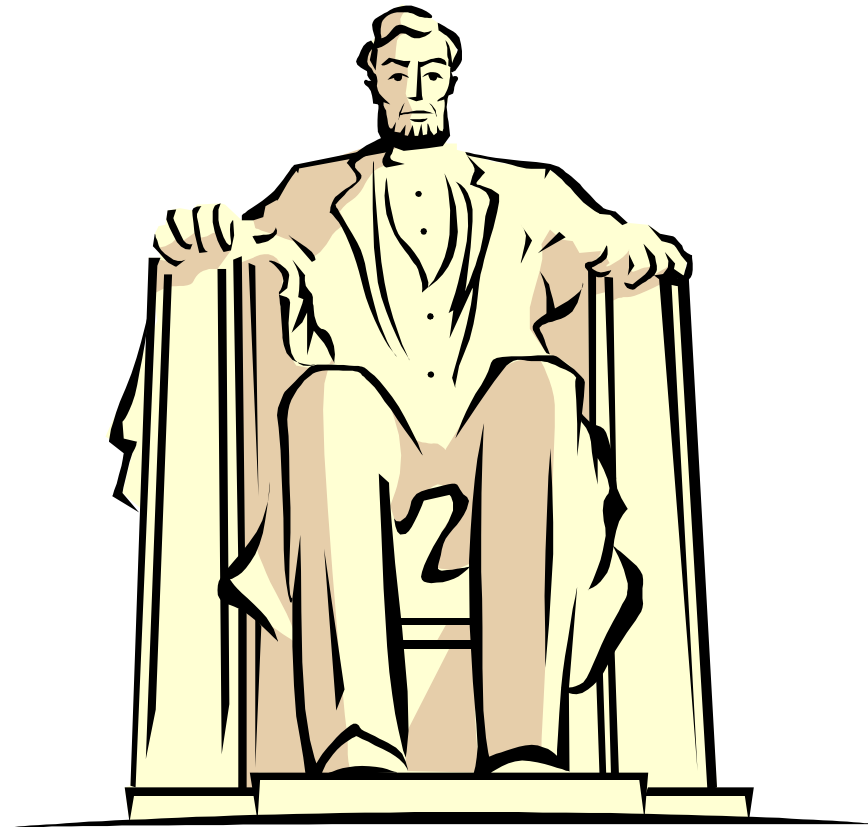


VB **Victory** **Briefs**

How To ... Lincoln-Douglas Debate

A tutorial for novice and intermediate debaters.



Written by Victor Jih

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Introduction

Perhaps one of the greatest events in the National Forensics League, Lincoln-Douglas debate is an activity that rewards persuasion, analysis, and quick thinking. Over the recent years, value debate has found its place among high school competitors and will remain one of the most popular events. Unfortunately, this type of debate has occasionally degenerated into either disorganized rhetoric or a weak substitute for policy-oriented debate. The reasons for this are not absolutely clear but many contributing factors can be identified: student competitors who never really understand the distinctive character of value debate, forensics coaches who have large programs and little time, and of course, clueless judges. The purpose of the Victory Briefs' How-To-Do-Lincoln-Douglas Book is to remedy some of these problems and help students, judges, and coaches start off on the right foot.

At this point a disclaimer is important. The method of L-D debate presented in this book is not the only way such debate is done. Many theorists and coaches disagree on the specifics of the activity. For example, some argue that the Negative should not present a case at all. Others are willing to blur the distinction between value and policy by introducing policy elements. But I would argue that the techniques presented in this volume are foundational to successful debating and constitute a solid approach to values debate.

This handbook is directed and intended to be used by many different audiences. The new student can use this book to learn the basics of Lincoln-Douglas debate. The experienced student can read the materials to sharpen their skills; the approach I provide will help any student in refining their debating skills. Coaches who are new to Lincoln-Douglas debate can also benefit from the detailed approach to understanding value debate. Parents can use this volume to understand their student's activity and become helpful sources of input. And last, but definitely not least, the judges can read this volume to better understand the essence of L-D and become better adjudicators. Good judges are crucial for a successful forensics community.

A note to the reader: This book contains a very detailed systematic approach to Lincoln-Douglas debate. While there seems to be a lot of material here, the gist of debate is rather straight-forward. Anyone who wants to be a debater can be one.

I hope this book is helpful. Feel free to send any suggestions, questions, or criticisms to Victor Jih at victor@victorybriefs.com. Also, visit us at our website, www.victorybriefs.com.

Chapter 1

Types of Resolutions -- What is a Value?

Any debate centers around a resolution. The type of resolution determines the nature of the debate activity: the type of arguments used, the type of analysis employed, and the type of evidence required. Lincoln-Douglas debate focuses on a particular type of resolution known as a value proposition. But in order to understand the distinctive feature of a value proposition, it is important to look at all three types of possible resolutions.

Type 1: The Proposition of Fact

A fact is either true or false and can be proven by empirical data, mathematical proof, scientific research, etc.. Thus, the following propositions -- "men and women are different," "Mrs. Jones is a teacher," and " $2+2=4$ " -- are factual in nature.

For example:

Factual resolution: resolved that Ronald Reagan was an actor turned president.

The resolution is either true or false and can be answered decisively, once and for all, by simply looking at a biography of Ronald Reagan.

Type 2: The Proposition of Policy

A policy is a plan or course of action. A proposition of policy involves a "call to action" and "urges the adoption of a particular plan." Most legislative debates are discussions about policy resolutions. Thus, in discussing propositions of policy, debaters would look at issues such as solvency (does the plan solve the problem), advantages/disadvantages to the plan, and public opinion.

For example:

Policy resolution: resolved that the United States should withdraw from the NATO alliance.

In this case, the proposition calls for a specific action, "withdrawing from the NATO alliance." In discussing this resolution, then, the PROs and CONs of such a policy would be discussed.

Going back to Ronald Reagan....an example of a policy resolution would be:

Policy resolution: resolved that President Reagan should send troops to enforce all United Nations resolutions.

Again, there is a call to action, a specific policy to be evaluated in terms of its practicality.

Type 3: Proposition of Value

The proposition of value involves an evaluative judgment or opinion that is based upon ideals and what "ought" to be. Propositions of value focus on emotions, abstracts, principles, and morals instead of concrete policy proposals. Thus, such a resolution often centers around the goodness (or rightness) versus the badness (or wrongness) of some particular object or concept.

For example:

Value resolution: resolved that Justice is more important than Freedom.

Such a resolution focuses on abstract principles and issues of what "ought" to be.

Another example:

Value resolution: resolved that Ronald Reagan is the best President the United States has ever had.

This would also be a proposition of value because its calls for an evaluative judgment whose nature is closer to opinion than that of fact.

Value v. Fact

The difference between a proposition of value and a proposition of fact is often very vague and arbitrary but essentially relies on an intuitive feeling of what constitutes opinion versus what constitutes fact.

The following would be a proposition of fact:

Factual resolution: resolved that Ronald Reagan was a President of the United States.

But once an evaluative term is included, the proposition becomes one of value:

*Value Resolution: resolved that Ronald Reagan is the **best** President the United States has ever had.*

The nature of discussion centers around "What does it mean to be a good President?" instead of factual ones.

Value v. Policy

This distinction is also pretty difficult in certain cases, but an intuitive feel can be developed through example. Both types of resolutions can be a "call to action" but simply concern themselves with different issues. A policy proposition would involve more "real-world" concerns that are pragmatic in nature. A value proposition would involve concerns over "principles" and what "ought to be" and is thus more idealistic in nature.

Technically, a proposition of policy would use the word "should," while a proposition of value would use the word "ought."

For example,

***Policy resolution:** resolved that President Reagan **should** enforce United Nations resolutions.*

vs.

***Value resolution:** resolved that President Reagan **ought** to enforce United Nations resolutions.*

In the first example, a proposition of policy, practical issues would be discussed. In the second example, moral issues and principles of value would be discussed instead. (Thus, one could say: "President Reagan **ought** to enforce UN resolutions but **shouldn't** because of practical considerations.)

The difference, of course, is not that big and is merely a matter of definitional choice. Policy and value debate are different activities and thus, by definition, discuss different issues. A good way to think of the distinction is as follows: value resolutions determine what we "ought" to do and policy resolutions look at the feasibility of actually "doing it." Value propositions precede policy propositions.

For example,

***Value resolution:** Resolved that public health ought to be more important than individual rights.*

or

***Value resolution:** Resolved that the government has a moral obligation to insure public health.*

After these value decisions are made, then we turn to policy propositions.

***Policy resolution:** Resolved that the government should create a mandatory blood testing program to stop the AIDS epidemic.*

In the policy stage, new issues become relevant.

This distinction is important because many debaters will try to inject policy issues into values debate. The good Lincoln-Douglas debater will realize when this is happening and thwart it at the beginning.

Rule of Thumb: The Value debater deals with the abstract. The Policy debater deals with the concrete. The value debater is not limited by concrete policy concerns.

Bad Resolutions

Unfortunately, sometimes you will be forced to debate a badly written topic that really isn't values oriented.

Badly written resolution: resolved that the Juvenile Justice System does not meet the needs of contemporary American society.

This topic is essentially factual in nature. In order to prove the resolution, one must merely determine 1) what the needs of modern society are and 2) whether or not the Juvenile Justice System meets it. My advice to any debater who has to debate such a topic is to make the best out of it. Debate the proposition as if it were a values topic and focus on those issues (but be prepared to argue the practical and factual considerations too). In the Juvenile Justice System topic, make the first question -- "What are the needs of modern society?" -- into a question of values. Ask "What do people truly need?" "What should people want?" "What truly makes a society good?" Deal with the resolution on its own terms and in terms of its implied values.

Other topics can often be a mixture of types, or in other words, contain both value and factual (or policy) elements.

Mixed resolution: resolved that the government should implement a mandatory testing program to stop the AIDS epidemic.

Worded in this way, this topic clearly contains both policy and value issues. The wise L-D debater would be prepared to argue both but should remember to focus on the questions of values. In this topic, the debate should center around the values of public health and privacy rights instead of funding, public backlash, enforcement, etc.

Ultimately, the definition of values debate reduces to a simple statement.

Definition: Lincoln-Douglas debate deals with propositions of value. Propositions of value are statements that deal with values.

Therefore, one should understand what a value is.

What Is A Value?

Webster's II New Riverside Dictionary defines value as "a standard or principle regarded as desirable or worthwhile."

To come up with a more concrete understanding, let's compare the following two lists.

<u>VALUE:</u>	<u>NOT A VALUE:</u>
Justice	Food
Freedom	United Nations
Privacy	Ronald Reagan
Individual	Clint Eastwood
Life	National Forensics League
Quality of Life	Mrs. Jones
Autonomy	Stanford University
Dignity	The United States of America

From these lists we can make two observations:

- 1. A value is generally an abstract concept or principle of what is right or what is good.*
- 2. A value is typically traditionally recognized as such.*

The second observation is a useful guide. With thousands of years of history, most of man's values have been enumerated. Thus, you are safe to use any concept that is traditionally recognized as a value. For example, Justice, Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness are definitely values.

Secondly, any value must be an abstract concept. Concrete objects can have value but they cannot be values. My dog is not a value. But my dog can have value in terms of companionship, life, intelligence, etc. Food can have value but it is not a value.

William K. Frankena writes in the Encyclopedia of Philosophy: "Just as a 'color' does not mean a 'thing that has color' but a particular color like red, so 'a value' does not mean 'a thing that has value' but a particular kind of value..."

There are, of course, many borderline cases such as Democracy. One can argue that democracy is merely a system of government, a structure of political organization that possesses value and seeks to establish certain values, but is not a value in and of itself. Or, on the other hand, one can define democracy as a set of principles (the "principles of democracy") and in this sense, value democracy.

Chapter 2

The Format of Lincoln-Douglas Debate

As mentioned before, L-D is a debate about values. One person affirms the resolution and another person negates the resolution. The "affirmative" has a burden to prove the specific resolution and the "negative" has a burden to disprove the resolution.

The debate consists of five speeches, two cross-examination periods, and preparation time. The sequence of the speeches is as follows.

<u>Speech</u>	<u>Jargon</u>	<u>Duration</u>	<u>Purpose</u>
First Affirmative Constructive	1AC	6 minutes	The Affirmative establishes reasons to support the resolution
Negative's Cross-Examination of the Affirmative	C-X	3 minutes	The Negative questions the Affirmative to clarify and expose weaknesses.
Negative Constructive	NC	7 minutes	The Negative establishes reasons to negate the resolution and then refutes the Affirmative arguments.
Affirmative's Cross-Examination of the Negative	C-X	3 minutes	The Affirmative questions the Negative to clarify and expose weaknesses.
First Affirmative Rebuttal	1AR	4 minutes	The Affirmative resupports his/her position and refutes the Negative arguments.
Negative Rebuttal	NR	6 minutes	The Negative resupports his/her position and refutes the Affirmative arguments.
Second Affirmative Rebuttal	2AR	3 minutes	The Affirmative deals with all of the major arguments in the debate and shows why the Affirmative wins.

Preparation time can differ from tournament to tournament but generally lasts three minutes for each debater. This means that each person can use up to three minutes throughout the debate, to be used at the debater's discretion.

Lincoln-Douglas v. Policy Debate

The format of L-D is different from two-person debate in several important ways.

- 1. The times and the sequence of speeches are different.*
- 2. The type of analysis, arguments, and evidence used is different. In value debate, the emphasis is on analysis and logic. In policy debate, the emphasis is on facts, studies, etc. Thus, the evidence in policy debate tends to be more conclusionary (factual).*
- 3. The two types of debate are different stylistically. L-D debate is much more conversational and the emphasis is on persuasion. In policy debate, the primary purpose is to advance and win the arguments quickly at the expense of delivery. Hence, policy debaters tend to focus less on persuasion.*
- 4. There are no complex rules and burdens in Lincoln-Douglas debate. In policy debate, the debaters have to deal with Topicality, Solvency, Significance, Justification, Inherency, Disadvantages, etc.. In Lincoln-Douglas debate, the Affirmative must simply prove the resolution.*

Chapter 3

Analyzing the Resolution -- Developing Value Arguments

RULE: The debater who best understands the resolution will win most often.

The first thing to do with a given topic is to analyze the resolution. The analysis stage takes place before research, case-writing, etc. and is the most important. One's understanding of the resolution serves as the foundation on which all the other elements of Lincoln-Douglas debating rest upon.

Suppose there is the following proposition of value:

Resolved: that apples are better than oranges.

This topic asks us to evaluate and compare the "worths" of apples and oranges. Look at the following examples of other resolutions:

Resolved: that cooperation is superior to competition as a means of achieving excellence.

Resolved: that legislating morality is appropriate in a democratic society.

Comparing these L-D topics we can come up with three general observations. In any value proposition there are three elements:

1. There is an **evaluative term** (i.e. "better," "superior," and "appropriate.")
2. There is an **object** (or objects) of evaluation (i.e. "apples and oranges," "cooperation and competition," and "legislating morality.")
3. There is a **context of evaluation** (i.e. "as a means of achieving excellence" and "in a democratic society.")

The "evaluative term" is the word that signifies what type of contrast or comparison or "evaluation" we are to make. The object(s) of evaluation are those concepts that we are to evaluate or compare. And the context of evaluation (though not present in every topic) tells us under what circumstances to make the evaluation. In the example of the cooperation v. competition topic the resolution asks us to compare the two **in terms of achieving excellence**. In the legislating morality topic, we are to discuss the appropriateness of such measures **in a democratic society**.

Let's return to the apples and oranges topic.

Resolved: *that apples are better than oranges.*

In analyzing this resolution, three questions naturally follow:

1. *What is an apple?*

In brainstorming, one might come up with the following ideas: an apple is an object; it has color; you eat it; it's a subject of art; it's a fruit; it can be red or green; if you eat it daily, it keeps the doctor away.

2. *What is an orange?*

An orange is an object; it also has color; you can eat it; it's round; it's orange-colored; it's a wonderful source of Vitamin C.

3. *What does it mean to be "better?"*

This is where the values play the most relevant role. What does it mean to be better? Popularity? Color? Aesthetics? Nutrition? Military usefulness?

After brainstorming on this level, you might develop an argument as follows:

"In order to determine what fruits are better, we have to look at the nutritional values of each. Therefore, in today's debate, I will show you that apples are better than oranges in terms of the nutrition the fruits provide. Apples are great sources of vitamins and are low in calories. Oranges, on the other hand, ..."

In this case, the value is Nutrition. You might say the following instead....

"The true test of worth is that of aesthetics, or beauty. Nutrition, popularity, military usefulness, etc. are all subordinate to beauty, which is the ultimate test. Apples are more beautiful than oranges because 1) the shape of the apple is more pleasing and 2) apples can come in more colors. Clearly, the resolution is true."

In this example, the value is Aesthetics or Beauty. In developing value arguments, then, one must look at possible "criteria" or "standards" for determining what is "better" and then apply those standards to the "objects of evaluation." In other words, once we establish that "aesthetics" is the way to determine what is "better," we can evaluate and compare apples and oranges in terms of "aesthetics." There is a value and then a link to that value (how does the object of evaluation relate to the value?).

RULE: at the root of all value arguments, there are two logical steps that must be proven:

1. There is a value.

2. There is a link to the value.

Let's analyze the other two examples.

Resolved: that legislating morality is appropriate in a democratic society.

This resolution happens to involve a context of evaluation. Logically, the debater begins to analyze the topic with the three following questions:

1. *What does it mean to legislate morality?*

Legislating morality means to create laws that dictate morality. Does this only include issues of private morality or does it also include public morality (such as public indecency laws)? Does this mean I have to defend all laws that rest on morality? Does this mean I actually dictate morality or does it merely mean that the law is based on morality?

2. *What does it mean to be appropriate?*

I could argue that nothing is appropriate unless it is moral. Perhaps nothing is appropriate unless it is just. The dictionary says that something is appropriate if it is fitting and proper. That means I have to look at what democracy is all about.

3. *What is a democratic society?*

A democracy is based upon principles of justice that guarantee individual rights. A democracy is based upon social moralities. Once I understand what democracy is all about, then I can understand what is proper in a democracy.

After asking and answering these basic questions, the debater is then ready to formulate positions (arguments):

"A democratic society is founded upon the principle of freedom of conscience. The freedom to believe whatever one wishes is what distinguishes democracies from totalitarian countries. Legislating morality is not appropriate in a democracy because when we legislate morality, we are trying to dictate an individual's conscience. The violation of individual liberty is flagrant."

Practice analysis with the following example.

Resolved: that cooperation is superior to competition as a means of achieving excellence.

Basically, then, a way to analyze the resolution is to ask the right questions.

RULE: The art of analyzing Lincoln-Douglas resolutions is the art of asking the right questions.

In addition to identifying the object of evaluation, the evaluative term, and the context evaluation, further argumentation can be brainstormed by analyzing each word of the resolution.

RULE: Each word in the resolution is important.

To understand the importance of each word, look at the following example.

Resolved: that the pursuit of scientific knowledge ought to be limited by a concern for societal good.

Pursuit: in this resolution, there will be a lot of dispute over what pursuit exactly means. The pursuit of scientific knowledge is different from the application of scientific knowledge. The pursuit of scientific knowledge is also different from the actual knowledge itself. So we are talking about the means of achieving knowledge. Any arguments that refer to bad applications or the inherent good of knowledge will be irrelevant.

Scientific: so we aren't simply talking about knowledge but a particular type of knowledge. Is there anything about science that requires special consideration?

Ought: The dictionary says that the word ought means a moral obligation. Does this mean that we are only to discuss what the moral action would be? Pragmatics, etc. would be irrelevant then.

Limited: So this means that we aren't going to ban pursuit of scientific knowledge but merely limit it. This argument seems so obvious but is mentioned in almost every round.

Limited by a concern: Does this mean that we aren't limiting the pursuit by repressive laws but only by a concern. So the resolution specifies the agent of limitation -- in other words, what we are limiting the pursuit of science by.

Ought to be limited: So the resolution is written passively and hence, doesn't specify who is going to do the limiting. That means that arguments about government repression and rights become irrelevant. We could be talking about the individual scientist limiting himself. Or we could be talking about both types of limitations.

A concern: The resolution doesn't say that we limit science whenever it actually conflicts with society but only when there is a concern that it might. Does this mean that whenever anyone has a "qualm" about anything it ought to be limited? Isn't this a little too restrictive?

Societal good: So the resolution doesn't say "Resolved: that science ought to be limited" but instead, "Resolved: that science ought to be limited by a concern for societal good." A Negative debater, then, could argue that the pursuit of science ought to be limited, but not by a concern for societal good. Perhaps science should only be limited by concerns for individual welfare. This means the Affirmative debater must also establish reasons why society ought to be taken into account.

It should be obvious by now that a great way to brainstorm certain arguments is to look at the possible impact of each particular word.

TWO RULES:

1. Definitions are important. How you define certain terms will determine how the topic will be argued.
2. BUT, be reasonable. The idea is not to turn values debate into a definitions debate.

What about the Philosophers?

One last note about analyzing the resolution: where do all the famed philosophers and values come in? The purpose of philosophy is to explain and clarify values. In other words, you might decide to use the value of justice. But what exactly is justice? Different philosophers have different ideas. One might say that justice is giving each his due. Another would argue that justice involves social equality. Perhaps justice is the maximization of individual rights. Utilitarians would actually argue that justice means maximizing the greatest good for the greatest number. The L-D debater, then, uses the philosophers to clarify what certain values mean. In addition, philosophers can often point out the flaws in opponent's values or why they are less important.

Caution: Beware of the following attitude -- "So and So says Such and Such so it must be true." Just because a philosopher argues a certain way or doesn't does not mean that the job of the debater is finished. Philosophers merely clarify. **A good debater should dispute the arguments themselves rather than the sources.** In other words, "John Stuart Mill was a geek" would be a bad argument. On the other hand, "John Stuart Mill failed to take into account the importance of individual rights. A democracy cannot allow the individual to be canceled out by what the majority desires....." would be a much better argument.

There are certain philosophers that happen to be quoted time and time again. The following list is not exhaustive, but is certainly a starting point.

Philosophers To Know:

Jean Jacques Rousseau, The Social Contract
John Locke, The Second Treatise of Government
John Stuart Mill, On Liberty and Utilitarianism
Immanuel Kant, Foundations of the Metaphysics of Morals
John Rawls, A Theory of Justice
David Hume, Of Justice
Norman E. Bowie and Robert L. Simon, The Individual and the Political Order

Chapter 4

How to Research

Though Lincoln-Douglas emphasizes logic and reasoning over evidence, research is still an important stage for the consummate debater. After analyzing the resolution, the debater should go to the library and find evidence to support and expand his/her thoughts. Researching should not be seen as a horrible, lengthy task: effective research can be done with minimal effort.

RULE 1: Brainstorm a list of key words by using synonyms and related topics.

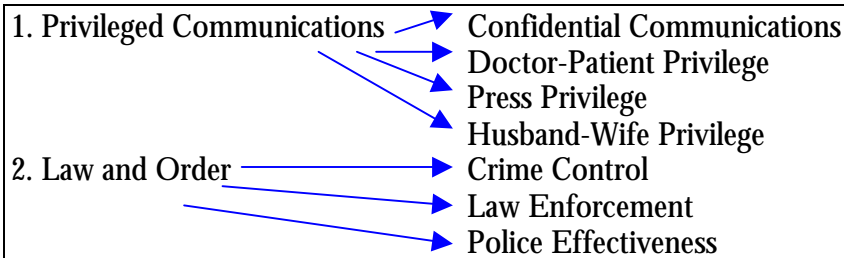
Before stepping foot in a library, one should create a list of topics to look up. This should be rather simple after analyzing the resolution. First, include the subjects that are given directly from the resolution. Secondly, think of all the synonyms you can (You will be amazed how many more materials you can obtain by looking up synonymous subject words.) Thirdly, expand the list even more by brainstorming all the related topics. For example,

Resolved: that when in conflict, the principles of privileged communications ought to be subordinate to the maintenance of law and order.

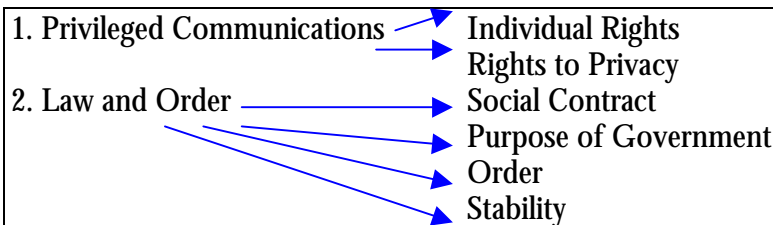
Obviously, two topic areas are evident from the resolution:

1. Privileged Communications
2. Law and Order

Now think of synonyms and related topics.



But don't forget to brainstorm the related philosophical subject areas too.



After this brainstorming, you should have a fairly comprehensive list of "keywords" to use as subject headings in the library. But don't treat this list as final or complete; be prepared to update this list as you begin to research and encounter different ideas.

LIST OF KEYWORDS:

Privileged Communications, Confidential Communications, Doctor-Patient Privilege, Press Privilege, Law and Order, Police, Crime Control, Social Contract, Purpose of Government, Order, Stability, Rights, Right to Privacy

Armed with this list, you can now go to the library. Any public library is adequate for researching Lincoln-Douglas topics. The best library, though, would be a University Law Library (the materials there are generally the most relevant and direct.)

RULE 2: Create a game plan to attack the library.

A library can be overwhelming with all of its various sources. A game plan can keep you from drowning in the informational soup. When you get to a library, look at the various resources that are available and make a list of the ones you want to search. A typical game plan might look as follows.

Library Gameplan

1. Reference Materials

- *Encyclopedia of Philosophy*
- *Dictionaries*

2. Books

- *Card Catalog*

3. Periodicals

- *Reader's Guide*
- *Social Sciences Index*

In this case, you would decide to exhaust the reference materials first, the books next, and the periodicals last. Use the list of subject headings you brainstormed to search each area. Specifically: you'll look at the Encyclopedia of Philosophy and get everything you need, then you'll search through the dictionaries to get all the definitions you need. After that, you'll check the card catalog (looking up all the subject headings you brainstormed) and go through all of those books. Finally, you'll search the periodicals by first using the Reader's Guide and then the Social Sciences Index. After you complete the gameplan, you can be pretty confident that you've exhausted a particular library.

As you research, you'll find many other areas that you haven't thought of before. **Don't be afraid to update the list of keywords and to go back through the game plan again with the new subjects.**

If you are lucky enough to have a computerized library, learn to use the computer catalogs. This saves a lot of time and actually makes research more comprehensive and fun. There are such catalogs for both books and periodicals.

RULE 3: Don't Be Afraid to Ask the Librarian

The librarian won't bite and knows a lot more about the library that you can possibly know. You can learn a lot by asking: "I need to find out what effect breaking the psychiatrist/patient privilege has on society," etc.

Helpful Hints:

- 1. Be selective. You will often get hundreds of headings for a particular search. Learn to gauge from the title whether or not those materials will be particularly relevant.*
- 2. When you go to the shelves, find the particular book you are looking for and search the surrounding areas for other materials. You'll be surprised how much information you can find accidentally. Books are usually arranged by subject. The same is true for periodicals. A particular issue might be devoted entirely to the debate topic or at least have several relevant articles.*
- 3. You can easily tell if a specific book is useful by reading the table of contents and scanning the index. For an article, reading the abstract, introduction, and conclusion, the highlighted sections, etc. can serve the same purpose. You should never really have to read the entire 500 pages of a book.*

RULE 4: Attack other sources in addition to the library.

The library is not the only place to do research. You can often get interesting insight and suggestions from teachers and college students. They can point you to specific books that are directly relevant. High school textbooks can also be helpful. If you are debating something with regard to American government, check out your history or government textbook.

RULE 5: Read the material and select the evidence.

With all of this material, what do you do with it? I would suggest photocopying the relevant sections in the library and read the materials in detail at home. Reading entire articles and sections is important -- even if it contains no usable evidence. By researching yourself, you come to a better understanding of the topic area and the logic of the arguments. As you read, take notes in the margins and highlight the good quotes that can be used in a debate. This process is known as "cutting evidence."

Guidelines for "Cutting" Evidence

1. *The evidence should be simple and straightforward.*
2. *The evidence should be relatively short. Lengthy quotes are almost useless in a debate round.*
3. *The quote needs to be cut in context. Make sure the quote says what you say it does. It looks very bad when an opponent can point out inaccuracies in your evidence. (Believe me: many debaters will read the same materials you do and can thus point out any errors you make in cutting evidence.)*
4. *Get complete source citations. You should always have the author, title, page, date of a piece of evidence. In addition, author's qualifications are nice to have. The general rule is that you need as much information as necessary to be able to look up a particular quote.*
5. *Put the evidence on notecards (generally 4" x 6" index cards are best). You can either type the quotes or literally "cut and paste."*

Learning how to cut the right pieces of evidence comes with experience and time. But, hopefully, after brainstorming and analyzing the resolution, you should be able to isolate those quotes that are relevant. A good thing to ask yourself when reading is, "How could I use this in a round?"

Suppose you have the following passage:

John Stuart Mill, *On Liberty*, 1859

"The object of this Essay is to assert one very simple principle, as entitled to govern absolutely the dealings of society with the individual in the way of compulsion and control, whether the means used be physical force in the form of legal penalties, or the moral coercion of public opinion. That principle is, that the sole end for which mankind are warranted, individually or collectively, in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number, is self-protection. That **the only purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others. His own good, either physical or moral, is not a sufficient warrant.** He cannot rightfully be compelled to do or forbear because it will be better for him to do so, because it will make him happier, because, in the opinions of others, to do so would be wise, or even right."

The highlighted portion would be a great quote to use in a Lincoln-Douglas debate round. You would then cut or type the quote and put it on a card.

John Stuart Mill, *On Liberty*, 1859, p. 1

"...the only purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others. His own good, either physical or moral, is not a sufficient warrant.

Debate Handbooks: Vice and Virtue

There are many published materials for Lincoln-Douglas debate out in the market: Victory Briefs, Baylor Briefs, Squirrel Killers, etc. Most of these are merely lists of evidence. While using these books, watch out for quotes that claim to say one thing, but don't. Read all the evidence yourself if you are going to use it. But never rely solely on published debate handbooks. You won't learn anything, won't become that stellar debater by analyzing and researching yourself, and won't get all the philosophical analysis that you need. Handbooks are merely tools.

The ideal use of debate handbooks is summarized by the Victory Briefs' mission statement: don't use them until you've done your own work.

"Victory Briefs are intended to supplement research, not to substitute individual thought and work. Indeed, we would recommend that experienced debaters not read this volume until after they have formulated their own arguments and positions. Instead, they should use this as a means to test their views and to expand what they have already thought about. For new Lincoln-Douglas debaters we would recommend using this text as an introduction to how value arguments are formed. Remember, these briefs are not intended to be complete and adequate preparation. They do not even pretend to have enough variety of evidence or to have exhausted all possible approaches. In addition, debaters should read every brief (no matter how seemingly irrelevant), and attack this edition like a book. Much of the analysis applies to more than one argument and the groupings should not limit what debaters consider. I hope these briefs are helpful as resource guides and wish everyone luck with the topic."

And finally, one more thing...

Don't think of research as a one-time activity. Research and analysis are ongoing projects.

Chapter 5

The Case

The "case" is the prepared argumentation that a debater presents as a complete argument in support of or in opposition to a resolution. The affirmative has a full six minutes to present the affirmative case in the first speech. The negative case, however, is usually only three and a half to four and a half minutes long (the Negative needs to present his/her case and refute the affirmative's arguments in the 1NC).

The Affirmative Case

After you have gathered all the evidence and analyzed the resolution, put all of your ideas on one sheet of paper and begin brainstorming again to fill in the details of the argument. For example, suppose you have the following resolution.

Resolved: that the rights of the victim ought to take precedence over the rights of the accused.

Suppose that in the process of analyzing the resolution and researching, you come across the following idea: "victim's won't cooperate and testify unless their rights are safeguarded." At this stage in the process, you need to fill out this argument by asking "Why?," "How?," etc.

Evidence: Victim's won't testify unless they feel safeguarded.
So what? ... well, then the Criminal Justice System can't function
So what? ... well, then society will be hurt
Why? ... the victims won't testify and so we can't have trials and can't control crime effectively
How does this relate? ... well, society needs to be protected, so the rights of the victim ought to take precedence.

Fill out the arguments for everything you've brainstormed in the same way. Try to be as detailed as possible.

RULE: Fill in the details of an argument by repeatedly asking Why?, How?, So What?, How does this relate?, Who cares?...

After you've done this, choose two to four of the best arguments to serve as the arguments in your case.

Criteria for choosing which arguments to use:

- 1. Use the ones that make sense. You have to persuade a judge so don't be absurd.*
- 2. Choose one that can be adequately defended against all foreseeable attacks.*
- 3. Choose the arguments so that you develop a consistent position. Judges like to vote for positions not individual, specific arguments. Arguments should be presentable in a logical order.*

The third one is particularly important. Don't choose three random arguments that really don't have anything to do with each other. It is essential to have a common theme running throughout a case.

RULE: Create a consistent position from which your arguments stem.

Structure

There are many ways to structure a case. The following structure is perhaps the most common and most prevalent type.

Introduction

You begin the six minute case with a short attention getter. This can be a quote, an example, or an analogy that captures the essence of the case. In other words, the attention getter should relate to your position. After the attention getter, you must then relate the topic to the resolution, give the resolution, and in the process of doing so, present the affirmative position or thesis. Be certain to state the topic verbatim; don't change the resolution's wording.

For example:

Melvin Munn once described the following incident: "In California, three hoodlums dragged a working girl into their car from the sidewalk right outside her home. They drove her to a beach area where she was criminally assaulted five times. The most brutal of the three was brought to trial and convicted by a jury. The judge was empowered to set the sentence. Now, try to guess what that sentence was. No, the judge couldn't set him free, but did sentence this 'nice boy' to 52 weekends -- that is weekends in jail. First, the judge concluded that the rapist was really a rather nice person. The judge said, "The purpose of the law is not retribution. It is rehabilitation."

Because we can all see how wrong the judge was, and because it is clear that a crime must be paid for before we act out of benevolence, I affirm today's resolution.

Resolved: that the American criminal justice system ought to place a higher priority on retribution than on rehabilitation.

or,

Every time a person steps into the bathtub, he exposes himself to a variety of risks. Many people slip and some even drown. But why do we still have bathers in our society? The reason is simply that the value of personal cleanliness outweighs those risks. The same kind of situation can be found in today's debate and so I must affirm the resolution.

Resolved: that limitations upon the content of student publications by secondary school administrators are unjustified.

There are many potential problems that MAY result from a free student press. But that's exactly what they are: potential problems, risks that are outweighed by the greater benefits derived from student freedom, namely education. Now my bathtub analogy does not mean precautions can't be taken, ie. using a bathmat. Precautions can be taken with a newspaper such as controlling the time and manner of distribution. But the point is that we still enter the bathtub. We should still let the contents of a newspaper be printed, and enter the student marketplace of ideas.

Observations

After the definitions come the general observations on the topic. These are relatively short and provide a general framework for the debate. Observations can establish certain burdens for the opponent and must establish the value and the criteria.

Value v. Criteria. At this point, I should distinguish between a value and the criteria. A value is the abstract that the debater is upholding. The criteria tells us how to uphold that value. For example: the value in a round could be society. A debater could argue that the way to best uphold society is to maintain law and order. Thus the value criteria would be one of maintaining law and order. Or one could argue that the most important value is justice. The way to achieve justice is to be fair and to maximize everyone's rights. In this case, there are two value criteria: 1) fairness and 2) the maximization of rights. The distinction is not that important but does aid in clarity.

Suppose you have the following resolution:

Resolved: that the pursuit of scientific knowledge ought to be limited by a concern for societal good.

The following would be possible observations.

With these definitions in mind, we can now move to the Affirmative value criteria and establish some general observations on the topic.

Observation 1. The way to determine our moral obligation is to look at Justice. The resolution asks us to determine what we "ought" to do and it is self-evident that we ought to be just. According to Lucilius A. Emery, "justice is the proper balance between the individual and society." John Stuart Mill writes in On Liberty, that "the only purpose

for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others." Thus, limits on the pursuit of scientific knowledge would be just if such pursuit can cause harm to society.

Observation 2. The resolution deals with the pursuit of knowledge and not with knowledge itself.

I am not here to say that knowledge is bad or needs to be limited. The resolution merely evaluates the effects of particular pursuits of knowledge. Furthermore, I am only defending limits on those pursuits that cause a concern for societal good. There is no reason to stop science or to abolish it.

Contentions

After the general observations come the specific arguments, called Contentions. In the example of the science topic, the observations set up the following criteria: if the pursuit of science hurts society then justice requires that we limit it. Thus, we ought to limit it. After the general evaluating mechanism is set, then in the contentions, the debater proves that science can hurt society. Generally, there should be two to three contentions.

So in understanding our moral obligation, we have analyze how the pursuit of science hurts society.

Contention 1. Unregulated laboratories threaten human survival.

Almost everyone has heard the horror stories of laboratory experiment gone wild. When a scientist is pursuing knowledge about nuclear radiation, biotechnology, genetic engineering, etc. many haywire experiments can be detrimental to societal good and harm other people. Clearly, then, the process of pursuing knowledge needs to limited and regulated.

Senator Albert Gore, Jr. writes in the Yale Law and Policy Review, Spring 1985, that "Advances in biotechnology in the mid-1970s created public concern over the safety of laboratory experiments. Because many such experiments involved the use of potentially infectious bacteria, some feared that a man-made 'bug' could escape and spread a horrible disease throughout the population. Such a fear was not unfounded."

Because the process of pursuit through experimentation can hurt people, we are morally obligated to limit it. As Malcolm L. Goggin writes in "Governing Science and Technology in a Democracy" 1986, p. 41: "There are, however, certain types of experiments -- for example, when human or animal subjects are used, or when the community is put at risk -- when regulation of inquiry is morally and constitutionally indicated."

But experiments are not the only danger, which brings me to ...

Contention 2: the pursuit of science must not overrun society.

In other words, we cannot let the pursuit of science go faster than a particular society can handle it. Introducing nuclear technology to Colonial America would have been

disastrous. In the same way, genetic engineering would be disastrous in today's society. The pursuit of science needs to be limited and slowed down until the proper control mechanisms in society and concurrent ethics can be established.

Andre Cournand, Professor Emeritus of Medicine at Columbia University, writes in *The Sciences*, 1981: "Finding the means to control the process of emergence in a manner favorable to the survival of humanity is an urgent necessity."

.....etc.

Conclusion

It is important to save the last twenty to thirty seconds of the case to summarize and crystallize the Affirmative position. After the introduction, definitions, observations, and contentions, bring it all together with a few well-chosen, persuasive sentences.

So ultimately, we have to realize the importance of justice in whatever we do. Justice mandates that we limit those individual actions that cause harm to other people, particularly society. Because the pursuit of scientific knowledge can pose such a threat to society, we are morally obligated to limit it. Thus, the pursuit of scientific knowledge ought to be limited by a concern for societal good and I can only urge an Affirmative ballot.

Evidence

Evidence is essential in a case to lend credibility to your position and to backup any factual assertions you make. There are basically three reasons to use evidence: 1) to prove a fact, 2) to clarify and explain, and 3) to impress and lend credibility. Though evidence is important, Lincoln-Douglas debate relies on analysis and reasoning instead. So generally, **four to five pieces of evidence** is all you should have in an Affirmative case. Have the other pieces on stand-by; research should still be comprehensive enough to meet opposing arguments.

How you introduce and conclude evidence is essential. Begin by giving a "tag" for the evidence. In other words, give the audience a preview of what the evidence supposedly says. Read the evidence with the source. You don't have to give the entire citation in the speech but be prepared to if you are asked for it. And then re-explain what the evidence just said. For example,

Punishment must be the rule with no exception. Any exception compromises the safety of society.

Morris Raphael Cohen explains in the *Yale Law Journal*, 1940: that "the deterrent effect of punishment depends upon the certainty of its being applied."

In other words, a criminal who thinks that he has one out of ten or even one out of a hundred chance of escaping punishment or receiving a lenient punishment will be more likely to commit crimes. With rehabilitation above retribution, criminals learn how to

appear to be "rehabilitated," because it is the easy way out. It is only by giving retribution priority that we protect society.

Style

The style used in writing a Lincoln-Douglas case is also very peculiar and has distinctive differences from a regular oration.

- 1. The writing style must be conversational but also formal. The idea is to persuade the judge verbally. Be natural but do not curse or use slang.*
- 2. The speech should be written so you can speak slowly. Persuasion is not enhanced by speaking rapidly.*
- 3. Transitions are important.*
- 4. Signpost. The case should be organized around an outline. As you see from the examples given above, use the language of the outline. Actually say "Observation 1" and "Contention 1" but use transitions to flow into them naturally. As in a regular outline, after "Contention 1" there is a "tagline," a short summary of what the gist of the argument is. These "tags" should be relatively short and easy to jot down on a piece of paper (seven to eight words long is a good guideline). Outlines are important for organization in debate. But don't be too specific in the outline. Substructure (i.e., subpoint A, little A, sub-subpoint C, etc.) is rarely used and actually discouraged. Think of the case as an embellishment of a rough outline (i.e. meat on bones).*

Alternative Structures

As mentioned earlier, the sample structure I detailed is not the only possible option. Many people structure their cases differently. My approach centered around the idea of establishing a value first and then giving multiple links to the value. Look back at the sample case for the science topic. In the observations, I established the importance of Justice and the criteria of harming others. Then in the Contentions, I showed the many ways in which the pursuit of science harmed others. Some debaters use other methods:

- 1. The philosophical/pragmatic approach.** Some debaters choose to present two major arguments: one that is philosophical and then one that is pragmatic (i.e. "In understanding today's resolution, I have two major arguments. First, let's examine the issue on a philosophical level. Secondly, let's turn to a more pragmatic argument.) Other debaters choose to focus on one or the other.
- 2. The multiple values approach.** It is not taboo to use more than one value. Some debaters use "value justifications" instead of observations and contentions. A "value justification" is simply another way to organize the outline around specific values. For example:

"Let's turn to my specific arguments and understand why limits on the content of student publications are undesirable. Value justification 1: limits on student newspapers undermine the value of Education. Value justification 2: limits on student newspapers undermine the value of Freedom ... and Value justification 3: limits on student newspapers undermine the value of Truth."

But be careful in using multiple values. There are three things to keep in mind. 1) you have to support all of the values. 2) the values can't contradict each other. 3) and the values must all represent a consistent position and theme.

3. The purely rhetorical approach. Some debaters choose to throw out structure altogether and merely orate for six minutes. This approach might win once in a while, but I highly discourage it.

4. The purely philosophical approach. Yet another style popular in some states is to use all philosophy and no real world considerations whatsoever. This can be successful with certain types of judges. Debaters much avoid the temptation of becoming too esoteric and thus fail to communicate effectively.

There are many ways to organize a case. Just be certain that the progression of the arguments makes sense.

RULE: The structure and progression of a case must be logical and comprehensible.

Preemption

In the case, a debater can also include preemptive arguments. A preemptive argument is a response to an anticipated argument. In other words, you predict what an obvious argument your opponent will make and defeat it before it is even brought up. Preemption can make you look extremely confident and also help clarify your positions as you make them. But preemption is only effective when it involves obvious arguments: use this tactic only if you know that most of your opponents will make a certain argument. Of course, preemption can also give your opponent ideas for how to attack your case.

"Clearly, then, because the pursuit of science can utterly destroy life on earth, it needs to be limited. Now my opponent may come up here and argue that knowledge is intrinsically good, and can never harm anyone. That may be true, but remember that we are not talking about knowledge itself, but the pursuit of that knowledge."

The Negative Case

In the Negative's first speech, he/she generally establishes constructive elements and also attacks the Affirmative arguments. The process of writing the Negative case is almost identical with the process of writing the Affirmative, but with a few differences:

- 1. The Negative case is shorter so the debater can have time to refute the Affirmative. Ideally, the case is about three and a half to four and a half minutes long.*
- 2. The Negative tries to disprove the resolution.*
- 3. Definitions are not essential in the case but should be easily accessible in case a dispute over definitions should arise. You should not contest definitions unless the affirmative limits the debate unfairly or you have a definition that is useful to your case and can be offered fairly.*

In Summary...

The good case, then, must contain certain components.

Requirements for "THE" Case

1. You must prove (or disprove) the resolution.
2. You need definitions (unless you are Negative).
3. You need at least one value.
4. You need a consistent position.
5. You need to Signpost and use Outline Language.
6. The logical progression of the case must make sense.
7. The structure should be easy to follow.

Chapter 6

Card-Files, Briefs, and Rebuttal Evidence

The debate does not end with the case. There are also rebuttal speeches that need to be prepared for. In addition to understanding the arguments, you need to organize your evidence so that you can easily retrieve them in a debate round.

How Much?

Having read the multiple arguments and books, and having cut enormous amounts of evidence, it is time to choose the best. Throw out the garbage and the redundant pieces of evidence. Throw out the confusing quotes, the long quotes, the irrelevant quotes. You really need only **thirty to fifty pieces of evidence for each side** to bring into a round. For some topics, you need even less. Have about one or two really good "cards" (cut pieces of evidence) for each argument you plan on making or encountering; any more is just a waste of space. You will probably have ten cards that you use consistently. The rest of them will probably be there "just in case" you encounter that really strange and bizarre argument that really weird debaters argue.

How do you Organize them?

Having selected the evidence you are going to use in a debate round, you must choose a way to organize them in a logical and efficient way. There are many different ways people do this:

1. **The brief format:** some debaters (notably from the policy debate tradition) type out "briefs." A "brief" is simply a page on which a debater types all of the quotes that relate to the same general subject. For example:

Argument: Technology is bad.

1. Technology creates problems.

Michael Surry, OMNI, August 1888, p. 24

"Computers and all technology, in fact, cause so many problems than they are capable of solving. We are far from the ideal life."

2. Technology dehumanizes people.

Michelle Wagner, Science, April 2000, p. 3

"The more technology increases, the less people are human. They begin treating each other as machines and as objects rather than as people with dignity. The problem is significant."

and so forth....

2. **The Card Box:** some debaters type or paste the evidence on individual index cards. These cards include the quote, the source, and a tag line (just as the briefs do) that tells the debater what the piece of evidence says.

A sample card would be:

<p>Technology creates more problems than solutions.</p> <p>Michael Surry, OMNI, August 1888, p. 24</p> <p>"Computers and all technology, in fact, cause so many problems than they are capable of solving. We are far from the ideal life."</p>
--

These cards are then put in a box and organized by subject area. Subjects are divided with store-manufactured cardboard dividers.

3. **The Pile-O-Cards Approach:** If you have relatively few pieces of evidence, it is also possible to simply have piles of Affirmative cards and piles of Negative cards that you rubberband together. As long as you know where your evidence is, this approach can be really effective. This also helps because the card box rarely fits in the briefcase.

The choice is up to the individual debater. One should use the system that is the most comfortable, natural, and efficient.

<p>RULE: Organize your evidence in such a way that you know what's there, know where it is, and can retrieve it quickly and easily.</p>
--

Chapter 7

How to Flow

"Flowing" is the technical debate term for the art of taking notes. The purpose of a flow is to track the development of specific arguments throughout the debate: the flow should tell you what was argued and when it was argued (i.e. in what speech a particular argument was made.)

RULE: The flow should tell you what was argued when in an easily read format.



To flow, any type of paper can be used. Generally, however, the so-called "flow pad" or legal pad is used. For beginning debaters, this pad should be used horizontally with the binding on the left. Four vertical lines are drawn to divide the flow pad into five equal sections. Each of these columns represents a particular speech. The debater labels each column "1AC," "1NC," "1AR," "NR," "2AR" respectively. Everything that appears in the first column, then, was said in the First Affirmative Constructive. Everything that appears in the second column was said in the First Negative Constructive. etc...

<u>1AC</u>	<u>1NC</u>	<u>1AR</u>	<u>NR</u>	<u>2AR</u>
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Cross-Examination periods do not usually appear on the flow. If any important admission is made, the debater can indicate it on the line dividing speeches.

First Affirmative Constructive

Take notes about the affirmative case in the column labeled 1AC. But what do you flow?

1. *the outline/structure of the case*
2. *definitions*
3. *the value*
4. *the key logical steps in the argument*
5. *analogies and examples*
6. *evidence sources and what they say*

For example, if you heard the following case:

Imagine a state of nature. Because no government exists, people can do anything they want. Conscience governs some of the people but not all. There is no order but there is crime. As a result, a social contract is created and government is formed. Because democracy is that just government, I affirm today's resolution, Resolved: that democracy best promotes man's important values. To fully understand the implications of this resolution, we must define the following primary terms: Democracy – direct government of, by, and for the people that is usually confined to small numbers. Promote – to help forward. With these two definitions in mind, I offer the following observation: the negative must prove that other political systems are better than democracy. Mere flaws found in democracy are not enough to disprove the resolution. Contention 1. Democracy promotes the value of the individual. Of all of man's values, the individual is one of the most important. This can be seen in subpoint A. The individual is very important. Supreme Court Justice Brandeis makes clear in Law and Democracy that the individual is very important. "What are American ideals? They are the development of the individual for his own and the common good." Subpoint B. Democracy views all individuals as equal. The fundamental principle of democracy is that everyone has an equal voice in government. The Encyclopedia of Philosophy declares this as true: "Democracy, according to this view, requires the dispersal, not the concentration, of power: every voter has his quantum, making him worth the attention of those who want to govern." The Encyclopedia of Philosophy reaffirms the concept of one man one vote. Subpoint C. Democracy protects individual rights. President Ronald Reagan once stated in an address on December 10, 1984: "But we do a serious disservice to the cause of human rights if we forget that, however mistaken and wrong, however stumbling the actions of democracies in seeking to achieve the ideals of freedom and brotherhood, our philosophy of government permits us to acknowledge, debate, and then correct mistakes, injustices, and violations of human rights." As President Reagan attests, democracies allow the prevention or cessation of human rights abuses. Along with the individual, democracy also promotes popular sovereignty. Contention 2. Democracy promotes popular sovereignty. Subpoint A. Democracy places control with the people. Instead of having the government controlling society, a democracy places the government under the control of society. This is good. That is why, as Stanley I. Benn notes, democracy is also called "government by the people" or "popular self-government." Subpoint B. Democracy is based upon the social contract. The social contract is the theoretical agreement between the people and a government, constituting a basis for a just society. Democracy is based upon the social contract. Subpoint C. True democracy insures good law. Since the people are in control, no law is created that harms society. The Encyclopedia of Philosophy comes to the same conclusion. "Moreover, since the people are sovereign, the traditionally important safeguards against the abuse of power become otiose; for, in Rousseau's words, 'the sovereign, being formed wholly of individuals who compose it, neither has nor can have any interest contrary to theirs.'" Obviously, democracy promotes all values related to the concept of society. Contention 3. Democracy promotes the quality of life. Subpoint A. The Quality of Life is important. The only incentive for living is a good quality of life. If one is going to suffer, existence loses much of its meaning. Two crucial values connected with the quality of life are freedom and justice. Subpoint B. Democracy promotes freedom and justice. Democracy, as has already been proven, is based upon the social contract. Since the social contract promotes freedom and justice, it is logical that democracy promotes freedom and justice. Ultimately, democracy promotes the individual, society, justice, freedom, and all other values associated with these. All of which, are man's most important values. The resolution, therefore, is affirmed.

Read the passage into a tape recorder or have someone else read it to you. Try to take notes as to what was said.

The flow should resemble the following:

IAC	INC	IAR
Intro: Social Contract		
def.		
Dem - gvt. of, by, for;		
small #s		
Promote - forward		
Obs. must show other better		
C1. dem upholds Ind.		
a. indiv. most imp		
Brandeis:		
"American ideal"		
b. dem. holds Ind.		
equal		
Enc. of Phil - one		
man/vote		
c. dem. = indiv. rights		
Reagan quote		
prevents/corrects		
rights viol.		
C2. popular sovereignty		
a. people in control		
Stanley Benn: "gvt.		
by ppl"		
b. dem upon social		
contract		
c. dem = good law		
people in control		
won't pass law that		
hurts self		
Rousseau		

While you flow, pay very close attention; don't let your mind wander. Listen carefully and listen before you write. Most of a speech is pure rhetoric. Learn to cut to the core of the argument and write down the gist. Eventually, you should become so efficient that you can immediately write down your responses to their arguments in the other columns as they are speaking.

The Subsequent Speeches

For the 1NC, flow the negative case in the same way you do the Affirmative one. The only difference is where you place the notes. Flow the case in the second column and underneath the Affirmative case as the following example shows:

(cont.) ...		
C3. quality of life		
a. q of life imp.		
makes life worth		
living		
freedom and		
justice		
b. dem. promotes		
freedom		
and justice		
b/c based on soc.		
cont.		
	Neg Case	
	Intro: Life and	
	Death	
	Value: Life	
	defs:	
	democracy	
	promote	
	Obs. 1. Life most	
	imp.	
	w/o life, other values	
	useless	
	C1. Dictatorship	
	best	
	upholds life.	
	Karl Marx quote	
	“the object of the	
	state	
	is to protect life ..	
	.”	
	... (cont.)	

As for the refutation of arguments, flow responses next to the arguments they refer to and connect them with an arrow. For example,

(cont.) ...	(cont) ...
C3. quality of life	
a. q of life imp. makes life worth living freedom and justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. life is more important than quality of life 2. freedom and justice irrel. without life
b. dem. promotes freedom and justice b/c based on soc. cont.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. other gov. can also be free and just 2. tyranny best promotes life
	Neg Case
	Intro: Life and Death

This same method is used for all of the speeches. The key is to "flow" the arguments in the right place. Stay in the right column (that represents the right speech) and make arrows to show where certain arguments are applied.

When To Flow

When you are listening, you flow. The problem arises when you are speaking. All prepared cases should be "pre-flowed." In other words, if you are Affirmative, you flow your case before the debate even begins. If you are Negative, you flow your case in the lower half of the page in the second column. As for rebuttals, you flow 1) as you flow their speech. You should begin to write down your responses as you write down their arguments. 2) during prep time and 3) if you don't have enough time, you go back and fill in the blanks during your opponent's prep time. Remember what you said. Write down short tags that remind you what you are going to say. Then, when you get up to do your rebuttal speech, go down the flow by following the list of responses as you wrote them down.

Helpful Hints

1. Practice printing small and legibly.
2. Drop vowels and abbreviate words. Develop your own form of shorthand.
3. Use two different colored pens. Use one for the Affirmative speeches and one for the Negative's. You can also flow cross-examination in a third color if you'd like.
4. Develop symbols.

Sample Symbols:	
“group arguments”	}
dropped argument	X
upholds, supports, etc.	↑
undermines, etc.	↓
my value is ...	V =
justice	J
leads to, causes, etc.	→

Practice using these symbols and develop your own. For example, the following means "The value is justice. When we get justice, society is enhanced:"

RULE: Flowing is discipline that requires practice.

Practice taking notes in class using the flowing technique. Practice flowing debate rounds. Study the attached sample flow. Anyone can flow with practice.

What To Do With An Unorganized Person

Unfortunately, some debaters choose to orate instead of debate and are completely unorganized. The question becomes, how do you flow such a person? The answer is not completely satisfying. "Do the best you can." Organize the case for your opponent. Tag what you consider to be the major arguments. Build a case **for** him/her!! And when you go up to give your speech, begin by saying:

"The outline of his case wasn't extremely clear but I will try to argue point by point. In his first point, he seems to be arguing that To this I have three responses..... His next point states that"

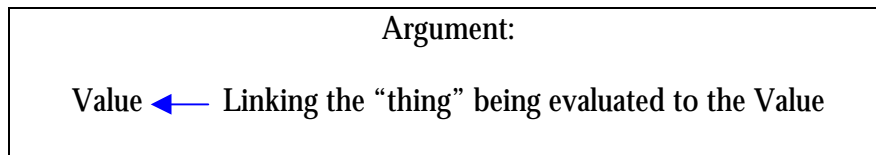
Chapter 8

How to Refute

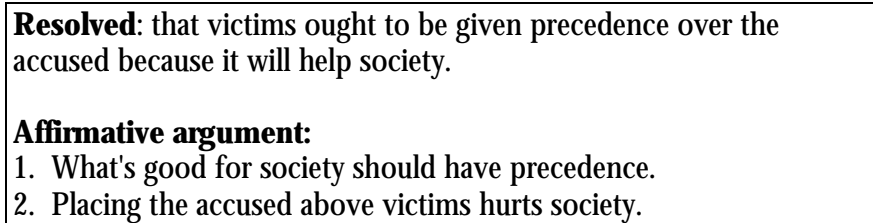
Debate is a activity in which clash and refutation is key. Learning how to refute effectively takes time and practice but there are a few helpful areas to focus on:

The Anatomy of an Argument -- Part 1

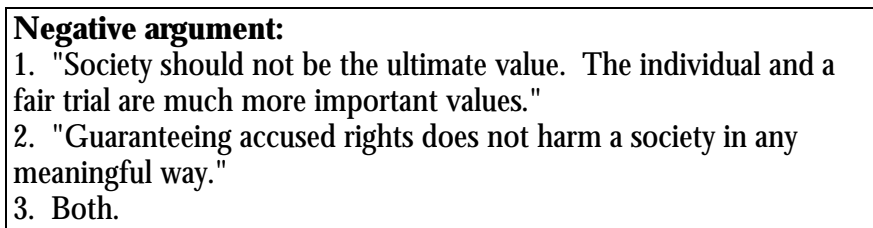
All value positions can be reduced to two components: a value and a “link” to the value.



As a debater, you can attack either level of the argument. You can say there is no link to the value or that the value is undesirable. Either attack is sufficient to refute the argument. For example,

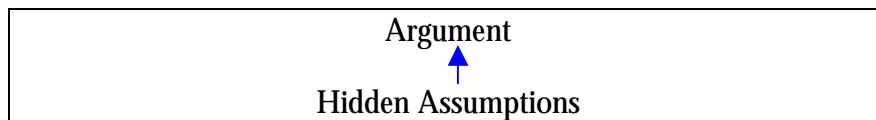


As the negative, you can argue:



The Anatomy of an Argument -- Part 2

In addition to having a value and a link to the value, almost every argument includes certain hidden assumptions that can be attacked.



Learn to point out the hidden assumptions and attack them. Study the following examples:

Argument: "Scientists have a moral obligation to take society into account when they pursue knowledge because we have a moral obligation not to harm others."

Assumptions:

1. scientists can affect society when they pursue science
2. society is necessarily good and a moral thing to protect
3. not taking society into account necessarily harms others

Many of these assumptions are obvious but learn to discover them and challenge them. With the example of the scientists, a negative could argue any of the three assumptions.

Argument: "Democracy is the best form of government because otherwise, there is no consent of the governed and the majority will be oppressed."

Assumptions:

1. Democracy is a form of government.
2. Consent of the governed is good.
3. Democracy is the only option to avoid majority oppression: how about a benevolent dictator?
4. The majority won't oppress the minority.
5. Democracy works and is even possible.

Resolved: that public education in the United States should be a privilege, not a right.

Negative Argument: "Public education needs to be a right because everyone needs to know basic skills in order for society to prosper."

Assumptions:

1. People will gain skills with public education as a right.
2. Not everyone will have access to education if it were a privilege.
3. Society prospers when everyone is guaranteed public schooling.
4. Society is the paramount consideration when determining individual rights.

All four of those assumptions can be challenged. A debater can argue that people can still get necessary skills with education as a privilege and that society actually prospers more when there is the element of competition in education.

The Art of Distinction

The art of distinction is the process of making your opponent's arguments irrelevant. This allows you to 1) focus the round around a few basic issues and 2) get rid of certain arguments without refuting them. If you can show how certain arguments have nothing to do with what you are saying and have nothing to do with the resolution, then there is no need to even consider them. That is the purpose of distinction. So many Lincoln-Douglas arguments revolve around such distinctions. Indeed, some say that philosophy itself is merely a series of fine distinctions. Study the following examples:

Resolved: that the pursuit of scientific knowledge ought to be limited by a concern for societal good.

Negative argument: "Science is crucial for society. Science determines and defines what is good for society, thus we shouldn't limit science."

Affirmative distinction: "I'm not saying that science should be banned, only that it should be limited when it conflicts with societal good. When the two are compatible, then there is no need to limit the pursuit of science."

Negative argument: "The pursuit of scientific knowledge is an individual right that cannot be limited by an amorphous concern for societal good. John Locke writes that individual rights trump societal good. John Rawls writes that an individual possesses an inviolability founded upon Justice that the good of society cannot override."

Affirmative distinction: "I'm not saying that the government should halt individual actions through coercive measures. The negative is assuming that the resolution specifies action on the part of the government. I'm merely saying that an individual scientist ought to limit himself/herself when he/she feels that the pursuit threatens society. We are only talking about moral obligations, not rights against the government."

Affirmative argument: "Science can hurt people. For example, nuclear warheads harm people and make them suffer. Therefore, clearly the pursuit of science should be limited."

Negative distinction: "I'm not talking about the applications of science. Clearly the use of nuclear warheads can hurt people. But in today's resolution, we are only dealing with the pursuit of knowledge itself. The knowledge about nuclear power can only be good and it can't possibly hurt anyone."

Affirmative argument: "Unlimited science is ridiculous. No one has an absolute right to do anything he/she wants."

Negative distinction: "I'm not saying that science should be unlimited. I'm arguing that science should not be limited by a concern for societal good. Morally, we should limit science to protect other individual rights, but not by an amorphous concern for society."

The idea is rather simple: Try to eliminate many arguments from the debate by simply showing how they are misapplied and therefore irrelevant. Warning: don't be **too** quick to dismiss major arguments as irrelevant.

Logical Fallacies

It is helpful to think of arguments as mathematical or logical proofs. There are certain steps or assertions that make up an argument that must make logical sense. A good refutation to certain arguments is to identify the logical flaws. The following are some of the most common.

1. **Logical leap/Non Sequitur:** This means that an argument simply doesn't follow. In other words, the reasons that the debater gives do not support the conclusion the debater asserts. In pointing out this logical fallacy, identify those further components that the debater needs to prove. For example:

"Ronald Reagan was the United State's best president because his movies were all done brilliantly."

The conclusion about Reagan's presidency doesn't follow from the reasoning. The debater would have to show how movie performance relates to presidential performance.

2. **Circular Reasoning:** People argue in a circle when they try to prove a statement by using that very same statement. Hence, the circle. For example:

"This television set doesn't work because there is something wrong with it."

"Society is the most important value in today's round because otherwise, the community and all the people in it will be hurt."

In this last example, the argument assumes itself. Why should society be the most important value in the round? Because otherwise, society will be hurt. The assertion reduces to a circle.

You might think that no one would ever argue in a circle. You'd be surprised. Some people who haven't researched or do not understand a particular topic do this simply to have something to say. If you think about a certain argument and reduce it to its basic components, you'll often find a circle. Point it out.

3. **Hasty Generalization/The Inductive Fallacy:** People commit an inductive fallacy when they try to derive a general principle from a very narrow example.

"All cars have power steering because the one my mom drives does."

Just because my mom's car has power steering clearly doesn't mean that everyone's car does, or even that most cars do.

4. **Compositional Fallacy:** One cannot argue that what is good for the whole is necessarily good for the part; to do so would be to commit a compositional fallacy. What is good for a single part is by nature different from what is good for the whole. A typical example of this fallacy would be:

"When we value society, we automatically benefit the individual. Indeed, society is more valuable than the individual because we also get so many other important values."

If the above argument were true, then there would never be a conflict between society and the individual. Clearly, you can't make such a logical leap.

5. **Naturalistic Fallacy:** David Hume was the first to identify this fallacy when he argued that you cannot derive an "ought" from an "is." In other words, Lincoln-Douglas debate is all about what we ought to do. You can't determine what we ought to do by looking at what people actually do or want to do, etc. This fallacy comes in many forms. For example:

"Justice must be the most important value because according to a recent survey done by Newsweek, 99% of Americans considered Justice to be the most essential of all the values."

Just because the majority of the people believe a certain thing does not mean that they are right. People used to condone slavery and bigotry and yet no one would argue that slavery or bigotry ought to exist.

"Freedom is the most important value because people naturally desire freedom."

Just because I naturally desire something does not mean that I ought to. Some murderers like Jack the Ripper naturally desire to kill people. Does that mean they ought to?

"Promoting the general welfare is the most important duty of a well-functioning government because the Constitution says so."

The naturalistic fallacy should be obvious by now. Just because the Constitution says so, it does not mean that it is so. The debater must prove that we ought to do everything the Constitution says.

Robert E. Carter, "Beyond Justice," The Journal of Moral Education, Volume 16, Number 2, May 1987, p. 86

"Hume's law simply asserts that the field of values is sui generis; that 'oughts' can only come from 'oughts' and never from 'ises.'"

There are, of course, many other possible logical fallacies to make. The easiest way to identify them is to compare the reasons given by the debater with the conclusion and ask yourself "Does this necessarily follow? Is it necessarily true?"

Towards Strong Refutation

1. Don't expect to have strong refutation if you wait until the debate round to start thinking. Most of the thought that goes into developing strong arguments in refutation takes place before the tournament even starts. You have to develop your skills and deepen your analysis by practicing.

RULE: Most of the thought and analysis takes place before the debate even starts. Think through a set of arguments which you feel opponents will raise.

2. Be certain to avoid the tendency to argue for arguments sake. Blind refutation does not enhance your position in a debate round. Argue from a central theme and take a consistent approach. For example:

Argument: "Public education in the United States should not be a right because in Puerto Rico, for example, it's not a right."

Weak Refutation: "Puerto Rico is not in the United States so the argument falls."

Stronger Refutation: "I have shown you that public education needs to be a right in order to guarantee equal opportunity in the United States. The Negative is committing a logical fallacy when he argues, 'Puerto Rico doesn't have a right so we shouldn't.' Just because something doesn't exist now does not mean that it ought not to. In addition, what is true for Puerto Rico is not necessarily true for the United States as a whole. His analysis simply doesn't follow."

The idea is to develop a position through the case and the refutation. Choose arguments and responses in relation to that position. "Puerto Rico is not in the United States" is a very weak response and totally irrelevant to your position.

RULE: Avoid blind refutation.

Chapter 9

How to Debate Values

Lincoln-Douglas debate involves a particular type of clash: the value clash. Many debates will center around a determination of the comparative worths of one value to another. What do you do when you uphold society and your opponent upholds the individual? How do you show that the value of society is more important than the value of the individual? Resolving value conflicts is the subject of this chapter.

There are many different ways to show why one value is more important or the most important. I'm going to explain nine ways to do so but as always, my list is not conclusive. Thinking about values is the purpose of Lincoln-Douglas debate.

1. **Irrelevance:** The easiest way to win a value conflict is to show how the opponent's value is irrelevant. If you can do this, then there is no need to resolve the value conflict. A value can be irrelevant if the resolution doesn't impact it in any way or if the opponent never really supports it. For example:

Resolved: that apples are better than oranges.

Value Conflict: Nutrition v. Military Security

A debater can argue that military security is irrelevant and thus, never have to prove why nutrition is more important.

2. **Effects:** You can determine the validity of a value hierarchy by looking at its probable consequences. In other words, "What happens when you value one above the other?" Suppose you have the following resolution. Resolved: that United States foreign policy ought to place a higher priority on a country' stability than on individual rights. The obvious value conflict is between individual rights and stability.

"In order to determine what value is higher, we need to look at what happens when we place concerns of stability above individual rights. When individual rights are subordinated to any value, then a particular country will tend towards totalitarianism. The essence of a democratic society is to take security risks in the name of individual rights. A democracy may not be the most secure and efficient society, but it is the most just."

The argument can go the other way as well.

"When individual rights are placed above stability, then we lose all human values. The reason people enter society is for stability. Without stability, there is no guarantee of any values. Without stability, even individual rights and life are ultimately undermined."

3. **Intrinsic Worth:** You can determine the importance of values by looking at the intrinsic worth of those values. Intrinsic worth refers to the value of a concept in and of itself. Webster's II New Riverside Dictionary defines intrinsic as "of or relating to the fundamental nature of a thing; inherent." Thus, individual rights are intrinsically valuable because we consider them worthwhile in and of themselves. Food is not intrinsically valuable because it is only desirable because it leads to something else. On the other hand, one can argue that a value like Justice is intrinsically valuable: we revere it simply because of its justness. You can use the concept of intrinsic worth in resolving value conflicts. Study the following examples:

Value Conflict: Equality v. Justice

"Equality is not intrinsically valuable. We can all be equally enslaved, equally starving, equally dead and no one would consider those states desirable. Equality is only valuable when we have justice first."

Value Conflict: Stability v. Individual Rights

"Stability is not intrinsically valuable. We can have a very stable totalitarian regime. Hitler had a very stable society at one point in his dictatorship. Stability is only valuable when we have individual rights. For example, we were willing to risk stability for the sake of rights during the American Revolution."

4. **Hypothetical Conflict:** One method for ranking values is to use a hypothetical conflict in which you have to choose between them. In other words, you can argue that life is more important than liberty because if you had to choose between them, you would choose life. Note: the two values don't even have to come into conflict in reality. You can still determine that one is more valuable than the other by assuming a hypothetical conflict.

5. **Encompassing:** A technique that debaters love is akin to an old car salesman gimmick. "My value encompasses yours. So not only do you get X but much much more."

Value Conflict: Societal Good v. Happiness

"Societal good encompasses happiness and so it is the higher value. When you get societal good, you get happiness for all."

Value Conflict: Quality of Life v. Justice

"The quality of life is more important than justice. Justice is only one component of a good quality of life and is subsumed by this greater, overarching value."

6. Lexical Priority/"You can't have one without the other.": This argument is the natural corollary of number 5. One value is more important than another because without this one, you can't get the other one. One has to come first before the other one: hence, lexical priority (a sequence in time).

Value Conflict: Quality of Life v. Justice

"Justice is the most relevant value in today's round because you can't even achieve a good quality of life without it. My opponent argues that justice is merely a component of a good quality of life. But she fails to realize that justice is a necessary component."

Value Conflict: Life v. Quality of Life

"Life is the most important value because without it, other values are useless. Life simply has to come first before we even consider a good quality of life."

7: Value Purpose: Before one can really weigh values, one has to understand the purpose of certain values. In other words, if the purpose of value X is to promote value Y, then obviously Y is more important than X. Try to determine why we even value something and use that bit of information in resolving the clash.

Value Conflict: Society v. Individual

"According to John Locke, the reason we enter society is to protect ourselves. The very purpose of society is to enhance the individual. Clearly, then, when the individual and society conflict, the individual is the more important value. Society loses its value when it ignores the individual."

Value Conflict: Happiness v. Justice

"The only reason we value justice is because it makes us happy. If happiness and justice conflict, then obviously happiness should take precedence."

Value Conflict: Life v. Quality of Life

"Life has no intrinsic value. The only reason we live is to have a good quality of life. The quality of life, then, is much more important than life itself."

8. **Appeal To A Third Value:** If two debaters can agree to a third value, then one can weigh two values in terms of the third. One could argue, for example, that the basis of all values is happiness. When there is a conflict between two values, then, you simply evaluate them in terms of happiness.

Value Conflict: Society v. Privacy

"We have agreed that the purpose of society is to enhance and guarantee individual rights. In order to decide whether society or privacy ought to take precedence, we need to look at both in terms of the larger scheme of individual rights. Privacy is only one right whereas society guarantees all others. Obviously, then, society should take precedence."

9. **The Philosophers:** Lastly, to find specific arguments about values, one should look at the works of various philosophers. They make a living thinking about the resolution of value conflicts. The more philosophy you read, the better off you'll be. You can't go wrong with too much understanding.

Ultimately, value clash should be the most central aspect of the debate. Be prepared to argue in support of your value against all other foreseeable values. Choose your values wisely because you have to defend them.

RULE: Don't shy away from value clash: it's the essence of Lincoln-Douglas debate.

Chapter 10

The Affirmative Speeches

First Affirmative Constructive

This speech is six minutes long. As mentioned earlier, all you do is deliver your prepared case. The case should be timed beforehand to guarantee the right length. There is no reason for a debater to have bad delivery in this speech. Being entirely prepared, there is no excuse for great gestures, fluency, etc. How you do in this speech will set the tone for the debate.

First Affirmative Rebuttal

Because this speech is only **four minutes** long, it is very difficult to deliver a good rebuttal without much practice.

Purpose: the purpose of this rebuttal is to refute the negative and reestablish the Affirmative.

Order of Presentation: there is much disagreement over this but the conventional practice is to present an overall major flaw with the Negative position, refute the specifics of the Negative case, and then reestablish the Affirmative position. It is important to start with the Negative case so you can discredit it while it is in the judges mind and then end strong with a solid Affirmative position. As you start your rebuttal, tell the judge how you plan to organize the speech. The structure of the 1AR should resemble the following:

"Before turning back to the Affirmative case, I'd like to show how the Negative's analysis is lacking in today's round. Throughout his case, the Negative assumes [the major flaw]..... He presents the value of In his Contention 1, he argues Now let's see how the affirmative position still stands. I argued in Contention 1 that Clearly, in today's round [summarize and clinch argument.]"

Go Down The Flow: As you go over each case, go down the flow by addressing each point in the order that it was presented. Refer to the specific arguments by approximating the words that your opponent uses and employing his/her outline. It is important to cover almost everything; any argument that is not discussed is considered a "dropped argument." "Drops" are considered to be an agreement. Thus, any argument you don't refute is won by your opponent.

How To Refute: The essence of refutation is dealt with in Chapters 8 and 9. In addition to those skills, you must also learn the mechanics of refutation. As you deal with each individual argument, learn to follow the following formula:

1. *Tell the judge where you are. (i.e. Contention 1, Observation 2, etc.)*
2. *Summarize the Negative's argument. ("She argues...")*
3. *Then, give the judge your response. ("This is wrong because....")*

Remember to do all three steps. Experienced critics will like knowing where you are on the flow. Inexperienced judges need to hear the argument again. And the necessity of a response is self-evident. Sometimes you'll have more than one argument in refutation to the Negative's. When this is the case, remember to number the arguments for clarity and effectiveness.

Study the following model and observe how the various elements work together.

"In her Observation 2, Mary argues that Equality is the most important value. But she never really supports this. First of all, equality has no intrinsic value. We can all be equally dead or equally suffering and no one would consider this desirable. Secondly, equality finds its value in terms of justice. Equal justice is the goal we want. And thirdly, Mary never shows why affirming the resolution we undermine equality."

Evidence: Debaters have a tendency to ignore evidence in the rebuttal speeches. Evidence can really add ethos to your presentation and is essential. Evidence should back up your analysis. In the 1AR, try to use **one or two short pieces** of relevant evidence.

Summarize: At the very end of the speech, take some time to summarize the basic Affirmative position. This brings the debate out of the specific details and back to the larger picture.

Time Press: The hardest aspect of the First Affirmative Rebuttal is the time constraint. Four minutes is a very short time to reestablish your side after a seven minute negative constructive. Rushing or "spreading" is the worst remedy to the time problem. Learn to do the following instead:

1. **Isolate the crux** of the argument. Don't get bogged down in minor details.
2. Learn to **group** similar arguments. If two Contentions really say the same thing, then group them and refute the argument with one try.
3. Learn to **focus** the debate by distinction. If the negative's argument is really irrelevant, get rid of it.
4. Practice **word economy**. Practice conveying an idea with the fewest words possible.
5. **Avoid repetition**. Try not to repeat yourself too often.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal

The 2AR is the last speech in the debate and lasts only three minutes. Because the Affirmative gets the "last say," learn to capitalize on this by emphasizing persuasion and clarity. The purpose of this speech is to crystalize (group similar arguments and focus) the issues of the debate.

No New Arguments: Lincoln-Douglas rules do not permit new arguments in the last speech because the Negative cannot respond. You can use new examples, new analogies, etc. but no new extensions or arguments. There is one exception: you can bring up new arguments if the Negative brings up entirely new arguments in the Negative rebuttal. But when this happens point out the fact that the Negative violated the rules and you are only responding. Using new arguments to win the round is highly unethical and word spreads fast when there is an unethical debater. Some judges will even operate on a "punish paradigm" and give anyone who violates the rules the automatic loss.

RULE: Do not bring up new arguments in the 2AR.

There are two possible ways to do the last rebuttal. Both of them are effective and you should be flexible enough to handle either one, depending on the situation.

1. Going Down The Flow: With this approach, you would essentially do another (but shorter) 1AR. Refute the negative position first and then reestablish the Affirmative case by dealing with each specific argument in turn. Keep the last 30 seconds, though, to summarize the Affirmative position. Try to write the ballot for the judge (not literally). In other words, be very specific and identify those issues that you are winning and tell the judge why you have proven the resolution.

You should adopt this "flow" approach if there are numerous little arguments floating around the debate that need to be addressed. Otherwise, use the second approach.

2. Reviewing the Voting Issues: Another way to give the 2AR is to identify the major areas of clash and deal with those instead of the specific details. Choose three or four voting issues and show the judge why you have proven the resolution. Again, you should try to "write the ballot" for the judge by being very specific. With each voting issue, be sure to detail the following:

1. *What is the major argument?*
2. *Where do these arguments stem from on the flow?*
3. *Why is this important? Why did you choose this as a major voting issue?*
4. *How do I win this voting issue? What analysis did you give? What evidence?*
5. *Impact: So what? Tell me why winning this issue wins you the debate.*

Study this example:

"Today's debate has boiled down to three major voting issues. The first is the values clash. I argued the value of Justice while the negative has argued the value of Equality. This is the most important issue because if Equality is less important than Justice, then all of the Negative arguments become irrelevant. I argued that equality has no intrinsic value. We can all be equally dead. Equality only has value when there is justice. Mary never really argued this at all. She merely repeats her position that equality is essential but never tells us why. Clearly, then, because Lincoln-Douglas debate is values debate, justice is the only value we should look at when evaluating the round."

"...The second voting issue concerns the impact of Affirmative Action programs. Mary argued that Affirmative Action is essential for equality in her second Contention. I've shown you how equality is not the most important consideration. Instead, we should look at Justice. I've shown you how Affirmative Action is reverse discrimination and violates the principles of Justice"

In the last thirty seconds, summarize the Affirmative position and persuade the judge with concrete reasons to affirm the resolution. You might want to put down the flow pad and concentrate on delivery in the last few moments of the debate. Take advantage of the last speech with clarity and persuasion.

Chapter 11

The Negative Speeches

As the Negative there are both advantages and disadvantages. You have only two speeches and don't get the "last say." But you do have much longer speeches in which to develop sound arguments. Time is not as much an issue as it is for the Affirmative. Learn to take advantage of that fact.

First Negative Constructive

The 1NC is seven minutes long. Though some coaches will disagree, present the negative case first and then refute the Affirmative. There are several reasons for this order of presentation.

- 1. Start off strong with the prepared section. You should be completely fluent.*
- 2. You should establish the Negative position before you attack the Affirmative. Otherwise you'll tend to repeat yourself a lot. You will probably use your negative case to refute some of the Affirmative's arguments. Because you want to argue from a position, it makes sense to establish the negative position first.*

The negative case should be anywhere from three and a half to four and a half minutes long. After the case, say something to the effect of "With this in mind, I'd like to review the Affirmative arguments and show you why they are lacking." And then refute the Affirmative arguments by going down the flow. Attack them in the order the Affirmative presents them. As you should in the 1AR, begin the refutation with a general, basic flaw in the Affirmative's position and then go to the specifics.

For example,

"...With this in mind, I'd like to review the Affirmative arguments and show you why they are lacking. Throughout his case, Greg makes a significant mistake by assuming that victim rights and accused rights have to come into conflict. Instead, justice requires that we value them equally. Greg first presents his value of crime control. Clearly, in our efforts to control crime, we must be just. The ends cannot justify the means. In Contention 1, Greg argues that victim participation is essential for the criminal justice process. To this I have three arguments. First of all..."

Use time to your advantage by giving as many different arguments as you can, but remember to establish a consistent position.

Negative Rebuttal

This is your last speech so make it memorable. Unlike the 2AR, there isn't a significant time restriction: you have a full six minutes. Use both strategies of "going down the flow" and "voting issues" in the NR.

Order of Presentation: Begin by refuting the Affirmative's specific arguments and then reestablish the negative case. Follow the same pattern of refutation as you do on the Affirmative side. Tell me where you are, what the argument is, what you argued, why you win, etc. At the very end, crystallize the debate into the several voting issues and tell the judge why you win these arguments. Write the ballot for the judge.

Evidence: Don't forget to use evidence in the Negative Rebuttal. There is plenty of time. Try to use **two to three short pieces** of evidence to lend credence to your position.

Because the Affirmative has the last speech and can often cheat by bringing up new arguments, learn to preempt Affirmative arguments. Preemption is the process of anticipating Affirmative responses and defeating them before they are even brought up.

| "Now the Affirmative might argue [such and such.] But realize that"

And when you have a particularly important argument, point out the rule to the judge: "Please remember that the Affirmative cannot bring up new arguments in the last rebuttal. That would be unfair because I don't get an opportunity to respond." Of course, remember not to bring up new arguments yourself in the Negative Rebuttal.

Chapter 12

Cross-Examination

There are two cross-examination periods in Lincoln-Douglas debate. The first one, in which the Negative questions the Affirmative, occurs after the 1AC. The Affirmative questions the Negative after the 1NC. Both cross-examinations last for three minutes. In general...

1. *Look and talk to the judges. Traditionally, debaters do not direct their words at their opponents. You are trying to persuade the judge, not your opponent.*
2. *Be very attentive during the speeches and during cross-examination.*
3. *Be in control but don't be rude. Rudeness undermines any advantage you have.*
4. *Be friendly (i.e. use your opponent's name).*

Asking Questions

Purpose: There are many purposes to cross-examination. They are, in order of importance...

1. *Filling in any blanks or omissions on the flow.*
2. *Understanding and clarification. You can't argue unless you understand what you are arguing against.*
3. *Pointing out the logical flaws of the opponent's position.*
4. *Setting up your own position.*

1 and 2, though the most important, should be minimized because they don't improve your position in the round. Every argument should be on the flow the first time around. In general, the purpose of cross-examination is to obtain psychological control of the round.

Preparation: Since debaters should NOT take preparation time before cross-examination periods, the question arises: "When do you come up with all those great questions?" There are essentially two times to do so:

1. *Before the debate even starts. Most of the thought and analysis for any resolution occurs before the debate. A debater should have thought of all the possible arguments and should know what types of questions to ask.*
2. *While Listening to the opponent's speech. Think of your opponent's speech as a logical proof. As you listen to the arguments, ask yourself, "Does the logic follow?" "What exactly is he/she saying?" "What are the reasons for their conclusion?" "What analysis is there?" "What are the assumptions?" You should be solidifying your own position while listening to the speech. Circle the three areas you want to attack in cross-examination and then go after them.*

Note: If absolutely necessary, use some preparation time. It is better to take some prep time than have a bad cross examination period.

Helpful Hints: Successful questioning takes practice and time but the following suggestions are helpful.

1. *Pick three or four basic, fundamental areas to go after* (i.e. a major contention, the values, etc.) When you begin to ask questions, identify where you are on the flow, what argument you are referring to, and then proceed. For example, "In Contention 2 you argue that society is the most important value. What happens when society comes into conflict with the individual?..."
2. *Have a specific goal in mind.* (i.e. I want them to admit that Contention 2 is irrelevant, etc.) Don't ask questions without an objective you want to achieve. Otherwise, questions tend to be random. Don't question for questioning's sake.
3. *Think in terms of lines of questioning instead of just one question at a time.* The strategy is to proceed in little steps and have your opponent dig their own grave. Anticipate answers and trap your opponent. A strategy is important. For example,

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I'm going to clarify his position. "So is society more important than the individual?"2. He's going to say yes, of course. Answer: "Yes."3. Now I'm going to ask him a directed question about the nature of society. "Why do people enter a society?"4. Now he's going to skirt the issue for a while but eventually I want him to answer: "People enter a society to protect their rights and interests."5. Now I'm going to reword what he just said and throw it back at him. "Oh. So society exists to protect individual interests?"6. Now he'll have to agree otherwise he'll contradict himself. Answer: "Yes, that's one purpose of society."7. Now I'll impact his answer. "So society is valuable only insofar as it promotes the individual?"8. He's trapped. Yeah! |
|---|

The idea is to have your opponent admit as many logical steps as possible so he/she has to answer a certain way or else be guilty of a contradiction. You want to set up a dilemma for your opponent. Dilemma questions are great. The classic dilemma question is "Have you stopped beating your sister?" Either way you answer you make yourself look bad. That's what you want to happen in cross-examination.

4. *Be persistent but know when to stop.* Don't give up on the question when they skirt the issue. You can say something like "You aren't answering my question. I'm asking..." But do know when to stop; beating a dead horse doesn't get you anywhere.

5. *Use short, simple, specific questions instead of long-winded, rambling, pointless ones.* Clarity adds to effectiveness and renders it almost impossible for the respondent to escape.

6. *Don't use too many open-ended questions.* Direct the questions to a desired goal instead. For example, "Why should the resolution be affirmed?" is much too open ended and only invites a rambling answer. Instead, "Why do people enter into a social contract?" is much more directed.

7. *Take control of cross-examination.* Realize that the time is yours. You're supposed to ask the questions. Be polite but don't be afraid to cut off long-winded answers with a simple "Thank you. I understand."

8. *Use any admissions in your next speech.* Cross-examination is pointless if you don't carry it into the speeches and the flow. For example, "Society is less valuable than the individual. My opponent even admits in cross-examination that the only purpose of society is to protect the individual. When the society doesn't do that, then it loses all its value."

9. *Know when not to ask a question.* Sometimes pursuing a line of argumentation in cross-examination will do more harm than good. If you know you won't succeed with a certain line of questions don't pursue it. You can pursue it half-way and use some of the admissions to set up your responses in the rebuttal.

When the respondent does not answer the way you want him/her to:

1. *Move on to another line of questions, or*

2. *Guide the respondent back on track by pointing out the inadequacies of their answer.* Ideally, you should have phrased the questions in such a way that you can only answer one way and seem rational.

Answering Questions

1. *Don't get mad.* Don't take any of this personally even though some opponents may make personal attacks.

2. *Be skeptical when answering questions but be reasonable.* Anticipate dilemma questions and keep your eye open for traps. But at the same time, paranoia doesn't help.

3. *Be confident and pleasant when answering questions.*

4. *When encountering dilemma questions, point out the false assumptions those dilemmas rely on.* For example, if asked "Have you stopped beating your sister yet?" answer "I've never beat my sister. Your question falsely assumed that I have."

5. *Laugh at yes/no questions (not literally).* If the questioner forces you to answer yes or no, simply point out that the answer is not that simple. If they insist, say "maybe." If you have qualifiers in your answer, give them before you answer; otherwise, the debater will cut you off. So instead of saying "Yes, some of the time," say "Sometimes, yes."

6. *Don't be afraid to give short answers.* Long-winded answers bore the judge and make you look less confident and assured. Relax. You shouldn't be afraid of any possible question they can ask.

7. *If your opponent obviously misunderstands one of your arguments, stop them, clarify your position so he/she looks inexperienced, you look good, and the judge understands what you are saying.* Confusion hurts both debaters.

8. *If you don't understand a question, say so.* This is very important. Many less confident debaters will assume that the judge thinks they (the respondent) are at fault if they say "I don't know" or "I don't understand." A major rule of thumb (if you're prepared on the topic) is: If you don't get it, the judge doesn't either.

Cross-examination can be the most exciting part of the debate. Some debates are actually won during cross-examination periods. They can be great, informative, and fun as long as debaters take them seriously, practice them, and are polite.

Chapter 13

Preparation Time

According to NFL rules, debaters have three minutes throughout the debate to prepare for their speeches. This time can be taken at any time but there is a total of three minutes for each debater. (Note: at some tournaments, "prep time" can be different but it is usually three minutes.)

When to take preparation time:

1. *Learn to allocate the three minutes wisely.* Most debaters split the three minutes into two one and a half minute blocks. Affirmatives use prep time before the 1AR and the 2AR. Negatives use prep time before 1NC and the NR.
2. *Although sometimes it might be strategically wise to use as little prep time as possible, the general rule is to use all of it.* Use the time to better prepare the speech, to practice wording, and to number the specific responses.

What to do during your preparation time:

During your preparation time, write down the responses to your opponent's arguments. Formulate your general strategy and position. Find the evidence you need. Before you get up, take a deep breath and prepare to give a relaxed, confident speech.

What to do during your opponent's preparation time:

Most debaters forget to use their opponent's prep time to their advantage. Use this time to flow what you said in your speech that you didn't have time to write down beforehand. Find the evidence that you think you might use. If you really have nothing to do, sit and look confident. But by all means, do not disturb your opponent.

Chapter 14

Presentation

Because Lincoln-Douglas debate is an exercise in persuasion, the debater's presentation is crucial. Though part of presentation is natural ability, anyone can develop strong presence and delivery through hard work.

Presence

The debater wants to exude confidence, aggressiveness, and assertiveness. But at the same time, you want to avoid arrogance. The difference is a fine line but an important one. Be friendly but at the same time professional. The goal is to get the judge to like you so that he/she wants to vote for you. Smiling (but not inane grinning) during the debate exudes confidence and humor (or at least implies a nice personality). Be energetic and active. Sound interested in what you say. Facial expressions are crucial. If you don't exude excitement and interest the judge will fall asleep unimpressed.

Voice

In terms of delivery, you want to sound conversational and extemporaneous but at the same time, completely fluent. Many people tend to slip into a fake orator mode when they debate. Avoid that. Be as natural as possible. Pretend you are talking to a friend. Honesty and sincerity in your voice is a plus.

Movement/Gestures

Movement should be natural. Transitional walks are great if you can walk confidently. Avoid pacing, shifting your weight, stiffness, and fake walks. Try not to move in front of obstacles. Don't feel compelled to use a podium. Deliberate, natural movement complements the presentation.

Gestures should also be natural. The purpose of the gesture is to convey meaning, emotion, or emphasis. Use big and full gestures and gesture between the shoulders and the waist. They should not detract from the speech. Don't feel compelled to gesture on every word and try not to bounce your gestures. Don't be afraid to put your hands down at times. But do gesture.

Eye Contact

Good eye contact is crucial for successful debating. Effective communication is a conversation between the speaker and the listener. Talk to the judge, not at the judge. The eyes tell the audience a lot about the speaker: sincerity, honesty, level of interest, confidence, possibly fear. When a debater avoids eye contact, he/she loses all persuasive ability, looks unconfident, and looks insincere. Maintaining eye contact also allows the speaker to gauge the audience. Are the judges paying attention? Are they asleep? Are they understanding? Actually, the best way to get a bored judge to pay attention to you is to look at him/her. It's hard to fall asleep when you know someone is watching and talking to you. Try to establish meaningful eye contact with almost everyone in the room. Be natural. Pretend you are talking to your best friend and are sincerely interested in

knowing how he/she thinks. (But don't be mechanical and psychotic. Staring and scaring doesn't help your presentation).

Using the Manuscript

A particular problem for debaters is the manuscript, case, and flowpad. There are four things to keep in mind when using the manuscript. 1) maintain eye contact. Don't be tied to the "flow" and ignore the judge. 2) keep the manuscript from becoming a barrier between you and the audience. 3) gesture with the manuscript. 4) make sure the papers are neat (perhaps in sheet protectors or on a clipboard); they shouldn't fly around. Think of the papers as a natural extension of your arms and feel comfortable enough to gesture with them.

Increasing Clarity

A big problem with extemporaneous speeches is the tendency to be convoluted and confusing. Clarity ultimately comes with practice. Listen to yourself speak or in front of a friend and practice those arguments you have trouble with.

Six Steps Towards Clarity

1. *Understand what you are saying.*
2. *Be concise.*
3. *Learn to use your opponent's words.* If they use the term "subjugation of the masses," use the same phrase when you refer to the argument.
4. *Use analogies and examples.*
5. *Juxtapose.* When you tell the judge what you ARE saying, tell him/her what you AREN'T saying as well. Contrasting the two clarifies your position. For example: "Science needs to be limited. Now I'm not saying that we should eliminate science altogether, but merely that it needs to be regulated."
6. *Practice. It's that simple.*

When You Make a Mistake

No debater is perfect. When you make a mistake simply grin, laugh at yourself, and go on. The great debater can overcome mistakes and still look stellar. For example, I once watched this extemper say "As we all know, small things come in good packages" when he really meant to say "As we all know, good things come in small packages." What did he do? He smiled, corrected himself, and proceeded to win the round.

Chapter 15

Becoming the Awesome Debater

Seven Ways to Becoming the Debater Everyone Admires

1. **Discipline.** The philosopher Aristotle once wrote that it isn't enough to know what's good and what's right, you also need the discipline and the strength of will to act on that knowledge. Discipline is key. It is one thing to read this text and understand what it takes to be a good debater. It's an entirely different thing to actually become one. Force yourself to flow neatly. Force yourself to argue from a position. Force yourself to follow the time allocation suggestions. Force yourself to feel nice in cross-examination. Discipline is the way to becoming a great debater.

2. **Practice.** No one can become a stellar debater overnight. It takes work. Practice debating. If you aren't fortunate enough to have teammates to debate against, debate yourself. Create a flow sheet and debate both sides. Practice word economy and fluency by speaking in front of the mirror. Talk to yourself outloud. Practice rebuttals again and again until they are perfect. As all parents say, practice makes perfect.

3. **Analysis.** Lincoln-Douglas is an analytical event. The more you think about the topic, the more successful your argumentation will be. Don't assume that mere delivery will win the rounds. Many judges actually vote on arguments. The key to incredible cross-examination, to devastating refutation, to impenetrable case positions is analysis. And deep analysis takes time. Follow that great IBM motto: THINK.

4. **Do an Individual Event.** While L-D emphasizes analysis, it also emphasizes presentation and delivery. The best way to improve that aspect of your debating is to concentrate on an individual event also. Almost any event will benefit your debating. But perhaps the best Individual Events to do would be Original Oratory and Extemporaneous Speaking.

5. **Refinement.** Preparation is an on-going activity. Don't assume that you are ever finished researching, thinking, writing, practicing, etc. Refinement is the key to success. After each tournament, assess what happened and act accordingly. There is no such thing as stasis: you either improve or you get worse.

6. **Be coachable.** Believe it or not, you can benefit from your coach. Be teachable and open-minded enough to take criticism. Even judges comments are helpful. No matter how stupid you think a particular judge is, take those comments and learn from them. Obviously, there must be something you can do better.

7. **Be adaptable.** There are debaters so adaptable to individual judges that they can consistently persuade both the "novice" judge and the very experienced "coach" judge.

Above all, have fun. Lincoln-Douglas debate is a great event!