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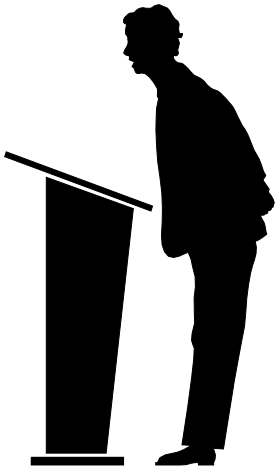
What Is Debate?

Debate is about change. We are constantly engaged in a struggle to make our lives, our community, our country, our world, our future, a better one. We should never be satisfied with the way things are now - surely there is something in our lives that could be improved. Debate is that process which determines how change should come about. Debate attempts to justify changing the way we think and live. In the real world, debate occurs everyday on the floor of the United States Senate and the United States House of Representatives. Debate occurs at the United Nations, the faculty meetings at your school, and at your dining room table. The procedures for these debates may differ, but the process is the same - discussion that resolves an issue which will determine whether change is good or bad. The United Nations debated whether or not the Iraq invasion of Kuwait was good or bad; the faculty meetings debate school policies; you may recently have debated with your parents after dinner about the size of your allowance or when you can begin to drive your own car.

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

1. <u>You will work with a partner</u>. You and your partner form a "debate team". Sometimes you will have to be for the issue (the affirmative) and sometimes you will have to be against the issue (negative). In any instance, you will have plenty of time to get ready for the debate.
2. <u>You will deliver speeches in a format that is unique to debate</u>. The speeches are called constructives and rebuttals. Each person on each team will speak twice. There are affirmative constructives and negative constructives. There are affirmative rebuttals and negative rebuttals.
3. <u>You will learn rules and techniques that will seem strange to you</u>. The way we learn how to debate may at first seem difficult.



But once you take on the challenge, you will begin to understand its relationship to debating. The most difficult part of debate is the first few weeks, after that it gets easier and easier once you have learned the rules.

4. <u>We will debate only one resolution</u>. Most of our emphasis will be on competitive or tournament debating. In order to compete at tournaments and to give the debaters sufficient time to prepare, a standard topic or resolution is used all year. Hundreds of high schools at this very minute are beginning to research and debate the very same issues and ideas that you are. The resolution determines the debate area. From this area there can be thousands of issues so that all of the debates are never the same and are always changing.
5. <u>Those students that want to be challenged can participate in debate tournaments against other high schools during the school year</u>.

Are You Ready to Give It a Try?

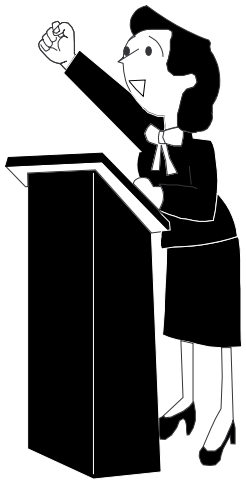
The Elements of Debate *(Adapted From the Peach State Debate Classic Handbook)*

The Debate Tournament

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

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

There are usually five or six preliminary rounds in a tournament. All teams present at the tournament participate in these rounds. Sometimes, there are also elimination rounds. Generally the top sixteen teams advance to the elimination rounds. Once elimination rounds begin, the team who wins a debate round advance while the other team is eliminated from the tournament. The teams with the best record in the preliminary rounds advance to the elimination rounds. A novice can benefit greatly by watching the more experienced debaters in these rounds. Also, updating research and practicing speech skills are a must for success.



Explanation of the Resolution

The purpose of the resolution is to limit the debate. The resolution allows for an even distribution of ground for both the affirmative and negative teams. For example, the resolution for the 1993 season was Resolved: that the federal government should guarantee comprehensive national health insurance to all US citizens. The purpose of the resolution is to set the year's problem area. The problem area is the situation that the affirmative team is attempting to solve. From the example, one can see that the problem area is health insurance. The intent of the affirmative team would be to solve the problem area. To solve the problem area, in this example, the affirmative would have to provide health insurance for American citizens.

Stock Issues and the Resolution

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

Topicality

Topicality is the stock issue that insures that the affirmative team stays within the framework of the resolution. Any violation, or failure to meet a particular word, of the resolution proves that

the affirmative team is outside of the resolution's topic area. Violations can apply to any word in the resolution. If the affirmative's case is outside of the resolution, the negative team will not be able to negate or argue against it. It is hard to get negative evidence on a topic if one does not know the topic. For this reason, the affirmative must be topical to win the debate.

Significance and Harms

Significance and harms deal with the importance of the problem. Harms can be defined as the results which would occur if the problem were not solved. Significance evaluates the importance of the harms. This area measure how much is needed to solve the problem. Since it is difficult to decide to what extent a problem needs to be solved, significance and harms, as opposed to solvency or topicality, do not carry as much weight in the round.

Solvency

Solvency is the measure of whether or not, or to what degree, the affirmative's case solves for the problem it identifies. If the affirmative's plan does not solve the resolution, there would be no need to put it into effect. Topicality and solvency are the stock issues which one would want to place the most emphasis in the round. [However, one must remember that judges weigh the harms against the disadvantage's impact to make a decision]

Inherency

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

Fiat

Fiat is the assumption that the affirmative team's plan is going to be put into effect. This assumption avoids reducing debate to a question of will Congress pass and put the plan into operation. Instead, fiat allows a debate about why it would or would not be a good idea to enact the plan. In other words, fiat makes for better debate. Fiat is generally derived from the word "should" in the resolution. The debaters are debating whether the plan "should" be enacted rather than whether it would be enacted.

Speech Order and Responsibilities

The constructive speeches are used to build the arguments that the affirmative and negative teams hope to win. The rebuttals are used to solidify the position taken by each team and to convey to the judge why he/she should vote for one team over the other. The constructive speeches, are normally eight minutes in length while the rebuttals vary from four to five minutes with an additional ten minutes total preparation time for each team. All of these times are set by the tournament director making it important to read the rules in the tournament invitation so that no confusion occurs.

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

1NC – The second speaker is from the negative team. The 1NC strategy will vary according to

the case which is presented in the previous speech (1AC) by the affirmative. The 1NC usually consists of disadvantages, topicality arguments, and other negative arguments such as case attacks.

2AC – The obligation of this speaker is to answer the arguments put out by the 1NC. This provides the first opportunity for a team to take control of the round and sway the judge's ballot to the affirmative. The 2AC sets the stage for the rest of the round.

2NC – This speech may be used to enter new arguments into the round, but is usually used to point out errors in the affirmative arguments. If the affirmative team does not answer all of the issues brought into the round by the negative team, the negative team can capitalize on this error and win the round. This speech is also used to extend the arguments generated by the 1NC and to respond to the 2AC

1NR – The first in a series of rebuttal speeches, this speech covers what the 2NC did not answer as well as what the negative team wants extended through the block extension of the 2NC.

1AR – This is the first affirmative rebuttal speech. This speech is also used to bring out important affirmative arguments as well as errors in the negative arguments. This speaker is responsible for covering the negative block. This person must have the ability to speak well in order to cover all the affirmative arguments, making the 1AR one of the most difficult speeches in the debate round.

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

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

Cross-examination

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

Cross-Examination Order

1A	Cross-Examined by	2N
1N	Cross-Examined by	1A
2A	Cross-Examined by	1N
2N	Cross-Examined by	2A

Judges

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

It is best to know about the judge before the round begins. Knowing the judge's philosophy allows the debater to adapt his or her style to the judge's. For example, if one knows that a certain judge is a stock issue judge, one could deliver a structured case emphasizing the stock issues. There are also other judging philosophies. The one that is most prevalent is the tabula rasa judge. Tabula rasa, or TAB, as it is sometimes called, means that the judge has no real preference and will listen to anything the debaters wish to present. TAB judges usually are not as unbiased as they would like the debater to believe, so one should still try to find out their likes and dislikes. The next kind of judge is a stock issue judge. These judges like emphasis on such arguments as topicality, solvency, significance and inherency. These judges place a heavy burden on the affirmative to be topical and to meet all of the affirmative burdens. Another type of judge is the games judge. This judge believes that debate is a game and the debaters should just play ball. Games judges can usually also be classified as TAB judges. Still another kind of judge is a policymaker – policymakers choose the best path for society and decide whether the case outweighs the disadvantages or counterplans.

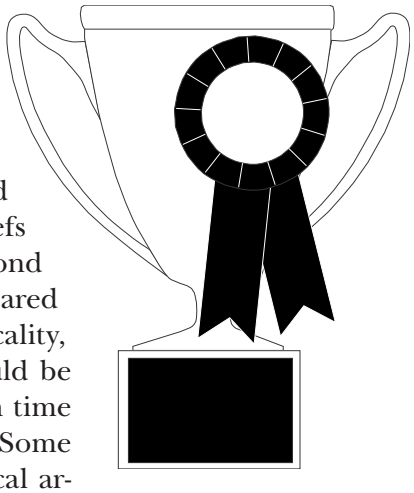
Regardless of the philosophy of the judge, he/she does not like to intervene. Judges like the debaters to decide the outcome and to weigh the evidence in the last speeches.

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

Strategy

Winning an Argument

It is important to have good arguments in a debate round, but developing them is the only way to win them. The explanation of an argument is essential in convincing the judge that the argument is advantageous. In order to win an argument one must first expose the flaws in the opponents' arguments. Next, one must explain why his/her arguments should be valued over the opponent's arguments. When trying to convince a judge, one must explore every aspect of a particular argument. A well developed argument should not force the judge to use personal opinion or knowledge to make a decision as to who should win it. In other words, one who is "debate illiterate" should be able to interpret the meaning of the argument and make a fair decision as to who won.



As a debater, it is most important for one to organize evidence based on use and effectiveness. For a speech, one would need to write briefs that feature the strongest arguments that would allow one to respond quickly. For example, the second affirmative must have briefs prepared for each anticipated argument. Briefs should be prepared for topicality, disadvantages, counterplans, and case arguments. The briefs should be neatly prepared and easily accessible as to save as much preparation time as possible. A brief should include between six to twelve arguments. Some arguments will be based on expert opinion, and some involve logical arguments that do not require published evidence. The number of arguments included in a brief should be based on the 2A's reading ability and the strength of the argument being answered. The strongest arguments against a case should be given the most time. Organization of briefs is as important as content. For this reason all of the 2A briefs to an argument should be kept in the same place. Remember, time lost looking for briefs means less preparation time for the 1AR. It also means less preparation time for arguments that one might not have briefs for. Organization, efficiency, and content are the three things that make a good 2AC. This philosophy should be used for all speeches.

Cheat Sheet

Speech Order and Responsibilities

CONSTRUCTIVE SPEECHES	Jr. High	H.S.	College
	(all speech times in minutes)		
1AC – Read the case and plan.	4/5	8	9
CX – 2NC asks the questions	2	3	3
1NC – Present the disadvantage shells first, if time permits, case arguments	4	8	9
CX – 1AC asks the questions	2	3	3
2AC – Answer ALL negative arguments. Rebuild and strengthen the case. Point out arguments that the negative has not attacked.	4	8	9
CX – 1NC asks the questions	2	3	3
2NC – Present any additional case arguments not covered by 1NC. Remember to take only part of the negative arguments – leave some for the 1NR speech	4	8	9
REBUTTAL SPEECHES			
1NR – Present all other negative arguments not covered in the 2NC. Do not present the same arguments as your partner. Decide ahead of time who will cover which arguments.	2	5	6
1AR – Answer ALL of the negative arguments from both the 2NC and the 1NR. Any dropped argument could mean a negative victory.	2	5	6
2NR – Pick a few arguments that you think the negative side is winning and concentrate on those. Tell the judge exactly why to vote for you. Tell the judge why the negative arguments outweigh the arguments of the affirmative	2	5	6
2AR – Respond to negative arguments. Point out any arguments that have been dropped by the negative team. Tell the judge why you win. Tell the judge why the affirmative arguments outweigh the negative arguments.	2	5	6

Helpful Hints

1. Don't forget to breathe. Debate is fun – enjoy it!
2. Always point out dropped arguments.
3. If you are not winning an argument, tell the judge why that argument is not important.
4. BE NICE!!! (this includes everyone – your opponents, the judge, your coach, your parents...) Being rude during a round does NOT prove you are a better debater. Often you will lose speaker points if you are mean.

The Constructive Speeches

1AC

Significance/Harm
There is or there will be a significant problem.

Inherency
The present course of action is insufficient to cope with this problem. Absent preventative or corrective action, the problem will continue to occur.

Plan
A specific proposal to change the present system in order to solve the problem. The plan must be an example of the sort of action called for by the resolution.

Solvency
The plan is sufficient to solve the problem, or at least to mitigate it to some significant degree.

The 1AC Structure
There are 2 basic types:
I-Significance/Harm
II-Inherency
PLAN
III-Solvency

I-Description of Status Quo
PLAN
Advantages
- A) Significance/Harm
- B) Inherency
- C) Solvency

Debaters are creative, so don't be surprised by strange case structures.

1NC

"Case" Arguments
The negative may choose to argue that an element of the affirmative case is incorrect—there is no problem, the present system is sufficient to cope with the problem, or the plan is insufficient to cope with the problem to any significant degree.

The negative may also choose to argue that any argument made by the affirmative is not only incorrect, but is actually the *opposite* of the truth. Contradictory arguments are not uncommon.

Topicality (T)
The plan is not an example of the sort of action called for by the resolution.

Disadvantages (DAs)
The plan causes undesirable side-effects, not necessarily related to the resolution or the case.
- A) Brink
- B) Link
- C) Impact

The negative argues that the bad effects of the plan outweigh whatever advantage(s) the affirmative claims.

Counterplans
A *Negative* proposal for action to solve the problem forwarded by the affirmative. These proposals are normally required to be non-topical.

The other requirement for counterplans is that they demonstrate some reason why the case is a bad idea—"competitiveness."

2AC

Answering the Negative
The 2AC attempts to answer the arguments made by the 1NC, but it is *also* the job of the 2AC to pre-empt the arguments that will be made by *both* of the next two negative speakers. The 2AC must therefore make much more extensive arguments in certain areas than the 1NC. This is a definite disadvantage strategically, as the arguments made by the 2AC must be good enough to withstand the entire block of negative attacks.

Using the 1AC
Most 2AC's will attempt to use arguments and evidence which have been forwarded in the 1AC to answer arguments made in the 1NC. Affirmatives write their first constructive speeches not only to make their case to the judge, but also to provide them with arguments that will be usable by the 2AC.

This is the last speech in which affirmatives are usually allowed to make new arguments.

2NC

Extending PART of the 1NC
The 2NC must choose some (but NOT ALL) of the arguments made by the 1NC to extend. The 2N and the 1N must communicate with each other to make sure that they are not trying to extend the same arguments.

Most of the 2NC will be spent extending and expanding on arguments made in the 1NC. The 2NC must also answer the arguments made by the 2AC. The negative arguments may change substantially from their original form during this speech.

There is no requirement that the 2NC cover particular arguments, but many 2NC's like to cover plan arguments, especially disadvantages.

New Arguments
It is not as common as it used to be, but 2NC's will sometimes make completely new arguments. The 1AR can respond freely to these.

The Rebuttals

1NR

Extending OTHER 1NC Arguments

In many ways, the 1NR is like having several more minutes of 2NC. This is the second speech in what is called the "negative block." Because the 2NC and the 1NR are like two parts of the same speech, the 1NR must be careful to extend *different* but *complementary* arguments from the 2NC. For example, if the 2NC extends disadvantages, the 1NR might extend arguments against the affirmative case.

Unlike the 2NC, the 1NR is *not* allowed to make new arguments unless they are in response to arguments made by the 2AC.

Pick and Choose

There is no requirement that the 2NC and the 1NR extend ALL of the arguments made by the 1NC. Most negatives pick and choose their best arguments. However, the affirmative can extend arguments made in the 2AC that aren't answered by the negative block, so BE CAREFUL! If the negative does not extend a disadvantage that the affirmative has "turned," the affirmative is free to claim that disadvantage as an affirmative advantage.

1AR

The Hardest Speech in the Debate (maybe)

The 1AR must respond to BOTH the 2NC AND the 1NR in a very small period of time. This means that most 1AR's tend to be fast and at least somewhat confusing. This is the speech in which the affirmative begins to select the issues on which they will base the debate.

Good 1AR's will make these issues clear to the judge while still giving the 2AR plenty of options.

Don't Forget Your Previous Speeches

The 1AR must answer the arguments made by the 2NC and the 1NR, but don't forget to extend the arguments made in the 2AC. Even though it may seem like the 1AC was a long time ago, remember to extend your "case" arguments as well.

2NR

Overcoming the Presumption of the 2AR

True, the 1AR has more speech time to cover, but the 2NR has to be so persuasive that the judge remembers his or her arguments even after the 2AR is over. The 2NR must make sense out of the 1AR and refute those arguments in a clear and conclusive fashion.

At the end of a good 2NR, the judge should understand the fundamental negative position in the debate as well as the reasons the negative feels it should win the round.

Telling the Story

Given the number of arguments in the round, it is easy to get bogged down. Make sure to put all the arguments together into a "story"—an explanation of which issues (such as disadvantages and case arguments) the negative is winning and why those issues are more important than any arguments the affirmative might be winning. This story is usually told at the beginning of the 2NR as an "overview." The overview should be short but comprehensive.

2AR

The Final Word

The 2AR is probably the most powerful speech in the round because there can be no response to the arguments made in it. The 2AR usually walks a fine line between extending the arguments made by his or her partner and making arguments which have not been made before in the debate. Because new arguments are not allowed in most rebuttal speeches, it is important to stay on the right side of the line!

Telling the Story

A good 2AR traces the affirmative line of argumentation from the 1AC to the final speech, making the judge understand why, in light of the arguments made in the 2NR, the affirmative should still win the round. As with the 2NR, this "story" usually appears in the form of an overview to the speech.

Flowing Tips

1. Don't ever give up and stop. When flowing a fast debater do not stop and listen. If you miss a response, go on to the next response. You can always ask the debater in cross-examination for your missed responses. Remember, the more you practice, the easier flowing gets.
2. Don't be disorganized. When flowing the disorganized speaker, do not follow his or her example. Write all of his or her arguments in one column on a separate legal pad. Then in you speech, answer all of his or her arguments. Then go back to the structure and point out what you are winning and what your opponent failed to answer in his or her speech.
3. Use structure. Structure and label all the arguments on your flow the same way that the speaker you are flowing is structuring and labeling his or her arguments. Be sure to write down all the numbers and letters you hear on your flow so that you can refer to specific subpoints of your partner or the other team later in the debate.
4. Use pre-flows. Flow all of your arguments clearly before you speak. Before the debate, it will sometimes be possible to pre-flow generic arguments on post-it notes.
5. Use your partner. If you cannot flow all of your arguments before you speak, hand your flow to your partner during cross-examination and have him or her fill in your flow for you. Use the other team's prep time to talk to your partner about arguments you might have missed.
6. Label your arguments. On your briefs and pre-flows, label your arguments with short, accurate, precise, and specific labels, which are no more than four words long. As you are labeling, put the crucial words first. If you label arguments correctly, you will be able to give a better speech because your judge, partners and opponents will find you easier to flow.

The Need for Lots of Flowpads and Many Sheets of Paper

You should use many sheets of paper for each argument and you many wish to use different flowpads for different arguments. In any debate you will have:

- a flow related to the 1AC structure.
- a flow listing arguments of the 1NC which are not related to the case (disads, T, counterplans, etc.)
- a flow listing any 2AC arguments
- a flow listing extensions of the 1NC or new arguments made by the 2NC

Flowing Speech by Speech

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

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

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

2NC: Everyone but the 1NC flows this speech. The 1NR follows this speech with extension arguments.

1NR: Everyone flows this speech.

1AR: Everyone flows this speech.

2NR: Everyone flows this speech.

2AR: Everyone flows this speech.

Symbols

counterplan	CP
solvency, solved	S
significance	sig
impact	I
voting issue	VI
turn, turnaround	T/
causes/caused	→
dropped/conceded argument	Ø
competitive	comp
is/equals/approximately	=
isn't/not equal/not/won't/don't	≠
increase/high	↑
low/decrease	↓
overview	OV
number	#
ratios/per	/
evidence/card	ev or √
cost benefit	cba
risk	R
research	r
change	Δ
therefore	∴
was caused by	←
if and only if	iff
threshhold	TH
theory	Θ
question	?
quantify	Q
constitutional	C
unconstitutional	UC
is related to	~
relationship	ⓒ
reasonable	Ⓡ
better	B
deny	X

is proportional to	∝
linear	L
subsumes	⊃
topicality	T
inherency	Inh
disadvantage	DA
decision rule	DR
kritik/critique	K
link	L
above	A
below	B
repeat cite	-x
greater than	>
less than	<
observation	Obs or O
underview	UV or U
with	w/
without	w/o
within	w/n
because	bc
should	s/
should not	s/n
degree	°
there exists/there is	∃
real world	RW
policy	Ⓟ
standard	std
uniqueness	U
not unique	N/U
belongs to	∈
function of x	f/x
probability of x	p/x
fiat	F
implies	⇒
presumption	π

This Is What It Sounds Like In a Speech

First Affirmative Constructive

We now present our second observation: there is too much crime in America. This problem presents itself in several different ways. Subpoint A: Violent crime is ravishing our country. The Wall Street Journal explains in 2000: "There can be no question that gun violence is a major problem in this country. Last year alone, over ten thousand people fell victim to gun violence. The carnage has not been limited to the inner cities. The still of the suburban night is regularly broken by the sound of gunshots."

This impact is worse than a full-scale war. The New York Times reports in 1999: "What is most surprising is that it has taken Americans so long to react to the horrible cost of gun ownership. After all, thousands of people are killed by guns every year. In some smaller countries in the world, this kind of loss of life would rival the death toll of a border war or a major famine."

Subpoint B: Robberies plague our cities. John Willis, a reporter for the Alpharetta Gazette, in 2001: "The problem seems to be escalating. It is nearly impossible to attend a gathering of any size in this city and not hear stories of robberies, muggings, and carjackings. These criminals do not discriminate between old and young, rich and poor, man and woman. All are potential victims. If we do not address this problem soon, we will not be able to leave our houses without fearing for our lives."

First Negative Constructive

On observation two, subpoint A, they say violent crime is a problem. Group the two cards. One, both these cards assume that we should pass gun control laws, not that violent crime is a problem. Two, neither of these cards says the problem is getting worse. For all we know, ten thousand deaths could be significantly less than two years ago. Three, violent crime is on the decline. Celeste Brown, professor of sociology at Emory, in 2000: "Ironically, amidst all this panic and paranoia, violent crime is on the decline. Unnoticed and virtually unreported by the supposedly liberal mainstream media, rates of murder, rapes and other violent assualts have reached ten-year lows." Four, they over-state their impacts. The second card only says we're a large country, not that crime is worse than war. Five, there are no qualifications for their sources. Are these real articles or letters to the editor?

On Subpoint B, they say robberies are bad. One, their author is awful. He's a reporter for a tiny newspaper I've never heard of. Two, the evidence is weak. It only says that the author thinks there's a lot of crime in her city. There's no research and no warrant for her claim. Three, most robberies are insignificant. The Los Angeles Times in 2002: "Although robberies have been on the rise since the early 1990s, the increase has largely been in the area of small break-ins. More people are losing their car stereo, but there are few major robberies." Four, the evidence overstates the impact. Robbery means you lose stuff, not that you fear for your life.

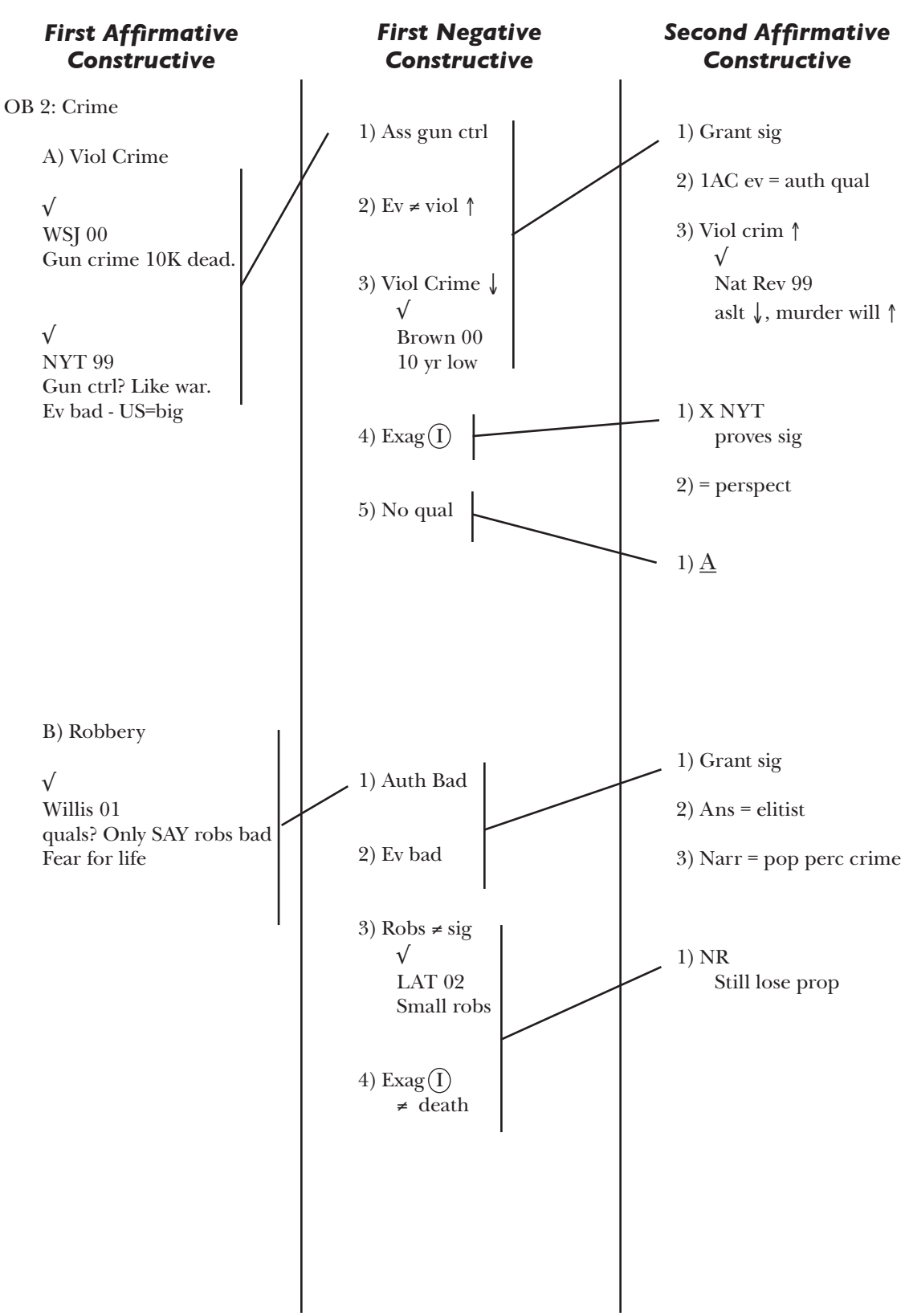
Second Affirmative Constructive

Now, observation two, subpoint A. Group their first three answers. One, they concede that the problem is significant. It doesn't matter if our authors agree with our plan or if they think progress is being made, ten thousand people are dying every year. Two, both 1AC cards are from prestigious newspapers. The authors are both reporters. Three, predictions of a decline in violent crime are wrong. The National Review in 1999: "Those who think violent criminals are going to fade into the night are mistaken. Minor assualts are down, but newspapers are full of stories of mass murders. These reports will only increase in the years to come."

On 1NC number four, I have two answers. First, extend the New York Time card. It proves that thousands die every year. Second, the card just gives perspective. Just because we don't think much of killing thousands of people in the US doesn't man that is the right mentality. On 1NC number five, that's answered above.

Now, subpoint B. Group their first two answers. One, this card proves that robberies are threatening the suburbs. Two, their answers are elitist. Just because Willis is writing for a small paper doesn't mean her arguments are wrong. Three, narratives like this prove that normal citizens think crime is a major problem, even though the negative refuses to open their eyes. 1NC three and four are nonresponsive. So what if robberies are small, they're still bad. Even if you don't die, you are robbed of your rightful property.

This Is What It Looks Like On the Flow



***Note**: On an actual flow, you would NOT write the full titles of the speeches on the top of the page.*

Introduction to Delivery

1. Brief overview of the communication model

Speaker - - - Message - - - Audience

- - - Feedback - - -

2. Brief overview of speech mechanics.

A. diaphragm (energy source of your speaking mechanism)
- have students stand up and locate at base of rib cage
- when you get "the wind knocked out" of your "diaphragm"
- have a volunteer come down and read while bent over as long as they can without inhaling. Do the same while he or she is standing up. See if they can speak longer while standing.

B. trachea (windpipe)
- looks like a vacuum hose or dryer hose
- not the same thing as your throat (esophagus)

C. larynx (voice box)
- have students locate adam's apple
- select a volunteer to blow up a balloon and then release it forcing air out of the end

D. soft palate (determines nasal qualities)
- have all the students stand and hold their nose - say the vowels (A, E, I, O, U,) with nostrils pinched
- have all the students stand and hold their nose - say the consonants M, N, and - NG.

E. hard palate (roof of mouth)

3. Effective Debate Delivery

A. Audibility

1. Volume
2. Rate
   a. human brain can comprehend 875 words per minute
   b. most debaters can speak at around 260 words per minute
   c. get 10 volunteers to speak as fast as they can
   d. the reality is that in any given round, you can speak a bit more slower and be understood without any significant loss of argument time (optimal rate averages 20 words less than the fastest rate for the entire speech). Delivery is also smoother.

3. Quality
   - select 12 students to come down with a pen. Have the students read the selection as fast as they can with a pen in their mouth. Focus on overpronunciation and volume.

4. The most effective way to impress your judge is not by reading as fast as you can but by reading comprehensibly as fast as you can.

B. Visibility (Five C's)
- Any speaker in any given situation will tell you that first impressions are important. In interview situations, most people are "hired" in the minds of the interviewer within the first 3 minutes based on their appearance alone.
- Delivery and visibility are related

1. Competitive (serious demeanor, ready to debate on time)
2. Confident (proper research, up on time, debate camp)
3. Courteous (not shmoozing, friendly, mature)
4. Credible (you want to be)
5. Conservative (dress appropriately, don't use street language)

C. Be Prepared - Speed Enhancement Begins Before the Debate

1. Get a countdown timer for you and your partner to see

2. Write briefs to facilitate quick delivery.
   a. Labels. Five word maximum.
   b. Simple grammar.
   c. Affix cutouts neatly. Don't put evidence upside down, side ways, or too close together.
   d. Use a good photocopier.
   e. Write your tags with a dark pen.
   f. Split your briefs into first line and second line blocks.
   g. Use briefs rather than cards.

3. Evidence tips for quick (but comprehensible) delivery
   a. Highlight tag lines and/or last names and year of sources
   b. Retain at least one rationale or reason per card. No blurbs.
   c. Place long, complex cards in 1AC
   d. Cite every card on the brief—no "same source (ibid)"

D. Efficient Delivery and Technique
1. Use of roadmaps before the speech
2. Alternate evidence and presses for judge pen time.
3. Use numbers. Avoid "number next", "and", "next card"
4. Use discreet arguments. Six consecutive "not unique" answers is not an efficient use of arguments
5. Signpost effectively
6. Group and cross apply when applicable
7. Watch the judge for feedback.

E. Time Management
1. Always be aware of the time. Watch your timer.
2. Establish "coverage quotas" before the speech starts
3. Prioritize. Know what to drop or blow off if time is short
4. Place each argument on separate pads of paper, since it will be easier to tell how much remains in the speech.

F. Going Fast
1. Comprehensibility is more important than speed.
2. Start out slow, then gradually build up.
3. Don't waste your energy by shouting
4. Allow for "pen time." Pause between major arguments
5. Fill time completely.

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

H. Practice Effective Delivery in Practice Rounds
1. Don't blow this part of the debate off because "it's only a practice round."
2. Try to devote a session or two each month to specific delivery techniques.

Transitions, Signposting, and Roadmaps

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

Several terms are important to understand.

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

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

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

A. Usually done at the beginning of the speech for the judges and the other team.
B. Done in the order of, usually, off-case arguments and then on case.
C. Examples:
   1NC: Three off case and then the case debate.
   2AC: Will identify the off-case arguments which will be answered first, then the case.
   2NC: Since the 2NC will usually extend some of the off-case arguments, the 2NC usually identifies the specific off-case arguments in sequence they will be answered.

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

A. Done throughout each speech, this requires distinguishing between each argument and labeling each argument.
B. Usually numbers and letters are used, but debaters might also use other forms of distinguishing between each argument.
C. Examples include: "One. Not-Unique. Present policies will cause the disad. Two. No link. The plan does not cause the disadvantage. Three. Turn. The plan solves the impact to the disad." Debaters can substitute the word "next" in place of specific numbers, but the important thing to do is post a sign which indicates that the next thing you are about to say is a different argument. This will notify the judge and the opponent to record each argument and not miss your brilliance.

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

A. This addresses the way that we move from one off-case argument to another or between the off case and on case.
B. Often in the 1NC, one disad will be read and when moving it to a second one, you should say "Next off-case."
C. When moving from the off-case to the on-case, you should say, "Now, on the case debate."

Cross-Examination

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

1. To clarify points
2. To expose errors
3. To obtain admissions
4. To set up arguments
5. To save prep time

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

Here is the question format you should use:

•Territory •Position •Quarrel

Territory identifies to the judge where on the flow your question pertains. Example, "On subpoint b of Contention One . . " or "In plan plank III . . ."

Position sets up the intent of the question. Example: "Does the evidence you read assume" or "Are you implying that"

Quarrel becomes the purpose of the question. Example: "Where does the evidence say..." or "Tell me where the link is to the disad."

Since you only have three minutes to use for your cross-examination, your wording should be precise. Make your questions simple and clear. Do not try to debate the opponent in the cross-examination. Your behavior should be direct, yet friendly.

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

2NC Cross-X 1AC

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

1AC Cross-X 1NC

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

1NC Cross-X 2AC and 2AC Cross-X 2NC

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

A cogent set of suggestions follows which was constructed by Gifford Blyton of the University of Kentucky and Bert E. Bradley, Jr., of the University of North Carolina. The suggestions are taken from ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATE: PRINCIPALS AND PRACTICE, revised edition, edited by James M. McBath, 1963.

Suggestions for the Questioner

1. The time allotted for questioning is a brief and valuable period in which significant information may be obtained from the opponent. The questioner should confine his or her speaking to questioning the opponent; this is not the place for interpretative or evaluative comments upon the replies of the witness. Follow-up questions may be used to make the listeners immediately aware of the significance of a particular reply by the witness.

2. The questioner should not approach cross-examination with the aim of forcing the opponent to concede that his or her case is a hopeless one built on specious arguments and invalid evidence. No opponent in his or her right mind is going to do this. A significant objective will be attained if the questioner is able to discredit some of the evidence on which one or more of the key points is based, if some of the reasoning is shown to be shallow or improbable, or if the opponent is forced to admit the existence of alternative proposals.

3. Cross-examination should be organized. The questioner who jumps from point to point will not only confuse the opponent and listener, but also will be unable to pursue a thought long enough to force the opponent to unwilling conclusions.

4. A line of questioning should be pursued to its logical conclusion. As a general rule, the examiner should not stop the questioning before the conclusion has been made clear. A conclusion that is obscure to the opponent will most likely be even more obscure to the listener.

5. Cross-examination should be conducted in a friendly, albeit trenchant, spirit. One writer has observed: "During the examination, the cross-examiner is in charge. His [Her] task is a test of tact and good judgment. He [She] must avoid offending his [her] opponent of the audience, and yet he [she] must not be timid in his [her] questioning. So long as he [she] retains his [her] good nature, self-control and a sense of fairness, he [she] may conduct a vigorous and aggressive examination without fear of giving offense." Though the questioner may be aggressive in his/her probing of the opponents case, there is no place in intercollegiate debate for the bullying tactics; the domineering approach is too frequently seen in cross-examination. Moreover, there is much doubt that bullying tactics are effective: "More cases have been won by putting leading questions casually than by employing vigorous and belligerent methods of cross-examination."

6. The questioner should always be in control of the cross-examination period. A talkative opponent should not be allowed to monopolize the time. The examiner may interrupt to inform him/her that his/her answer is sufficient. This does not mean that the

examiner has license to restrict the witness to monosyllabic replies; it does mean that he/she has a right to prevent filibustering on the part of the opponent. An evasive witness should not be permitted to avoid answering the question.

7. The questioning period should not be used simply to reiterate in question form the material the opponent has presented in his/her constructive speech. Examine the assumptions underlying his/her approach and attack the authorities, facts and arguments in such a way that he/she is forced to reveal information that he/she normally would not have disclosed.

8. The questioner should always avoid the "isn't it a fact..." form of cross-examination unless it is used to acquaint the audience with that information or to get the opponent's position on record. As one lawyer has pointed out: "...an examination which consists of such questions merely gives the witness an opportunity to flatly contradict the testimony of one's own witness and is ... a poor substitute for no cross-examination at all. Such questions may find a place now and then in an extended cross-examination, but a cross-examination should never consist of a series of such questions and nothing more."

9. Cross-examination should be concentrated on the weak portions of the opponent's case. The examiner should not allow the opponent to render the strong parts of his/her case even more invulnerable by asking questions about those parts.

10. Though the purpose of questioning is to establish the validity or non-validity of an argument, keep in mind that the cross-examination is being conducted for the benefit of the listeners. The questioner, therefore, should speak distinctly and loud enough for the listeners to hear. One should not turn one's back to the listener while questioning. Not only is the direct answer more effective, but it also permits the questioner to observe listener's responses and capitalize on those reactions.

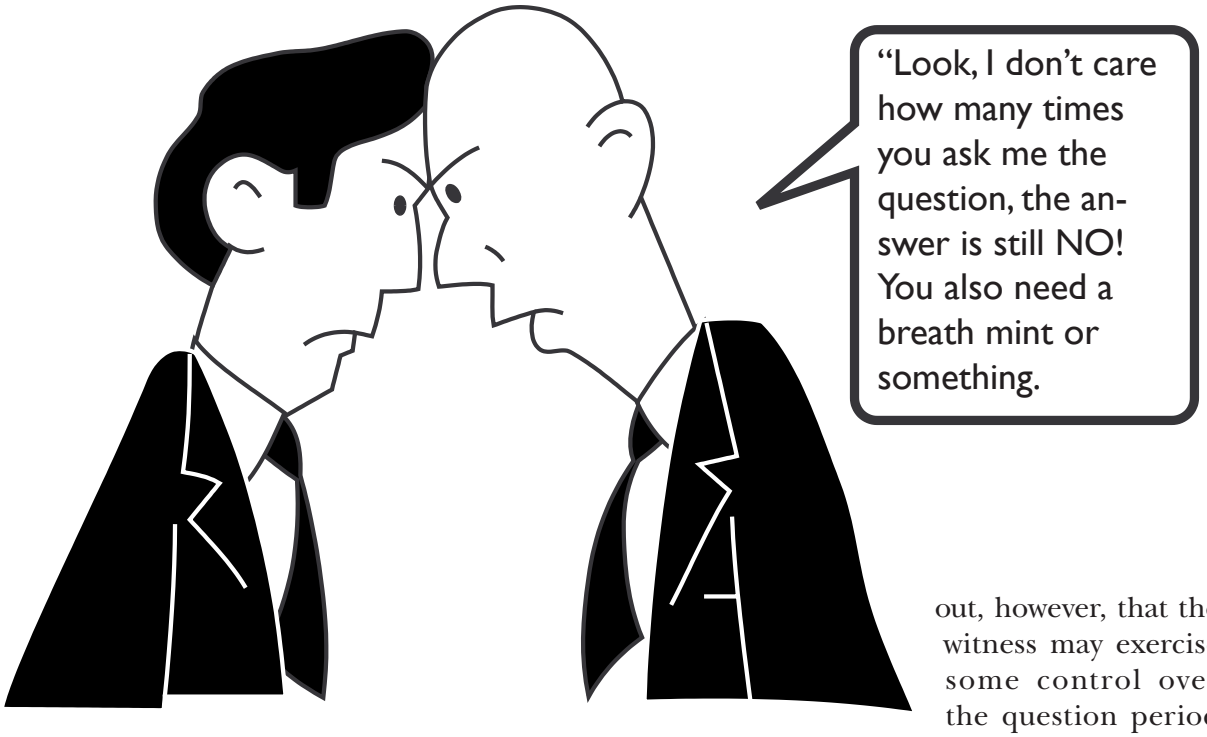
11. The questioner should make no personal attack on opponents. Unlike the lawyer who is interested in discrediting either the testimony of the witness or the witness him-/herself, the debater is interested in discrediting only the opposition's evidence and arguments.

12. Answers of the opponent should not be repeated unless they are being repeated for emphasis. The questioner wastes valuable time repeating the answers as many beginning cross-examiners do.

13. The examiner should be cautious of asking questions to which the answers are unknown. Wellman indicates that the examiner does not have to know the answer to every question he asks, but he warns that no examiner "... should ask a critical question unless he is reasonably sure of the answer."

14. Questions should be brief, simply stated, and phrased positively. Long, involved, complex questions only create confusion for everyone concerned.

15. Once the cross-examination has begun, the questioner usually does not confer with her/his colleague until it is concluded.



Suggestions for the Witness

1. The witness should realize that the responsibility for the courtesy and fairness rests as much with him/her as with the examiner. The respondent should maintain control of his/her emotions despite pugnacity, sarcasm, and discourtesy on the part of the examiner.

2. The witness should not be afraid to say "I don't know." It is better to admit early that one does not know than to have the examiner demonstrate it after the witness has tried to conceal it.

3. The witness should not talk solely to the questioner. The questioner must keep in mind that it is the listeners' evaluations that are most important.

4. All fair questions should be answered in a straightforward manner. The witness should not try to use the opponent' time by giving long-winded answers. Debate loses its value and function if the participants engage in evasive tactics. It has been pointed out, however, that the witness may exercise some control over the question period by controlling the timing of the answers.

   If you feel that the questioner is rushing you, you can slow down the answers. If you feel that the questioner is exposing the questioner's ineptitude, you can attempt a contrast in style and rate of speaking.

5. The witness should not try to cross-examine the examiner during the question period. Remember that the time belongs to the examiner for questioning; the witness will have a chance to cross-examine later.

6. The witness must be on guard continually for the traps the examiner is constantly setting. However, this must not prevent the witness from giving definite answers where they are appropriate. A witness who gives only equivocal replies destroys the listeners' confidence in her/his ability to give any valid answers.

7. Once the cross-examination has begun, the witness usually does not confer with her/his colleague until it is concluded.

Case Attacks

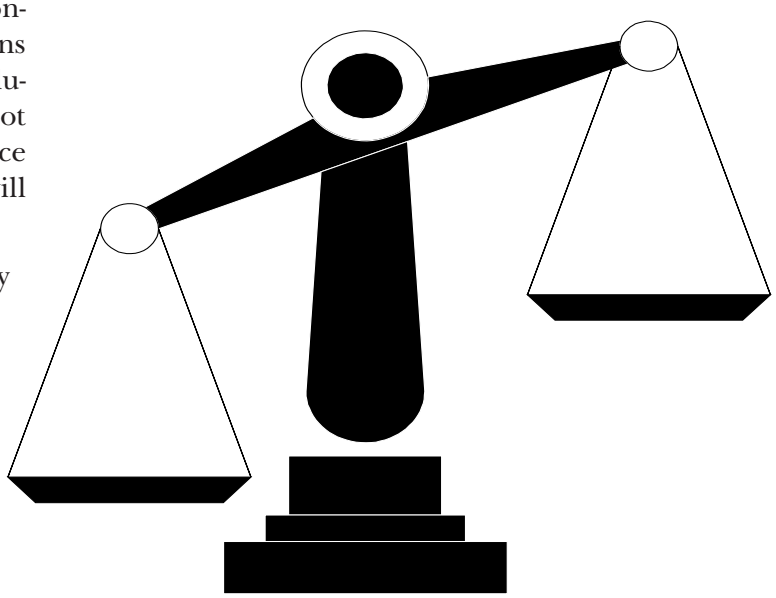
The negative team has the obligation of proving the affirmative's claims false. There are three major strategies of which at least one must be used: Disadvantages, Topicality, and Counterplan. These three options will be discussed in separate chapters.

Generally speaking, the 1NC would run these positions and the 2NC would attack the case and/or extend (advance) these positions. Your strategy will vary from debate to debate, but always try to have at least one disadvantage in your negative approach.

Let's took a look at what the negative could argue about the affirmative case. We will call these case attacks.

1. Anecdotal evidence. If you hear the affirmative talk about one isolated example, you should make the claim that this is anecdotal evidence. Further, you should claim that one should not base policy on one example.
2. Assertions. If the affirmative makes a claim without giving any supporting evidence or reasoning, this is an assertion and not a proven argument. You should point this out to the judge as an unsupported claim will usually not stand.
3. Conclusionary evidence. If the affirmative reads evidence which merely states the conclusion of the author without the reasons and evidence used to support that conclusion, then the validity of the claim cannot be assessed. This is a poor use of evidence and should be noted to the judge who will usually dismiss such evidence.
4. Biased source. Be on the lookout for why an author might make certain claims. Sometimes bias can be revealed in their job, their affiliations, or the manner in which they state their case. Identifying biased sources will hurt the credibility of some evidence.
5. Dates. On rapidly changing issues, the date of the evidence is extremely important. If the affirmative reads evidence that says the economy is on the brink of collapse, or a war is about to start or some other timely issue, when the evidence was written can be extremely important.
6. Vague references. Many times different authors will use the same word to refer to different ideas or situations. A political disaster for a Democrat is entirely different than an political disaster for a Republican.
7. No causality. Sometimes evidence will refer to correlations between events, but this assertion does not mean that one causes the other. The tragedy at Columbine High School illustrates how some saw the cause as access to weapons, some as access to the Internet, some as access to violent games and movies, and others as part of an alienated suburban youth. The existence of all these variables in the same place does not guarantee that there IS causation between any of these problems and the tragedy in Colorado.

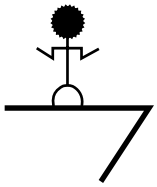
The affirmative would win if there were more advantages than disadvantages.



Disadvantages

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

A disad can be thought of like a person standing on a cliff:



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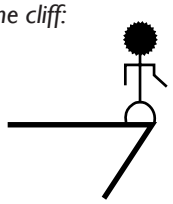
Brink

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

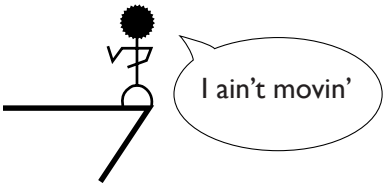
The brink would mean that the person is standing on the edge of the cliff:



Uniqueness

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

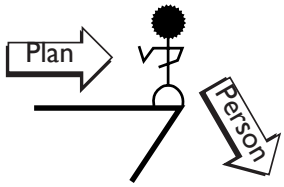
The uniqueness would mean that the person will not jump off the cliff unless pushed:



Link

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

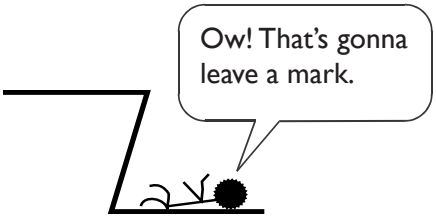
The link would mean that plan comes up and pushes the person off the cliff:



Impact

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

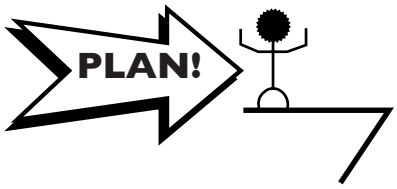
The impact would mean that the person hits the bottom of the canyon really hard:



Threshhold

The threshhold is how big the plan has to be to cause the problem presented in the disad to happen. If the plan is a very big one, it will probably cause the problem. If the plan is tiny, it probably won't cause the problem. Saying that a disad has a small threshhold indicates that it won't take a very large force to push the person off the cliff.

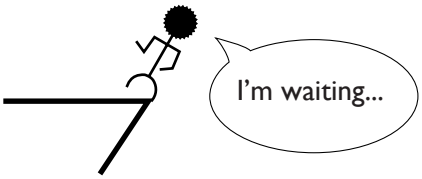
The threshhold would measure how hard the plan would have to push for the person to fall off the cliff. If the person was seven feet from the edge of the cliff, the plan would have to be huge to push them off.



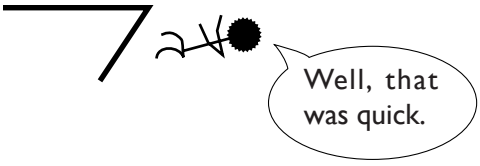
Time Frame

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

The time frame would measure how long before the person fell of the cliff. If there was a long time frame, then the person would teeter on the edge of the cliff for a while before falling.



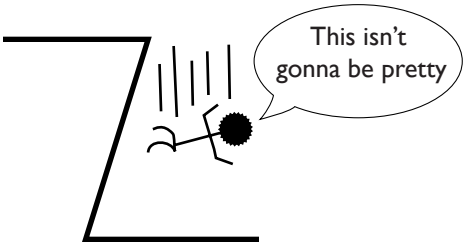
If there were a short time frame, then the person would fall off the cliff right away.



Internal Link

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

The internal link would be that when the plan pushes the person off the cliff, the fall will be so big that the person will hurt. Connecting the fall and the hurt requires an internal link: falling hurts and the hurt is the impact.



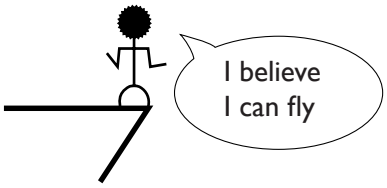
Answers to Disadvantages

There are many affirmative arguments that give reasons why disadvantages are not true. Here are a few of the more popular ones:

Non-unique

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

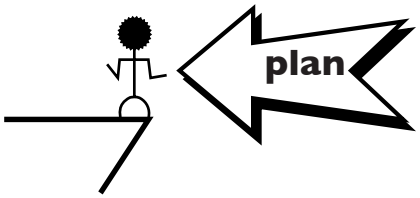
The non-unique argument would mean that the person was jumping anyway. It doesn't matter if the plan pushes them or not.



Link Turn

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

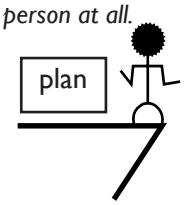
The link turn would mean the plan pushed the person away from the edge of the cliff.



Link Take-out

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

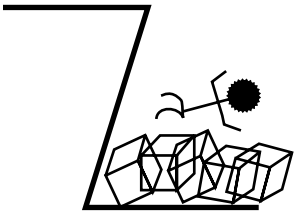
The link take-out would mean that the plan doesn't push the person at all.



Impact Turn

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

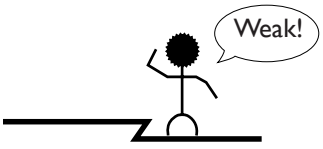
The impact turn would mean that the person lands in lime jell-o. There's always room for J-



Impact Take-out

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

The impact take-out would mean that the cliff was only two feet tall. The person stubs their toe.



Topicality

What Is Topicality? (a.k.a. "T")

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

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

Arguing About Definitions

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

Winning With Topicality

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

definitions!

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

Making a Topicality Argument

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

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

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

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

D) Voting Issue
Reasons why the affirmative should lose if the negative wins topicality. The two main reasons are Jurisdiction and Debatability. Jurisdiction means the judge can't vote for the plan if it is not part of the topic. Debatability means that the negative would not have a fair chance to debate if the affirmative did not have to operate within the limits of the resolution.

Reasons to Prefer the Negative Definition(s)

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

Standards

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

There are hundreds of possible standards for definitions.

Specific Arguments

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

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

Remember: To Win Topicality, the Negative Must Prove

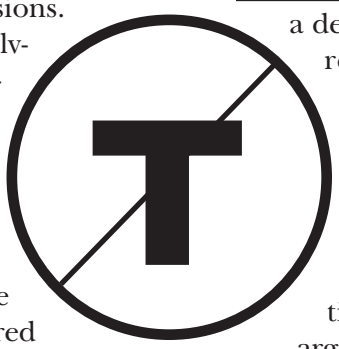
(1) That the Negative Definition(s) are Superior AND
(2) That the Affirmative Plan Does Not Meet Those Definitions

Answering Topicality

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

Affirmative Topicality Tips

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



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

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

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

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

Common Answers to Topicality

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

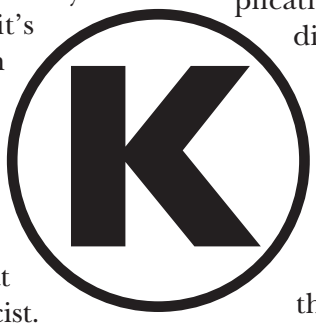
C) Topicality silences important voices. In many cases, important ideas are not heard by policymakers because they come from people who have unpopular opinions. Policymakers avoid listening to these important ideas by using obscure rules and procedures. Some affirmatives argue that topicality is just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

Critiques

A Different Way to Attack the Affirmative

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

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



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

Huh? What? Excuse Me?

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

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

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

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

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

What are the possible implications of the critique? Generally, critiques can have three implications. One is that they might prove that the affirmative case does not prove the harm. Second, they might prove that the affirmative is unable to solve. Third, they might have consequences similar to those of a disadvantage. In other words, a critique might justify voting against the affirmative altogether in order to reject the assumptions the affirmative makes.

Another Example

The critique can operate in the simplest facets of your life. You witness some of these in your own classroom. Thinking about testing and test-taking can illustrate how a critique might function.

1) Challenging the harm assumptions. Many people assume students do not learn as much as they used to because test scores are lower than they were in the past. However, the negative might challenge the assumption that test scores are a reliable measure

of student achievement. This challenges the way proponents of testing assume test scores provide useful information. If the test scores are unreliable, then the affirmative cannot prove the harm by proving test scores are low. Test scores, the negative would argue, do not reveal accurate information of student achievement, therefore they cannot be used to prove that students are underachieving.

2) Challenging solvency. Many people argue that testing should be used to guide curriculum changes in order to enhance student learning. However, if tests are critiqued because they do not truly measure what a student has learned, then using test results to revise the curriculum is a wasted exercise and will not achieve the goal of improving student achievement.

3) Disadvantageous consequences. The negative might argue that there are disadvantage implications of supporting the affirmative in light of the critique. Some might argue that testing does not measure knowledge but instead indicates how good students are at taking tests. Consequently, increasing tests or making tests more rigorous will only serve to perpetuate racism and sexism in education. The negative might argue that the judge should reject any policy that results in greater racism and sexism.

Why Are Critiques Valuable?

Critiques are valuable arguments for several reasons.

1) Critiques are highly generic—that is, they can be applied to a large variety of cases. The resolution always makes critical assumptions, such as who should act, how the policy should be implemented, why a particular area is important, etc. The critique provides a general argument that can be used to attack those critical assumptions.

2) Critiques have multiple consequences—that is, they can minimize the affirmative advantage while also providing an argument to weigh against whatever advantage the affirmative can claim.

3) Critiques integrate many arguments into one position. Because the case arguments frequently stem from the critique, the negative has a position in the debate that is coherent.

4) Critiques frequently have *a priori* implications. An *a priori* argument is one that must be resolved first, usually before the substantive issues of the debate are resolved. In our example of testing, the negative could argue that policies that reinforce racism or sexism are so noxious that they need to be avoided absolutely. If testing is racist or sexist, it should be rejected regardless of substantive benefits that might result from increased testing.

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

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

Answering Critiques

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

1) Debate the specific critique. There are many answers to critiques that merely require research like any other negative argument. Remember that philosophers and rhetorical critics get into arguments with each other just like legislators and policy analysts do. The general rule is: for every group of scholars who support the ideas behind the critique, there is a different group of scholars who think the ideas in the critique are terrible. If you find out that a certain critique is being run, research it just like you would any other argument in order to find those scholars who disagree with it.

2) Use cross-ex time to ask about the critique. You can't debate what you don't understand, and critiques can be very difficult to understand. Often, evidence in critiques uses academic jargon and obscure words. Don't be intimidated. If the other team can't explain what these words mean, the judge won't be willing to vote for them. If they CAN explain them, then you will be able to understand them, too. Ask how the plan links to the critique and what implications the critique has in the round. Don't let the other team

3) Don't forget to use your own brain! Once you understand what the critique says, you can answer it with arguments that make sense to you. Also, remember that the evidence in the 1AC is designed to answer objections to the case. Use that evidence creatively.

4) Utilize your specific affirmative answers. Many of the implications of the critique are very generalized, but the affirmative can point to specific evidence to prove both their harms and their solvency. Thus, general indictments might not be as persuasive as the specific proofs offered by the affirmative.

5) Debate the uniqueness of the critique. Negative critique debaters try to avoid the uniqueness debate and argue that it is irrelevant. However, the implications of the critique frequently occur at the margins of incremental impact. In other words, the critique often talks about harms that are already occurring all around us. The affirmative should stress that if the affirmative advantage is intact, the marginal increase in disadvantage beyond the present system does not merit rejection.

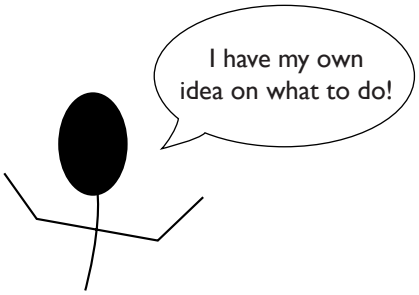
6) Argue that there is no alternative. If the affirmative harm is substantial, the plan is largely solvent, and the critique has uniqueness problems, press the negative to defend what their alternative to the plan and the present system will be. If there is no alternative, then it makes uniqueness arguments against the critique that much more valuable.

7) Attack the alternative. If the negative offers alternatives to the plan and the present system, then the affirmative can argue that the alternative is a bad idea.

8) Make the negative defend the idea of critiques. Many members of the debate community have accepted the idea of critiquing assumptions as acceptable. However, many others do not believe that philosophical and rhetorical ideas have any place in policy debate. Make the negative explain why we should consider these kinds of arguments if the goal of debate is to train students to study policy issues like legislators and political analysts do.

Running Counterplans

A counterplan is an alternative to the affirmative plan that is presented by the Negative team. Sometimes the negative will not only argue that the affirmative plan is a bad idea, but will also present their own way of solving the problems cited by the affirmative team.



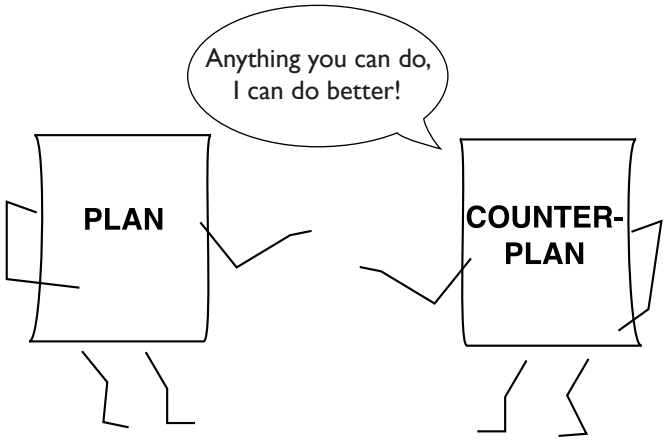
Like the affirmative team, the negative team must prove the counterplan is fair and a good idea. Counterplans have to meet two burdens.

1. Counterplans should be nontopical.

Affirmative plans have to be topical. Therefore negative plans (counterplans) should be nontopical. This way, the negative cannot run plans that support the debate resolution.

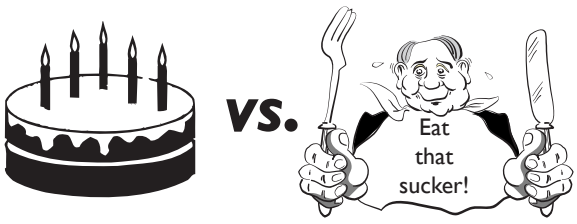
2. Counterplans must be competitive.

Competition is a term used to describe the battle between the Affirmative plan and the Counterplan. For a counterplan to compete with the affirmative plan, and to win, it must be proven that the counterplan alone is better than the affirmative plan alone or better than adopting the counterplan and affirmative plan together. The competition of the counterplan is determined in two ways.



A) Mutual Exclusivity. This means the counterplan and the affirmative plan cannot occur at the same time. They cannot exist together.

B) Net Benefits. This means that doing the counterplan alone provides more benefits than doing the plan alone and provides more benefits than doing the counterplan and plan together. Counterplans, like affirmative plans, can have advantages. These advantages prove why the counterplan is better than the affirmative. Often, the advantages of the counterplan are negative disadvantages to the affirmative plan.



You Can't Have Your Cake AND Eat It, Too.

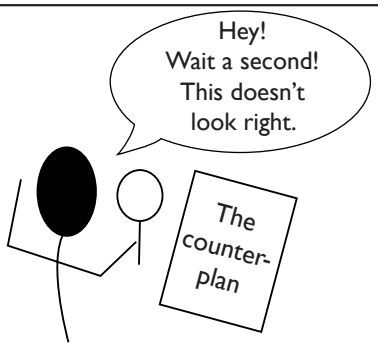
This old saying describes net benefits pretty well. If the problem is that you are hungry, the plan might be to have a cake. The counterplan would be to EAT the cake. The counterplan is net beneficial because eating the cake solves your hunger problem AND if you try to "have" the cake at the same time that you eat it, you will be very confused (and probably messy). "Eating the cake" is more advantageous than just having it, and "eating the cake" is also a better idea than BOTH "eating the cake" and "having the cake" at the same time.

A counterplan must meet these burdens in order to beat the affirmative plan.

Answering Counterplans

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

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



1. The counterplan is topical.

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

2. The counterplan is not competitive.

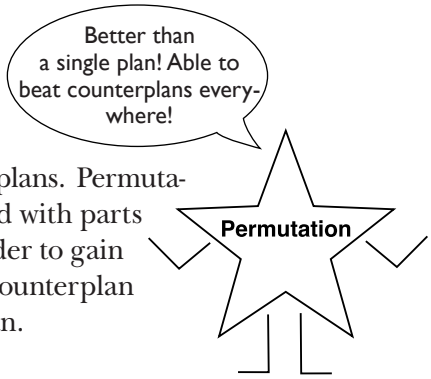
Affirmatives should argue that the counterplan is not competitive with the affirmative plan. In order to do this, affirmative teams have three choices.

A. Prove it is not mutually exclusive.

B. Prove it is not net beneficial.

C. Offer permutations

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



Permutation:
Eating half the cake will satisfy our hunger without rotting our teeth or causing weight gain. And, we still get to see our beautiful cake.

3. Solvency

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

4. Disadvantages

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

How to Give Good Rebuttals

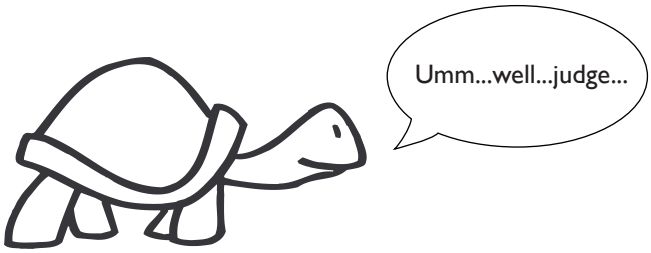
Most debaters, coaches, and judges would agree that rebuttals are the most difficult and yet the most important parts of the debate. Not only is there less time within each speech, but each debater has to sort through all of the issues to determine which ones are the most important ones! What a debater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

Think about these four issues when rebuttals happen:

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

Here are some other helpful hints:

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

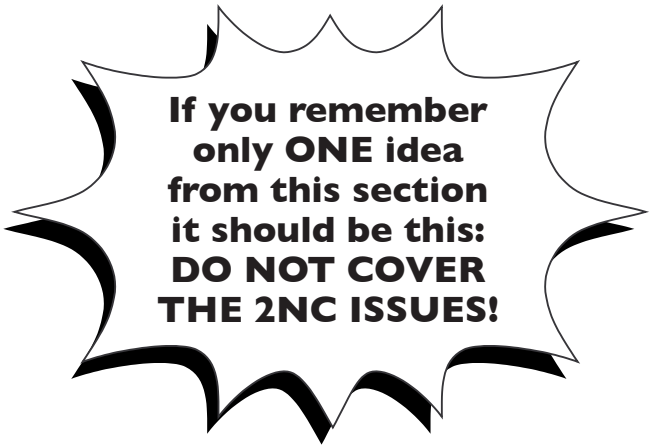


A rebuttal is not the time to go slow.

The First Negative Rebuttal

The general purpose of the 1NR is twofold: to select winning arguments and to pressure the 1AR.

The single biggest mistake 1NR's make is to repeat or "extend" exactly what the 2NC did. If you remember only a single idea from this section it should be this: DO NOT COVER THE 2NC ISSUES! The proper division of labor in the negative block allows the 2NC and 1NR to pursue separate issues to increase their chances of winning the debate. When the 1NR merely repeats the 2NC, the opportunity for pressuring the 1AR is lost, and the debate becomes muddled and confused.



What you need to do is to balloon something. Which argument you balloon will vary from round to round. Typically, the 1NR must realize that will less speech time, they can only balloon one major issue and consequently they must select the right one. Remember, the purpose of the 1NR is to establish winning arguments and put the pressure on the 1AR. It follows that the argument chosen must have enough impact to win the round and be developed enough to require time and attention in the 1AR.

This strategy necessitates the dropping of arguments. The negative has the luxury of focusing on the weakest part of the affirmative case, so they can strategically drop certain arguments in order to concentrate on those parts.

In addition to ballooning one major issue, and strategically dropping inconsequential ones, the 1NR has the option of quickly arguing a few key case attacks. For example, you may have some clear and persuasive solvency presses.

Finally, the 1NR must cover any additional advantages that were claimed in the 2AC (these are sometimes referred to as "add-ons"). The 2NC could cover add-ons, but usually doesn't because the 1NR has more time to prepare.

Tips for the 1NR

1. Give a ten second intro and a one-line conclusion which persuasively states the impact your speech has in the round.
2. When ballooning, it is crucial that you carefully answer 2AC responses point-by-point.
3. Don't repeat tags. Extending an argument is not repeating the argument. It is rebutting the affirmative's argument and explaining why yours is better.
4. Use no prep time. The biggest favor you can do for the 1AR is take lots of prep time before your speech. The 1NR speech should be prepared during the 2NC.
5. "Steal" prep time and use it wisely. You have all the prep time used by the 2NC, all the speech time used by the 2NC, and all the time spent cross-examining the 2NC to get your speech ready. That's more time than anyone else in the round! Use it to prepare excellent, written-out explanations of key points in your speech.
6. Anticipate 1AR responses and pre-empt them. As the season progresses, you will know what to pre-empt by flowing the 1AR. Resist the temptation to close up shop after your 1NR.

The First Affirmative Rebuttal

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

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

- Disads. Pick a set of 2AC arguments to extend. Or, if the disad was introduced in 2NC, go for links or impacts, but not both. You simply don't have time.

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

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

Tips for the 1AR

1. Word economy. Be concise. Everything should be on blocks. Use abbreviations. Highlight your evidence. Eliminate pet phrases. Don't overexplain. Preflow your speech. Place important words first on the label.
2. Refer to previous evidence. It is not possible to read much evidence in the 1AR. Use the evidence from the 1AC and 2AC by extending the cards.
3. Be organized. It is important to be organized for all speeches, and it is critically important to be organized for the 1AR. Have all of your briefs in order before you begin to speak.
4. Order of issues. Always put topicality first in the 1AR. Then go to disads/counterplans. Go to case last. Ending on familiar ground helps you allocate the time.
5. Time allocation. The last thing you do before your delivery of the 1AR is to count the number of issues you will be covering. This will give you a sense of how much time you can spend on each argument.
6. Exploit negative contradictions. Look for some of these popular contradictions:
   A. Inherency-Disad. If negative says the status quo is working, then why haven't the disads happened?
   B. Solvency-Disad. You may be able to grant a negative solvency argument in order to evade the link to a disad.
   C. Disad-Disad. Negatives often run disads with contradictory theses. You can grant one disad to prevent another. Caution: do not grant negative arguments that could beat you. For example, if you are going to grant out one solvency arguments to evade a disad, make sure you have another solvency mechanism left to gain an advantage.

Remember, the 1AR has to speak quickly and use good word economy because the 1AR has only a few minutes to answer the entire negative block.

The Second Negative Rebuttal

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

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

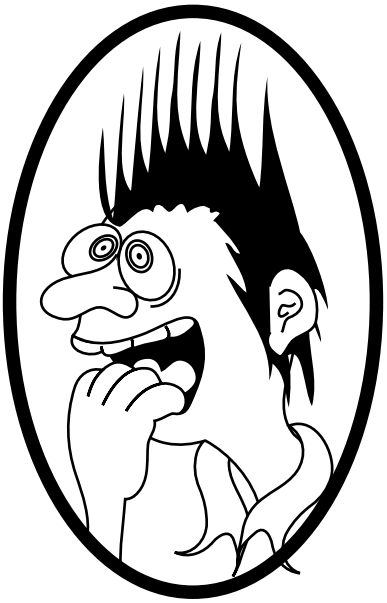
There are two ways to win in the 2NR: "Win the Drop" or "Win the Position."

- Win the Drop. Many debates are decided because the 1AR could not cover the negative block or because debaters could not flow very well and missed responses. The 2NR's job would simply be to pull the dropped argument and explain why it is sufficient to vote negative. This entails weighing the dropped argument against the affirmative case. Examples include dropped disads, topicality, or major case arguments.
- Win the Position. The 2NR must pull all negative issues together in a way that jettisons all irrelevant material and focuses the debate on the single negative strategy. Listed below are several typical negative frameworks that can be used alone or in combination with other frameworks. Remember the importance of narrowing the debate to a simple bottom line position and do not employ too many frameworks at once.

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

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

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



It can be very difficult to decide which issues to focus on in the 2NR

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

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

Tips for the 2NR

1. Preempt the 2AR. Cliches include:
   - No new arguments in the 2AR.
   - No new cross-applications in the 2AR
   - If you can't trace it back to the 1AR, ignore it.
2. Do not go for everything. You must win a position or a dropped argument. Now is the time to consider putting all of your eggs in one basket.
3. Extend your negative block arguments. Don't just summarize. There are two parts to extending an argument. Deny the truth/relevance of the opposition argument and explain why yours is better. Many 2NR's fall into the "no clash trap." You must draw the connection between your arguments and theirs. Cliches include:
   - "They have good evidence here, but ours answers it."
   - "We post-date their uniqueness evidence"
   - "On topicality, they do not extend their own definition, our definition is the only one in the debate."

   Each of these cliches considers the opponent's argument and attempts to answer it.
4. Sequence. Go to your best arguments first. Spend a significant amount of time on the argument you want the judge to vote on.
5. Compare arguments. Frequently, debaters assume that if they extend their arguments the judge will simply know that their arguments are more important than their opponents'. Do not be so trusting. Cliches include:
   - "They may be winning a little advantage, but the disadvantage will outweigh."
   - "They have a good definition, but it unfairly expands the grounds of the topic, so it is not good for debate."
   - "Even if they are winning a risk of a turn on this disadvantage, the counterplan will solve the turn."
6. Take all of your prep time. Use all of your prep time to write out responses to the issues you have narrowed down. Take a moment to look over the flow and be certain you are not going to miss an important affirmative response. Check with your partner to see what issues he or she might think are important.

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

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

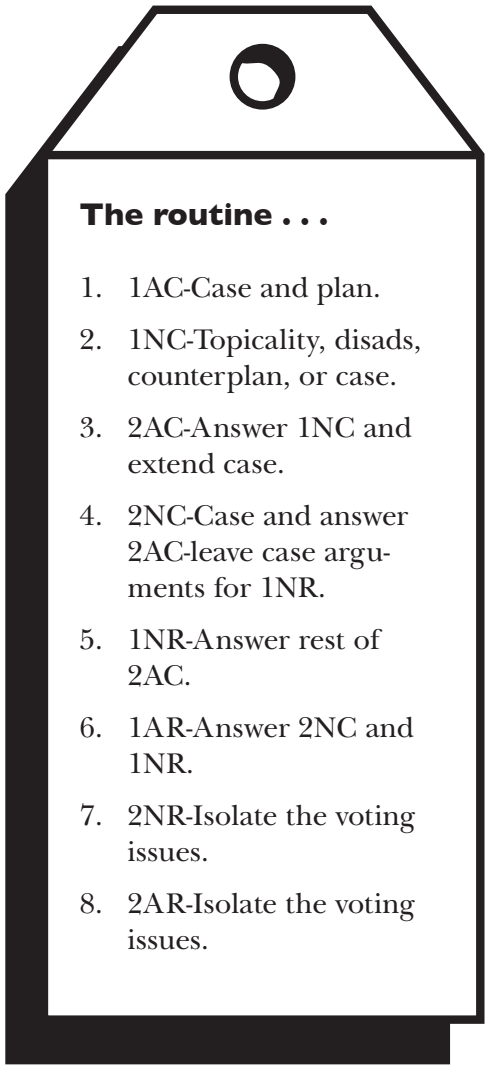
The Second Affirmative Rebuttal

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

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

Tips for the 2AR

1. Extend. Don't just repeat or summarize your arguments.
2. Group. Select the strongest 1AR responses to go for.
3. Sequence. Set your agenda. Cover the 2NR. End with a short explanation of why you have won the round.
4. Re-tell the story. Every affirmative has a narrative behind it. Emphasize how your story is more plausible or more compelling or more anything than theirs is.
5. Allocate time like the 2NR. Spend time on the issues that the 2NR spent time on. It will do no good to re-explain case for 3 minutes if the 2NR spent 4 minutes on a disad, a counterplan, and a topicality violation.
6. Wrap up the debate. Explain why you should still win the round even if you have lost a few issues. If you are unable to beat an argument, then say something like: "even if you grant the negative a partial solvency argument, then you still vote affirmative on the chance the plan will solve." Or, "even with only 50% solvency, you should still vote affirmative since it is comparatively better then the status quo."



The routine . . .

1. 1AC-Case and plan.
2. 1NC-Topicality, disads, counterplan, or case.
3. 2AC-Answer 1NC and extend case.
4. 2NC-Case and answer 2AC-leave case arguments for 1NR.
5. 1NR-Answer rest of 2AC.
6. 1AR-Answer 2NC and 1NR.
7. 2NR-Isolate the voting issues.
8. 2AR-Isolate the voting issues.

Strategic Considerations for Rebuttals

1NR (First Negative Rebuttal)

1. Select issues not covered by your partner (NEVER, EVER RE-COVER THEIR ARGUMENTS) and extend them as comprehensively as possible to be winning issues (and to put pressure on the 1AR).
2. Finish extending issues that your partner didn't finish.
3. Make sure that the major impacts claimed by the other team are minimized.
4. Take NO preparation time for your speech, as you will have the 2NC and cross-ex (which is a minimum of 11 minutes.)
5. Read extension evidence to make sure that your positions are well explained and evidenced.
6. Do not go for all your arguments. Pick the strongest and most winnable and blow them up.
7. Be careful to not extend arguments that contradict your partner's.

1AR (First Affirmative Rebuttal)

1. Extend several winning arguments against each negative position extended in the block to give your partner flexibility in the 2AR.
2. Don't get bogged down in explanation—there's too much to cover to try and explain everything.
3. Take as little prep time as possible, try to flow your answers to the 2NC during the cross-ex of the 2NC.
4. Have your partner look for evidence for you so you can concentrate on your flowing answers to arguments.
5. Order your arguments and cover them in order of importance (the first being the most important), and make sure to answer new block arguments first.
6. Try to group and consolidate arguments, as well as cutting back the number of cards read to maximize your efficiency.

2NR (Second Negative Rebuttal)

1. Don't go for everything. It is far better to make strategic choices and go for a few things well (this will also probably entail reading FEW cards).
2. Assess impacts to try and get into the mentality of the judge and determine what they will find the most compelling.
3. Close the door on likely 2AR arguments and the things that they're winning the most clearly as well as closing the door on new arguments.
4. Don't go for Topicality unless you can win it in a minute or you intend to go for it exclusively.
5. Spend sufficient time on you partner's arguments and try to order what you can go for in terms of importance.
6. When kicking out a disadvantage, make sure that you leave no room for a turn-around.
7. When extending disads, make sure to extend the arguments dropped by the 1AR and assess impacts as compared to the affirmative case.

2AR (Second Affirmative Rebuttal)

1. Be selective in the answers you go for and REALLY explain them.
2. Assess impacts well and compare the case to the disads that the negative might win.
3. Re-order from the 2NR: address the issues that you're winning first and then deal with the rest of the issues in the debate.

These suggestions appear as explained by David Cheshier in his "rebuttal skills" lecture at the Emory National Debate Institute.

Checklist for Winning and Losing

Listed below are some brief guidelines on what the affirmative must do in order to win the debate based on different arguments. Remember, the presumption falls on the negative, and the affirmative has the burden of proving that the affirmative policy is desirable. If the negative can win just one of many issues, that may be enough for a negative win.

1. Topicality: The affirmative does not initiate the topicality argument. If it is not presented by the negative, then it will not be an issue in the debate. If it is presented by the negative team, then you must remember to do several things:
    a. Answer the standards. Make sure you have reasons why their standards are unreasonable.
    b. Argue each violation. Make sure that you have extension briefs on the definitions that you think will be debated. Make the negative prove why their definitions are better than yours.
    c. Ask for their Topicality briefs in CX and make sure that you have covered all of the violations. If time permits, examine the definitions that they read and look for inconsistencies within the evidence.
    d. Argue that Topicality is not a voting issue. Make sure you have briefs on this response.
    e. Never drop topicality in rebuttals-for most judges that becomes an absolute voting issue and an easy way to decide the debate. Don't let any judges have this luxury of decision.
2. Disadvantages: Next to topicality, the disadvantages are the most important issues in the round. Judges are looking for comparisons after the round-affirmative advantages in competition with negative disadvantages. Make sure you review the section of disadvantages.
    a. Attack the links.
    b. Disprove or turn the impacts.
    c. Argue threshhold or brink is not unique.
    d. Prove disads won't happen.
    e. Anticipate what the disads will be and have briefs ready to respond to these arguments.
3. Affirmative Case Issues: Probably the most important case issue will be solvency. However, there are some other issues you need to be able to defend.
    a. Inherency. The negative will argue that the plan is already being done or will be done in the status quo. Sometimes the negative will press that the affirmative must show what the "core motive" is behind the inherency barrier. The bottom line is that over the years, inherency has become a somewhat mediocre argument. As long as the affirmative keeps extending the evidence that the SQ cannot solve the problem without the affirmative plan, and that the affirmative plan will not be passed in the status quo, the affirmative should be able to win that there is some unique advantage to be gained by voting for the affirmative.

       Even if the status quo is likely to solve large portions of the affirmative harm, without a disadvantage, the affirmative plan is still desirable.
    b. Significance. If any affirmative loses on the question of significance, then the affirmative was never really prepared to debate anyway! Negative teams rarely get by arguing that the quantifiable harm selected by the affirmative is not

significant. If an affirmative argues that 50,000 homeless people died of AIDS how can the negative determine that number has to be 150,000 in order to be significant? All an affirmative has to do is argue that the case is comparatively advantageous compared to the status quo. If there is more advantage with the affirmative position than the negative position, then the affirmative should win significance.

c. Solvency. Really this issue is the starting point for comparing advantages to disadvantages. The negative might attack solvency three ways.

First, they might simply indict the affirmative evidence. Put good solvency cards in the 1AC. Prepare to extend with additional evidence. Be able to extend the qualifications of your sources. Be prepared to read evidence indicating others believe the plan will solve.

Second, they might argue plan-meet-needs (PMNs). PMNs indicate that structural inadequacies prevent solving even if the plan is a good idea. Perhaps the personnel, equipment, expertise, and other resources vital to solving the problem are not available. Thus, the affirmative must not only show the plan is a good idea, but that the plan is sufficiently effective to attain some advantage.

Third, they might argue circumvention. Actors outside the bounds of control of the affirmative might act to block the plan. Frequently identifying who opposes the plan and why, will provide the negative with arguments for individuals who will obstruct the outcome of the plan. These are usually individuals who have a vested interest in keeping the status quo. The affirmative can answer this argument by proving that these individuals or groups do not have an interest in blocking the plan, or that they are unable to do so.

4. Counterplans. Sometimes the best way to beat a counterplan is to throw it back to the negative. In order for the counterplan to win it must meet three criteria: It should be nontopical, it must be competitive, and it must have an advantage which is greater than the affirmative plan. The affirmative can respond several ways. First, you can prepare solvency arguments against that particular counterplan. Second, you can argue that the counterplan does not compete—that you can do them both at the same time. Third, you can argue that your advantages are superior to the counterplan advantages. For more discussion on the issue of counterplans, review that section of the manual.

Most beginning debaters will lose the debate by dropping or not responding to arguments. Don't be afraid to offer answers to arguments you are unprepared for. That will cost you the debate. Just think clearly and you will come up with answers.

Debate Rap Sheet

It's Cool to Know the Lingo

1. **advantage**.
   the cool things that are going to happen because of your plan.
2. **affirmative**.
   the team that support the resolution.
3. **brief**.
   (no — we are not talking about underwear!) This is an outline of the arguments you are going to make in a debate. Also referred to as a "block."
4. **case side.**
   (also "on case") arguments that directly apply to advantages of the case. This means significance/harms, inherency, and solvency.
5. **cite** (citation).
   where you get your evidence from
6. **clash**.
   to argue specifically against what the other team says
7. **constructive**.
   the first four speeches in a debate
8. **contentions**.
   a way to number the affirmative arguments. (e.g., Contention I, Contention II etc.)
9. **cross-examination**.
   (cross-ex) the questioning period following each of the first four speeches in a debate.
10. **disadvantage**.
    (disad or da) the bad thing that will happen if the affirmative plan is adopted.
11. **evidence**.
    (ev or card) quotations which support your arguments.
12. **flow**.
    to take notes of the debate as it progresses.
13. **flowsheet**.
    the paper you use to take notes during the debate.
14. **impact**.
    the bad or good things that happen as a result of the plan (or the counterplan, or the disadvantage).
15. **inherency**.
    the reason why someone is not doing something about your plan right this minute; the barrier in the status quo that prevents the present system from solving things without the help of the plan.
16. **link**.
    how the disadvantage is caused by the plan or how the advantage is caused by the plan.
17. **prep time**.
    time given to each team during the round to prepare speeches.
18. **prima-facie**.
    the affirmative case has everything in it that is expected to be there. The phrase literally means "on face."
19. **rebuttal**.
    the last four speeches in a debate—arguments are to be explained and extended in these speeches. Oh, yeah, and you're supposed to win the debate round during these speeches, too.
20. **resolution**.
    the big topic you are debating. It always starts with the word "Resolved:" and then includes a "should" statement advocating a general kind of action.
21. **scenario**.
    a picture of what would happen if your plan or disadvantage were to happen.
22. **significance**.
    how big this problem is (how significant).

23. **solvency**.
    can the plan work to fix the problem.
24. **spread**.
    to make a whole bunch of arguments very quickly during a debate.
25. **standards**.
    a set of rules which allows the judge to decide which argument is better (usually in topicality).
26. **status quo**.
    the way things are now.
27. **stock issues**.
    those issues that the affirmative team must include in plan (significance, harms, inherency, topicality, solvency).
28. **subpoints**.
    supporting points of your arguments.
29. **threshhold**.
    how much would it take for something to happen (e.g., if I were to pinch you, how hard would I have to pinch you before you screamed).
30. **time frame**.
    the amount of time it would take for the impact to happen.
31. **topicality**.
    (sometimes called simply, "T") an argument about whether or not the plan meets the resolution.
32. **turn**.
    to make an opponent's argument an argument for you. (e.g., you solve problems your opponent says you will cause, or what your opponent says is good, is actually bad.)
33. **uniqueness**.
    the part of a disad which proves that the plan and ONLY the plan would cause bad things to happen.

Generic Abbreviations

For Sources	For Government Agencies
NYT--New York Times	HHS--Health and Human Services
WSJ--Wall Street Journal	SC--Supreme Court
USN--U.S. News & World Report	GAO--General Accounting Office
NW--Newsweek	DOJ--Department of Justice
WP--Washington Post	EX BR--Executive Branch
CR--Congressional Record	BCJ--Bureau of Criminal Justice
CQW--Congressional Quarterly Weekly Reports	DOE--Department of Education
SN Rpt--Senate Report	INS--Immigration and Naturalization Service
ACLU--American Civil Liberties Union	CDC--Center for Disease Control
H Rpt--House Report	DOS--Department of State
CV LB RVW--Civil Liberties Review	
AP--Associated Press	
UPI--United Press International	
SC Rpt--Supreme Court Reporter	
L/N--Lexis/Nexis	

For Flowsheets

SQ-Status Quo	impt- important	fed-federal
loc-local	eff-efficient	ad-adequate
prb-problem	rts-rights	MR-minor repair
adv-advantage	coord-coordination	w/o-without
w/in-within	XT-extra-topical	PMN-plan-meet-need
def-definition	ed-education	I-inherency
M-million	B-billion	circm-circumvention
hmfl-harmful	amndt-amendment	MX-mutual exclusivity
sig-significance	natl-national	st-state
govt-government	ineff-inefficient	inad-inadequate
soc-society/social	jst-justification	DA-disadvantage
$-money/funding	w/-with	b/w-between
T-topicality	OB-observation	PMA-plan-meet-adv
cmpt-competitive	cp-counterplan	PO-plan objection
TH-thousand	H-hundred	Slvcy-solvency
triangle-change		

1AC-1st Affirmative Constructive
1AR-1st Affirmative Rebuttal(and so on...)

arrow to the right-leads to	arrow to the left-result of
arrow pointing up-increase	arrow pointing down-decrease

NOTE: These are just suggestions to familiarize you with the concept of abbreviations for flowsheets. You are encouraged to add your own!

Cutting Cards and Citing Evidence

Cutting Cards

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

1. Try to cut only cards that make arguments. There is definitely a place for informational cards, but they should be labeled as such so they're not used inappropriately in rounds.

2. Never, Ever cut one sentence cards.

3. Cards should be complete thoughts, and this will always mean complete sentences (cards should begin with a capital letter and end with a punctuation mark.)

4. Try to cut at least a paragraph for each card, so there is a context for the author's ideas.

5. Don't ever cut cards that aren't what the author advocates. This includes cards where the word after the card is BUT.

Simple Guidelines for Evidence Citation

1. Evidence should always have full and complete citations. Just as articles should footnote their sources, debaters should make it possible for others to identify where evidence comes from. This includes the following:
    a. The author
    b. The author's qualifications
    c. The publication
    d. The date of the publication
    e. The page number of the original quotation.

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

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

3. Number coded citation sheets are acceptable, BUT DO NOT FAIL TO PUT THE COMPLETE CITATION **ON THE BRIEF** WHEN IT IS COMPLETED.

4. The rules for citation don't change when citing the world wide web. There still must be an author, qualification, publication, date, and a FULL WEB SITE ADDRESS. Saying www or internet as a source is NOT acceptable. If you can't find the FULL cite for a source from the web, DON'T USE THE EVIDENCE.

   An example web site is: http: www.emory.udl/html

Guidelines for Briefing

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

   A. Labels for Individual Cards

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

   B. Format of Briefs

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

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

   A. For big arguments that will be used by the whole lab, we suggest using an index sheet to explain the argument and how to use the evidence in the file.

   B. For the most part, try and put the best arguments in the front of the file and the best cards at the beginning of the briefs, so that if someone needs to find the best cards and arguments, they are easily accessible under the time constraints of the round.

   C. Try to mix analytical arguments as well as cards on the briefs. The is FAR more effective than just reading lots of cards because it focuses the argumentation on crucial key points.

   D. Be aware that there might be contradictions or interactions with other cards on the briefs.

   E. Do not cut cards in half and continue them on the next page. This will only serve to confuse others trying to use your evidence and might confuse you in the pressure of a debate.

3. Taping Briefs

   A. Tape all of the corners of the cards down!!!!

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

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

A Sample Brief

Label your briefs with your team and school so you can identify them if they are lost or misplaced. You may also list other information, such as Aff or Neg or even which case they

Make sure the title of the argument is written in large, dark, clear print. Someone else may have to read this, so write neatly. You should be able to identify this brief at a glance.

Make sure to include page numbers on your briefs. The number to the left of the slash is the page of this brief. The number to the right of the slash indicates the total number of pages of THIS PARTICULAR kind of brief.

H/L
Emory

1/2

Courts Counterplan Answers

1) Permute: do the plan and the counterplan at the same time. This solves the case and avoids the disadvantages.

2) CP fiats over future court decisions. It's a voting issue.
   a) It fiats attitudes and solvency, which avoids the criticisms of the literature and means the affirmative could never win a DA to the CP, crushing our ability to debate.
   b) 1NC strategy choices skew 2AC time and argument choice. The abuse has already occurred. This means you reject the negative, not just the CP.

3) Turn: CP must extend the Hill precedent, which doesn't solve and waters down Title VII:

Robin **Rogers**, JD Candidate @ UC Berkeley, **1990**, California LR, n. 120:

Even if Title VII, as presently formulated, were held to apply to uniformed members of the military, the use of the statute for claims of discrimination in the military would still be problematic. The courts would probably continue to defer to military policy when considering claims brought under the statute. The *Hill* opinion clearly demonstrates this, concluding that the test for policy decisions is "whether the military was clearly arbitrary and erroneous, with a harmful effect present at the time the dispute reaches the court. Application of this test in numerous military cases could threaten to spill over into civilian Title VII litigation and seriously weaken the established standards.

4) No evidence that a case exists for the Supreme Court to call. Proves no mechanism for counterplan solvency

5) Overturning the combat exclusion in the Courts won't be enforced.

Pamela R. **Jones**, Managing Editor of the Cornell LR, **1993**, January, p. 298

If the court declares the combat exclusion rules and policies unconstitutional, enforcement problems are likely to emerge. Neither Congress, the President, nor the Armed Forces seem prepared to lift the combat exclusion rules completely. For example, even Representative Beverly Brown, who supports increasing opportunities for women in the military, rejects a "wholesale lifting of the combat exclusion rules."

This brief is written for a very specific argument, so it uses numbers for the arguments. When writing more generic briefs, leave spaces marked by parentheses so future debaters can fill in their own numbers

Use both analytical arguments and evidenced arguments on the same brief, alternating between the two. This makes it difficult for the other team to group your arguments.

Many debaters use bold letters or highlighters to indicate the parts of the cite that are most important in case time is of the essence.

When cutting cards, use underlining to indicate the part of the card that should be read in the round. This is a good way to make cards shorter and more powerful. NEVER physically remove part of a card. If you have to, break one card into several sections instead.

Glossary: Boring Words You Need to Know

add-on: n. An advantage of the affirmative plan usually presented in the 2nd Affirmative construction speech and independent of whatever advantages were presented in the 1st affirmative constructive.

advantage: n. An advantage is a description used by the affirmative to explain what beneficial effects will result from its plan.

affirmative: n The team in a debate which supports the resolution. Key terms: need, inherency, plan, solvency, and topicality.

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

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

agent of the resolution (or Agent of Change): n. That power called for by the resolution to carry out resolutional action.

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

anarchy: n. A counterplan which argues that the government should dissolve itself rather than carry on any resolutional action or other action. Some teams argue this action can be by the United States alone and others argue that all government should dissolve.

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

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

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

bipartisanship: n. This is a political disadvantage which argues that the affirmative plan will disrupt bipartisan working relations within the Congress making it more difficult to enact other important policies. The argument could also be made the opposite way. The negative could argue that the plan will spur bipartisan cooperation and therefore cause bad policies to be enacted. Also "Bipart"(see disadvantages and political disads).

blow-up: n. This describes a strategy employed by the negative in which the first negative starts several major positions allowing the second negative to extend and expand any and all of the positions in second negative constructive.

brief: n. An outline of an argument setting forth the main contentions with supporting statements and evidence of proof.

budget deficits: n. A generic negative disadvantage which argues that the spending of government funds on a new program will break the political will which holds the budget freeze on line, impacting in massive economic disruption.

burden of proof: n. 1) The requirement that sufficient evidence or reasoning to prove an argument be presented 2) the requirement that the affirmative prove the stock issues.

burden of rebuttal or clash: n. The requirement that each speaker continue the debate by call-

ing into question or disputing the opposition's arguments on the substantive issues.

business confidence: n. a generic disadvantage based upon the claim that a change in government policy will cause business to cut back their investment, the result being an economic recession or depression.

case side: n. The part of the flow on which arguments are written concerning indictments of the status quo and consequent need or advantage and consequent need or advantage of the plan.

circumvention: n. This is a type of argument which argues that certain actors will attempt to avoid the mandates of the plan. Because it argues that the plan will be avoided, it is a type of solvency argument which implies that the plan will not be able to solve the problem the case cites as the harm.

citation: n. Specific information on the source of evidence regarding publication, date of publication, page excerpt, and the author's qualification.

clash: vb. To respond directly to an opponent's argument.

comparative advantage case: n. A type of affirmative case which argues the desirable benefits of the plan in contrast to the present system.

competitiveness: n. 1) The quality of a policy which makes the policy a reason to reject another policy. 2) a situation where one policy is mutually exclusive with another policy or is more preferable alone than in conjunction with another policy. It is traditionally expected that a negative prove a counterplan to be a competitive alternative to the affirmative plan.

conditional: adj. 1) to be considered only if contradictory positions are rejected. 2) able to be dropped without detrimental effect on a team's other arguments or their position as a whole.

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

constructives: n. The first four individual speeches of the debate. Arguments are initiated in these speeches and extended in rebuttals. They consist of the first affirmative constructive (1AC), the first negative constructive (1NC), the second affirmative constructive (2AC), and the second negative constructive (2NC). These speeches are interrupted by cross-examination periods of each speaker.

contentions: n. 1) A major point advanced or maintained in a debate. 2) a subdivision of an affirmative case.

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

contradictions: n. This is a type of fallacy in argument. It merely says that the two or more arguments presented by one team cannot be true because they disprove each other.

cooling: see global cooling

co-option: n. the influence of outside parties hampering an agency's efforts to carry out its instructions.

counterplan: n. a counterplan is proposed by the negative as an alternative method of solving the same problem cited by the affirmative or as an alternative which goes beyond the affirmative's plan. It is generally thought that a counterplan should be nontopical and competitive. That is the negative's "plan," if they choose to use this strategy, must not be the same as the resolution and it should not be possible or desirable to adopt both the affirmative plan and the negative's counterplan. vb. to employ the negative strategy of presenting and defending

a competitive program to solve the affirmative need or advantage. Key terms: nontopical and competitive.

counterplan advantages: n. benefits which result from the adoption of the counterplan.

counterplan nontopicality: n. the condition of a counterplan of being outside the resolution lest it become further justification of the resolution.

criteria: n. in nonpolicy debate this 'criteria' refers to the argument by which the judge is to compare competing value claims. The affirmative usually must establish a criteria at the beginning of the debate and the negative may attempt to establish a different criteria sometimes referred to as a counter-criteria.

criteria case: n. a type of affirmative case that posits a goal then outlines the criteria that must be met to accomplish the goal.

Critical Legal Studies (CLS): n. a field of legal scholarship which argues that the United States legal system while formally appealing with its guarantees of equal rights and indivdual rights, remains, in fact a system which serves the elites and denies access to the poor.

critique (also "kritik"): n. an argument that the assumptions or language of an issue are the first consideration (or an "a priori issue") in a debate. The effects of a policy should be considered only after one has decided if the assumptions and/or language of an argument are philosophically or morally acceptable. Frequently, the critique argues that—since the plan is not truly enacted as a result of the debate—the impact of the language and philosophy used in the round is more "real" and more important than any other argument in the round.

cross-examination: n. This is a three minute period which follows each of the constructive speeches in which a member of the opposing team directly questions the most recent speaker.

cut evidence: vb. to copy a portion of a book, magazine, or hearing onto a notecard or brief (via copying, handwriting, or typing).

debatability standard: n. a topicality standard which argues that as long as the definition provides fair grounds for debate, it should be accepted.

disadvantages: n. A disadvantage, sometimes referred to with the shorthand phrases "DA" or "Disad," is a deleterious, or undesirable, effect of a plan. A negative team runs a disad to show that adoption of the plan is going to lead to far greater undesirable consequences than desirable consequences. This way, the negative can balance the desirable effects of the affirmative plan with the undesirable effects and argue that the undesirable effects are desirable. In order to prove a disadvantage, a negative team must prove several things. First, they must link it to the affirmative plan. Second, they must be able to prove it is unique to the affirmative plan, and third, they must prove that the impact of the disadvantage is sufficiently undesirable to outweigh the affirmative advantages.

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

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

dispositional counterplan: n. A counterplan which, if proven noncompetitive, can be dismissed from consideration. Dispositional counterplans are often compared to "conditional" counterplans.

domestic malthus: n. A generic disadvantage which argues that saving lives in industrial countries increases the problems associated with limited resources. The disad argues that saving lives in the U.S., for example, causes more lives to be lost overseas or more scarce resources to

be consumed. The loss of life overseas is then argued to outweigh the number of lives saved domestically or the loss of scarce resources to consumers whose lives are prolonged increases the problems associated with uncontrolled economic growth. (see growth disad)

enforcement plank: n. a part of the affirmative plan providing assurance that the plan's mandates will be carried out, usually through a directive that a particular agency will oversee and ensure compliance with those mandates.

environmental ethic: n. a generic disadvantage which argues that there is a new wave of environmental consciousness about to occur and that any policy which delays the trend to it would be risking environmental collapse or nuclear destruction.

ethic: see environmental ethic

existential inherency: n. This kind of inherency argues that if the affirmative can demonstrate a massive problem exists then the affirmative has met the burden of inherency by showing that the present system is not solving it.

evidence: n. quotations which tend to prove or provide grounds for belief; also, broadly, the reasoning which tends to prove.

extensions: n. These are arguments which occur in response to opponents arguments. One person issues an argument, another person answers that argument. Extensions are different from new answers. Remember, new answers to old arguments are illegitimate in rebuttals and will be ignored by judges. To be a legitimate answer it must extend off of the original argument.

extratopical: adj. deriving (as an affirmative advantage) from action not specifically called for by the resolution. Judges tend to do one of three things with extratopical issues. Some allow the affirmative to just dismiss those elements from their plan and do away with any advantages or disadvantages which result from them. Some allow the Affirmative to use the plan planks to prevent disadvantages but not claim advantages from them such as specifying where the funding for a plan would come from. Some vote against the affirmative for having any extratopical elements in their plan. In addition, some judges allow the affirmative to keep the extratopical elements, not keep any advantages from them, but make them defend against all possible disadvantages to them.

feminism: n. a disadvantage which says that the actions taken by an affirmative will hinder or prevent the growth of feminism. The negative usually impacts the disadvantage by arguing that feminism is necessary for world peace and justice and feminism can usually be argued to save the environment.

field context: n. a topicality definition which is derived from the writings of experts on the subject of the resolution.

fiat: n. Fiat is a term used to describe the process that allows us to debate an affirmative plan as if it were adopted. This four letter word is much disputed in debate theory as to what it actually means, what powers it gives the affirmative, and what powers the negative has to implement a counterplan. For a quick reference, it would be best to think of it as a little spark of imagination which allows us to pretend a judge could adopt the affirmative plan (and perhaps the negative's counterplan) if he/she choose. vb. to implement a plan over any objection – a power granted to advocates of change.

floating PIC (Plan-Inclusive Counterplan): n. This is a counterplan that is not formally read by the negative, but is merely implied by the negative critique. Many critical arguments seem to imply that an alternative action to the plan would be taken either immediately or at some point in the future. It is called "floating" because the implicit nature of the counterplan makes it easy for the negative to alter the implied action, making it a moving target.

flow: vb. to take notes of the debate, argument by argument in a linear fashion. n. referring to a flow sheet.

flow judge: n. an experienced judge who takes extensive notes during the debate.

flow sheet: n. paper used to keep track of the arguments in a debate.

Foucault critique: n. This critique, which is based on the writings of Michael Foucault (pronounced "foo-ko"), usually advocates individual resistance to regulation and criticizes the idea of government reform. Foucault was concerned that when society regulates what is and is not acceptable behavior people are locked into particular ways of thinking and acting. For example, laws define deviance and thus create groups of people who are considered "abnormal." He argued against the idea that power is held only by those at the top. Instead, he claimed that all people have power.

funding plank: n. the part of the plan naming or listing those sources from which the money the plan requires will be garnered.

games theory: n. a paradigm for debate which views the debate as any game requiring fair rules to insure each participant has an equal chance of winning the game.

generic arguments: n. arguments, usually negative, that are general and apply to a wide range of affirmative cases or plans.

generic disadvantage: n. A disadvantage designed to link to almost any conceivable affirmative plan.

global cooling: n. an affirmative advantage or a negative disadvantage which says that the earth is in a period of glacial cooling and if we do not do something, such as pump more Carbon Dioxide into the atmosphere, the planet will freeze.

global warming: n. an affirmative advantage or a negative disadvantage which says that the earth is in a period of global warming and if we do not do something, such as decrease or prevent future increases in Carbon Dioxide, the planet will begin to suffer flooding, droughts, and loss of agriculture and keystone species.

goals case: n. a type of affirmative case that claims a particular goal is sought by the status quo and that proceeds to argue that the plan better meets that goal.

grammatical context: n. a topicality definition which is derived from the relationship of words in a consistent grammatical form with other terms in the resolution.

growth disadvantage: n. a generic disadvantage arguing that the economic growth caused by the affirmative plan is bad. Impacts include ecological destruction and nuclear war.

hasty generalization: n. this is an argument run predominantly in value debates but has also been run in policy debates. It says that a judge cannot conclude that the resolution is true based upon a minor or small example such as that run by the affirmative.

hypothesis testing: n. This is one of many paradigms which are used to explain the debate process. All it really means is that the focus of the debate is on testing the resolution like we would a scientific hypothesis. Key terms: paradigms, presumption, policy-making, stock issues.

hypothetical counterplan: n. see conditional counterplan.

impact: n. the good or bad results of an affirmative case, counterplan or disadvantages (see significance). n. the consequences of an argument, including theoretical arguments, which make the argument important in evaluating the debate.

independent advantage: n. an advantage that can justify adoption of a plan even if the other advantages may not be true.

inherency: n. the cause of a problem's existence, the proof that the problem will continue, and the barrier preventing current programs from solving a problem.

intrinsic: adj. this describes a situation in which a disadvantage is a necessary result of the affirmative plan which cannot be prevented in another way. Affirmative teams frequently argue that a disadvantage must be a necessary consequence of the affirmative plan in order to be compared against affirmative significance.

jurisdiction: n. This is an argument often used in topicality discussions that assumes the reso-

lution provides limits on the judge's power. This argument states that if the plan is not topical, the judge has no power to fiat the plan and as such, a nontopical plan could not be voted for because the plan is outside the judge's authority.

kritiks: see critiques. Also known as "the K."

legislative intent: n. a provision in a plan that future judgment of the meaning of the plan will be based upon its advocate's speeches.

link: n. That component of a disadvantage which shows how it is caused by the Affirmative plan.

Malthus disadvantage: n. a generic disadvantage based upon the theories of eighteenth-century thinker Thomas Malthus. The disadvantage argues that saving starving people will result in rapid population increases quickly outstripping the capacity of the earth to support that population. The result is ultimately much more starvation in future.

masking: n. an argument that says the affirmative plan leads everyone to believe the problem is being solved, when in fact the plan will fail to solve and prevent other solutions from being enacted. Frequently used as part of critique arguments such as CLS. (see CLS and critiques).

minor repair: n. A non-resolutional change in existing programs.

motivational inherency: n. The requirement that an affirmative team explain why people have allowed a problem to exist.

mutual exclusivity: n. one competitiveness standard that the counterplan and the affirmative plan cannot co-exist.

need: n. the problem that the affirmative hopes to solve; the area of affirmative significance.

negative block: n. the 2nd negative constructive and the 1st negative rebuttal; the two negative speeches in the middle of the debate.

net benefits: n. A competitiveness standard stating that the counterplan alone is a superior policy to adoption of both the counterplan and the affirmative plan together.

net-widening: n. this argument says that as the government expands the role of social services to be offered, they will expand the intrusiveness of the government into the life of the individual and community becoming increasingly tyrannical until all freedom is lost.

new world order: n. a generic disadvantage which can be argued in two directions. The disad could argue that increased US strength and credibility could encourage US intervention in global affairs resulting in military confrontations. Or, the disad could argue that decreased US strength and credibility could encourage global chaos because a strong, hegemonic US is needed to encourage global stability.

North-South: n. a generic disadvantage which argues that increased exploitation or decreased influence in the nations of the Third World will result in increasing resentment between the poor countries in the Southern hemisphere and the wealthy countries in the Northern Hemisphere.

Objectivism: n. based on the philosophy of author Ayn Rand, the argument says individual freedom is the most important value. All government regulations innately infringe on individuals and is therefore evil. Only complete freedom from government controls can allow the human race to achieve its full potential.

patriarchy: n. a generic negative argument which says that whatever policy or value presented by the affirmative entrenches the "mindset" of patriarchy. Patriarchy is a social system which relies upon authoritative power structures. The negative argues that this system of governance should be rejected. The argument is frequently used to prove that even granting feminists power is not good if the feminists also support the patriarchal system.

permutation: n. a type of argument used by affirmatives to illustrate non-competitiveness of counterplans. Affirmatives argue that, despite the texts of the plan and the counterplan, if it is possible to imagine the coexistence of the two plans, then the negative has not illustrated why the resolution should not be adopted. (see

competitiveness)

philosophical competition; n. a standard of competition for counterplans which argues that since the two plans under consideration have different philosophical approaches they are exclusive of one another.

PIC: see "plan-inclusive counterplan"

plan attack: n. arguments directed at an affirmative policy itself (eg, plan-met-need, disadvantage, workability).

plan-inclusive counterplan (PIC): n. A counterplan that substantially replicates the plan mandates, with only minor changes. In this sense, the counterplan "includes," or contains, most of the actions taken by the plan.

plan mandates: n. the resolutional action specified in the affirmative plan.

plan-meet-need (PMN): n. an argument claiming that a plan does not solve the need. Usually a subdivided and structured argument presented in second negative constructive.

plan-side: n. that part of the flow on which arguments are written about the plan.

plan-spike: n. a part of a plan designed to aid the workability of the plan or diminish its disadvantages.

policy-making: n. a philosophy that debate rounds should be evaluated from the perspective of pseudo-legislator weighing the advantages and disadvantages of two conflicting policy systems.

political disads: n. (see disadvantages) these are arguments which indicate that the political consequences of passing the plan will lead to impacts which will outweigh the case.

political capital: n. the amount of good will a politician can muster to get policies enacted. In debate this argument says passing the plan will consume so much political capital that those enacting the plan will have to sacrifice other important issues on their political agenda. The capital expended passing the plan sacrifices the capital necessary to get other policies passed.

political focus: n. the ability of political leaders to concentrate on the particular issues. In debate, the argument says that passing the affirmative plan will require so much energy and time, that policymakers will be unable to get other more important issues passed.

political popularity: n. the approval rating of a politician. In debate, the argument considers the public approval of the plan. If the plan is unpopular, policymakers will lose credibility making it nearly impossible to pass other more important plans. If the plan is popular, it may boost the credibility of policymakers, making it easier to get other less desirable plans passed.

postmodernism: n. Although the various people who write "postmodern" theory don't really agree on what it means to be "postmodern," there are a couple of common elements of postmodernism. Postmodern authors often claim that we cannot know what is and is not true because truth is a product of culture. They often indict scientific reasoning, especially the argument that only science can tell us how to view the world. Many postmodern authors claim that policymakers focus too much on solutions, when they ought to be investigating the philosophical and linguistic nature of the problem instead. Critiques based on postmodern philosophy usually point out the ways in which the affirmative relies on faulty assumptions about truth.

posthumanism: n. see "postmodernism"

preemption or preempt: n. an argument designed to respond to another argument that has not been made, but is anticipated.

presumption: n. 1) the assumption that a system should be adhered to unless there is a clear reason to change it. 2) the assumption in hypothesis-testing that the resolution is presumed false until alternatives are shown to be inferior.

prep time: n. the time allotted to each team for getting ready for their speeches once the debate has begun.

prima-facie: n. the requirement that the affirmative present a case that is acceptable upon first hearing.

proliferation (or "prolif"): n. the acquisition of nuclear weapons by an increasing number of countries in the world. When either team talks about "proliferation," they are generally referring to the possibility of one or more countries getting access to nuclear weapons who do not currently have nukes. Sometimes, "prolif" is a generic disadvantage which claims that the expansion of nuclear weapons capability to more countries is increased or decreased by policies supported by the affirmative. The consequences under either condition are increased instability and terrorism thereby increasing the risks of nuclear war. slang; prolif good or prolif bad. It can also be argued that proliferation of nuclear weapons is good because nukes deter aggression and increase caution.

punishment: n. a type of argument which indicates that the team has created an unfair or unethical situation and should lose the debate regardless of the outcome of any other issue in the round.

reasonability: n. a topicality standard which indicates that the affirmative only need offer a definition which is not excessively broad and would appear legitimate at first glance.

rebuttal: n. Any of the last four speeches in a debate. During rebuttals, new arguments are usually not allowed.

redundancy: n. this standard argues that if the counterplan can achieve the affirmative advantage then the affirmative has not demonstrated that the advantage is an inherent result of the resolution.

refutation: n. direct response to an opponent's argument.

resolution: n. A proposition of fact, value, or policy which the affirmative is obligated to support; topic, a statement which focuses debate by dividing argument ground on any given issue.

reify: v. using language that makes "false" or "illusory" things seem real and/or legitimate. Some critics might say that advocating aid for minorities actually makes racism more legitimate because it "reifies" the idea of race. These critics argue that, because there is no biological basis for race, targeting people of specific races for help supports (or "reifies") the false notion of race, thus legitimizing racism.

retrench: v. to reinforce the present system. Usually occurring in discussions of critiques, the argument says that the effect of a policy is to reinforce the prevailing attitudes in the status quo. Thus, the problems which exist won't be solved and may worsen.

rights malthus: n. a generic disadvantage or counterplan based upon the writings of William N. Ophuls. The argument is based on the theory that the expansion of libertarian states must end because libertarian ideals increase consumption of limited world resources. The disadvantage usually argues that libertarian ideas are coming to an end and that any delay in foreclosing that state will risk thermonuclear destruction through competitive resources wars.

risk analysis: n. the theory and procedure of claiming that one hundred percent certainty is not needed to act and that the level of certainty that does exist is sufficient basis for policy decisions.

sandbag: vb. to delay in presenting the impact of an argument until a later speech.

scenario: n. a term used to describe the type of situation which might exist when the impact to an advantage or disadvantage would occur.

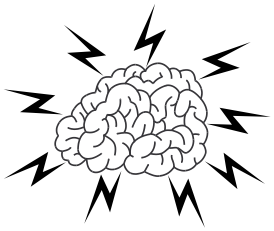
shift: vb. to alter in a later speech one's position on an issue.

should-would argumentation: n. the suggestion that a plan, counterplan, or minor repair will not be adopted when all that is being discussed is what should be adopted.

significance: n. the measure, qualitative or quantitative, of the need claimed by the affirmative.

social spending disadvantage (also known as budget cuts): n. a generic disadvantage that argues that the cost of the plan will be taken from programs that could better use the money.

socialism: n. a generic disadvantage or counterplan which argues that reforming the government



WARNING: Learning too many debate terms can overload your fragile brain, causing headaches.

through existing systems only increases the problems of capitalism and delays a transition to a socialist state.

solvency: n. 1) the ability of the affirmative plan to solve the problem, meet the need, reduce the significance. 2) the ability of any plan or minor repair to effect reductions in the problem areas cited by the affirmative.

species: n. an affirmative advantage or a generic negative disadvantage which argues that disruption of ecosystems will result in loss of major species and subsequent loss of the ecosystem.

spread: vb. to introduce a large number of arguments in to the debate, usually by speaking at a very rapid rate. n. a description of the process of delivering many arguments.

squirrel case: n. an affirmative approach which isolates an obscure area of the topic to justify the resolution.

standards: n. a set of criteria which allows the judge to evaluate the superiority of competing arguments. cf., topicality standards or competition standards.

status quo: n. the present system, the way things are now, the world as we know it exists now.

stock issues: n., those issues that the affirmative must substantiate, i.e., significance, inherency, solvency and topicality, in order to win a debate. n. a paradigm or perspective for evaluating rounds based on the notion that the affirmative has to meet the burdens of significance, inherency, solving and topicality.

structure: n. the outline of the arguments.

subpoints: n. a specific supporting part of an argumentative structure.

topicality: n. 1) the quality or condition of falling under the range of the resolution's possibilities. 2) an argument suggesting that the affirmative plan does not come under the resolution.

topicality standards: n. a set of criteria designed to aid the judge in evaluating the topicality argument.

turn-around (turn): n. an argument against a disadvantage claiming that the impact is solved by the plan more than the status quo (a.k.a. a "link flip"), or that the impact is actually good (a.k.a. an "impact flip").

uniqueness: n. that component of a disadvantage which illustrates that the disadvantage impact which the negative claims results only from the adoption of the affirmative plan. That is, the disadvantage impact would not occur absent the affirmative plan.

value objection: n. an argument used primarily in nonpolicy debate which argues that there exists a competing value to the affirmative value. The argument has to be proven to be more important than the affirmative value.

voting issue: n. an argument which justifies voting for the team that initiated the argument. For example, topicality, critiques, and counterplan competitiveness are frequently considered voting issues.

warming: see global warming

whole resolution or (whole res): n. a generic nonpolicy debate argument which says that the resolution must be debated in a holistic manner to determine its probable truth. Usually the negative must establish some form of standard to measure when it is possible to induce the truth of the resolution.

world government (or WOMP): a generic counterplan derived from the World Order Models Project (W.O.M.P.) commissioned to study the feasibility of a world government. The argument's underlying premise is that each action taken by a sovereign state (as called for by many debate resolutions) increases the impediments to achieving a new world order. The negative therefore argues a World Government should be established to accomplish the objectives of the affirmative and prevent wars between nations.