the tournament. The teams with the best record in the preliminary rounds advance to the elimination rounds. A novice can benefit greatly by watching the more experienced debaters in these rounds.

Explanation of the Resolution

The purpose of the resolution is to limit the debate. The resolution allows for an even distribution of ground for both the affirmative and negative teams. For example, the resolution for the 1999-2000 high school debate season is:

Resolved: That the federal government should establish an education policy to significantly increase academic achievement in secondary schools in the United States.

Stock Issues and the Resolution

The stock issues are the affirmative burdens that have traditionally been used to show that the affirmative case is a good example of the resolution. These stock issues are called "prima facie" (Latin, on first look), that is, the affirmative must meet these burdens to win the round because the burden of proof lies with the affirmative.

Topicality

Topicality is the stock issue that insures that the affirmative team stays within the framework of the resolution. The topic is like the "assignment" for the debate. Just like a paper for a class,

it has to be on the topic assigned. If you don't debate your side of the topic, you flunk the assignment and lose the debate.

Significance and Harms

Significance and harms deal with the importance of the problem. Harms can be defined as the results which would occur if the problem were not solved. Significance evaluates the importance of the harms.

Solvency

Solvency is the measure of whether or not, or to what degree, the affirmative's plan solves for the problem it identifies. If the affirmative's plan does not solve the harms, there would be no need to put it into effect.

Inherency

Inherency refers to the necessity of resolutinal action. For instance, if the affirmative team proposes that building landfills in the U.S. would clean up pollution, the affirmative would be non-inherent because there are already landfills in the U.S. Inherency is important because if the plan is already in action, there would be no need to enact it again.

Fiat

Fiat (French, let it be so) is the assumption that the affirmative team's plan is going to be put into effect. This assumption avoids reducing debate to a question of will Congress pass and put the plan into operation. Fiat is generally derived from the word "should" in the resolution. The debaters are debating whether the plan "should" be enacted rather than whether it would be enacted.

Speech Order and Responsibilities

The constructive speeches are used to build the arguments that the affirmative and negative teams hope to win. The rebuttals are used to solidify the position taken by each team and to convey to the judge why he/she should vote for one team over the other.

1AC – The first speaker is from the affirmative side. The 1AC's responsibility is to present a case and plan which falls under the current resolution and is the basis for the debate which is to follow. This speech is the only one that is prewritten.

1NC – The second speaker is from the negative team. The 1NC strategy will vary according to the case which is presented in the previous speech (1AC) by the affirmative. The 1NC usually consists of disadvantages, topicality arguments, and other negative arguments such as case attacks.

2AC – The obligation of this speaker is to answer the arguments put out by the INC.

2NC – This speech may be used to enter new arguments into the round, but is usually used to point out errors in the affirmative arguments. This speech is also used to extend the arguments generated by the 1NC and to respond to the 2AC

1NR – The first in a series of rebuttal speeches, this speech covers what the 2NC did not answer that the negative feels is important.

1AR – This is the first affirmative rebuttal speech. This speaker is responsible for covering the negative arguments from their two speeches. This person must have the ability to speak well in order to cover all the affirmative arguments, making the 1AR one of the most difficult speeches in the debate round.

2NR – This speech is used to explain to the judge why he/she should vote for the negative rather than the affirmative team. All arguments in the round should be clear by this point. The 2NR should use this time to emphasize the arguments from the 2NC and 1NR.

2AR – This speech, the last of the rebuttal speeches, presents the last opportunity for the affirmative to make an impression on the judge. At this point in the round, the affirmative team should have explained to the judge why the affirmative has won the round, and why the case outweighs the harms of the disadvantages.

Cross Examination

A three minute period of time between the constructive speeches which allows each speaker to ask the other questions in order to clarify arguments.

Cross-Examination Order

IA Cross-Examined by 2N

IN Cross-Examined by 1A

2A Cross-Examined by IN

2N Cross-Examined by 2A

Judges

Judges are the people who decide the outcome of the debate round. In preliminary rounds there is usually one judge per round with three or more judges in elimination rounds. Besides deciding who wins and loses the round, the judge ranks and assigns speaker points to each debater. The debaters are ranked first, second, third, or fourth with first being the best. Points are given from one to thirty with thirty being the very best. Judges rarely give below twenty and then only in extreme circumstance. The rank and points a debater receives rates how well a debater speaks, enunciates, and presents arguments. Because of these conditions, the judge should be the one whom the debaters address during the round, not each other.

Regardless of the philosophy of the judge, he/she does not like to intervene. Judges like the debaters to decide the outcome and to weigh the arguments in the last speeches.

After the round, the judge may, if time allows, give a critique of the debater's performance and make suggestions for improvement.

OUTLINE OF A DEBATE

Many of the words identified in **bold** will be concepts you will need to learn more about as you get deeper into debating. There is a glossary of terms at the end of this book.

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (1AC)

8 minutes

Establishes affirmatives advocacy of resolution.

There is a problem that could be solved - **SIGNIFICANCE, HARM, ADVANTAGE**

The status quo isn't going to solve this problem without change - **INHERENCY**

Here is our specific proposal of what ought to be done - **PLAN**

Our plan will solve the problem/harm - **SOLVENCY**

SECOND NEGATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 1AC

3 minutes

1. Ask question to help you understand their arguments. **GET INFORMATION**
1. Ask questions to set up your arguments to come. **USE ANSWERS AGAINST THEM LATER**
1. Show the judge what a wonderful person you are. **ACT LIKE A POLITE, FRIENDLY PERSON.**

FIRST NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (1NC)

8 minutes

Attacks affirmative and begins laying out additional issues negative

Make arguments against the specifics of the aff case. **CASE ARGUMENTS.**

Argue that if the plan is adopted bad things will happen. **DISADVANTAGES.**

Argue that the fundamental assumptions of the affirmative are flawed/incorrect. **CRITIQUE.**

Argue that the plan is not a representation of the topic. **TOPICALITY.**

Argue that there would be a better alternative to the plan. **COUNTERPLAN**

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 1NC

3 minutes

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (2AC)

8 minutes

Defend aff positions, attack negative positions, last chance to introduce new issues for aff.

Argue that the disadvantages are really reasons to vote affirmative. **TURNS.**

Argue that the counterplan and the affirmative plan can co-exist.
PERMUTATIONS.

FIRST NEGATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 2AC

3 minutes

SECOND NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECH (2NC)

8 minutes

Attack aff positions, defend negative positions, last chance to introduce new issues for the neg.

2NC and 1NR should cover different issues. **DIVISION OF LABOR.**

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE SPEAKER CROSS EXAMINES 2NC

3 minutes

FIRST NEGATIVE REBUTTAL (1NR)

4 minutes

Attack aff positions, defend neg positions. . **DIVISION OF LABOR.**

FIRST AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL (1AR)

4 minutes

Answer all neg issues, defend aff positions.

SECOND NEGATIVE REBUTTAL (2NR)

4 minutes

Select winning issues and sell them to critic. **WEIGH THE ISSUES.**

SECOND AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL (2AR)

4 minutes

Select winning issues and sell them to critic. **WEIGH THE ISSUES.**

Teams are given a total of 5-10 minutes prep time to use before their speeches. It is different at different tournaments.

Shake Hands. See if the judge has any comments.

START DEBATING RIGHT AWAY

YOU CAN START DEBATING RIGHT AWAY IN YOUR CLASSROOM

HAVE A PUBLIC ASSEMBLY DEBATE

This is a chance for new debaters to begin thinking about the topic and get some public speaking experience in as well. We have suggested an issue for you to use, but you can come up with one on your own as well.

This exercise is modeled after the old-fashioned Vermont town meeting. We will be discussing a topical issue. Feel free to raise you hand and be called on to make a short speech in support or in opposition to the motion we will be considering. Simply raise your hand, be recognized, come to the front of the room, introduce yourself, and say what you wish. Go on as long as you want within sensible limits, encourage everyone to speak, but if some want to watch without speaking that's fine.

As the exercise goes on, feel free to stand up and agree or disagree with something another speaker has said. You can appoint a student as the chair, to call on people, or the teacher can do that ... or the teacher can just be another member of the assembly and give a speech.

THE ISSUE: Ability grouping in schools, also known as "tracking." Students have their abilities evaluated and then are put in classes and learning situations which are considered "appropriate" for their abilities. High, medium, and low ability students in any given subject area are, therefore, grouped together.

THE MOTION: This assembly believes that ability grouping, or "tracking," should not be used in assigning students to classes or learning opportunities, including but no limited to science, mathematics, history, and English. Students may still be assigned to classes based on their grade in school or on having fulfilled prerequisite courses.

HAVE A DEBATE SKIRMISH

Pick an issue which interests you and other students. You can pick any issue you want to be the topic, but we have given you an example. It is always good to pick something which interests and concerns the students.

TOPIC: High school should be voluntary like it is in Japan.

Form two two-person teams, one affirmative and one negative. Take 10-15 minutes to have a general discussion about the issues on both sides, write them on the board. During this time the two teams can be formulating their ideas and strategies. After the discussion give them 5 minutes to think of what arguments they will be using.

Have a very short debate like the following:

First Affirmative Speaker - 3 minutes

First Negative Speaker - 3 minutes

Second Affirmative Speaker - 3 minutes

Second Negative Speaker - 3 minutes

Take Questions for both sides from the audience or from each other - 10 minutes

Concluding Negative Speech - 3 minutes

Concluding Affirmative Speech - 3 minutes

Each debate takes about 30 minutes. After you have had one debate and discussed it, in the next class period you can have two other debates by different students on the same topic.

YOU ARE NOW A DEBATER! SAY THE DEBATER'S CODE AND MOVE RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT SECTION!

THE CODE OF THE DEBATER

I am a debater.

I attempt to be worthy of this title by striving to observe the code of the debater.

FOR MYSELF:

I will research my topic and know what I am talking about.

I will respect the subject matter of my debates.

I will choose persuasion over coercion and violence.

I will learn from victory and especially from defeat.

I will be a generous winner and a gracious loser.

I will remember and respect where I came even though I am now a citizen of the world.

I will apply my criticism of others to myself.

I will strive to see myself in others.

I will, in a debate, use the best arguments I can to support the side I am on.

I will, in life, use the best arguments I can to determine which side I am on.

FOR OTHERS:

I will respect their rights to freedom of speech and expression, even though we may disagree.

I will respect my partners, opponents, judges, coaches, and tournament officials.

I will be honest about my arguments and evidence and those of others.

I will help those with less experience, because I am both student and teacher.

I will be an advocate in life, siding with those in need and willing to speak truth to power.

PART TWO: BASIC KNOWLEDGE

The affirmative case	15
Attacking the case	21
The disadvantage	30
The counterplan	34
The process of critique	37
The topicality argument	42

THE AFFIRMATIVE CASE

WHY AFFIRMATIVE IS COOL

✓ YOUR GROUND.

You get to decide what it is you want to talk about and what you want to do. The ideas are in your control.

✓ YOUR TRAP

You can set traps for negative teams, hide answers to their arguments, lure them into supporting weak arguments. Affirmative debating is a great place to learn and develop communication strategies which you can apply later.

✓ YOUR ADVOCACY

You can decide what you want to stand for, what you want to be an advocate of. You have a chance to propose changes you favor in a public forum and other people have to oppose you and test your ideas. In the future you will need to stand up and be an advocate, and now is the time to get the training you will need!

SELECTION OF AN AFFIRMATIVE CASE

Many beginning debaters are "given" an affirmative case to use. That's a good way to start, but before long you need to be able to develop your own affirmative case. Even if you are "given" a case, change it, add rhetoric, make it YOURS. When it comes time to write your own affirmative case, here are some things to keep in mind.

✓ STRONG LITERATURE

You will need good evidence. It is nice if your case idea has articles and books written about it so that you can learn to marshal the data and facts to fulfill your purpose. Don't be afraid if there is a lot of evidence about your idea, because since you initiate this discussion you should almost always be ahead of your opposition if you know the literature.

✓ LITERATURE SLANTED YOUR WAY

Don't be afraid if there is evidence that goes against your case, since there probably are no truly perfect ideas. It is best if there is evidence both ways so you can predict the negative arguments, but you also want the preponderance of evidence to be in favor of your side of the issue. Then you can always say that the majority of experts support your position.

✓ YOUR ADVOCACY: BETTER, DEEPER, FEWER CONTRADICTIONS

When you pick a case area that you believe in you will do a better job of debating. You will be more interested in learning about it so research and preparation will be easier. You will also make fewer contradictions when you debate because the affirmative case you are supporting fits in with your other beliefs and values.

✓ PREDICTABLE NEGATIVE

It is nice to pick an affirmative case that has a predictable negative approach. If you find that the negative evidence against your case tends to say the same things over

and over again that is a good thing, because you will be able to prepare for a relatively small number of negative arguments.

✓ AVOID OR TURN MOST POPULAR ARGUMENTS

Certain negative arguments on many topics become very predictable and very widespread. Identify the most popular generic negative arguments and then design your case so that it answers, better yet, turns these arguments. Unimaginative debaters will use the same generic arguments every time, and you want to be in a position to get victory after victory over them.

✓ POPULARITY OF CASE AREA

Negative teams prepare most against the most popular cases. So, you might not want to use the affirmative case which is most common in your region. If your case is slightly unusual the negative team may well be unprepared and debating it for the first time.

PREPARATION

Preparing an affirmative case is all about research and organizing your research and your ideas. Research may be one of the most important skills you will learn in debate. This is the information age, and being able to mine information is like being able to mine gold. Start learning now so you can find some big nuggets later in life!

✓ RESEARCH: SCAN AVAILABLE LITERATURE AREAS

Go to the library and start by doing a search. Scan is the important word here. You don't start reading whatever you find or you will never get anywhere. You need to SCAN what a library has and see what the best materials are and read them first. Use the RESEARCH guide in this book. Make sure to look for ALL KINDS of literature on your subject, including books, professional journals in your area of research, government documents, internet sites, general periodicals and newspapers, and specific prints put out by specialty groups in your field of research.

✓ HOW TO READ: SCANNING PROCESS

Once you have found a variety of materials sort it out and start looking at the BEST items first. Once again, SCAN is the important word here. Don't just pick up a book and start reading it at the first word until you get to the end. You will never finish that way. Instead, pick up a book and SCAN it -- look at the chapter headings and find the ones likely to have what you want and SCAN them first. When you SCAN a chapter read the first few paragraphs and the last few paragraphs. If they look good, then SCAN the chapter a paragraph at a time. You SCAN a paragraph by reading the first and last sentences. If they look good for your research area, then read the entire paragraph. This way you only read the paragraphs that you really need, not hundreds of pages of irrelevant stuff. Don't forget to look up the keywords about your case in the INDEX of the book. Do much the same thing with articles and other publication. Learn to SCAN vast bodies of literature to find exactly what you need and you will be a winner in the information age.

✓ AWARENESS OF NEGATIVE ARGUMENTS, CUT THEM

Make sure to find and process the negative evidence and arguments as well. You don't understand your case fully until you understand the arguments against it. Use the evidence processing guidelines found in the EVIDENCE section of his book.

✓ SORTING OF EVIDENCE: DO IT STOCK ISSUES STYLE

After you have some evidence you need to sort it based on what it says. The best way is to sort it out based on stock issues. You should have categories like: significance, inherency, solvency/plan, negative, answers to disadvantages, etc. Always think about what argument the evidence relates to when sorting it, do not sort it based on key words. For example, it would be a mistake to put all the cards about "teachers" in one pile, as they might say teachers are good, teachers are bad, teachers hate the plan, the plan improves teaching, etc. You need to sort evidence based on how you will use it in the debate.

✓ IDENTIFY MISSING EVIDENCE OR EVIDENCE WEAKNESSES

Make sure to pay attention to the evidence that you NEED that you are not finding. You will have to do a special search for such evidence or else figure out a way to use your affirmative case without it.

CONSTRUCTION OF AFFIRMATIVE CASE - THE FIRST AFFIRMATIVE SPEECH

The first affirmative speech is the judge's first impression of you, and we know first impressions are very important. Make sure it gives them a good first impression of you and your ideas.

✓ STYLE & RHETORIC

Use colorful but sophisticated language. Don't just have evidence card after evidence card, also put in strong statements explaining what the evidence proves and why your arguments are important. Use your language to EXPLAIN your case to the judge. Show style and class in your use of language.

✓ DIFFERENT VERSIONS FOR DIFFERENT JUDGES

You might want to have different 1ACs for different judges. Some judges like a slower speech, others a faster speech. Have two different versions so that you don't have to do last minute editing and changing of your 1AC right before the debate starts.

✓ THESIS STATEMENT

In the beginning of your 1AC read the resolution and then give two or three sentences which explain the thesis behind your case. It is always a good idea to have the judge on board with your general ideas before you start presenting evidence and subpoints.

✓ CONTENTIONS AND TAGS

Keep your contentions few and clear. Have your contentions match the stock issues whenever you can. Make the wording of the contentions clear and simple so that judges can write them down easily. Don't go crazy with too many little subpoints, make your ideas sound big, not fragmented and trivial. Don't be afraid to repeat important contentions so that judges will be sure to get them.

✓ SEQUENCING: USE A LOGICAL ORDER

Put your arguments in meaningful groups, such as all the arguments about why the plan solves the problem in one contention. Also, follow a problem-solution format in building your speech. For example try this pattern: problem (significance), cause (inherency), solution (plan), workability (solvency). That makes sense to a judge and to most people.

✓ INHERENCY: FRAUGHT WITH PROBLEMS IN OTHER AREAS, BUT NEEDED

You have to have inherency. Watch out, though, it can get you in trouble. Look at the Inherency section of the ATTACKING CASE part of this book for an explanation. There are several kinds of inherency you can choose from.

✓ ATTITUDINAL

People, policy makers, or others do not like the plan or do not want the problem solved.

✓ STRUCTURAL

Laws, regulations, or physical constraints stop the plan or stop the solution to the problem.

✓ HARMS INHERENCY

The way we try and solve the problem now is a BAD one, creating harms, and the affirmative plan would solve the problem without these harms.

✓ EXISTENTIAL

Not a very strong inherency, but people use it. The argument here is that if the problem exists and persists there must be an inherency which "exists" somewhere out there.

✓ SIGNIFICANCE, IMPACT, ADVANTAGE

The next stock issue is significance. Make sure to spell this out clearly to make the need for your plan seem important. There are a number of ways to do this.

✓ ADVANTAGE VS. HARM

Advantages and harms say the same thing in a little different way. An advantage says that if we adopt the plan things will be better, while a harm states that bad things are happening now and we need to stop them. Advantages are best when your impact is in the future, harms are better when our impact is in the present.

✓ QUALITATIVE DIMENSIONS

Every impact and bit of significance talks about some bad thing that needs to be avoided. Sometimes it is a qualitative statement, in that it is not susceptible to numerical evaluation. You can't assign a dollar value to freedom or a weight to beauty, because these are qualitative concepts. Nevertheless they are very important. Very few thinking people would sell themselves into slavery, for example, at any price.

✓ QUALITATIVE DIMENSIONS

Some impacts are clear in their implications and need only be counted. Deaths, illnesses, children in poverty, these are all things which we readily accept as being bad, so the only question is how many of them can you specify in your case? Find big harms and then find big numbers to represent them.

✓ EMOTIONALLY LOADED

Find harms that pull at people's hearts. Show compassion and concern for those you identify in your case as being harmed, because after all, it is they you are advocating for.

✓ PLAN

Your plan is what you really advocate and is the most strategic portion of your affirmative case. Make sure it is clearly and carefully written. Here are some suggestions for plan construction.

✓ MATCH THE RESOLUTION

Use as many of the words in the resolution as you can in your plan, because it makes it sound a lot more topical.

✓ AGENT: SINGULAR OR INCENTIVE ORIENTED

You need some agent to carry out your plan. Certainly you need to use the agent identified in the resolution (such as the federal government), but beyond that you should indicate what part of that agent will implement the plan. As well, you might want to have the agent in the resolution give incentives to other groups or levels of government to carry out the plan.

✓ ACTION: WHAT, HOW MUCH, NOW LONG, MODEL, ADVOCATE

You need to specify the action in your plan. What is it that will be done? How much will you do it? How long will it take to implement the plan? You might consider using a model program as a guide for your plan ("We will do nationally what they do in Wisconsin"). This makes it easier to defend your plan as working, since it works in Wisconsin. You might also want to identify an advocate, probably someone you have good solvency evidence from, by saying "We will adopt the school voucher proposal presented by Dr. Ivan Feelgood of the University of Montana." Again, that may make proving solvency easier.

✓ FUNDING: NORMAL VS. TARGETED

You need to pay for the plan. You can do that by either using "normal means" (money gets appropriated by Congress like normal) or you can have targeted funding (such as cuts in a new and expensive bomber for the military). Either way, you need to be able to say how you pay.

✓ ENFORCEMENT: NORMAL VS. TARGETED

You need to make sure the plan has the force of law, or else people who don't like it will simply ignore it. You can utilize normal means for enforcement (executive branch, police, courts) or you can have a specific agent to enforce it (Inspector General of the United States).

✓ INTERPRETATION

Your plan can never be complete because your speech is limited in length. You might indicate in your plan that affirmative speeches will clarify plan particulars if necessary. After all, you don't want the negative clarifying what the plan does.

✓ SOLVENCY

Solvency is the most important of the stock issues the affirmative must prove in 1AC. You get no credit for pointing to a problem, only credit for solving it. This is also the stock issue the negative is most likely to attack.

✓ HOW IT HAPPENS AND WHY

Make sure your solvency evidence and your rhetoric explains to the judge how and why your plan solves the problem or gains the advantage. These explanations will help you defend against negative attacks. Judges hate to vote for plans when they don't understand how they work.

✓ RANGE OF SOLVENCY

Indicate how much of the problem you will be able to solve. Don't worry that you can't solve all of the problem, because your plan will still be a good idea even if it isn't perfect. However, you need to be able to indicate a range of solvency: we solve some important part of the problem, we solve half the problem, we solve almost all of the problem, we solve all of the problem. As long as you can sole SOME of the problem you have met the solvency burden, but the more you solve the better off you will be.

✓ USING A MODEL OR EXAMPLE

Feel free to copy some plan which has already shown itself to be successful. Then read the results of that specific program as your solvency evidence.

✓ SOLVENCY ADVOCATE

While not essential, judges generally like it and many negatives will demand it -- some specific author who says your plan is a good idea.

✓ OVERCOME THE INHERENCIES

If you identify inherent barriers make sure your plan can overcome them.

✓ FRONTLOADING: MOST NEEDED EVIDENCE FOR 2AC

Also put evidence in the 1AC which you can use later. Hide it somewhere, and then in 2AC you can use it without having to waste the time reading it. For example, you can hide evidence to turn the disadvantages, evidence to permute the counterplan, and independent solvency evidence. Often a good place to hide such evidence is near the end of the 1AC because the negative is all concerned about what they are going to say in the 1NC and the bottom of the 1AC is probably the last place they will get to in their 1NC.

BRIEFING/FRONTLINES

You will need to write briefs to answer expected negative arguments. These are called 2AC frontlines, your first line of response to negative attack. Here are some suggestions about this process.

✓ CREATE BRIEFS TO ANSWER ARGUMENTS, NOT JUST AS EVIDENCE

CATEGORIES

✓ GENERALLY: BEST CARD FIRST, ALTHOUGH DISAD ANSWERS MIGHT BURY THE BEST CARD.

✓ LIST NEGATIVE CASE ARGUMENTS AND PREPARE ANSWERS.

✓ ALWAYS MIX EVIDENCE AND REASONED RESPONSES.

✓ TOPICALITY: EACH AND EVERY WORD: DEFINITION, WE MEET

✓ COUNTERPLANS: COMPETITION, TURNING ANSWERING

✓ DISADVANTAGES: FULL RANGE OF RESPONSES, ESPECIALLY TURNS

✓ CRITIQUES: GENERAL AND SPECIFIC CRITIQUE ANSWERS. SOLVING THE CRITIQUE.

✓ BACKGROUND AND DATA ON PLAN, STUDIES, AUTHORS

✓ ANTICIPATE CONTRADICTIONS.

✓ CREATE AN INDEX, CONSIDER AN EXPANDO/ACCORDION FILE FOR YOUR AFF.

ATTACKING THE AFFIRMATIVE CASE

One of the defining characteristics of debate is clash. Specific disagreement is what judges look for in deciding who did the better job of debating. The center of that clash experience is the negative team's analysis and refutation of the first affirmative speech -- the affirmative case. This section is a little longer than the others because we are going to cover some other important concepts, like how to attack evidence and how to make challenges.

PART ONE: GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

A. GOALS OF ATTACKING THE AFFIRMATIVE CASE

1. ATTACK THEIR HARMS – Eliminate affirmative impact scenarios

The affirmative will try and establish specific scenarios, stories, or logical conclusions to reinforce their general claim about the resolution. Usually some sort of social problem or area of controversy will be discussed. The affirmative will attempt to show that their conclusions would be preferable. A scenario can be thought of as a complete story of this sort. A scenario would specify a series of events involving actors which results in some sort of outcome. An incomplete scenario would be far preferable for the negative than allowing the affirmative to win a complete scenario. The negative must commit itself to allowing no complete affirmative scenarios to be sustained in the debate. Preferably, affirmative scenarios should be eliminated by negative arguments, but since that is rarely the case in a good debate the negative commitment should be to challenging and limiting all affirmative scenarios.

2. USE CASE TURNS -Plant argumentative time bombs

A turn is an argument that captures what the other team is saying and "turns the tables" on them. Just like the turns for disadvantages, you can turn the link in a case (YOUR PLAN MAKES THE PROBLEM WORSE) or you can turn the impact in a case (THAT ISN'T A HARM, IT IS ACTUALLY A BENEFIT). These not only take out their advantage, but also create a new reason to vote negative.

The time bomb analogy may prove useful in understanding this concept. When not defused by the affirmative these arguments then tend to explode in rebuttals. In rebuttals (let us say first negative rebuttal as an example) a negative speaker might multiple point each affirmative answer, read additional evidence, and then develop an explanation as to how this position does serious, perhaps even fatal, damage to the affirmative.

3. KNOCK OUT A STOCK ISSUE -They need them all to win

Since the affirmative must win several issues in tandem (significance, inherency, solvency) a wise strategy for the negative would be to target the weakest of these necessary components and concentrate the attack there. If one link in this argumentative chain is broken the negative may have a reasonable claim that the affirmative case cannot stand without this one component which has been devastated.

4. BOG THEM DOWN - Participate in a beneficial time exchange

Dutch historian Pieter Geyl once remarked that "It takes less time to commit an error than to demonstrate one." While the negative should not utilize obviously erroneous arguments, this quotation does demonstrate a reality of argumentation which the negative should utilize. Time during a speech can be thought of as temporal capital, and it needs to be used wisely. Often the negative attacks on the affirmative case can take far longer for the affirmative to answer than it takes for the negative to make. Several related subjects within this chapter are relevant here. For example, the more specific the negative attack, the more difficult it is for the

affirmative to answer it. Challenges also take longer for an affirmative to meet than for a negative to make. Time spent on the affirmative case means time the affirmative cannot spend on answering other issues introduced by the negative.

B. ORGANIZATIONAL GUIDELINES IN ATTACKING THE CASE

Sound organizational habits and principles enhance any debate presentation, but organization is even more important for the negative team when attacking the affirmative case. Instead of presenting an argument within her own organizational structure, the negative debater attacking the case has to specifically apply her arguments to the structure of the affirmative case.

1. Number your arguments on each major case section

Many debaters are tempted to go down each argument used by the affirmative in the case structure and analyze it separately. While in a perfect world with unlimited speech time this would be preferable to show specific clash, in a limited amount of time this is impossible. However, the sense of specific clash needs to be retained for the judge.

The compromise which seems to work effectively is for the negative speaker to identify a component of the affirmative case (let us say, contention one, subpoint B) and against that component (which may have several pieces of evidence as well as B-1 and B-2 subpoints) launch a number of arguments, numbered consecutively. For example, a negative speaker might say, "Please turn to their I-B subpoint, 'Unemployment has harmful consequences,' where we will argue....1. ARG.....2. ARG.....3. ARG....."

2. Attack the case in the order it is presented

One of the most common errors which negative speakers make in attacking the affirmative case is "jumping around" from point to point and not examining the affirmative case in an organized manner. Most affirmative cases take a step by step approach to presenting the team's position, and is thus appropriate for negative refutation to be in that order. Also, if the case is taken in order it is easier for the judge to follow.

However, this does not mean that things are presented in the order of importance. Many strategically wise affirmative teams may put one of the most crucial issues at the end of the first affirmative speech and wait for the negative team to neglect that particular issue before using it against them. Always look at all of the points in the affirmative case, decide what is important, and then allocate time and arguments on that basis.

3. Centralize your argumentation

Another common organizational error committed by negative speakers attacking the affirmative case is that they repeat themselves.

This error is usually of one of two types. First, the negative speaker will repeat the same basic argument with mild rhetorical changes at more than one point on the case flowsheet. This fills speech time but does not act as an effective attack and is very easy for the affirmative to respond to, as they simply answer it once (very thoroughly) and then refer all repetitions back to this set of answers. Second, the negative speaker will put different arguments about the same general topic in several different places on the flow. For example, negative arguments about how unemployment does not cause health harms are placed in two completely different places on the flowsheet. In both cases the better options would be to put all of your arguments about a certain issue ("Unemployment does not cause health harms") in one spot, and not fragment or repeat them around the flow. Say it once and put it with other arguments of its kind.

C. STRATEGIC WILLINGNESS TO CONCEDE PORTIONS OF CASE

Refutation and attack of the affirmative case should be guided by a sense of strategy, not just a reflex action of disagreeing with everything the affirmative utters. Often some of the

most useful arguments for the negative team can be what the affirmative has advocated. If affirmative positions are utilized as a foundation for negative arguments, this foundation is likely to be quite strong because the affirmative team has themselves taken a position which they cannot withdraw. The negative, therefore, may wish to concede various portions of an affirmative case if that concession would promote the negative's interests strategically. Often affirmatives claim end states or actions as being "good," and thus they advocate these ideas. These end states or actions may be used as "links" to other arguments which the negative will then launch. For example, when the affirmative claims that unemployment is harmful and should be avoided, the negative might use this as a "link" to their argument that it is employment which is more harmful than unemployment.

If concession of a position is the strategy to be chosen, other arguments against this position should not be made. For example, in the case of conceding the affirmative arguments about unemployment, the negative speaker should not also make arguments which eliminate the hoped for link to their other arguments. Statements such "There really isn't any unemployment" should not be made against a conceded position because it may serve to eliminate the link the concession hopes to gain.

TWO: SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES FOR ATTACKING THE AFFIRMATIVE CASE

These techniques should become "habits of mind" for negative speakers attacking the affirmative case and often for debaters in various other situations.

A. UTILIZE CHALLENGES

A "challenge" is an argument which indicates inadequacies in the arguments of the opponent and urges their rejection or degradation as a result. I prefer the term "challenge" to "press," because the latter term has been used to characterize weak demands for perfection uttered by some debaters. A challenge specifically identifies logical and developmental inadequacies in argumentation and then reevaluates the argument based on these inadequacies. Failure by the affirmative to deal with these challenges and fill in these inadequacies means that the negative reevaluation of the argument stands.

The format for an effective challenge is simple and direct.

1. Specify lacking element. Something is missing or imperfect about an argument. Perhaps an argument is missing a logical step, involves an argumentative fallacy, or confuses the specific with the general. These elements can be specified and pointed out in attacking the affirmative case.

2. Demonstrate its importance. Now that a problem has been found in a particular argument, it needs to be reevaluated based on this new characterization. The error that many debaters make is in assuming that because an affirmative argument is not perfect it should be rejected. Rather, it would be far more credible to say that the argument is not as strong or lacks relevance to the point it is trying to prove. This approach is much harder to answer than mere pleas for perfection. As well, if and when such challenges are not answered by the affirmative, then the negative can begin discussing why this inadequacy means the entire argument is logically inadequate. The important points to remember are how to reevaluate an argument based on the challenge and the extension of a challenge not responded to by the affirmative.

B. INDICT AFFIRMATIVE EVIDENCE

Evidence is the support upon which many arguments rest. It is essential for the negative team to undermine this evidentiary support by addressing major inadequacies in affirmative evidence. Here are some simple techniques which should be kept in mind.

1. Matching the evidence with the claim. Often the claim which the affirmative uses the evidence to support is much broader and stronger than the actual wording of the evidence. Negative speakers should be monitoring the actual words of affirmative evidence as closely as possible, and then launch challenges against important pieces of evidence which seem particularly vulnerable or important.

2. Strength of evidence. Probability is a continuum which begins at "absolutely will not happen" and runs to "absolutely will happen." Few ideas exist at either of these ends of the spectrum, and most fall somewhere in the middle range. The qualifiers contained within the evidence are essential to analyze and identify. Once again, the challenge serves as the appropriate mechanism for dealing with this situation.

3. Recency and its relevance. In general, we might say that recent evidence is better than less recent evidence, all else being equal. However, recency is very important in some evidence and not in other evidence depending on what it refers. Competing evidence about the yearning humans have to be loved and respected would not be decided based on one piece being 6 months more recent. However, competing evidence about Algeria's intention to acquire nuclear weapons may be decided based on recency, especially if the situation has recently changed. Lack of recency on the part of affirmative evidence should be pointed out and criticized only if events are likely to have changed since the evidence first appeared. In this case recency can be important, but it is not an ironclad standard for refuting evidence.

4. Source qualification. The reason we use evidence in a debate is to back up our arguments with expert fact and opinion. High school and college students are not subject experts on the topics about which they debate, thus they attempt to quote subject experts to bolster their claims. Disturbingly, fewer and fewer debaters recognize this essential characteristic of evidence and read the name and the date but not the qualifications. One could hardly claim that the day on which something is said is more important than who said it, yet debaters put the date in over the qualification. Negative teams should demand source qualifications while at the same time reading qualifications for their own sources. A quick and easy standard can be established that without qualification evidence fails its argumentative role and then asking that the critic opt for qualified negative evidence over unqualified affirmative evidence in any instance where there are sources in conflict.

5. Source bias. Often those who write about important topics are fervent believers in a specific approach to the controversy. As well, some sources have direct vested interests in making certain statements ("US foreign policy is promoting peace," says the US Secretary of State; or, "My new invention will replace the current gasoline engine," says Wallace Minto, inventor). Everyone who has an opinion is not a biased source, and some source bias is rarely grounds for rejecting the evidence entirely, but serious source bias should be pointed out and the strength of that evidence should be reduced.

6. Source conclusion. Many scholarly sources tend to evaluate controversies thoroughly, dealing with all of the relevant issues on both sides. Often these sources get quoted as making statements to support affirmative conclusions which they did not make at the end of their own analysis. This brings the use of that evidence for affirmative conclusions into question. While the evidence is not discounted 100% (since the original author did think it was a relevant issue) its support for a conclusion the opposite of the author's should be substantially reduced.

THREE: TECHNIQUES FOR DEALING WITH STOCK ISSUES

A. CLASHING WITH AFFIRMATIVE INHERENCY

Of the stock issues inherency is the one you should attack the least. You probably are not going to prove that the status quo is perfect, and you would have to do that in order to win the debate on inherency.

Proving the affirmative has no inherency can put you in a bad situation. For example, if you prove that the affirmative's plan has already been adopted, and that it is the status quo, which you defend, how can you say that it won't work or that it will cause disadvantages? Attack inherency often causes you to contradict yourself.

Instead, use their inherency arguments to build other important arguments you can use in other parts of the debate. Here are some examples:

- ÿ Inherency often indicates barriers which exist. Make them prove that they can overcome those barriers, or else they will have no solvency.
- ÿ Inherency often establishes that people don't like or don't want the plan. If this is true, then people will try to sabotage it or stop it from working (SOLVENCY) or it will anger people and lead to a backlash (DISADVANTAGE).
- ÿ Affirmative's never give all the reasons why the plan hasn't been adopted or the problem hasn't been solved. Think of what those "unmentioned" inherencies are and use those to attack solvency or create disadvantages.

B. CLASHING WITH AFFIRMATIVE IMPACT CLAIMS

Here are some simple concepts negative speakers might wish to consider in evaluating and analyzing impact claims.

1. Specification of a scenario

A scenario is a specification of a series of events which results in an outcome. Specification is critical here, in that a scenario would not just say "a war will start" but that a war between X and Y will start if A happens, and that war will result in B. In traditional argumentation parlance, this is known as demonstration. A general claim ("unprotected nuclear weapons will be misused") needs to be demonstrated through a scenario ("unprotected nuclear weapons will be obtained and used in anger during coming ethnic conflicts in the former Soviet Union, causing millions of deaths").

The negative should require specification and demonstration of a scenario from the affirmative when they make impact claims. This will allow lines of causation and influence to be more directly examined as well as exposing weak concepts which make up the general one. The negative should demand scenarios and analyze them when they are presented.

2. Cross application of scenarios

Scenarios should be closely examined to see if they can be summed or must be considered in isolation. If the two affirmative scenarios are war in the Middle East and environmental damage in Brazil, these two could probably be summed together in that they can take place at the same time. However, if the two affirmative scenarios are war between Israel and Russia and war between Israel and Iraq they might not be summed together because one might imagine that Israel would only take on one of these opponents at a time in the first place or that the outcome of both wars at once might be different than their outcome separately.

It is essential for the negative team to identify mutually exclusive or mutually influencing scenarios to prevent the affirmative from summing these events and then claiming the impact of their combined importance.

1. Attack impact scenarios

a. Value or qualitative claims

Qualitative claims are usually thought of as those which are not readily susceptible to numerical evaluation. Freedom, equality, justice, all of these are important concepts, but they can rarely be evaluated in numerical terms (such as 11% more justice or 25% more equality). Of course, these claims do have their numerical dimensions, which is the beginning of our list of techniques.

1. The number of people impacted. Indicate that this qualitative impact occurs in a small number of cases. When freedom is compromised in an individual case, it is unfortunate. However, this qualitative concept has its numerical dimension, since it would be far worse if millions of people had their freedom compromised. While the rhetoric that "If one of us is not free, none of us are free" is inspiring and poetic, it does not necessarily carry much weight with many critics.

2. The amount the value is infringed. Indicate that qualitative claims must not escalate beyond the specific dimensions described by the affirmative. Another numerical dimension of qualitative impacts may be the extent to which each qualitative deprivation takes place. For example, the affirmative may claim that high school students are not allowed to write what they want in their school newspapers and that this is a violation of the first amendment. As they describe their position, they will usually talk about how important first amendment rights are and how they must be preserved. The negative team must make sure that the discussion of this incident does not elevate itself to an affirmative claim that the entire weight of the first amendment should be given to this argument, since it is really only a few high school students who have lost their freedom of the press rights in the forum of the high school newspaper. Do not let the affirmative claim the whole value when it is only partially compromised.

3. Not a preferred value. Indicate that those who are experiencing qualitative losses do not mind it. Freedom, justice, privacy, and other rights are only as valuable as individuals make them. If people value privacy, then its loss might be serious. However, if they do not value privacy, its loss would be hardly noticed. If individuals did not seem to mind experiencing the affirmative qualitative impact or did not protest against it, then they can hardly be said to have been victimized given their own priorities for their lives. Negative speakers should attempt to force affirmative teams into proving this or demonstrate that these qualitative elements are not important to those who are experiencing the deprivation.

4. Trades off with other values. Indicate that by affirming one value another is compromised. Many values which we hold dear trade off with other values which we also hold dear. Some values can be said to be "mutually eroding," in that achievement of or movement towards one may reduce achievement of or movement toward another. Liberty and security, privacy and community, equality and justice, these are just a few of the values which can be seen as mutually eroding in some situations.

5. Cultural bias. Indicate that affirmative values are not very important because they are too culturally embedded. The controversy over whether values are universal or relative need not be fully explored here for us to realize that some value claims are very much based in a specific cultural context. These values, of course, would be less important than values which were more broadly recognized and globally accepted. Denial by the affirmative that this was so might lead the negative to make a charge of ethnocentrism on the part of the affirmative. While this might not take out the affirmative impact claim by itself, it may make it easier for it to be outweighed by broader value or impact claims made by negative off case positions.

b. Factual or quantitative claims

Just as quantitative claims (those easily susceptible to numerical evaluation, such as dollars, tons of gold, numbers of human lives, etc.) have distinctly quantitative dimensions, so quantitative claims are often best analyzed in terms of their qualitative dimensions. Here are some common and simple ideas which might be useful in refuting quantitative impact claims.

1. The amount of times it happens. Obviously, an event which costs 10,000 lives is more significant than an event which costs 1,000 lives, or even 9,999 lives. Make the affirmative prove a number with evidence and then try to reduce that number. However, in no case should that number be inflated and negative speakers should be consistent in repeating a low number.

2. The amount of harm of each instance. Each instance of impact described by the affirmative should be evaluated for its seriousness. Many impact claims may be of wildly differing severity. Cancer and the common cold are both illnesses, but we would hardly say they were comparable. Something may happen to one million people, but if what happens is not very serious, it can hardly be seen as tremendously important. Once again, this tactic makes it easier for other negative arguments to outweigh affirmative claims.

3. Probability. To the extent that the affirmative is claiming some impact in the future, they must indicate the probability of that event. Bayes Theorem has traditionally been used by debaters to evaluate impact, as it states that impact is a function of probability times harm. A 50% probable event costing 10,000 lives is worth 5,000 lives, etc. Too often future scenarios are evaluated as being 100% or 0%, when the reality should be somewhere in between, especially if the negative is clashing substantively with affirmative claims. For example, the affirmative team may have slightly better evidence that China will attack Taiwan than the negative team does, but that does not mean that China will attack Taiwan, but only that there is more probability that they will than that they won't, allowing the harms of that scenario to be reduced accordingly.

4. Time frame. Traditionally, those events which are coming up sooner tend to dominate our attention. This is not simply because human beings are stupid and short sighted, although this may be the case for some individuals. Actually, events coming up sooner are given more attention because our understanding of them is much firmer than events which are more distant in time. We know less about the distant future than we do of the immediate future, thus we are better able to act in relation to it. This is traditionally called "future discounting." Thus, negative debaters should challenge affirmative scenarios for their time frame, "When will this happen and how long will it take?" This alone may not defeat any given scenario, but it may make the negative off case arguments with a shorter time frame better able to outweigh the affirmative scenarios.

5. Reversibility. Losing your wallet and losing your virginity are two different types of events. One can be reversed (you can get a new wallet, identification, money, etc.) but your virginity, once lost, cannot be regained. Traditionally, we think of events which can be reversed as less important than events which cannot. Again, this is a logical distinction, because mistakes made in terms of reversible events can be repaired while mistake made in terms of irreversible events cannot. For example, some evidence indicates that once the Amazonian rain forest is chopped down, it will not be able to grow back and repair itself, thus making it more important than some other ecological disaster which can be repaired. The negative should point out if affirmative scenarios are reversible while negative scenarios are not.

6. Moral requiredness. Some quantitative benefits or harms may be explained away by contrasting them with a notion of moral requiredness. For example, a high paying job might be foregone because it involved being an assassin. There may be no doubt

that money is good, but we may be morally required to forego it. In a more serious example, a parent might be unwilling to kill their child even if it was necessary for the betterment or even survival of the entire community. The utilitarian logic would be clear, that the "needs of the many outweigh the needs of the few, and the one" (as Vulcan philosopher Spock has said), yet the parent would not be able to do the deed because of moral requiredness of protection of offspring. The negative may be able to justify a quantitatively unfortunate situation because of the morally required actions involved.

7. Voluntary risk. Some situations involve risk, such as cigarette smoking and car travel, which are voluntary in that we choose to smoke or go on a car ride. Other situations, however, involve risk which is involuntary, such as being killed by an intruder in your home or having your water poisoned by a Defense Department weapons dump. Traditionally, this notion of risk has been cross applied to the value of personal freedom. Mill, for example, thought that as long as you damaged no one else, you should be free to damage yourself. More current thinkers have felt that while voluntary risk is different from involuntary risk, the former, while not a social good, was not nearly as serious as the latter. The negative should feel free to argue that affirmative impact scenarios involve voluntary risk. While this argument would not eliminate the affirmative scenario, it might make it easy to outweigh the affirmative with negative scenarios which involved involuntary risks.

8. Percentage of the total. One way to make something seem small is to compare it to something big. While 3% of the population effected by some malady is still an impact scenario, it does not seem nearly as important given that 97% of the population was untouched. This tactic, however, is only marginally effective and needs to be utilized in combination with others in this section.

9. Comparisons through time and space. Descriptions of impact scenarios are always statements which are based on expectations and are trapped in time and space. We do not expect a level of sanitation today, for example, which we might have expected during the Middle Ages, thus what seemed like a clean city to them might seem quite dirty to us. Comparisons can be useful in reducing the apparent magnitude of affirmative impact scenarios. For example, while things are not perfect, they may be: a. better than at any time in history; or, b. better than in any other country in the world. In both cases, negative arguments based on this concept might be characterized more as pleas for perfection than as legitimate impact scenarios.

C. ATTACK AFFIRMATIVE SOLVENCY

If the problem isn't solved, the affirmative gets no credit for simply identifying the problem. You probably won't prove that the plan will be completely useless in solving the problem, but you ought to make their solvency as small as possible. Here are some basic techniques for attacking affirmative solvency. Let's use the example of a plan which requires school uniforms because they say it will reduce school violence.

ÿ Find the NUMBER in their solvency evidence.

Even the best affirmative solvency evidence will not claim to solve 100% of the problem. In fact, most affirmative teams can only find evidence that indicates that "some" or "much" of the problem will be solved by the plan. Point this out and start specifying amounts -- the plan will only solve 30% of the problem, less than half of the problem, etc. Make them QUANTIFY their solvency, and if they can't suggest a high number with evidence you should suggest a low number.

ÿ Attack specific approaches.

The affirmative will use a specific technique to solve a problem. Acquire and use evidence that indicates that this approach is not effective. When it becomes an evidence battle you are already well ahead in the game.

ÿ Attack their solvency evidence.

Often the affirmative will find an example of where something has been done before and then say we should do it on a national level. Just because school uniforms helped academic achievement in an upper class neighborhood in Chicago doesn't mean it will work in Harlem or South Central Los Angeles, or that it will work in Las Vegas, Nevada. The place where it was tried might have been atypical, the study size was too small, the thing being measured was not very specific ("better learning environment," what does that mean?), and it was probably carried out by researchers who picked only the best schools and the best teachers to be involved. If students volunteered to be in the program it has more chance to succeed than students who are forced into it by the affirmative plan. Any time the affirmative tries to generalize their solvency from a small example you can make these kinds of arguments.

You can also attack their evidence using guidelines in another part of this section.

ÿ Find alternative causes.

Most things have no one single cause, like school violence. Uniforms only deal with one small cause of school violence (gang related clothing, supposedly), while the other causes of school violence (poverty, media, poor conflict resolution skills, violence at home, etc.) remain unchanged. Find those alternative causes and show how the plan does nothing about them.

ÿ Find ways for people to sabotage the plan

If the affirmative's herency is that people don't like the plan or don't want the plan, then those same people will want to sabotage the plan. To create this argument first find a reason why people will want to sabotage the plan (gang members will hate the uniforms) and then find a way for them to sabotage the uniform requirement (they will adopt new and different gang markers like hairstyle, gestures, etc.). The result is that uniforms fail to really solve gang violence.

CONCLUSION

DON'T LET THEM WIN THE CASE WITHOUT A DEBATE! KEEP ARGUING NO MATTER WHAT!

The negative team should attack the affirmative case explicitly and immediately. This will gain them a refutational advantage as well as demonstrate to the critic the kind of clash which so many judges are looking for. Familiarity with a finite number of techniques can render the negative attack on the affirmative case far more effective.

THE DISADVANTAGE

DEFINITION: A disadvantage is an argument stating that if we adopted the policy of the other team (plan/counterplan) something bad would result.

Disadvantages (also called "disads" or "DAs") are most often negative arguments which prove the effects of the plan would be bad. Thus, the disadvantages are compared to the advantages to decide whether the effects of the plan are more advantageous than disadvantageous. There are many different parts to a disad and most disads have some or all of these parts.

COMPONENTS:

Name: what you want to call it in the debate.

Thesis: basic story of how the argument goes, present it first if the judge is unfamiliar with the argument.

Link: reason(s) why adopting their policy would cause this to occur, talk about why THEY are responsible for this.

The link states why the affirmative plan causes this problem to happen. The negative usually reads a piece of evidence saying why the affirmative plan causes the way things are now to change.

Internal Link: Other lines of argument needed to reach the impact.

Sometimes when the plan changes something, it does not cause a problem right away. This is when an internal link is needed. The internal link states that when the plan causes something to change, which is the link, then that causes the problem, which is the impact.

Impact: what it is that is bad and will happen, and how bad it is.

The impact describes the problem that will happen and why it is bad. This impact is usually something very large and harmful. The negative uses this impact to say that the affirmative plan should not be done because although the plan might cause something good to happen, the problems the plan causes are worse.

TYPES OF DISADVANTAGE SCENARIOS:

Threshold Scenario: it either happens or it doesn't, all or nothing, example: pregnancy is a threshold event -- you are either pregnant or you are not - you can't be a little bit pregnant. The threshold is how big the plan has to be to cause the problem presented in the disad to happen. If the plan is a very big one, it will probably cause the problem. If the plan is tiny, it probably won't cause the problem.

Must show **brink, uniqueness.**

Brink

The brink states that a certain situation exists where something could go either way. This means there is a risk of a problem happening at some point in the future.

Uniqueness

The uniqueness states that this problem will not happen in the future, or is happening now. This is referred to as the status quo, or what is going on right now.

Linear Scenario: something bad is happening, and opponents' policy makes it worse or makes it happen more. Example: exposure to radiation is a linear event. We are all exposed to radiation every day, but the more radiation we are exposed to the more harmful it is. You would show that the affirmative plan has a unique link to exposing us to more radiation by, for example, disposing of toxic nuclear waste in your school cafeteria. Yuck!

No brink, no uniqueness, just a strong unique **link**.

FALLING OFF A CLIFF -UNDERSTANDING THRESHOLD SCENARIOS

This may seem complex but it really isn't when you use a common experience to illustrate it. Like so much in debate it sounds difficult, but it really isn't. If you can understand this then you are well on your way to becoming able to make very sophisticated arguments and decisions in debates and in life.

Falling off a cliff is a bad thing. Let's use that as an example of a disadvantage. You are standing near the edge of the cliff, and if you fall off that would be bad (a DISADVANTAGE).

If someone pushes you (LINK), then you would fall off the cliff.

If you fall off you will hit the rocks below and get all busted up (IMPACT).

If you are standing right on the edge (BRINK) (LOW THRESHOLD) of the cliff, just a little push (LINK) will push you over.

If you are standing way back from the edge of the cliff (HIGH THRESHOLD) a little push (LINK) won't send you over the edge, but a big push (LINK) might.

If you would not fall off unless someone pushes you, then without a push you will remain safe (UNIQUE).

If you are already running towards the edge of the cliff then an extra push won't make any difference (NOT UNIQUE), you are going to fall off no matter what.

If the fall is a large one and the rocks below are sharp then this is a very bad thing (BIG IMPACT).

If the fall is a short one and you land on soft feather pillows then it is not a bad thing (NO IMPACT).

STRUCTURE:

Most disadvantages begin with the link and end with the impact. In between other needed elements are added, such as internal link, brink, uniqueness, etc. Here is a simple example.

NAME: CURRICULUM TRADE OFF

THESIS: There is only so much time in the school day. When the affirmative team adds new things for students to study (Chinese) something else has to be cut from the curriculum. Art will be cut, and art is a much more valuable thing to study.

- A. Affirmative adds study of Chinese to the required curriculum. (LINK)
- A. Because length of the school day is set, something else will have to be cut (MAKES LINK UNIQUE)
- A. Art is the first thing to get cut to make room for new courses (INTERNAL LINK)
- A. Art is extremely valuable to education and personal development (IMPACT)

OTHER CONCEPTS YOU MIGHT FIND USEFUL:

Time Frame

The time frame is how long before the problem the disad presents happens. If there is an especially short time frame, then the problem the plan creates might happen before whatever good things the plan creates. If that happens, then the plan probably isn't a good one. If there is a long time frame, then the good things the plan creates would happen before the problems it creates. If this is the case, the plan probably is a good idea.

Pre-Emptions

If you know that the affirmative is going to make a certain answer, you might want to anticipate it and insert a point denying that answer. When you anticipate an argument and answer it before it is made, debaters call that a pre-emption or a pre-empt.

HOW TO ANSWER A DISADVANTAGE:

Every disadvantage is like a chain of reasoning. It starts with the link and ends with the impact. Like any chain, it is only as strong as its weakest link. You only need to break the chain at one critical point to defeat the disadvantage.

1. Disprove link to your plan. (NO LINK or LINKTAKE-OUT)

The link take-out states that the affirmative plan doesn't actually cause the problem the disad presents.

2. Disprove impact. (NO IMPACT or IMPACTTAKE-OUT)

The impact take-out states that the problem the disad presents is not serious or harmful.

3. Disprove internal link. (NO INTERNALLINK or INTERNAL LINKTAKE-OUT)

Some needed logical step is missing or false. Explain this, and make sure to show that this step is critical to the entire disadvantage argument.

1. Link turn: no, our policy solves this problem. (Not to be used with impact turn)

The link turn states that when the affirmative plan happens, the problem the disad presents is avoided. This often means that when the affirmative plan happens the exact opposite of the problem happens.

1. Impact turn: no, that thing we cause is not bad, it is actually good. (Not to be used with link turn)

The impact turn states that the problem the disad presents is actually a good thing.

1. Not intrinsic: other forces will intervene to stop the impact from taking place.

In our above example, you could argue that people want both Chinese and Art so much they will lengthen the school day.

1. Applies to policy system/plan of opponents as much as it does to you, so irrelevant.

The disadvantage may also apply to the counterplan of the negative, making it irrelevant for determining which to adopt. If the counterplan would have the states require Chinese, both teams would have a policy which would cut Art.

1. No brink: there is not enough of a link to push us over into impact X.

We are now standing well back away from the cliff, so the push they identify (LINK) will not push us over the edge.

1. Not unique: will happen/should have happened anyway because of X .

The non-unique argument states that the problem the disad presents will happen anyway in the status quo. If it were to happen anyway, it doesn't matter if the affirmative plan causes the problem or not.

1. Case outweighs: bigger, sooner, etc.

If the impact of the disadvantage is smaller than the advantage of the plan, then even if the disadvantage were true you would still adopt the plan.

WINNING DISADVANTAGES ON THE NEGATIVE:

1. Make sure to deal with each and every one of their answers. DO NOT DROP ANY.
2. Make sure to explain how plan uniquely causes the impacts.
3. Take special care to answer and defeat all turns.
4. Weigh impacts, show judge disadvantage is bigger than case.

KICKING OUT OF DISADVANTAGES

Sometimes you offer a disadvantage and the affirmative has great answers. Don't waste your time trying to win this disadvantage if their answers are excellent. If you "kick out" of a disadvantage you strategically concede it so that it is no longer in the debate and you can focus on better arguments.

1. If they have great answers, don't waste your time...kickout of it.
2. Kick out specifically and on purpose...tell the judge you are doing it. It makes you look strategic.
3. If you kick out of disadvantages with turns on them, you will lose. When the affirmative turns the disadvantage it is an independent reason to vote for them. You can't just concede the disadvantage, or you will lose the debate. THE NEGATIVE TEAM MUST NEVER DROP THE TURNS ON THEIR DISADVANTAGE!
4. To kick out of disadvantages with turns on them, concede specific other affirmative responses which would make the turn irrelevant. Example: if the disadvantage is not true, it cannot be turned. Explain why conceding response X makes the turn irrelevant.
5. Be careful in conceding "not unique" arguments to take out turns, especially link turns, as it will not do so. For further discussion of this see the STRATEGIC HANDLING OF DISADVANTAGES section later in this booklet.

THE COUNTERPLAN

Sometimes the status quo really is a bad system, and it is difficult for the negative to defend it. To avoid giving the affirmative an advantage in such a situation, the negative may offer their own proposal --a counterplan.

In some debates the negative chooses not to defend the status quo (the present system) but wants to defend something else. When this is the case, the negative responds to the affirmative's plan with the negative's counterplan.

Definition: A counterplan is (generally thought to be) a non-topical reasonable alternative to the affirmative plan.

The counterplan is almost always presented in the 1NC, and then becomes the policy system defended by the negative. The counterplan has a specific "plan" just like the affirmative, explaining what the negative thinks should be done and how.

After presenting their counterplan proposal, the negative has a number of other obligations to fulfill in order for the advantage of the counterplan to be weighed against the advantage of the affirmative plan.

1. The counterplan has to be non-topical.

Just as the affirmative has to embody the resolution in their proposal, most judges also require the negative NOT to embody the resolution in their proposal (the negative, after all, is supposed to "negate" the resolution, not "affirm" it).

- Non-topical in one word or term only is sufficient.
- **Many judges may accept topical counterplans** if they are competitive (see below) because that is sufficient to divide argumentative ground in the debate.

2. The counterplan has to be competitive. There are a couple of ways to think of this concept.

- The counterplan must be an "alternative" or "substitute" for the affirmative plan.
- The counterplan is competitive with the affirmative plan if it would be better to adopt just the counterplan instead of BOTH the affirmative plan and the counterplan.

There are some standard types of arguments which are used to show the counterplan is competitive.

- Mutual exclusivity: the counterplan and the affirmative plan "cannot" coexist.
- Net benefits: it would be better to do just the counterplan than to do both the counterplan and the affirmative plan. Often this is shown by having a disadvantage which applies to the affirmative plan which did not apply to the counterplan.

There are other, weaker, competitiveness arguments.

- Philosophical competition: the philosophies behind the two are contradictory. Contradictory thoughts, of course, have never been a problem for some people, especially policy makers, so this standard is of little real use.
- Topical competition: if the counterplan is not topical, so it cannot be adopted by the affirmative. Wrong, the test is "substitution" of one for the other, not topicality.

- Redundancy: there is no need to do both, because doing just one solves the entire problem at hand. Wrong unless the counterplan has 100% solvency, which is difficult to imagine.
- The affirmative generally answers competition with the "permutation test." Remember, it is only a test. Here, they try to suggest ways in which we could "do both." If they show that they can and should "do both" then the negative loses the competition of the counterplan, and it becomes irrelevant for the debate. These "perms" suggest ways in which both could be done. Suggesting a permutation of the counterplan does not indicate advocacy of it, just testing it for relevance. Here are the generally accepted types of permutations.

- Logical permutation: do both at the same time.
- Time permutation: do one first, then the other.
- Partial permutation: do the counterplan everywhere except in the area of the affirmative plan.

Other, weaker, types of permutations include:

- Restructuring permutation: change the plan in major ways so that it can be done at the same time as the counterplan. Wrong. This involves an advocacy shift. The affirmative presented their plan and shouldn't be allowed to rework it just because they don't know how to answer the counterplan.
- Non-topical permutation: change the plan into something non-topical and then argue that the two can be done at the same time. Wrong. The affirmative still needs to be topical to win the debate, presumably.

The counterplan may "drop out" of the round if it is not relevant. If it is not competitive, then it is irrelevant to the decision. Negatives may "kick out" of a counterplan by conceding competition.

3. The counterplan must have an advantage. In other words, it has to address a problem and actually solve it. Or, after having been adopted, the counterplan would have to produce an advantage. The counterplan, therefore, needs to have significance and solvency just like the affirmative case. The affirmative may wish to argue that the counterplan has no advantage because it "doesn't work." The advantage of a counterplan may be a disadvantage if it avoids that the affirmative plan does not.

4. The counterplan may have disadvantages alleged against it by the affirmative, just as the negative has disadvantages against the affirmative plan.

5. The counterplan is often effectively used along with a disadvantage. If there is a disadvantage to the affirmative plan which does NOT apply to the counterplan, then that makes the counterplan net benefits competitive. This way the counterplan solves for the affirmative advantage, may even have another advantage, and also avoids the disadvantage which applies to the affirmative plan. This sort of integrated strategy can be very effective.

EXAMPLE OF COUNTERPLAN DEBATING: WHAT SHOULD WE DO TONIGHT?

The arguments surrounding a counterplan seem complex and confusing, but like many debate concepts, once you apply them to everyday situations they make a lot more sense.

- ŷ The affirmative says that we should go to a movie tonight. That is their plan.
- ŷ The negative counterplan is that we should not go to a movie, but go out to dinner.

- ŷ The affirmative response is that the counterplan is not competitive, because we can do both – go to dinner and then go to a movie (LOGICAL PERMUTATION).
- ŷ The negative replies that we do not want to do both (LOGICAL PERMUTATION) because we cannot afford to do both (NET BENEFITS COMPETITION), but also we can't do both because dinner and the movie are at the same time (MUTUAL EXCLUSIVITY COMPETITION).
- ŷ The affirmative replies that we do have enough money to do both (NOT NET BENEFICIAL TO DO JUST THE COUNTERPLAN, and that we can go to dinner and then see a later showing of the movie (TIME PERMUTATION).
- ŷ The negative finally explains that the disadvantage of going to the movie is that it is a TERRIBLE movie full of racism and sexism (DISADVANTAGE TO THE PLAN OPERATING AS A NET BENEFITS ARGUMENT).

Answering Counterplans

Counterplans must meet certain burdens in order to beat the Affirmative plan, therefore it is the job of the affirmative to show how the counterplan does not meet these burdens. Affirmative answers should expose the flaws in the counterplan and show why it is a bad idea.

Affirmative answers can be found while looking at different parts of the counterplan.

1. The counterplan is topical.

The affirmative should make sure the counterplan is non-topical. If the counterplan is topical, it should not be accepted, because only the affirmative gets to defend the resolution. The negative has everything else to choose from.

2. The counterplan is not competitive.

Affirmatives should argue that the counterplan is not competitive with the affirmative plan. If we do not have to choose between the plan and the counterplan, then it IS NOT A REASON TO VOTE AGAINST THE AFFIRMATIVE CASE. In order to do this, affirmative teams have three choices.

- A. Prove it is not mutually exclusive. We CAN do both at the same time.
- B. Prove it is not net beneficial. We SHOULD do both at the same time.

C. Offer permutations: Permutations are an affirmative's special weapon against counterplans. Permutations are arguments that prove the entire plan can be combined with parts of the counterplan in order to gain the advantages of the counterplan without rejecting the plan.

REMEMBER TO USE THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF PERMUTATIONS LISTED ABOVE.

3. Solvency

Affirmatives can argue that the counterplan does not solve. The affirmative should look to see if the counterplan solves the affirmative advantage, the advantages of the counterplan, and avoids the disadvantages.

4. Disadvantages

Counterplans, like affirmative plans, can have disadvantages. The affirmative should argue that if the counterplan is done something bad will happen that wouldn't otherwise happen if the affirmative plan is done.

THE PROCESS OF CRITIQUE

A Different Way to Attack the Affirmative

Most of the arguments in a debate round are based on the kinds of arguments made by traditional policy-makers, such as legislators and political analysts. Traditional policy-makers are not the only people who comment on important public issues, however. Increasingly, debaters have begun to model some of their arguments on the objections of philosophers, rhetorical critics, and other scholars.

The critique -- a.k.a. the *kritik* or the K -- is an argument usually used by the negative to attack the affirmative's fundamental assumptions. Sometimes the affirmative makes these assumptions by choice, and sometimes they make these assumptions because it's their job to defend the resolution. In either case, the negative focuses on what the other team says IN THE DEBATE, not what they propose to do outside the round.

One of the simplest examples of a critique might be an argument that the language the affirmative uses is racist. For example, some scholars argue that certain kinds of policy language contains hidden racism, such as some of the arguments made against welfare. If the affirmative were to make one of these arguments, the negative might use a critique to point out the hidden racism in the case as a reason to vote against the affirmative.

Huh? What? Excuse Me?

Don't worry if you're confused. Critiques are complicated arguments, and many people are not familiar with the kinds of ideas associated with critiques. Let's answer some basic questions.

What is the critique? A critique is a way to criticize the assumptions an affirmative makes or the language debaters use to make their arguments.

What is an assumption? An assumption is a part of an argument which people think is true, but they never explicitly prove to be true.

How are assumptions revealed? Sometimes assumptions are revealed by the language that we use to make our claims and arguments. Sometimes assumptions are revealed in the way we claim to know something. The first type of criticism is a language critique and the second type of criticism is a philosophical critique.

How does a negative attack the assumptions? First, the negative must identify the assumption and how it is revealed. Second, the negative must explain how the assumption links to the critique. And, third, the negative must explain the implications of the critique. Sounds like a disadvantage, doesn't it?

What are the possible implications of the critique? Generally, critiques can have three implications. One is that they might prove that the affirmative case does not prove the harm. Second, they might prove that the affirmative is unable to solve. Third, they might have

consequences similar to those of a disadvantage. In other words, a critique might justify voting against the affirmative altogether in order to reject the assumptions the affirmative makes.

An Example: Testing

The critique can operate in the simplest facets of your life. You witness some of these in your own classroom. Thinking about testing and test-taking can illustrate how a critique might function when the affirmative proposes that testing play a larger role in American education.

- 1) Challenging the harm assumptions. Many people assume students do not learn as much as they used to because test scores are lower than they were in the past. However, the negative might challenge the assumption that test scores are a reliable measure of student achievement. This challenges the way proponents of testing assume test scores provide useful information. If the test scores are unreliable, then the affirmative cannot prove the harm by proving test scores are low. Test scores, the negative would argue, do not reveal accurate information of student achievement, therefore they cannot be used to prove that students are underachieving.
- 2) Challenging solvency. Many people argue that testing should be used to guide curriculum changes in order to enhance student learning. However, if tests are critiqued because they do not truly measure what a student has learned, then using test results to revise the curriculum is a wasted exercise and will not achieve the goal of improving student achievement.
- 3) Disadvantageous consequences. The negative might argue that there are disadvantage implications of supporting the affirmative in light of the critique. Some might argue that testing does not measure knowledge but instead indicates how good students are at taking tests. Consequently, increasing tests or making tests more rigorous will only serve to perpetuate racism and sexism in education. The negative might argue that the judge should reject any policy that results in greater racism and sexism.

Why Are Critiques Valuable?

Critiques are valuable arguments for several reasons.

- 1) Critiques are highly generic, that is, they can be applied to a large variety of cases. The resolution always makes critical assumptions, such as who should act, how the policy should be implemented, why a particular area is important, etc. The critique provides a general argument that can be used to attack those critical assumptions.
- 2) Critiques have multiple consequences, that is, they can minimize the affirmative advantage while also providing an argument to weigh against whatever advantage the affirmative can claim.
- 3) Critiques integrate many arguments into one position. Because the case arguments frequently stem from the critique, the negative has a position in the debate that is coherent.
- 4) Critiques frequently have *a priori* implications. An *a priori* argument is one that must be resolved first, usually before the substantive issues of the debate are resolved. In our example of testing, the negative could argue that policies that reinforce racism or sexism are so evil that

they need to be avoided absolutely. If testing is racist or sexist, it should be rejected regardless of substantive benefits that might result from increased testing.

5) Critiques frequently avoid uniqueness problems. Critiques are often found in the writings of those who criticize current policies. Affirmative debaters frequently rely on some element of the current system to implement their plans or to prove why new policies would better achieve the goals of the present system. Critique writers frequently argue, in effect, that the goals of the present system should be rejected at every opportunity. In addition, many critique writers argue that the most important place to reject accepted ideas is in individual settings, thus making the critique unique each time a judge has the opportunity to reject the affirmative.

6) Critiques shift the debate to negative ground. Affirmatives are used to debating on THEIR ground: the case evidence and the implications of the plan. Critiques offer negatives the opportunity to shift the focus of the debate to an issue they are more familiar with: the intricacies of the critique. This can give the negative a sort of "home field" advantage in the round.

TYPES OF CRITIQUES

Mike Bryant of Weber State University in Utah has argued that there are five different types of critiques/kritiks emerging from competitive use, some of which do not require "a priori" consideration.

Type #1: A Priori Critiques (PRE-WEIGHING)

These are essentially punishment arguments urging the judge to strike a preemptive blow against some failure of the other team. Examples might include language-based value objections, questions of jurisdiction, evidence fabrication, etc. These arguments point out to the judge why some error deserves punishment before the issues of the case are even examined.

Type #2: Value Prioritization Critiques (WEIGHING INSTRUCTIONS)

We are seeing more and more attempts to inject instructions to guide the judge in understanding the preeminence of particular values, value hierarchies, or even full-scale deontology. These are not a priori, but, rather, are attempts to shape the on-going weighing process unfolding in the round.

Type #3: Foundation Kritiks (ADDING UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS TO WEIGHING)

Rather than being a priori, these arguments attempt to broaden the scope of the weighing process by examining assumptions undergirding systems and positions. If a team is unable to defend the assumptions shown to be associated with what they are advocating, questions of bad assumptions elsewhere (uniqueness) seems hardly relevant. An example might be a kritik of capitalist dehumanization against a case that claimed to use free trade pacts as vehicles of global economic growth.

Type #4: Inability Kritiks (CONCLUDING WEIGHING TO BE MEANINGLESS)

This type of argument also examines the underlying nature of assumptions, but results in advocacy to the judge in favor of rejecting weighing processes due to inherent limitations on our ability to understand the full nature of uncovered forces or assumptions. For example, an

individual employing this type of argument might suggest that we are all so engulfed and immersed in the commodification of time, space, and thought caused by global capitalism, that we are incapable of accurate assessments of the benefits and drawbacks of such a system. Though some might claim this to be *a priori*, a better conclusion might be that the judge is asked to reject the very futility of weighing assessments when it becomes clear that such an attempt will be distorted by pre-existing conceptual baggage which cannot be removed. In other words, the judge is asked to look at the weighing procedure and conclude that the effort is futile.

Type #5: Kritiks of Thought (REJECTING WEIGHING)

These types of kritiks are philosophical examinations of the thought processes traditionally utilized in weighing. Kritiks of rationality, normativity, causality, etc, are all attempts to cause a judge to reflect on traditional thought modalities, with the explicit goal of persuading the judge to reject the procedure of weighing

Answering Critiques

While critiques are a valuable negative argument, they are also vulnerable to some general affirmative answers. The following arguments are suggestions that require more substantive development from you as you research and debate critiques during the academic year.

- 1) Debate the specific critique. There are many answers to critiques that merely require research like any other negative argument. Remember that philosophers and rhetorical critics get into arguments with each other just like legislators and policy analysts do. The general rule is: for every group of scholars who support the ideas behind the critique, there is a different group of scholars who think the ideas in the critique are terrible. If you find out that a certain critique is being run, research it just like you would any other argument in order to find those scholars who disagree with it.
- 2) Use cross-ex time to ask about the critique. You can't debate what you don't understand, and critiques can be very difficult to understand. Often, evidence in critiques uses academic jargon and obscure words. Don't be intimidated. If the other team can't explain what these words mean, the judge won't be willing to vote for them. If they CAN explain them, then you will be able to understand them, too. Ask how the plan links to the critique and what implications the critique has in the round. Don't let the other team avoid these questions.
- 3) Don't forget to use your own brain! Once you understand what the critique says, you can answer it with arguments that make sense to you. Also, remember that the evidence in the 1AC is designed to answer objections to the case. Use that evidence creatively.

- 4) Utilize your specific affirmative answers. Many of the implications of the critique are very generalized, but the affirmative can point to specific evidence to prove both their harms and their solvency. Thus, general indictments might not be as persuasive as the specific proofs offered by the affirmative.
- 5) Debate the uniqueness of the critique. Negative critique debaters try to avoid the uniqueness debate and argue that it is irrelevant. However, the implications of the critique frequently occur at the margins of incremental impact. In other words, the critique often talks about harms that are already occurring all around us. The affirmative should stress that if the affirmative advantage is intact, the marginal increase in disadvantage beyond the present system does not merit rejection.
- 6) Argue that there is no alternative. If the affirmative harm is substantial, the plan is largely solvent, and the critique has uniqueness problems, press the negative to defend what their alternative to the plan and the present system will be. If there is no alternative, then it makes uniqueness arguments against the critique that much more valuable.
- 7) Attack the alternative. If the negative offers alternatives to the plan and the present system, then the affirmative can argue that the alternative is a bad idea.
- 8) Make the negative defend the idea of critiques. Many members of the debate community have accepted the idea of critiquing assumptions as acceptable. However, many others do not believe that philosophical and rhetorical ideas have any place in policy debate. Make the negative explain why we should consider these kinds of arguments if the goal of debate is to train students to study policy issues like legislators and political analysts do.

THE TOPICALITY ARGUMENT

What Is Topicality?

Debate is about making good policy, and you can't have a good policy unless you know what the key words of the policy mean. Some words are very difficult to define, and there are huge debates about them. How do you define "good" or "bad," for example? It's easy to understand this concept by thinking about a conversation you might have with your parents. Let's say your parents tell you to be home "at a reasonable hour." When you show up at 2:00 a.m., you get in big trouble. "But I was home at a reasonable hour," you complain. "All my friends stay out until 4:00." Your parents are not impressed by this argument. "Reasonable means midnight," they say. How were you supposed to know what "reasonable" meant? Topicality deals with arguments about what words mean.

Every year there is a different resolution for high school policy debate. It is the affirmative's job to come up with specific policies (or "plans") that support the general idea of the resolution. What if the affirmative policy is a good idea, but it doesn't support the resolution? For example, the affirmative might argue that every hungry child in America should be fed. This may seem like a good idea, but what if the resolution says we ought to make schools better? The plan is fine, but it doesn't support the resolution. The negative would argue that the affirmative plan is "NOT TOPICAL." This kind of argument can be even more powerful than a disadvantage.

For example, your history teacher asked you to write a paper about the Civil War. You, however, decided to write a paper about the Vietnam War. Your history teacher might very well give you a grade of "F" because that wasn't the assignment. Likewise, the affirmative is assigned to write a case about the topic, and if they don't do that, then they "flunk" or "lose" the debate. But, it isn't usually that simple. You might tell your history teacher that your paper was about why the Vietnam War was like the Civil War and the important lessons one can teach us about the other. Likewise, even affirmative's with cases which don't seem to be about the topic often have a reason why they are topical.

Another way to understand topicality is to think of the topic as a "contract." A professional sports star knows that he or she has to fulfill their contract if they want to get paid. If they violate any part of the contract they may not get paid. The affirmative has to meet every part of the topic, every part of the contract, in order to win. If the negative can show the affirmative did not fulfill some part of the topic, their contract, they could defeat the affirmative.

Arguing About Definitions

Of course, most affirmative plans seem fairly topical at first. However, if you research different definitions for the words in the resolution, it is easy to find definitions that contradict what the affirmative plan does. For example, what if the resolution says we should increase aid to African nations? The affirmative might offer a plan to increase aid to Egypt. Is Egypt an African nation? Many people might say "yes," since Egypt is on the continent of Africa. Many experts might say "no," however, because Egyptian culture might be considered "Middle Eastern" instead of "African." There is no right or wrong answer for what a word means, but it is possible to make arguments about which definition is better.

Winning With Topicality

Topicality exists to LIMIT what the affirmative may talk about so the negative can have a reasonable chance to argue against the case. If the affirmative could talk about anything, how could the negative prepare for the debate? The negative argues that topicality is a VOTING ISSUE. In other words, they argue that the affirmative should lose the debate if the negative can prove that the affirmative plan does not support the resolution. You can win the debate by talking about definitions!

Topicality is a very powerful argument because the affirmative can lose the debate on topicality even if they are winning every other argument in the debate! After all, if the plan is not an example of the resolution, then who cares what a great idea it is? The judge would throw out all the affirmative arguments, just like a judge in a courtroom can throw out a case if it is irrelevant. This argument is referred to as "jurisdiction." It means that The judge cannot vote for a non-topical plan because it is not in her jurisdiction.

Making a Topicality Argument

Topicality arguments can be written ahead of time, just like disadvantages. In general "T" arguments have the following format:

A) Definition

Evidence that defines one or more important words in the resolution.

B) Violation

An explanation of why the affirmative plan is not an example of the kind of action described by the resolution. Answers the question "why does the plan violate the negative definition(s)?"

C) Reasons to Prefer the Negative Definition

Arguments about why the negative definition is better for debate than other definitions of the word(s) being contested. If the affirmative offers a different definition, why should The judge prefer the negative definition?

D) Voting Issue

Reasons why the affirmative should lose if the negative wins topicality. The two main reasons are jurisdiction and Debatability.

Jurisdiction means the judge can't vote for the plan if it is not part of the topic . Debatability means that the negative would not have a fair chance in the debate if the affirmative did not have to operate within the limits of the resolution.

Reasons to Prefer the Negative Definition(s)

There are basically two types of arguments negatives use to prove their definitions are the best: Standards and Specific Arguments.

Standards

Standards are very general arguments about definitions. They describe what kinds of definitions -- in general--are best. For example, many negatives argue that definitions that draw a Bright Line are best. This means that the definition makes it clear what is topical and what is not. For example, if I wanted to find a definition of the word "apple," I would not want a definition that described it as "a fruit." That definition does NOT draw a bright line between apples and all other fruit. I would want a definition that distinguished apples from other kinds of fruit.

There are hundreds of possible standards for definitions.

Specific Arguments

Specific arguments talk about the negative definition in the context of the resolution or the debate round. If the resolution is about computers, for example, I might argue that the word „apple“ should mean "a specific brand of computer" instead of "a fruit" because the first definition is more specific to the other words in the resolution.

Specific arguments might also include arguments about grammar. For example, some words can be nouns or verbs. A specific topicality argument might discuss the fact that one of the words in the resolution should be defined in a certain way because it is used as a noun and not a verb. Like standards, there are hundreds of possible specific arguments.

Remember: To Win Topicality, the Negative Must Prove

- ÿ That the Negative Definition(s) are Superior AND
- ÿ That the Affirmative Plan Does Not Meet Those Definitions.

Answering Topicality

Don't panic! Just because the negative makes an argument, don't assume that it's true. The truth is that it is very difficult to win topicality on the negative and relatively easy to win topicality on the affirmative. Don't get cocky, though. If you're not careful, topicality can ruin an otherwise successful affirmative round.

Affirmative Topicality Tips

1. Write your plan with an eye to topicality. When you write your affirmative case, you make a series of strategic decisions. Most of these revolve around solving the problem your case identifies. Usually, you try to find the policy that solves the problem the best. Similarly, you should look for a policy that seems to be a clear example of the resolution. Does the plan sound like it takes the kind of action required by the resolution? Write the plan using as many of the words in the resolution as possible.

2. Research the words of the resolution. The negative will research various definitions of the important words in the resolution. The affirmative should do the same thing. Look for definitions that clearly include the kind of action taken by the plan. Failing that, look for the broadest possible definitions.

3. Research "contextual" evidence. Most people believe the function of topicality is to provide a reasonable limit on the number of cases the affirmative can run. If you can find evidence that talks about your policy and the words of the resolution in the same sentence or paragraph, you can read that evidence against topicality violations to make your case sound reasonable.

4. Remember: Advantages don't make you topical. Topicality focuses on what the PLAN does. The fact that your advantages talk about the same things as the resolution is largely irrelevant. Make sure your PLAN is topical.

5. Prepare your topicality answers ahead of time. Anticipate the kinds of topicality arguments the negative is likely to run against you and write out answers and counter-definitions before the tournament.

Common Answers to Topicality

1. Counter-definitions. The negative will read a definition of one of the words in the resolution that makes your plan sound non-topical. It is your job to answer that definition with a "counter-definition": a different definition of the same word that makes your plan sound topical. Once you read a counter-definition, make sure to make additional arguments about why your definition is better than the negative definition.

2. Contextual evidence. Reading evidence from the topic literature that links your plan with the words of the resolution can help make your plan sound reasonable.

3. The "We Meet" answer. Read the negative's definition. Most of the time it isn't as exclusive as they say it is. Try to think of reasons your plan actually "meets" their definition. In other words, think of reasons why the negative's definition actually describes the plan, instead of excluding it.

4. Things that check abuse. Negatives will try to argue that the plan is abusive; they will say that, if the judge allows the plan to be topical, hundreds of other plans will also become topical. This is "abusive" because it puts too much of a burden on the negative to research those hundreds of new plans. The affirmative often argues that other things "check" or prevent this abuse:

A) Literature checks. The affirmative should argue that their plan is reasonable because it is based on evidence found in the topic literature. In other words, the affirmative argues that the judge should not worry too much about topicality because the affirmative case generally concerns itself with the same issues as the resolution.

B) Other words check. The resolution is composed of many different words. The affirmative often argues that, since the plan has to be an example of ALL the different words in the resolution, then violating a single word is not such a big deal. If the plan meets all the words in the resolution except one, for example, then it is still talking about the same general things as the resolution.

C) Solvency checks. The affirmative has to prove that its plan solves the problem identified by the case. On topicality, the affirmative often argues that its definitions could not really add hundreds of new plans to the topic because most of those new plans would not solve any significant problem.

5. Counter-standards. The negative assumes that The judge must use certain standards to decide the issue of topicality. The affirmative should think of its own standards. The most common affirmative counter-standard is "reasonability," also known as "debatability." The affirmative argues that, as long as the plan is reasonable, the judge should ignore topicality. The affirmative must provide reasons why its plan is reasonable. These reasons might include things like "if the negative has evidence against the case—if the negative can fairly DEBATE the case—then the plan is reasonably topical. The bottom line of reasonability is that it urges the judge not to choose between' two competing definitions. Instead The judge is urged to decide whether or not the plan unfairly harms the negative in the round.

6. Reasons why topicality is NOT a voting issue. Most debater are taught that topicality is an absolute voting issue, which means that the negative can win the entire round just by winning topicality. Not everyone agrees that this is true, however. Here are some common reasons affirmatives give why the judge should not consider topicality:

A) Language is indeterminate. Is there such thing as "the best" definition? Ultimately, the words we use to describe things are not precise. Using an earlier example, what is "a reasonable hour" for a teenager to get home at night? There is no precise answer to this question. Because language is imprecise (or "indeterminate"), many affirmatives argue that it is unfair to base a decision in a round on competing definitions. Besides, meaning is not found in words but in people.

B) Topicality is not "real world." Many topicality arguments are based on the assumption that a debate round is like a courtroom. In a courtroom, a judge can throw out a case if it does not meet certain strict definitions. In such a case, we would say that the judge lacks jurisdiction over the case. Many people believe that debate rounds are more like legislatures than court rooms. In a legislature (such as Congress), representatives are free to debate about anything, as long as it is important. Many affirmatives argue that topicality does not reflect the "real world" requirements of policy-making.

C) Topicality silences important voices. In many cases, important ideas are not heard by policy-makers because they come from people who have unpopular opinions. Policy-makers avoid listening to these important ideas by using obscure rules and procedures. Some affirmatives argue that topicality is just another meaningless procedure which prevents important ideas from being debated. Evidence describing the importance of the plan is helpful in making this claim.

PART THREE: DEBATE STEPS

1AC	48
1NC	49
2AC	50
2NC	52
1NR	54
1AR	55
2NR	57
2AR	60
Timeline for a debate	61

1AC - FIRST AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

BE PREPARED:

Have your speech written out and well organized. Time it in advance so that you know how long it takes you to read it. Practice it so that you sound good and know how to correctly say all of the words in it. When you practice it, learn to deliver this speech like you really mean it and like you really care about these issues. Debate is a game AND a show, and when you put on a good show you are more likely to win the game.

BE COMPLETE:

Make sure you have covered all the requirements -- read the topic, significance, inherency, plan, solvency. Make sure each of the major issues has evidence which proves it.

BE STRATEGIC:

Anticipate what the negative might say and hide evidence in the 1AC which answers these arguments. It makes it much easier in the 2AC if the evidence is already out there. Make your points and especially write your plan so that it avoids or answers popular arguments which will be made against you.

BE READY TO DEFEND YOUR SPEECH IN CROSS EXAMINATION:

Know what it says. Be familiar with the evidence. Be ready to explain how and why your arguments are correct. **Have a second copy of your speech in case they ask for a copy and then start asking you a lot of specific questions.**

1NC - FIRST NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

DON'T USE TOO MUCH PREPARATION TIME:

Have your off-case arguments ready to go so you can spend a little prep time working on specific case attacks and challenges. YOU WILL NEED PREP TIME LATER IN THE DEBATE, SO SAVE IT FOR THEN.

MAKE SURE EACH MAJOR ARGUMENT IS LOGICALLY COMPLETE:

Your disadvantages need links and impacts; your topicality arguments need definitions, violations, and voting issue; your counterplan needs a counterplan text, topicality, competitiveness, advantage, and solvency.

WATCH FOR TIME ALLOCATION:

Know how long it takes you to read each off-case argument. Practice and time them in advance. Watch yourself as the speech goes along so you don't fall behind or get too far ahead.

MAKE SURE TO ATTACK THE CASE:

Use a mixture of challenges and evidenced arguments to keep them busy on the case. Make sure to attack their impact scenarios and their solvency.

BE READY TO DEFEND YOUR SPEECH IN CROSS EXAMINATION:

When they ask questions, use the opportunity to explain and elaborate on your arguments. Know what your arguments say and be able to defend them as well as explain them.

2AC - SECOND AFFIRMATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

USE CROSS EXAMINATION:

If there is any issue you do not understand, you won't be able to answer it. Have your partner ask about it RIGHT AWAY in cross examination so that you can prepare answers for it. Make sure to point your partner in the right direction for asking questions -- point them towards arguments you don't understand or the ones that seem like the strongest against you.

ANSWER EVERY NEGATIVE ISSUE:

You cannot win the debate if you fail to answer an off-case argument like topicality, a disadvantage, a counterplan, or a critique. Have some good answers for each one.

WATCH YOUR TIME ALLOCATION:

Think about what you need to do in eight minutes and pace yourself. Try to be 25% done after 2 minutes, 50% done after 4 minutes, etc. Have your partner help you with your time allocation by giving you signals.

ANSWER THEIR ARGUMENTS, DON'T EXPLAIN THEM OVER AGAIN:

Explaining their arguments is their duty, not yours. Your duty is to answer them. Don't waste time telling the judge what their arguments are about. The best way to save time is to tell the judge which argument you are answering ("On their counterplan, my answers are...") and then give your answers and make sure to number them.

NUMBER YOUR ANSWERS TO OFF-CASE ARGUMENTS:

Number them 1-2-3, etc. On a negative disadvantage, for example, you should tell the judge you are going to answer that disadvantage, and then go for it 1-2-3-4-5, etc. This will make it easy for the judge to tell your different arguments apart, and will make it much easier for your partner and you to use specifically numbered arguments later in the debate ("The negative never comes to grips with my 5th answer, that..."). Judges love it when the 2AC numbers well.

DON'T FORGET TO DEFEND THE CASE:

You will probably need the case to win, so don't get bogged down in the off-case arguments. Spend at least as much time on the case as they did.

USE THE 1AC EVIDENCE:

You put some good evidence there so you can use it in 2AC, refer to it and save time by not having to read it.

THINK OFFENSE:

The negative attacks you and you need to defend yourself against that, but make sure to also mount some offense against the negative. Turn their disadvantages and critiques, offer disadvantages against their counterplans, and that helps put them on the defensive. If you merely defend, they are likely to break through at some point, but if you go on the offense against their arguments it will give you more ways to win.

BE PREPARED:

Have prepared answers (debaters call them "frontlines") to arguments you expect or have heard before. Make them clear and quick to read, practice them, edit them, so that you can put out a lot of good answers to their arguments.

IF THEY CALL IT A VOTER, YOU DEAL WITH IT:

Novice debaters often fail to answer arguments, often bogus arguments, offered by the negative which they call "voting issues" or "voters" or "reasons why we win the debate." When they say this, make sure to respond specifically.

THINK ON YOUR FEET:

While you are speaking you will think of new answers to what the negative has said, answers you do not have written down on your flowsheet. Go ahead, use those answers, but make sure to get them from your partner so that you can remember them for later.

2NC - SECOND NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE

DIVISION OF LABOR:

2NC and 1NR occur back to back, so you need to divide up the issues in the debate. The 2NC should take some issues and the 1NR should take others, BUT THEY SHOULD NEVER COVER THE SAME GROUND. This maximizes your attack on the affirmative and puts a lot of pressure on the 1AR to make mistakes which could allow you to win.

BE COMPLETE:

You need to deal with each and every one of the answers the 2AC makes to your arguments. If they have five answers to your disadvantage, you need to deal with all five of their answers. The really good answers deserve the most attention.

READ EVIDENCE:

Now is your chance to really develop your arguments. Have your best evidence on the issues you will be "going for" out and ready to use before you speak. Find the best 10 pieces of evidence on each of these issues. You may not read them all, but make sure they are ready to be used.

COMPLETE YOUR ARGUMENT DEVELOPMENT:

The "shell" of the argument presented in 1NC isn't enough to win you the debate. You need to develop your arguments further, especially the impacts. You should always read extra impact evidence for the arguments you are really "going for."

KICK OUT OF YOUR WEAK ARGUMENTS:

Don't waste your time trying to defend the arguments they answer the best, invest your time in the arguments where their answers are weak. Kick out of counterplans by conceding competition, kick out of disadvantages as suggested in the disadvantage section. Show

the judge you are discarding your weak arguments and emphasizing your strong arguments, and normally you will be rewarded for it.

DON'T DROP THE TURNS:

A good 2AC will try and "turn" your arguments, and in so doing will make them a new reason to vote for them. Don't let them do that. Answer and defeat the turns as your top priority, then you can go on to win the argument.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THEIR MISTAKES:

If they do not give much attention to a major issue, like a disadvantage or a critique, then you should focus in on that argument and really develop it. Make sure the judge knows that the few 2AC answers are all they are going to be allowed to give - no new answers in rebuttals! If they drop a major argument totally begin your speech with that and emphasize how the debate IS ALREADY OVER because of their error.

WATCH FOR CONTRADICTIONS AND DOUBLE-TURNS:

Affirmative teams often get in trouble by trying to give too many answers, and at some point they begin to contradict themselves. In the case of a double-turn, the affirmative turns both the link and the impact on a disadvantage or a critique, which merely creates a new reason why they should lose the debate. JUDGES LOVE TO VOTE NEGATIVE ON DOUBLE-TURNS.

WEIGH THE ISSUES:

Don't wait until the end of the debate to explain to the judge why your arguments are more important than theirs. Start doing this now so that it will be easier later in the debate. This is also why you want to read more impact evidence in 2NC.

1NR - FIRST NEGATIVE REBUTTAL

DON'T TAKE ANY PREP TIME:

You had the 2NC prep time, the 2NC time, and the cross examination of the 2NC time to prepare. That should be enough. Remember, if you take prep time for 1NR then the 1AR is also prepping during that time, and is STEALING YOUR PREP TIME. Don't let them do that, stand up right after the cross examination of the 2NC and give your speech.

DIVISION OF LABOR:

2NC and 1NR occur back to back, so you need to divide up the issues in the debate. The 2NC should take some issues and the 1NR should take others, BUT THEY SHOULD NEVER COVER THE SAME GROUND. This maximizes your attack on the affirmative and puts a lot of pressure on the 1AR to make mistakes which could allow you to win.

**FOLLOW ALL THE GUIDELINES FOR
THE 2NC BECAUSE YOU ARE DOING
THE SAME THING, DEVELOPING
ISSUES AND PUTTING THE 1AR IN A
DIFFICULT SITUATION.**

1AR - FIRST AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL

The purpose of the 1AR is simple: don't lose the debate.

The strategy is equally simple: don't drop anything. Cover every important argument. You cannot answer each subpoint on an argument, but you should answer any argument which could potentially win the debate for the negative. There are three areas in which you may drop some points to cover the entire issue:

Disads. Pick a set of 2AC arguments to extend. Example, use answers 2-4-6 on the disadvantage, not all six. Or, if the disad was introduced in 2NC, go for links or impacts, but not both.

Counterplans. Again, go for a set of 2AC responses. Go for either topicality, competitiveness, or disadvantages. The affirmatives have the luxury of picking and choosing which counterplan take-outs to extend.

Case attacks. You don't have to win every card on case. You need to win enough to outweigh disad risks. You need to win enough of the *prima facie* burdens of the 1AC. If you have more than one advantage you may choose to jettison the weakest one.

Tips for the 1AR

Word economy.

Be concise. Everything should be on blocks. Use abbreviations.

Highlight your evidence. Eliminate pet phrases. Don't overexplain.

Preflow your speech. Place important words first on the label.

Refer to previous evidence.

It is not possible to read much evidence in the 1AR. Use the evidence from the 1AC and 2AC by extending the cards.

Be organized.

It is important to be organized for all speeches, and it is critically important to be organized for the 1AR. Have all of your briefs in order before you begin to speak.

Order of issues.

Always put topicality first in the 1AR. Then go to disads/counterplans. Go to case last. Ending on familiar ground helps you allocate the time.

Time allocation.

The last thing you do before your delivery of the 1AR is to count the number of issues you will be covering. This will give you a sense of how much time you can spend on each argument. Have your partner help you keep track of time.

Exploit negative contradictions..

Look for some of these popular contradictions:

- A. Inherency-Disad. If negative says the status quo is working, then why haven't the disads happened?
- B. Solvency-Disad. You may be able to grant a negative solvency argument in order to evade the link to a disad.
- C. Disad-Disad. Negatives often run disads with contradictory theses.
You can grant one disad to prevent another. Caution: do not grant negative arguments that could beat you. For example, if you are going to grant out one solvency arguments to evade a disad, make sure you have another solvency mechanism left to gain an advantage.

Remember, the 1AR has to speak quickly and use good word economy because the 1AR has only a few minutes to answer the entire negative block. **ALWAYS GIVE THE 1AR A HIGH-FIVE AFTER THEY SPEAK. IT LOOKS GOOD.**

2NR - SECOND NEGATIVE REBUTTAL

Now is the time to put all of your eggs in one basket.

The negative search for truth ends in the 2NR. Winning requires the 2NR to choose the issues and approach to create a persuasive bottom line negative position. The 2NR cannot pursue everything in the debate because the judge must be told which arguments to consider. If not given a rationale or "bottom line" position, the judge will not know why to vote negative. A winning 2NR writes the ballot for the judge.

There are two ways to win in the 2NR: "Win the Drop" or "Win the Position."

Win the Drop. Many debates are decided because the 1AR could not cover the negative block or because debaters could not flow very well and missed responses. The 2NR's job would simply be to pull the dropped argument and explain why it is sufficient to vote negative. This entails weighing the dropped argument against the affirmative case. Examples include dropped disads, topicality, or major case arguments.

Win the Position. The 2NR must pull all negative issues together in a way that jettisons all irrelevant material and focuses the debate on the single negative strategy. Listed below are several typical negative frameworks that can be used alone or in combination with other frameworks. Remember the importance of narrowing the debate to a simple bottom line position and do not employ too many frameworks at once.

Either way, you will still need to win specific kinds of arguments in order to win the round. Here are some examples of the kinds of arguments you need to win in order to win the debate:

High Impact Disads. Win a disad with an impact that outweighs the case advantages(s).

Topicality. Argue that topicality is an absolute voting issue. In other words, the judge should decide topicality before evaluating the rest of the debate. The 2NR may combine the topicality framework with some other framework or the 2NR may wish to pursue topicality exclusively.

Prima Facie Issue. The 2NR may succeed in totally beating the affirmative on their own ground with one of the case requirements. The only problem with this is that, without a good disad, the affirmative can always argue that the judge has nothing to lose by voting affirmative since, at worst, nothing bad will happen—we might as well try to improve the status quo. This is why it is important to make arguments that turn the case-arguments that the plan actually makes the problems identified by the case worse than they are in the status quo.

The Counterplan Position. The 2NR may choose to focus exclusively on the counterplan position—especially if it competes with the affirmative's advantage(s) and the negative's disads are unique to the affirmative solvency.

The Counterplan + Disadvantage Position. Sometimes you try and have a counterplan that gains the affirmative advantage while avoiding your disadvantage. This is a very effective strategy.

It can be very difficult to decide which issues to focus on in the 2NR, but you must focus. **IF YOU DO NOT CHOOSE, YOU WILL LOSE!**

Tips for the 2NR

Preempt the 2AR. TRY THESE SLOGANS:

"No new arguments in the 2AR."

"No new cross-applications in the 2AR."

"If you can't trace it back to the 1AR, ignore it."

Do not go for everything.

You must win a position or a dropped argument. Now is the time to consider putting all of your eggs in one basket.

Extend your negative block arguments.

Don't just summarize. There are two parts to extending an argument. Deny the truth/relevance of the opposition argument **and** explain why yours is better. Many 2NR's fall into the "no clash trap." You must draw the connection between your arguments and theirs. **TRY THESE SLOGANS:**

"They have good evidence here, but ours answers it."

"We post-date their uniqueness evidence"

"On topicality, they do not extend their own definition, our definition is the only one in the debate."

Each of these slogans considers the opponent's argument and attempts to answer it.

Sequencing.

Go to your best arguments first. Spend a significant amount of time on the argument you want the judge to vote on.

Compare arguments.

Frequently, debaters assume that if they extend their arguments the judge will simply know that their arguments are more important than their opponents'. Do not be so trusting. TRY THESE SLOGANS:

"They may be winning a little advantage, but the disadvantage will outweigh."

"They have a good definition, but it unfairly expands the grounds of the topic, so it is not good for debate."

"Even if they are winning a risk of a turn on this disadvantage, the counterplan will solve the turn."

Take all of your prep time.

Use all of your prep time to write out responses to the issues you have narrowed down. Take a moment to look over the flow and be certain you are not going to miss an important affirmative response. Check with your partner to see what issues he or she might think are important.

Remember: the 2NR and the 2AR represent each team's FINAL OPPORTUNITY to explain its point of view to the judge.

If you have anything important to say, NOW IS THE TIME TO SAY IT! Arguing with the judge after the round is over might make you feel better, but it won't change the outcome of the debate and it will probably make the judge DISLIKE you.

2AR - SECOND AFFIRMATIVE REBUTTAL

The Affirmative gets the last speech in the debate, and they need to take full advantage of it

The general strategy of the 2AR is to re-establish case advantage(s) and to minimize or take out the impacts of the negative arguments. In order to minimize the impact of the negative arguments, go to the best issue in the middle of your speech. This trick tends to de-emphasize the arguments that the 2NR claimed were critical in the debate. In order to re-establish your case advantage, begin your speech with your own agenda or overview that puts forth the most compelling reason to vote affirmative. For example, your case strategy may have been to run a low impact, high probability advantage that evades all disad links. In that case, you would first go back to your advantage and claim it to be absolute, then cover the disad, arguing zero risk on each.

Tips for the 2AR

Extend. Don't just repeat or summarize your arguments.

Select the strongest 1AR responses to go for.

Sequence. Set your agenda. Cover the 2NR. End with a short explanation of why you have won the round.

Re-tell the story. Every affirmative has a narrative behind it. Emphasize how your story is more plausible or more compelling or more anything than theirs is.

Allocate time like the 2NR. Spend time on the issues that the 2NR spent time on. It will do no good to re-explain case for 3 minutes if the 2NR spent 4 minutes on a disad , a counterplan', and a topicality violation.

Wrap up the debate. Explain why you should still win the round even if you have lost a few issues. If you are unable to beat an argument, then say something like: "even if you grant the negative a partial solvency argument, then you still vote affirmative on the chance the plan will solve." Or, "even with only 50% solvency, you should still vote affirmative since it is comparatively better than the status quo."

TIMELINE FOR A POLICY DEBATE

This should help you understand what you should be doing at each point in the debate. At each point in the debate this timeline will show you what each debater should be doing.

BEFORE THE ROUND:

- Find out about judge.
- Find out about opponent.
- Find out what they ran the last time (always save pairings).
- Think of a strategy.
- Talk to a coach.
- Capture the table by getting to the room first, as most classrooms have only one good table.

Make sure everyone is ready. Do not delay the start of the debate once the judge is in position.

1AC – present prepared speech (two copies, with definitions)

1A SPEAKING

- 2A Prepare materials and anticipate arguments.
- 1N Flow, develop strategy based on case, construct case arguments.
- 2N Flow, assist 1N, think of CX questions.

2N CX 1A

- 1A Answer questions using 1AC, be cautious, explain case, have definitions.
- 2A Listen for errors in answers, anticipate negative arguments.
- 1N Prepare to speak next.
- 2N Question 1A, ask questions to help partner, find out confusing stuff about plan.

1N uses no more than 10% of prep time.

- 1A Consult with partner and anticipate answers.
- 2A Same
- 1N Prep.
- 2N Assist.

1NC -present off case arguments and attack the case.

- 1A Flow with detail, watch for contradictions and evidence. Assist 2A. CX questions.
- 2A Listen, flow, prepare to speak next. Order the 1A around.
- 1N SPEAKING
- 2N Listen, flow, pick an argument and prepare to extend it.

1A CX 1N

- 1A Ask questions for 2AC (T, link, competition, relevance).
- 2A Prepare to speak.
- 1N Answer questions based on your arguments, avoid other stuff.
- 2N Listen to answers for errors and prepare to extend an argument. (Ex: DA components).

2A uses no more than 25% of prep time.

- 1A Assist 2A in prepping.

2A Prep.

1N Discuss which issues to go for in the block.

2N Same.

NEGATIVE WILL NEED TO DECIDE WHO IS GOING FOR WHAT IN THE 2NC/1NR BLOCK AT SOME POINT IN HERE.

2AC – Answer or turn everything 1N said and extend the case as well. Establish decision rule.

1A Listen and flow carefully, make sure to get precise responses to help 2A's flow.

2A SPEAKING

1N Flow carefully, special attention to issues to be extended in 1NR, CX questions, serve the 2N.

2N Prepare to speak

1N CX 2A

1A Listen and look for problems.

2A Answer questions fully, don't evade. Indicate decision rule.

1N Ask questions for 2N, explore answers to kick out of things.

2N Prepare to speak.

2N uses no more than 40% of prep time.

1A Review 2AC answers and flow. Consider which to extend.

2A Same.

1N Assist 2N in prep.

2N Prep.

2NC - Kick out of stuff. Concentrate on one or more areas and win them decisively! Begin weighing process.

1A Prepare to speak, ask 2A for help.

2A Flow carefully to determine which 2AC answers to go for, think of CX questions.

1N Listen a bit so that you tell the same story, but spend time preparing your 1NR.

2N SPEAKING

2A CX 2N

1A Prepare to speak

2A Ask questions with focus -- last chance.

1N Prepare 1NR but continue to listen.

2N Answer questions fully, emphasize comparison.

1N uses 0% prep time before 1NR.

1NR – Concentrate on one or more issues and win them decisively. Indicate weighing process.

1A Flow, prepare to speak.

2A Flow carefully, serve the 1A.

1N SPEAKING

2N Flow carefully and think about how to extend these arguments. Star them.

1A then uses no more than 50% of prep time.

1A Prep.

2A Assist 1A in prep.

1N Listen to 2N go over 1NR arguments. Give feedback.

2N Tell 1N about the 1NR arguments - practice, prioritize.

1AR - Answer all the issues in the negative block, but focus on certain 2AC responses (turns, dropped answers, stronger answers, etc.).

1A SPEAKING

2A Listen and flow carefully, watch time allocation, signal.

1N Listen and flow carefully. Watch for strategic errors and openings.

2N Listen and flow but prep 2NR.

2N now uses all remaining negative prep time.

1A Review 1AR and consider opportunities. Look at round strategically.

2A Review 1AR on most troubling issue, consider which answers are best.

1N Assist and advise partner.

2N Compare systems, discuss options, THEN prep.

2NR - Focus on critical negative issues, minimize affirmative case, weigh the round for the judge using ideas begun in 2NC.

1A Flow and look for opportunities & errors.

2A Flow and prep.

1N Flow and watch for suggestions to make later.

2N SPEAKING

2A now uses all remaining affirmative prep time.

1A Assist 2A.

2A Prep.

1N Kickback. Look confident.

2N Kickback. Look confident.

2AR - Counter remaining negative issues, defend case, engage in weighing and show judge how your system is better.

1A Flow for comments.

2A SPEAKING

1N Flow for comments and anticipation.

2N Same.

Save and label flowsheets completely.

Shake hands with opponents.

Make sure you have all your stuff.

Don't leave the room until the critic votes.

Receive any comments from critic.

Be inquisitive with critic but not rude.

PART FOUR

DEBATERS HAVE SKILLS

Speaking	65
Flowing	67
Speaking drills	71
Organization	75
Debating as a team	79
Cross examination	80
Evidence	82
Evidence drills	83
Research	84
Briefing	95
Analysis drills	97
Rebuttals	98
Adapting to judges	100

SPEAKING

GOALS:

1. Clarity & comprehension: the judge needs to understand what you say.
2. Increase your credibility: good delivery makes the judge want to believe you.
3. Enhance memory: you want the judge to remember what you said as well as flow it.

BE DYNAMIC - PEOPLE TEND TO LISTEN TO AND BELIEVE DYNAMIC SPEAKERS

You are a dynamic speaker when you speak with energy, enthusiasm, commitment, and variety. You are not dynamic when you are unconcerned, unconfident, speak in a monotone, and are just plain boring. Act like you care about the arguments and you really want to win this debate.

FACTORS IN CREATING DYNAMISM:

1. Variation - never do the same thing over and over again in any of your speaking habits. Mix it up.
2. Emphasis - use your delivery (voice, gestures, etc.) to emphasize and highlight the important arguments and the important words in your evidence.
3. Naturalness - be yourself, because if the judge thinks you are trying to be fake, they will not want to believe you. You are cool, don't worry about it, impress them with your dynamism and your arguments.

APPLYING DYNAMISM FACTORS TO DELIVERY

VOICE:

Volume - change it for emphasis but don't talk too loudly or too softly.

Tone - change it for emphasis but don't speak in an unusual or out of character tone.

Speed - slow down for the important stuff, but don't go too slow or too fast.

GESTURES: Use your hands to emphasize important points, a lot of gestures makes you look more energetic, which increases dynamism.

FACE: Your face is the most expressive part of your body, and studies show people pay attention to the expression on your face. Make sure to use facial expressions which match the points you are making. Don't send mixed signals.

MOVEMENT: Don't be afraid to move around a bit, but don't stray too far from your flowsheet and your evidence.

PHYSICAL ELEMENTS OF SPEECH

Brief overview of speech mechanics.

- A. diaphragm (energy source of your speaking mechanism), stand up and locate at base of rib cage; read while bent over as long as you can without inhaling. Do the same while standing up. See if you can speak longer while standing.
- B. trachea (windpipe), looks like a vacuum hose or dryer hose, not the same thing as your throat (esophagus).
- C. larynx (voice box). locate your adam's apple, blow up a balloon and then release it forcing air out of the end.
- D. soft palate (determines nasal qualities) stand and hold your nose - say the vowels (A, E, I, O, U,) with nostrils pinched, then try it with nose open; stand and hold your nose - say the consonants M, N, and - NG, then try it with nose open.
- E. mouth (where articulation comes from), talk with a pen in your mouth, talk without opening your mouth very wide and keeping your teeth together, talk with mouth opening widely and teeth moving as needed to articulate, see how much better it sounds when you really use your mouth.

SPEECH MECHANICS

1. Don't smoke - not only is it a disgusting habit (it's not cool, you know) but it can reduce your clarity as a speaker AND slow you down.
2. Always stand when you speak. Don't crush your diaphragm.
3. Practice every morning before a tournament by reading the newspaper out loud and fast while overemphasizing pronunciation. This will "wake up" your vocal chords and "oil" your larynx.
4. Breathe properly. Don't bend over and read. Breathe only at the end of a sentence.
5. Don't take your pen with you when you speak. Especially, do not twirl the pen while speaking! KEEP IT OUT OF YOUR MOUTH.

GIVING A GOOD FIRST IMPRESSION: SHOW THE FIVE C's

First impressions are important. In interview situations, most people are "hired" in the minds of the interviewer within the first 3 minutes based on their appearance alone.

1. Competitive (serious demeanor, ready to debate on time)
1. Confident (proper research, up on time, act like you feel good about what you are saying)
1. Courteous (not shmoozing, friendly, mature)
4. Credible (you want to be, dynamism can really help)
5. Commanding (dress appropriately, don't use street language, don't be afraid, don't be rude, don't swear)

FLOWING

INTRODUCTION:

Taking notes properly ("flow sheeting" or "flowing" is the debate term) is an essential entry level skill for novice debaters. In order to answer arguments by your opponents, you must be able to write them down so that you can remember them and respond to them in order. Likewise, your flow sheet becomes the text which you use when you speak...it becomes the notes which you speak from. You must work at improving your flowing and you will never be too good at it. More than any other skill besides speaking itself, flowsheeting is important to your debate experience....and important to winning.

WHAT TO WRITE WITH

Write in black, it is easier to read. Use something which moves smoothly over the paper and allows you to write quickly. Use something which does not smear. Use something which is comfortable in your hand. Try a medium point pen, though if you write small use a fine point, and if you write large you can get away with a broad point pen. Always have lots of the right kinds of pens.

WHAT TO WRITE ON

Most debaters flow on yellow legal pads. Yellow because it is easy to read (especially with black ink!), and a legal size (8.5" x 14") because it allows for more room. Some debaters buy a ream of white legal size paper and just use that as it is more economical. Legal paper in pads allows you to have several pages attached together at the top.

HOW MANY COLUMNS TO USE

There are 8 speeches in the debate, but you will only need 7 columns. This is because the 2NC-1NR occur one right after the other without an intervening affirmative speech, so they can share the same column.

Thus, the 7 columns would be: 1AC, 1NC, 2AC, 2NC-1NR, 1AR, 2NR, 2AR. My advice is to draw these columns in on your pages well before the debate starts. You should flow the entire debate, even after you have given your rebuttal, so that you can help your partner. For new issues introduced in 2NC (which happens from time to time) you will only need 4 columns: 2NC, 1AR, 2NR, 2AR. [SEE APPENDIX TWO FOR A SAMPLE FLOW]

USE OF SEPARATE PADS/SHEETS

It is often useful to have several different pads, and put different kinds of arguments on each one. For example, the affirmative case could be on one pad, the negative topicality and procedural arguments could be on another, the negative disadvantages could be on a third pad, and the negative counterplan could be on a fourth pad...depending on if these issues make an appearance at all. This use of separate pads allows you to keep your notes organized around major types of issues in the debate. You don't want a bunch of loose sheets of paper flying all over.

LEAVE ROOM ON YOUR FLOW

As a speech is given, you write down what is being said in that speech's column. If, for example, it is a negative argument against the case made in 1NC you would flow it on the case pad, in the 1NC column, next to the part of the case the argument clashes with. But it is very important not to crowd things together. If things are all packed together on your flow it will be hard to refer to it and read from it when you are speaking. Do not be afraid to use many pages, with a different major point on each page. Also, when you flow issues just being introduced into the debate (affirmative case, negative counterplan, etc.) do not try and put them one right under another on your flow...space them out. Leave open space in the beginning and then it will be there if and when you need it.

SYMBOLIC VOCABULARY

People speak more quickly than you can write, therefore your flow will not contain a word for word version of what you and/or your opponents say, but it will (hopefully) contain a shortened and meaningful version of the idea they are expressing. One useful way to do that is to use symbols to stand for concepts we commonly encounter in an argumentative situation. By turning their statements into a new symbolic and abbreviated form, we can boil down what they are saying into what they mean.

Logic symbols: Some useful symbols of this type include: [imagine the drawing if it is in brackets]

[arrow up] means increasing or increases.

[arrow down] means decreasing or decreases.

= means is, or the same as

----> means causes or leads to

> means greater than

< means less than

Also, all of these can be negated (turned into not) by putting a line through them, so you get not increasing, not decreasing, not equal to or not same as, not lead to or not cause, etc.

Debate symbols:

x piece of evidence used by speaker

? no answer to this

[triangle] change

[small circle with line through it] assertion which should have been proven

[small circle with x through it] evidence does not prove argument claimed

ABBREVIATIONS VOCABULARY

Also, you will develop abbreviations for common debate terms as well as common terms in the topic. If you are making an abbreviation for the first time try just leaving the vowels out, thus "hospital" becomes "hsptl." As you become more familiar with an abbreviation you can drop out more and more characters to increase efficiency.

Debate abbreviations:

T=topicality

DA=disadvantage

K=critique

H=harm

SV=solvency

AC=aff case

AP=aff plan

CP=counterplan

VI=voting issue

You will develop your own.

Topic abbreviations:

You will develop your own.

When you combine argument and debate symbols with debate and topic abbreviations, you are able to quickly write down what the arguments of your opponent mean in a way that can make sense to you and that you can interpret to the critic.

EXAMPLE:

"Legislating new mandatory minimum sentences would let criminals know that they will do time if they get caught, and so they will think twice about committing more crimes."

BECOMES:

"[arrow up] MM ---> percep of crims = [arrow down] Cr"

HELPFUL TIPS

- 1) Never give up. If you miss something, get the next argument. Once you stop flowing in a debate, you are opting out of meaningful participation in it.
- 1) Try and write down everything you can. Pour your entire attention and energy into this task.
- 1) Ask to see the flows of your coaches and fellow debaters. Learn from them.
- 1) Practice...go and watch a debate and try to take the best flow you can.
- 1) Look at your flows and see how many of these techniques you have used.
- 1) Don't be disorganized. When flowing the disorganized speaker, do not follow his or her example. Write all of his or her arguments in one column on a separate legal pad. Then in your speech, answer all of his or her arguments. Then go back to the structure and point out what you are winning and what your opponent failed to answer in his or her speech.
- 1) Use structure. Structure and label all the arguments on your flow the same way that the speaker you are flowing is structuring and labeling his or her arguments. Be sure to write down all the numbers and letters you hear on your flow so that you can refer to specific subpoints of your partner or the other team later in the debate.
- 1) Use pre-flows. Flow all of your arguments clearly before you speak. Before the debate, it will sometimes be possible to pre-flow generic arguments on post-it notes.
- 8) Use your partner. If you cannot flow all of your arguments before you speak, hand your flow to your partner during cross-examination and have him or her fill in your flow for you. Use the other team's prep time to talk to your partner about arguments you might have missed.
- 8) Label your arguments. On your briefs and pre-flows, label your arguments with short, accurate, precise, and specific labels, which are no more than four words long. As you are labeling, put the crucial words first. If you label arguments correctly, you will be able to give a better speech because your judge, partners and opponents will find you easier to follow.

Flowing Speech by Speech

1AC: Everyone flows this speech. The Affirmative team should have this speech preflowed on post-it notes or legal pads. Use lots of space between each argument.

1NC: Everyone flows this speech. The negative may have their generic arguments already pre-flowed. During the cross-examination period following the 1NC, the 2NC flows onto the 1NC's flow any responses that the 1NC didn't get.

2AC: Everyone flows this speech. Use cross examination to get parts that you missed or have your partner fill in the missing information.

2NC: Everyone but the 1NC flows this speech. The 1NR listens but is mostly preparing to give the 1NR.

1NR: Everyone flows this speech.

1AR: Everyone flows this speech.

2NR: Everyone flows this speech.

2AR: Everyone flows this speech.

SPEAKING DRILLS

You get better through practice. Your speaking skills are like any other skill - they need to be trained and practiced and refined. Do regular drills. Get together and do them with your teammates. Make little contests out of them and HAVE FUN!

This material comes from a lecture on delivery by Cate Palczewski and Aaron Hawbaker at the 1991 National High School Institute at Northwestern University, added to and refined by Arnie Madsen. It is sort of aimed at coaches, but each debater can do this on their own.

A general comment about the drills -- all speaking drills are over- corrections. If a student has a particular speaking problem, they work to solve it by over-correcting. This list provides some examples of various drills to solve specific problems.

1) Breathing problems -- this includes not taking enough breathes (running out of air at the end of a sentence or the end of a card) and breathing wrong (huge gasps of air, actually a symptom of not taking enough breathes):

- ÿ Breath at natural pause points in the evidence -- have the debater take a small breath at each punctuation mark -- commas, periods, semi-colons, colons, etc,
- ÿ Breath at natural pause points in the speech -- say the tag, take a breath, read the cite, take a breath, read the card (breathing at punctuation marks), then take a breath after the card before going to the next tag, then repeat the process,
- ÿ Breathing from the diaphragm -- most debaters when talking fast breath from the throat rather than from the diaphragm -- they thus don't get enough breath to last more than a partial sentence or two. How do you correct this? Have the debater hold a chair chest high in front of them, with their arms as straight as possible (no resting the chair on anything, or against one's chest, etc.). Have them read a brief that is laying on the seat of the chair - - they should be breathing from the diaphragm during this process. Now have them put down the chair and have them re-read the brief in their normal way -- they will likely be breathing improperly. Have them do the chair drill until they start to notice the physical difference in their breathing process,
- ÿ Posture -- slumping over and reading a brief off of a desktop, or sitting down while they are talking, or other posture errors cause a lot of breathing from the throat problems. Have them stand up straight and put the briefs on a podium.

2) Enunciation problems

- ÿ Enunciation drills -- have the debater slowly read a card, hitting all of the hard consonants (g, t, k, p, b, d, etc) and enunciating each and every syllable. Then, slowly have them build up to speed while they continue to over-enunciate and continue to clearly hit all of the hard consonants,

- ŷ Pencil drill -- have the debater read a card while they have a pencil in their mouth,
- ŷ Tongue Twisters -- have the debater read tongue twisters at high speed.

3) Pitch problems -- often the pitch of a debater's voice will go much higher than their normal pitch when they talk fast. Pitch problems are another symptom of improper breathing, so use the same chair drill that you use for breathing problems to work to correct this.

4) Mush Mouth - articulation is unclear

- ŷ abade drill -- have a debater say abade (ah baa dee) over and over and over, steadily increasing speed, and continuing to have clean and clear breaks between the syllables and between the words,
- ŷ Open the mouth -- have the debater open their mouth to an exaggerated degree when they read something at a conversational rate (they will think this is silly looking and that it feels silly). Now have them do the same at a faster rate of delivery -- when people are flowing and judging, they won't notice the exaggerated articulation effort.

5) Choppy speech -- lots of unnatural or unnecessary pauses and stumbles

- ŷ Get a rhythm -- try to get the debater to learn a natural rhythm that will keep them at a constant speed -- one technique is to read to music that has a clear and constant beat, or clap your hands or tap a pencil on the desk while they are talking, slowly increasing the beat as they progress through the speech,
- ŷ Internal metronome -- obviously they can't read to music in a debate round, so try to create an internal rhythm mechanism unique to that debater -- some debaters lightly tap their foot, some use a finger to follow the words they are reading, some gently rock back and forth or forward and backward,
- ŷ Read ahead -- have the debater practice reading a couple words ahead of where their mouth is -- often stumbles and pauses are caused by suddenly encountering new or unexpected words, thus, if they see the words a partial second before they speak them, fewer pauses will result,
- ŷ Ignore stuttering and stumbles -- a lot of debaters will *back up* and try to correctly pronounce a word, or will try to stop a stutter and correctly say a word. That gets them out of their rhythm, forces them to almost stop speaking for a second, and then re-start again. Instead, try to have them just keep going when they make an error (at a fast rate of speaking, few judges will notice if someone mispronounces a word or two) -- it's like a record that is stuck in the same groove -- hit the arm and get it to a new groove, don't stop the record and merely start over at the same place.

6) Monotone or Singsong delivery

- ŷ Get a brief and mark the *good* debate words, the ones that require emphasis. Have the debaters read the brief, altering their pitch or emphasis when they get to those words. Try NOT to have them alter their volume, as by the end of the speech

they will be shouting, and they will also be wasting valuable breathing. Also, try NOT to have them slow down for emphasis -- like braking a car and then re-accelerating, slowing down then forces re-acceleration in a speech, wasting time and breath,

ŷ Personality -- most debaters seem to divorce their own unique personality from fast speaking. Have them read the card or brief slowly, and in their normal mode of speaking (like it was a conversation rather than reading evidence) -- hints of their personality should come through. Now have them build up the speed, maintaining that personality influence along the way.

7) Too quiet -- more common with high school students and novices, but some people are hard to hear because their volume is too low. The drill is simply to have them practice reading at the top of their voice.

8) Too loud -- generally caused by improper breathing, thus, use the drills above. The other remedy is to simply have them practice reading at a whisper, and then to find the happy medium.

Other hints:

1. A lot of delivery problems are caused by lack of familiarity with what they are reading. This implies a couple of things.
 - A) Get your debaters in the habit of reading through their briefs before they file them -- the more familiar they are with their evidence, the more fluid their speaking should be,
 - A) Do drills with material that the debaters have no interest in. For example, have them read Plato or Aristotle at warp drive, or have them read the classified page of the newspaper. If they could care less about baseball, have them read the baseball page of the newspaper as a drill. This causes them to focus on their technique in speaking, rather than on the specific content of their material.
 - A) Have them start every speech relatively slow and then work up to speed. This does a couple of things.
 1. They will tend not to overshoot their own capabilities. A lot of times debaters will start at a faster rate than they can maintain over the course of a speech. Building up to their maximum rate means they are more likely to maintain that rate,
 1. This allows the judge and the opponents a few seconds to get used to the debater's particular speaking style before a critical card or argument comes flying by.
 1. Have your debaters *warm up* before a round -- have them read briefs in the van between the motel and the tournament so that they are warmed up and ready to speak, or have them take a brief to the restroom or outside immediately before the start of every debate.
 1. Avoid milk and dairy products -- Cori Dauber has claimed for years that milk and other dairy products coat the vocal cords, prevent talking at maximum speed, and cause more stumbles and vocal slips. Thus, drink water and ice tea and so on before, during, and between debates. I have noticed that some people have similar

problems if they drink stuff with too much sugar -- have them switch to plain water or diet soft drinks instead during the day.

1. Stop and go speeches -- have them give a practice speech, and immediately stop them whenever a problem occurs, making them start over from the beginning. Then, at the next problem make them stop and start over again. This will get real old, real quick, and cause them to start incorporating the suggestions.
1. Tape your debaters -- a lot of people use audio tape, but I have found that video tape is even better -- that way the debaters not only HEAR their annoying habits, they also SEE their annoying habits.
1. Practice, practice, practice -- not only warm up every day at a tournament, but get them in the habit of practicing at least 5-10 minutes every day. Have them practice giving speeches without cards as well as reading cards (a lot fewer cards are read in rebuttals, for example, than in constructives).

Drills are for EVERYONE. Novices need them to get used to speaking in the debate situation. People with high school experience need them to get rid of their bad high school habits. Experienced debaters that often get speaker awards need them to keep in shape and move up on the speaker award list.

As Cecilia Graves says, speaking drills are like preparing for a marathon -- you don't just practice once or twice and then run a marathon. You have to train every day, even after you won a marathon, because there is always another race to run, another opponent to defeat.

ORGANIZATION

Excellent ideas can be sabotaged by poor organization. Likewise, average ideas can be enhanced and successful if properly organized.

One of the most important goals a debater has is to be able to present material in a way that makes logical sense, relates ideas to each other in meaningful ways, and allows the judge to connect your responses to the arguments they are answering. Unless your ideas work together well and unless the judge writes your answers to the opposition's arguments down next to the arguments they apply to, victory will be difficult.

LEARN TO BUILD AN OUTLINE

When you build arguments and advocacy positions in a debate it is important to remember basic outlining techniques.

MAJOR POINTS: Divide your ideas up under major headings. These major headings might represent major argumentative burdens such as stock issues. Make sure that the major points are distinct from one another. If an idea is unavoidable and vital in coming to the conclusion you want, it should be included as a major point. Put major points in the proper chronological order: causes before effects, background before conclusions, etc. The statement of the major point should be something which all of the points arrayed under it are relevant to.

SUBORDINATION: Within each major point you can array all of the specific points which support the major idea. Some of these will naturally group together into further subgroups. This sorting of ideas is critical to debate success and to becoming a critical thinker. Ideas can be sorted by: distinct idea or concept, general or specific nature, different steps in a logical process, etc.

NOTATION: Outlines (and debate arguments) have letter and number alternations so that one level of substructure can be differentiated from another. Major points are often expressed with roman numerals (I, II, III, IV, etc.), subtopics of major points are letters (A, B, C, D, etc.), and particulars about subtopics are numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, etc.). It takes two particular ideas to begin a subdivision of any point, or else the single subdivision would be the more general point. You need a B to justify an A, and a 2 to justify a 1.

- I. Major point that you are making
 - A. Subtopic in support of I.
 - B. Another subtopic in support of I.
 - 1. Specific point about B.
 - 2. Another specific point about B.
- II. Another major point you are making.
 - A. Subtopic in support of II.
 - B. Another subtopic in support of II.

STRUCTURE BEYOND THE OUTLINE

In critiquing arguments by others, or in applying certain issues to positions taken by the other team, it is essential to organize smaller groups of arguments. For example, if the affirmative case has stated that X is harmful, the negative will need to organize responses to this concept. Here are two distinct ways to organize such response.

LIST OF REASONS -- USE NUMBERS: Often debaters will provide a list of independent reasons why something is or is not true. If the affirmative claims that X is harmful, the negative could come up with 1, 2, 3, and 4 independent arguments why this is not true. Each of these would be a separate idea, not a repeat of a previous idea. Thus, opponents would have to answer each of these separately.

CHAIN OF REASONING - USE LETTERS: Often arguments are more complex than one idea, and involve several steps. These can be thought of as chains of reasoning. Thus, a debater would say that A is true, and B is true, and therefore this leads to conclusion C. Like any chain, it is only as strong as its weakest link. Thus, opponents would only have to break the chain at one point.

WHY DO THIS: It is very important to be able to tell the difference between a situation where arguments in a list are independent and where there is a chain of reasoning. If you organize arguments this way you will always be able to tell the difference easily.

BUILDING A SINGLE ARGUMENT -- THE A-R-E MODEL

Here is one way to build a single argument. The debate will be full of such single arguments. It is quite commonly used and will help you as a novice debater to organize the way you speak in the debate. Each argument has three components: the ASSERTION, the REASONING, and the EVIDENCE.

A=ASSERTION: This is the label that you are giving this argument, and it is what you want the judge to write down on their flow. It should be relatively short, snappily worded, and express an argumentative relationship. A bad label would be "X is not bad," while a good label would be "X is good for your health" or "Studies show no harmful effects." The more expressive label does more than just say "we win" it gives a reason why....and giving reasons why things are true is the basis of argumentation. Make your assertion label a statement which expresses a relationship between two ideas and you should be communicating your ideas well. But, keep it short!

R=REASONING: Here is where you explain the logical basis of your argument. There is a difference between a "claim" and an "argument." A claim merely states that something is so, but does not explain why. Thus, a team could just keep making claims ("we win," "our arguments are better," "our case is true") without making progress in the debate.

An “argument” expresses a REASON why something is true. It uses some logical principle to compel belief on the part of the listeners. Quite often debaters will leave this step out as they imply use prepared briefs in an assertion-evidence pattern. They do so at their peril, as will be explained later.

E=EVIDENCE: Here is where you use some fact, testimony, or expert opinion to bolster the point you are making. This often comes in the form of a “piece of evidence” or “evidence card” which has been researched prior to the debate. [See Evidence training step] Such evidence should be relevant and in direct support of the assertion label you have used. You do not need a “card” to make an argument, especially if it uses some sound logical principle which you are able to demonstrate rhetorically. A logical demonstration of the argument can also serve as evidence.

PUT THEM ALL TOGETHER WITH NOTATION: Remember to precede each assertion label with a number or letter.

1. Citizens oppose higher taxes [A]

Surveys show they do not want to pay for even successful new programs [R]

New York Times, 11/25/1899: “A Gallup poll released today showed that a taxpayer revolt is in full swing. 85% opposed increasing taxes for new government programs even if the programs themselves would be beneficial.” [E]

KEEP THE COMPONENTS IN ORDER!

SIGNPOSTING - STAYING ORGANIZED DURING YOUR SPEECH

When driving around you get lost if the signs aren't clear and easy to follow. The same is true while debating.

The best way to ensure that the judge understands the order in which you address issues is signposting. Transitions between arguments also help the judge to follow the order in which you move from argument to argument. This will be helpful not only to the other team and to the judge, but also to your partner. Having a coherent discussion of the issues will help the whole debate to move in a much smoother way and allow more clash with the other team.

Several terms are important to understand.

On-Case. The arguments on the flow pages that begin with the 1AC. These are arguments which are used to prove the stock issues of inherency, significance, and solvency.

Off-Case. These are the arguments that are brought up by the negative which do not directly refute the case arguments of inherency, significance, and solvency. They are usually disadvantages, counterplans, topicality arguments, or critiques.

Roadmap. Allows the judges and the other teams to know which major arguments will be addressed in what order.

1. Usually done at the beginning of the speech for the judges and the other team.

1. Done in the order of, usually, off-case arguments and then on case.

1. Examples:

1NC: Three off case and then the case debate.

2AC: Will identify the off-case arguments which will be answered first, then the case.

2NC: Since the 2NC will usually extend some of the off-case arguments, the 2NC usually identifies the specific off-case arguments in sequence they will be answered.

Signposting. Allows the judge and other teams to identify the specific argument being addressed within each major argument.

A. Done throughout each speech, this requires distinguishing between each argument and labeling each argument.

A. Usually numbers and letters are used, but debaters might also use other forms of distinguishing between each argument.

A. Examples include: "One. Not-Unique. Present policies will cause the disad. Two. No link. The plan does not cause the disadvantage. Three. Turn. The plan solves the impact to the disad." Debaters can substitute the word "next" in place of specific numbers, but the important thing to do is post a sign which indicates that the next thing you are about to say is a different argument. This will notify the judge and the opponent to record each argument and not miss your brilliance. IF AT ALL POSSIBLE AVOID "NEXT" AND USE NUMBERS.

Transitions. Transitions provide information about where you are on the flow, while also providing the judge time to organize their flows.

1. This addresses the way that we move from one off-case argument to another or between the off case and on case.

1. Often in the INC, one disad will be read and when moving it to a second one, you should say, "Next off-case."

1. When moving from the off-case to the on-case, you should say, "Now, on the case debate."

**KEEP EVERYONE WITH YOU AND YOU
VASTLY INCREASE THE CHANCES THAT
YOUR ARGUMENTS WILL BE NOTICED
AND PROPERLY APPLIED!**

DEBATING AS A TEAM

You don't debate by yourself, you debate as a team. Good teamwork prepares you to succeed in debate and to succeed in life. Here is some simple advice on how you and your partner should prepare to debate together.

PARTNERSHIPS:

- Decide on Speaker positions. Don't be afraid to share the 2's, making one person the expert on the negative and the other expert on the affirmative.
- Make agreements between yourselves:
 - How much work you want to do on debate. How committed are you?
 - Which tournaments will you attend together?
 - Division of labor -- who is going to do what? Negotiable as you go along.
 - Schedule time to work together on arguments and files.
- Get what you need: folders, tubs, expandos. At least folders and a box AND A STOPWATCH.

AFFIRMATIVE:

- Prep the 1AC. Insert rhetoric, time it, cut and rearrange. Make it yours.
- Prep topicality responses and answers to the disads you would run against your case.
- File all of the evidence. Try to know where stuff is. Have an index to use.
- Make sure you have answers to all of our negative arguments filed separately. Often when you receive evidence from institutes, handbooks, etc. the answers to the negative arguments will also be included. Pull these answers out and put them with your affirmative materials.

NEGATIVE:

- Make sure you have the arguments which are available to you. Compare with other teams, trade, cooperate, and try to increase the number of different negative approaches you have.
- Have a separate section for all of your shells. Make them easy to get and use.
- Folderize or expandoize all of the extensions for the negative arguments. Find the best 8-10 pieces of evidence to extend each of your major negative arguments. Create folders for negative arguments you have against different cases. Often when you receive evidence from institutes, handbooks, etc. the negative answers to the affirmative cases you are not using will also be included. Pull these answers and put them in your negative materials, each in a folder with the case name on it.
- Make a separate topicality file for the negative.

CROSS EXAMINATION

The cross-examination period of a debate is a time when the person who is not going to speak next in the constructives questions the person who has just finished speaking. Consider cross examination an information exchange period - it is not the time to role play lawyer.

Cross examination may serve five objectives:

- ÿ To clarify points
- ÿ To expose errors
- ÿ To obtain admissions
- ÿ To setup arguments
- ÿ To save prep time
- ÿ To show the judge how cool you are so they WANT to vote for you.

Most debaters tend to ignore the value of good cross-examination. Remember, 20% of the entire debate is spent in cross-examination -- it should be a meaningful and essential part of the debate. If nothing else, debaters tend to underestimate the importance that cross-examination may have on the judge. In cross-examination, briefs are not read and advanced arguments are not spewed out. Cross-examination will indicate to the judge just how sharp and spontaneous the debaters are. Invisible bias will always occur in a debate round and judges would always like the sharpest team to win. Good, effective cross-examination of the opponents can play an important psychological role in winning the ballot of the judge.

Be dynamic. Have questions and be ready to go, answer questions actively and with confidence whenever you can. The image you project will be very important to the audience/judge. This is the one opportunity the audience/judge has to compare you with opponents side-by-side.

GUIDELINES FOR ASKING QUESTIONS:

1. Ask a short Q designed to get a short A
2. Indicate the object of your Q
3. Don't telegraph your argument, don't make it too obvious.
4. Don't ask Q they won't answer properly. "So, we win, right?"
5. Make Q seem important, even if it is just an attempt to clarify.
6. Politeness is a must -- emphasize the difference if they are rude.
7. Approach things from a non-obvious direction. Then trap them.
8. Mark your flow/notes as to what you want to question them about.
9. Avoid open ended Qs unless you are sure they are clueless.
10. Face the judge/audience, not your opponent.
11. CX answers must be integrated into your arguments made during a speech.

GUIDELINES FOR ANSWERING QUESTIONS:

1. Concise A.
2. Refer to something you have already said whenever possible. This is safe.
3. Answer based on your position in the debate so far. Keep options open.
4. Don't make promises of what you or your partner will do later.
5. Qualify your answers.
6. Be willing to exchange documents read into the debate.
7. Answer only relevant questions.
8. Address the judge.
9. Try and not answer hypothetical Q. If they demand, say you will give a hypothetical A.
10. Signal each other, don't tag-team.
11. Don't say "I don't know," say "I am not sure at this time...."

Here are some questions that each speaker should try to get answered during their cross examination.

2NC Cross Examination of 1AC

- ÿ Get missing signposts and arguments..
- ÿ Center most of your questions on the plan. Look for plan errors and possible links to disads. Ask for a copy of the plan and read it.
- ÿ Make sure that you understand the thesis of the case and what advantages are being claimed. If you are not sure ask-now is the time do it not after the 2AC!

1AC Cross Examination of 1NC

- ÿ If the 1NC argued topicality, make sure that you know what the violations are and what standards they are using to prove that you are not topical.
- ÿ Make the 1NC explain any arguments that you do not understand.
- ÿ Ask the 1NC to explain the links, thresholds, and/or impacts to the disads that were argued in the 1NC.
- ÿ Ask the 1NC to explain why the counterplan is better than the affirmative. Ask them to compare specific quantifiable disadvantages.

1NC Cross Examination of 2AC and 2AC Cross Examination of 2NC

- ÿ Ask for any responses that your partner missed.
- ÿ Ask for any briefs or evidence that you or your partner need in order to answer every response given by the 2AC/2NC
- ÿ Ask the 2AC/2NC to explain why he or she may have granted out some arguments - especially on advantages or disadvantages.

EVIDENCE

Cutting Evidence Cards

There are several main things to remember as you begin the process of research.

1. Try to cut only cards that make arguments. There is definitely a place for informational cards, but they should be labeled as such so they're not used inappropriately in rounds.
1. Never, Ever cut one sentence cards. They rarely make a real argument.
1. Cards should be complete thoughts, and this will always mean complete sentences (cards should begin with a capital letter and end with a punctuation mark.)
1. Try to cut at least a paragraph for each card, so there is a context for the author's ideas.
1. Don't ever cut cards that aren't what the author advocates. This includes cards where the word after the card is BUT.

Simple Guidelines for Evidence Citation

1. Evidence should always have full and complete citations. just as articles should footnote their sources, debaters should make it possible for others to identify where evidence comes from. This includes the following:

- a. The author
- b. The author's qualifications
- c. The publication
- d. The date of the publication
- e. The page number of the original quotation.

2. All evidence should be clearly cited on a brief. Cite lists which can be coded are acceptable, but BEFORE THE BRIEF IS REPRODUCED FOR OTHERS, the citation of every card should be clearly identified.

Unacceptable:

Wade 99 or New York Times 99 or Senate Hearings 99

Acceptable:

Wade, Adjunct Education Professor, Emory U, Fall 99 (Melissa, Journal of Debate Love), p. 23

3. Number coded Citation sheets are acceptable, BUT DO NOT FAIL TO PUT THE COMPLETE CITATION ON THE BRIEF WHEN IT IS COMPLETED.
4. The rules for citation don't change when citing the world wide web. There still must be an author, qualification, publication, date, and a FULL WEB SITE ADDRESS. Saying Schoolinfo.com or internet as a source is NOT acceptable. If you can't find the FULL cite for a source from the Net, DON'T USE THE EVIDENCE.

An example web site is:

<http://debate.uvm.edu/udl/udl.html>

EVIDENCE DRILLS

- Give your team members several pieces of evidence you make up with errors and mistakes in them and have them identify the errors. Make sure it is marked as never to be used in a debate. Be tricky, hide things, see if they can find the errors.
- Give them two pieces of evidence which say the opposite things. Have them come up with reasons why each is better than the other, and then they have to decide which really is better evidence.
- Give them a short article you have read which has some useful evidence in it, make sure the evidence is not marked. Have them read the article and bracket the evidence and then write out tag lines for each one. See what they miss.
- Give them a very short very bad article which has NO evidence in it. The right answer is, "There is no good evidence in this short article." Always good for a laugh because they will try and find something no matter what. Make sure the article is VERY short.
- Give them a contention from your first affirmative speech or better yet from an opponent's first affirmative speech [or a disadvantage, or a counterplan ... whatever you want to work on] and go through the evidence and criticize it.

RESEARCH

Gina Ercolini & Pat Gehrke, Pennsylvania State University

This is the research guide for the 1999 World Debate Institute. It may reference the University of Vermont library system, but for the most part it is generally applicable to most modern libraries. Note that the SAGE system is unique to the University of Vermont.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Importance of Research

Research is essential, in no small part, because we are not experts on many of the things that we speak about. In order to have credibility about those issues, we need to display knowledge of the relevant literature and make appropriate use of that literature. Research is critical to lending credibility to our arguments. Additionally, each of us must find our own voice in the political arena, and research helps us to do that. By learning to adequately take hold of all the most relevant information we find how we can speak on those issues in our own voice. When we speak out on issues of law or government, each of us speaks in her or his own voice. Yet, that is a voice each of us only comes to by exposure to what other people have said about that subject. The more people one comes into contact with on that issue, the richer one's voice will be. Similarly, the richness of others' voices enriches one's voice.

Since information is the meta-principle of our age, research is also essential to being an effective advocate in our society. We speak of our information age, ruled by an information economy, and in which we fight information wars. The omnipresence of information as a descriptor of our society also reflects that the control and management of information has become a critical element of political effectiveness. A person who cannot effectively make use of information—find it, read it, organize it, and talk about it—is a person who is not an effective participant in society. Information is power.

B. Debate Research

Research is the bread and butter of debate. There is no doubt that contemporary policy debate, both in high school and college, is largely research driven. Our capacity to do research has a great deal to do with our capacity to participate in debates and to succeed in debate. Judges, coaches, and students have largely taken up the position that debate is an information processing activity in which we handle enormous amounts of information in order to discuss important issues.

The first guideline for debate research is to have a strategic focus. This means, first, that you need to know what you are looking for. You will approach your research much differently if you are looking for a very recent quotation about the president's popularity than if you are looking for material that analyzes the connection between presidential popularity and the implementation of public policies the president supports. Know what you are looking for so that you can best focus on what you really need.

Second, if you know what you are looking for, you ought to be able to visualize the kind of argument you are trying to develop and imagine what the evidence in that argument would have to look like. You should visualize your argument by sketching out what the argument might look like after it was written. Be imaginative and think about what you are looking for. You will have to be flexible with this concept, since the research may lead you in different directions, but you want a sort of unstable ground to begin from. If the research takes you another route, change your visualized position, but always keep some mutating vision of the position in your mind while researching.

Third, you need to make sure that you have a plan. You never want to embark on your research project without a relatively clear plan of action. When making a plan, begin by making a list of the research resources you think might be useful to you. Do not forget about the many people you might be able to speak with in person, by phone, or via email in order to initially start your research. Think about any libraries you have access to and what databases they might provide for you. Also think about what web resources might be helpful. After making that list, you should prioritize it by ranking the research avenues open to you from most useful to least useful. You should always put sources first that will help you start out your research by providing some focus or guidance to your project. That is why conversations with teachers, professors, coaches, and organizations should be the first part of your research. We usually prefer to pull a broad book that provides an overview of the literature we expect to need for our argument and take a look at that as well. Once you have used these more general sources to triangulate your argument, you can begin the serious library research. We almost always do periodicals before books, and the full-text databases before the citation indexes.

Part of having a plan is also thinking about how much time you can devote to the research project overall and how that time should be spent. Even experienced researchers often will underestimate how much time it will take to read and process evidence. This results in stacks of evidence waiting to be sorted, or even worse, cut and attached to citations, when the research is assignment needs to be finished. In order to avoid this problem, you should realistically assess how much time you need to read, copy, cut, sort, and brief all your evidence. Whatever you decide, build in a safety gap of extra time. Our general rule is that we split our research time 30/70, with 30% assigned to retrieving material from the library and 70% devoted to processing that material. Your split will depend on what type of research, reading, and processing skills you develop.

C. Gaining Access to a Library.

We should mention that in some cases you may not be able to do research in your home library. When you are away and need to do some research, or if you are trying to gain access to a library in your area other than your own, you can usually get access at least to work in the library, if not borrowing privileges. Especially for high school debaters, finding access to some local college or university library is a great idea.

First, you should simply ask. Some libraries will open their doors to the public, even if they might not permit general borrowing. Many university libraries do not restrict who may come in and use the library. Additionally, even some that are restrictive—with turnstiles or guards—may have a policy with your school permitting you access. In other cases the librarians

will let you in if you explain that you are a debater working on debate research for this year's national topic.

The second thing you can try is to ask your coach, director, principal, dean, librarian, or other officially titled individual to try to call the library you want access to and work out a special arrangement for your access. Sometimes libraries will provide access to anyone with a legitimate research interest if they will submit a letter from a school official requesting access and explaining the need.

Finally, you can frequently buy access to a university library for a fee ranging from ten to fifty dollars a year. These are often called "community lender" cards or something similar. You fill out some paperwork, give them the money, and then you have twelve months worth of access. Given the hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of dollars worth of information that even a mediocre university library provides, it is probably worth it.

II. PAPERINDEXES

A. Guide to the Library of Congress Subject Heading

These big red books list all of the officially recognized subject heading terms. These terms are used by publishers, libraries, and indexing systems to sort material topically and to assign call numbers. You will usually find these books out on a table or stand near the main research terminals. In these, you can find the call number assigned to any specific topic, the subject headings related to that topic, and other commonly used terms that the Library of Congress does not recognize as a subject.

You begin by looking up your subject term in the book, which is alphabetical. If your subject is not the officially recognized subject term, it will refer you to the official term. An entry in the LOC might look like:

PersianGulfWar, 1991 (May Subd Geog)

[DS79.72]

UF Desert Storm, Operation, 1991
Gulf War, 1991
Operation Desert Storm, 1991
War in the Gulf, 1991

BT Iraq – History -- 1958
PersianGulfRegion -- History
United States -- History, Military -- 20th century

RT Iraq-Kuwait Crisis, 1990–1991 – Mass media and the war

UF PersianGulfWar, 1991, in mass media [Formerheading]

This entry denotes that the official subject term is "Persian Gulf War, 1991." The (May Subd Geog) refers to the fact that the topic may subdivide geographically, such as a more limiting subject of "Persian Gulf War, 1991 –United States." The notation in the brackets [DS79.72] on the second line is the call number of all books that take this subject as their primary subject term. The UF stands for "used for." It means that the title above is used for these terms, and that these terms are not official LOC subjects. BT means "broader topics." It refers to topics that might include similar material, but also much broader material. RT means "related topics." These are topics the LOC thinks might also be useful to you. Beneath this entry you see that it is subdividing into a sub-topic of Persian Gulf War, 1991 –Mass media and the war.

B. Social Science Citation Index

This set of paper indexes allows you to trace an article forward in time to see who later referenced that specific article. There are also an Arts and Humanities Citation Index and a Science Citation Index. These books provide a method of updating research by seeing who is doing similar or responsive work more recently than older sources. All entries are organized by the author's last name and first initial. Each volume of the SSCI only indexes one year, so you will need to look up your citation in multiple volumes if you wish to cover multiple years with your research. An entry from the SSCI will begin with your author's name in bold, then list her or his articles in boldface beneath the name, and then under each of the articles will be the author and article that referenced your author's article.

RENOUX G					
93 B WORLD HEALTH ORGAN	48	661			
THELIN A	SC J S MED	1980	1	98	
91 MED MAL INF	48	661			
CHANTAL J	REV MED VET	132	35	98	
84 PUBLIC POLICY MARKET	53				
WESTBROOK R J RETAILING	57	68	98		

In the above example, we would be looking up an article by G. Renoux to see who later quoted that article. Let us say that we are looking up the 1993 article in the Bulletin of the World Health Organization by G. Renoux. That article was in volume 48, starting on page 661. In 1998 only one person referenced that article. That person was A. Thelin, whose relevant article was published in a journal abbreviated as SC J S MED, volume number 1980, starting on page 1, in 1998. In order to figure out what SC J S MED refers to you will have to flip to the front of the index for the list of periodicals indexed. That will give you the complete name so that you might then find that journal and article in your library.

C. Sources for Qualifications

There are two main bound sources that we recommend you look for source qualifications. The first is the Contemporary Authors index. This is almost always housed in the reference section of a library. The call number at UVM is Z1224.C62. All you have to do is look

up your source in the index and then turn to the appropriate volume and page to find their complete biographical sketch, including qualifications and major publications.

The second is a volume called the National Faculty Directory (L901.N), which indexes the names, universities, and departments of almost all the tenured faculty of American colleges and universities. There is a similar index called the Faculty White Pages (1-901.F). Both of these can be found in the reference section.

Failing these, you can also find qualifications by searching for additional material by that author and looking for qualifications in that material. You might also find an author's qualifications mentioned in a story about that author or a review of one of her or his books.

III. BASICS OF COMPUTER RESEARCH

A. Formatting, Checking, and Saving to Disk.

The first thing you need to know how to do is how to format a floppy disk. Optimally, you will buy your disks pre-formatted. Most libraries seem to favor Windows based machines (also called IBM clones or PC machines). These use a much different disk formatting system than Macintosh. Check to see what you need at your own library, but here at UVM almost all the research terminals are Windows based. However, you can do most of your electronic research from almost any fully networked machine on campus, including the labs which have some Macintosh systems. Since most research terminals are Windows based, and that is what we are used to, we will provide some instructions for those machines.

To format a disk, simply put any 3 - inch 1.44 megabyte (high density) disk in the A: drive and click on Start and then Run and then enter format a: into the command box. Make sure nothing you want is on the disk before you format it. Formatting will delete everything on the disk. Follow the on-screen instructions to format the disk.

To view what is on the disk, simply click on Start and then Run and then enter a: into the command box. This will bring up a window with the contents of your A drive.

Saving material to disk in most of the research systems can be done one of two ways. Either you can save directly from Netscape (the web browser on most terminals) to a text file or you can paste your document into Notepad and save it. You can then load the document into any word processor and cut it for cards. The one exception is the JSTOR database, which requires you to save all documents to Adobe Acrobat PDF files. These must then be taken to a computer that can print these special documents. You cannot cut PDF files on screen, unless you have a special PDF editing program.

To save directly from Netscape first put your disk in the A: drive, then go to File, Click on Save, and when the dialogue box appears you absolutely must do three things in order to ensure you have saved your file properly. First, and most important, is to change the drive to which you will save the file to the A: drive. If you fail to change the drive to A: you will not save anything to disk and your data will be lost forever. Second, name the file something that uniquely represents that particular article or document. Third, be sure to change the file type to

Plain Text (.txt). Missing any one of these three steps could mean you lose the file you are trying to save.

In some cases, and especially where all of your web browser views have multiple frames on the screen, you may need to copy and paste your article into the Notepad. In order to do this, you simply highlight all of the article text, including the citation and any other information about the author or the article, and then click on Edit and Copy. Next, go to Start and click on Run. In the dialog box, type in Notepad and click Ok. Paste your document into the Notepad and then save it to the A: drive.

B. Web Browsing Tips

We assume that you have a basic operating knowledge of Netscape. A couple of simple pieces of advice will help you use the browser more effectively for research. First, beware the Back button. Whenever possible, use the buttons on the research system web page to navigate forward and back rather than the browser buttons. Sometimes the web pages you use for research are very complex and can be hung up by using the browser's Back button.

On the other hand, the Home button on most research terminals is handy because it will usually return you to the main entrance page for the research terminal. For example, here at UVM the entrance page is the SAGE gateway. Clicking Home at any library terminal will return you to SAGE.

IV. SEARCH TERMS AND OPERATORS

A. Search Words and Terms

An effective search term is best described as being inclusive and exclusive. What we mean by this is that a good search term will include everything you are looking for while it also excludes anything not useful to your project. The subject terms from the Library of Congress work well for this purpose. Also, specific terms used in relation to your research area can be good search terms. For example, many research areas contain phrases that are used almost exclusively in relation to the research project you are working on. For example, "critical pedagogy" is a specific term used in education literature to reflect a rather specific school of thought.

Authors that are particularly prevalent in your research areas can also make good search terms. In critical pedagogy you may find most of the literature refers to either Paulo Freire and/or Henry Giroux. Using their names as keywords will also yield some decent results, though certainly not all of the critical pedagogy literature. You should try to keep a running list of search words and terms that work well for you and also authors that seem dominant in your field.

Terms in the resolution can also make good search terms. Words like "sanctions" can be very useful in seeking out the evidence you need for your affirmative case or disadvantage. In any case, you should start with broad search terms and then narrow down to find the evidence you need.

B. Search Operators.

Almost every database system uses at least two different search operators: and or. These two operators are used to connect terms in the search in special ways in order to locate particular types of material. The and function serves to limit your search results by requiring that whatever terms you connect with and are all in the article or citations. For example, if you type in Gore and popularity as a search term, then you will only get back citations or articles that contain both the word Gore and the word popularity. On the other hand, if you use or you will expand your search. The or function looks for any article that contains either word. For example, the search term feminism or gender studies will retrieve any article or citation that contains either the word feminism or the phrase gender studies, and also any articles that contain both terms.

Some search systems also allow you to use the not operator. Usually this is included as but not or and not. This term limits your search by excluding all articles that contain what you do not want. This can be a very dangerous search operator because it can have the effect of limiting out articles that are actually very good for your research project, but might have simply mentioned in passing the term you do not want.

An increasing number of databases are also including the near function. Sometimes this is an option in a menu and sometimes it is a search operator. Each search term will use near slightly differently, but all of them have the same basic idea. Near replaces the and operator in a search and requires not only that both terms be in the article or citation, but that they also be near each other. In Lexis/Nexis the near operator is a w/# command, where 9 represents the maximum number of words you want your terms separated by. For example, schools w/4 vouchers should only retrieve those articles or citations that contain the terms schools and vouchers within four words of each other.

C. Nesting and Search Order

The order of your searches can also radically affect the results of your search. Some search systems, for reasons not entirely clear to us, process a particular operator usually either and or or-before other operators. Most will simply process your search from left to right. In either case, you want to maximize your control over the way the computer processes your search. For example, if I type in a search of Israel and Syria or Iraq or Iran the computer first will retrieve all the Israel articles, then only keep those that also contain Syria. However, it will then add to that list all the articles that contain Iraq and all the articles that contain Iran. If all we really want are the articles that relate Israel to these other nations, then this search will retrieve many articles that we do not want.

There are two ways to try to avoid this happening to you. First, you can make sure the order of operations functions in such a way that left to right produces the results you want. This can often be difficult, sometimes is impossible, and may be unreliable if the search system gives priority to a particular operator. Instead, you should use nesting. Nesting is when you contain a search within parentheses in order to force the computer to process that first. Just like in math, search systems process the operations in parentheses before other operations. So, the above search can be modified to be Israel and (Syria or Iraq or Iran and my Israeli relations argument) will probably have much better evidence.

D. Truncation

Many search systems allow you to cut off the end of a word and add a symbol called a truncation. Truncation symbols used by some databases include * ? + and !. Most systems will only recognize one of these. You use truncation to represent a wildcard ending for that word. The system will take the first part of the word you typed in and search for any and all words that match that beginning, regardless of the ending. So, for example, the search term proliferat* will retrieve articles that contain the terms proliferation, proliferating, proliferate, proliferated, proliferate, etc.

V. FULL TEXT DATABASES

These databases provide complete text of many or all of the articles they index.

A. Expanded Academic Index ASAP

Access: SAGE General Reference Journals & Magazines 0 Expanded Academic
Truncation = *

This is an excellent database of popular and scholarly literature. Most of what is here is full text and it allows a variety of delivery options, including email. In the search terms entry box you will find two options: subject and keyword. We recommend you always use keyword. Once you enter your term and do a keyword search, you will see a results page. To view an article, click on the underlined link that is the view list. From here you can save it to disk or click on the Retrieve option to retrieve your document by emailing to yourself. You will always find an option to back up one step in the upper left hand corner of the screen.

B. JSTOR

Access: SAGE General Reference 0 Journals & Magazines JSTOR
Truncation = Very limited. The + symbols will operate as a plural wildcard only.

This system, regardless of its limited truncation capabilities has some good search functions. You can select what part of the citation or article you want to search for your term in, and you can connect terms using the pull-down menus for and, or, near(10), and near(25). You also can select date limitations. Regardless of these other functions, you must select what journals to search in and what type of material should be included. We recommend that you generally default to searching all the journals and include all the types of material.

Once your results come up, you will want it to sort your material by date. At the top will be an option to sort the results by most recent first. You can view the article by clicking on the bracketed link Article. You will view it page by page on the screen as a graphic file. This, of course, is not a satisfactory way to store or print the article. Instead, you will need to click on the PRINT option on the left side. The print options listed will be JSTOR, Adobe Acrobat, and PostScript. We recommend you always use Adobe Acrobat to view, print, and save your documents. It will take a few minutes for the Acrobat reader to load and the system to download the file. Once it does, another set of icon commands will appear in your browser, noted by a red reversed image of a capital A. Just to the right of that is a disk icon. To save

the file, use that icon. Do NOT use the File Save option. Once saved to disk, you will need a computer with the Acrobat reader to read and print the file.

C. Lexis/Nexis

Academic Universe: General Reference Journals & Magazines Lexis/Nexis

Congressional Universe: Business, Law, & Public Affairs US Government Info

Congressional Universe

Truncation: !

Special Operator: w/4

In Academic Universe the three most commonly used sections are General News, Law Reviews, and Top News . You can quickly and easily use this system to search thousands of news sources, though most of them are mediocre to poor newspapers and magazines. The law reviews are wonderful and the magazines are sometimes good.

In each section of the system you will need not only to type in search terms, but also select the sources you want to look in and the dates you want to look at. Lexis sets defaults for all these, and often times the defaults are not optimal settings for debate research. Be sure to look closely at all these settings and your search terms before clicking the search button.

Once your results come back, you can click on the underlined publication name to view the fulltext of the article. You can also save those to disk.

VI. CITATION DATABASES

These databases provide citations only—not full text.

A. Alternative Press Index

Access: SAGE General Reference Journals & Magazines Alternative Press

Truncation = *

We recommend that you use the Biblioline Professional option for your searches. The system will guide you along most of the way, so just pay close attention to the screen. When the results page comes up, you will have most of the critical information on each of the articles that matched your search. If you want to see the full citation, which might also include an abstract, you can click on the yellow page icon to the left of the citation. Makes sure you write down all the information you need, since some of these articles are hard to find and may require some unusual retrieval methods.

B. ERIC

Access: SAGE Social Science Education ERIC (click on Web Version Option).

Truncation = *

This database indexes education related documents and journals. When you connect to the web version, you will be in a WebSPIRS search program. You will have options allowing you to search in different parts of the citation and limit the search by dates. Once you send a search it will return you to what looks like a search page, but inform you of how many articles matched your search. To display the citations for those articles, simply scroll to the bottom

where the search history is listed and click on the search you want to view the results for. You can also combine search results using and or in the search history section.

C. First Search (including PAIS)

Access: SAGE General Reference 0 Journals & Magazines Article First
Truncation = +

In order to access any First Search system at UVM, you will need your library card to enter your last name and the last seven digits of your barcode. First Search is really more of a search program than a database, and Article First is not their best database. However, once you are in any FirstSearch database, go to the upper left and click on Database. This will give you a list of all the First Search databases that you have access to. One of the best for debate research is the PAIS database, which contains citations for politics and public affairs journals. The only thing you really need to know about First Search is that sometimes the buttons you might be looking for will be hiding at the very top of the screen with graphic icons.

D. Uncover Database

Access: <http://uncweb.carl.org>
Truncation = *

When the web page comes up, click on Search Uncover in the upper left, then on the next page skip the password and profile by clicking on the first Search Uncover box on the right. Once into the system, you should take note of the options. Always use Uncover and not Uncover Express. The latter only searches material that can be faxed within an hour. You can also select the search type and date limitations.

To view the citations, simply click on the article title. From there you can also go back to the title list, select a new search, etc.

This database is free access for anyone with a web connection.

E. Women's Resources International

Access: SAGE 0 Social Science Women's Studies 0 Women's Resources Int'l

This system operates exactly the same as Alternative Press Index.

F. Voyager (The UVM Card Catalog) Access: SAGE Voyager Truncation = ?

The Voyager system indexes all the holdings of the UVM library. This includes the books, titles of journals, and some government documents held in the main library (Bailey/Howe) and the additional libraries (Dana Medical, Research Annex, etc.). When you access the system, you will be given the options of author/title/subject search, keyword-guided, and keyword-command. If you are looking for a journal to find out if the library has it, or if you are looking for a specific author or book, then use the author/title/subject. If you want to find books related to a specific subject, then we highly recommend that you use the keyword-guided.

When you view your results, be sure that you note the location of the material, the call number, the status, the author's name, the title of the document, and the year. All of this material is important to finding your book in the library.

VII. Web Search Engines

The two best search engines, for thoroughness, are HotBot first and AltaVista second.

AltaVista: www.altavista.com

Lycos: www.lycos.com

HotBot: www.hotbot.com (the best general web search engine)

Yahoo: www.yahoo.com (good for looking for official organization web pages)

For a good list of topic specific web pages, try:

Debate Central: <http://debate.uvm.edu>

NFISDA (high school only): <http://www.nfshsa.org/nfisda.html>

BRIEFING

1. Titles and Tagging Briefs It's important that the titles and tags on briefs reflect the true quality of the evidence. It is also crucial to other debaters that the briefs must be legible and easy to use for people who will be in time cons trained positions.

A. Labels for Individual Cards

1. Important not to overstate the evidence or claim that it says things that it doesn't.
2. Important to not simply restate the card, but to turn it into a debate argument (for example, "High cost prevents renewable use" is better than "can't solve").
3. Don't curse on the blocks or the tags
4. No symbols on the briefs, lots of people might not understand what your symbols are, and it could hurt them in a debate. This is also true of excessive abbreviations.
5. Try to write neatly. It will help other people out a lot if they can read your tag.

B. Format of Briefs

1. Put the school name (or institute name) and your name in the upper left corner of the page.
2. Under these labels, put the general argument area (for example, Spending Disad)
3. Place the page number of the brief in the right corner (if you have three pages saying Clinton would be unpopular with the plan there is a page 1 of 3, 2 of 3, or 3 of 3, etc.).
4. Don't put numbers by cards, unless it's a frontline, so numbers can be added in during a debate round. By the tag of each card, put a (____) for the team in the round to insert a number.

2. Strategic Considerations - or how to make your work more useful

- A. For big arguments that will be used by the whole team, we suggest using an index sheet to explain the argument and how to use the evidence in the file. Number the pages and list the numbers and titles on the index page.

- B. For the most part, try and put the best arguments in the front of the file and the best cards at the beginning of the briefs, so that if someone needs to find the best cards and arguments, they are easily accessible under the time constraints of the round.
3. Try to mix analytical arguments as well as cards on the briefs. This is FAR more effective than just reading lots of cards because it focuses the argumentation on crucial key points.
4. Be aware that there might be contradictions or interactions with other cards on the briefs.
5. Do not cut cards in half and continue them on the next page. This will only serve to confuse others trying to use your evidence and might confuse you in the pressure of a debate.
6. Don't shrink text down too much. Avoid too much reduction when photocopying articles & books.

3. Taping Briefs

Tape all of the corners of the cards down!

This includes the citation that should be taped to the card and then taped to the page on both corners.

Use only clear tape, no glue sticks or an alternate method of sticking.

Leave one inch all around the edge of the page, so we can have a footer and decent margins.

Try and get as much on one page as you can, to ease the copying burden, but don't get carried away with cramming.

[SEE SAMPLE BRIF IN APPENDIX THREE]

ANALYSIS DRILLS

- Case analysis: give your team a sample contention and have them find flaws in the argument. It could be a contention from your affirmative, it could be a contention from an affirmative used by one of your main opponents, or it could be one you make up with flaws hidden in it. GOOD FOR ANALYZING EVIDENCE AND ARGUMENTS.
- Disadvantage analysis: give them a sample disadvantage and have them come up with answers to it. Focus on disadvantages you hear quite often against your affirmative case. GOOD FOR LEARNING HOW TO ANSWER A DISADVANTAGE.
- Give them a sample plan and some definitions and have them build a topicality argument. Include both relevant and irrelevant definitions. GOOD FOR LEARNING HOW TO BUILD TOPICALITY ARGUMENTS.
- Give them 10 pieces of evidence and have them build an argument you describe. Make one of the pieces of evidence the opposite of the argument and put in two pieces of irrelevant evidence. Laugh at people who use the wrong evidence. GOOD FOR LEARNING HOW TO BUILD ARGUMENTS AND BRIEFS.

REBUTTALS

Most debaters, coaches, and judges would agree that rebuttals are the most difficult and yet the most important parts of the debate. Not only is there less time within each speech, but each debater has to sort through all of the issues to determine which ones are the most important ones! What a debater does or does not do in rebuttals will decide who wins the debate. Very few debaters (especially beginners) can hope to extend everything that happened in the constructive speeches. Debaters don't have to do that and just because a team may have dropped a point or an argument is not an automatic reason to vote against that team. What matters is the type of argument that is extended or dropped in rebuttals-this will determine the winner of the round.

Think about these four issues when rebuttals happen:

1. Which arguments have more weight at the end of the round?
2. Which outcomes (disads, counterplans) are more likely given lots of internal links?
3. What about time frame-what happens first?
4. What about the quality of evidence?

Here are some other helpful hints:

1. Avoid repetition. Don't just repeat your constructive arguments. Beat the other team's arguments and tell the judge why your arguments are better.
2. Avoid passing ships. Don't avoid what the other team said. You must clash directly with their responses.

3. Avoid reading evidence only. You must be explaining and telling the judge why these issues win the debate.
4. Avoid rereading evidence that has already been read in constructives. You can make reference to it by referring to it, but don't re-read it.
5. Avoid "lumping and dumping." Don't try to go for everything. You can't make 12 responses to each argument in a few minutes.
2. Be organized. Don't jump from issue to issue at random. Be specific and logical about winning issues.
3. Don't be a blabbering motormouth. Speak quickly but not beyond your ability. If you speak too fast, you will stumble and not get through as much.
4. Don't whine to the judge about fairness or what the other team might have done that you think is unethical. Make responses and beat them.
9. Don't make new arguments. You can read new evidence but you can't run new disadvantages or topicality responses. You are limiting to extending the positions laid out in the constructive speeches.
10. Use signposting . Make sure the judge knows where you are on the flowsheet. This is not the time to lose the judge on the flow.
11. Use issue packages. Organize your arguments into issue packages. Choose arguments which you want to win. Don't go for everything. Extend those arguments that you need to win.
12. Cross-apply arguments. If you dropped an argument in a prior speech that you think was important don't act like you're losing. Cross-apply arguments you made somewhere else in the debate to answer it.

ADAPTING TO JUDGES AND AUDIENCES

The essence of audience analysis involves making judgments about the audience and then trying to understand them. See your message as they would see it, not as you perceive it. Evaluate your ideas and strategies based on their perspective, not yours.

ALWAYS ADAPT TO THE ROLE OF JUDGE/CRITIC

Always make judgments about your judge(s) using basic audience analysis concepts:

- Well informed, generally informed, poorly informed about an idea.
- Highly motivated, moderately motivated, poorly motivated.
- Agrees, no opinion, disagrees with an idea.

Realize that a judge is always:

- Another person listening. They know less about your spoken argument than you do, even if they understand the issue better.
- Watching the entire debate. Watching you before the round, before you speak, working with your partner, etc.
- Comparing you with your opponents. If they do something irritating, make sure not to. Be strong where they are weak. Make the choice clear between you.
- Expecting a dignified and tasteful performance. Be professional and there for a reason. Don't be silly, irreverent, or too chummy with the judge or opponents. Be task oriented.
- Interested in the debate, not your ego. Sell the issues in the debate, make them your focus, not your desire to win.
- A lot like you. If you didn't get a card or a tag line or the thesis of a disadvantage, the judge probably did not either.
- A sender of non-verbal signals. These can tell you what they like, what they don't like, and whether they are lost or not.
- Aware that some of your arguments are better than others, and the same goes for your opponents. Don't claim to "win everything," make a real and credible call on how things are going.
- Correct. It is your job to please them, not the other way around.

PERCEIVED ROLE TYPES FOR JUDGES

This is a simplistic way to categorize judges. However, it does help understand some of the variables. The type is set by the role the judge sees herself in. All judges deserve our respect and our effort to adapt to what it is they are looking for. Being able to adapt to different audiences will help you all throughout your life.

TYPE A - JUDGE OF ACADEMIC DEBATE CONTEST

This is the judge we prepare you for. The judge is open minded about debate, works hard during the round, wants to make an unbiased decision, has decent knowledge of the topic and debate procedures.

TYPE B - EDUCATOR COACH OF LEARNING DEBATES

All judges are there to educate, but Type A does it through making a good decision. This judge wants to "teach you" something and you had better be ready to learn. This judge is generally an older or more traditional teacher who also coaches debate. They may have not judged in a while or at your level. Make them think they have something to teach you and you can win.

TYPE C - ESTEEMED JUDGE OF ENTERTAINING DEBATES

All judges like to be entertained in the round, but Type C expects you to put on a show that they will enjoy, and thus call it a "good debate." This is often a lay judge ("Here's a ballot, go judge a debate"), or a judge who is disenchanted with the current form of debate, or someone who hasn't judged in a LONG time, or someone who is burnt out as a debate coach and just wants to get through the judging obligation. Make the round enjoyable and make yourself look articulate and you can win.

TYPE B ADAPTATIONS

Delivery:

1. Slower than usual. Pace your delivery based on their flow and non-verbals.
2. Speak in more complete sentences, fewer fragmentary tag lines.
3. Give summaries about major arguments (case contentions, disadvantages, etc.) as you finish with them.
4. Better sign posting for pages of the flow, pause before moving to another major point.
5. Watch carefully for non-verbals of agreement/disagreement or understanding/misunderstanding.

Content:

1. Give a thesis statement before presenting a major argument in order to create context.
2. Avoid debate jargon. Explain debate concepts in words everyone would understand (link turn becomes "we solve that problem," while permutation becomes "you don't have to vote against us to gain the advantages of the counterplan").
3. Give reasons for theoretical requirements ... explain why a non-competitive counterplan is "not a reason to vote against our case." Don't just say "reject the counterplan because it is not competitive."
4. Emphasize the line-by-line argument less than with Type A.
5. Use fewer arguments and issues, develop them more completely.
6. Use internal summaries. As you exit an issue, explain why you win it and why it is important.
7. Use external summaries. Summarize and weigh the issues in the debate carefully, leaving time to explain their interaction.
8. Assume the judge accepts the current American conventional wisdom and work from there.
9. Use less evidence than with Type A and explain it more.

TYPEC ADAPTATIONS

Delivery:

1. Everything for Type B but more so.
2. Speak slower, be more colorful, be more complete.
3. Develop a finite number of themes and apply them liberally to arguments in the debate.
4. Focus on major points only, not on flow specific arguments, although you must not be perceived as ignoring issues.
5. Try and create a personal relationship with the judge -- that you and the judge understand what is going on and the other team does not.

Content:

1. Everything for Type B but more so.
2. Focus on major concepts and ideas. Make an extra effort to explain HOW an argument or idea works.
3. Assume the current American conventional wisdom and stay there.
4. Explain all theory issues as being "logically required" and then explain why. On competition, for example, say that "Since you do not have to choose between the counterplan and our plan, it is not a reason to reject our affirmative case."
5. Use fewer pieces of evidence, emphasize qualifications, focus on reasons given inside the evidence.
6. No jargon at all. Replace it with real words.
7. Realize that the judge will not so much vote on the issues as decide who should win and then sort the issues out based on that. The overall impression is essential.

PART FIVE

ENDLESS JOURNEY

The better debater	104
How the decision gets made	106
Cross application of ideas	108
Strategic handling of disadvantages	109
Magic words used by debaters	112

WHO IS THE BETTER DEBATER?

I was asked by a number of NYUDL coaches to come up with a list of characteristics I would assign to the “better” debater as well as those I would assign to the “not better” debater. Since the debate is supposed to be won by the team who did the “better job of debating” these rather abstract and symbolic characteristics very often translate directly into competitive success. I also think they translate into success later in life.

THE "BETTER" DEBATER

Is a gracious winner and a respectful loser.

Gives strong rhetorical reasons for the probative force of their arguments.

Makes needs of and benefits to others the focus of the debate through their arguments, instead of focusing on their own competitive triumph.

Argues through excellent evidence, but always making their argument the focus, not their evidence. These debaters are far more than their evidence.

Debates dynamically, with enthusiasm and commitment, not passively.

Sees the big picture, is aware of how ideas influence one another, and uses those relationships to enhance analysis in the debate.

Knows the value of having a working command of the knowledge base. There is no substitute for knowing what it is you are debating about.

Understands the need for organization in order to identify the critical tipping points in the debate.

Portrays an image of an intelligent person who is seeking to understand and discover the truth.

THEY WIN WHEN THEY ARE SUPPOSED TO WIN.

THE “NOT BETTER” DEBATER

Becomes frustrated when debate success isn't easy or automatic. Loses the benefits of debating through lack of determination.

Whines that everything is against her/him: judges, situations, other teams, fate.

Fails to show respect to all participants -- opponents, judges, tournament hosts.

Speaks from a position of privilege - they demand that you trust and accept their ideas over those of others without demonstrating them.

Fail to make connections between various issues and arguments in the debate.

Speaks either only in generalities or only in specifics, not understanding that both the big picture and the line by line are important at all times.

Fail to have fun in the debate. It causes others not to have fun and they don't like that.

Fail to pay rigorous attention to the judge's critique, and thus learn from neither their failures nor their successes.

Fail to focus during the debate at hand, allowing their mind to wander and outside events to distract them.

THEY LOSE WHEN THEY COULD WIN.

HOW DOES THE DECISION GET MADE?

The judge, if topicality is not an issue, balances the arguments of one team against those of another. That is simple to say, but it is often easier understood when demonstrated through pictures. Here are two graphic representations which may help. See if you can figure them out on your own, they are puzzles.

TUNA'S EQUATION

S = AFF SIGNIFICANCE ESTABLISHED

I = DEGREE TO WHICH STATUS QUO CANNOT SOLVE

V = AFF SOLVENCY ESTABLISHED

D = RISK OF DISADVANTAGE UNIQUE TO AFF

CCP = COMPETITIVE COUNTERPLAN ADVANTAGE

$$[S(I)V] > D = \text{AFF}$$

$$[S(I)V] < D = \text{NEG}$$

$$[S(I)V] > D + CCP = \text{AFF}$$

$$[S(I)V] < D + CCP = \text{NEG}$$

If S = 10,000 lives, I = .8, V = .5 & D = 5,000 lives, who wins?

AUNT BLUEBELL'S SCALES

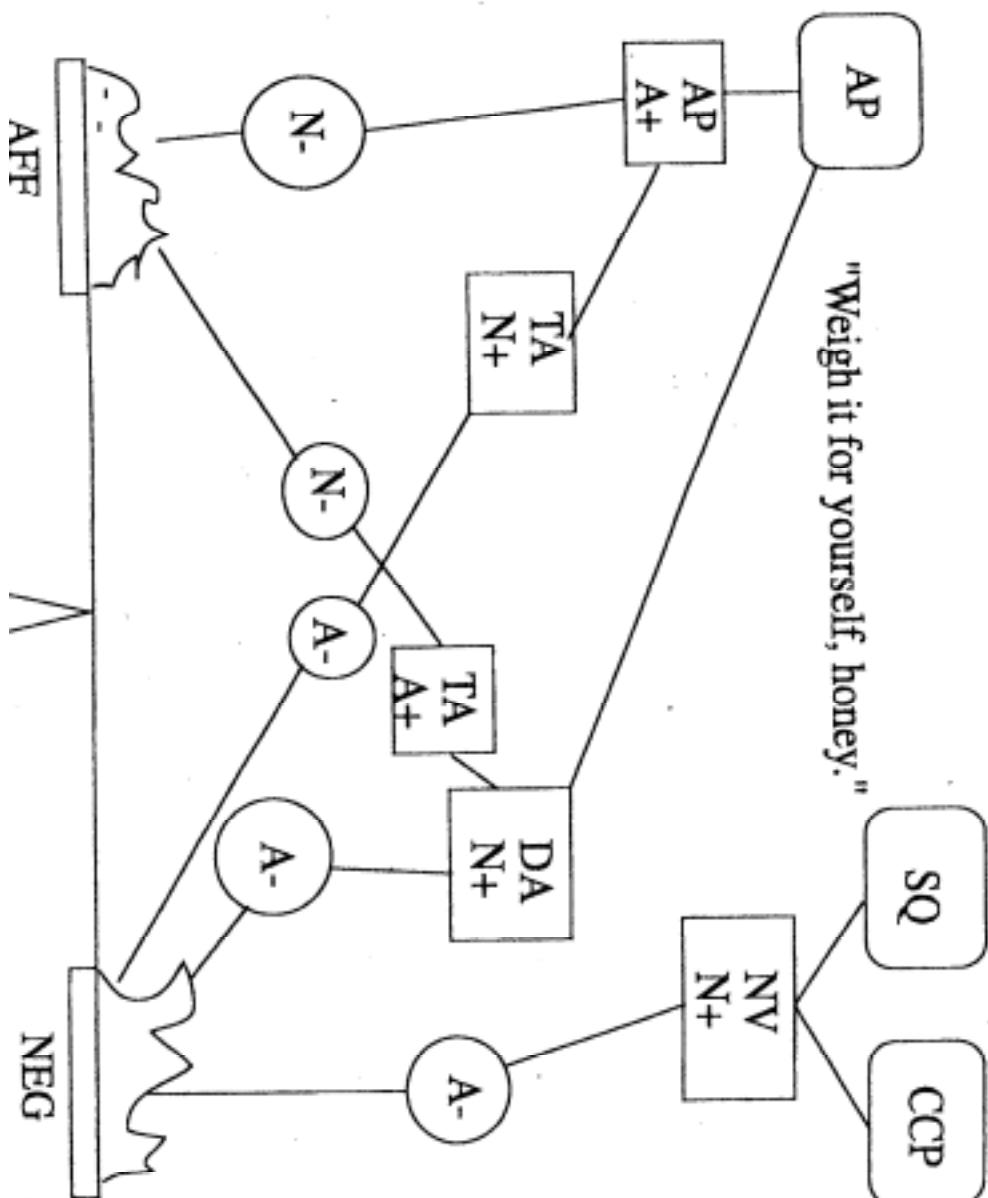
Rounded rectangles represent policy position advocated.

Sharp rectangles represent impact established.

Circles represent arguments modifying impacts.

A+ = added to affirmative, A- = subtracted from affirmative

N+ = added to negative, N- = subtracted from negative



CROSS APPLICATION OF IDEAS

Here is a simple chart. It is a puzzle. It explains how different issues in a debate can effect each other. See if you can figure it out.

TYPE OF ARG.	TOPICALITY	SIGNIF. INHERENCY	SOLVENCY AFF	SOLVENCY NEG	DISADS
TOPICALITY	Contradict on def. interp,		No solvency from untopical mech	same	Part of plan which is untopical may be needed to get the disad.
SIGNIF	Contradict	Aff gets no credit for what SQ can solve.	Only gets credit for what they solve.	Determines amount of signif. plan can't solve for.	Weigh against it.
INHERENCY	Contradict	Plan fails to overcome inherent barriers.	Other inherencies, circumvention.	Backlash arguments	
SOLVE AFF	Contradictions		Indicts solvency of plan.	Disad may depend on solvency.	
SOLVE NEG	Contradict			Conceding solvency may take out a disad.	
DISADS		Contradictions: 3 tests.			

HOW ISSUES RELATE TO EACH OTHER IN A DEBATE

Ryne R. "Tina" Miller, University of Clement

STRATEGIC HANDLING OF DISADVANTAGES

This is a simple lesson on what happens to disadvantages in a debate. You can, as a negative, decide to KICK OUT of them (#1) when there are no turns, KICK OUT of them when there are link or impact turns on them (#2), extend the disadvantage if there are NOTHING BUT TURNS (#3), lose the disadvantage by DROPPING ANSWERS made by the affirmative (#4), how to deal with an affirmative DOUBLE TURN (#5), and finally how to WIN A DISADVANTAGE by being complete in extending it (#6).

You can get an extra copy of the sample flow sheet to use with this discussion. It can be found at: <http://debate.uvm.edu/sixpix.gif>. Please consult the picture as you go along.

#1: KICKING OUT OF A BAD DISAD WHEN THERE ARE NO TURNS

- Concede specific responses.
- Explain how this makes the disad irrelevant.
- Note that no answers are called turns.
- New turns or reinterpretations are not allowed.

#2: KICKING OUT OF A DISAD WHEN THERE ARE TURNS

-You must kick out of it, not just drop it. Otherwise, the turns make it a new reason to vote aff.
-Answers 2 & 3 contradict.
-Conceding answers to take out the link turn (aff stops or solves problem disad is about):

1. No link. If plan does not cause it, does that eliminate the link turn?
NO: There may be other causes, especially if it is linear disad.
2. Won't happen. If internal link is gone, does that eliminate the link turn?
YES: If it isn't going to happen, they don't get credit for solving it.
3. Not unique: If it is going to happen anyway, does that eliminate the link turn?
NO: In fact, it makes the turn better. It is going to happen, so we better have the plan so we can solve it. [Most common error]
4. No significance: If it is not bad, does that eliminate the link turn?

YES: They can turn it, but there is no impact. Caution: there may be SOME impact, in which case the answer is NO.

-Conceding answers to take out the impact turn (aff says the disad result is good, not bad):

1. No link: If plan does not lead to the disad, does that take out the impact turn?
YES: If X is good, but there is ZERO X caused, no impact.
2. Won't happen: If internal link is gone, does that take out the impact turn?
YES: If it won't happen, who cares if it is good or bad?
3. Not unique: If it is going to happen anyway, does that take out the impact turn?

YES: It happens if you vote aff or neg, so whether it is good or bad is irrelevant.

4. No significance: If it is not bad, does that eliminate the impact turn?

NO: If it is not bad, it can still be good (impact turn claim).

#3: DEALING WITH A DISAD WHEN AFF HAS NOTHING BUT TURNS

1. Look for repeats. 1-7, 4-8.

2. Look for shared assumptions and defeat those assumptions.

3. Evaluate how much of each turn they get given the original link.

EX: Aff causes \$1B growth, neg says that is bad. Aff says, No because growth is good because it stops war. Aff does not get credit for stopping war, just credit for solving as much war as \$1B growth will solve.

4. Offer a new aff scenario in 2AC to outweigh.

5. Show turns are of no value, "No war is coming."

6. Original disad outweighs turns (growth is more bad than good) (Aff causes more growth than they solve).

7. Answer the turns one by one, disproving each one.

#4: HOW THE NEGATIVE SCREWS UP BY NOT BEING COMPLETE

Neg deals with all aff answers except one (or two). Aff then focuses all their attention on that one answer, really building it up. Aff saves time and neg fails to win disad.

#5: WHAT TO DO WHEN YOU DOUBLE-TURN YOURSELF

You argue that the plan does not cause X, in fact it stops all of X (link turn). You also argue that impact Y is not bad, it is actually good (impact turn). You are saying: We give you less of a good thing. This would be an independent reason to vote against you (especially if impact is large).

NEG: Connect the two, show it is a new disad and explain it, impact it, no new answers, show how other aff answers are irrelevant.

AFF: Explain how the two turns are of the same type, so it is not a double turn. Show how your other responses would take out one of the turns (see #2 above) so there is no double turn. Or, surrender.

#6: WINNING A DISADVANTAGE

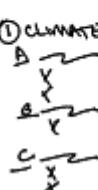
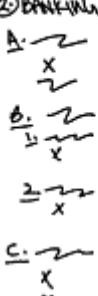
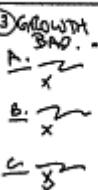
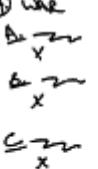
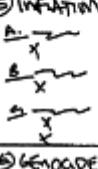
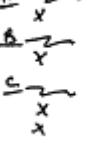
1. Be complete. Answer all of their answers.

2. Gang up -- do more than they do.

3. Always indicate impact of disadvantage.

4. Have a story for all the components: link, internal link, brink (if threshold), linearity (if linear), impact size, probability of impact, uniqueness (if threshold).

PICTURE OF SIX DISADVANTAGES

	<u>AF</u> <u>ZAC</u>	<u>NEG</u> <u>ZNC/MLR</u>	<u>AF</u> <u>IAR</u>	<u>NEG</u> <u>ZMR</u>
① CLIMATE	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① NO LINK ② NOT TRUE X ③ NO INTERNAL LINK ④ IMPACT IS Ø ⑤ DATA IS FLAWED X 			
② BANKRUPT	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① NO LINK. PWN ≠ LINK. ② WONT HAPPEN. X ③ NOT UNIQUE - HAD BEEN ANYWAY X ④ NO SIGNIF. TO DA. X ⑤ LINK TURN X ⑥ LINK TURN X ⑦ LINK TURN X ⑧ LINK TURN X ⑨ LINK TURN X 			
③ GROWTH BAD.	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① TURN: G ↓ WAR X ② TURN: G ↓ POVERTY X ③ TURN: G ↓ PRESENCE X ④ TURN: G ↑ POLLUTION X ⑤ TURN: G ↑ DEMOCRACY X ⑥ TURN: G ↑ ORGANIC QUALITY X ⑦ TURN: G ↑ PEACE X ⑧ TURN: G PROTECTS ECOLOGY X 			
④ WAR	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① —— X) ② —— X) ③ —— X ————— 3) —— X ④ —— X ————— 4) —— X ⑤ —— X ————— 5) —— X ⑥ —— X ————— 6) —— X 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1-2) ③ —— X 3) —— X 4) —— X 5) —— X 6) —— X 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4) 5) 	<p>NOW ANSWER?</p>
⑤ INFLATION	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① LINK TURN X "WE STOP IT" ② NOT TRUE X ③ WONT HAPPEN X ④ EMPIRICALLY FALSE X ⑤ IMPACT TURN X "IT IS GOOD" 			
⑥ GENOCIDE	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① —— X ————— 1) ② —— X ————— 2) ③ —— X ————— 3) ④ —— X ————— 4) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) —— X 2) —— X 3) —— X 4) —— X 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — — — X — — — X — — — X — — — X 	<p>IMPACT: X X X</p>

MAGIC WORDS USED BY DEBATERS

VOCABULARY LIST

Debate vocabulary is very important if you want to play the game properly. Almost all of these are not just debate specific concepts, but concepts that are broadly applicable in testing and evaluating ideas and advocacy.

These definitions are not exclusive or complete, but are a starting point. Find out what others actually “mean” when they use these terms. They might not mean exactly what is written here. After all, meaning is found not in words, but in people.

This list is alphabetical for all debate vocabulary terms.

ALL DEBATE TERMS

Add on Advantage

A new advantage presented by the affirmative in 2AC.

Affirmative

The team which supports the resolution.

Affirmative cases

This is generally used to refer to the part of the affirmative position which demonstrates that there is a need for change because there is a serious problem (need) which the present system cannot solve (inherency) but which is none the less, solvable (solvency).

Affirmative plan

1) The policy action advocated by the affirmative and 2) any one of many possible ways of specifying the resolution.

Agent of the resolution (or Agent of Change)

That power called for by the resolution to carry out resolutinal action.

Agent counterplans

A counterplan which argues that the plan you are implementing through one agent of change, should instead, be implemented by another agent of change.

A priori

Literally, prior to. Usually an argument which indicates that a particular issue should be resolved before all others. Frequently used to argue that procedural concerns such as topicality should be considered before substantive issues such as advantages.

Attitudinal inherency

This type of inherency identifies an unwillingness of those in power in the present system to take corrective measures to solve the harm cited by the affirmative.

Best definition

This is usually argued as a topicality standard by the negative team. The negative argues that the judge must choose the BEST definition offered in the round in order to decide whether the plan is topical. Affirmatives often argue that there is no need to choose, since a definition only needs to be reasonable (not "best) for debate purposes.

Blow up

Negative will take one argument or issue from 1NC and "explode" it for many, many minutes in 2NC.

Brief

A prepared argument with evidence and arguments already structured on the page.

Brink

The point at which a disadvantage actually begins to happen. This explains why a disadvantage impact will happen if the plan is passed but is not happening now, because we are "at the brink" but not "over the brink" of this event actually taking place.

Burden of proof

The debater who offers an issue for consideration in the debate as the burden of proving it.

Burden of rebuttal

Debaters have the burden of refuting issues offered by opponents.

Card

A piece of evidence used to prove an argument. In the "old days" evidence was put on index cards and used in the debate.

Case

The "case for the resolution" offered in the 1AC.

Circumvention

Negative argument proving that the plan will not solve the problem. People are opposed to the plan (motivation), they will find a way to "get around" the plan (mechanism), and this will stop the plan from being effective (impact).

Cite

Where a piece of evidence (or "card") came from. Usually includes author, title, date, page number. Should be sufficient to allow someone to locate that evidence again.

Clash

Actively attacking and refuting positions of the opposing team.

Comparative advantage case: n. A type of affirmative case which argues that the status quo isn't necessarily harmful but that things would be better with the plan.

Competition

Burden of the negative counterplan. The counterplan competes if it is a reasonable substitute for the affirmative, so in voting for the counterplan you would be rejecting the affirmative plan. A counterplan is competitive if it would be better to adopt just the counterplan rather than the affirmative plan and the counterplan.

Conditional

Debaters stipulate that their argument is “conditional” in that they can discard or drop that argument or issue whenever they wish or when certain conditions are met.

Conditional counterplan

A plan tentatively presented by a negative team but that can be dropped if undesirable without forfeiture of the debate. Key terms: conditional and counterplan.

Constructive

First four speeches of the debate, where teams build and elaborate on their issues and advocacy.

Contention

A major point in the debate. Affirmative cases are often built of such contentions.

Context

1) The relationship of the evidence read in the date to the original source material. It is expected that evidence read in a debate will be consistent with the meaning of the evidence as it is written in the original source. 2) a standard for evaluating topicality arguments which is used to determine if the definition offered in the debate is consistent with the meaning of the term in relationship to authors who write about the subject matter of the topic or, to determine if the definition offered in the debate is consistent with the meaning of the term in relationship to other terms in the resolution. adj. contextual.

Contradiction

Two arguments are incompatible with each other, or there is a perceived conceptual tension between two ideas. Debaters should avoid contradicting themselves or their partners.

Counterplan

A “better solution” than the affirmative plan which is offered by the negative. It is like a “little affirmative case” and should have a plan and solvency as well as be competitive with the affirmative plan.

Counterplan advantages

Benefits which result from the adoption of the counterplan.

Counterplan nontopicality

The condition of a counterplan of being outside the resolution lest it become further justification of the resolution.

Co-option

The influence of outside parties hampering an agency's efforts to carry out its instructions.

Criteria

Decision rule or conceptual tool to be used in deciding who wins the debate. Never ignore any argument called a criteria, or all of your other arguments may be made irrelevant.

Critique/Kritik

An argument which establishes that the fundamental assumptions embodied by the other team are false or reprehensible.

Cross Ex

One debater asks questions, another answers, about the debate which is taking place.

Cut evidence

To copy a portion of a book, magazine, or hearing onto a notecard or brief (via copying, handwriting, or typing).

Debatability

An argument related to topicality and other theoretical arguments. One team will claim that the other team's interpretation of the topic or the debate setting is inferior because it makes the essential debate process more difficult.

Decision rule

See criteria.

Disadvantage

Argument that the plan proposed by the other team will cause bad things to happen which would not have happened otherwise.

Disco

A term used to describe a type of debate strategy where a team takes advantage of the interrelationship among arguments in the debate to concede large portions of the opponents arguments. The hope is that such a strategy will dismiss large portion of arguments and allow the team to focus the debate on issues favorable to their side of the question. vb. to disco out of some arguments.

Discursive impact

Derived from the word discourse, this argument usually says that the language used within the debate is more important than the issues debated. Discursive impacts are usually claimed by critiques.

Dispositional

An argument, usually a counterplan, can be discarded by conceding competitiveness.

Double turn

In answering a disadvantage, this takes place when a team argues a link turn (we solve that problem) AND an impact turn (that problem is actually a benefit). Thus, they are saying that they stop a good thing from happening. A double turn is often thought to be an easy way for a judge to vote...against the perpetrator of the double turn.

Effects topicality

Where the affirmative claims that their plan itself is not topical, but that it leads to a topical condition or result.

Emory switch

A negative strategy involving presentation of plan attacks in 1st negative constructive and need or advantage attacks in 2nd negative constructive. vb. to employ an Emory switch.

Enforcement plank

A part of the affirmative plan providing assurance that the plan's mandates will be carried out, usually through a directive that a particular agency will oversee and ensure compliance with those mandates.

Evidence

Authoritative quoted published material entered into the debate to support the arguments being made.

Extension

Continuing to advance and elaborate on an issue through several speeches of the debate.

Existential inherency

This kind of inherency argues that if the affirmative can demonstrate a massive problem exists then the affirmative has met the burden of inherency by showing that the present system is not solving it.

Extratopicality

Advantages are extratopical when they stem from portions of the plan which are not topical action.

Fiat

The assumption that in order to decide the desirability of an alternative future, we first have to imagine that it exists. Thus, teams are not required to show that their plan "will" be adopted but that it "should" be adopted.

Field context

A topicality definition which is derived from the writings of experts on the subject of the resolution.

Flip

See Turn

Flow

Notes taken by debaters during the debate and then used as their notes while they speak. There is a specific technique to flowing you will need to learn.

Flow judge

An experienced judge who takes extensive notes during the debate.

Flow sheet

Paper used to keep track of the arguments in a debate.

Funding plank

The part of the plan naming or listing those sources from which the money the plan requires will be garnered.

Games theory

A paradigm for debate which views the debate as an educational game requiring fair rules to insure each participant has an equal chance of winning the game.

Generic arguments

Arguments, usually negative, that are general and apply to a wide range of affirmative cases or plans.

Generic disadvantage

A disadvantage designed to link to almost any conceivable affirmative plan.

Goals case

A type of affirmative case that claims a particular goal is sought by the status quo and proceeds to argue that the plan better meets that goal.

Grammatical context

A topicality definition which is derived from the relationship of words in a consistent grammatical form with other terms in the resolution.

Ground

Usually used to refer to the positions teams must defend as affirmative or negative, as in "argumentative ground." Each team needs to have some "ground" to defend in order for the debate to be a fair contest. Thus, interpretations of the topic which leave the negative no "ground" to defend should be rejected because they are unfair.

Hasty generalization

This is an argument run predominantly in value debates but has also been run in policy debates. It says that a judge cannot conclude that the resolution is true based upon a minor or small example such as that run by the affirmative.

Hypothesis testing

This is one of many paradigms which are used to explain the debate process. All it really means is that the focus of the debate is on testing the resolution like we would a scientific hypothesis. Key terms: paradigms, presumption, policy-making, stock issues.

Hypothetical counterplan

See conditional counterplan.

Impact

Explanation of why something is important, and thus how it influences the outcome of the debate. Usually impacts need to be proven, not just assumed.

Impact turn

An argument which establishes that the supposed impact or harm claimed is actually not a bad thing, but a good thing. Example: one team says the plan hurts the economy, which is bad; the other "turns" the impact by arguing that increased economic growth is a bad thing.

Independent advantage

An advantage that can justify adoption of a plan even if the other advantages may not be true.

Inherency

Basic component of an affirmative case. Explains why the problem identified persists and why it is not being solved.

Internal link

Conceptual linkages and relationships between ideas. Part of a causal chain debaters construct in their arguments which hold them together.

Intrinsic

This describes a situation in which a disadvantage is a necessary result of the affirmative plan which cannot be prevented in another way. Affirmative teams frequently argue that a disadvantage must be a necessary consequence of the affirmative plan in order to be compared against affirmative significance.

Jurisdiction

The resolution provides the "jurisdiction" within which actors in the debate operate. The affirmative may propose something within the jurisdiction of the topic, etc.

Justification

A negative argument indicating that the affirmative must "justify" (have a reason for) each part of the resolution. Not very popular these days.

Legislative intent

A provision in a plan that future judgment of the meaning of the plan will be based upon its advocate's speeches.

Link

A causal or correlative relationship between two ideas. Usually the negative looks for a "link" between the affirmative plan and their disadvantage.

Link turn

An argument which establishes that a given policy does not cause a problem or disadvantage identified by the other team, but actually works to "solve" that problem. Example: the negative claims that the affirmative plan will cost a lot of money and that the federal government needs all the money it can get right now, then the affirmative "turns" the argument by showing that the plan would actually save the government money.

Minor repair

A non-resolutional small change in existing programs to solve the problem which is advocated by the negative. Should not require structural change and should be within the philosophy of the present system.

Mutual exclusivity

Method for determining competition of the counterplan. If the affirmative plan and the negative counterplan cannot exist at the same time, they are competitive with each other based on the concept of mutual exclusivity.

Need

The problem that the affirmative hopes to solve; the area of affirmative significance.

Negative block

The 2nd negative constructive and the 1st negative rebuttal; the two negative speeches in the middle of the debate.

Net benefits

Method for determining competition of the counterplan. If it would be more beneficial to adopt just the counterplan than both it and the affirmative plan, they are competitive with each other based on the concept of net benefits.

Permutation

A test the affirmative uses to examine the competitiveness of the counterplan, in which they speculate on how the two plans might be merged together.

Philosophical competition

A standard of competition for counterplans which argues that since the two plans under consideration have different philosophical approaches they are exclusive of one another.

Plan

Proposal for policy action presented by the affirmative. Usually includes: agent, action, extent, funding, enforcement, etc.

Plan attack

Arguments directed at an affirmative policy itself (e.g., plan-meet-need, disadvantage, workability).

Plan mandates

The resolutional action specified in the affirmative plan.

Plan-meet-need (PMN)

An argument claiming that a plan does not solve the need. Usually a sub-divided and structured argument presented in second negative constructive.

Plan-side

That part of the flow on which arguments are written about the plan.

Planspike

A non-topical element included in a plan to avoid a disadvantage.

Policy-making

A philosophy that debate rounds should be evaluated from the perspective of pseudo-legislator weighing the advantages and disadvantages of two conflicting policy systems.

Political disads

(see disadvantages) These are arguments which indicate that the political consequences of passing the plan will lead to impacts which will outweigh the case.

Political capital

The amount of good will a politician can muster to get policies enacted. In debate this argument says passing the plan will consume so much political capital that those enacting the plan will have to sacrifice other important issues on their political agenda. The political capital expended passing the plan sacrifices the political capital necessary to get other policies passed.

Political focus

The ability of political leaders to concentrate on the particular issues. In debate, the argument says that passing the affirmative plan will require so much energy and time, that policy-makers will be unable to get other more important issues passed.

Political popularity

The approval rating of a politician. In debate, the argument considers the public approval of the plan. If the plan is unpopular, policy-makers will lose credibility making it nearly impossible to pass other more important plans. If the plan is popular, it may boost the credibility of policy-makers, making it easier to get other less desirable plans passed.

Preemption or preempt

An argument designed to respond to another argument that has not been made, but is anticipated.

Preptime

Time between speeches when debaters prepare.

Presumption

Presumption is usually an assumption that we should stay with the system which we have now and operates against change and untried policies.

Prima faciae

Latin for "at first glance." The initial presentation of major issues in the debate should be "logically complete." Does not demand that they be perfect.

Reasonability

A topicality standard which indicates that the affirmative only need offer a definition which is not excessively broad and would appear legitimate at first glance.

Rebuttal

Shorter, later speeches in the debate where the issues built in the constructive speeches are argued over.

Redundancy

This standard for counterplan competition argues that if the counterplan can achieve the affirmative advantage then the affirmative has not demonstrated that the advantage is an inherent result of the resolution.

Refutation

Answering or criticizing ideas and issues presented by the other team.

Reify

Using language that makes "false" or "illusory" things seem real and/or legitimate. Some critics might say that advocating aid for minorities actually makes racism more legitimate because it "reifies" the idea of race. These critics argue that, because there is no biological basis for race, targeting people of specific races for help supports (or "reifies") the false notion of race, thus legitimizing racism.

Resolution

The topic of that particular debate.

Retrench

To reinforce the present system. Usually occurring in discussions of critiques, the argument says that the effect of a policy is to reinforce the prevailing attitudes in the status quo. Thus, the problems which exist won't be solved and may worsen.

Reverse voting issue RVI

Often used when one team argues that something is a "voting issue." The other team can explain that if it is a voting issue one way, it should also be a voting issue the other way as well.

Risk analysis

The theory and procedure of claiming that one hundred percent certainty is not needed to act and that the level of certainty that does exist is sufficient basis for policy decisions.

Sandbag

Save your best evidence for an argument until the rebuttals, or presenting the impact for an argument later.

Scenario

A specification of a particular series of events. Usually consist of who, what, when, where, now, and why.

Shift

Changing advocacy in the middle of the debate from one position to another.

Should-would

The concept that the affirmative does not have to show that their proposal would be adopted, but that it should be adopted.

Significance

See impact. Usually a component of the affirmative case -- an explanation of the serious problems that exist now.

Solvency

Usually a component of the affirmative case -- an explanation as to how the plan proposed by the affirmative solves the problem they have identified.

Spread

Making many, many arguments in an attempt to prevent the other team from answering them all.

Squirrel case

An affirmative approach which isolates an obscure area of the topic to justify the resolution.

Standards

Usually part of topicality arguments, also known as reasons to prefer. Explanation and methods of evaluation which explain why one interpretation of a word or phrase is superior to another.

Status quo

The way things are now, as the debate does on.

Stock issues

Standard points of controversy in policy disputes, around since classical times: harm, Inherency, solvency, plan, disadvantages.

Subpoints

Substructure of a larger argument, contention, or observation.

Threshold

See Brink.

Time frame

Explanation of when a predicted or caused event will take place.

Topicality

The notion that the affirmative plan/negative counterplan should/should not fall within the conceptual boundaries of the resolution.

Turn or turn around or flip

“Turns the tables” on opponents. Argues that the problem discussed by opponents is unique to the policy system they defend, not to the policy system they oppose. Thus, the plan may not cause the problem, it may solve it (turn).

Uniqueness

Whether something is an “essential” cause of a situation or scenario. If a disadvantage will take place whether the affirmative plan is adopted or not, then it is “not unique.” That component of a disadvantage which illustrates that the disadvantage impact which the negative claims results only from the adoption of the affirmative plan. That is, the disadvantage impact would not occur absent the affirmative plan.

Value objection

An argument used primarily in nonpolicy debate which argues that there exists a competing value to the affirmative value. The argument has to be proven to be more important than the affirmative value.

Voting issue

An argument stipulating that this issue alone, and its fate, should determine the decision in the debate. Often claimed for topicality issues.

Whole resolution or (whole res)

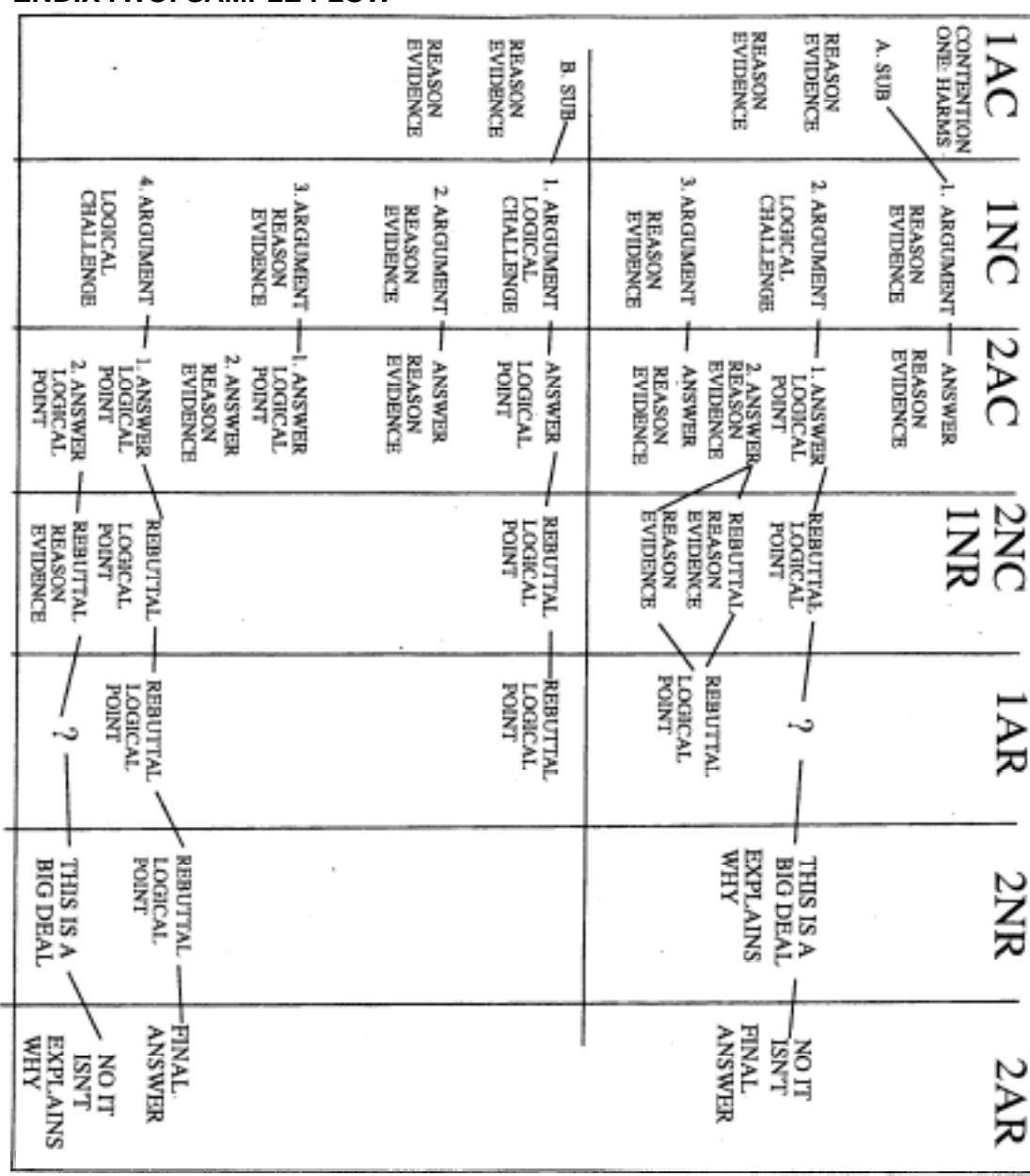
A generic nonpolicy debate argument which says that the resolution must be debated in a holistic manner to determine its probable truth. Usually the negative must establish some form of standard to measure when it is possible to induce the truth of the resolution.

APPENDIX ONE: VIDEOS

In cooperation with the Open Society Institute and the World Debate Institute I have produced a series of videos for instructional use. These videos are being supplied to Urban Debate League coaches nationally. Because they are sponsored by the Open Society Institute I cannot distribute this series commercially. Look for some at <http://debate.uvm.edu/>. Here is a list of them so that you can integrate them into the use of this book. THIS IS NOT THE ORDER IN WHICH YOU SHOULD USE THEM!

Tape	Topic	Aimed at	Length
1	Federalism Debate	advanced	1:43
2	Critique Debate	advanced	1:26
3	Debate Evangelism: teaching new debaters	coaches	45 min.
	Recruiting & Training	coaches	53 min.
4	Strategic Coaching	coaches	57 min.
	Education Topic Strategy	coaches	1:27
5	Debate & Our Community - Larry Moss	all	1:05
	Drills & Practice Sessions	coaches	47 min.
6	Education Topic: Introduction	all	57 min.
	Education Topic: Arguments	all	1:01
7	Research	advanced	53 min.
	Debate is Great Panel Discussion	all	51 min.
8	Advice from a student - Winston Benjamin	all	12 min.
	UDL Promotion Video [Atlanta]	all	9 min.
	Therrell High School Debate Video	all	18 min.
	Mayor of Kansas City salutes debate	all	8 min.
	UDL Promotion Video [National]	all	8 min.
	The UDL Experience Student Panel	all	60 min.
9	Basic Instruction 1-2-3-4		
	1. WalkThrough of a Debate	novice	30 min.
	2. Stock Issues	novice	30 min.
	3. Flowing	novice	30 min.
	4. Evidence	novice	30 min.
10	Basic Instruction 5-6-7-8		
	5. Affirmative Part One	novice	30 min.
	6. Topicality	novice	30 min.
	7. Disadvantages	novice	30 min.
	8. Counterplans	novice	30 min.
9	Basic Instruction 9-10-11-12		
	9. Critiques	novice	30 min.
	10. Cross Examination	novice	30 min.
	11. Making Decisions in a Debate	novice	30 min.
	12. Affirmative Part Two	novice	30 min.
12	Basic Instruction 13-14-15		
	13. Attacking the Case	novice	30 min.
	14. Effective Speaking & Delivery	novice	30 min.
	15. The Tournament Experience	novice	30 min.
13	Novice Exhibition Debate	novice	41 min.

APPENDIX TWO: SAMPLE FLOW



APPENDIX THREE: SAMPLE BRIEF

H/L
Emory
Aff

1/2

Courts Counterplan Answers

- 1) Permute: do the plan and the counterplan at the same time. This solves the case and avoids the disadvantages.
- 2) CP fiats over future court decisions. It's a voting issue.
 - a) It fiats attitudes and solvency, which avoids the criticisms of the literature and means the affirmative could never win a DA to the CP, crushing our ability to debate.
 - b) INC strategy choices skew 2AC time and argument choice. The abuse has already occurred. This means you reject the negative, not just the CP.
- 3) Turn: CP must extend the Hill precedent, which doesn't solve and waters down Title VII:

Robin Rogers, JD Candidate @ UC Berkeley, 1990, California LR, n. 120:

Even if Title VII, as presently formulated, were held to apply to uniformed members of the military, the use of the statute for claims of discrimination in the military would still be problematic. The courts would probably continue to defer to military policy when considering claims brought under the statute. The Hill opinion clearly demonstrates this, concluding that the test for policy decisions is "whether the military was clearly arbitrary and erroneous, with a harmful effect present at the time the dispute reaches the court. Application of this test in numerous military cases could threaten to spill over into civilian Title VII litigation and seriously weaken the established standards.

- 4) No evidence that a case exists for the Supreme Court to call. Proves no mechanism for counterplan solvency
- 5) Overturning the combat exclusion in the Courts won't be enforced.

Pamela R. Jones, Managing Editor of the Cornell LR, 1993, January, p. 298
If the court declares the combat exclusion rules and policies unconstitutional, enforcement problems are likely to emerge. Neither Congress, the President, nor the Armed Forces seem prepared to lift the combat exclusion rules completely. For example, even Representative Beverly Brown, who supports increasing opportunities for women in the military, rejects a "wholesale lifting of the combat exclusion rules."

APPENDIX FOUR: BRIEFLIST OF WEBSITES

DEBATE CENTRAL

<http://debate.uvm.edu/>

URBAN DEBATE LEAGUES

<http://debate.uvm.edu/udl/udl.html>

INTERNETVIDEOS FOR DEBATERS

<http://debate.uvm.edu/broadcast.html>

NATIONAL FORENSIC LEAGUE

<http://debate.uvm.edu/nfl.html>

EASTERN EVIDENCE DEBATE PRODUCTS

<http://debate.uvm.edu/ee.html>

PARADIGM RESEARCH DEBATE PRODUCTS

<http://www.oneparadigm.com/>

WEST COAST RESEARCH DEBATE PRODUCTS

<http://www.wcdebate.com/>

RESEARCH LINKSFOR EDUCATION

<http://debate.uvm.edu/udl/udlresearch.html>

INFORMATION ABOUT URBAN DEBATE LEAGUES

<http://debate.uvm.edu/udl/udlinfo.html>

OPEN SOCIETY INSTITUTE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATE PROGRAM

<http://www.soros.org/usdebate/>

COLLEGE DEBATE OPPORTUNITIES

<http://debate.uvm.edu/udl/udlcollege.html>