

DEBATING

Simon Quinn

Available free at www.learndebating.com.

This book is dedicated to Andrew Denby,
who repeatedly encouraged me to start writing this book.
He was a good friend and a really nice guy.

First published in Australia in 2005.

Published electronically by the author in Brisbane, Queensland.

Copyright © Simon Quinn 2005

All rights reserved. Apart from any fair dealing for the purposes of study, research, criticism, or review as permitted under the Copyright Act, no part of this book may be reproduced by any process without permission. Copyright owners may take legal action against a person or organisation that infringes their copyright through unauthorised copying. Inquiries should be directed to the author.

Permission is given for this book, or any part of it, to be downloaded, printed and copied from the website www.learndebating.com. However, without the author's further express permission, you may *not*:

- provide any part of this book for download from any other website,
- profit in any way from the printing, distribution or promotion of any part of this book,
- modify in any way any part of this book,
- represent – explicitly or implicitly – that any part of this book is the work of any other author.

First they came for the Communists, but I was not a Communist so I did not speak out.

Then they came for the Socialists and the Trade Unionists, but I was neither, so I did not speak out.

Then they came for the Jews, but I was not a Jew so I did not speak out.

And when they came for me, there was no one left to speak out for me.

German Protestant Pastor Martin Niemoeller

Every idea is an incitement. It offers itself to belief and if believed is acted upon unless some other belief outweighs it or some failure of energy stifles the movement at its birth. The only difference between the expression of an opinion and an incitement in the narrowest sense is the speaker's enthusiasm for the result; eloquence may set fire to reason.

*Supreme Court Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, dissenting in
Gitlow v The State of New York (1925) 268 US 652*

Free speech is life itself.

Salman Rushdie

CONTENTS

Page

BEGINNER

INTRODUCTION	1
DEBATING: A BASIC INTRODUCTION	3

CHAPTER ONE: PREPARATION

PREPARATION: THE BIG PICTURE	8
------------------------------------	---

STEP ONE: THE ISSUE AND DEFINITION	10
--	----

FINDING THE BATTLEGROUND	10
--------------------------------	----

FINDING THE ISSUE	10
-------------------------	----

THE DEFINITION	12
----------------------	----

WHAT IS THE DEFINITION?	12
-------------------------------	----

HOW TO DEFINE A TOPIC	12
-----------------------------	----

LIMITING TOPICS BY DEFINITION	14
-------------------------------------	----

THE NEED FOR A NEUTRAL DEFINITION	15
---	----

THE RIGHT OF DEFINITION	17
-------------------------------	----

NO EXCLUSIVE RIGHT	17
--------------------------	----

MORE REASONABLE	18
-----------------------	----

CLOSER TO THE 'REAL' ISSUE OF THE TOPIC	18
---	----

THE EXCLUSIVE RIGHT	20
---------------------------	----

TRIGGERS	21
----------------	----

TRIGGERS FOR <i>WHAT</i> YOUR TEAM NEEDS TO PROVE	21
---	----

'SHOULD'	21
----------------	----

WHEN 'SHOULD' DOESN'T MEAN 'A MORAL AND PRACTICAL IMPERATIVE'	22
---	----

WHEN OTHER WORDS MEAN 'A MORAL AND PRACTICAL IMPERATIVE'	23
--	----

'TOO'	24
-------------	----

'FAILED'	24
----------------	----

'BIG, RED BALL' TOPICS	25
------------------------------	----

TRIGGERS FOR THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOUR TEAM NEEDS TO PROVE ITS ARGUMENT	26
--	----

GENERAL TRUTH	27
---------------------	----

ABSOLUTES	28
-----------------	----

'JUSTIFY' TOPICS	29
------------------------	----

THE CONFUSING WORDS 'WE' AND 'OUR'	30
--	----

TRIGGERS FOR DEVELOPING YOUR CASE	31
---	----

COMPARISON DEBATES	31
--------------------------	----

DEBATES ABOUT A PARTICULAR 'AGE' OR 'GENERATION'	32
--	----

TRIGGERS FOR DISCLAIMERS	33
--------------------------------	----

SPECULATIVE DEBATES	33
---------------------------	----

SENSITIVITIES	33
---------------------	----

INTERMEDIATE

	STEP TWO: THE CASE APPROACH	35
<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE 'THEME' OR 'CASELINE'	35
	HOW OFTEN SHOULD THE THEME BE USED?	36
	HOW SHOULD THE THEME BE PRESENTED?	36
<i>INTERMEDIATE</i>	THE TEAM STANCE	37
	A MODEL	38
	HOW SPECIFIC DOES THE MODEL NEED TO BE?	38
	AN ALTERNATIVE FROM THE NEGATIVE	39
	IS THE ALTERNATIVE REALLY NECESSARY?	41
	IS THE ALTERNATIVE MUTUALLY EXCLUSIVE TO THE TOPIC?	42
	THE INVALID NEGATIVE	43
	DRAWING A 'LINE IN THE SAND'	43
	A STANCE ON ASSOCIATED ISSUES	46
	IGNORING YOUR MODEL OR STANCE	48
	HOW NOT TO REBUT MODELS	48
	<i>ADVANCED</i>	THE STRATEGY OF CASE DEVELOPMENT
DEBATING: A GAME		50
PLAYING HARDBALL		51
FEAR COMPLEXITY, NOT CONTROVERSY		53
PLAYING HARDBALL IS A WHOLE CASE APPROACH		56
ARGUING 'TOO MUCH'		57
1. BE AWARE THAT YOU DON'T NEED TO FIGHT EVERY LOGICAL PART OF THE TOPIC		57
2. BEWARE THE TEMPTATION TO MAKE YOUR CASE SOUND 'TOO GOOD'		58
3. BE SPECIFIC		59
CRITERIA		60
WHAT ARE CRITERIA IN DEBATING?		60
USING CRITERIA		62
SETTING UP YOUR CRITERIA		62
REFERRING BACK TO CRITERIA		62
TAKING CRITERIA 'TOO FAR'		63
'CRITERIA' – A LOADED TERM	65	
CRITERIA – KEY POINTS	65	
	STEP THREE: THE ARGUMENTS	66
<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE BASIC APPROACH	66
	WHAT DO WE MEAN BY AN 'ARGUMENT'?	66
	WHY DO WE NEED DISTINCT ARGUMENTS?	66
	THE BASIC STRUCTURE OF AN ARGUMENT	67
	HOW MANY ARGUMENTS DO YOU NEED?	69
<i>INTERMEDIATE</i>	EXAMPLES	69
	ANALYSIS OF EXAMPLES	71
	WEAK ANALYSIS: A CASE STUDY	71
	ADDING MORE EXAMPLES	73
	STATISTICS	74
	OTHER ALTERNATIVES TO EXAMPLES	74
	FINDING MATTER	76
	NEWS AND CURRENT AFFAIRS	76
	RESEARCH	76
	FABRICATING MATTER	77

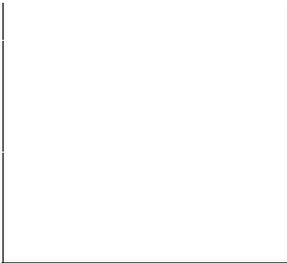
	CREDIBILITY IN PRESENTING MATTER	77
	‘HOME TURF’ EXAMPLES	78
	USE OF SUBSTANTIATION ELSEWHERE IN YOUR CASE	79
	SOPHISTICATION IN EXPLANATION	80
<i>ADVANCED</i>	TESTING YOUR ARGUMENTS	82
	SPECIFIC WEAKNESSES	82
	INCONSISTENCY	82
	INSIGNIFICANCE	83
	ARGUMENTS THAT ARE TOO GENERAL	83
	IRRELEVANCE	84
	DEPENDENT ARGUMENTS	84
	CONCLUSION TO STEP THREE	86
	STEP FOUR: THE SPLIT	87
<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE BASIC CONCEPT	87
	CHOOSING THE GROUPINGS	87
<i>INTERMEDIATE</i>	A ‘HUNG CASE’	88
	COMMON SPLITS	90
	WHERE TO START?	90
	MATTER SPLITS	91
	STEP FIVE: PREPARING INDIVIDUAL SPEECHES	93
<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE NEED FOR STRUCTURE	93
	SPEAKER ROLES	93
	SIGNPOSTING	95
	A FORMAL INTRODUCTION	95
	A BRIEF INTRODUCTION	96
	SETTING UP YOUR TEAM’S APPROACH	96
	A BRIEF LINK TO THE TEAM CASE	97
	THE OUTLINE AND SUMMARY	97
	A CONCLUSION	98
	TIMING	98
	TEAMWORK IN PREPARATION	100
	INTRODUCTION	100
<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE BASICS	100
	BASIC STEPS	100
	BRAINSTORMING	100
	FEEDING BACK	101
	CASE DEVELOPMENT	102
	WRITING SPEECHES	102
	FINAL DISCUSSIONS	103
RESOLVING DIFFERENCES OF OPINION	103	
<i>INTERMEDIATE</i>	SHORT PREPARATION BEFORE THE DEBATE	104
	THE BASIC TIMING	105
	HASTENING SLOWLY	105
<i>ADVANCED</i>	LEADERSHIP	106
	SHORT PREPARATION DURING THE DEBATE	107
	DECIDING TO ABANDON YOUR CASE	107
	START WITH THE ‘BIG PICTURE’	108

CHAPTER TWO: REBUTTAL 109

<i>BEGINNER</i>	THE IMPORTANCE OF REBUTTAL	110
	WHAT SHOULD YOU REBUT?	110
	REBUTTING YOUR OPPOSITION’S THEME	111
	REBUTTING EXAMPLES AND STATISTICS	112
	REBUTTING REBUTTAL	112
	THE IMPORTANCE OF BEING THOROUGH	113
	PREPARING FOR REBUTTAL	113
<i>INTERMEDIATE</i>	DEFINITIONAL REBUTTAL	114
	DEFINITIONAL RULES REVISITED	114
	DECIDING TO REBUT YOUR OPPOSITION’S	115
	DEFINITION	115
	HOW TO REBUT THE DEFINITION	116
	DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGES AND THEIR	117
	IMPACT ON THE DEBATE AS A WHOLE	117
	THE DEFINITIONAL ‘EVEN IF’	119
	DEALING WITH AN UNREASONABLE	121
	DEFINITION	121
	PARALLEL CASES: A SPECIAL ISSUE	122
	THE INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF A REBUTTAL POINT	122
	THE OVERALL STRUCTURE OF REBUTTAL	124
STARTING YOUR REBUTTAL	124	
STRATEGIC ALLOCATION OF REBUTTAL TIME	124	
FIRST AND SECOND SPEAKER STRUCTURE	125	
THIRD SPEAKER STRUCTURE	126	
<i>ADVANCED</i>	KEY GROUNDS FOR REBUTTAL	128
	LOGICAL IRRELEVANCE	128
	INSIGNIFICANCE	129
	THE TECHNIQUE OF CONCESSION	130
	FACTUAL INACCURACY	130
	UNSUBSTANTIATED ASSERTIONS	132
	UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS	132
	CAUSATION	134
	CONTRADICTIONS	134
	MISREPRESENTATION	135
CUMULATIVE REBUTTAL	136	
CONCLUSION	137	

CHAPTER THREE: MANNER 139

<i>GENERAL</i>	INTRODUCTION	140
	BEING YOURSELF	140
	VISUAL PRESENTATION	141
	START FROM THE VERY BEGINNING	141
	EYE CONTACT	141
	GESTURE	142
	STANCE	143
	MANNERISMS	143
	VOCAL PRESENTATION	144
	SPEED	144
	VOLUME	144



VARIATION 145

VERBAL PRESENTATION 145

 THE IMPORTANCE OF CLARITY 146

 HUMOUR 147

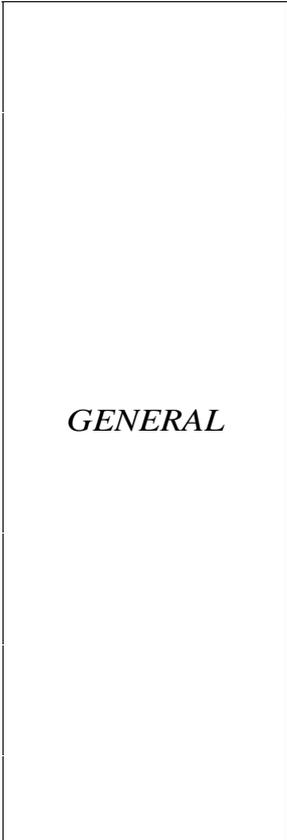
GENERAL POINTERS 149

 USING PALM CARDS EFFECTIVELY 149

 THE IMPORTANCE OF CONTEXT 151

CHAPTER FOUR: 153

POINTS OF INFORMATION AND REPLY SPEECHES



POINTS OF INFORMATION 154

 WHAT ARE POINTS OF INFORMATION? 154

 OFFERING POINTS OF INFORMATION 154

 HOW MANY POINTS SHOULD YOU OFFER? 154

 WHEN SHOULD YOU OFFER POINTS OF INFORMATION? 155

 HOW SHOULD YOU OFFER POINTS OF INFORMATION? 156

 HOW SHOULD YOU DELIVER A POINT WHEN YOU ARE ACCEPTED? 157

 RESPONDING TO POINTS OF INFORMATION 158

 HOW MANY POINTS OF INFORMATION SHOULD YOU ACCEPT? 158

 WHEN SHOULD YOU ACCEPT POINTS OF INFORMATION? 159

 HOW SHOULD YOU DECLINE A POINT OF INFORMATION? 159

 HOW SHOULD YOU ACCEPT A POINT OF INFORMATION AND RESPOND? 159

REPLY SPEECHES 162

 WHAT ARE REPLY SPEECHES? 162

 THE AIM OF A GOOD REPLY SPEECH 162

 THE STRUCTURE OF A REPLY SPEECH 163

 CHOOSING THE ISSUES 164

 THE INTERACTION BETWEEN REPLY SPEECHES AND THIRD SPEECHES 165

 MANNER AND REPLY SPEECHES 166

CHAPTER FIVE: 167

GAMES, ACTIVITIES, GUIDE SHEETS AND TOPICS



GAMES AND ACTIVITIES 168

GUIDE SHEETS 179

TOPICS 184

CONCLUSION 203



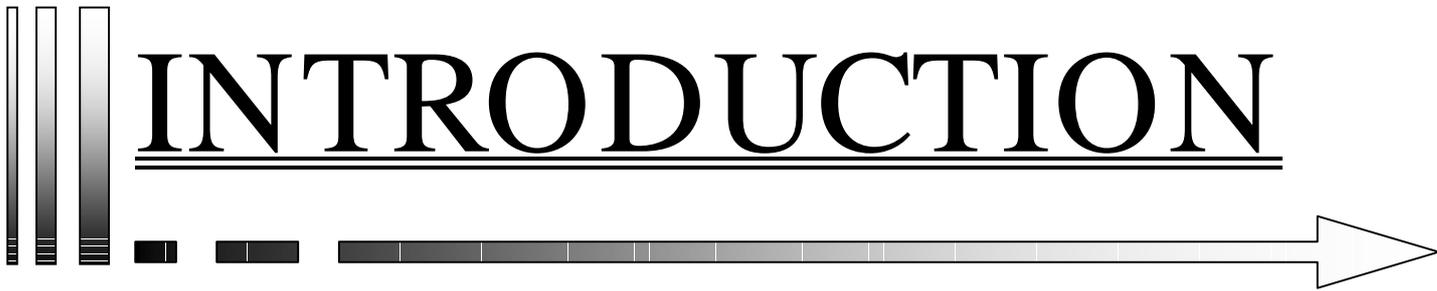
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I really don't know where to start. The people who have contributed, either directly or indirectly, to my understanding of debating and to the creation of this book are simply too numerous to mention or exhaustively acknowledge. So let me choose a few.

Most importantly, I owe immeasurable thanks and acknowledgement to Andrea Coomber. I had the privilege of being coached by Andrea in the Australian Schools Debating Team in 1999 and 2000. It is no exaggeration to say that, during that time, Andrea changed fundamentally both my understanding of debating and my approach to preparing cases. Andrea has also provided invaluable assistance in reviewing drafts of this text. Without Andrea's ideas and support, I would almost certainly not have written this book – and if I had, I would not have had much to put in it. Of course, the book's mistakes, omissions, misconceptions and other strange ideas remain mine alone!

Many thanks also to Cate Mapstone and to Chris Erskine. Cate coached me in the Queensland Schools team in 1997, 1998 and 1999; Chris travelled as an adjudicator with the Australian Schools team in 1999 and 2000. Both have given innumerable hours over many years to help young debaters improve their debating. I have benefited immensely and in so many ways from having been one of those debaters. I must also thank Adam Spencer – not for the thrashing he gave our team in 1998, but for giving me permission to reprint part of it in Chapter One!

Finally, my thanks to all the people whom I debated with – particularly my team mates in representative teams: Ryan Goss, Tessa Khan, Imogen Saunders, Vanessa Collins, Richard Howard, Sarah Kennedy, Liz Strakosch, Kate Barnett, James Fisher, Michael Knapp, Erin O'Brien, Devaang Kevat and Kateena O'Gorman. I think we learned a lot together, but most importantly, I think we had a lot of fun.



INTRODUCTION

When was the last time that you debated?

Was it today? Yesterday? Perhaps even last week?

If you said, “never”, you are wrong. Everyone has debated, and almost everyone has debated more recently than they think. If you said, “never”, or “not since the end of the last debating season”, you obviously think of debating as something formal; an activity involving two teams of three speakers each, with a set topic and an adjudicator. That is certainly one style of debating – the style discussed in this book. However, it is not the only style. Debating is all around us; on the television, in the newspapers, and in our own homes. As a society, we debate about almost everything - from tax reform to mowing the lawn. Debating is everywhere, and everyone can do it.

What’s more, *debating is fun!* Debating gives you the chance to meet new people and new ideas. Best of all, you have the opportunity to stand up and argue with someone in public, in a stimulating and organised dispute about real issues. That’s what this book is about – improving your skills of formal argument. Hopefully, this book will help you to develop the right skills and strategies to be a successful debater. Most of all, this book should help you to make debating fun.

This is a book to make debating as simple as possible. Many people imagine that debating becomes more complicated and more abstract as debaters develop. It should not. Instead, even if topics become more abstract and the subject matter more technical, the debating itself should become simpler. There is very little skill required to make a complicated concept sound complicated. The challenge is to make complicated concepts easy to follow and simple to understand. It is a challenge that all debaters should set themselves. It is certainly a challenge I set myself in writing this book.

How to use this book

Very few skills can be learned by reading alone. If you are learning to play the piano, you need to sit down and start striking the keys; if you want to play cricket, you need to pick up a bat. The same is true of debating. You can’t learn debating simply by reading a book – you need to stand up and ‘give it a go’. Only by ‘giving it a go’ – by

putting theory into practice – will you really understand the challenges and techniques of good debating.

This book is written for all debaters – from those who have never debated before to those who have significant experience. It is also written for the people who coach and support them. However, this does *not* mean that every section of this book will be relevant or helpful for every debater and every coach. A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step, and the process of learning how to debate is indeed a journey.

For this reason, many concepts in this book are divided into ‘levels’. There are three levels: ‘beginner’, ‘intermediate’ and ‘advanced’.

‘BEGINNER’ refers to debaters who have limited or no experience. If you are about to start debating, or you have only debated for one or two years, this is probably the level for you.

‘INTERMEDIATE’ refers to debaters who understand the basics well. If you have debated for more than two years, this is probably the level for you.

‘ADVANCED’ refers to debaters who understand the basics completely, who are very comfortable with the ‘INTERMEDIATE’ techniques, and who are looking for a challenge. If you are debating in a strong senior side at school, or you are in a representative team, this is probably your level.

I suggest that you only read up to your ‘level’. If you are a ‘BEGINNER’, read that level. If you consider yourself ‘INTERMEDIATE’, read the ‘BEGINNER’ *and* ‘INTERMEDIATE’ sections. If you are ‘ADVANCED’, read the entire book! I suggest that coaches read up to the level of the team that they are coaching.

Hopefully, no part of this book is particularly complicated. It is entirely possible that a new debater might read the ‘ADVANCED’ sections and think, “I understand that! I will follow those techniques in my next debate!”. However, this misses the point. Understanding the words and concepts of a section is one thing: it is another thing to know how and when to use specific techniques. Debating techniques are something that you, as a debater, need to ‘come to’ in your own time and with your own experience. My suggestion, therefore, is simple: ***Read up to your ‘level’. Go away and debate – try to put the techniques from your ‘level’ into practice. When you are comfortable with those techniques, come back and read the next ‘level’.***

In this way, this book should stay relevant for your debating as you improve. This book is not an instant ‘fix all’ for every debating challenge: it is a travel guide for a long and interesting journey!

DEBATING: A BASIC INTRODUCTION

BEGINNER

Let's start at the beginning. Every debate needs a topic. This is a contentious assertion that forms the basis for the debate. For example, the topic might be "THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND" or "THAT THE UNITED NATIONS HAS FAILED".

This book relates to a specific but common style of debate. It is the style used in most schools throughout Australia and in many other countries, at the Australian National Schools Debating Championships and at the World Schools Debating Championships. In this style, there are two teams in every debate. One team is required to argue that the topic is *true*. This team is called the 'affirmative', or sometimes the 'proposition'. The other team is required to argue that the topic is *not true*. This team is called the 'negative', or sometimes the 'opposition'.

Each team uses two basic types of argument to support for its side of the topic. First, there are *substantive arguments*. These are prepared arguments in favour of a team's side of the topic. Second, there is *rebuttal*. Rebuttal is your attack on your opposition's arguments. The difference between substantive arguments and rebuttal is the distinction between showing why your team is *right* and showing why your opposition is *wrong*. It is impossible to say whether substantive arguments or rebuttal are more important – each is just as important as the other, and each is vital for successful debating.

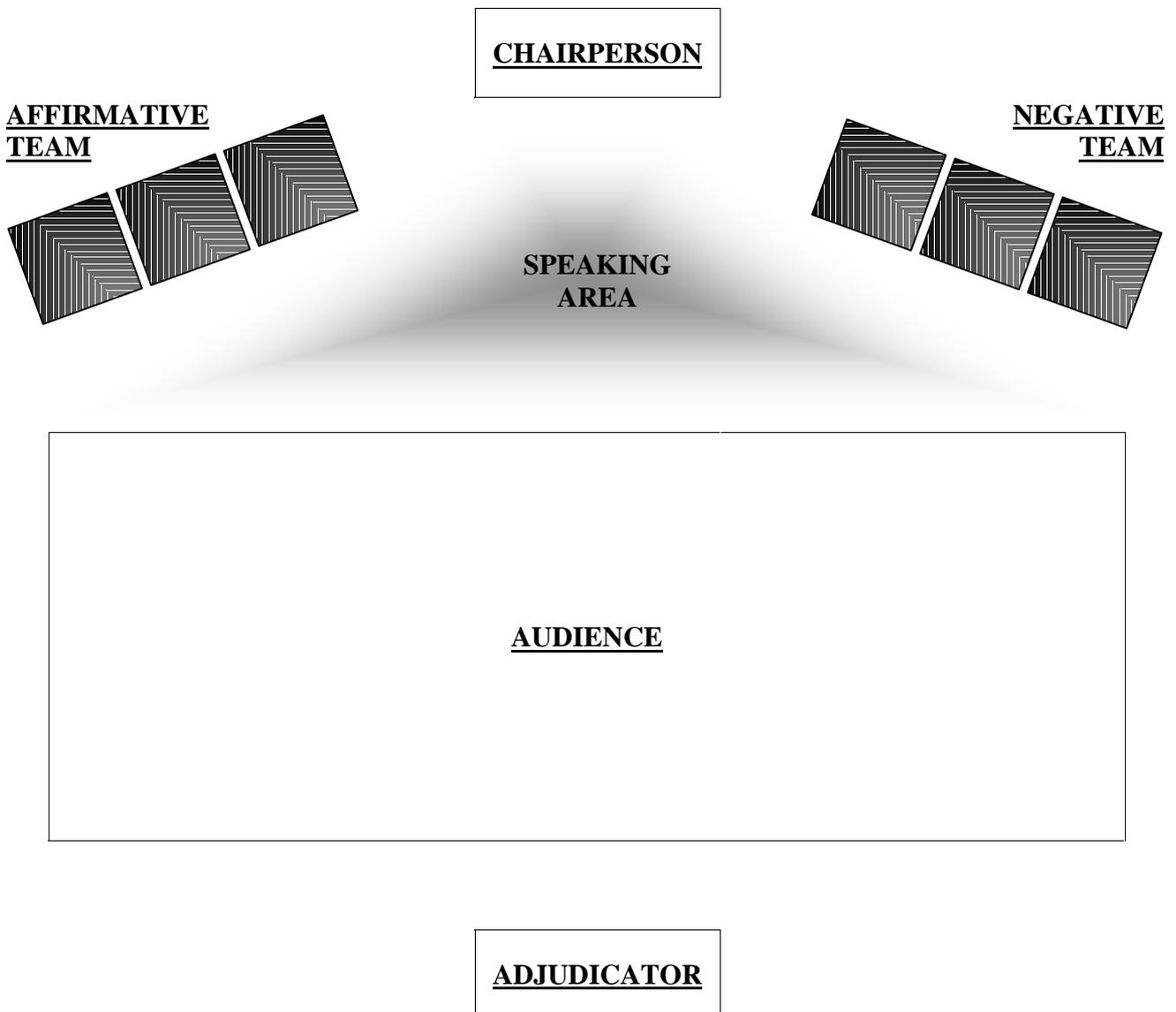
There are three speakers on each team. Speakers are usually identified by their speaking number and their team side. For example, debaters might speak of the 'First Affirmative' (the first speaker of the affirmative team), or the 'Third Negative' (the

Introduction

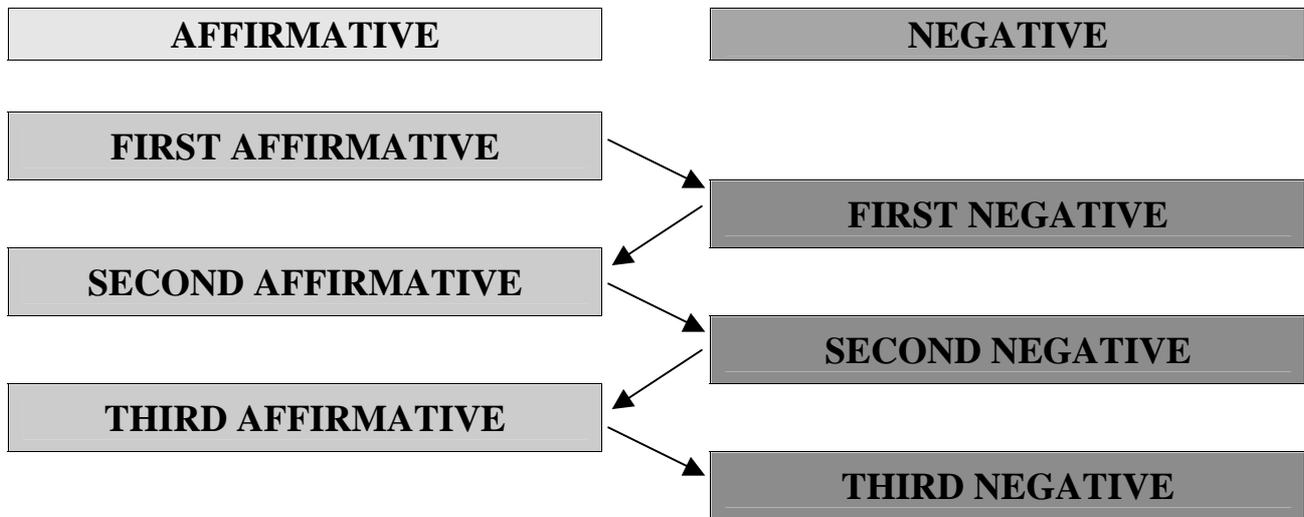
third speaker of the negative team). Every speaker except the First Affirmative (the first speaker in the entire debate) is expected to rebut his or her opposition. The first and second speakers on both teams are also expected to present substantive arguments. The third speeches, therefore, are used for rebuttal and summary.

The debate is ‘controlled’ by a ‘chair’ (also referred to as a ‘chairperson’). Debaters should always start their speeches by acknowledging both the chair and the audience. A male chair is usually referred to as “Mr Chairman”; a female chair as “Madame Chair”. A common way of starting a debating speech is therefore, “Mr Chairman, ladies and gentlemen”, or “Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen”. It is the duty of the chair to call each speaker in turn. For example, the chair might introduce the first speaker of the debate by saying, “It is now my pleasure to introduce the first speaker of the affirmative team, to open her team’s case, Julie.” A suggested list of a chairperson’s duties is provided in Chapter Five.

The following diagram shows the basic lay-out of a debate in this style.



Participants speak in order, alternating sides. The affirmative team speaks first. The following diagram shows this.



Every debate has a result – one team wins and one team loses. There cannot be a draw. The result is decided and announced by the adjudicator – somebody who has watched and followed the debate carefully in order to decide the result. Adjudicators are not allowed to make random or arbitrary decisions – they must follow clear guidelines about what is, and is not, good debating. Of course, debaters and audience members will often disagree with an adjudicator’s decision, and sometimes adjudicators disagree with each other. However, this is part of the challenge of debating: to debate well enough that you can persuade *any* adjudicator that you deserve to win the debate.

Adjudicators use three categories to consider debates:

- ⇒ Manner describes the *way* that a particular speech is presented: ‘how you say it’. For example, how interesting, sincere or humorous is the speaker? In Australia, the average mark for manner is 30, but scores generally range from 28 to 32.
- ⇒ Matter describes the arguments that you present, both in their general strength and in the way that you support and explain them. Like manner, the average mark for matter is 30, but scores generally range from 28 to 32.
- ⇒ Method describes the *structure* of your speech. It can often become a ‘mixed bag’ category involving all those parts of your speech that don’t seem to fit into either manner or matter. The average mark for method is 15. Scores will generally range from 14 to 16.

The World Schools Debating Championships use the similar categories of **style**, **content** and **strategy**.

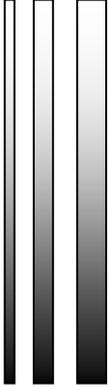
- ⇒ Style equates to manner. At the World Schools Debating Championships, the average mark is 28, but scores range generally from 24 to 32.
- ⇒ Content equates to matter. The marking scheme is the same as for style.
- ⇒ Strategy equates (broadly, at least) to method. The average mark is 14, with marks ranging from 12 to 16.

It is important to consider the weightings of these categories. First, matter and manner (content and style) are weighted equally. Many debaters and supporters automatically assume that a team that presents well should win the debate – this is not necessarily the case. Second, method (strategy) is only weighted half as significantly as matter and manner, but is still significant nonetheless. Many debaters and supporters discount the importance of method, seeing it as a ‘poor cousin’ to matter and manner. However, although it is weighted less, method can and does directly affect the outcome of many debates.

Regardless of how effective the categories are in evaluating speeches, or which marking scheme is being used, they are not very effective in explaining or teaching debating. This is largely because method and matter (content and strategy) are very closely linked - if you structure your speech well, you will naturally present a stronger argument. Similarly, a strong, clear argument is impossible without at least some structure. Therefore, if you try to prepare debates by separating matter and method, you risk becoming confused and complicating your arguments.

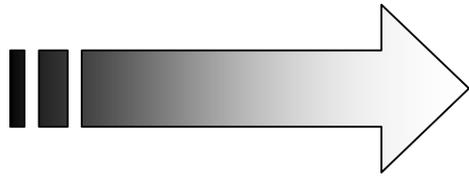
Although many good books divide their explanation into the traditional categories of manner, matter and method, I have divided this book into what I consider to be the best three categories for teaching debating: Preparation, Rebuttal and Manner. The first two categories together cover matter and method. The third category, as the name suggests, is the traditional category of manner - it covers the *way* that you deliver your speech.

So let us begin!



CHAPTER ONE: PREPARATION





preparation: the 'big picture'

BEGINNER

To win a debate, you must do two things:

1. Give good reasons why your side of the topic is *true*, and
2. Show why your opposition's reasons are *wrong* (rebuttal).

We will discuss rebuttal in Chapter Two. For now, we are concerned with the first point. Your group of prepared ideas about why your side of the topic is true is known as your 'case'.

To prepare a case, you really need to do three things:

1. You need to decide what the words of the topic mean *for the purposes of this debate*. This is known as your '**definition**'.
2. You need to think of some reasons why your side of the topic is true. These reasons are known as your '**arguments**'. As debaters, we try to join our arguments together into a single '**case approach**'.
3. You then need to divide your arguments between your first and second speakers, so that each speaker knows what he or she has to present. This process is known as the '**split**'.

This chapter is about that preparation process. We start by discussing the best way to find the *issue* of your debate, and how to *define* the words in the topic to reflect that issue (**Step One**). We then move on to examine the best way to develop your *overall case approach*. This is **Step Two**. Once your team has decided upon a case approach, you are ready to start developing your individual *arguments*. This is **Step Three**.

Step Four explains the best way to divide those arguments between your first and second speakers: that is, it deals with the *split*. Once your team has split the arguments, the first and second speaker are ready to *prepare their individual speeches*. This is **Step Five**. Finally, we will examine some effective overall techniques for *team preparation*.



step one: the issue and definition

BEGINNER

FINDING THE BATTLEGROUND

All great historical battles had one thing in common: at least both sides came to the right address! This section is about finding where the battleground should be (identifying the issue) and setting the battle at that location (defining the topic for the debate). This should be the first step in your preparation.

FINDING THE ISSUE

The first step in preparing any debate is working out the issue for the debate. Your team should agree on the issue before proceeding to *any* other preparation. Often, this will be very easy; the topic itself will tell you the issue. The first principle is simple: **where there is a clear issue, debate that issue!**

For example, let's take the topic "THAT THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD BAN SMOKING". Wouldn't it be clever to say that "smoking" means "smoking marijuana"? Wouldn't it be crafty if "smoking" was a reference to campfires in National Parks? In a word, **NO**. Although these other issues might make for interesting debates on other occasions, the topic in this case is plain and clear; it is a reference to tobacco smoking. This is how most people would read the topic, and this is therefore the issue that you should debate.

On other occasions, however, the issue will not be absolutely clear. The second principle of issue-spotting is that, in these cases, you need to **find the issue that is most obvious, most relevant, or most debatable**. Above all, remember to debate about an *issue*. For example, suppose you have the topic "THAT THE CARROT IS BETTER THAN THE STICK". This is obviously intended to be a metaphor; if you read the topic literally, you would spend an entire debate discussing the pros and cons of carrots and sticks! In this case, the most debatable issue is whether incentive (the carrot) is more effective than the threat of punishment (the stick).

On some very rare occasions, there is no issue that appears most obvious, most relevant or most debatable. For example, consider the topic “THAT IT’S NOT WHETHER YOU WIN OR LOSE, BUT HOW YOU PLAY THE GAME”. Is this a debate about sport? Or about life generally? The issue seems to be whether the means justify the ends. Is it therefore a debate about politics? Or perhaps even about whether terrorism is ever justified? The answer is given by a third principle: **where there is no obvious issue, you must choose an issue that the topic *could* refer to.** For example, any of the issues suggested above would be an acceptable interpretation of the topic. In this case, the best approach would probably be to select the general philosophical issue (whether the means justify the ends). This matches the general philosophical nature of the topic itself and minimises the chance that you and your opposition will be debating about completely different issues. You can always use specific material (for example, sport or politics) as examples.

However, this does not mean that you should *always* select the most general issue. For example, let’s take the topic “THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL”. The most general issue here is ‘whether big things are better than small things’, but there is really nothing to debate on this issue: the entire debate would become a long list of big and small things that are ‘good’ and ‘bad’ respectively. In this case, you must choose another issue. For example, the issue could be whether we should welcome globalisation (by which cultures, institutions and economies become ‘big’). Alternatively, it could even be a debate about the role of advertising and popular culture on our self-images; the affirmative team could argue, “Big is beautiful, so the government should ban unrealistic body images. This is the issue of the debate.” Instead of automatically choosing the most general issue, the better approach is to ***select the issue that you consider most debateable from both sides.*** Unfortunately, it is not possible to be any more specific than this.

There is one vital rule about unclear topics: **no matter how difficult the issue is to identify, you must identify *one* issue and *one* issue only!** For example, the topic “THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL” could be about globalisation, or it could be about media portrayals of body images, *but it cannot be about both.* Each issue could provide a great debate, but a messy combination of issues will not. Pick one central issue and stick to it!

For example, consider one school debate on the topic “THAT TWO SUPERPOWERS ARE BETTER THAN ONE”. The affirmative team debated about whether the world was more stable and peaceful with one political and military superpower (that is, the United States), or with two (that is, the situation during the Cold War, where both the USA and the USSR were superpowers). The negative team, however, tried to debate about many issues – their case ranged across issues as diverse as politics, economics and pop culture, as they argued that ‘having fewer of something is better than having more of that same thing’. Apart from missing the real issue, the team had made a massive strategic mistake by trying to deal with more than one central issue.

Having decided on the general issue of the debate, it is time to decide on the specific and precise meaning of the topic: you need a definition.

THE DEFINITION

What Is The Definition?

It is impossible to debate without first understanding what the topic means. Therefore, both teams need to decide what they think the topic means *for the purposes of the debate*. This is known as ‘the definition’.

Not many debating topics involve complicated words. Therefore, the purpose of the definition is *not* to tell your audience, adjudicator and opposition what a word means *in general*. Instead, the purpose of the definition is to explain what a word means *for your debate*. We will examine the best ways of achieving this purpose shortly.

In *all* cases, the affirmative team must present a definition of the topic; a clear statement of what the team understands the topic to mean. The first affirmative speaker presents this definition early in his or her speech. (We will examine the structure of speeches in Step Five of this Chapter.) Essentially, by defining the topic, the first affirmative speaker is saying, “We think that this is what the topic means for the purposes of our debate. We think that *both* teams should debate on the basis of this meaning.”

In some circumstances (explained later), the negative team may disagree with the affirmative team’s definition. In that case, the negative team is essentially saying, “No – we disagree with your suggested interpretation of the topic. We think that *both* teams should be debating on the basis of another meaning – the meaning given by our definition.” Therefore, before every debate, *both teams* need to prepare a definition of the topic.

How To Define A Topic

Above all, both teams should try to be as clear and as simple as possible when defining the topic. This involves a number of techniques.

Define terms in the topic, not every single word. There is nothing wrong with defining individual words. However, you should *choose* the terms and words to define; don’t just define every word for the sake of it. There are two reasons for this:

1. Defining many words (such as ‘a’ or ‘the’) is both confusing and a waste of time (for example there is no need to say, “we define the word ‘a’ as an impersonal indefinite article that precedes nouns commencing with consonants”!).

2. Often, words can take on very different meanings when they are grouped together. For example, suppose that the topic is “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT POLITICAL CORRECTNESS”. ‘Political correctness’, of course, has a specific meaning as a term. However, if you define the two words separately, you will be arguing about whether it is good for a politician to be correct. This is clearly not the issue of the debate – in fact, as we will learn shortly, a definition like this would be unreasonable.

Do not define metaphorical terms literally. Remember, the definition is not an exercise for its own sake – it is your chance to explain what your team understands the topic to mean. Therefore, if you believe a topic is metaphorical, you should define the topic with its metaphorical, not its literal, meaning. Let’s return to the topic “THAT THE CARROT IS BETTER THAN THE STICK”. We’ve already seen that this topic is a metaphor. It would make no sense, therefore, to define a carrot as (for example) “an orange vegetable”. Instead, you would need to explain that ‘carrot’ is a metaphor for incentive, and ‘stick’ a metaphor for punishment.

Do not make definitions too complicated. This is sometimes expressed as a simple rule; **do not give a dictionary definition.** Firstly, this creates a risk of defining words wrongly (for example, by defining metaphorical terms literally, or defining groups of words one word at a time). More importantly, though, it removes meaning from your definition. The adjudicator does not want to hear what a dictionary says about a word – the dictionary was not written with your topic in mind! Instead, you should explain what you think the terms mean for the specific topic that you are debating. Of course, you may refer to a dictionary to determine the meaning of a word in the topic. However, you should then rephrase that definition as you want it to apply to your debate.

Be prepared to give examples to explain your definition. This is not necessary in most topics. However, in some topics, even your definition won’t really clarify the meaning of the words. For example, suppose that the topic is “THAT AUSTRALIA IS TOO RELUCTANT TO STAND UP TO HER FRIENDS”. In this case, no matter how carefully you choose words to define ‘stand up to her friends’, you will not give an effective or tangible explanation to your audience. It is important *also* to provide some examples – such as, “For example, Australia can stand up to her friends by diplomatic pressure, by independently determining which treaties we will enter into, or by joining military action only when it genuinely suits our national interest.”

INTERMEDIATE

Limiting Topics By Definition

In addition to simply defining the terms in a topic, it is often necessary or helpful to limit the scope of the entire debate. That is, it can be strategic to set certain issues as ‘off limits’, in order to clarify the real issue of the debate.

You can do this in one of two ways:

1. *You can limit the scope of one of the words in the topic.* For example, consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH THE GST”. In this case, the word ‘we’ could be defined as “the people of Australia, acting through the Federal Government”. This effectively limits the debate to Australia. (The notion of ‘we’ or ‘us’ will be discussed shortly.)
2. *If none of the words can be limited, you can simply state your limitation after defining the topic.* For example, consider the topic “THAT CRIMINAL SENTENCES ARE TOO HARSH”. In this case, for reasons that will be explained later, it is reasonable to limit the debate to the first world. This is because it would be difficult (although not impossible) to argue that many criminal sentences delivered in the developing world (such as public beheadings) are not too harsh. In this case, you could define all of the relevant terms in the topic, then say words to the effect of “we limit this debate to the first world”.

You will often have some discretion in limiting the definition. For example, in the previous topic, the affirmative team could choose between limiting the debate to the first world or to Australia. However, **any limiting must be reasonable**. You are not permitted to do what is termed as ‘time setting’ or ‘place setting’. (This is just one specific part of a general rule: *the definition as a whole must be reasonable*. We will examine this shortly.)

‘Time setting’ means taking a general topic and limiting it to a specific time, past or future. For example, when defining the criminal sentencing topic used previously, it would be ‘time setting’ to say “we limit this debate to the early 18th century”. It is obviously not ‘time setting’ to say “we limit this debate to the present day”, because the topic is clearly intended to be about the present time. However, while it would not be ‘time setting’, such a statement would be unnecessary.

‘Place setting’ means taking a general topic and setting it in a specific place that is different from that which is plainly intended. For example, if a debate was occurring in Australia on the topic “THAT WE SHOULD OUTLAW MANDATORY

SENTENCING”, it would not be ‘place setting’ to limit the definition to Australia. However, if the affirmative team in such debate said, “we limit this debate to mandatory sentencing in the United States”, they would be ‘place setting’. Essentially, you can avoid ‘place setting’ by thinking carefully about the context of the topic.

If the affirmative team *does* ‘time set’ or ‘place set’, the negative team may rebut the definition. This is discussed in Part II: Rebuttal.

The Need For A Neutral Definition

The definition is provided by the affirmative team, and can be rebutted by the negative team (this will be discussed in Part II: Rebuttal and Level 2: The Right of Definition). Unfortunately, many debaters think that, just because *they* can supply the definition, they can make the definition as one-sided as they like. This is absolutely untrue, and is the cause of most of the problems with definitions.

The simple rule is this: ***when your team is defining the topic, imagine that you are a neutral onlooker, not somebody participating in the debate.*** Don’t worry about how to *win* the debate at this stage – just figure out what the topic means!

A biased definition can be caused by any of the following:

- Defining certain terms in the topic unfairly,
- Limiting the topic unfairly,
- Refusing to limit a topic that could be unfair if it was not limited (like the criminal sentencing topic just mentioned),
- Any other ‘crafty’ device that has the effect of ‘weighting’ the topic in one team’s favour.

On a technical level (which younger debaters do not need to remember), biased definitions usually (but not always) cause one of two types of unfair arguments: truisms and tautologies. Put simply, a truistic definition creates a one-sided argument; a tautological definition prevents any argument at all.

A tautology is an argument that is true by logic. That is, it does not matter what your opinions are, you cannot possibly argue against it. For example, consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD BREAK A BAD LAW”. If the affirmative defines ‘bad law’ as meaning ‘a law that is impossible to obey’, that team will argue, “we should break laws if those laws are impossible to obey”. Apart from missing the issue (whether we are obliged to obey unjust laws), this team is arguing a tautology. Why? Because if the affirmative’s definition is accepted, the topic is true *by definition*: the negative team cannot possibly argue that we should obey laws that are impossible to obey. Such a definition defeats the purpose of debating in the first place.

A truism is an argument that you cannot be expected to oppose (as opposed to a tautology, which is *impossible* to oppose). For example, consider one school debate on the topic “THAT CONSUMERISM IS TODAY’S RELIGION”. One negative team defined ‘religion’ quite literally, and proceeded to argue, “consumerism is not today’s religion because it does not give an understanding of the fundamental nature of life and the universe”. This was a truism; *logically*, an affirmative team could say that consumerism *does* provide religious insight, but it would be very hard-pushed to justify its argument! Therefore, the negative team’s definition was unreasonable. This problem would have been avoided if the negative team had taken a neutral approach to identifying the **issue** of the debate (that is, the importance of consumerism in modern society).

Similarly, consider one debate on the topic “THAT WE SHOULD PAY MORE ATTENTION TO THE ENVIRONMENT”. The affirmative team defined ‘the environment’ as meaning essentially “the political, economic and social environment of the state”. Under that definition, the affirmative was essentially arguing, “we should pay more attention to the important issues that affect us”. This is a truism – quite apart from missing the clear issue of the debate, it is almost impossible to expect the negative team to argue that we should not pay more attention to such issues.

Often, debaters define topics unreasonably *by accident*. That is, they do not mean to define their opponents out of the debate, but they confuse the definition with an opportunity to present an argument. For example, consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH THE GOODS AND SERVICES TAX”. The affirmative team may want to argue that the GST is an unfair tax that will ultimately harm Australia as a whole. However, if the affirmative team *defines* the GST in this way, it is technically saying that the GST is bad *by definition*. In simple terms, the affirmative would be implying that any tax that was beneficial is, by definition, not part of the ‘GST’. This is clearly unreasonable; if that definition were correct, the negative team would have nothing to argue.

Put simply, ***if you define your opponents out of the debate, your definition is considered ‘unreasonable’, and you will almost always lose.*** Your opposition will, of course, need to challenge your definition; this is explained in Part II: Rebuttal.

There is another unfair advantage that can be gained from the definition, too. You may have spotted it: what happens if the affirmative team defines the topic so that there are two fair sides to argue, but gives the topic a very different meaning to what it plainly has? In other words, what happens when the affirmative provides a balanced definition, but one that would be better suited to another topic? For example, suppose the topic was “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT CLONING”. The issue of this debate is clear; the genetic cloning of life. If the affirmative team defined ‘cloning’ as ‘cloning of compact disks (CDs)’, they have still set an even-handed debate; there are arguments for and against copying of music and computer programs. However, this

definition is *not reasonably close to the plain meaning of the words of the topic*. This kind of definition is not allowed: if the issue of the debate is clear, you must debate that issue!

Overall, the simple approach is this: if, when you first get a topic, you ask yourself, “how can we use the definition to our advantage?”, you will run a very real risk of creating an unfair definition, either because it’s unreasonable or because you have ‘squirreled’ the debate. If you ask, “what is this debate supposed to be about?” and define the topic on that basis, you will have a much greater chance of providing a fair definition. *When it comes to the definition, you have MORE chance of winning the debate the LESS you worry about your side of the topic!*

THE RIGHT OF DEFINITION

The definition becomes most complicated when the two teams each have a different interpretation of the topic. We will examine the best approach to this situation in much more detail in the ‘Rebuttal’ section. For now, we will ask simply, “which team’s definition will be accepted as the ‘correct’ definition for the debate?”.

There are two very different rules that may apply to definitions:

1. An exclusive right of definition, or
2. No exclusive right of definition.

The Australian Schools Debating Championships do have an exclusive right of definition, as do the World Schools Debating Championships. If you compete in any other competition, it would be a very wise move to find out which rule applies.

NO EXCLUSIVE RIGHT

Where there is no exclusive right of definition, *either* team has the right to define the topic. (That is, either team has the right to define the topic if the two teams have a substantially different definition. As we will examine in more detail later, the negative team should not define the topic if it agrees with the affirmative team’s definition.)

The definition that will be accepted as ‘correct’ will be that definition that the debaters convince the adjudicator to be ‘better’. In this context, ‘better’ can mean one of two things:

1. More reasonable, and/or
2. Closer to the ‘real’ issue of the topic.

More reasonable

We have already discussed the concept of a reasonable definition above; it is a definition that allows both teams a reasonable case to argue. For example, truisms and tautologies (discussed above) are both possible results of an unreasonable definition.

Closer to the 'real' issue of the topic

To show that your definition is closer to the 'real' issue of the topic, you must (obviously) show what that issue is, or should be.

The easiest way to do this is by reference to current affairs, essentially saying, "our definition reflects the real debate occurring in society." For example, consider the topic suggested earlier, "THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL". Assume that your opposition has defined the topic as relating to the fashion industry's perpetuation of unrealistic stereotypes, whereas you have defined it as relating to globalisation and regionalism. You could argue that your definition was closer to the 'real' issue of the topic by arguing that globalisation is a more prominent issue in society than fashion stereotypes. It is important to use recent examples to show that your chosen issue is more relevant and topical in our society. For example, recent protests about globalisation would be useful in showing that your team had chosen the 'real' issue of the topic suggested earlier.

Of course, this doesn't mean that you should *always* pick the 'biggest' or most newsworthy issue when defining your topic. Ultimately, as with so many things in debating, it depends on the context. If the plain meaning of the words of the topic relate to an issue that is not particularly 'big' or newsworthy, you should still debate about that issue.

Another effective (and rather obvious) method of showing that your definition is closer to the 'real' meaning of the topic is to make reference to the specific words of the topic themselves. For example, suppose that the topic was "THAT SCHOOL SPORTING TEAMS SHOULD ACCEPT CORPORATE SPONSORSHIP" and that your team had defined the topic as relating to sporting *teams*, but that your opponents had defined the topic as relating to sporting teams *and individual players in those teams* (for example, signing individual sponsorship contracts). You could legitimately argue that your definition was the 'real' meaning of the topic on the basis that the topic was specifically limited to 'school sporting *teams*'. This seems like a very obvious point to make, but many debaters forget to refer to the actual words of the topic when those words could be of great assistance.

This approach is particularly effective where the words of the topic may have some extrinsic meaning. For example, consider the topic "THAT THE UNITED STATES IS THE EVIL EMPIRE". Assume that your opposition (as negative) has defined 'the

evil empire’ as “the most morally reprehensible government in the world”, and is proceeding to argue, “the United States is not the evil empire because other governments are far more immoral than it is, such as the government of North Korea”. A legitimate definitional answer may be, “The words ‘evil empire’ must be interpreted in their historical context. The phrase was used by Ronald Reagan to describe the aggressive influence that he perceived the USSR to be having on the world. The issue of the debate, then, is not whether America’s is the most immoral government in the world, but concerns the effects of America’s influence on the world as a whole. We say that America is the ‘evil empire’ if its influence is such as to cause the world significant harm.” This is not necessarily a perfect definition, but making reference to words’ extrinsic meaning can often be very important nonetheless.

Two techniques deserve special mention because they are simultaneously so popular yet so ineffective. The first is the ‘dictionary’ argument: “Our definition is closer to the meaning of the topic because the Shorter Macquarie Dictionary says so.” This approach is almost entirely useless because, as explained earlier, the dictionary was not written with your debate in mind. Further, the approach can lead to a ‘clash of the dictionaries’, as your Shorter Macquarie Dictionary meets my Collins English Dictionary ‘head to head’! It should be obvious that this kind of mind-numbing argument does not bring either team any closer to showing the ‘real’ meaning of the words in the topic, so should be avoided. The second ineffective technique is very similar: to refer to a hypothetical ‘person on the street’, or ‘reasonable person’. As with the dictionary definition, the logical counter is for your opponents to refer to a hypothetical person of their own which, as with the dictionary definition, helps neither team.

Obviously, it is entirely acceptable to show that your definition is ‘better’ by showing that it is *both* more reasonable and closer to the ‘real’ meaning of the topic. For example, consider again the topic “THAT CONSUMERISM IS TODAY’S RELIGION”, with the negative team having defined ‘religion’ as ‘an institution that seeks to give an understanding of the fundamental nature of life and the universe’. The affirmative team could argue both that the negative’s definition is unreasonable to the affirmative team, and that there is no issue in our society about whether consumerism gives spiritual enlightenment; the issue is the extent to which we are influenced by consumerism in our everyday lives.

THE EXCLUSIVE RIGHT

When there is no exclusive right of definition, there are two tests (as explained above):

1. Which definition is *more* reasonable?
2. Which definition is *closer* to the ‘real’ issue (otherwise known as the ‘plain meaning’) of the topic?

Where there is an exclusive right of definition, the affirmative team has the right to define the topic. ‘Exclusive’ does not mean ‘absolute’; the right is qualified by very similar questions to those above:

1. *Is* the affirmative’s definition reasonable?
2. *Is* the affirmative’s definition reasonably close to the plain meaning of the words of the topic?

As long as the adjudicator is satisfied that the answer to each question is ‘yes’, the affirmative team’s definition is the definition for the debate; it may not be legitimately challenged by the negative team.

To show the difference in approach, let’s return to the topic “THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL”. In all likelihood (depending, of course, upon how it was argued), the ‘globalisation’ interpretation would win the definitional issue over the ‘media stereotypes’ interpretation if there were no exclusive right of definition, because globalisation seems to be a more topical issue. However, consider what would happen if the affirmative team had an exclusive right of definition. It would define the topic as relating to whether the government should ban unrealistic body images in the media. The adjudicator would then ask our two questions. Firstly, is this definition reasonable? Although it may take the negative team by surprise, that is frankly their bad luck; it is reasonable because the negative team has ample room to argue that the government should not censor advertising in this way. Secondly, is the definition reasonably close to the plain meaning of the words of the topic? Another way of asking this question is, “are the words of the topic reasonably capable of bearing the meaning that they have been given?”. Again, the answer is ‘yes’; the affirmative could reasonably link the notions of ‘big’ and ‘beauty’ to the issue of media and fashion stereotyping of body images.

Therefore, unlike when there was no exclusive right of definition, the negative team would have no grounds of complaint; it would need to argue under the affirmative team’s definition. Strategies for dealing with this kind of situation will be examined in more detail later. However, it suffices for now to say that the affirmative team must be aware when formulating its definition of whether it has an exclusive right of definition, precisely because it should know what tests its definition must satisfy.

TRIGGERS

Hopefully by now you understand the basic principles in finding the issue of the debate and in defining the topic to reflect that issue. You should also understand what makes a definition unreasonable.

We now examine some specific terms or notions that often cause difficulty when identifying an issue. These are often known as ‘triggers’ – when you see them in a topic, they should ‘trigger’ you to take a particular approach. None of the ‘triggers’ are actually *rules* of debating; they are not exceptions to the principles we examined earlier. Instead, they are cases where teams can often overlook the proper approach.

At this point, we need to understand the concept of the ‘**burden of proof**’. The ‘burden of proof’ is simply *what your team needs to prove in order to show that your side of the topic is true*. In a criminal trial, for example, the prosecution needs to prove the charge ‘*beyond reasonable doubt*’ – this is the prosecution’s burden of proof. In debating, each team’s burden of proof will vary depending on each topic. Triggers can help us to identify that burden of proof, both in terms of *what* we need to prove, and *to what degree* we need to prove it.

TRIGGERS FOR *WHAT YOUR TEAM NEEDS TO PROVE*

‘*Should*’

Most of us have some idea of what it means if we ‘should’ do something. However, let’s examine this in more detail.

Suppose that somebody said, “We should shoot the unemployed because taxpayers could stop paying their welfare benefits”. Most of us (hopefully!) are appalled at that argument; even though it *might* be **practical**, it is wrong because it is not **moral**.

Suppose, on the other hand, that somebody said, “the government should buy every citizen a Rolls Royce and a swimming pool”. Most of us would find this suggestion ridiculous as well; it might be kind and **moral** for the government to do that, but the government does not have the money to make it **practically** possible.

Clearly, to say that something ‘**should**’ be done is to say that there is a ‘**moral and practical imperative**’ to do it.

Therefore, in general, it is best to define the word ‘should’ as ‘a moral and practical imperative’. You should also be aware as you develop your arguments that you need to show why your proposal is both morally and practically worth supporting.

For example, consider the topic “**THAT COMPENSATION SHOULD BE PAID FOR THE INJUSTICES COMMITTED BY PAST GENERATIONS**”. A moral reason to

do so might be that we have an obligation to ‘right past wrongs’ – to compensate those who are disadvantaged today because of injustices suffered in the past. However, the affirmative team should not stop there – it ideally should have a practical argument. For example, a practical reason to compensate such peoples might be to bring peace to troubled regions or to appease grievances.

Similarly, suppose we were debating “**THAT GOVERNMENTS SHOULD SELL STATE-OWNED BROADCASTERS**”. A moral argument might be that it is wrong for governments to own media providers because they can be used to mislead citizens and to encourage unjustified support for government. A practical argument might be that governments can earn significant one-off payments by privatising broadcasters, and could use that money for important national objectives like paying off debt.

Just because you have defined ‘should’ as meaning ‘a moral and practical imperative’ does not mean that you need to create your arguments as either ‘moral’ or ‘practical’ arguments as such. It is true that you cannot ignore either the moral or the practical part of the topic, but you do not need to be able to identify which arguments are ‘moral’ and which are ‘practical’. In other words, it is entirely acceptable to have arguments that seem to show your side of the topic both morally and practically. However, if you are having difficulty thinking of arguments, a ‘moral and practical’ approach may help. For example, you could say, “We have many reasons why our side is practically true – what are some moral reasons?”.

When ‘should’ doesn’t mean ‘a moral and practical imperative’

Almost every topic that includes the word ‘should’ intends you to debate about the existence (or otherwise) of a ‘moral and practical obligation’. That is, almost every topic that includes the word ‘should’ is about whether something ‘should’ occur! However, as explained earlier, the overall concern in defining any topic must be to identify the *issue*, and this approach inevitably leads to exceptions to the rule.

For example, consider the topic “**THAT THE NEW CENTURY SHOULD BE BETTER THAN THE LAST**”. What is the issue of this debate? Clearly, the issue is whether the 21st century *will be* better or worse (whatever that may mean) than the 20th century. Suppose, however, that your team defined ‘should’ as ‘a moral and practical imperative’. In that case, you would be debating about whether we have a moral and practical imperative to make the next century better than the last – in other words, about whether humans should try to make the world a better place. This is simply not a meaningful issue for debate. In other words, the affirmative team will define the topic as a truism in this case if it applies the usual approach to the word ‘should’.

Another example is the topic “THAT WE SHOULD ENVY OUR GRANDPARENTS”. What are the issues of this debate? They appear to be

1. Whether our grandparents’ era was preferable to our own, and/or
2. Whether it is better being elderly than young.

However, consider the result if the teams interpret the word ‘should’ as meaning ‘a moral and practical imperative’. In that case, they would be debating about whether there are benefits to be gained from envying our grandparents. The negative team could raise inane arguments like, ‘Envy is an inherently destructive human emotion and is one of the ‘Seven Deadly Sins’. Therefore, we should never envy anybody’. This approach clearly defeats the issue of the topic. The teams should have realised that this topic was an exception to the usual use of the word ‘should’.

When other words mean ‘a moral and practical imperative’

Many issues in our society reduce to the fundamental question of whether something should or should not be done, so it is not surprising that many topics refer to this question without necessarily using the word ‘should’.

For example, consider a schools debate that occurred on the topic “THAT TERTIARY EDUCATION IS A RIGHT”. The affirmative team said words to this effect: “A right is something that the government has an obligation to protect. Since high fees prohibit some people from having access to tertiary education, the government has a moral and practical obligation to reduce those fees by increasing funding. The issue is whether government subsidies for tertiary education should be significantly increased.”

The negative team, however, were personally opposed to arguing against an increase in government funding. Rather than ‘biting the bullet’ and ‘playing hardball’ (which will be discussed in more detail later), the team decided to define the topic as a question of fact. They said words to the effect of: “The issue is whether tertiary education is a right. A right is something that is protected for all. We agree with the affirmative team that fees prevent everybody from having access to tertiary education. Therefore, tertiary education is not a right because it is not currently recognised as a right in our society”. In effect, the negative team argued a *‘parallel case’* to that provided by the affirmative; they interpreted the topic so as to make essentially the same argument as the other team. (Parallel cases will be considered in more detail in Chapter Two: Rebuttal.)

The clear issue of the debate ought to have been whether all of us should be able to attend tertiary education if we wish; in other words, the affirmative’s approach was correct (and the negative’s was not). Although the word ‘should’ did not appear in the topic, the teams should have defined the topic to refer to the issue of whether the government has moral and practical imperative to provide significantly subsidised tertiary education. This was the clear issue to which the topic pointed.

One important type of debate that falls into this category is a debate about whether something is ‘justified’. This category will be further discussed below.

‘Too’

Many topics ask us whether there is ‘too much’ of something. For example, “THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH MONEY IN SPORT” or “THAT WE PAY TOO MUCH ATTENTION TO TELEVISION”.

Topics that use the word ‘too’ inevitably require you to show three things:

1. That there is an abundance (in the case of ‘too much’) or a scarcity (in the case of ‘too little’),
2. That the harm outweighs the benefits,
3. That the abundance or scarcity *causes* the harm.

For example, consider the topic “THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH MONEY IN SPORT”. Younger debaters inevitably argue, “There is lots of money in sport, and sportspeople often do not play with good sportsmanship. Therefore, there is too much money in sport.” It is clear what has been missed out: an explanation of *how* the amount of money in sport causes the poor sportsmanship. If this explanation is not provided, it will be all too easy for the negative team to argue that poor sportsmanship is not dependent on money in sport and that poor sportsmanship exists in amateur sports as well.

‘Failed’

Many topics ask us to judge whether something has or has not failed. For example, “THAT THE UNITED NATIONS HAS FAILED” or “THAT CAPITALISM HAS FAILED”. These debates will inevitably become very unclear unless some test is used to determine *when* failure will have occurred. In other words, the concept of failure presents difficulties that cannot be overcome merely by a careful definition of the word ‘failed’; you also need a specific test that relates to the issue of the debate.

There are two standard types of test. They are:

1. *A failure to meet expectations.* This is particularly useful where the organisation itself had stated goals. It is rare to debate about a movement or organisation with clearly stated goals. However, in such a case, you could use these concerns – legitimate community expectations, essentially – to judge the success of that movement or organisation.
2. *A failure to meet certain external criteria.* This is a more common approach – using criteria designed and applied by you and your team in preparation. For example, consider the topic suggested earlier: “THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED”.

Feminism has never had a single set of stated objectives, so it is necessary to impose some criteria. For example, the teams could say “the issue is whether feminism has brought real and substantial equality of outcome between the genders; that is, whether its reforms have substantially removed discrimination against women or merely made the discrimination less obvious”.

Like the definition, criteria must be even-handed. If they are not, your team will run the very real chance of arguing a truism and losing the debate. For example, consider the topic suggested earlier: “THAT CAPITALISM HAS FAILED”. If the affirmative team set its criterion for failure as “failed to eliminate poverty”, it will be arguing a tautology (explained earlier): “‘Failure’ means failure to eliminate poverty. Poverty exists under capitalist systems. Therefore, capitalism has failed.” If the affirmative’s interpretation of ‘failed’ in this case is correct, it must automatically ‘win’ the argument. This is one sure way to automatically *lose* the debate!

One further question must often be asked: “*failed whom?*”. For example, consider the topic “THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED”. This could either mean ‘failed society’ or ‘failed women’. In this particular case, there is probably no ‘correct’ answer. However, each team should nonetheless make a decision about which approach to adopt. Again, the rule about even-handedness applies – you cannot interpret the relevant group to make your argument easier to win. For example, if the topic was “THAT CAPITALISM HAS FAILED”, the negative team cannot say, “failed means only ‘failed the rich’” – this would leave the affirmative team almost nothing to argue!

Finally, there is an issue of where such criteria ‘fit in’. The simple answer is that, where such criteria are used to provide meaning for a word in the topic (as here), they form part of the definition. We will examine this issue in more detail when we consider ‘The Case Approach’.

‘Big, Red Ball’ Topics

Of all technical debating terminology, ‘big, red ball’ is probably the most mystifying to most debaters. However, the concept itself is quite simple.

Suppose I hold a certain object and, for no reason in particular, we debate the topic “THAT THE OBJECT IS A BIG, RED BALL”. What would the affirmative team need to prove? Quite obviously, they would need to show three things:

1. That the object is big *and*

*The principle of a ‘big, red ball’ topic is neatly summarised by this excerpt from **Black Adder** (Episode 1, Series 2, written by Richard Curtis and Ben Elton).*

Edmund: I seek information about a Wisewoman.

Crone: Ah, the Wisewoman... the Wisewoman.

Edmund: Yes, the Wisewoman.

Crone: Two things, my lord, must thee know of the Wisewoman. First, she is... a woman, and second, she is ...

Edmund: .. wise?

Crone: You do know her then?

As Edmund realised, the principle to ‘big, red ball’ topics is not particularly difficult to grasp!

2. That it is red **and**
3. That it is a ball.

What would the negative team need to show? Clearly, they would need to show that it is not a big, red ball. They could do this by showing

1. That the object is not big, **or**
2. That it is not red, **or**
3. That it is not a ball.

The important point here is that the negative team may disprove *any, all, or any combination* of the elements that the affirmative was required to prove.

“Okay,” you’re probably thinking, “but how often do we debate about big, red balls?”. The answer, of course, is ‘never’, but many topics conform to the same formula.

Consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD LIMIT POPULATION GROWTH BY LEGISLATION”. What must the affirmative team show in this case? Clearly, two things:

1. That there is a need to limit population growth **and**
2. That we should use legislation to do so (not merely, for example, education).

The negative team can show **either** that there is no need to limit population growth, or that legislation is an inappropriate means of doing so (or both).

The main concern for negative teams in this situation is that they do not choose a largely irrelevant part of the topic to refute. For example, consider the topic, “THAT BEIJING SHOULD HAVE BEEN AWARDED THE 2008 OLYMPICS”. The negative team could, technically, refute this argument by saying, “We agree that Beijing is an ideal city to host the Olympics, but China needs more time to improve its human rights record. Therefore, Beijing should have been awarded the 2012 Olympics instead.” However, this argument concedes most of the issue of the debate (Beijing’s suitability to host the Olympics), and is a weak argument because it focuses on a relatively insignificant detail (a delay of four years). The message should hopefully be clear: although the negative team technically may refute even the smallest part of a ‘big, red ball’ topic, it will generally be more strategic to choose the most significant issue or issues – this is where the real debate lies.

TRIGGERS FOR THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOUR TEAM NEEDS TO PROVE ITS ARGUMENT

We have considered a number of triggers for *what* you need to show in order to properly support your side of the topic. We now need to consider some triggers for *how much* (or how often) you need show something is true in order to properly support your side of the topic.

General Truth

This is most relevant for topics that are *positive* rather than *normative*; that is, topics that ask what *is*, rather than what *should be*. It is particularly relevant for topics that call for some comparison. For example, “THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND” or “THAT COMPUTERS ARE BETTER THAN BOOKS”.

The question is this: does the affirmative team need to show that the topic is *always* true, or occasionally true, or true more often than not, or something else? The answer is that, in most cases, the affirmative team must show the topic to be *generally true* (or true ‘in general’). The negative team must show, therefore, that the topic is generally not true. It is not possible to place a percentage value on the proportion of cases in which something must be true in order to be considered ‘generally true’.

Therefore, let’s consider the topic suggested earlier: “THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND”. Both teams should interpret the topic as “THAT IT IS GENERALLY TRUE TO SAY THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND”, and develop their arguments on that basis.

This rule should not change the way that teams approach a topic; whether they realise it or not, most teams argue about general truth in most cases anyway. However, it is an important reminder that it is *not* enough to say that the topic is *sometimes* true, or *sometimes* not true. The classic case of this error is the use of Adolf Hitler as an easy example. Let’s return to the topic “THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND”. The negative team might argue, “Hitler was brilliant, but very unkind. Look at all the suffering he caused. Therefore, it is better to be kind than to be smart.” However, this approach is wrong. Although it is undoubtedly true that it was better to be kind than smart in the isolated case of Hitler, the argument does nothing to show that it is *generally* better to be kind than to be smart. Both teams’ approach must instead be to develop arguments than apply *in general*, and then use examples that are not extreme evidence of one side or the other. We will return to the process of developing arguments later.

Incidentally, Hitler is a remarkably common example in debates about all manner of issues, perhaps because he is simultaneously a very well known historical figure and such an obvious incarnation of ‘evil’ that he can (apparently) be deployed to win any argument! This approach is, unfortunately, very weak. Hitler and his regime were very extreme in almost every way. It is highly unlikely, therefore, that any issue, argument or perspective today would be “like Hitler” – Hitler was so extreme that he and his regime hardly show any ‘general truth’ today. Of course, this does not mean that you can never use Hitler or Nazi Germany in debates. At times, you may find that a *careful* and *analytical* explanation of the Third Reich will help your argument. However, most debaters who use Hitler as an example do not provide this analysis – instead, they simply use his name as a simple analogy for all manner of supposed

‘evils’. If your argument relies on a simple mention of an example as extreme as this, you really need to find another example. If you can’t find another example, find another argument!

Absolutes

The most obvious exception to the rule above occurs in topics that specify an absolute. For example, “THAT ALL ADULTS SHOULD HAVE TO VOTE”, “THAT WE ARE ALL FEMINISTS NOW” or “THAT EVERYONE SHOULD HAVE THE RIGHT TO A TERTIARY EDUCATION”.

What does this require the affirmative team to show? Clearly, we cannot expect the affirmative team to prove the topic in *every imaginable case*. This would be unreasonable and would ignore the ‘real issue’ posed by the topic.

For example, in the topic “THAT ALL ADULTS SHOULD HAVE TO VOTE”, it is not enough for the negative to say, “people in comas should not have to vote”.¹ In the topic “THAT EVERYONE SHOULD HAVE THE RIGHT TO A TERTIARY EDUCATION”, it is not enough for the negative to say, “illiterate people should not have the right to a tertiary education”. Clearly, the negative team in each case is avoiding the clear issue of the debate; compulsory voting (in the first topic) and government subsidies of tertiary education (the second). They have merely raised *insignificant minorities*, which the affirmative team is not reasonably required to disprove.

Therefore, the rule for absolute topics is that *the affirmative team must show that the topic is true for every case except for an insignificant minority*. Of course, this does not mean that the affirmative team actually has to list every conceivable case that is not insignificant and then show that the topic is true in that case! Instead, its general arguments must apply to every case that is not an insignificant minority. For example, in the topic “THAT ALL ADULTS SHOULD HAVE TO VOTE”, the affirmative team does not need to show why men must vote, why women must vote, why indigenous people must vote, why pensioners must vote, and so on. It is enough to show that people’s opinions are important enough to require them legally to be expressed; this is a general argument that applies to all cases except the insignificant minority.

How, then, do you determine whether a particular group is an ‘insignificant minority’? You must do so in the context of the issue being debated. For example, we saw earlier that illiterate people were an insignificant minority for a debate about access to tertiary education. Another debate, however, might be about the government’s responsibility to the illiterate. In that case, illiterate people are anything but an insignificant minority; they are the whole issue! Essentially, as has been emphasised repeatedly, the

¹ Philips J, Hooke J (1994). *The Debating Book*, UNSW Press, Sydney at page 75.

best approach is simply to ask, ‘what is the issue of this debate?’, and to *debate that issue!*

It may seem strange, but this can mean that some ‘absolute’ topics do not have *any* insignificant minority. In other words, in some debates, ‘all’ really does mean ‘all’! The best example is probably the topic “THAT THE DEATH PENALTY IS ALWAYS WRONG”.² The affirmative team may try to argue “the death penalty can never be justified, except in the case of unrepentant mass killers”. That is, the affirmative may consider unrepentant mass killers to be an insignificant minority for the purposes of the topic. However, they are clearly wrong; the whole issue of the debate is whether the death penalty is *ever* acceptable. By making an exception, the affirmative team in this case is effectively conceding the debate.

‘Justify’ Topics

Many topics ask whether something is ‘justified’, or ‘justifiable’. These are usually ‘absolute’ topics by another name.

The first question is whether such topics are *positive* or *normative*, that is, whether they ask what *is* or what *should be*. For example, to return to a familiar theme, suppose that the topic was “THAT THE DEATH PENALTY IS JUSTIFIED”. Does the affirmative team have to show that some governments *do* justify the death penalty (for example, the USA), or that the death penalty *should* be justified? Clearly, the first option does not provide for any debate; if it were the correct approach, the affirmative could win the argument simply by showing that the USA (as one example) justifies the death penalty. Instead, ‘justify’ debates are really ‘should’ debates in disguise. Therefore, all of the guidelines about ‘should’ debates, set out earlier, must apply. This includes the general requirement for teams to deal with both the ‘moral’ and the ‘practical’ part of the issue. (The only minor difference is that ‘justify’ topics tend to ask whether something is morally and practically ‘acceptable’, rather than whether there is a moral and practical ‘imperative’. This makes no difference in practice.)

The second question is the extent to which the affirmative team must show the topic to be true.

Of course, as always, much depends on the context. Usually, the word ‘justify’ appears only in the context of debates about generally distasteful issues, rather than in the context of neutral policy suggestions. Therefore, the correct approach generally is to treat ‘justify’ debates as falling into the ‘absolute’ category. If the topic is “THAT TERRORISM IS JUSTIFIED”, the affirmative team is required to show *at least a significant minority* of cases where terrorism is morally and practically acceptable. That is, the affirmative team could legitimately say, for example, “We support terrorism when terrorists are willing to negotiate, when they have political objectives

² Philips J, Hooke J (1994). *The Debating Book*, UNSW Press, Sydney at pages 75 and 76.

and when they represent a significant mass of public opinion. We will therefore show that terrorism was or is justified in the cases of the IRA, the PLO and the ANC, but we are willing to concede that terrorism is unacceptable in the cases of Al-Qaeda, the Aum Supreme Truth or the ETA”.

It is important to remember that, in some cases, a ‘justify’ debate only involves one particular case or consideration. In topics like this, it is obviously nonsensical to consider whether the affirmative team needs to show general truth, or a significant minority, or any other proportion; the team must show that the case in question is justified. For example, consider the topic “THAT THE COST OF SPACE EXPLORATION IS JUSTIFIABLE.” It is nonsensical to ask whether the affirmative team must show that the cost is justifiable in general, or in a significant minority of cases, because there is only one overall cost (unlike, for example, terrorist groups mentioned earlier). Therefore, the affirmative team must show that the cost is ‘worth it’, and the negative team must show that the cost is not ‘worth it’. In essence, this reduces to a simple ‘should’ debate in disguise. As always, you need to carefully identify the issue of the debate that you face.

The Confusing Words ‘We’ and ‘Our’

For words so common in our language, ‘we’ and ‘our’ can cause surprising problems in debates. It is impossible to give a simple definition of ‘we’ here, precisely because the word can describe so many different groups, depending on its context.

For example, in many topics, ‘we’ refers to a group of people. In the topic “THAT WE ARE THE LOST GENERATION”, ‘we’ obviously refers to a particular generation. Given that the debate is probably occurring between young people, the generation in question might be, for example, “people born after 1975”. In the topic “THAT WE PAY TOO MUCH ATTENTION TO SPORT”, ‘we’ must refer to society as a whole. In the topic “THAT WE SHOULD STAND UP TO OUR EMPLOYERS”, ‘we’ obviously refers to employees.

However, what about topics like “THAT WE SHOULD OUTLAW SMOKING”, or “THAT WE SHOULD BRING BACK THE DEATH PENALTY”? Clearly, the affirmative team must argue in favour of actions that cannot be achieved solely by groups of people; they require governments. In topics such as these, ‘we’ is usually defined either as the government, or as the people acting through their government.

Whether ‘we’ refers to institutions or to groups of people, there is a further question: how widely should ‘we’ be defined? This is essentially the same consideration as with limiting the scope of the debate and was explained earlier. For example, ‘we’ could refer to institutions or groups of people around the world, or in a particular region, a particular country and so on. Whatever you decide, it is important to make the scope clear when defining the words ‘we’ or ‘our’.

TRIGGERS FOR DEVELOPING YOUR CASE

The overall approach to developing your case will be discussed in more detail later. However, there are two triggers that provide an important initial guide about the general thrust that your arguments should take. It is convenient to discuss them at this point, with the other triggers.

Comparison Debates

Many debates call for a comparison. For example, “THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND”, “THAT NATO IS A BETTER HUMAN RIGHTS DEFENDER THAN THE UNITED NATIONS” or “THAT THE MEDIA IS MORE POWERFUL THAN THE CHURCH”.

It is clear, as a general rule, what the affirmative team must show in these debates; it must show that one is greater than the other in some way (for example, greater benefit, power, etc). However, the negative position is less clear. Technically, a negative team could refute a comparison topic in two ways; either it could show the one is *lesser* than the other, or that the two are *equal*. For example, if the topic was “THAT THE MEDIA IS MORE POWERFUL THAN THE CHURCH”, the negative team would, technically, be refuting the topic either by arguing, “the church is more powerful than the media”, or “the church and the media are equally powerful”. However, on closer inspection, *negating a comparison topic by equality leads to a very weak argument! Don't do it!* That is, in the topic above, the negative team should argue “the church is more powerful than the media”, and *not* argue that “the church and the media are equally powerful”.

Why is this? A tightrope walker makes for a useful analogy. Why is everybody amazed at the skills of a tightrope walker? Because that person is able to tread very carefully along a very narrow line, without overbalancing on either side. In logical terms, this is exactly what a team attempts when it negates a comparison topic by equality: it is forced to balance its arguments very finely, while at the same time conceding most of the affirmative team's case. For example, in the topic suggested above, a weak negative would argue, “We totally agree with all the affirmative's very good reasons that the media is very powerful. However, those reasons are *perfectly counterbalanced* by our arguments about the power of the church.” This amounts to the negative team trying to *tie* the argument rather than *win* it, and is an easy way of *losing* the debate! In short, as will be discussed further, the negative team should ‘play hardball’ instead. Paradoxically, this may often leave the negative team with a more difficult case to argue, but a case that will ultimately be more successful.

The final question ‘triggered’ by such comparison debates, as with debates about failure, is “*for whom?*”. For example, the topic “THAT NATO IS A BETTER

HUMAN RIGHTS DEFENDER THAN THE UNITED NATIONS” begs the question: ‘better’ for whom? For those having their human rights abused? For the international community generally? For the member nations of each organisation? There is no general answer to this question. However, you should answer this question, and make your approach clear at the outset.

Debates about a particular ‘age’ or ‘generation’

Some topics ask about a characteristic of our times. Such topics are often characterised by the words ‘age’, or ‘generation’. For example, “THAT WE ARE THE LOST GENERATION”, or “THAT IT IS THE AGE OF UNCLE SAM”. Other topics are ‘age’ topics in disguise. For example, the topic “THAT THE YEAR IS 1984” could be about issues of privacy in our society at this particular time. That is, this implication of the topic (on one interpretation, anyway) is that there is something special or different about this ‘age’ and its respect (or lack or respect) for privacy.

When faced with a topic that suggests that there is something special about our particular point in history, you really should ask a few key questions. The answers to these questions are vital for developing your case (which will come later). As a general rule, you should ask the following questions:

- ***Why would it be the particular age or generation?***

This question directs your thinking to the issue of the debate. For example, if the topic were “THAT WE ARE THE LOST GENERATION”, you would start to ask, “in what ways is our generation ‘lost’?”.

- ***Why would it be the particular age or generation **now**?***

This question is easiest to overlook, but it is vital for developing your case. In the lost generation debate, for example, it is not a strong argument to say, “Our generation are the youth. Youth have always been lost - it is a natural part of growing up.” Why is this argument weak? Because it denies the key implication of this type of topic: that there is something *special* or *different* about our particular age.

A better answer might be, “Our generation is growing up at a time of unprecedented commercialism, which is often targeted exclusively at the youth market.”

- ***What **characterises** this age or generation?***

This question develops your team’s answer to the second question. “Okay,” you ask yourself, “so the relevant point about ‘now’ is mass marketing through the mass media. So what?”.

One answer might be, “Whereas previous generations were raised by their parents and communities, our generation is being raised by multinational mass-marketing and MTV. This leaves us ‘lost’ because commercialism is self-interested, whereas

previous generations were raised more by those with more benevolent ideals.” This may not be true, of course, but it is a valid argument that answers the fundamental questions of “*why now?*” and “*what characterises our age in particular?*”.

- ***When did the age or generation start?***

This question is necessary both to give further clarity to the issue of what characterises this era, and to ensure again that you are not arguing merely about characteristics that have always existed (for example, the argument that “youth have *always* been lost”).

The answer to this last question will often be that it started as a gradual process between certain years. That is, you do not always need to give a single defining date as the start of the generation. For example, in the case above, your team could answer, “The age of mass marketing to adolescents has been a gradual process reflecting the emergence of the ‘teen’ as a distinct consumer. However, it has been particularly prevalent from and throughout the 1990s, and has rapidly increased with the growth of the Internet”.

TRIGGERS FOR ‘DISCLAIMERS’

The world is full of fine print, and debating is no exception. Some cases can be clarified and improved immensely by the addition of a few sentences (and no more) of ‘disclaimer’ after the definition is provided. Two triggers in particular bear mentioning.

Speculative Debates

Many debates relate to issues about the way the future may or may not be. For example, “**THAT THE 21st CENTURY WILL BE BETTER THAN THE 20th CENTURY**”, or “**THAT IT’S ALL DOWNHILL FROM HERE**”.

Clearly, such debates must be speculative in nature. However, this still bears pointing out, to prevent your opponents, audience or adjudicators asking, “but how do you *know* that the world will be like that?”. The simplest point to make is that the debate is a speculative debate; it concerns events that relate to the future. Since neither team has a crystal ball, both teams will be called upon to *project current trends* into the future (rather than to wildly speculate).

Sensitivities

Debating concerns controversial issues, so it should be no surprise that many topics may arouse strong passions among debaters, audience members and adjudicators alike. For example, after one World Schools Championships debate in which the Australian team had advocated medical testing on animals, an audience member told the team, “if

I had a gun, I would shoot you!” (thus proving a strong case for the otherwise unrelated issue of gun control).

The problem for debaters is not merely one of life or death; as an English football manager once put it, “it is much more serious than that”. Aside from wanting to leave a generally positive impression, debaters must realise that they are not adjudicated by machines; they are adjudicated by humans who, despite their best attempts to the contrary, may be unduly swayed by the emotive nature of some topics.

Therefore, if your team finds itself on the ‘moral low-ground’ of a particular topic (for example, justifying child labour), or on territory that *some* would consider morally dubious (for example, arguing either for or against the legalisation of abortion), it is wise to invest in ‘moral insurance’. In essence, this means adding a simple reminder just after the definition that

1. This is obviously an emotive topic upon which many people have legitimately strong feelings, and
2. Both teams must nonetheless take a rational and objective look at the issues involved.

This should, hopefully, distance your team from the issues personally, and encourage an intelligent weighing of the appropriate questions in the debate.

If, on the other hand, you find yourself on the undoubted moral high-ground (for example, arguing against child labour), you would not need ‘moral insurance’. While it would be a mistake to devote your case to a purely emotive appeal, there is no reason to voluntarily relinquish most observers’ initial leanings toward your side of the topic!

Finally, this is as good a place as any to make another obvious point: if it makes sense to *start* the debate in a sensitive and objective manner, it makes sense to *continue* the debate in those terms as well. That is, becoming angry, arrogant, patronising or unnecessarily intolerant will do you no favours with anybody, least of all your adjudicators. For example, if you have the privilege to debate at the World Schools Championships against the team from Israel, it would be a terrible tactical mistake to say (as one speaker is rumoured to have said), “Just because you’re Jewish doesn’t mean you know more about the Holocaust than we do.” While undoubtedly logical, this kind of statement risks immediately reducing the level of debate and the feeling of sportsmanship that should ideally exist. Similarly, for example, any reference to a minority in the singular form, or with massive generalisation (for example, the statement in one school debate that “the Australian Aborigine is a very spiritual person”) seems patronising and stereotypical in the extreme. Such statements should be avoided completely.

In short, the best thing about debating is that it provides a forum to discuss important issues in a mature way. Debaters forget this at their peril!



step two: the case approach

Having identified the issue of the debate and translated that issue into a workable definition, it is now time to develop ‘the case’. This chapter will examine the ‘big picture’ of developing your argument; the best way to conceptualise the *overall approach* that your team will adopt to arguing your side of the issue. Specific subsidiary issues (for example, the development of individual arguments) will be discussed in more detail in following chapters.

BEGINNER

THE ‘THEME’ OR ‘CASELINE’

Experience shows us that the most successful arguments are those that can be expressed with a simple and unifying idea. It is important to give your audience many *individual* reasons (arguments) that support your side of the topic. However, if possible, it is also very helpful to show your audience, adjudicator and opposition the ‘big picture’ to your case. This is the purpose of a ‘theme’ (also known as a ‘caseline’).

A theme is a single, concise sentence that explains the main idea behind your case. Ideally, a theme will explain two things:

- **WHY** you say the topic is (or is not) true, and
- **HOW** this comes about.

For example, consider the topic “THAT GLOBALISATION IS DOING MORE HARM THAN GOOD”. A theme for the affirmative team might be, “Globalisation’s emphasis on economic competition advantages a few developed nations at the expense of the majority of the world’s population.” Assuming that it reflects the affirmative team’s arguments, this is an effective theme (whether or not, of course, it is actually true). Specifically,

- It explains **WHY** the topic is said to be true: the affirmative team opposes globalisation because it “advantages a few developed nations at the expense of the majority of the world’s population”, and

- It explains **HOW** this comes about: through “globalisation’s emphasis on economic competition”.

The simple approach to formulating a theme, therefore, is to ask, “Why is it true to say that our side of the topic is correct?”. In our case, we would ask, “Why is it true to say that globalisation is doing more harm than good?”. An effective theme answers this question.

HOW OFTEN SHOULD THE THEME BE USED?

Debaters are often told that a theme should be used so often that the audience can remember it when they leave the debate. Some believe that the theme should be stated at the beginning of the first speaker’s arguments, and at the conclusion of every point. Some particularly unimaginative debaters also use it as a standard introduction and conclusion, often in the same speech!

However, this approach is a particularly unsophisticated way of debating. As will be explained later, it is important at the end of each argument to explain very clearly how that argument supports the main *idea* of the team case. It is true that the theme should embody this main idea. However, repeating the theme after every argument becomes monotonous, and usually distracts debaters from actually *explaining* how their argument supports the main *idea* of their case.

Similarly, many debaters use their theme as a standard tool for rebuttal. The following is typical of an approach that adjudicators hear all too frequently: “Our opposition argued [X]. However, that’s clearly wrong: our theme states [Y].” Rebuttal will be discussed in more detail later, but for now it should be obvious that this approach replaces actual analysis and criticism of the opposition’s case with a robotic repetition of a sentence. In this case, the debater thinks, “Of course I rebutted my opposition’s case – I repeated my theme to them seven times!”.

Therefore, the simple rule for using themes is this: *The theme should be stated at least once in every speaker’s speech. Every speaker should return repeatedly to the idea that underpins his or her team’s case, but there is no need for a speaker to repeat the theme after it is initially stated.*

HOW SHOULD THE THEME BE PRESENTED?

The theme is first presented by the first speaker of the team, early in his or her speech. (More detail about the order of duties will be provided in Step Five.) There are a number of ways that the theme can be introduced. Some of these are:

- “Our theme for this debate is...”
- “Our central thematic argument will be...”
- “The crux of our case is this: ...”

- “Tonight, our team will show you that...”
- “The fundamental reason that we support [or oppose] tonight’s topic is...”

Many people think that the theme must be introduced by saying, “Our theme is...”. However, there are more important things to worry about; as long as the adjudicator and audience can identify your theme as such, that is good enough!

Ultimately, your success or failure in using your theme will depend on how you develop your individual arguments. We will examine this in detail later. For now, we need to leave the theme to examine the overall case approach.

INTERMEDIATE

THE TEAM STANCE

By now, we know the overall reason that a case should be supported (the theme), and we will soon develop specific arguments to support this. However, something is missing: the detail!

Often, teams argue with great passion in favour of abstract concepts that they never properly explained. For example, a speaker might give a moving and persuasive speech about why we should support the death penalty without ever specifying *who* was going to be executed, or *how*. When you think about it, this is fundamentally important to your strategy. For many audience members and adjudicators, there may be a big difference between executing serial killers by lethal injection and killing petty thieves by public hanging.

Therefore, in almost all debates, you will need to present *more detail than the topic itself gives you*. If you are to support the death penalty, you must decide who is to be executed, and how. If you support military intervention for human rights, you must decide who will intervene, how, and under what circumstances. If you *oppose* military intervention for human rights, you must decide what alternative (if any) exists. In other words, you need an *overall team stance* beyond merely supporting or opposing the topic.

It is *vital to always* remember what debating is about: debating is a formal argument about a contentious *issue*. Debating is *not* a ‘youth parliament’, nor a ‘model United Nations’ conference. Therefore, *while your team stance is important, it exists only to help you argue about the main issue*. Many debaters use very long and complex stances, encouraging both teams to spend the debate picking over the finer details. However, this is not what debating is about, and this is not the purpose of a team

stance. If you must adopt a team stance, therefore, *keep it simple and keep it secondary to the main issue of debate.*

A MODEL

The simplest team stance is a model: a proposal to be implemented.

Suppose, for example, that your team is arguing in favour of the legalisation of the drug marijuana. As explained earlier, it is not enough to say, “marijuana should be legalised”. This statement encompasses everything from legalisation for limited medical use to legalisation under any circumstances, for people of any age, for use as a recreational drug. Your team should go further and present a specific model. For example, you could argue:

1. The parliament should pass laws to:
 - (a) Remove the absolute legal prohibition on the use of marijuana as a recreational drug;
 - (b) Require licenses to sell marijuana;
 - (c) Require the consumption of marijuana to be either in the home or on specifically licensed premises;
 - (d) Require health warnings on marijuana products;
 - (e) Tax the sale of marijuana.

2. The Department of Health (or similar government body) should run public education campaigns warning the public of the risks of marijuana usage.

In other words, marijuana should be treated in essentially the same way as alcohol and tobacco products are.

In this case, the model involved a specific policy to be implemented through the institutions of government. Of course, this need not always be the case. We have already examined the confusing words ‘we’ and ‘our’ – some debates are about government action; others are about individuals’ actions.

How specific does the model need to be?

We have established that a model is necessary for many debates in order to provide clarity. But how specific does that model need to be? We know that any stance should be *simple* and *secondary to the main issue of debate*, but what does this mean for developing a model?

The simple and often-quoted answer is that the affirmative team does not need to ‘write the legislation’. That is, the affirmative team obviously does not need to spell

out the operation of its model with the same degree of clarity and precision that a government might use in proposing a new law or policy.

More precisely, the degree of precision must be determined in the context of the degree to which a team needs to prove the topic. It was explained earlier that, in most topics, the affirmative team needs only to show that the topic is *generally* true, or true as a *general proposition*. So it is with the model; the model must be sufficiently specific to enable the affirmative team to show that the topic is true as a general proposition. However, the model does *not* need to be any more specific than this.

Take, for example, the topic “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE DEATH PENALTY”. The affirmative team cannot really show this topic to be true as a general proposition without specifying who is to be executed and in what manner. As explained earlier, there is such a wide divergence in criminals and means of execution that we could not support capital punishment, even as a general proposition, without knowing more detail.

However, the affirmative team does not need to specify, for example, how long a criminal will be given to appeal his or her sentence, nor the extent to which appeal options will be available. If a *government* were to implement capital punishment, it would be required to specify these details. However, the *affirmative team* does not need to; the length and precise nature of a capital appeal process is not directly relevant to the general question of whether or not we should support capital punishment. *Unlike a government, the affirmative team does not need to write the legislation.*

AN ALTERNATIVE FROM THE NEGATIVE

What about the negative team? Thus far, we have examined the situation where the *affirmative* team proposes a model. However, the *negative* team must often counter with a model of its own: an *alternative*.

This is particularly true when the current situation is very hard to defend. Of course, in debates about a proposed change, it is *usually* the case that the affirmative team proposes a change to the status quo, whereas the negative team defends the status quo. An alternative from the negative is most strategic when the status quo is largely indefensible.

For example, suppose that the topic is “THAT WE SHOULD INTERVENE MILITARILY FOR HUMAN RIGHTS”, and you are on the negative team. The affirmative team has defined ‘we’ to mean ‘the international community, acting either through international or regional organisations’, and has set out a model that supports air-strikes against regimes and armies that are committing widespread acts of genocide or torture. The primary example that they use as support is the NATO bombing of

Kosovo. In that case, your team will no doubt raise a number of arguments against military intervention, such as:

1. Military intervention is an unjustifiably brutal response which often involves massive ‘collateral damage’ (that is, incorrect targets are hit);
2. Military intervention damages infrastructure such as water and power facilities, punishing average civilians further for the crimes of their leaders;
3. Military intervention only hastens whatever human rights abuses were occurring previously;
4. Military intervention provides the oppressive local leadership with an obvious opponent against whom to play the ‘nationalist card’, increasing leaders’ domestic support.

These may (or may not) be good arguments, but they will inevitably be met with a very simple and effective response from the affirmative team: “Sure, there are problems with military intervention, but at least we propose doing *something*. Our opposition can complain all they like, but they haven’t provided us with *any alternative solution* to what is clearly a serious problem.”

This is the kind of simple but effective line that a good affirmative team would pursue relentlessly throughout the debate. The reply speaker, for example, could be expected to start his or her reply by saying something like, “Ladies and gentlemen, the issue of this debate has been how best to deal with the serious problems of genocide and torture. We have proposed military intervention. It may not be perfect, but we have showed that it is effective nonetheless. The negative team, however, have proposed nothing.” (Reply speeches will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Four.)

Therefore, the simple answer for the negative team is to propose an alternative. In this case, for example, the negative team could argue in favour of economic sanctions, diplomatic pressure, the continued prosecution of war criminals in supra-national tribunals, or some other alternative, or some specified combination of these alternatives. This strategy allows the negative team to criticise military intervention, but to be proactive about the possible alternatives.

Is the alternative really necessary?

In the previous example, it was clearly necessary for the negative team to provide an alternative, for two reasons:

1. The nature of the problem (genocide and torture) was sufficiently emotive that it seemed to demand some response, or at least a strong statement that any response would further exacerbate the problem.
2. The alternative would have *simplified* rather than *complicated* the negative team's approach. That is, if the negative team had *not* provided an alternative, it would have been left arguing a very convoluted case indeed: "Military intervention is wrong...but we can't really tell you what, if anything, is preferable!".

In many debates, however, the negative team does not need an alternative at all. This is because:

1. The problem under discussion is not particularly emotive, so the affirmative team can gain little by complaining that the negative have provided no clear response;
2. An alternative from the negative would *complicate* rather than *simplify* the negative team's approach; or
3. An alternative from the negative would simply become an easier target for the affirmative team to hit.

For example, consider the topic "THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT AMERICAN MISSILE DEFENCE". In this case, the affirmative team will probably need a reasonably intricate model, explaining what a 'missile defence' shield is, and how it would work. The negative team is then faced with an important question: is an alternative necessary?

The negative team *could* develop an intricate alternative model. For example, it could argue in favour of an aggressive series of undercover operations to topple those regimes most likely to fire intercontinental missiles at the USA. It could explain in intricate detail how opposition forces within those countries would be assisted in taking control, thus providing regimes friendly to the United States and removing any need for missile defence.

However, there are problems with this approach:

- The debate will be unclear enough without a negative model. It would be more strategic for the negative team to sit back and gleefully pick holes in the affirmative's model, rather than provide an equally complicated model of its own.

- By presenting a model in this case, the negative team only gives the affirmative team a clearer target to hit.
- Aside from this easy attack on the negative team for proposing a rather novel approach, the affirmative team now gains a significant strategic advantage. Specifically, it is no longer the only team in the debate bearing the burden of properly explaining and defending its model. Had the negative team *not* presented a model, the adjudicator might have thought, “The affirmative team never really explained their model and didn’t show that it would work. Therefore, the negative team should win.” Now, the adjudicator may think, “True, the affirmative team never really explained their model, and didn’t really show that it would work. *But neither did the negative team with its model.*”

Ultimately, there are sound strategic reasons both for and against developed alternative models from the negative team. Whether the negative actually uses a model in a particular debate will obviously depend on the specifics of the topic. The important point is not that every negative team needs an alternative model, but that every negative team needs to think carefully and strategically about whether it should present an alternative.

Is the alternative mutually exclusive to the topic?

If there is one very obvious point about an alternative, it is that it must actually be an *alternative!* That is, if you can have the affirmative’s model *and* the negative’s model, then the negative’s model is not an alternative at all, and negative team is not disproving the topic.

For example, consider the topic “THAT ALCOHOL SHOULD BE BANNED”. The affirmative will hopefully set out a clear but simple model, explaining how alcohol is to be banned for use as a ‘recreational’ substance. The negative team may respond with what it *thinks* is a clever and well-considered alternative; it argues, “We agree that alcohol is a very damaging substance whose consumption must be minimised as much as possible, but we think that the more effective policy is a massive public education campaign. This is our alternative.”

What is the problem with the negative’s ‘alternative’? Clearly, the problem is that it is not really an alternative at all; it is not mutually exclusive. The affirmative team needs only to point out that legislation and education can *both* be implemented (as they are in the case of many drugs) and it almost completely destroys the negative team’s entire approach. Of course, this is not to say that the negative team cannot advocate a public education campaign, but the team must provide strong reasons why it is *wrong* to ban alcohol, not merely why education might be more effective in reducing alcohol consumption.

So the simple rule is this: *It is not enough for a negative team to disagree with the affirmative team* (for example, “we have a more effective alternative”). *If the negative model can be implemented along with the affirmative model, the negative has not opposed the affirmative at all.*

THE INVALID NEGATIVE

It is vital that negative teams remember exactly what we have just examined: negative alternatives *to the affirmative case*. We noted that these can be very useful and entirely valid. However, we did *not* ever suggest that the negative may provide an alternative *to the assumptions that underpin the topic itself*.

For example, suppose that the topic is “THAT THE NEW ECONOMY WILL BENEFIT THE DEVELOPING WORLD”, and that the negative team argues, “We oppose the topic because the ‘new economy’ does not exist – it is merely a meaningless media catch-phrase.” Is this a valid approach? The simple answer is, “NO!”. The statement may well be an accurate description of ‘the new economy’, but that does not make it a valid case. The topic *assumes* that there is a ‘new economy’, and the negative team is called upon not merely to *oppose* the topic, but to *negate* it. The negative team needed to argue, “the new economy will not benefit the developing world”.

In simple terms, the negative team is expected to oppose the affirmative team, not to oppose whoever set the topic! Ultimately, such ‘invalid negative cases’ should never arise if negative teams follow the correct process of identifying the *issue* of the debate, as explained in Chapter One.

DRAWING A ‘LINE IN THE SAND’

So far, we have examined the situation where the affirmative or negative team proposes a *model*; that is, where the affirmative or negative team presents a specific *policy proposal* - a course of action that ought to be taken.

However, it is important to realise that your team stance need not always be a model to be implemented. Often, topics ask us for the *degree* to which something is desirable (or undesirable). It is usually important for at least one team to ‘draw a line in the sand’; to specify the degree that it considers ideal.

For example, consider the topic “THAT TELEVISION IS TOO VIOLENT”. In this case, the affirmative team is clearly *not* required to propose a detailed model of a government policy to reduce violence on television; the topic is (at least in the strict sense) about what *is*, rather than about what *should be done*. However, the affirmative team must nonetheless have a good idea, as a team, of just how much television

violence it considers acceptable. To say, “television is too violent” could mean anything from “graphic and sustained violence on television is unacceptable” right down to “even slapstick cartoon violence is unacceptable”. Ideally, the affirmative team in this case should ‘draw a line in the sand’; it should establish, from the outset, just what forms of televised violence are unacceptable in its opinion.

For example, the first speaker of the affirmative team could say, “We will argue this evening that television is too violent because there is too much gratuitous and graphic violence in fictional programs. We do not oppose other forms of television violence, such as the use of violent footage in non-fiction programs or slapstick cartoon violence.”

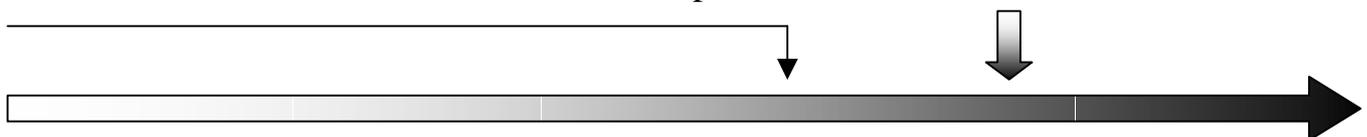
It is very important to understand what is being argued here. The affirmative team is *not* saying, “By violence, we mean only very extreme violence. We will show you that very extreme violence is bad.” This would be a case of the affirmative team defining the topic unfairly; by interpreting the word ‘violence’ in a way that biases the debate to its side. Rather, the affirmative team is saying, “We must show that there is an *abundance* of violence, and that the *abundance causes harm*. If the only violence on television were in cartoons and news programs, we would happily concede that there was not too much violence on television. However, because of the significant amount of gratuitous violence, television in general is too violent.”

The notion of ‘drawing a line’ arises from the assumption that many topics (including this one) are about a ‘continuum’ of degrees. In simple terms, you could have lots, or none, or any amount in between – the debate is about how much is appropriate.

This can be clarified with a diagram. Let’s consider the issue of television violence again. The affirmative team is ‘drawing the line’ at the significant degree of gratuitous fictional violence, but would happily accept television violence if it were no more ‘serious’ than graphic news images.

The affirmative’s stance:

“This would be acceptable...” “But we’re over here!”



<i>No violence</i>	<i>Cartoon violence</i>	<i>Implied violence</i>	<i>Graphic news images</i>	<i>Gratuitous fictional violence in many programs</i>	<i>Gratuitous violence in almost all programs</i>
--------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	----------------------------	---	---

Of course, trying to explain notions of a ‘continuum’ (or giving any kind of graphical description) will only confuse matters in a debate. The affirmative team, for example, could never say, “Imagine that the degrees of violence are drawn on a long line....”. However, this kind of analysis is useful for a number of reasons:

- This approach makes it very clear to the affirmative team that they do not need to argue an absolute. If this topic (“THAT TELEVISION IS TOO VIOLENT”) were set for a younger grade, and you asked a debater, “What is your debate about?”, he or she may reply, “It’s about whether television violence is good.” This, however, is only the most simplistic analysis. An affirmative team using this approach would be left arguing “There should never be any violence on television”, which is not a very strategic approach.
- It makes it equally clear to the negative team that they cannot merely oppose an absolute. Many negative teams, when faced with the topic “THAT TELEVISION IS TOO VIOLENT”, would proceed to argue, “Much of the televising of violence is harmless, or necessary for democratic decision-making.” However, this doesn’t show why television, as a general proposition, is not too violent. In simple terms, the negative team must be aware that it will need to deal with even the most serious forms of televised violence in order to win the debate (either by arguing that they are rarely televised, or that they do not cause harm).
- It ensures that the affirmative team presents a consistent case. If the affirmative team does not decide and state what it *would* consider to be an acceptable level of television violence, different speakers will inevitably imply different things. For example, the first affirmative may argue that “Itchy and Scratchy” (a violent cartoon) encourages violence against cats. The second speaker, having seen this argument ridiculed by the first negative, may retreat to argue that the real problem is violence in news programs, which is unsuitable for family viewing. The third speaker, having seen this argument attacked, may resort to arguing that the most extreme forms of violence are unacceptable. Although the speakers never said, “Okay, you’re right – our earlier argument was stupid”, this continual retreat nonetheless makes for an inconsistent (and therefore extremely weak) case. Drawing a ‘line in the sand’ at least shows the troops where the front-line battle should be fought!

Of course, drawing a ‘line in the sand’ is essentially about clarifying your argument. It does not involve ‘running scared’ to the most easily defensible position. This will be discussed further below (in ‘playing hardball’). For now, it is enough to say that all of the principles explained earlier (for example, about triggers, and the need to show ‘general truth’ in most cases) still apply. To use an earlier example, if you must argue that it is “better to be kind than to be smart”, it is still not acceptable to draw a ‘line in the sand’ between Adolf Hitler (whom you *do* want to argue about) and the rest of the

human race (whom you consider an irrelevant aside!). The technique of drawing a ‘line in the sand’ is for clarifying your team stance in debates where various degrees of something can be supported – and for *no other purpose!*

A STANCE ON ASSOCIATED ISSUES

So much for a stance on the *vital* issue of the debate. However, what about a stance on *associated* (or side) issues?

The simple answer is that you don’t need one. For example, if you are arguing that “we should support the death penalty for terrorists”, you do not need to have a stance on whether we should also support the death penalty for non-terrorist serial killers. If you do not have such a stance, the adjudicator cannot reasonably penalise your team (at least, not directly).

However, it is nonetheless often *helpful* to have a team stance on associated issues. This has essentially the same advantages that were explained earlier; it clarifies your team’s position, and avoids inconsistencies in the team case. In debates where points of information are used, a team stance on associated issues can avoid on-the-spot confusion. (Points of information will be explained in more detail later.)

For example, suppose the topic were “THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD BECOME A REPUBLIC”. Many people in general society argue that Australia should become a republic to sever what are argued to be outdated links to Britain. Following similar reasoning, they *also* argue that Australia should change the design of its currency (much of which features the Queen), and that Australia should change the design of its flag (which features the Union Jack in the top left-hand corner). Therefore, although the flag and coins are *associated* with the republic issue, they are not *vital* to it. As a result, there is strictly no need for the affirmative team to decide a stance on whether the flag and coins should be replaced.

However, there is always a chance that the negative team will argue, “If we become a republic, we will need to change our flags and coins. That will cost too much.” Alternatively, a negative speaker might ask a point of information along the lines of, “Your team is very keen to cut ties with Britain. Would you therefore have us abandon our coins and flag?”. (We will examine points of information in Chapter Four.)

The affirmative team can really give one of three answers to these challenges:

1. “There is no need to change the coins and flag. Becoming a republic is about constitutional change and little else.”
2. “Absolutely, we *should* change the coins and flag. That is entirely consistent with our arguments about our relationship with Britain being outdated.”

3. “It is irrelevant whether we change the coins and flag at all. That is for another debate on another day. The issue here is merely the republic, and our opposition is refusing to deal with that issue.”

The affirmative team must decide which approach it prefers in the circumstances: any of the three could work. However, the important point here (and with other associated issues) is that there *is* an advantage to be gained in the affirmative team deciding *one* approach before the debate, and sticking to it.

Therefore, the first question to be asked of associated issues is:

“*What about issue [X]? What’s our stance on that?*”. (Of course, as explained earlier, the teams ‘stance’ on the issue may be that it is irrelevant and that the team will not be drawn one way or another on it.)

However, there is also a second question:

“*Now that we’ve decided our stance on issue [X], do we make it clear at the outset, or wait until the issue arises?*”.

There is no single or simple answer to this second question; it must be decided in the circumstances. In most cases, if an associated issue is important enough to attract your attention during preparation, *it is worthwhile to clarify your stance the outset*. In essence, clarifying your team stance costs only one or two sentences of your first speaker’s time, but can avoid significant confusion later. For example, a team arguing that “we should support the death penalty for terrorists” should probably explain at the outset whether it also supports the death penalty for non-terrorist serial killers (or others). This clarification is particularly useful because it explains whether the affirmative team supports the death penalty for terrorists merely because terrorists kill many people, or whether because terrorists do so as part of a political or social movement. *That is, it is worthwhile to clarify most relevant associated issues at the outset because this helps to clarify the vital (or case) issues.*

The exceptions to this approach are (obviously) those associated issues that are best left to the opposition to raise. In particular, these are associated issues that are:

1. Not particularly relevant at all, or
2. Potentially frustrating points for an opposition to raise, but which the opposition team may not have considered.

The ‘coins and flag’ issue discussed earlier is probably an example of this exception. It is probably better for the affirmative team to wait and see whether the negative team raises the issue. Raising and clarifying this issue from the outset might either:

1. Suggest the argument to the negative team, or
2. Make the affirmative team look weak if the negative team proceeds to argue a well-directed and sophisticated case that has nothing to do with coins or the flag.

Therefore, the only clear guidance to give on associated issues is this: *many issues that are not vital to your case are nonetheless important to the outcome of the debate. You should think about those issues, and how your team will deal with them.*

IGNORING YOUR MODEL OR STANCE

There is no point establishing a model or stance if you are not going to use it and refer to it. Your model or stance must therefore underpin your arguments and case throughout the debate.

If there is any difference between the affirmative and negative teams in this respect, it is that it is perhaps even *more* important that the negative team does not ignore its model or stance. This is because, if the affirmative team ignores the specifics of its model, the overall issue that the model concerns will usually remain highly relevant in the debate. For example, if the affirmative team in the debate “THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE MARIJUANA” ignores the ‘regulation and licensing’ elements of its model, it can still argue a persuasive case in favour of legalising marijuana, and the debate will still be about legalising marijuana. (Of course, the team would nonetheless deserve criticism for ignoring part of its model.)

However, the negative team inherently lacks such luxuries. For example, consider one debate on the topic “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT A HEROIN TRIAL”. The affirmative team had established a model to explain how such a heroin trial was to be conducted. The first speaker of the negative team specifically said that the negative team would oppose a heroin trial, and would instead support stricter policing and drug courts. No further details were given as to what that meant. As the debate continued, the affirmative team continued to develop its case in support of its model for a heroin trial. The negative team forcefully opposed the affirmative team’s model, but did *not* make any further reference to drug courts or stricter policing. This proved fatal; had the *affirmative* team ignored its model, it could perhaps have won by nonetheless debating in favour of the topic – by nonetheless supporting a heroin trial. However, the *negative* team had ignored its model, so the negative team’s entire proposal was left out of the debate.

The message here should be clear: *it is far better to have no alternative than to promise an alternative only to ignore it.*

HOW NOT TO REBUT MODELS

Chapter Three of this book is dedicated to rebuttal. For now, it is important to identify one popular *but very poor* method of rebutting models.

Suppose, unfortunate as it would be, that you are on trial for a criminal offence. There is only one witness for the prosecution, and he says, “I’m pretty sure that the defendant

was the person I saw...from what I could make out, anyway...the criminal I saw was actually wearing a balaclava...but the shape of the nose looks kind of familiar...I think.” When you are called upon to give evidence, you could casually say, “No thank you, Your Honour – I choose not to give any explanation of my whereabouts on that night. The bottom line is that the prosecution must prove *beyond reasonable doubt* that I did it, and the only witness they have is only mildly confident. *Since they haven’t really proved their case, I won’t bother showing that it is wrong.*” This would be an entirely legitimate answer, at least in most criminal courts around the world. This is because the procedure and rules of criminal trials are deliberately weighted in the defendant’s favour.

Unfortunately for the negative team, the same does not apply in debating. Therefore, it is not enough for a negative speaker to parrot, “You haven’t shown us how your model will work” every time that he or she faces an affirmative team with a model. This approach often causes opponents to think, “They would say the same thing regardless of how much detail was in our model!”

Therefore, the better approach is this:

- If you *must* criticise an affirmative team for not explaining how their model will work, wait until you meet an affirmative team who *actually* haven’t explained how their model will work! Your cries will fall on deaf ears (one hopes) if you direct the same whinge to a team that has dedicated two minutes of its first speech in explaining *exactly* how it envisages its model working. Remember: the affirmative team does not need to write the legislation!
- Whether you criticise an affirmative team along these lines or not, *you must then go on* to show how their model *won’t work*. Too many speakers say, “The affirmative has not shown how its model *will work*”, but do not make any arguments about how or why the affirmative model *won’t work*. Most adjudicators respond by thinking, “Well, maybe they didn’t *prove* that their model would work, but at least they tried to support their side of the topic, which is more than can be said for you!”.

Of course, unimaginative negative teams are welcome to whinge all they like about their opponents’ standard of proof, but they should be warned: unlike the criminal defendant, they enjoy no presumption of innocence!

ADVANCED

THE STRATEGY OF CASE DEVELOPMENT

Thus far, we have examined the basics of case development (essentially, the requirements of an effective theme), and we have noted the importance of models and stances to simplify cases. Both of these ‘levels’ have essentially discussed the best way to order and present your team’s case. However, we are yet to develop any guidelines about just how to decide the most effective team stance. For example, we explained how to set out a model of legalising marijuana for recreational use. We have *not* yet asked why the affirmative team should propose legalisation for recreational use at all, as opposed to the (perhaps ‘easier’) alternative of medical use only. To return to a familiar theme, it is impossible to set out any ‘golden rules’ for this purpose. However, there are nonetheless important guidelines that every debater should bear in mind.

DEBATING: A GAME

Debating is an important and interesting way to discuss issues facing our society. However, debating is necessarily an *artificial* way of doing this – debaters are expected to follow recognised structures, and teams are told which sides of what issues they must support. Therefore, although we debate about important public issues, debating is not designed to be a public forum: debates don’t necessarily reflect the most important issues in society, and speakers are not invited simply to speak their mind. Debating is important, interesting and relevant, but *debating is also a game*.

It is therefore no excuse that you feel personally uncomfortable arguing a particular side of a topic, nor that you feel personally uncomfortable using certain arguments to support your case – as a debater, you should debate as best you can, within the rules, *to win the game!* This is the best way of ensuring a high standard of debate and an entertaining clash of perspectives.

It is important to remember this principle at all times when debating, but especially in this section of the book. This seems totally unprincipled, and extraordinarily pragmatic, but that is entirely the point: when considering the strategy of case development, good debaters ask one question, and one question only: “*Which case will be most likely to win us this debate?*”. This approach is 100% pragmatism, and 0% personal belief or ideology. But, after all, debating is just a game and, so long as you always follow the rules, this is the best approach to adopt.

PLAYING HARDBALL

Let's start with an example from a debate about whether the Australian Government should apologise to the Stolen Generation. On the simplest analysis, this topic clearly poses two questions:

1. Does the Stolen Generation *deserve* an apology? (That is, the *moral* question.)
2. Would an apology *help* indigenous Australians, the Australian community as a whole, and/or the reconciliation process? (That is, the *practical* question.)

The negative team in the debate were, as individuals, strong supporters of a national apology; they would have much preferred to have been the affirmative team. Therefore, they approached the debate by essentially answering the questions as follows:

1. "Of course the Stolen Generation deserves an apology, *BUT*
2. "Australian society is not quite ready for an apology at the moment, so an apology would be counter-productive to the reconciliation process. Therefore, the Government should not apologise to the Stolen Generation."

The negative was legitimately accused by the affirmative team of "wanting to apologise but not being brave enough to admit it".

So, was this a good case approach, or not? The simple answer is that the case approach was *valid*, but *very weak*. Why?

1. The negative team had conceded one of the two major issues of the debate (namely, the moral argument), and
2. The negative team had essentially agreed 'in-principle' with an apology, but had merely argued that it should be postponed until the rest of Australian society agreed with them!

Most importantly, the negative team made itself *look* weak, as though it was shying away from a fight – adjudicators do not generally look kindly upon teams that do not 'take the debate to their opposition'. In this case, the negative team should have taken a stronger and less apologetic stance. Of course, on such an emotive issue, this stance should have been accompanied by recognition of the sensitivities involved – a 'disclaimer', as we discussed earlier. However, such a stance would be far more effective.

For example, a better starting point for a negative case would have been:

1. “The Stolen Generation does not deserve an apology – the policy of forcible removal was carried out by past generations in pursuance of what they considered a noble goal. There is no moral obligation on current generations to apologise for the actions of previous generations.
2. “An apology will be counter-productive to the reconciliation process and will distract attention from the more important needs of indigenous Australians (health care, etc). This is the case today, and will be the case indefinitely. Therefore, an apology to the Stolen Generation is totally unjustified and unwarranted; the Government should not apologise now, and it should never apologise in the future.”

This negative case approach may cause many debaters to cringe, but that is only because they would personally prefer to argue the *affirmative* side of the topic. It is clearly a better case approach: it is simpler, it is stronger, it fights on both of the major issues of debate and, above all, it does not look weak.

From this example, we can extrapolate the key principle to ‘playing hardball’:
Never be afraid to argue an unpopular or controversial case, or a case with which you personally disagree.

However, the principle of ‘playing hardball’ goes beyond not being afraid of controversial cases; often, it is better for debaters to *actively seek out controversial cases* to argue, if they make the case simpler. This was ably demonstrated by the Victorian Schools Debating Team in its debate against Queensland in 1998. The topic was “THAT ATHLETES WHO TEST POSITIVE TO PERFORMANCE-ENHANCING DRUGS SHOULD BE BANNED FOR LIFE”. The affirmative team (Queensland) essentially argued, “We all know that performance-enhancing drugs are a form of cheating. Current bans are inadequate, so life bans must be imposed.” The negative team (Victoria) responded with, “Performance-enhancing drugs are no more a form of cheating than other sports technology, such as cyclists’ disc wheels. Since the use of such drugs is so widespread, and it is so hard to effectively test for them, such substances should be completely legalised in sports. This will finally stop disadvantaging those athletes who follow the rules.”

What were the strategic advantages of this approach?

- The negative had shifted the issue of the debate from under the affirmative’s nose: the affirmative had established the issue as *the extent* to which drug users should be punished, whereas the negative had (legitimately) changed it to *whether* drug users

should be punished at all. This left much of the Queensland case and mindset as irrelevant in the circumstances.

- The Queenslanders were so taken aback by the extremity of the Victorian case that they never properly responded; they could do little more than scoff in shock at an argument that they had probably never even considered in their entire lives.

Ultimately, the Victorians won the debate unanimously (and went on to win the National Championships that year) – *they were brave enough to take the initiative and to argue a simple case, however controversial it seemed.*

Therefore, in summary, there are three essential points about playing hardball:

1. *Be willing and able to question every personal opinion that you hold, and the assumptions that underpin it.*
2. *Never be afraid to argue an unpopular or controversial case, or a case with which you personally disagree.*
3. *Be willing to actively seek out controversial cases if they will be more likely to win the debate.*

FEAR COMPLEXITY, NOT CONTROVERSY

In discussing the Queensland v Victoria debate earlier, we noted two key advantages of ‘playing hardball’:

1. It can change the fundamental issue of the debate, thus shifting the debate onto your team’s terms; *and*
2. It can take your opponents by surprise, leaving them unwilling or unable to respond to your challenge to the fundamental assumptions of their case or mindset.

However, the most important and most persuasive reason to ‘play hardball’ is that, in many situations, you can argue a *much simpler case*. “So what?” you may ask. The answer is straightforward: debating is not like other forms of intellectual argument (such as the writing of academic articles). There are two key distinctions:

1. *Debaters have a relatively short time to put their case.* As we will examine in more detail later, the substantive (prepared) case must be presented by the first two speakers only. Assuming eight-minute speeches, your team has a *maximum* of 16 minutes, *including rebuttal*, to outline, explain, support and summarise your case. This is not suited to complex or intricate cases!
2. *Debaters must use the spoken word.* Debaters do not have the luxury of writing an intricate essay, allowing readers to read the complicated sections as many times as they need to. Similarly, unlike many public speakers, debaters cannot use whiteboards or computer presentations to display their ideas graphically.

Therefore, as a general rule, you should seek the simplest case, however controversial it may be. *Play hardball if your argument, although harder to stomach, is easier to understand!*

For example, consider a debate between Australia and Scotland, hosted by the Oxford Union, as part of the 1999 World Schools Debating Championships. The topic was “THAT THE KYOTO SUMMIT DIDN’T GO FAR ENOUGH”, and Scotland was affirmative. The case approach for Scotland was always going to be relatively straightforward; they were required to argue that the agreement at the Kyoto Summit did not go far enough in protecting the environment. In that sense, the Scottish team had little scope to ‘play hardball’, even if they had wanted to.

But what about the Australian team? A simple analysis would be that the affirmative team (Scotland) was designated to *criticise* the Kyoto agreement, whereas the negative team (Australia) was designated to *defend* the agreement. Indeed, this was the analysis used by most (if not all) of the other negative teams who argued the same topic at the Championships. Essentially, they said to themselves, “The two sides to the debate are clear: the affirmative will criticise Kyoto, and we will defend it. Simple.”

This seems simple and straightforward, until the negative team tries to prepare its case. Only then does the team realise what a difficult task it has set itself. The Kyoto Protocol is, in many respects, a ‘mish-mash’ of different targets for different nations, often determined more by each nation’s bargaining position than by its environmental or economic needs. The more that the negative team researches the intricacies of the Protocol, the more difficult it becomes to justify the Protocol as a ‘perfect’ compromise between economic and environmental needs. Specifically, the team finds itself logically trapped on both sides:

- If the team concedes, even briefly, that the Protocol could reasonably have done even a *little* more for the environment, it has conceded the debate and will lose.
- If the team tries to balance this risk by suggesting that the Protocol could have done *less* for the environment, it has contradicted its own case approach (that the Protocol struck a perfect balance), and will again probably lose.

There is a further strategic problem, too: that of *simplicity*. The negative team knows that the affirmative can present a very clear case, simply arguing, “Every nation lacked the courage to meet an appropriate target. Therefore, the Summit didn’t go far enough.” However, by maintaining that Kyoto was an effective compromise, the affirmative team would be forced to argue, “The EU promised an 8% emissions cut, the USA promised 7%, Japan promised 6%, Australia were allowed an 8% increase, and the overall reduction was 5.2%. Each of these amounts was entirely appropriate for the relevant nation or region. Therefore, the Summit struck an appropriate balance.” Clearly, by trying to argue for such a complicated balance, a negative team would be handing the affirmative a *significant* strategic advantage.

So what, then, was the ideal negative case? The answer was simple: *play hardball* – *the case would be more controversial, but much more likely to win*. This was exactly what the Australian team did; they chose to conceptualise the debate as a conflict between the environment and the economy (rather than between criticising and defending Kyoto). Rather than defending Kyoto, the Australian team chose to attack it just as emphatically as did their opponents – *but from the ‘other side’*. In simple terms, the negative team chose to argue, “The Kyoto Summit went *too far* in supporting environmentalists’ claims.”

Had the negative argued its original case, it would have been trying to balance on a very narrow part of the continuum; walking a ‘logical tightrope’, in constant fear of falling either to one side (‘not far enough’) or the other (‘too far’). Just as tightrope walkers prefer their feet on solid ground, so too did the negative find it much easier to argue a clear and simple alternative: to play hardball.

This analysis may seem very specific: it may seem that we are examining this one topic in far too much detail. However, this principle is useful for a large number of debates. For example, we noted in Chapter One that it is strategically very weak to negate comparison topics by arguing that the relevant quantities are equal. The example used was the topic “THAT THE MEDIA IS MORE POWERFUL THAN THE CHURCH”, and we noted that it was much more effective for the negative to argue “the church is more powerful than the media” rather than “the church and the media are equally powerful”. We can now understand this as a form of ‘playing hardball’.

Of course, ‘playing hardball’ is a guiding principle, not an underlying rule. Above all, you must use your common sense in choosing when and how to ‘play hardball’. For example, suppose that you are affirmative for the topic “THAT THE US SHOULD ABANDON MISSILE DEFENCE”. A simple, controversial and ultimately ‘hardball’ case for the affirmative team might be to argue, “the US should abandon missile defence in favour of missile attack – if the US perceives a nation as a threat, it should use nuclear weapons to obliterate that nation and its government.” Although this may *seem* like a courageous case, it is almost certainly more stupid than simple; common sense would indicate that this case would be *so* controversial as to be absurd. Unlike the cases for Kyoto or for drugs in sport, it could be effectively (although not ideally) destroyed by a negative team willing to scoff and ridicule.

Therefore, the guiding principle is clear:

Be willing to argue controversial or ‘hardline’ cases if they are simpler or easier to defend. However, use your common sense to distinguish between cases that are ‘brave’ and those that are foolhardy – between those that are ‘simple’ and those that are merely facile.

PLAYING HARDBALL IS A WHOLE CASE APPROACH

This discussion of ‘playing hardball’ and of arguing controversial cases is all well and good, but it is absolutely vital to remember the context in which it is being discussed. We are discussing ‘playing hardball’ as an approach for *case development*. We have *not* yet discussed the development of individual arguments, and we certainly have not covered rebuttal. As will be later explained, both individual arguments and rebuttal must be entirely consistent with the overall case approach. Therefore, *if your case itself is not fundamentally controversial, you cannot suddenly decide to ‘play hardball’ in developing either an individual argument or a rebuttal point.*

The reason for this should be straightforward: we noted that controversial ideas often surprise audiences and adjudicators (and opponents, of course, but they don’t matter!). Experience has shown that this surprise or disbelief can be overcome by reinforcing an idea, however controversial, throughout the course of the debate. For example, the Australian team initially shocked its audience and adjudicators with its controversial case in the Kyoto debate. However, the team was able to use the *entire length* of the debate to persuade those present that its case was plausible and reasonable. (Whether or not the team managed to change its audience and adjudicators’ long-held views is beside the point; it managed to overcome any initial disbelief that might have prevented its arguments being treated seriously.)

The team could *not*, however, have successfully achieved this within the short amount of time allocated to present a single argument or rebuttal point. In fact, this was illustrated by the Australian team one year later when competing against the United States in a ‘friendly’ debate prior to the 2000 World Schools Championships in Pittsburgh, USA. The Australian team was required to argue that the 21st century is worth welcoming. Among other points, the American team argued that the 21st century is not worth welcoming because of the environmental havoc that the greenhouse effect will cause. The Australian team responded, as a single rebuttal point, by claiming that the greenhouse effect does not exist. This was a similar (although certainly not identical) argument to that successfully presented in the Kyoto debate. However, the results were very different: whereas the Kyoto case had succeeded, this individual argument fell flat. It was simply not possible for the Australian team to explain, support and reinforce such a controversial proposition in the space of a single rebuttal point. *Just because a controversial idea can succeed as an entire case approach does not mean that it can be effective as an isolated point in an otherwise conservative case.*

Let’s consider one final example – a debate on the topic “THAT THE BRITISH EMPIRE HAS DONE MORE HARM THAN GOOD”. Among other points, the negative team argued that the British Empire brought democracy to nations that might not otherwise enjoy such a system. One speaker from the affirmative team responded by arguing that democracy was often not an effective system of government for

developing nations. There is absolutely nothing wrong with this *idea*; it is not unheard of and itself often forms the issue of debates. (For example, on topics such as “THAT A STRONG DICTATORSHIP IS BETTER THAN A WEAK DEMOCRACY”, OR “THAT DEMOCRACY HAS FAILED THE DEVELOPING WORLD”.) However, it remains a controversial argument that will take many audiences and adjudicators by surprise. Therefore, the affirmative team should have decided *either* to argue against democracy in the developing world as a key part of its entire case approach, *or* not to challenge the worth of democracy *at all*. To raise such a controversial idea so briefly was a strategic mistake that could serve only to confuse the audience and adjudicators.

ARGUING “TOO MUCH”

It has become something of a cliché for debating coaches, adjudicators and books to say “don’t prove more than you have to”. This is an important principle, and the cliché certainly draws attention to it. However, saying “don’t prove more than you have to” really begs the question; it leaves young debaters saying, “Sure – I *won’t* prove more than I have to...but how much do I have to prove?”. Certainly, if this saying is interpreted as suggesting that debaters should argue only the bare minimum on every point, it is a very dangerous and misleading saying indeed. For example, we have already spent some time examining circumstances where teams can gain a strategic advantage by ‘playing hardball’ – by arguing more than the topic strictly required. So what, then, is meant by this nebulous principle that debaters should not prove ‘too much’?

The principle can be extrapolated into three key points.

1. Be aware that you don’t need to fight every logical part of the topic

To return to a well-trodden path, strategy in debating is essentially about common sense. It is common sense that debaters are expected to debate the issue at hand – not necessarily to dissect the topic and to fight over every issue that might conceivably arise.

For example, consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD INTERVENE MILITARILY TO PROTECT HUMAN RIGHTS”. *Logically*, the topic can be analysed as raising two issues:

1. Whether human rights are worth protecting, *and*,
2. Whether we should intervene militarily in order to do so.

An over-technical or over-zealous negative team may well try to negate both issues: by arguing that human rights are not worth protecting and that, even if they are, military intervention is a counter-productive means of doing so. However, this is an unnecessarily weak and controversial case: there is no need, in negating this topic, to argue that human rights are not worth protecting. A very strong and simple case can

be built on the central argument that military intervention does more to harm human rights (both in the short- and long-term) than to protect them.

This really is a common sense approach: hopefully, very few debaters would think to automatically fight every logical part of the topic. However, this is nonetheless an important principle to bear in mind. Ignore it and you may find yourself arguing ‘too much’!

2. *Beware the temptation to make your case sound ‘too good’*

“What you guys want, I'm for.”

Former US Vice-President and Senator Dan Quayle

“By the year 1990, no Australian child will live in poverty”

Former Australian Prime Minister Bob Hawke in 1987

One common way of arguing ‘too much’ is for a team to exaggerate the benefits that will apparently result from its proposal. One classic example of this mistake occurred at the 2001 World Schools Debating Championships in Johannesburg, on the issue of gun control. The affirmative team (arguing in favour of gun control) noted that guns were used to assassinate both President Kennedy and Archduke Ferdinand. The team then proceeded literally to claim that stricter gun controls would have prevented both assassinations, as well as World War One (which they implied would not have occurred but for Ferdinand’s death). Further, they *even* asserted that similar world-shattering incidents of organised crime could be prevented in future by simple gun control legislation! Hopefully, the flaws in this argument are obvious. (For example, the fact that neither assassin was apparently a particularly law-abiding person is only the first problem...)

In retrospect, a much stronger case for the affirmative would have been to argue, “Sure, there will still be many gun crimes committed, primarily by people and organisations that are sufficiently sophisticated to buy guns on the black market. However, strict gun controls will eliminate the many gun deaths that occur annually in ordinary households, especially those caused by gun accidents, impulsive gun suicides or domestic violence.” True, the team is not promising extraordinary results (for example, the prevention of World War Three!), but the team is nonetheless showing overall benefit, *and that is all that is required*.

Therefore, it is important to remember that the most persuasive cases are not necessarily those that *promise* the greatest benefit; usually, they are the cases that promise a reasonable benefit that can be substantiated. Many teams, especially in younger grades, claim either that (1) Their proposal will save the nation, world or civilisation as we know it, or (2) Their opponent’s proposal will destroy the same, or

(3) Both. If your team finds itself in this position, change your case! To misquote a famous movie, beware of letting your enthusiasm write cheques that your case can't cash!

3. *Be specific*

The final way of arguing 'too much' is arguing *about* too much. We have already examined the importance of *defining* the topic so as to debate about one issue and *one issue only*. The alternative approach (debating about more than one issue in the same debate) should be avoided because it complicates debates unnecessarily. And, as you should hopefully know by now, every debater should fear complexity!

However, it is equally easy to complicate debates with your case approach: by having a case approach that tries to cover too many ideas *within* the single issue that you have selected by your definition. There is a second problem, too; the more ideas that your case incorporates, the less detail you can spend on any single idea. This approach risks losing to an opposition team that focuses on a very specific idea, but spends significant time doing so.

To clarify these distinctions, let's consider a school debate on the topic "THAT THERE IS A CASE FOR DICTATORSHIP." Both sides correctly identified the issue as being whether it was ever justifiable to have national government by dictator. However, it was not enough to have a specific definition: the affirmative team also had the opportunity to present a specific *case*. That is, the topic implicitly invited the affirmative team to provide *some* reasonable circumstance where dictatorship would be justifiable, and this is what the team did. Rather than arguing in favour of *all* dictators, or even *most* dictators, the affirmative team chose one specific model: that of Pakistan under President Musharraf. The team's case approach essentially was, "In some circumstances (namely, where a weak democracy cannot control dangerous political, ethnic or religious instabilities), it is best that a nation has a strong dictator with the expressed intention of protecting the nation's best interests." The team supported the implementation of that model in Pakistan, and in a few other cases.

This was an effective example of a specific case approach. The negative team faced two significant problems. Firstly, it was largely excluded from the debate, simply because it had prepared a case arguing against dictatorship *in general*. Rather than showing that dictatorship was *never* justified (or at least not in conceivable, real-world situations), it argued that dictatorship is *generally* wrong. This gave the affirmative a strategic advantage, because it could argue, "Sure - maybe dictatorship *is* wrong in *most* cases, but we only need to show that it works in *some* cases, and that is exactly what we have done." Secondly, because the negative team was forced to rely upon *many* examples (from Pol Pot to Augusto Pinochet), it could not deal with *any* example in the same detail as the affirmative team discussed Pakistan. Since the

affirmative team had managed to set Pakistan as the key example of the debate, this was a significant strategic disadvantage for the negative.

Of course, part of the affirmative team's strategic advantage was inherent in the topic: that it was *allowed* to choose a relatively small battleground to defend. However, it was nonetheless a very effective strategy for the affirmative team to argue a specific case – indeed, the affirmative team deservedly won the debate. The key distinction for us is simple: after you have *defined* the topic to a single and specific issue, you can often proceed to argue a specific case *within* that issue.

The approach inevitably overlaps with the selection of arguments: a topic that will be discussed in Step Three.

CRITERIA

What are criteria in debating?

We have learned that it is very important to clarify the meaning of words and concepts in a debate. This, after all, is the entire point of the definition.

On some rare occasions, however, you need to provide more clarity than any single definition can give. We learned earlier that the 'burden of proof' is *what your team needs to prove in order to show that your side of the topic is true*. Sometimes, you need to break this 'burden of proof' into smaller and more manageable parts. These parts are then referred to as 'criteria'.

Criteria add complications to a case – often, *many* complications! Hopefully, it is clear by now that simplicity is a very important part of effective debating strategy. It is *vital*, therefore, to use criteria *only when absolutely necessary*!

We need an example. Suppose that the topic were "THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED". This topic really does need criteria, because no single definition can give us any meaningful test of whether or when 'feminism has failed'.

Let's consider the approach of the affirmative team to this topic. The easiest way to do this is to imagine a conversation between members of the affirmative team, as they struggle with the question of what it might mean for feminism to have 'failed'.

“Okay, so we need to show that feminism has failed. First, we need to know, ‘failed whom’?”

“It would have to be ‘failed women’ – feminism was a movement about the empowerment of women.”

“Sure. But we still don’t know what it means to have ‘failed women’.”

“Perhaps the simplest approach is to say that ‘failed’ means ‘failed to meet its objectives’.”

“Good point. But feminism has never *had* any unified or stated objectives – it’s a diverse social movement!”

“True, but I think we can really reduce feminism’s objectives to one central idea – the goal of bringing substantive equality between men and women.”

“That sounds logical, but ‘substantive equality’ could really mean anything. How are we going to *judge* ‘substantive equality’?”

“Well, I think it falls into two clear categories. First, there is equality of opportunity – essentially, about women having access to positions, on the basis of their merit. Second, there is attitudinal equality – social attitudes respecting women to the same degree that they respect men.”

“Great. Well, let’s use those as our criteria – we will prove that feminism has failed because it has failed to bring attitudinal equality, and failed to bring equality of opportunity.”

Therefore, in this case, the affirmative team has set two criteria: it has promised to show

1. That feminism has not brought attitudinal equality, and
2. That feminism has not brought equality of opportunity.

These criteria are *one* way for an affirmative team to clarify its burden of proof. If used correctly, they will be very helpful to the affirmative team, both by providing clarity of concepts and clarity of structure.

Using criteria

Setting up your criteria

As we examined in Step One, the simplest understanding of criteria is that they are part of the definition. Therefore, your criteria should be ‘set up’ at the same time as your definition. (That is, early in the first speaker’s speech, as will be discussed later.)

As a general rule, it is worth explaining exactly *what* your criteria are seeking to clarify. For example, take the ‘feminism’ criteria established earlier. One approach would be to establish those criteria by saying, “We define ‘failed’ as meaning ‘failed to bring attitudinal equality and failed to bring equality of opportunity.’”

However, this approach doesn’t really show the audience and adjudicator *where* the criteria fit in, nor *why* the criteria are really relevant. A better approach would be to say something like this:

“We define ‘failed’ as meaning that feminism has failed its core objective, which we see as being the achievement of substantial equality between men and women. In this debate, we will use two criteria to judge whether that equality exists. First, there must be attitudinal equality – meaning that our society’s attitudes respect women as much as they do men. Second, there must be equality of opportunity – meaning that women have access to positions (such as jobs or political appointments) on the basis of their merit. Today, we will show you that feminism has failed on *both* counts.”

Referring back to criteria

It is not enough merely to establish criteria at the start of your case. You must refer back to those criteria throughout your team’s speeches – remember, the entire point of criteria is that you must show those criteria to be true in order to prove your side of the topic!

The simplest way to refer back to your criteria is to explain at the end of each argument *how* that argument supports one or more of your criteria.

For example, let’s continue with the feminism topic. Suppose that the affirmative team has just presented an argument that inadequate government support, particularly for childcare, prevents women from enjoying equality in the workforce. It is not really enough for the affirmative team simply to conclude that argument and move on.

Rather, the speaker needs to show *how* that argument supports *at least one* of the criteria that have been established.

In this case, the speaker can probably claim that the argument supports *both* of the criteria that have been established, by using words to this effect:

“What does this argument show? First, the government’s attitude, as representative of society’s attitudes, fails to properly acknowledge women’s special needs. This shows our first criterion, that feminism has failed to bring any kind of attitudinal equality. Second, I have shown that women are materially disadvantaged in the workforce, because they cannot access adequate childcare support. This means that women with the same level of competence and qualification as men will nonetheless not have the same opportunities in the workforce as those men – which shows our second criterion.”

This is the first important point about referring back to criteria – if you have criteria, you must refer back to them! However, there is a second important requirement – if you have criteria, *every criterion must be proved by both the first and second speaker*. We already know that criteria set out your team’s burden of proof. When we consider ‘splits’, we will learn that both the first and the second speaker must prove *all* the logical elements of your case. For now, we will simply note that this means that *both* the first and second speaker need to be able to prove *all* the team’s criteria.

Taking criteria ‘too far’

As the previous section shows all too well, criteria are one of the more complicated (and complicating) aspects of preparing your case. Sometimes, of course, you *need* criteria, because you cannot be sufficiently specific without them – you would find yourself speaking only in the broadest generalisations. However, *this does not mean that criteria should be used often, and it certainly does not mean that criteria should be made complex or intricate*.

Often, debaters fall into the trap of using criteria regularly – and using quite complicated criteria at that. Usually, this is the result of confusing *arguments* (that is, reasons that your side of the topic *might* be true) with *criteria* (that is, fundamental elements that *must* be true if your side of the topic is to succeed).

Before we examine the general pitfalls of this approach, let’s take an example. Remember: this is an example of what *not* to do!

Suppose the topic were “THAT THE USA WAS JUSTIFIED IN ATTACKING AFGHANISTAN”. An affirmative team who misunderstood the role of criteria might be tempted to divide this topic into its smallest logical components, making each of them a criterion. We could expect them to say words to this effect:

“We need to prove four things in order to show our case. They are:

1. That there was a need for action;
2. That military intervention was the most appropriate form of action;
3. That the USA’s approach was successful;
4. That the USA was the most appropriate body to carry out such an attack.”

The team would then dutifully ensure that *both* the first and second speaker proved *each* of these points, and that adequate time was spent on each one.

However, let’s consider just some of the reasons that this is a *very weak* strategy.

- There is no suggestion that the initial concept (namely, whether the USA was justified in attacking Afghanistan) is inherently vague or uncertain. Remember: criteria are used to *clarify* a concept that needs to be made more substantial (such as the notion of ‘failure’). Using them in this case is not merely unnecessary – it complicates things terribly!
- The affirmative team will almost certainly spend significant time on issues that quickly become irrelevant to the debate. For example, the negative team might argue that diplomatic action would have been more appropriate, thus making criteria 1 and 4 irrelevant. The affirmative team should have left these points for rebuttal – to be used only if necessary.
- As this example shows, this approach is often cumulative – that is, the criteria ‘build up’ so that the real issue is identified by the later criteria. This often means that a speaker will spend the best part of his or her speech on irrelevancies (in our example, whether there was a need for any action whatsoever), leaving little time and for the key issues (such as whether America’s action was effective).
- Identifying numerous criteria in this way simply gives an opposition (and an adjudicator!) more targets to hit. Remember – by setting up criteria, you are essentially saying, “We promise to show all of these things are true.” If an adjudicator subsequently feels that you did not prove *any* of your criteria (even a criterion that is somewhat irrelevant to the debate at hand), you will run the risk of losing. For example, in this case, criterion 4 just suggests an argument to opponents and adjudicators alike – it does not help the affirmative case.

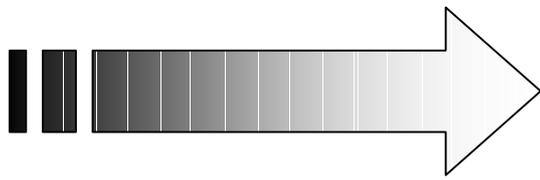
'Criteria' – A Loaded Term

Clearly, the word 'criteria' carries a lot of 'baggage' in debating! Therefore, be careful *not* to use the word 'criteria' unless you mean it in the sense that we have discussed. For example, it might be tempting to say "Today, I will present you with two criteria", when you really mean, "Today, I will present two arguments". Although it *shouldn't* matter, throwing around loaded words like 'criteria' will serve only to confuse adjudicators.

Criteria – Key Points

Essentially, these are the key points about using criteria.

- Criteria are designed to *clarify and simplify*, not to *complicate*. Unless a concept is inherently vague, don't use criteria. In practice, this means that criteria are far more useful in debates requiring a judgment of 'fact' ("THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED") rather than a judgment of policy ("THAT THE USA WAS JUSTIFIED IN ATTACKING AFGHANISTAN").
- If you think must use criteria,
 - Use as few as possible;
 - Set them up clearly at the outset, explaining how they elucidate the key concept;
 - Refer back to the relevant criterion (or criteria) at the end of each point;
 - Make sure that both the first and second speakers have proven *all* of the criteria;
 - Go back and think about whether you *really* need criteria!



step three:

the arguments

BEGINNER

THE BASIC APPROACH

What do we mean by an ‘argument’?

Like many words used in debating, the word ‘argument’ has many meanings. For example, in its broadest sense, the entire debate is an ‘argument’ between two teams. In a narrower sense, a team’s theme could be considered an ‘argument’, because it supports one side of the topic. However, the word ‘argument’ generally has a more specific meaning to debaters, and that is the meaning that is used in this book.

For our purposes, an argument is *a distinct point supporting your side of the topic*. For example, if the topic is “THAT SCHOOLS GIVE TOO MUCH HOMEWORK”, then the essence of an argument for the affirmative might be, ‘Students have so much homework to do that they do not have enough time for sport or other activities.’ This is not necessarily the *main* point for the affirmative team, and it is hardly the *central* point (that is, the theme). However, it is *a* point nonetheless so, for our purposes, it is an ‘argument’.

Therefore, in the simplest sense, we can consider a debating case to comprise different arguments, brought together by the case approach (which we examined in the last chapter).

Why do we need distinct arguments?

Many young debaters do not understand why distinct arguments are necessary – they wonder, “Why can’t I just give a speech supporting my side of the topic?”.

The answer is straightforward: that speech would inevitably involve a number of different ideas and, hopefully, examples. It is an important strategic skill for debaters to be able to separate those ideas and examples, and present them to the audience and adjudicator in a clear and logical way. The question, “Should I just give a speech

supporting my side of the topic?” really reduces to, “Should I trust the audience and adjudicator to identify my reasons for me?”. The answer, of course, is “**NO!**”.

A flowing speech that merely ‘supports the topic’ in the most abstract terms *will* include important arguments and examples, but they will rarely be identified as such, or placed into a logical order. Our approach here forces the speaker to identify the arguments and examples in his or her speech, and give them a clear structure. Hopefully, even at this simple and abstract level, it is obvious that the second approach is more logical, clearer, and hence easier to follow. This is why we need distinct arguments.

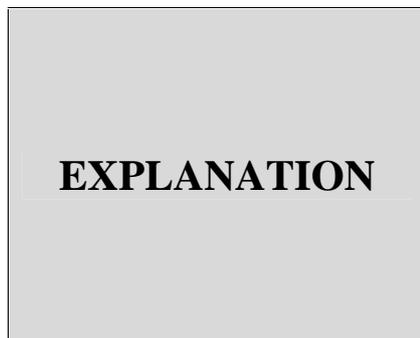
The basic structure of an argument

Structuring a speech by using distinct arguments is a great start. Ideally, however, each argument itself needs some kind of internal structure. We are now examining the structure that *each* argument should have, rather than the structure of the case as a whole.

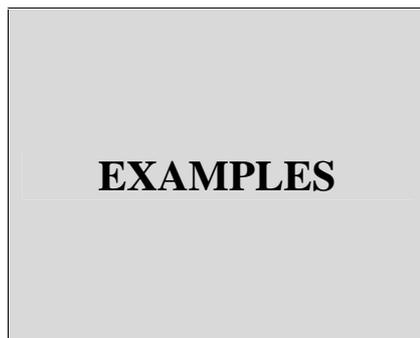
It is important not to be *too* rigid in discussing the internal structure of an argument; different speakers *can* use different structures for different arguments, and those structures can be successful. The following approach is a basic structure that works in many cases. Of course, you don’t have to use it – often you will find other structures that work just as well, or better – but understanding this structure is a still worthwhile!



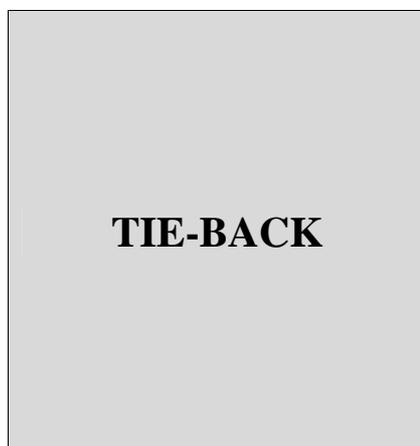
This is a short and simple statement of what your argument is about. It need not explain why the argument is true – it is really just a simple ‘reference’ for you, your adjudicator and your opposition to use in referring to this argument.



This is the ‘theoretical’ or ‘abstract’ explanation of *how* and *why* your argument is generally true. Ideally, the explanation and reasoning should be a few sentences long. In the case of complex or subtle reasoning, you may need more. At the end of this part, your average audience member should be thinking, “Sure – I understand why this argument *should* be true. But does it actually work in the ‘real world’?”.



Examples should answer this question – by convincing your audience and adjudicator that your argument is *actually* true in the ‘real world’. At the end of this part, your average audience member should be thinking, “I’m convinced – this argument *is* true in the ‘real world’! But how does this prove the speaker’s overall case?”.



The tie-back should answer this second question – by showing exactly *how* this argument supports your case approach. It is *never* enough to merely say, “This supports our theme, which is [X]”, or “This supports our first criterion, which is [Y]”. It is impossible to state exactly how long the tie-back should be. Remember, though: *you* probably understand *exactly* how your argument supports your case approach, because you have spent a long time working on it. Your audience, however, is hearing the argument for the first time, so your tie-back must make any logical links *clear* and *explicit*. A useful technique is to answer the question “*so what?*” about your argument – why is something true, or worthwhile, or worth supporting? The answer forms the essence of your ‘tie-back’.

How many arguments do you need?

There is no set rule about how many arguments you need in your case. Naturally, the ideal number of arguments will depend upon the context of your debate – for example, the grade, the length of speeches and the complexity of the topic itself. However, we can spot some important guidelines.

The first and second speakers almost always need at least two arguments. A speaker who thinks that he or she has only one idea to present usually needs to look more carefully at that idea – usually, there are at least two smaller parts that can each be developed as an argument.

Four or more arguments for either the first or the second speaker will almost certainly become unwieldy – the speaker will probably spend so much time setting up and tying-back those arguments that there will be little time for the essence of each argument itself!

Therefore, *as a general principle*, the first and second speaker should each have two or three arguments. This means that, as a team, you should prepare four, five or six arguments.

INTERMEDIATE

We now need to focus more closely on the ‘examples’ – that is, the part of your argument that convinces the audience that your assertions are true ‘in the real world’.

We will examine the best ways to choose and to develop examples. We will also look at some effective alternatives to examples.

EXAMPLES

Examples are the simplest and most popular form of substantiation. However, it is important to understand that only certain kinds of examples are useful in debates. Specifically, examples should be:

- Real,
- General and
- Significant.

Let’s take each of these in turn.

First, examples must be real. That is, they cannot be hypothetical. Many debaters, particularly in debates about philosophical or abstract topics, simply make up examples to illustrate their point. Consider the topic “THAT IT IS BETTER TO BE SMART THAN TO BE KIND”. Many young debaters would use hypothetical examples to support their argument. For example, “Imagine that you are at school, and the teacher asks you a question that you can’t answer. Everyone will laugh at you, no matter how kind you are. Therefore, it is better to be smart than to be kind.” The problems with this approach should be obvious – there is *no* evidence that “everyone will laugh at you”, and your opposition could just as easily make up their own hypothetical example to prove exactly the opposite!

Of course, the rule against hypothetical examples should not be misunderstood. It does not prevent you from hypothesising about the future, based on predicted trends, supported by real events. For example, if you were arguing against a war with North Korea, you could legitimately argue, “North Korea has a huge conventional weaponry, and possibly nuclear arms. President Kim Jong-Il would be willing to deploy those weapons were his regime attacked – his regime has always responded to the prospect of conflict with aggressive belligerence, and has repeatedly threatened military action were it attacked.” This logic may not be true, of course, but it is certainly arguable – although the speaker is hypothesising, he or she is supporting the predictions with real examples.

Second, examples must be general. This has already been explained in Chapter One, when we considered the requirement of general truth. Remember, Adolf Hitler is a real example, and he is certainly a significant example, but he is not a *general* example. The examples you choose must be significantly general to illustrate your abstract principle. Relatively isolated incidents will not show general truth.

Third, examples must be significant. Where possible, you should focus on the ‘big examples’ relating to your particular topic. Consider the topic, “THAT TERRORISM ACHIEVES NOTHING”. Both teams really should be aiming to spend significant time discussing the most significant recent examples of terrorist groups, such as Al-Qaeda, Hamas, the IRA and the PLO. Of course, the teams are welcome to discuss more obscure groups (such as the Shining Path, the Red Brigade or the Kurdistan Workers Party). However, if such groups are discussed, it must be *in addition to*, not *instead of*, an analysis of the most significant examples. Essentially, this is an application of the earlier principle that *where there is a clear issue, you should debate that issue*.

The easiest way for young debaters to use insignificant examples is to use personal anecdotes. For example, young debaters can often be heard to say things like, “The other day in my maths class...”, or “My sister plays sport, and ...”. These examples should be avoided at all costs – they are insignificant to substantiate your argument,

and they leave you open to ethos attack (“maybe our opposition’s family does that, but I’m sure the rest of us don’t”).

Analysis of examples

There is no question that a single event can mean many things to many different people. Take the events of September 11, for example.

To some people, they are evidence of America’s imperialist tendencies and the hatred that America causes. To others, they show the destructive force of ‘evil’ in the world. Even between these extreme views, there lie many different perspectives. Some focus on the attacks as the result of a failed state (Afghanistan); others view September 11 as the final nail in the coffin of ‘Napoleonic warfare’, marking a power shift towards non-state actors. Some American strategists see September 11 as a dramatic demonstration of global interdependence, and hence a reminder of the need to engage. Other American strategists see September 11 as being so momentous that, if necessary, America must act unilaterally to protect its security. Most people agree on the *facts* of September 11, but can differ significantly in their *interpretation* of those facts.

So what? It is *never* enough simply to mention an example; you must provide some interpretation and analysis of it. Suppose that the topic was “THAT THE WAR WITH IRAQ WAS JUSTIFIED”. An affirmative speaker might *merely* say, “America was justified in attacking Iraq because Saddam Hussein’s Government had aggressive motives. Organisations with aggressive motives cannot be left to pursue those motives in peace – September 11 is proof of that.” However, although September 11 is *mentioned* as an example, there is no *analysis* or *interpretation*. The statement poses more questions than it answers: *Why* is September 11 proof of that? What *part* of September 11 is proof of that? How are Al-Qaeda and the Taliban analogous to Saddam Hussein and his regime? The point is not that the example is a poor one – indeed, it may be a very good one. However, merely stating the example, without any explanation, analysis or interpretation, is a very poor strategy.

Weak analysis: A case study

The 1997 World Schools Debating Championships were held in Bermuda, and the quarter-final topic was “THAT THIS HOUSE WELCOMES THE 21st CENTURY”. The proposition (affirmative) had defined the topic (quite reasonably) to set itself the task of showing that the 21st century would be an improvement upon the 20th century. The second proposition speaker’s first argument was that human rights are improving. It is transcribed in full here, with an approximate guide to its internal structure.

Label (Incomplete)	Premise One, ladies and gentlemen, Human rights are good. Because it stops people being abused. It stops sinister things happening to people. It stops people being genetically engineered, with three heads, or not to be gay, or to be a different colour. It stops nasty things happening to people.
Explanation	Premise Two: More and more people are gaining human rights, because the world as a whole is becoming more and more democratic. The influence of western democracies, the influence particularly of America, exporting its great MTV culture all over the world, and its “you can go to McDonald’s and you can pick whatever you want – you have freedom of choice”, exporting this to the world is making the world more and more democratic.
Examples	We see the example of Burma, where Aung Sung Suu Kyi is doing great things for the democratic movement in Burma.
Tie-back	So, Premise One: human rights are good. Premise Two: more and more people are gaining human rights. Those have been proved. Therefore, we infer to the conclusion that more and more people are gaining something that is good. They will continue to gain this into the 21 st century. Therefore, the 21 st century will be better than before.

We could critique this argument on a number of levels. For example, while there is nothing wrong with the ‘premise one, premise two, conclusion’ structure, it seems weak in this context. This is because the first premise (‘human rights are good’) was not really an important contention at all: it was stated in such abstract terms as to be uncontroversial.

The more relevant critique for our purposes, however, is the complete lack of analysis of the examples. Three examples were used: MTV, McDonald’s and Aung Sung Suu Kyi. There is nothing *inherently* wrong with these examples – true, it is a brave speaker who claims that MTV and McDonald’s have any direct relevance to the spread of human rights, but some link could no doubt be found. The problem is not necessarily the choice of example so much as the abject lack of analysis. For example, the speaker never explained what an ‘MTV culture’ is, nor why it and McDonald’s represent freedom of choice. The speaker never showed how freedom of consumer choice (which is presumably the point) relates to freedom of political choice (that is, democracy), and never showed how democracy relates to human rights. Indeed, the very notion of human rights was never explained – it was simply reduced to an apparent prohibition on the most bizarre genetic engineering.

The speaker used the example of Aung Sung Suu Kyi, yet never explained who she was, what she was doing for democracy, whether or how that was having any real effect upon Burmese society, nor indeed why the world should even care what happens in Burma anyway!

The point here is not that the argument was fundamentally flawed – indeed, with a bit more caution, it could perhaps have been a very logical point. Rather, the point is that the speaker never properly analysed his examples, so they never really showed the truth of his assertions in any meaningful way. This is what some coaches and adjudicators mean when they criticise a speaker for “failing to ask the ‘big questions’” – the speaker has dealt in labels rather than in any real explanation and analysis.

Adding more examples

Your argument will generally be stronger if you can substantiate it with more than one example. There are a number of reasons for this.

First, using multiple examples generally adds credibility to your case. The principle that you are asserting is more likely to seem generally true if you can show that it applies in a number of cases, rather than merely in one case. What’s more, your team will generally seem more knowledgeable and credible on the issue if you can substantiate your arguments with numerous relevant examples – this will help you to ‘cover the field’ much more effectively.

Second, using multiple examples can, in some circumstances, give you a distinct strategic advantage. This is because many adjudicators, particularly at the World Championships level, use ‘flowchart’ marking guides. This means that the adjudicator will write down every argument and example as it is raised, then map its treatment throughout the debate. The adjudicator will look favourably upon a team that has raised an argument or example that has not been rebutted by its opposition. Under this adjudication approach, a team that uses multiple examples to support each argument receives a clear strategic advantage – the opposition is given more examples to rebut, which they are less likely to do successfully.

The danger of using multiple examples to substantiate an argument is that you simply *list* the examples, with no real analysis or interpretation. This is sometimes referred to as using a ‘shopping list’ of examples – the mindset, essentially, is “throw enough examples and one of them will stick”. Using a ‘shopping list’ of examples is much weaker than providing a single example with strong analysis and interpretation. In its most extreme form, this approach becomes argument *by example* – where a team will simply list examples that are asserted to show a particular point. That is, many teams provide little if any explanation for their arguments. This is a very weak approach – it is unlikely that any list of examples, without abstract reasoning, can show an argument to be generally true.

The best approach to using multiple examples is very simple – choose one example, analyse it fully, then list the other examples, with brief explanation. That is, you should present an example fully, as you would if it were the only example. *Then*, you

can add words to this effect: “This is also shown by the examples of [X], [Y] and [Z], which illustrate the same principle.” If you have time, you might like to add a *brief* explanation of how that same principle applied in each of the additional cases you cite.

STATISTICS

We learned earlier that an effective example is real, general and significant. In the previous section, these requirements were discussed to help us decide *which* example would be used. However, what if there is *no* example that meets these criteria?

This might be the case if our argument refers to numerous individual examples, rather than a relatively small number of examples. Suppose, for example, that the debate were about terrorism. There are a relatively small number of terrorist groups (or a relatively small number of significant terrorist groups, anyway), so we can happily choose some of these groups in order to generalise about the whole. However, suppose instead that our debate were about poverty and development. The number of poor people in the world is extraordinarily large. Even if we were to discuss ten individual cases, in fine detail, we would really be no closer to understanding or generalising about the issues of poverty and development.

It is here that statistics become important. For example, suppose that the debate were about the global response to AIDS, and you were arguing in favour of a significant and urgent response. You could use a heart-wrenching (true) story of a specific AIDS orphan as your example. However, despite its obvious pathos, this story cannot capture the significance of the AIDS issue. It would be more effective to explain the problem of AIDS orphans and then provide a relevant statistic – for example, that it is estimated that there are over 13 million AIDS orphans worldwide.

If you do choose to use statistics, it is important to make them sound credible. Where possible, you should state the initial source of your statistics, as well as any other relevant information (such as dates). For example, “According to the International Telecommunications Union, Norway has the greatest proportion of its population using the Internet: that proportion was estimated to be 59.63 per cent in 2001.” This seems much more credible than merely saying, “59.63 percent of Norwegians use the Internet”.

OTHER ALTERNATIVES TO EXAMPLES

Examples and statistics are by far the most common ways of supporting an argument. However, they are not the only ways.

In particular, problems can arise in trying to support an argument that is appealing to a sense of morality, or broad principle. Suppose, for example, that the topic is “THAT AUSTRALIA’S TREATMENT OF ASYLUM SEEKERS IS A NATIONAL

DISGRACE”. No doubt the affirmative will discuss the harsh conditions under which asylum seekers are detained in Australia, and will be able to find many specific examples of this. However, what if the affirmative team also wants to argue that the very *fact* of the mandatory detention is wrong? Numerous examples and statistics exist about the mandatory detention of asylum seekers, but none inherently show why it is wrong.

In cases like this, it is acceptable to revert to formal expressions of moral standards. Usually, this means citing international agreements to show a collective international will on a particular issue. For example, in this case, the affirmative could argue,

“It is a national disgrace that asylum seekers face mandatory detention when they arrive in Australia. This breaches fundamental principles of human rights. Arbitrary detention is prohibited by Article 9 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and by Article 9 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Mandatory detention is a form of arbitrary detention because it applies indiscriminately, and asylum seekers have inadequate opportunities to challenge the legality of their detention. This was recognised by the United Nations Human Rights Committee in 1997, in the case of A v Australia. What’s more, many child asylum-seekers face mandatory detention in Australia. This is contrary to Article 37 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which says that the detention of children will only be a measure of last resort.”

None of this substantiation involves statistics or examples. However, if used carefully, it is an acceptable form of support of a broad moral and community principle.

The second popular source of moral authority is religion. However, unlike international convention, religion is generally a very weak support in debates. Consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE DEATH PENALTY”.

The negative team may argue, “Killing is wrong. The Ten Commandments say, ‘Thou shalt not kill’, and Jesus taught us, ‘Love your neighbour as you love yourself’.” However, this is very weak in a debate – notwithstanding that many people follow these canons, there is no reason why the Bible should have any inherent authority in debating. What’s more, many of the most ardent supporters of capital punishment (for example, in parts of the USA) are also firm believers in sentiments such as these.

A more sophisticated approach is to say, “Killing is wrong. This is a recognised principle of morality, as we can see by looking at the doctrines of most major religions around the world.” However, even this approach is weak. Not only is it questionable whether most major religions do oppose capital punishment, there is no inherent reason why religious doctrine should determine public policy (or debating results!) in secular countries.

It is easy to see why debaters occasionally look to religious doctrine to substantiate their arguments – it is generally because neither examples nor statistics exist to make the point. However, in these cases, it is much better to look to international convention than to religious pronouncements, however important those pronouncements may be to many members of our society.

FINDING MATTER

Of course, it is easy to discuss the principles of matter in theoretical terms, throwing around many examples in the process. For most debaters, a very practical question arises: “Where do I *find* these examples and statistics?”

This is where debating can become sheer hard work! Good debaters have good general knowledge – of world events, issues and organisations. In fact, a significant proportion of the time that a good team spends before a debating tournament will be spent on research, for just this reason.

News and Current Affairs

At the most basic level, debaters can improve their general knowledge by keeping in touch with news and current affairs. This means watching the news on television, listening on radio, or reading it in the newspapers or on the Internet. If you are going to spend time keeping in touch with the news, you should spend your time effectively – and that means knowing which news sources are worthwhile. Every city has ‘serious’ news sources, and every city has ‘man bites dog’ news sources – good general knowledge comes from the former, not the latter!

Keeping in touch with the news is a great way to start improving your general knowledge. However, simply watching the news will usually not be enough to gain a good understanding of the issues – at least, not for higher levels of debating. Usually, you need to seek out ‘big picture’ articles and analysis, which discuss an issue as a whole rather than simply reporting on the most recent news story. There are many good sources for such discussion. Some of these are set out in Chapter Five.

Research

General knowledge is vital for any form of debate. However, it is sometimes necessary to do specific research on an issue to complement your general knowledge. It is difficult to give any general guidance for research of this kind. However, two points probably bear mentioning.

First, remember to keep your research ‘debate-worthy’. Where possible, avoid long discussions or facts that are of curiosity value only. Instead, try to note relevant

names, dates and numbers, as well as concise discussions of important relevant events. These will be of much greater use in developing a case.

Second, the Internet is an invaluable tool, but you must use it properly. Simply searching for the issue of your debate (for example, ‘capital punishment’) then clicking links is unlikely to yield good results. You will have more success by looking at facts, press statements and publications produced by relevant non-government organisations (such as Amnesty International). There is no need to limit your search to websites supporting your side of the topic. For example, if you are supporting capital punishment, Amnesty’s website provides useful news, facts and figures on the issue – even though Amnesty opposes capital punishment.

Fabricating matter

There are not many ways of cheating in debating, but fabricating matter (that is, making up examples and claiming that they are true) is one of them. Everyone who attends a debate – the audience, the adjudicator and your opposition – is entitled to assume that the substantiation you present is true. Of course, every debater will try to interpret examples and statistics in a favourable way – that, after all, is the essence of analysis and interpretation – but that is fundamentally different from simply fabricating.

Fortunately, the fabrication of matter is not merely morally objectionable – it can be strategically catastrophic. If you know so little about an issue that you are forced to fabricate matter, you probably don’t know enough to make that fabrication sound reasonable. Adjudicators, opponents and audiences alike generally have a decent chance at spotting fabrication when it occurs – and the subsequent decline in a debater’s overall credibility is overwhelming.

The message should be simple: don’t fabricate matter. Ever. Take the time to do more research. If no good examples or statistics exist, change your argument. On a somewhat philosophical level, competitive debating is one part of public debate in our society – fabricating matter defeats its entire purpose.

CREDIBILITY IN PRESENTING MATTER

By now, it should be clear that credibility is very important in debating – audience members and adjudicators want to know which case (and hence which team) they should trust. Credibility is most important in presenting matter – it is not enough to know what you are talking about; you must *sound* like you know what you are talking about.

There are two ways to achieve credibility in presenting matter. First, your arguments should, if possible, maintain a sense of perspective and proportionality. If, for

example, you claim that Russian President Vladimir Putin is a militaristic ‘hawk’, your perspective is understandable; if you argue that he is likely to invade the United States at the drop of a hat, you are probably going too far! This principle should seem obvious, but it is nonetheless important: debaters with a trite or superficial understanding of current events suffer a greater risk of presenting bizarre or extreme perspectives.

Second, regardless of how credible your argument actually is, there are a number of techniques that can be used to make your argument *sound* credible. These are the same techniques that news reporters use all the time: mention names, dates and numbers! It sounds much more credible to say, “British Prime Minister Tony Blair and his government provided strong ongoing support for the Bush Administration’s hardline stance on Iraq” than “Britain strongly supported America’s hardline stance on Iraq”. Similarly, it is more credible to say, “On April 19, 1995, Timothy McVeigh killed 169 people by bombing the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City” than, “The Oklahoma bombing in the mid-1990s killed many people”. This is the main reason that you should pay so much attention to names, dates and numbers when you follow current affairs – not because they always *change* the argument, but because they contribute so much to your credibility in presenting the argument. Indeed, it is not unusual for ‘general knowledge tests’ to be used (in part) in debating trials. Significant portions of these tests are usually devoted to ‘naming names’, for precisely this reason.

‘Home turf’ examples

We learned earlier that it is a strategic mistake to use examples from your own personal life. The reason given earlier was that such examples are strategically insignificant.

However, there is a second reason: speakers lack credibility if their only substantiation comes from their own ‘backyard’. This reason becomes particularly important at national and international debating tournaments, where there is an unfortunate tendency for teams to overuse examples from their own country. The correct principle is simple: a team’s choice of substantiation should be governed by the issue of the debate and the geographical scope of the tournament, not by the team’s place of origin.

For example, the World Schools Debating Championships are an *international* debating tournament. Therefore, examples and statistics used should be of *international* significance. Of course, this does not mean that they need to apply to the whole world; examples and statistics from specific countries are fine, but only if they are relevant internationally. For example, the Australian Schools Debating Team has traditionally adopted a policy that only two Australian examples are internationally significant (and hence usable in international debates): the Port Arthur massacre and

the Sydney Olympics. Even then, it was understood that these examples would be used only if necessary, and with other substantiation from elsewhere in the world.

Of course, this does not mean that *every* country must adopt such a modest view of its international significance! The American Schools Debating Team, for example, could hardly be criticised for using many more ‘home turf’ examples, precisely because so many American examples *are* of international significance in the current international climate. However, the underlying principle remains the same: debating tournaments are not ‘conferences’. At a conference, delegates would be expected and encouraged to discuss issues in the context of their own experience. At a debating tournament, participants are expected to argue their side of every issue in the best way possible – and that means *not* unduly relying upon ‘home turf’ material.

The correlative to this principle is that debaters should avoid, where possible, using material from their opposition’s place of origin. The rationale for this is straightforward: your opposition will generally be much better informed about that example than you are, but will not suffer any credibility loss by discussing it – because it was your team that brought the example into the debate.

The Australian Schools Debating Team made this mistake when debating the English Schools Debating Team at the 2000 World Schools Debating Championships in Pittsburgh. The Australian team cited the example of a town in England that had witnessed a significant increase in crime rates, and claimed that the example showed the weakness of that town’s policing policy. What the Australian team did *not* know (and the English team *did*) was that the town was a new and wealthy housing development – the overall crime rate was therefore quite *low*, notwithstanding that it had increased. The English team were, of course, quite willing to explain this distinction to their Australian friends on numerous occasions during the debate, reminding the Australian team the hard way of an important principle: *where possible, avoid using examples or statistics from your opposition’s ‘home turf’!*

USE OF SUBSTANTIATION ELSEWHERE IN YOUR CASE

We have spent significant time examining the internal structure of an argument, and considering the importance of interpretation and explanation in presenting any substantiation. Specifically, we have learned that substantiation is really only as good as the explanation that accompanies it, and the argument that it supports.

For this reason, it is a significant strategic mistake to use substantiation elsewhere in your team case. For example, one debate at the 2001 World Schools Debating Championships in Johannesburg involved the issue of AIDS drugs for the developing world. One first affirmative speaker began his speech with a long list of emotive statistics about the spread of AIDS around the world. The statistics were impressive, and the team had clearly done a significant amount of research. However, the statistics

were largely wasted. By simply dumping them at the start of his speech (rather than incorporating them into individual arguments), the speaker missed the opportunity to analyse, explain and interpret those statistics. That is, he left all of the ‘big questions’ unanswered: *Why? How? So what?* The lesson here should be simple: if you go to the trouble to find good examples or statistics, make sure you incorporate them into distinct arguments. Remember: a statistic or example left on its own proves nothing.

Of course, this does not mean that you can never *mention* examples elsewhere in your speech. A first affirmative speaker might quite effectively use an introduction like this: “Mr Chairman, ladies and gentlemen...when a second plane hit the World Trade Center on September 11, 2001, the world changed forever. This is a debate about how our governments can best respond to the new security threats that we all face.” There is nothing wrong with *mentioning* the example of September 11, because the speaker is not really trying to use it to make any *point*. However, if you want your examples or statistics to have any persuasive weight, you need to develop them as part of a distinct argument.

ADVANCED

SOPHISTICATION IN EXPLANATION

It is important to provide some abstract explanation (theoretical reasoning) as to why your argument is true. However, this need not be done in an entirely abstract or theoretical way – where possible, it is preferable to present your explanation in a way that is both simple and tangible for your audience to follow.

For example, suppose you were negating the topic “THIS HOUSE BELIEVES THAT BILL GATES IS TOO BIG FOR HIS BYTES”. The issue here is whether Microsoft is too big, and the debate reduces significantly to a discussion of whether Microsoft has acted in an unacceptably anti-competitive way. Suppose that you were presenting an argument that Microsoft has simply engaged in beneficial product integration.

An abstract (and easy) way of explaining that argument might be something like this: “Product integration is the process of integrating more components and benefits into a product. Product integration is an important way for corporations to distinguish their products in a competitive marketplace, and it ultimately increases the real value of a product. For this reason, we should not criticise Microsoft’s conduct – it simply amounts to welcome product integration.”

This explanation is sound. However, it would hardly ‘connect’ with many members of your audience, and even your adjudicator would probably be left unclear as to exactly what you were arguing.

This topic and argument arose in 1998 in a Minter Ellison Series debate between the Australian Schools Debating Team (on the proposition) and a team comprising Adam Spencer, Cheryl Bart and James Hooke (on the opposition).

Adam Spencer was first speaker for the opposition, and explained this argument in a particularly innovative way:

“Let’s look at the concept of integration of product. This is one of the main issues that the whole anti-trust action is about.

“Ten, fifteen years ago, when you bought a car, the thought of it having a radio – nup. Air-conditioning – no chance. Sunroof – no chance. Dot, dot, dot. Those things were expensive, hard-to-obtain extras that everyone wanted and had to go out of their way to get.

“Computers have developed in exactly the same way. Not just Microsoft, but every single one of Microsoft’s competitors – IBM, Apple, Sun, Novell – have been integrating product into their packages throughout the process. Microsoft are simply better at it. So it comes that if you buy a Microsoft product, and you get Windows thrown in, that is nothing more than product integration.”

Adam then proceeded to give specific substantiation of the argument – that is, this was simply his abstract explanation.

The beauty of this approach is its deceptive simplicity. The reasoning here is general and abstract, in the sense that Adam did not start simply by discussing Microsoft in great detail – he established an abstract principle about product integration. However, the explanation is simple, even colloquial. The use of common examples makes it all the more tangible; it is an explanation that an audience could relate to, and unquestionably did – the Australian team was well beaten!

The point here is *not* that you should always use analogies to explain your arguments, for analogies can often obscure rather than clarify an issue. Rather, the point is that even theoretical and abstract reasoning can be made simple and tangible if you work hard enough. Inexperienced debaters are probably best advised to stick with a basic explanation until they feel comfortable with it – Adam Spencer is undoubtedly a ‘master of the art’, and explanations of his colloquial simplicity tend only to come with experience!

TESTING YOUR ARGUMENTS

So far, we have examined the abstract principles of developing individual arguments. However, we have not examined any techniques for deciding whether or not an argument that you are considering is actually a good argument that will help your case. This is what ‘testing your arguments’ is all about: like stress testing in a manufacturing process, it involves searching for weakness and possible improvements in your product (or in our case, your argument!).

SPECIFIC WEAKNESSES

There are a number of potential weaknesses with arguments that are sufficiently common to receive specific mention. Of course, this is by no means an exhaustive list of the potential problems with arguments, but it is certainly a list worth watching out for!

Inconsistency

Quite obviously, arguments must be consistent with each other and with your team’s theme. A direct and relevant contradiction will almost certainly cause a team to lose, because it erodes so much of a team’s credibility.

Direct and relevant contradictions are, thankfully, fairly easy to identify in preparation. However, subtle inconsistencies between arguments can also erode a team’s credibility (although not to the same degree, of course), but can often be difficult to spot in preparation.

For example, in the debate about AIDS drugs discussed earlier, the negative team (opposition) was arguing that generic drugs are not very good, and hence are not a viable substitute for actual ‘AIDS drugs’. One opposition speaker took the line that ‘AIDS drugs’ were *as bad* as generics, which were very bad. Another speaker on the same team argued that generic drugs were so bad that they were *worse* than actual ‘AIDS drugs’. This example shows just how subtle some inconsistencies can be. Here, both speakers were arguing that generic drugs were of poor quality, and hence inadequate substitutes. However, their understanding was nonetheless inconsistent. While this inconsistency certainly did not lose the debate (in fact, the team won), it was certainly not helpful to the team’s credibility. For this reason, it is always important when developing arguments to ensure that *every* speaker of the team understands the argument in the same way.

Insignificance

Remember, it is usually necessary to show that your side of the topic is generally true. It is possible to present arguments or examples that are logically relevant, and well argued, but which nonetheless do not show your side of the topic to be true in general.

For example, consider the topic “THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE 20th CENTURY”. In this case, the negative team must provide arguments and examples to show the benefits or the gains from the 20th century. Almost inevitably, an inexperienced team will discuss the Internet as one of the key benefits of the 20th century. However, this is logically and strategically very weak! Why? Because the Internet was widely relevant only really in the last five years of the 20th century. Even then, it has been regularly used by only a few per cent of the world’s population. Although the Internet can definitely be portrayed as a ‘gain’ of the 20th century, it is simply not significant enough to use in the case – particularly given the extraordinary political, social and economic changes that occurred over the course of the century. The Internet will surely pale against the opposition’s examples, which would likely include two World Wars, numerous other conflicts, widespread genocide and mass starvation!

A simple ‘rule of thumb’ may help here. It is not enough to ask, “Is this argument relevant?”, or “Does this help our side of the topic?”. You should also ask, “Will this argument or example really stand up against the biggest and most significant arguments and examples presented by our opposition?”.

Arguments that are too general

Quite obviously, the objective of a debate is to argue about an issue. Therefore, your arguments must relate to the issue of debate, and do so directly.

This principle seems self-evident, but can often be overlooked. For example, one debate at the 2001 World Schools Debating Championships in Johannesburg was on the issue of whether gay couples should be allowed to adopt children. The affirmative team (the proposition) was arguing in favour of allowing such adoption, and started with the argument that “discrimination is always wrong”, giving the example of the unacceptability of anti-Semitism. This argument, however, was too general, and merely begged the crucial question – the affirmative team was arguing, “Distinctions should not be drawn without good reason”, but was not discussing whether or not good reason did exist, *in this case*. The principle here should be clear: either you should be arguing directly on the issue at hand, or you should be drawing an analogy and explaining its relevance. If you find yourself stating general propositions in the abstract, your argument is probably not specific enough.

Irrelevance

Some arguments are not so much *weak* as *invalid* – they are irrelevant to what your team needs to show. That is, even if they are well substantiated and well argued, some arguments simply do not assist your side of the topic. For that reason, quite obviously, you should never use them!

The simplest form of irrelevant argument is an argument that does not prove what your team set out to show. Although this sounds obvious, it is surprising how often debaters can become so enthused by an argument that they completely fail to realise its irrelevance! This is often caused by misunderstanding the underlying assumptions of the debate.

Let's consider an example. Suppose the topic was "THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT GLOBALISATION". The negative team may argue something along these lines: "We should not support globalisation. We live in a democracy, and our government is obliged to respect public opinions. Massive anti-globalisation protests around the world, as well as numerous opinion polls, prove that the majority of our society is opposed to globalisation. Therefore, our government has a moral duty to oppose it."

The problem with this argument should be clear: it confuses the notions of 'we' and 'our government'. The underlying assumption of a debate like this is that 'we' (whoever 'we' are) are required to decide whether *we* support globalisation. Merely showing that many other people oppose globalisation is utterly irrelevant to whether 'we' should support it. This principle should seem obvious – and the argument is quite bizarre and illogical – but this kind of approach can sometimes occur. Like so many traps in debating, this trap can be avoided by debating the clear issue required by the topic: in our case, the merits and demerits of globalisation.

Dependent arguments

One special form of invalid argument is a dependent argument – an argument whose effectiveness depends entirely upon the success of another argument, and is therefore not a distinct reason in support of the topic.

This, too, is best explained with an example. One debate at the 1999 World Schools Debating Championships was on the topic "THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT VOLUNTARY EUTHANASIA". The affirmative team argued on two fronts. First, the team argued, "Terminally ill patients in extraordinary pain should have a right to die, and allowing those patients to receive voluntary euthanasia is a good thing." (Of course, the argument was more sophisticated than this, but this was its essence.) Secondly, the team argued, "Palliative care is extremely costly, and a significant drain on our society's resources. Of course, we wouldn't support killing people simply to save money, but *given* that terminally ill patients should have a right to die, and *given*

that a specific patient exercises that right, society will receive economic benefits by not having to support that patient's palliative care."

The main clash between the cases is, understandably, over whether or not a terminally ill patient has a right to die. The affirmative team is essentially arguing, "If a patient has a right to die, then there is an additional benefit by our economic cost argument. But if a patient has no right to die, the economic cost does not itself justify voluntary euthanasia." Therefore, the economic cost argument does not contribute to any clash between the cases, because its value is dependent entirely on the success of another argument (the 'right to die' argument). It therefore does not assist the affirmative case, and should have been omitted.

Consider one further example: a debate on the topic "THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT A HEROIN TRIAL". The affirmative team had proposed a trial to make heroin available to a limited number of addicts in a limited part of Australia (namely, the Australian Capital Territory). One affirmative speaker then proceeded to argue, "We should support a heroin trial because of the numerous benefits that it can bring to the nation as a whole. Once a heroin trial is successful in the ACT – as we know it will be – it can be extended to the entire nation!". The problem with this approach should be clear: the entire argument was dependent on whether a heroin trial would indeed be successful in the ACT. This was (or should have been) the issue of debate.

No doubt, it can be difficult to spot dependent arguments such as this, which do not arise very often (although they tend to arise most in debates of a particularly 'moral' nature). However, the underlying principle should be clear: where a debate concerns a fundamental issue, your arguments must address that issue. Merely pointing to additional benefits will not generally strengthen your arguments on the main issue of debate.

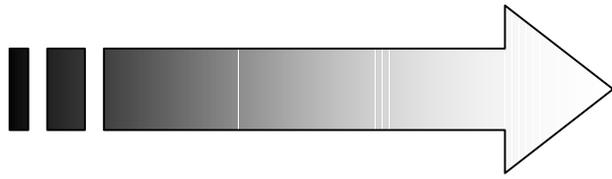
CONCLUSION TO STEP THREE

In this chapter, we have examined the importance of using distinct arguments, the essential requirements of an argument and *one* possible internal structure for an argument.

We know that every argument must include a number of components:

- A label,
- Theoretical reasoning and explanation,
- Substantiation,
- At least one ‘tie-back’,
- An internal structure that is clear and simple, and which assists rather than impedes the persuasive value of your argument.

The simple structure that we examined (a label, followed by an explanation, examples and tie-back) is one way of combining these components. Ultimately, your goal in developing every argument should be to use a structure that is clear, logical and easy to follow.



step four: the split

Once your team has developed arguments, you are ready to start writing speeches. Well, almost ready – but you can't write any speeches until you know which speaker will be presenting which arguments! This allocation – of arguments to speakers – is known as 'the split'. In this chapter, we will examine the important guiding principles for deciding upon your split.

BEGINNER

THE BASIC CONCEPT

Let's begin by understanding the basic concept. There are three people in a debating team. It might be tempting to think that all three speakers present substantive arguments, but this is not accepted practice. Instead, it is accepted that the third speakers will devote their speeches to rebuttal and summary (as we will examine in more detail later). Therefore, this leaves the first two speakers to present all of the team's prepared ('substantive') arguments.

Therefore, splitting your case is essentially about 'halving' your case – dividing your prepared arguments between your team's first and second speakers. The easiest way of doing this would be to do it arbitrarily: for example, each speaker could take the arguments that he or she likes, or the arguments could be divided alphabetically. However, this approach is *wrong!* It is far more strategic to divide your arguments along some common or logical lines.

Therefore, splitting your case essentially involves finding two labels – one for the first speaker's material and one for the second speaker's material – and determining which arguments fit under each label.

Choosing The Groupings

The first challenge in splitting your case is to identify which arguments belong together – that is, to decide how the arguments will be grouped. It is difficult to be

very dogmatic about this aspect of debating technique – each split really does need to be decided upon the merits of the entire case that you have developed, so we can only examine general principles.

Your arguments should be grouped along common logical lines – essentially, you should consider the different areas or groups to which the topic applies. For example, in a debate about whether voluntary euthanasia should be legalised, you may choose to group your arguments under the labels ‘patients’ and ‘doctors’, or ‘patients’ and ‘society in general’. In a debate about American foreign policy since September 11, you may wish to group your arguments under the labels ‘defence and security issues’ and ‘broader geopolitical issues’.

Often, you will not immediately be able to identify distinct groups that ‘appear’ from the topic itself. In that case, you need to look through your list of individual arguments, to group ‘similar’ arguments together. The outcome should be the same – that is, you should identify common logical lines that unite the arguments for each speaker.

A ‘hung case’

When we examined the development of individual arguments, we learned the importance of tying each argument back to the overall case approach. We do this in order to present a unified case.

For this same reason, it is vital that each speaker proves the *whole* case, albeit by considering different areas. A simple way of considering this principle is to imagine that an audience member will watch *either* your first or second speech, but not both. You need to be able to convince that audience member of your side of the topic.

For example, let’s consider that you are affirmative for the topic “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT VOLUNTARY EUTHANASIA”, and assume again that your first speaker is discussing patients and your second speaker is discussing society more broadly. An audience member who watched only the first speech could be convinced that we should support voluntary euthanasia, because of the issues confronting patients. An audience member who watched only the second speech could be convinced that we should support voluntary euthanasia because of the issues confronting society in general. Therefore, this split is valid.

However, suppose you were affirmative for the topic “THAT SPORTS STARS ARE PAID TOO MUCH”. Presume that your first speaker shows sports stars are paid *a lot*, and that your second speaker shows how this causes detriment. In that case, an audience member who watched only the first speech *could not possibly* be convinced that sports stars are paid ‘too much’ – the entire notion of ‘too much’ (excess causing

detriment) is not shown until the second speech. Therefore, this split is invalid, and is known as a ‘hung case’.

Hung cases can arise most easily in debates that require a number of distinct points to be shown (such as ‘too’ topics, or ‘big, red ball’ topics generally). However, they can also arise in other topics if a team is not careful – particularly if a team tries to use its first speech to ‘set the stage’ for the second speech. For example, one topic at the 1997 National Schools Debating Championships was “THAT TRADE WITH CHINA SHOULD BE LINKED TO IMPROVEMENTS IN HUMAN RIGHTS”. One affirmative team allocated its material so that the first speaker showed that human rights abuses were serious and widespread in China, and the second speaker showed why, therefore, it was important to link trade with human rights. It should be obvious why this was a hung case: the first speaker had not proved the topic; indeed, the negative team happily conceded the fact that China has widespread human rights problems. A common example of this form of hung case, particularly among inexperienced debaters, is for one speaker (usually the first speaker) to discuss some kind of subsidiary issue or ‘background’ (for example ‘historical background’), and the other speaker (usually the second speaker) to present ‘actual arguments’. Remember: *each* of your first and second speaker must show your case and your side of the topic!

We have learned that a hung case arises if you split the elements of a ‘big, red ball’ topic on the *affirmative*. However, what if you split the elements of a ‘big, red ball’ topic on the *negative*? Essentially, in the most abstract sense, what if your first speaker argues, “It’s not big”, and your second speaker argues, “It’s not a red ball”? On first appearances, this seems to be a valid split: both speakers are disproving the topic (as a negative team must do), and the speeches are not contradictory. However, on closer inspection, this *is* a hung case – although each negative speaker may be opposing the *topic*, they are not each showing their *case*. That is, in this abstract example, the negative team’s case approach essentially says, “It’s neither big, red nor a ball”. It is this case approach that is invalidly hung by splitting the elements of the ‘big, red ball’ topic.

Finally, we must examine the ‘moral / practical’ split, which is often popular in debates involving ‘should’ topics. Some debaters consider this split to create a hung case. Their reasoning is that a ‘should’ topic requires a team to show *both* a moral and a practical element, and those elements cannot be divided. However, this is not strictly correct. A speaker *can* validly show that something ‘should’ be done purely for moral reasons, while another speaker can support it purely for practical reasons. Nonetheless, the ‘moral / practical’ split is very weak – while you *can* show that something ‘should’ be done purely for moral or purely for practical reasons, your argument will almost always be stronger if you combine both elements.

INTERMEDIATE

Common splits

Some splits seem to apply well to numerous topics, and many debaters understandably look to these when trying to find a split for their own case.

Common splits include:

- Society / Individual;
- International / Domestic;
- Military / Political;
- Some combination of Social, Political and Economic;
- Short-term / Long-term.

A few words of warning are in order. First, you should try initially to find a split that works well with your case and your arguments before resorting to any list of common splits (such as this one). Second, if you *do* resort to a common split, it is generally a good idea to tailor the labels of the split to your own case. For example, splitting ‘society / patient’ in a debate about euthanasia is essentially a ‘society / individual’ split with a more specific name.

Where to start?

Having chosen your arguments’ groupings, you now need to decide the order of speeches. For example, in the euthanasia debate, you need to decide whether the first speaker discusses ‘patients’ or ‘society’. There are a number of helpful guides for deciding this issue.

First, one of your groupings may represent the ‘primary’ group in the debate, because of its central importance to the issue. If this is the case, it is generally strategic to put that group first. For example, ‘patients’ is clearly the fundamental or primary group in a debate about euthanasia. Therefore, if you were going to split a debate about euthanasia along the lines of ‘patients’ and ‘society’, you would almost certainly be best to allocate ‘patients’ to your first speaker.

Second, you may have a split where one grouping represents a general or ‘big picture’ view, and the other grouping represents a specific view. If this is the case, it is *generally* preferable to move from the general to the specific. For example, if your split were ‘society’ and ‘individual’, it would usually be strategic to allocate ‘society’ to the first speaker. This is only a general principle, however – indeed, in the previous

paragraph, we examined a split that is probably best ordered the other way around (that is, we placed ‘patients’ first, although they are the more specific group).

Third, if you have time, it is generally worthwhile to consider how your opposition will split their case, particularly if you are on the negative. You *may* want to decide the order of your split in response to your opposition’s likely split. For example, suppose that the topic is “THAT WE ARE TOO SOFT ON CRIME”. It is likely that two good teams debating this topic will each split their case “criminal” and “society”. A strategic affirmative team is likely to place ‘society’ first, because the case for harsher criminal punishment is generally strongest when viewed from society’s point of view (for example, looking at high crime rates, unfortunate victims and the like). A negative team’s first impulse would probably be to place ‘criminal’ first, both because criminals are the fundamental group and because the negative will prefer to empathise with criminals throughout the debate (for example, discussing many criminals’ unfortunate childhood and the like). However, a strategic negative team *may* choose to reverse its split (that is, to place ‘society’ first) in order to combat the emotive social arguments that the first affirmative will likely be raising.

These general guidelines may assist in determining the order of some splits; in other cases, they will prove useless. Ultimately, like the grouping itself, the ordering of the split is something to be considered and decided carefully in each individual case. Often, no general principle is as useful as examining your arguments, and asking a simple question: “What needs to come out first?”.

There are at least two good reasons why an important or obvious argument should be presented by the first speaker:

- The audience and adjudicator will often expect to hear that argument. If you don’t present it early, you may give the impression of having missed the issue.
- The arguments and examples presented by the first speaker will usually attract the most attention in the debate – essentially, both you and your opposition have more speeches in which to discuss them.

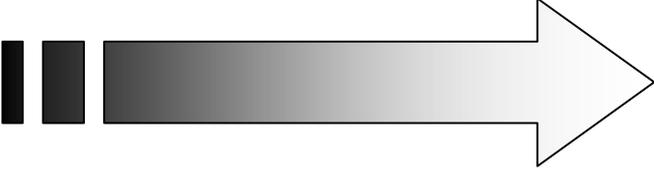
It is not difficult to think of arguments or examples that must be presented and dealt with early in a debate. If the debate is about terrorism, both first speakers should plan to discuss the September 11 attacks. If the debate is about American foreign policy, both first speakers should plan to discuss the conflict with Iraq. The list is long, but the point is short. *Some ideas need to ‘come out first’. Try to order your split to achieve this.*

Matter splits

It is important to remember exactly what a split entails: it involves dividing your arguments into two different conceptual groupings, so that each speaker argues your case from a different (although mutually consistent) perspective. This is *not* the same

as merely splitting examples into different groups then using them to prove essentially the same arguments. Such an approach is known as a ‘matter split’, and it is strategically very weak, because the second speaker does not develop the team case at all – he or she merely piles more examples onto existing arguments and ideas.

For example, let’s consider again the ‘social / individual’ split. Too often, debating teams take this to mean ‘examples about society / examples about individuals’. However, this is a classic ‘matter split’ – it involves splitting on the basis of the substantiation, rather than the arguments. Instead, ‘social’ must usually refer to social institutions (such as the institutions of government, or perhaps the media), rather than merely examples that apply to many individuals. It is difficult to be more specific than this, but the underlying principle should be clear: we split *ideas* and *arguments*, not merely examples.



step five:

preparing individual speeches

Tell them what you're going to tell them,
Then tell them,
Then tell them what you told them.

Old speechwriters' saying

BEGINNER

The need for structure

At last, your team has developed all of the major elements of your speech: an issue, a definition, a theme and arguments. You have even split those arguments, so that each speaker knows which points he or she will use. It is now time to build those arguments into a speech – or into the prepared part of a speech, anyway.

Of all the steps in preparing a debate, this is probably the easiest. Having a clear structure is as simple as following the understood roles for each speaker.

Speaker roles

In this section, we will examine those basic speaker roles. Specifically, we will look at the essential structure for first and second speakers, which is quite similar. The structure of a third speech is largely determined by the structure of rebuttal, so it is discussed in Chapter Two.

First speakers

The first speakers must introduce their team's understanding of the topic and their team's case. They must also present the first half of their team's arguments.

The **first affirmative**, therefore, has the following duties:

- A formal introduction;
- The definition, and any other definitional clarifications;
- The affirmative team's case approach;
- The split;
- An outline of argument;
- The arguments;
- A summary of arguments;
- A conclusion.

The **first negative** has the following duties:

- A brief introduction;
- Rebuttal;
- The negative team's case approach;
- The split;
- An outline of argument;
- The arguments;
- A summary of arguments;
- A conclusion.

The first negative must also deal with the affirmative team's definition. He or she must do this *either* by agreeing with the affirmative's definition, or by disagreeing. Agreeing with the affirmative's definition requires only one short sentence, and usually follows rebuttal. Disagreeing with the affirmative's definition is more complicated, and is explained in Chapter Two: Rebuttal. Such a disagreement should ideally form the first part of rebuttal.

Second speakers

The second speakers must rebut their opponents' arguments and continue their team's case.

Specifically, the **second affirmative and second negative** have the following duties:

- A brief introduction;
- Rebuttal;
- A brief link to the team's case approach;
- An outline of argument;
- The arguments;
- A summary of arguments;
- A conclusion.

Third speakers

The third speakers must spend most of their speeches rebutting. They must also summarise. The structure of a third speaker's speech will be covered in more detail later.

Signposting

In debating, a 'signpost' is essentially a label that tells your audience, adjudicator and opposition an indication of where you are in your speech. A signpost does not need to be complicated, but it does need to be clear. We have already covered a number of forms of signposting. For example, it is never enough simply to start to argument with abstract reasoning – you need to give it a clear label, and say something like, “My first argument this evening relates to...”. Similarly, you should never simply state your theme – as we examined earlier, you need somehow to make it clear to your audience that it *is* your theme.

These techniques seem simple – even facile – but they are a vital part of effective structure. If you don't signpost the important elements of your speech, you run a significant risk that your adjudicator and audience will view your speech as a wandering discussion rather than a carefully structured argument.

That said, you need only signpost the *major* elements of your speech. For example, it is important to signpost the start of each argument, but you do not need to signpost the fact that you are moving from the explanation to the examples within each point!

A formal introduction

A formal introduction is required for the first affirmative speaker. This means more than merely saying, “Good evening”, or “Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen...” – it means that you need to actually introduce the debate *as a whole*. In essence, a formal introduction involves ‘taking the audience by the hand’, and introducing to them the overall *issue* of the debate. This does not mean giving an intricate factual or historical background to the issue; the goal is simply to provide a conversational and ‘big picture’ introduction to the debate.

Formal introductions will rarely win you a debate – no adjudicator is likely to say, “Despite everything that followed, this debate was really won by the first affirmative's formal introduction”! However, the formal introduction *is* a vital opportunity for you, as first affirmative, to introduce the topic and issue as you see it.

The important point is that a formal introduction is more than a mere greeting – it is an introduction to the issue and, if you choose, a characterisation of that issue from your team's point of view.

A brief introduction

As the earlier speaker roles, a brief introduction is required for the First Negative, Second Affirmative and Second Negative speakers. It is also required for the Third Affirmative and Third Negative speakers – everyone, in fact, except the first affirmative. As we will learn in Chapter Two, these speakers begin their speeches with rebuttal. However, what comes before that? How do you actually start your speech?

The answer is simple: acknowledge the chair of the debate and the audience, and don't waste time doing it! For example, start simply with something like, "Good evening Mr Chairman, ladies and gentlemen...", or "Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen...", then dive straight into your rebuttal.

Big deal! Why is this relevant? Because many debaters use a formal introduction even when they are not the First Affirmative – for example, by telling a long and hypothetical story, or by reading a quote that they found when preparing for the debate. This approach does engender self-confidence, because speakers know before the debate how they will open their speech. For this reason, understandably, this technique is often used by inexperienced debaters learning their craft.

Ultimately, however, a formal introduction from any speaker other than the First Affirmative is not strategic. When a rebuttal speaker stands up, the audience and adjudicator are itching to hear rebuttal – the opposition speaker has just sat down, and they want to know why you think he or she is wrong! Starting with a pre-written introduction misses this opportunity.

Setting up your team's approach

The first speaker of each team must carefully move through every part of the 'foundation' or his or her team's case. Essentially, this means presenting everything that your team developed from Step One (the issue and definition), Step Two (the case approach) and Step Four (the split). It is strategically very weak to be introducing elements of your model later in the debate – for example, during an argument, or during your second speaker's speech.

For example, if your team has a model, it needs to be set out in full at this point. If you have criteria, they need to be made clear. If you want to highlight the speculative or emotive nature of the debate, you should do it here. There is no set order for these components to be presented. For example, there is no rule as to whether your criteria should come before your model, or whether your 'emotive disclaimer' should precede your theme.

A brief link to the team case

As a second speaker, you will not have to set up a case. However, it is nice to give a sense of ‘case unity’ – to show the audience and adjudicator how your arguments fit together. Therefore, as a second speaker, it helps to provide a brief link to your case as a whole before you dive into your individual arguments.

Usually, this means stating your team’s theme and briefly recounting your first speaker’s arguments, before moving on to outline your own.

For example, “Our team, on the other hand, has showed you that [theme]. Our first speaker, Michael, discussed our case from a political perspective, looking at the role of political parties and of the public service respectively. I will continue our case from a social point of view. Specifically, I will have two arguments...”

The outline and summary

The “speechwriters’ adage” at the beginning of this Step is a useful tool for many aspects of public speaking and debating. Nowhere is it more directly relevant, however, than to the outline and the summary. If the labels for your arguments are signposts (telling your audience and adjudicator where they are), the outline and summary are like a roadmap – showing your audience and adjudicator the overall plan of your arguments.

The outline and summary are *very* simple, or at least they should be. They can be almost identical. It is enough simply to list the arguments that you will present, or have presented. If you would like to provide *some* further explanation (for example, by reminding your audience how the arguments linked together, or how they supported the theme), you are welcome to do so. However, neither the outline nor the summary is a ‘mini-argument’. You will never convince anybody that your argument is true by outlining or summarising it, so you shouldn’t waste time by giving a blow-by-blow description of the important parts of the argument, nor by recounting examples or statistics in detail. It is better to give a simple outline and summary then spend the extra time developing and explaining your argument itself in more detail – this is the part of your speech that may actually persuade!

Finally, remember what the outline and summary are: an outline and summary *of your arguments*. As a first or second speaker, there is no need to outline or summarise other parts of your speech, such as your rebuttal or your conclusion. What’s more, there is no need to outline your *other team-members’* speeches, either! Of course, the first speaker is expected to provide the split, which will give the audience and adjudicator a very general idea of what the second speaker will discuss. There is no need, however, to ‘show your hand’ by outlining the specific arguments that your second speaker will discuss – this is a strategic mistake, and it wastes time. There is *never* any need to

outline your third speaker. Everybody knows, or should know, that the third speaker will rebut and summarise – there is no need to announce this as a first or second speaker.

A conclusion

In a purely rational world, audiences would never be swayed or convinced by a speaker's eloquence or rhetoric – they would simply and rationally judge the arguments on their merits. There would have been no place for Winston Churchill to say, "Give us the tools and we will finish the job", and no reason for Ronald Reagan to demand, "Mr Gorbachev, tear down this wall".

However, people are not like this. No matter how hard they have concentrated, and how carefully they have listened, audiences and adjudicators can still be swayed by an effective appeal to emotion or a punchy summary of a main idea. This is the role of an effective conclusion – not to waffle self-indulgently, nor to hyperbolise, but to succinctly and powerfully remind your audience of your central point.

Don't use your theme as your conclusion – although it should reflect your central point, it will usually be too long and too hackneyed to gain your audiences attention. Try to find something else – a quote, an idea, a triplet, or any other kind of punchy line that sums up your approach.

Conclusions like this don't just happen. It is always a good idea to script your conclusion before the debate. This does not mean writing your conclusion word for word on your palm cards – if you do that, you are likely to simply read your final words, thus having a much weaker manner. Instead, it means preparing your conclusion carefully and practising it. In fact, your conclusion is probably the *most important* part of your speech to practice. The reason is simple: many adjudicators do not really consider a speaker's manner until after he or she has sat down. A well-crafted and well-delivered conclusion is not only important for the sake of your case; it can also do wonders for your manner mark!

Timing

So far, we have not considered the internal timing of a speech – we have not looked at how much time you should spend on each part of your presentation.

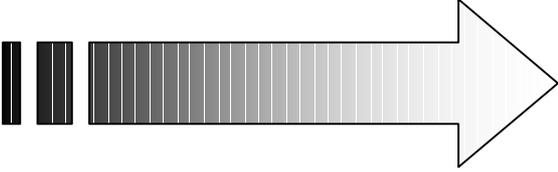
It is important not to be too prescriptive about timing. Ultimately, the best timing depends on the context. Sometimes, for example, you will find it important to spend more time than usual on rebuttal; on other occasions, you will need to spend more time explaining your arguments clearly. The most important requirements of internal timing is simply that you spend about 30 seconds on your conclusion, and a few minutes on rebuttal. As a general rule, each speaker in the debate will spend more

time on rebuttal – so the second negative, for example, will generally rebut for longer than the second affirmative, who will rebut for longer than the first negative.

Just as important as ‘internal timing’ is what is sometimes called ‘external timing’ – the amount of time that you speak for. The principle here is simple: *you should use all of your allotted time, but not much more!*

For example, many debates have substantive speeches of eight minutes, with a warning bell at seven minutes. It is tempting to think that this means “seven to eight minutes”, but this is not correct. A speaker who speaks for seven minutes in this situation is making a significant strategic mistake – he or she is missing an entire minute of persuasion (and a minute can be a long time in an eight minute speech!). That said, it is important not to go over time, either. Adjudicators will generally allow a speaker about 30 seconds’ overtime before they start deducting marks. Speaking overtime is completely unwarranted – not only will adjudicators deduct marks; they will stop listening to what you are saying!

There is no single way to ensure effective timing. Some speakers wear stopwatches and check the time of their speech; most simply develop a good sense of how long an argument should take. Either way, you need to be aware of time as your speech progresses. When you hear the warning bell (for example, at seven minutes), you need to finish the point that you are on and start summarising. When you hear the double bell, you need to finish whatever you’re on and sit down!



teamwork in preparation.

INTRODUCTION

We have now considered all of the elements necessary to prepare a debate: the issue and definition, the case approach, the arguments, the split and the overall structure of both the first and second speeches. All that remains is to examine the *process* for deciding on these elements, and for putting the whole thing together! This is the process of teamwork in preparation.

It is tempting to view teamwork in preparation as merely an ‘added extra’, subsidiary to the important principles that we have covered up to this point. However, it is all-important: effective teamwork in preparation *allows* your team to work through the principles covered earlier effectively and efficiently.

BEGINNER

THE BASICS

Basic steps

A successful preparation will generally have five steps – brainstorming, feeding back, case development, writing speeches and final discussions. These are not set in stone, and many experienced debaters will no doubt read this and think, “I have *never* prepared a debate by using those five steps!”. However, most successful preparations follow this basic approach, and using these five steps is an effective initial guide to preparation. We discuss each in turn.

Brainstorming

‘Brainstorming’ is a popular term, particularly among those teachers who prefer to be known as ‘educators’! It is usually understood as meaning a process where people

write down anything and everything that comes to mind, often in a very disorganised and somewhat artistic way!

This is not what is meant by ‘brainstorming’ in debating. In debating, brainstorming is usually understood as meaning that each member of your team will *separately* prepare the case. That is, each member of your team should find an issue, definition, theme, model and/or criteria (if necessary), arguments and a split. Of course, there is nothing to *stop* speakers from jotting down other thoughts, ideas, jokes, quotes or anything else that may be relevant. However, the important point is that each speaker should prepare the entire case. Ideally, this should be done in sufficient detail that, if the second step (case development) were omitted, speeches could be written from any of the team members’ proposed cases.

The reason for brainstorming separately is simple – there is a risk that a few team members (even perhaps just one team member) will dominate, either deliberately or inadvertently, so other valuable perspectives will be missed.

Feeding Back

The next step is for everyone to briefly feed back from his or her brainstorming. This means that each speaker in turn tells the team everything that he or she had prepared, at least in brief. It is best to hear each speaker in turn, rather than to hear each speaker’s definition, then each speaker’s theme, and so on – this allows each speaker to give due credit to his or her case, by presenting it in its entirety. Of course, speakers should not merely repeat what has already been said – it is much better in this situation simply to say (for example), “I had the same issue and definition as Tim”, rather than to force everyone to hear it again!

It is vital at this stage to allow each speaker to have a full chance to present his or her case. Often, nervous or excited debaters are keen to interrupt at this point, either to disagree or even to agree with what is being said. However, although such interruption can sometimes appear to accelerate or simplify discussion of an individual point, its overall effect is usually to complicate, confuse and delay the preparation. Of course, it is always acceptable (indeed, it is often necessary) to politely interrupt a speaker who is simply waffling, or who is giving too much detail about examples – at this point in the preparation, the aim is for each speaker to succinctly allow every other team member to know his or her ideas, not to provide fine details that can be filled in later.

It is equally important at this stage that all other team members write down what the speaker is saying. The best way to do this seems to be to note your team-mates’ case elements next to your own. For example, you can best compare proposed definitions by noting your team-mates’ proposed definitions. Similarly, it can often help to note any issues arising during the feedback time (for example, different arguments that

could be merged, or contradictions between arguments that need to be avoided), in order to discuss these later.

Case Development

The next step is for the team to *actually* build the case – this is really the essence of preparation. There is very little to be said about case development that has not been discussed at length in the first four chapters – this step involves deciding your team’s issue, definition, theme, model and/or criteria (if necessary), arguments (including substantiation) and a split.

It would be tempting to view this process as simply selecting the ‘best’ elements from each team member’s brainstormed case. Case development can sometimes be this simple, but not usually. Instead, the usual approach (and best approach) is to ‘start over again’, with a blank page (literally and metaphorically). The elements of each team member’s brainstormed case will hopefully be highly relevant, and can be of great assistance in building your case. However, the team case must nonetheless be built from scratch – this is the best way to ensure that it is a consistent and simple case, rather than a jumble of different ideas.

It is often common practice for teams to ignore the internal structure of arguments when preparing together. That is, teams often take the approach that *everyone* will decide the label, essential reasoning and basic substantiation, but that the *individual speaker* will be responsible for actually developing the argument. However, this approach is risky, and should be avoided wherever possible. We discussed the importance of arguments’ internal structure at great length; this is an important and legitimate part of the team case, which the team as a whole should be responsible for developing.

Writing speeches

By this point, speakers are able to go away and actually write their speeches, individually. This involves writing palm cards and developing introductions and conclusions where necessary.

The only important point here is that this occurs *after* the case development is complete. There are few things more nerve-wracking and irritating for a team to have a speaker trying to write his or her palm cards *during* case development – that is, writing ideas on palm cards as they are decided. Write your palm cards once you know exactly what should be on them!

The third speaker should now script his or her conclusion and, if necessary, write a summary. After doing so, he or she should brainstorm possible opposition arguments

and effective rebuttal to those points. These ideas should be shared with the team in final discussions.

Final discussions

The final step in the preparation process is for the team to have brief final discussions. This usually involves some or all of the following:

- The first and second speakers briefly summarising their speeches for the team, to ensure that everyone (including the person giving the speech!) understands any subtleties in the case.
- The team discussing potential opposition arguments, and possible rebuttal against those arguments. This often involves the third speaker explaining the possible arguments and rebuttal that he or she has just considered.
- The team discussing potential opposition rebuttal against its arguments, or discussing any potential weaknesses in the case generally.
- The team identifying the key strategic goals in the debate. For example, “We have to make this a debate about [X]” or, “Point [Y] is very important – let’s remember to keep emphasising it in rebuttal”.

This covers the basic steps of team preparation. It is vital to follow these steps, especially in the case of inexperienced debaters. Many debaters, particularly inexperienced debaters, manage to start in the middle, move to the end, and finish somewhere near the beginning! It is not uncommon for teams to find some examples, write arguments about those examples, think of a theme, write their speeches, *then* realise what the issue of the debate actually is and decide that they really need a model.

Resolving differences of opinion

Disagreement is the essence of debating. Any good debating team will face frequent disagreements about the best way to argue a case – that is the inevitable consequence of team members brainstorming separately. This section is about reaching a compromise in such a situation. Of course, we are not here discussing a situation where two team members have suggested arguments that are different but yet complimentary – in that case, you don’t have a problem! We are discussing arguments (or even entire case approaches) that are either openly contradictory or that are inconsistent in their approach. What is the best way to resolve this situation?

Ask any ‘expert’ on team building, and he or she will swear solemnly that compromise is vital for any successful team situation. However, to use compromise effectively in a debating preparation, we need to know what *kind* of compromise is successful. In debating, the most successful form of compromise is usually for one proposal to be rejected completely, and the other proposal to be accepted completely. Generally, the worst form of compromise is to try to merge two arguments or approaches that are quite different.

Hopefully, you have already realised this – it flows logically from everything that has been discussed earlier. For example, in Chapter One, we examined two very different issues that *could* be raised by the topic “THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL”: globalisation, or unrealistic body images. The only effective way to ‘compromise’ between two team members who presented these interpretations is to have a mature discussion about which approach is most likely to win the debate, then to choose that approach. The *worst* possible approach would be to somehow try to combine the ideas, to argue about whether ‘big things’ are somehow ‘beautiful’!

In fact, this principle is really just part of a broader debating technique: that sometimes, debates are won as much by what teams leave *out of* their case than by what teams manage to stuff *into* their case. This is not to suggest that you should shy away from controversial arguments, of course, but too often teams come unstuck for trying to include too many ideas into a case that could have done well on a few simple and well-developed arguments.

INTERMEDIATE

SHORT PREPARATION BEFORE THE DEBATE

We just examined the general steps involved in preparing a debate. There was no timing set down for these steps. This is often the case in many debating tournaments – topics are released weeks or even months before the debate, so your team’s preparation is really limited only by your diligence and enthusiasm.

However, many tournaments involve ‘short preparation’ debates, where the topic is released a specific and short time before the debate begins – usually, one hour. For example, debates at the Australian National Schools Debating Championships are all short preparation, as are more than half of the debates at the World Schools Debating Championships. In this section, we examine the best strategy for short preparation debates.

The most important point in moving from unlimited preparation debating to short preparation debating is that *nothing really changes!* Sure, you have much less time to prepare, but this simply requires you and your team to be more efficient – the basic steps in preparation do not change, nor do the underlying principles of debating.

The Basic Timing

Most short preparation debates, at least at school level, have one-hour preparations. The following is the most common and successful way to divide your time in a one-hour preparation.

0 – 10 minutes	Brainstorming
10 – 15 minutes	Feeding back
15 – 35 minutes	Case development
35 – 50 minutes	Individual speech preparation
50 – 60 minutes	Final discussions

Having followed this timing to the nearest minute, your team should be well prepared and confident and, as the saying goes, all pigs will be fed and ready to fly! Of course, this is the *ideal* timing of a short preparation, and most teams run significantly ‘late’ in case development until they are quite experienced at doing short preparations. For this reason, coaching teams for short preparation debates usually involves having the team do short preparations of many different topics. The aim is to improve a team’s efficiency, to be able to prepare a simple but high-quality case in a short period. Ultimately, this is a skill that can only be learned from experience, but there are definitely some important pointers worth discussing.

Hastening Slowly

Debaters who face a one-hour preparation for the first time inevitably rush – they feel that the only way to prepare their case in a short period is to do everything as fast as possible. However, an hour can be a long time if you work efficiently. The best way to work quickly in preparation is to focus on working efficiently, not on rushing.

Perhaps the greatest waste of time in preparation is to follow one path, only to find that it hits a dead-end and that you need to change course – for example, by realising that your split is invalid once your first and second speakers have almost finished writing their speeches. For this reason, it is worth taking the time to ensure that the fundamentals of your case are sound, even if this means running over time in the ‘case development’ part of the preparation. Of course, this may mean that you have less time to write speeches and to have ‘final discussions’. Although this is certainly not ideal, it is much better to spend time clarifying and developing your team case – if you

are forced to choose, it is always preferable to write a strong case onto a few palm cards briefly than to write a weak case onto many palm cards in great detail!

Leadership

Somewhat strangely, we did not discuss the issue of leadership when setting out the basic structure of a preparation. This is not because leadership is unimportant but because, over the course of a long preparation, a team's style of interaction generally has the time and the relaxed atmosphere to evolve. However, short preparations are different. In short preparations, there is a much greater need for a team to continue moving forward – there is less time to mull over ideas, and greater need for efficient discussion and prompt decisions. The best way to ensure this is for one team member to be appointed to lead the preparation; collective leadership (where every team member interjects to tell other team members to hurry up!) usually serves only to increase the tension and strain in a preparation.

Leadership in a short preparation involves its own challenges that, like short preparation itself, can only really be mastered by experience. These challenges include:

- *Watching the clock.* It is the leader of the preparation who is responsible for ensuring that the preparation runs close to schedule. This means that the leader is responsible for politely interrupting other team members, if necessary, to ensure that they are not wasting time by 'waffling'. Similarly, the leader is the team member most likely to decide that the team needs to slow down and spend time clarifying something, even if this means running behind schedule.
- *Clarifying team ideas.* After 'feeding back', there are usually a number of outstanding issues – for example, there might be two different definitional suggestions, three ideas for a theme, and seven suggested arguments. It is usually the role of the leader to identify these issues for the team, and to lead discussion about how to resolve them. (For example, to lead discussion on whether the definitional suggestions are actually different and, if so, which definition to adopt.) This relates closely to an important mantra of short preparation: **"fear silence!"**. Too often, teams reach an impasse because the way forward is unclear – a deadly silence often descends, because nobody is willing or able to resolve the situation. In this situation, it is the leader's responsibility to say something like, "We have a disagreement here between approach [X] and approach [Y]. We need to make a decision!".
- *Making the tough decisions.* Hopefully, most issues in a preparation can be decided by a consensus, because one approach will emerge as the most strategic. However, this is not always the case. Every team needs to understand in advance some 'rules' to resolve intractable disagreements. One approach is for decisions to be

made by a vote, but this rarely works effectively: you may have an even number of team members, or team members may not hold a simple ‘yes’ or ‘no’ view. The best approach is for the leader to have the absolute right to make any tough decision – even if he or she is the only person in the preparation who feels that way about the outcome. Of course, it is a brave decision to overrule a consensus of the rest of your team, and a leader should always be flexible and modest enough to yield to a better approach. However, it is important for the leader to have the right to the final say, particularly since many important decisions (such as decisions during the debate, like whether or not to challenge the definition) need to be made relatively quickly and without the chance for extensive discussion.

ADVANCED

“Oh &@!#\$^@!!!”

(or ‘SHORT PREPARATION DURING THE DEBATE’)

This is an issue that most debaters wish simply didn’t exist! Sometimes, during the first affirmative’s speech, the negative team needs to abandon its prepared case, and prepare again from scratch. The most common reason for this is that the affirmative team presents an unexpected but reasonable definition in a debate under the ‘exclusive right of definition’ rule.

For example, let’s return to the topic “THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL”, and suppose that the ‘exclusive right of definition’ rule is being used. The negative team may have prepared a case on the issue of unrealistic body images, only to find (to their dismay!) that the first affirmative defines the debate as relating to the merits of globalisation. The negative team cannot accept the affirmative team’s definition *and* argue about unrealistic body images – it will not be refuting the accepted issue of the debate. Therefore, the negative team must decide whether to challenge the affirmative team’s definition, or to prepare a new case. In this case, for reasons set out earlier, the affirmative’s definition is reasonable, so cannot be challenged. Therefore, the negative team must prepare a new case in whatever time is left of the first affirmative’s speech! A number of important guidelines can assist in this quite daunting task.

Deciding to abandon your case

It is very tempting for a negative team, under pressure and running out of time, to decide automatically not to abandon its case. Instead, it may try to challenge the affirmative definition. However, if the affirmative definition is reasonable, this approach is almost certainly doomed: the negative team must show that the

affirmative's definition is unreasonable, and a definition does not become unreasonable merely because the negative team doesn't like it!

It is important, therefore, to be open-minded when deciding whether or not to abandon your case. Rather than seeing the situation from your perspective ("oh no – we're going to have to start again – oh no, oh no, oh no..."), try to see it from your adjudicator's perspective ("the affirmative definition is reasonable, and the negative team must oppose the affirmative's case if it wants to win this debate"). It is better to abandon your case and have a chance of winning than doggedly stick to your case and lose on a weak definitional challenge.

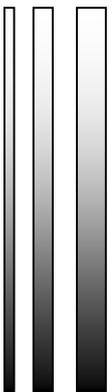
It is important for the team to briefly confer on the issue, but the ultimate decision to abandon a case should fall to the team leader.

Start with the 'big picture'

If you *are* forced to prepare a new case in a couple of minutes, you do not have the luxury to dwell on fine details. As a team, you need quickly to decide three things:

1. *Your case approach.* Fundamentally, this means finding a central idea for a case and, if time permits, working that idea into a theme.
2. *Your split.* All of the usual techniques for splitting your case still apply. However, in a situation like this, you would be more likely to choose a very simple split (eg 'society / individual').
3. *Your first speaker's arguments.* Your first speaker must stand up and speak in a matter of minutes, so your priority as a team must be to ensure that he or she has something to say! This means briefly deciding what your first speaker's arguments will be, and which examples or statistics will be used to substantiate those arguments. It will usually fall to the first speaker to then explain those arguments in whatever way he or she understands them – unlike a normal preparation, it is not usually possible to fully prepare the internal structure for each point as a team.

Of course, the second speaker's arguments and examples also need to be developed, but there are at least two speeches in which to do that – in relative terms, plenty of time! It can be tempting for a second negative in this situation to start writing his or her speech as soon as the first negative has started, but this can be a very dangerous tactic. When a case is prepared as quickly as this, it is quite possible that speakers on the same team will understand the same argument in quite different ways. Therefore, it is vital for the second speaker to listen closely to the first speaker's presentation, while briefly jotting notes for his or her own speech. Ultimately, short preparation during the debate does not happen often. However, it pays to understand the important techniques, and it pays to be aware of the issue – particularly if you are debating under the 'exclusive right of definition' rule.



CHAPTER TWO: REBUTTAL



BEGINNER

THE IMPORTANCE OF REBUTTAL

Congratulations on making it through Chapter One! By now, you should have a good understanding of the many important techniques of case development. With some practice, you should be able to develop strong arguments in favour of your side of the topic, and anticipate the strongest arguments in favour of the opposing side of a topic.

However, two opposing cases do not make a debate, however important they are. To have a debate, we need something more – we need *interaction* between those cases. It is not enough for your team to present and support its own arguments – you must also attack your opponents' arguments. This is what we call 'rebuttal'.

Rebuttal is vital for debating. Unfortunately, many less experienced debaters seem to treat rebuttal as an 'added extra' to their prepared arguments.

It is easy to understand why – because rebuttal involves attacking your opponents' arguments, it is generally much more difficult to prepare rebuttal in advance than to prepare your substantive arguments. However, this really should not be a problem. Rebuttal is not particularly difficult. When you think about it, rebuttal is really just about pointing out the differences between your arguments and your opposition's arguments. Given that you are both arguing opposite sides of the one issue, these differences should be easy to spot and straightforward to point out!

Of course, this does not mean that you will always manage to rebut without stumbling a few times. But that doesn't matter! Rebuttal is so important to successful debating – particularly in younger grades – that it is *much better* to stumble somewhat while spending significant time on rebuttal than to give a word-perfect speech that contains little or no rebuttal at all.

WHAT SHOULD YOU REBUT?

This is a simple question with a simple answer. The goal of a debate is to convince your audience that your side of the topic is true – that is, for your case to defeat your opposition's case. Therefore, you should refute your opposition's case – by rebutting any notion, assertion, argument, example, statistic or anything else whose demise will contribute to the successful collapse of your opposition's case.

Of course, there is a difference between *rebutting* your opposition's case and *adjudicating* it. As a debater, it is not your role to adjudicate your opposition's case.

For example, suppose that your opposition speaks over time. This may be a significant flaw in your opposition’s approach – it could even cost them the debate – but it is not your role as a debater to point this out. Speaking over time does not affect the persuasiveness of your opposition’s case, so it is not a debater’s role to criticise it. Similarly, suppose that your opposition presented an argument without any supporting example. It is not enough to say, “This argument didn’t have an example” – that sounds like something an adjudicator would say. Instead, a debater should identify the lack of example as *evidence* of why the argument is not true – essentially, by saying, “Our opposition claimed [X] was true, but they couldn’t find a single example where this was the case! We, on the other hand, claimed [Y]. We showed you how this is true by using the following examples ...”.

The general principle of rebuttal is straightforward, but we need to examine some of its specific implications – particularly because so many adjudicators, coaches and debaters confuse this issue by resorting to trite mantras (for example, “never rebut examples”).

REBUTTING YOUR OPPOSITION’S THEME

The first issue is rebuttal of your opposition’s theme. There is no question that you must rebut the underlying themes of your opposition’s case, but this does *not* necessarily mean directly rebutting the one sentence that your opposition has called their ‘theme’. Inexperienced debaters often explicitly rebut their opposition’s theme. This is not necessarily a bad thing – at the least, this approach gives inexperienced debaters an easy way of targeting the main idea underpinning their opposition’s case. However, there are ultimately better approaches. Explicit rebuttal of your opposition’s theme quickly becomes redundant when you become more experienced at directly identifying and attacking the ideas underlying your opposition’s case. The better approach, therefore, is to attack the important ideas and assumptions underlying your opposition’s case, *and to refer to your opposition’s theme while doing this*. This distinction is explained by the examples in the following table.

SIMPLE APPROACH	BETTER APPROACH
<p>“The main problem with our opposition’s case is their theme, which states [X]. This theme is wrong because....”</p>	<p>“The main problem with our opposition’s case is their underlying assumption that [Y]. There is no question that this assumption was a vital part of our opponents’ case. For example, their theme stated that [X]. Now, the assumption that [Y] is clearly not true, for a number of reasons...”</p>

REBUTTING EXAMPLES AND STATISTICS

The second issue is rebuttal of substantiation: examples and statistics. As we noted earlier, it is often common to hear adjudicators, coaches and debaters boldly declare, “You should never rebut examples!”. This statement is absolutely untrue, for the important reason given earlier: your goal in rebuttal is to destroy your opposition’s case; if your opposition’s case is well supported by certain examples or statistics, you need to rebut them! However, a modified version of the earlier statement *is* true: *Examples and statistics of themselves prove nothing. Therefore, if you do rebut examples and statistics, you need constantly to consider and discuss their relevance and context in the debate.* In simple terms, it can be very effective to rebut an example or statistic, *if* you show how your opposition’s case was reliant upon that material.

The alternative approach is simply to go through your opposition’s case like a commando with a machine gun, shooting everything in sight! This approach leads to ‘argument by example’, where the debate becomes about examples and statistics, rather than about principles and arguments. This style of argument and rebuttal is rightly condemned, because no list of examples (whether in substantive argument or in rebuttal) can show an abstract principle to be true – as we learned in developing arguments, you need some kind of reasoning and explanation.

REBUTTING REBUTTAL

The third issue is rebuttal *of* rebuttal. Debaters commonly ask, “What happens if our opposition rebuts one of our arguments? Should we rebut their rebuttal?”. This question may seem to demand a very technical and rule-based answer – until you rephrase it somewhat. What these debaters are really saying is, “If our opposition has managed to attack one of our arguments, should we let that attack stand?”. The strategic answer to this question is clearly “**NO!**” – you should answer your opposition’s attack.

However, rebuttal of rebuttal is quite different from rebuttal of a substantive argument. Although defence of your case is important, your *ultimate* goal in rebuttal is still to attack your opposition’s case. Therefore, although it may be strategically vital to rebut some of your opposition’s rebuttal, it would usually be strategically weak to spend significant time doing so – it is very important not to look defensive. In particular, you should never explicitly identify rebuttal of rebuttal as a key issue of debate (for example, “The first problem with our opposition’s argument is that they have misrepresented our case.”). This looks defensive in the extreme, and gives the impression that you are shying from actually rebutting your opposition’s case. It is important to remember that, when rebutting rebuttal, you have the luxury of relying on a substantive argument that your team has already developed in detail (that is, the argument that you are defending). Therefore, it should not usually prove difficult to deal with such rebuttal briefly.

THE IMPORTANCE OF BEING THOROUGH

Every debater has an opinion about which are the main issues of the debate. Naturally, you need to focus on these issues when you are preparing your rebuttal – if you think that an issue is particularly important, you need to spend more rebuttal time dealing with it.

However, just because you think that something is a main issue of debate does not mean that the adjudicator shares that view. The adjudicator may (quite legitimately) see a completely different issue, argument or example as vital to the outcome of the debate.

Therefore, it is vital to be thorough in your rebuttal. One way or another, you should deal with *every* argument, example and significant idea that your opposition raises. This does not mean spending equal time on everything, of course, but it does mean clearly rebutting all of the important ideas at some point. For example, if you have shown that an argument is logically false, you should then ideally say something like, “I have now dealt with this argument, and therefore shown that the examples of [X] and [Y], which were part of that argument, do not assist our opposition’s case.” This ensures that you avoid a situation where the adjudicator thinks (perhaps illogically), “Well, she rebutted the idea behind the argument successfully – but I still found the example convincing.”

Further, the *third* speaker must work hard to ‘mop up’ anything that has not otherwise been rebutted. We will examine the role of the third speaker shortly, and this principle does not change that role substantially. A third speaker must be particularly careful to note down everything that has been said, and to provide an answer to it – either by rebutting it directly, or by showing how it has already been rebutted in another point.

It is difficult to overstate the importance of following these rebuttal strategies whenever you know (or suspect) that your adjudicator may be using a flowchart approach. For example, the Grand Final of the 1998 World Schools Debating Championships in Israel was won 4-3 by Australia (against Scotland). One of the majority adjudicators awarded the debate by a very narrow margin, and was apparently swayed by Scotland’s failure to deal with a small but substantial part of the Australian case. As technical as it may seem, this approach literally can make and break world championships – it pays to follow the correct technique whenever flowchart adjudication is in place.

Preparing for rebuttal

We have already seen that good rebuttal is vital for success in debating, so it is naturally important to think about how to prepare rebuttal effectively.

The most important point about effective rebuttal preparation is what it's *not*: effective rebuttal preparation is not 'pre-prepared rebuttal'. 'Pre-prepared rebuttal' is rebuttal that your team has planned to the finest detail – essentially, by knowing *exactly* what you will say if your opposition raises one of a few given arguments. Some teams even go so far as to write their pre-prepared rebuttal on palm cards!

The problem with this approach should be clear. Good rebuttal is about effectively attacking your opposition's arguments, *as they were presented*. Preparing very detailed rebuttal to attack very specific arguments is ineffective – if your opposition presents somewhat different arguments, or even the same arguments with a different emphasis, your pre-prepared rebuttal will be almost useless.

The best way to prepare for rebuttal is to sit down as a team and think about the *kinds* of arguments and examples that your opposition may raise. You can then plan your *general approach* to those arguments and examples. This approach allows you to be flexible (and hence much more effective) in responding to your opposition's case.

INTERMEDIATE

DEFINITIONAL REBUTTAL

In a perfect world, this section would not be necessary – both teams would agree on the same definition, so there would be no need for definitional rebuttal. In fact, not even a perfect world would be necessary – most definitional disputes would be avoided if both teams had followed the guidelines set out in Chapter One for choosing an appropriate and even-handed definition.

However, avoidable or not, definitional disputes do happen. What's more, when they happen, your adjudicator will expect you to follow a relatively standard approach in dealing with the situation. Of all the aspects of rebuttal, this is one of the driest; however, it is also one of the most technically demanding.

DEFINITIONAL RULES REVISITED

Before we dive into the techniques of definitional rebuttal, we need to be clear about the definitional rules. Remember, there are two definitional rules, and you need to know which applies to you and your competition.

They are:

1. No exclusive right of definition, and
2. An exclusive right of definition.

You will recall that there are two tests for whether one definition is ‘better’ than another, and that these tests change depending on the definitional rule being used. When there is *no* exclusive right of definition, the two tests are:

1. Which definition is *more* reasonable?
2. Which definition is *closer* to the ‘real’ issue (otherwise known as the ‘plain meaning’) of the topic?

Where there *is* an exclusive right of definition, the affirmative team has the right to define the topic, and two questions can then be asked of that definition:

1. *Is* the affirmative’s definition reasonable?
2. *Is* the affirmative’s definition reasonably close to the plain meaning of the words of the topic?

(This was explained in detail earlier in the book. If you are unsure of the details, you should go back and re-read that section now. Definitional rebuttal is very confusing if you don’t know your definitional rules!)

DECIDING TO REBUT YOUR OPPOSITION’S DEFINITION

The first issue is how to decide whether to rebut your opposition’s definition. Debating is about disagreeing with what your opposition says *about the issue posed by the topic*. We do not assemble debaters, adjudicators and audiences to quibble about the meaning of a word or two – at least, not if we can help it. Therefore, a negative team should only rebut the definition if it’s absolutely necessary. But *when* is it ‘absolutely necessary’?

The simple approach is to ask a single question: “*Can we continue with our case under this definition?*”. Usually, the answer should be, ‘yes’. In most debates, your opposition will have used slightly different words to define the topic, but their definition will be substantially similar to yours – similar enough that you can easily continue with your case under their definition. However, let’s return to the topic “**THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL**”, and suppose that you (as negative) have defined the topic as relating to globalisation, while the affirmative has defined it as relating to body images. You cannot continue under the affirmative’s definition: if the adjudicator accepts that the topic is about body images, your arguments about globalisation are irrelevant.

If you cannot continue under the affirmative’s definition, you need to do something. Exactly what that is will depend on *why* you cannot continue, and on *which* definitional rule applies. Let’s consider this with a table.

Definitional rule

		<i>No exclusive right of definition</i>	<i>Exclusive right of definition</i>
Why can't you continue?	<i>You could not argue under the affirmative's case if you tried.</i>	You <i>can challenge</i> , on the basis that the affirmative definition is <i>unreasonable</i> (that is, that your definition is <i>more reasonable</i>).	You <i>can challenge</i> , on the basis that the affirmative definition is <i>unreasonable</i> .
	<i>The affirmative has defined the topic as relating to a different issue, but the definition is not itself unreasonable.</i>	You <i>can challenge</i> , on the basis that your definition is <i>closer to the plain meaning of the words of the topic</i> (that is, your definition has picked the 'real' issue posed by the topic).	You <i>cannot challenge</i> , unless the affirmative definition is particularly bizarre (' <i>not reasonably close to the plain meaning of the words of the topic</i> '). If you cannot challenge, you must <i>abandon your prepared case</i> in this scenario. This was discussed earlier.

The table shows the various combinations of definitional problem and definitional rule, and indicates the best response for a negative team. The table is essentially just a summary – it should be clear that the principles in the table follow directly from the definitional rules that were set out earlier in the book.

One point deserves emphasis before we move on: *It is a big step to rebut a definition. If you rebut the definition wrongly, or badly, you will often lose as a result. Therefore, only rebut the definition when you feel confident that you cannot continue under the affirmative's approach.*

HOW TO REBUT THE DEFINITION

We will examine a general structure for a rebuttal point shortly. Rebuttal of the definition is nothing more than a special form of that general structure. However, we just learned that poor definitional rebuttal can lose a debate, so it is worth considering this special form carefully!

The most important requirement of definitional rebuttal is *clarity*. Your adjudicator needs to understand *precisely* why you are rebutting your opponents' definition, *and* how you propose to replace your opponents' definition. Therefore, it is vital to signpost clearly, speak clearly and avoid any distractions (for example, jokes) during this aspect of your speech.

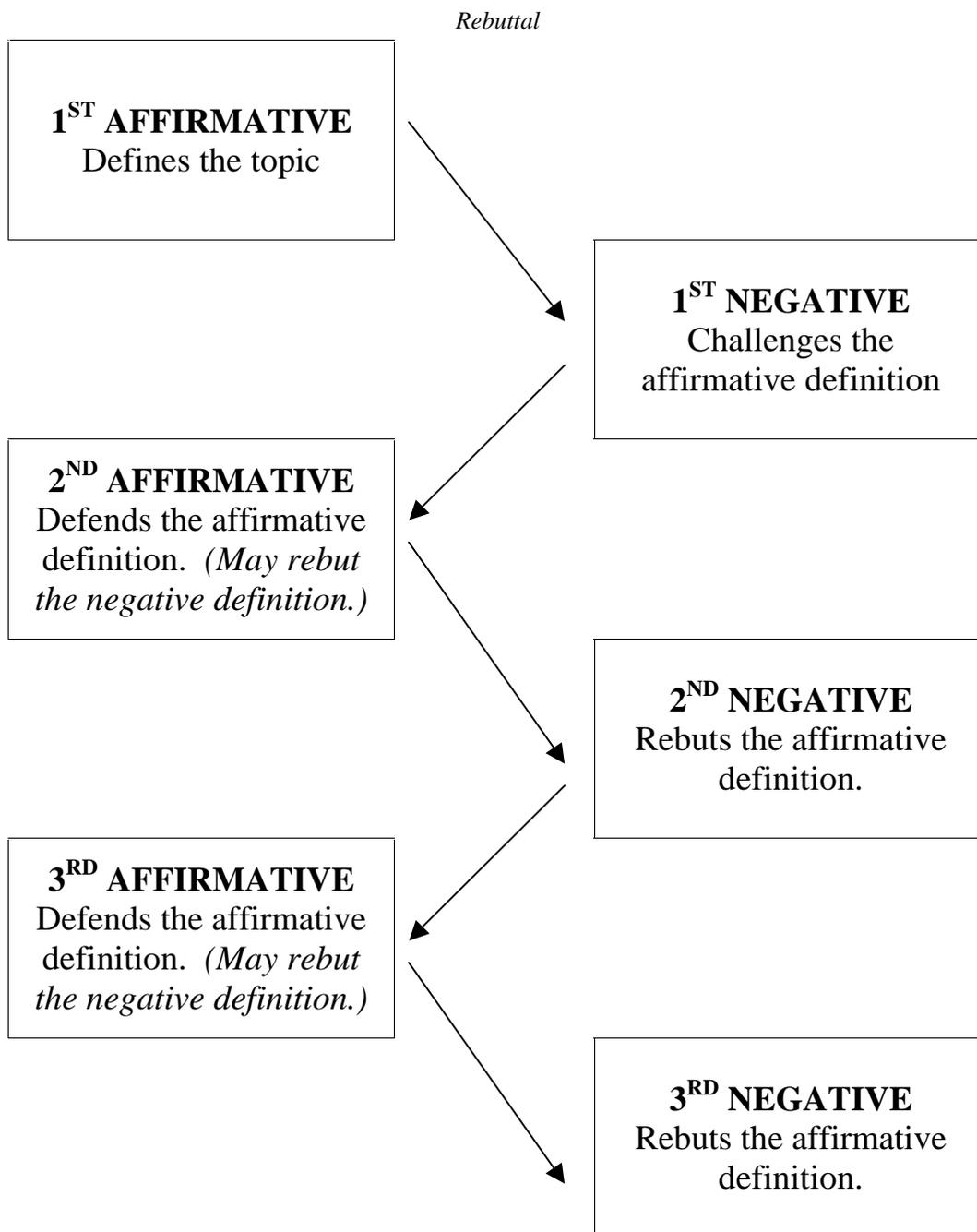
There are four essential parts to rebutting the definition.

1. ***Make it clear that you are challenging your opponents' definition.*** Too often, teams whinge and whine about their opposition's definition, but don't actually formally challenge it. This is a waste of time. Either challenge your opponents' definition or accept it. It is helpful to actually use the word 'challenge' – for example, "First, we challenge our opposition's definition."
2. ***Explain how their definition is wrong.*** We have already examined the reasons that a definition might be wrong, and the way that those reasons depend upon the definitional rule in place.
3. ***Replace their definition with your own definition.*** This is vital, because every debate needs a definition – if your opponents' definition is not good enough, you need something to replace it. You need only replace your opponents' definition to the extent that you disagree with it. For example, if you disagree with your opponents' definition of one word in the topic, you need only replace their definition of that word with your definition of that word – there is no need to redefine the entire topic.
4. ***Explain how your definition avoids the problems of your opposition's definition.*** You don't need to spend much time on this, but it is important. This involves showing how your definition avoids the pitfall(s) of your opposition's. For example, if you have criticised your opposition's definition for being unreasonable, you should briefly explain how your definition *is* reasonable (or is *more* reasonable).

DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGES AND THEIR IMPACT ON THE DEBATE AS A WHOLE

In many respects, a definition is to a debate what a foundation is to a building. It is inconceivable, therefore, that an attack on that foundation (a definitional challenge) would not send shudders throughout the entire structure. Definitional challenges have important ramifications for the debate as a whole.

If you are *not* challenging your opposition's definition, it is generally good technique to say so – formally accepting your opposition's definition is a valuable way of adding clarity to your case. However, you don't *need* to do so – if you do not challenge your opposition's definition, *you are taken to have accepted it*. At first, this seems like a mere rule of convenience, but its effects are much greater than that. Specifically, this rule means that a definitional challenge *must* be continued throughout the debate, as the following diagram shows.



This diagram shows how the definition should be treated in a definitional debate. The definition is presented by the first affirmative. If the negative team wishes to challenge the definition, it must do so in the first negative's speech. In that case, the affirmative team will want to defend their definition – this must be done by the second affirmative. This process must continue throughout the debate.

The diagram says that the second and third affirmative speakers 'may' rebut the negative definition. The meaning of this will depend on the definitional rule.

If there is no exclusive right of definition, the issue is whether the affirmative team's definition is *better* than the negative team's definition. In that case, the second and third affirmative speakers defend their own definition *and* should rebut the negative

team's definition as well – this, after all, is the best way for the affirmative to show that it has a 'better' definition.

However, the situation is different if the affirmative holds an exclusive right of definition. In that case, the issue is whether the affirmative's definition is acceptable on its own merits (for example, the issue will usually be whether or not the affirmative's definition is reasonable). Therefore, under the exclusive right of definition rule, the affirmative team should rarely (if ever) rebut the negative definition directly. It is far more strategic in that case for the affirmative team simply to show how its own definition is acceptable.

The effects of not continuing a definitional dispute throughout a debate can be disastrous. For example, suppose that the two teams have very different definitions of the topic. If the first negative challenges the affirmative definition (as he or she almost certainly should in this circumstance) and the second affirmative speaker does not defend the affirmative definition, the affirmative is *taken* to have accepted the negative's definitional challenge – even if the affirmative clearly disagrees with the negative team's definition! In that case, the debate is understood to proceed under the negative team's definition. This means that the affirmative team's case will essentially be irrelevant, because it will be supporting an interpretation of the topic that the affirmative team itself has conceded.

This means, of course, that the negative team must challenge the affirmative definition at first speaker or not at all. If the first negative speaker does not challenge the affirmative definition, the negative team is taken to have accepted the affirmative definition, so it will be considered a contradiction if the second negative then turns around and challenges.

Many teams claim to disagree with their opposition's definition when in fact the definitions are essentially the same. For example, a negative team may try to rebut the affirmative definition because the affirmative has defined a term using different words to achieve the same meaning. In this case, it is still wise for an affirmative to defend its definition, even if that defence essentially involves showing that the negative's definition is the same as that provided by the affirmative.

THE DEFINITIONAL 'EVEN IF'

Definitional debates can often be difficult. One reason is that definitional disputes can reduce the amount of argument on the substantive issues posed by the topic. In a normal debate, the disagreement between the teams centres on the actual difference between the cases; in a definitional debate, however, it is confined to the difference between definitions.

This poses a problem. Suppose that your team is caught in a definitional debate. You face the prospect of losing the debate if the adjudicator disagrees with your arguments on the definitional issue. Therefore, you ideally need a way to rebut your opposition's case while maintaining your stance on the opposition's definition. You can do this with a definitional 'even if' – essentially, by saying, "We disagree with our opposition's definition. However, *even if* our opposition's definition were correct, we would still disagree with their case – it does not even prove their side of *their* interpretation of the definition!". Naturally, this is done *after* rebutting the opposition's definition.

James Hooke and Jeremy Philips have described this as creating "a mini-debate within the debate proper",³ and their point (as usual) is a good one. An 'even if' allows your team to (i) rebut your opposition's definition, *and* (ii) show the adjudicator that you can happily rebut your opposition's case. Essentially, this creates insurance: your adjudicator can say, "Well, I preferred your opposition's definition, but you completely destroyed their case, so you deserved to win the debate." If both teams use 'even if' techniques, there are essentially three 'mini-debates' occurring:

1. A debate about whose definition is correct;
2. A debate under the affirmative's definition (on the assumption that it is correct);
and
3. A debate under the negative's definition (on the assumption that it is correct).

This is unquestionably a very sophisticated technique. However, quite obviously, it is also a very complex technique and for that reason, alarm bells should be ringing - remember: ***fear complexity!*** Just as important as understanding *how* to use an 'even if' is understanding *when* to.

The key issue is the basis on which you are challenging your opposition's definition. If you are challenging on the ground that your opponents' definition is bizarre, you are generally safe in using a definitional 'even if' – you can essentially say, "Well, we don't think you're debating the right issue, but we'll happily beat you on that issue as well." If you are challenging on the basis that your opposition's definition is somehow unreasonable, you face much greater problems. You cannot say, "Our opposition's definition is totally unreasonable and leaves us no room to argue. However, if we *were* to accept it, we'd produce the following arguments...". This is clearly a contradiction.

In practice, under an exclusive right of definition, it is rare for a team to argue that a definition is not reasonably close to the plain meaning of the topic. Therefore, as a general principle, it is unwise to attempt a definitional 'even if' under the exclusive right of definition rule. In these circumstances, it is better to focus your attention on winning the definitional argument and on substantiating your own case well.

³ Philips J, Hooke J (1994). *The Debating Book*, UNSW Press, Sydney at page 68. Also, Philips J, Hooke J (1998). *The Sport of Debating: Winning Skills and Strategies*, UNSW Press, Sydney at page 101.

DEALING WITH AN UNREASONABLE DEFINITION

We have already dealt with the issue of unreasonable definitions in some detail. However, this can be an area of significant confusion, so it is worth briefly unifying the principles.

It is always important to be very clear when rebutting a definition. This is particularly true if you are accusing your opposition of having defined you out of the debate – that is, of defining the topic to leave you with an unreasonable case to argue. It is very easy to accuse your opposition of having defined you out of the debate by simply saying, “Our opposition’s definition is unreasonable.” However, this is a particularly dangerous and weak approach. It is not always clear that a case is unreasonable to those who are not forced to oppose it – whereas you may have sat through your opposition’s case thinking, “What a truism!”, your audience and adjudicator may easily have thought, “Hmmm...makes sense!”. Therefore, if you are accusing your opposition of having defined you out of the debate, it is vital to explain *exactly* how it is unreasonable.

For example, “The topic is “THAT THE NEXT CENTURY SHOULD BE BETTER THAN THE LAST”. Our opposition has defined and treated the word ‘should’ as meaning ‘a moral and practical obligation’. This is unreasonable. If this definition is accepted, we on the negative team must argue that we have a moral and practical obligation *not* to make the world a better place – essentially, that we are obliged to make the world worse! It is unreasonable to expect us to argue this – *nobody* in society argues that we should make the world a worse place, and we should not be forced to do so.” You would then proceed to replace your opposition’s definition of the word, and explain how your definition was reasonable. Finally, you would clearly refuse to deal with your opposition’s case, on the basis that you could not reasonably oppose it. You could safely proceed to substantiate your own material under your own definition.

This is the best approach because it is the clearest. Some suggest that the best approach is to ‘conditionalise the truism’, meaning that you essentially say, “Of course, our opposition couldn’t possibly be arguing [X], because that would be a truism. The real issue is [Y].”⁴ However, at least at a schools level, this approach seems dangerously subtle and confusing. First, it leaves the adjudicator unclear as to whether you are actually challenging the affirmative’s definition – as we learned earlier, you should either challenge or accept the affirmative’s definition, not merely complain about it and carry on. Second, if a team is mistaken enough to argue an unreasonable case, it may not immediately see *why* that case is unreasonable. There is a significant risk that your opposition would respond with, “No, we’re definitely arguing [X].” An adjudicator who did not see that case as unreasonable might think

⁴ For example, see Philips J, Hooke J (1994). *The Debating Book*, UNSW Press, Sydney at page 74. Also, Philips J, Hooke J (1998). *The Sport of Debating: Winning Skills and Strategies*, UNSW Press, Sydney at page 107.

simply that you had misrepresented your opposition's case and missed the issue of the debate.

PARALLEL CASES: A SPECIAL ISSUE

Parallel cases occur when both teams argue substantially the same case – notwithstanding that they are on opposite sides of the topic! We have already considered an example of a parallel case when we covered the definition. In that case, the topic was “THAT TERTIARY EDUCATION IS A RIGHT”.

Let's consider a different topic: “THAT IT'S ALL DOWNHILL FROM HERE”. Suppose that both teams take this topic as a reference to the overall trends in our world – about whether things are getting ‘better’ or ‘worse’. Imagine that the affirmative team takes ‘downhill’ to mean ‘getting better’ – just as a cyclist might understand it. Imagine, however, that the negative team takes ‘downhill’ to mean ‘getting worse’ – as in ‘the world is going downhill’. In that case, *both* teams will argue that the world is getting better! The only real disagreement will be about which side of the topic their common approach supports.

Two things should be clear. First, since debating is supposed to be about a clash of issues and ideas, parallel cases should not arise – they are somebody's “fault”. Second, if each team thinks that the same case shows its side of the topic, there must be a disagreement about the meaning of the topic. That is, a parallel case is essentially a definitional issue.

The best response to a parallel debate, therefore, is twofold:

1. You should acknowledge that there are parallel cases.
2. You should show, using the accepted method of definitional rebuttal, that your understanding of the topic and definition is ‘right’, and that your opposition's is ‘wrong’.

That is, the affirmative team should try to convince the adjudicator that the parallel case is the negative's “fault”; the negative team should blame it on the affirmative. Each team will essentially be trying to show that *it* was arguing what the topic required, but that its *opposition* was arguing ‘the wrong way’.

THE INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF A REBUTTAL POINT

At this point, we need to assume that you have identified some problem with your opposition's case or a specific argument within it. We will shortly examine some of the specific problems that you may have identified, but these problems are really little more than a crystallisation of every debater's reaction to an opponent's argument: “That's wrong!”. For now, we are interested in the best way to internally structure a rebuttal point.

As with most elements of debating, it is impossible to be completely rigid about the internal structure of a rebuttal point. However, a good rebuttal point will always demonstrate a number of key characteristics.

First, it is important to identify the argument or idea that you are attacking. Too often, debaters simply launch into a criticism of an opposition argument, without explaining *which* argument or idea, and *where* it appeared in the opposition case.

Second, you obviously have to show what is wrong with that argument or idea. This is the essence of rebuttal, and to the extent that someone might be a naturally talented rebuttal speaker, this will be his or her strength. We will look at this part in more detail later.

Third, you need to bring your case into the picture, either by referring to an argument that your team has already presented or to your overall case approach, then showing how your team responds to the problem that you have identified in your opposition's case. This is particularly important because of the 'initiative debating' approach to adjudication. Many adjudicators, whether they know it or not, place significant emphasis on the issue of which team has gained the 'initiative' in the debate. 'Initiative' can mean different things to different adjudicators. However, if one team's case plays a more prominent part in the debate as a whole, it is a fair bet that many adjudicators will view that team as having taken the 'initiative' of the debate, and will reward that team accordingly. If you spend time attacking your opposition's case, but do not tie that rebuttal back to your own case, you will run a significant risk of losing the 'initiative', no matter how good your rebuttal is. It is vital, therefore, to use your rebuttal not merely to attack your opposition's arguments but to compare and contrast both teams' approaches.

These three requirements reduce neatly (perhaps too neatly!) into a four-step mantra that summarises the simplest effective internal structure for a rebuttal point:

1. What they said;
2. Why it's wrong;
3. What we said;
4. Why it's right.

The essence of rebuttal is unquestionably the second point, and you should almost always spend most of your time here. The first, third and fourth points may be 'padding', but they are vital 'padding' nonetheless and they deserve to be included.

It is important to emphasise again that this is *not* the only acceptable internal structure for a rebuttal point; indeed, there are probably countless internal structures that could be very effective. However, regardless of how you structure your rebuttal point, it really must contain the four elements set out in this simple approach.

THE OVERALL STRUCTURE OF REBUTTAL

We have now examined the important elements for internally structuring a rebuttal point. However, good rebuttal structure is about more than the internal structure of each argument – it also requires an effective overall structure for your rebuttal. We will start by considering the general elements of good rebuttal structure, then the specific requirements of first and second speaker and third speaker rebuttal structure.

STARTING YOUR REBUTTAL

What is the most effective way to start your rebuttal? It can be tempting to dive straight in to the first individual rebuttal point. However, this will probably leave your audience and adjudicator somewhat confused – they will hopefully understand your rebuttal on that individual point, but they may be left wondering ‘how it all fits together’.

The best way to start your rebuttal, therefore, is to focus on the ‘big picture’ – to make a concise attack on the main idea (or the key weakness) that underpins your opposition’s case.

A simple way to decide this introduction is to ask yourself, “If I only had time to make *one brief point* before sitting down, what would that point be?”. It is unlikely that you would waste this one brief point on an easy put-down, a witty aside or a convincing but trivial piece of rebuttal. Instead, you would hope to use your time to target the *fundamental* flaw in your opposition’s case.

The introduction to your rebuttal may often be closely related to a separate rebuttal point that you have prepared. Hopefully, however, your introduction will encapsulate your opposition’s entire approach. The technique of developing an effective introduction to your rebuttal is similar to the technique of developing an effective formal introduction, which we examined earlier. A formal introduction can take many forms, but should be a brief characterisation of the issue as you see it; your introduction to rebuttal can also take many forms, and should be a brief characterisation of your opposition’s case and the fundamental basis upon which you oppose it.

STRATEGIC ALLOCATION OF REBUTTAL TIME

In Step Five of Chapter One, we examined the general internal timing of a speech, with different components (rebuttal, substantive argument, conclusion, etc) each allocated an ideal time. It is also important to consider the internal timing of your rebuttal itself.

There is no required internal timing for your rebuttal, but there are two important general principles:

1. More important rebuttal should come before less important rebuttal.
2. More important rebuttal should be allocated more time than less important rebuttal.

Whether rebuttal is ‘more important’ depends *not* on how easy or convincing a rebuttal point is, but on the importance of a rebuttal point to the debate as a whole. For example, an inexperienced debater might think, “Point [X] *must* be the first point – I can make the opposition look really stupid and get some good laughs with that point!”. However, a more experienced debater is likely to think, “Well, we definitely have point [X] won, and I’ll emphasise that in good time. But point [Y] is really the core of the issue, and that’s where the adjudicator is probably most concerned. Therefore, I’ll start with a careful and detailed rebuttal of point [Y], and wipe off point [X] briefly later.”

The only apparent exception to this rule concerns the definition. The definition really is the foundation to the entire debate. Therefore, *any* rebuttal or clarification of the definition is *automatically* considered the ‘most important’ point, at least for these purposes. (That does not mean it will necessarily be most important in determining the outcome of the debate.) Therefore, if you are taking up any point concerning your opposition’s definition, you must order that point first. (This does not apply to the first negative accepting the affirmative’s definition – this can safely be done in one sentence at the end of rebuttal.)

FIRST AND SECOND SPEAKER STRUCTURE

There are really two overall rebuttal structures – that is, two ways of organising your rebuttal points in your speech. One structure is for first and second speakers; the other is for third speakers. We will start with the structure for first and second speakers.

The key to organising rebuttal as a first or second speaker is *efficiency*. As a first or second speaker, you have a substantive case to present. Therefore, you do not enjoy the third speaker’s luxury of delving or exploring a point more deeply – you need to rebut very efficiently and move on.

If possible, it is important to start with some kind of ethos attack. The alternative is simply to dive into your first rebuttal point, but this is not particularly inspiring and doesn’t give much of a ‘big picture’ context for your rebuttal. An ethos attack at first or second speaker needs only to be one or two sentences long, but you should ideally use one if you can.

Following your ethos attack, you can simply move through your various rebuttal points. There is no need to outline your rebuttal as a first or second speaker – it is enough simply to give each distinct point a clear label, so your adjudicator and audience can follow your ideas. You should aim to have two, three or four rebuttal points – any more is difficult to manage in a limited time; any fewer seems like you are lacking ideas! If you find that you have more than four rebuttal points, you should try to group some of your points together to reduce the number, or pass your ideas to a later speaker. As a general rule, if you find that you have only one rebuttal point, you need to look harder!

Finally, having moved through your rebuttal, you can move on to your substantive case. As a first negative, this means setting up your team’s case before moving to your substantive arguments. As a second speaker, it usually means briefly reminding your audience and adjudicator of your case approach and split before outlining and delivering your arguments. As a second speaker, this link is important in giving a sense of unity to your team’s approach. For example, you can say, “Our team, on the other hand, argued the theme that [X]. Our first speaker discussed the social aspects of this issue; I will discuss the individual aspects. Specifically, I will make two arguments: [Y] and [Z]. Now, to my first argument, [Y]...”. (This same point was examined in Step Five of Chapter One.)

THIRD SPEAKER STRUCTURE

The fundamental difference between first and second speakers on the one hand and third speakers on the other is that third speakers do not present any substantive arguments. Instead, they must spend their speech rebutting and summarising. Essentially, the first part of the speech is spent on rebuttal; the second part is spent on summary and conclusion.

The transition between these two parts occurs at about the time of the warning bell (for example, in an eight-minute speech, this would usually be at the seven minute mark). It is certainly possible to deviate from this timing – for example, you may feel the need to spend a little more time on summary. However, it is important not to deviate *too* much from this. Far too many third speakers, particularly in younger grades, rebut for all of two minutes, then provide a summary that is far too intricate. This is strategically weak and a complete waste of time: although summary *is* a vital part of a third speech, a five-minute summary is no better than a one- or two-minute summary. As a third speaker, it is much better to spend your time rebutting.

This is all very well for a general guide. But how exactly is the ‘rebuttal’ part structured? We learned earlier that the biggest challenge for effective first and second speaker rebuttal structure is *efficiency*, because of the limited time available for rebuttal. The situation is very somewhat different for third speakers, however, because third speakers have longer to rebut. There is no doubt that efficiency is important for

third speakers, too – there is no point wasting time when you present a rebuttal point. However, the biggest challenge for effective third speaker rebuttal structure is *overall clarity*. That is, because you are rebutting for longer, it is important to give your audience and adjudicator some sense of your overall structure.

The easiest way to organise your rebuttal is simply to move through one rebuttal point after another, jumping randomly from one idea to the other. However, this approach (often called a “shopping list” of rebuttal points) lacks overall clarity. Although your audience and adjudicator may understand very clearly the point that you are making at any given time, they will struggle to see any ‘big picture’ in your speech. This is particularly unfortunate because, by the time that a debate reaches the third speakers, a sense of the ‘big picture’ is vital – your audience and adjudicator will crave a speaker who can unify and organise the various ideas, arguments and examples that have been presented in order to show why one side has won the debate.

The simplest and best approach, therefore, is to *group* your rebuttal points into common ideas and concepts. You can then move through *concept-by-concept*, using your individual rebuttal points to show how your team has prevailed on the major *issues* of debate. It is generally most effective to identify two, three or four major issues, which become your rebuttal groupings. To provide an overall sense of structure, it is worth giving an outline and summary of your own rebuttal – *not* of your individual rebuttal points, but of your overall rebuttal *groupings*. As always, your rebuttal should be preceded by an effective ethos attack.

Hopefully, this sounds like a good approach. However, it poses a question: *how* do we decide how to group our individual points into rebuttal targets? There is no single way of doing this effectively. The simplest approach is to write your rebuttal points separately as you listen to your opposition’s arguments. You can then lay your palm cards out on the desk, and group similar ideas together. For example, you might find that you have two points relating to ‘social’ ideas, three to ‘political’ and one to ‘economic’. These can become your labels. Having grouped your palm cards together, it is simply a matter of writing a single palm card for each label (‘SOCIAL’, ‘ECONOMIC’, ‘POLITICAL’, in this case), to use as a ‘placeholder’ of sorts. Fill out a single palm card for each of your outline and summary, and you will be ready to speak!

Of course, this is not the only way to group your rebuttal. Sometimes, you can find your rebuttal groupings by considering the overall structure of your opposition’s case. Perhaps, for example, your opposition has established a set of criteria by which the issue will be judged. In that case, you *may* wish to use those criteria as your rebuttal groupings – essentially saying, “Our opposition identified three criteria by which to judge this issue. I would like to move through those criteria, showing how we have prevailed on every one.”

As with the ordering of substantive arguments, rebuttal arguments can essentially be ordered on two bases. The simplest approach is to order your groupings (and your individual points within those groupings) on the basis of importance: the more important issues go before the less important ones. Alternatively, you might find some logical sequence that matches your groupings – that is an equally strategic way of ordering your points. Ultimately, you should order and group your points in order to best “take your audience and adjudicator by the hand”, to lead them through the issues of the debate in a clear and logical way.

ADVANCED

KEY GROUNDS FOR REBUTTAL

Rebuttal, like debating itself, is a part of everyday life. All of us, whether we realise it or not, have experience in finding reasons to oppose other peoples’ arguments and perspectives. In this section, we examine some of the common grounds on which to rebut an argument. This is certainly *not* an exhaustive list of the reasons that an argument might be flawed, nor the grounds on which it can be rebutted. However, your rebuttal should improve greatly if you bear these grounds in mind while listening carefully to your opponents’ speeches and while preparing your rebuttal.

LOGICAL IRRELEVANCE

Logical irrelevance is one of the simplest problems that a case can suffer: even at its most convincing, your opposition’s case may simply not be proving your opposition’s side of the topic.

For example, suppose the topic is “THAT JUNK FOOD SHOULD BE BANNED FROM SCHOOL TUCKSHOPS”. Your opposition can argue with all the passion in the world about how junk food is unhealthy, but that in itself does not show why it should be banned from school tuckshops – to make that link, your opposition would need to discuss why schools (not merely parents or students) have a responsibility to ensure that students eat healthy food.

Similarly, consider yet again the topic “THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH MONEY IN SPORT”. As we have already discussed, it does not matter how many arguments or examples your opposition provides to show that there is *a lot* of money in sport: they also need to show how the amount of money is causing *overall harm*.

Although somewhat rare, this ground for rebuttal really is a debate winner! If you can convince your adjudicator that your opposition’s case does not fulfil the logical

requirements of the topic, you will stand an excellent chance of winning the debate (assuming, of course, that your own case does not suffer similar problems!).

Don't get too excited! It can be very easy to overlook logical irrelevance. Often, debaters concentrate so hard on rebutting what their opposition *says* that they forget to think about what their opposition is *not saying*. In the first example earlier, a negative team might easily spend their rebuttal arguing, "Junk food is not *that* bad!", simply because this is the direct opposite to what the affirmative argued.

The message here should be clear: rebuttal is not merely about repeating your opposition's arguments with the word 'not' inserted! You should spend time, both before and during the debate, considering exactly what your opposition is *required* to prove, and whether in fact they *are* proving it. This is the best way to identify logical irrelevance.

INSIGNIFICANCE

When we considered 'testing your arguments', we examined 'insignificance' as a potential weakness of an argument: although valid, an argument or example may not represent the general norm that you are arguing about. This, therefore, is a ground for rebuttal. The rebuttal technique that best deals with this situation is *marginalisation*.

Marginalisation is a common form of rebuttal but, unfortunately, marginalisation by distinction is much less common. Too often, debaters dismiss opposing examples or even arguments with responses like, "Our opposition's example is just one isolated case. We have given you many more examples supporting our side of the topic." Perhaps the worst possible response is, "That example is just the exception that proves the rule." The reason that these approaches are so weak is because they lack any explanation as to *why* a perfectly good example or argument should merely be cast aside.

We need to draw a distinction in order to marginalise an example or argument. But what kind of distinction should we draw? On what *basis* should we set aside our opposition's arguments or examples? The only guidance is very general: the distinction must be on a relevant ground in the context of the issue being debated. It is very easy to distinguish examples on irrelevant grounds. Consider a debate about the benefits of nuclear power, where a speaker has used the example of Chernobyl to argue that nuclear power is dangerously unsafe. An opposing speaker could try to distinguish Chernobyl by arguing, "Chernobyl occurred in the Soviet Union, and we are talking about using nuclear power in the United States." However, although this *is* a distinction, it is not a relevant difference between Chernobyl and modern American nuclear plants in the context of a debate about the overall safety of nuclear power. The better response is that given earlier – draw a distinction on the very basis of the disasters: the technology and safety measures themselves.

Therefore, ‘marginalisation by distinction’ reduces to three important points:

1. Marginalisation is an effective way of rebutting an argument or its example.
2. However, in order to marginalise an argument or example, you need to provide a basis on which to distinguish that argument or example from the direct issue being debated.
3. You can distinguish arguments and examples on any ground. However, it is important to choose the most relevant distinction possible in order to make your marginalisation effective.

THE TECHNIQUE OF CONCESSION

So far, we have examined grounds for rebuttal. We will continue to do so. However, it is worth pausing for a moment to examine a *technique* for presenting either a logical irrelevance or a marginalisation by distinction: the technique of concession.

As a general rule, you certainly *don’t* want to fall into the habit of conceding points to your opposition. However, when used effectively, concession can be a devastating rebuttal technique, because it clarifies so strongly that your team sees your opposition’s argument as either logically irrelevant or insignificant. Essentially, you are saying, “Sure, we agree with what you’re saying – but that’s not enough for you to win the argument!”.

For example, consider one debate on the topic “THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION”. The negative team argued that affirmative action had failed in South Africa because it had alienated a minority of racist ‘white’ South Africans from the process of national reconciliation. The affirmative team could effectively say, “Sure, it probably *has* alienated a minority of racist ‘white’ South Africans, but national reconciliation isn’t about pandering to racist minorities! Racist ‘white’ South Africans are an insignificant minority in the context of a debate about reconciliation across South Africa, and their views shouldn’t determine government policy.”

The technique of concession can be devastatingly effective because it is so blunt and clear. However, these same characteristics can make it very easy for your opposition to spot a contradiction. There is nothing worse than one speaker boldly conceding an opposition argument when another speaker on the same team attempts to rebut the same argument! Therefore, if you are going to concede a point, it is important that your entire team understands that fact, and understands what that concession entails.

FACTUAL INACCURACY

It is inevitable in the rustle of newsprint, the tangled web of Internet searches and the dusty recesses of a debater’s memory that, sometimes, your opposition will just get things plain wrong!

Merely being able to correct your opposition's factual inaccuracy does not mean that you have found a legitimate ground for rebuttal. For example, suppose that you are debating on the issue of terrorism generally, and that your opposition refers to "the bombing of the USS Cole on October 12 2001". Pointing out that the USS Cole was bombed on October 12 2000, not 2001, may make you look intelligent, but it is not itself a good rebuttal point. An adjudicator would be entitled to think, "Okay, so they got the date wrong – but the argument itself was solid, and the opposition didn't touch it."

Consider, in contrast, that the debate was about the Bush administration and its response to terrorism, and suppose that your opposition argued, "The Bush administration did next to nothing in response to the bombing of the USS Cole on October 12 2001." This is the same factual inaccuracy but, in this case, it has very different consequences. In this case, you can argue, "The USS Cole was not bombed on October 12 2001 – it was bombed on October 12 2000, *during the Clinton administration!* Therefore, our opposition's best criticism of the Bush administration in fact doesn't apply to the Bush administration at all!". This would be a very effective rebuttal point – in fact, it would deservedly destroy the value of the example completely.

The point here should be clear: factual inaccuracies are not automatically grounds for rebuttal. However, they can be grounds for rebuttal if they substantially affect the argument being made.

One final point deserves a mention. Even if a factual inaccuracy does not substantially affect the argument (and hence is not a ground for rebuttal), it can still be used as an effective one-line attack on the credibility of your opposition's case.⁵ For example, in one debate at the 1997 Australian National Schools Debating Championships, a speaker claimed that, on the eve of the 1991 Gulf War, "Saddam Hussein phoned Bill Clinton and begged for peace." Whether or not this is true, the speaker clearly meant to say "President George Bush", not "Bill Clinton". This factual inaccuracy did not change the essence of the argument, so it could not ground a rebuttal point itself. However, it did make for an effective ethos attack: an opposing speaker responded with, "...And, ladies and gentlemen, our opposition would even have us believe that, on the eve of the Gulf War, Saddam Hussein phoned Bill Clinton, *the Governor of Arkansas*, to beg for peace!". That debater realised that even a trite factual inaccuracy, if used effectively, can devastate a speaker's overall credibility.

⁵ We discussed 'ethos attack' earlier as a way of starting your rebuttal. This is essentially a form of ethos attack, although it does not necessarily need to be used to start your rebuttal – it can simply be added to a rebuttal point.

UNSUBSTANTIATED ASSERTIONS

We learned in Part One that it is vital to substantiate your arguments, either with examples, statistics or some other accepted form of substantiation. If you fail to substantiate an argument or any other proposition, you are left with a mere assertion – a bald statement without any effective substantiation. This is a ground for rebuttal.

Pointing out that your opposition has merely asserted something, without substantiation, is a good start. However, rebuttal is about *opposing* your opposition's case, not merely *criticising* or *adjudicating* it. Therefore, you need to show why your opposition's assertion is *false*, rather than merely *unsubstantiated*.

For example, consider that you are debating the merits of censorship, and suppose that your opposition (without further substantiation) says, "The government has an obligation to censor violence in the media, because media violence causes significant harm to people, particularly to young people."

You could start by pointing out, "Our opposition has merely *asserted* that media violence causes harm to people, particularly children. However, they have not given us any supporting proof of this!". This is a valid criticism, but not one that impacts on the issue. To rebut the point effectively, you would need to oppose the assertion itself. For example, you could continue, "*The Guardian Weekly* claims that, over the past 70 years, over 10 000 studies have been done on this issue in the United States alone, yet none has convincingly found a clear causal link between media violence and violent actions. As for young people – in 1982, Milavsky, Stipp, Kessler and Rubens studied the lifestyle and behavioural patterns of 2400 primary school students and 800 adolescents. They found that there was 'no significant association' between television violence and behavioural patterns."

Whether the argument is actually correct or not, this would be an effective rebuttal response. You would have rightly criticised your opposition for not substantiating its argument, but carefully avoided falling into the same trap yourself – by providing convincing evidence to the contrary.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

Whether we realise it or not, every opinion we hold – as well as every case and argument that we as debaters present – rests on numerous underlying and often unexpressed assumptions. Why do events like the Tiananmen Square massacre or the killings in Kosovo shock us? Because, as a general rule, we believe that killing our fellow human beings is wrong. Why were allegations of voting irregularities in the 2000 US Presidential election so emotive? Because, as a general rule, we believe that democracy is a good thing, and that it is important to respect the principles of a fair election.

Of course, there is nothing wrong with resting opinions, cases or arguments on underlying assumptions. Similarly, there is no automatic need to identify these assumptions, nor to justify them. Earlier, we examined the strategic weakness of spending significant time justifying propositions that may not be controversial in your debate (for example, the proposition that ‘human rights are good’). However, although they are not inherently wrong, these underlying assumptions can become a ground for rebuttal *if a rebuttal speaker makes them such*.

This is an important point. Many speakers proudly *identify* the assumptions underlying their opponents’ arguments, but do not conclusively adopt any stance on those assumptions. For example, it is not unusual to hear a rebuttal speaker declare, “Our opposition has *assumed* that democracy is a good thing! However, it *may* not be...”. This is a very weak approach – unless you are going to argue that democracy is not always good, you cannot complain that your opposition has assumed it to be good!

The key to this ground for rebuttal, therefore, is a strategic choice: whether or not your team wants to challenge the assumptions that underlie your opposition’s case. In some cases, it will be eminently strategic to challenge those assumptions. For example, we have already considered the example of the Victorian team that successfully challenged the Queensland team’s assumption that performance-enhancing drugs in sport is necessarily a bad thing. In other cases, challenging those assumptions would be a very weak approach. For example, a debate about the NATO intervention in Kosovo can be a straightforward debate on a simple (although not easy) issue. There is no strategic need to challenge the assumption that human rights are good – even if done well, this would make the debate very abstract, philosophical and complex. A team that tried it would probably suffer as a result.

A final reminder about challenging underlying assumptions: when we discussed ‘playing hardball’, we discussed a simple mantra: *Be fundamentally controversial, or not controversial at all!* If you are going to make a particularly controversial challenge to an assumption underlying your opposition’s case, you really need to incorporate it as a fundamental part of your entire case approach.

What if you find yourself on the receiving end of such a challenge? What is the best way to deal with an attack on the key assumptions that underpin your entire case? The answer is simple: you need to return to the core values that are being challenged and explain very carefully just why you support them. For example, if your opposition is challenging your assumption that democracy is good, don’t scoff incredulously – go back and explain precisely *how* democracy is so good, and *why* we should support it. In many respects, the strategy of challenging underlying assumptions is useful as an effective surprise tactic. However, it need not be – any team can respond to such a challenge by carefully justifying any assumptions under attack.

CAUSATION

Many debates and arguments involve the issue of whether one thing causes another – that is, whether there is *causation*. We have already considered one example: the issue of whether media violence causes violence in society.

Arguments about causation tend to have a typical pattern. There will usually be some evidence that two trends move together (for example, it might be claimed that violent people are more likely to watch violent media). This is called ‘correlation’. One team (your opposition, say) will claim that one trend (for example, the trend to watch violent media) *causes* the other trend (for example, the trend to be a violent person). This is called ‘causation’ – so the issue essentially is whether there is *causation and correlation*, or merely *correlation*.

It is easy to overlook an important issue of causation – essentially, to listen to your opposition’s argument and think, “Well, those trends move together, so it makes sense that one causes the other.” However, this is often not the case, and challenging an assertion of causation can be a useful rebuttal strategy.

Of course, simply identifying an issue of causation is not particularly effective. The strongest way of expressing this in a rebuttal point is to provide and support some other explanation for why the trends move together. For example, your opposition may argue, “Violent media causes people to be violent. We know this because of the large number of violent crimes that are committed by people who had been watching violent movies and playing violent video games.” You could respond to this by arguing, “It is true that many violent people watch violent media. However, many non-violent people also watch violent media as a form of entertainment, but suffer no harmful effects. The more logical conclusion is that there are many *other* causes for violence – violent people watch violent media *because* they are violent.”

CONTRADICTIONS

Contradictions are obviously grounds for rebuttal, and we have considered them earlier – when we examined the importance of ‘testing your arguments’. Let’s consider three important points about effectively rebutting contradictions.

First, many contradictions will be clear and explicit. For example, we have already considered a situation where one speaker concedes a point, but yet another speaker on the same team nonetheless tries to oppose the same point. This is a clear contradiction, and you should refer to it as such.

Second, many contradictions are indirect or implicit. For example, we have examined the case of a debate about ‘AIDS drugs’, where one speaker argued that the drugs were *as bad* as generics, while another speaker on the same team argued that they were

worse than generics. This form of contradiction is clearly not as damaging as a direct or explicit contradiction – in this case, unlike in the earlier example, one argument does not completely destroy the other. However, this is an inconsistency nonetheless, and it is therefore worth pointing out. At the least, it will damage the credibility of your opposition’s case (for example, “Our opposition could not even decide among themselves how bad these drugs are supposed to be!”).

Third, it is often not enough merely to point a contradiction out. It is often necessary to clearly state your team’s stance on the issue. For example, in the ‘AIDS drugs’ example, you could explain, “Of course, our team disagrees with *both* of those inconsistent assertions – we have already shown you that AIDS drugs can be very effective in suppressing a patient’s symptoms.” Sometimes, you need to agree with *one* of your opposition speakers. For example, in the case of the clear contradiction earlier, you could respond, “The opposition’s first speaker said that this argument was irrelevant. However, our opposition’s second speaker rebutted this argument at length, and called it an important issue of the debate. Although we disagree with her rebuttal, we agree with her concession that this is indeed an important and relevant issue.”

MISREPRESENTATION

Misrepresentation is an easy form of rebuttal – simply reduce or contort your opposition’s arguments until they are unrecognisable and weak, then treat them as though they are self-evidently wrong. There is only one problem with this approach: it is extraordinarily weak!

The aim of rebuttal is to attack your opposition’s arguments: meaning your opposition’s *actual* arguments. If you twist or misrepresent your opposition’s arguments, you will find yourself refuting the wrong argument – and your rebuttal will be rendered almost completely meaningless if your adjudicator realises the fact or your opposition points it out.

Most debaters recognise and avoid blatant misrepresentation. However, it is equally important to avoid even subtle misrepresentation – for example, by suggesting that your opposition was implying something that they were not. As a rule of thumb, your opposition should not listen to your rebuttal and say, “We definitely didn’t say that!” – this would indicate blatant misrepresentation on your part. However, you should not even give your opposition reason to say, “That’s not what we meant when we said that!” – this would indicate subtle misrepresentation, but it would still be wrong. Ideally, your opposition should think, “That’s exactly our argument – and we didn’t spot all these problems with it!”.

At the lower levels of debating, misrepresentation is often regarded as unsporting. Teams are likely to be offended to hear their arguments misrepresented, and speakers are taught not to misrepresent because “that’s not what debating is all about”. This

approach is not wrong. However, at the higher levels of debating, misrepresentation is usually considered a significant technical and strategic flaw – teams often don't mind being misrepresented, because they can be confident that their opposition's rebuttal is much weaker as a result.

The word on misrepresentation, therefore, is simple: *don't!* This means that you should not *deliberately* misrepresent your opposition, but it also means that you must be careful not to *accidentally* do so. Often, misrepresentation is the result of lazy listening as much as it is a symptom of some nefarious plan. Either way, it will not help a team that does it!

CUMULATIVE REBUTTAL

So far, we have considered individual grounds for rebuttal in isolation. We also have some understanding that those grounds fit into the “why it's wrong” section of a simple rebuttal structure! However, we have not considered the use of more than one ground for rebuttal – that is, what if your opposition's arguments are wrong for a number of reasons?

This is not a problem – in fact, from your perspective, it's a very good thing! The simplest approach is simply to move through the various reasons one at a time. There is no need to outline the various reasons – it is enough to move through and explain (for example) that your opposition's argument depends on a factual inaccuracy, is contradictory and rests on an assumption that you are willing to challenge.

This approach works well if you have a number of separate and independent grounds on which to rebut your opposition's case. However, often, your grounds for rebuttal are not independent – they stand ‘behind’ each other, in a *‘retreating line of defence’*. Earlier, we discussed the definitional ‘even if’. The approach we are now considering is essentially a general argumentative ‘even if’ – you can provide a number of responses to an opposition argument, each becoming relevant only if the previous response fails. To return to the military analogy, you present a second line of rebuttal in case your front line fails; perhaps a third line in case your second line fails, and perhaps further still.

Let's consider this with a tangible example. Suppose that the debate is about whether the war on Iraq was justified, and that the affirmative team argues that, from the perspective of the United States and her allies, Iraq posed a threat to the peace and stability of the world – essentially, because there was a real risk that Iraq possessed weapons of mass destruction. Whether this argument is ‘correct’ or not, you could effectively rebut it with the following ‘retreating line of defence’. This diagram shows only the essence of each response – naturally, each assertion would need to be substantiated with some explanation and substantiation.

Iraq had no weapons of mass destruction, and posed no tangible threat to any other nation...

However, *even if* we accept that Iraq appeared to have such weapons, or may have been pursuing such weapons...

Attacking Iraq was unprincipled and inconsistent given the global response to weapons of mass destruction programs in North Korea, Pakistan, India and Israel...

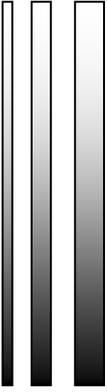
However, *even if* we take a purely pragmatic approach...

The war has succeeded only in destabilising Iraq, providing increased opportunities for Al-Qaeda and inflaming radical sentiments around the world.

Conclusion

Rebuttal is undoubtedly one of the most exciting parts of debating, both for the audience and for the debaters themselves. Unfortunately, for many debaters, rebuttal appears quite daunting, because it involves limited preparation. In this chapter, we have covered a number of techniques to make rebuttal clearer and simpler. We have also recognised that rebuttal is a vital part of good debating. Most importantly, we saw that rebuttal can be quite straightforward – ultimately, there are two cases in the debate, and you need to show why yours is right and theirs is wrong!

It is rebuttal that distinguishes debating from ordinary ‘public speaking’, by giving participants a chance to openly criticise their opponents’ arguments. As a debater, you should grab this opportunity with both hands. Not only will your debating improve – it will be a lot more fun!



CHAPTER THREE: MANNER



INTRODUCTION

We have now discussed both preparation and rebuttal. The techniques that we have examined are vital for developing simple and forceful *concepts*, whether they are your case approach, your individual arguments, or your response to the opposing team. However, debating is about more than merely concepts – it is about the effective presentation of those concepts. In this part, we will examine the most important techniques and principles for effectively presenting your ideas to the audience.

The ‘presentation’ aspect of debating has different names in different places. In Australia, for example, ‘presentation’ is referred to as ‘manner’; at the World Schools Debating Championships, it is called ‘style’. However, the essential techniques and principles remain the same.

BEING YOURSELF

There is a fundamental distinction between manner (on the one hand) and matter and method (on the other). Without understanding this distinction, your approach to manner will probably suffer significantly.

When we examined matter and method (which we did when we looked at the respective principles of preparation and rebuttal), we focussed largely on *process*. There are some things that you *should* do, and other things that you *should not* do. Manner, however, is somewhat different. The most important point about manner is not what you should *do* – it’s who you should *be*. Quite simply, *you should be yourself and enjoy yourself!*

All of us have a natural speaking style, whether we realise it or not. Each of us has our individual style, which has been evolving since our very first words. This is our natural style of speaking, our most comfortable way of communicating, *and our most effective way of persuading*. Unfortunately, a few debaters do not trust their natural style. Instead, they adopt a ‘debating persona’ – a completely different speaking style that emerges only for debates. Usually, this involves forced gestures, an uncomfortably rigid stance and a painfully careful pronunciation of almost every word. Ultimately, however, this approach is weak – rather than being persuasive, it simply appears insincere.

Instead, you must be yourself. Of course, you can always try to make your style more convincing and engaging. The ideas and pointers in this chapter are designed to help you do that. However, the aim of coaching manner is never to change a speaker’s entire style – rather, it is to mould that style to be more effective. Naturally, this does not mean that a speaker can legitimately say, “Of course I mumble quickly and make no eye contact – that’s my natural style!”. However, it *does* mean that you should use these techniques in a way that feels natural and sincere *to you*.

VISUAL PRESENTATION

At first, it may seem strange that we should even be concerned with visual presentation. After all, debating is about the clash of arguments, and visual presentation does not directly relate to the arguments at all (at least, not in the same way that oral or verbal presentation does).

However, visual presentation is a vital part of a speaker's overall presentation, and hence a vital part of debating. This is because a speaker's visual presentation is an important aspect of a speaker's *credibility*, and a speaker who seems more credible will be a speaker who is more convincing. You need only pay occasional attention to any speeches given by the President of the United States to recognise the important persuasive value of visual presentation!

Start from the very beginning

The first issue relating to visual presentation is one that very few debaters think to ask: "When does it begin?"

The simple answer is that your manner begins from the moment that you reach the middle of 'the floor', and start to speak. However, adjudicators are entitled to penalise a speaker who delays in taking the floor, after having been introduced. More importantly, once you are introduced, your audience's eyes will immediately focus on you. If you spend the next 30 seconds writing a few notes and arranging your palm cards, you are hardly likely to exude credibility! Therefore, strictly speaking, your manner begins from the moment that you are called by the chairperson.⁶

However, given the importance of visual presentation, the *best* answer is that your manner begins from the moment that you and your team enter the room. For example, it is common for many debaters to gesture wildly, shake their heads viciously, and speak audibly with their team at the table – while their opponents are speaking. This is not merely unsporting behaviour; it is likely to detract from the overall credibility of your presentation.

Eye contact

Eye contact (or the lack of it, to be more precise!) is a significant problem among many debaters, particularly young debaters. As humans, we are generally accustomed to looking into each other's eyes as we converse. It is nearly impossible to be an effective debater without maintaining effective eye contact.

⁶ That is, when the chairperson says (for example), "I now call the second speaker of the affirmative team, to continue her team's case."

This means making eye contact with specific individuals in the audience, and holding that contact for a time (as a general guide, from 5 seconds to 30 seconds). There are a number of ways that a speaker can *fail* to make effective eye contact:

- A speaker can simply read his or her notes. The effective use of notes will be examined later. For now, it should be noted that, particularly among young debaters, this is usually the biggest cause of a failure to make adequate eye contact.
- A speaker can ‘flicker’ his or her eyes between notes and audience. Many debaters *think* that they are making adequate eye contact when, in fact, they are constantly ‘flickering’ their eyes between notes and audience. Audience members may be left with the impression that the speaker looked *at* them, but will not feel that the speaker spoke *to* them.
- A speaker can speak to his or her opposition and, in the extreme case, can address his or her speech to the opposition in the second person (‘you said...’). You may convince your audience, but you will rarely ever convince your opponents.
- A speaker can look elsewhere in the room. Some speakers are sufficiently confident that they do not constantly read their notes; however, they are not confident enough to look the audience in the eye. Therefore, they address inanimate parts of the room – such as the door, a window, or a chair. A more sophisticated variant on this theme is for speakers to deliberately stare just over the heads of their audience, trying to give the impression of eye contact without *actually* making eye contact. Your audience will not be fooled!

Gesture

Gesture is a natural part of most people’s everyday conversation. Watch people talking, particularly when they are standing, and you will often see them gesturing constantly – even if they are speaking on the phone! So what? As debaters, we should strive to appear credible and sincere – in other words, *to look natural*. Gesturing in conversation is natural, so it should be natural to gesture while speaking in a debate.

This is the most important point about good gesture – *allow your natural gestures to occur*. It can often be very tempting to grip your palm cards with both hands, particularly if you are nervous. However, this serves only to limit your natural tendency to gesture. *Free your hands if you can, and let the gestures happen!*

Some debaters, coaches and adjudicators worry about fine details of how you should gesture – for example, a downward gesture is sometimes said to provide a sense of authority. However, paying excessive attention to your gestures – whatever those

gestures may be – usually serves only to make those gestures seem artificial. In everyday conversation, we do not deliberately choreograph gestures to match our words (for example, by sweeping your hands outwards above your head when discussing ‘the whole world’!). It therefore seems unnatural and insincere to pay significant attention to specific gestures during your speech. You are much better thinking about your arguments, and merely keeping the issue of gesture in the back of your mind.

Stance

As with gesture, the most important aspect of an effective stance is that you are natural. Many speakers worry about fine details of their stance, such as the position of their feet, the distribution of their weight, or the straightness of their back. However, the most effective way to have a natural stance is not to worry about your stance at all!

The only exception is the issue of movement. There is no rule that requires you to stand rooted to the one spot as you speak – you are welcome to move around the floor. Indeed, as long as it does not seem contrived, it can be quite effective to take a few deliberate paces between arguments. *However, you must avoid movement that is repetitive or distracting.* For example, many speakers ‘rock’ on the spot, by taking small steps forwards and then backwards, or left and then right. Similarly, many speakers wander around the floor without purpose, often in repetitive patterns. Pacing back and forth will not endear you to an audience who has to watch you for eight minutes! The principle of movement is simple: *by all means move, but be aware of what you’re doing and move with a purpose.*

Mannerisms

In debating, a mannerism is understood as a distinctive or idiosyncratic trait of visual presentation. For example, a speaker may have a particular unique gesture or way of moving.

Of themselves, mannerisms pose no problem – every debater will understandably have his or her own way of speaking. However, they become a problem when they are repetitive. In some cases, audience members who notice a speaker’s mannerism will pay attention to little else! For example, you might have a tendency to look at a particular part of the room on a regular basis, to continually fiddle with your hair or (as we discussed earlier) to make the same gesture repetitively.

It is impossible to set out any kind of complete list of mannerisms, precisely because they are so idiosyncratic. However, you must nonetheless be aware of the dangers of mannerisms, and be alert to any elements of your visual presentation that could become repetitive and distracting.

VOCAL PRESENTATION

Vocal presentation concerns the way that you enunciate and deliver your words to the audience.

Speed

Unquestionably, the biggest issue concerning vocal presentation is speed – and the biggest problem is going too fast. Inexplicably, speaking before an audience can create a time dilation that relativity theory is only now beginning to recognise! That is, what may seem a perfectly normal speed to you, the speaker, can in fact be unbearably fast to your audience and adjudicators. Initially, it can be difficult to recognise this as a speaker, so it is important to pay attention to what adjudicators or audience members say about your speed of delivery. If you *do* need to slow down, there are at least two good ways of doing it. First, remember to start slowly, to reinforce the feeling of speaking at a measured pace to your audience. Second, many speakers like to write ‘SLOW DOWN’ on their palm cards. This can be a useful technique, as long as you don’t read those words out!

It is possible to have a speed problem by going too slowly, but this is unlikely. Usually, this is simply the result of not having enough to say, or not properly understanding those things that you do have to say. From a debater’s perspective (though not an adjudicator’s), this is really a matter issue – you need to ensure that you have enough to discuss, and that you understand it in sufficient detail.

Volume

Volume is a significant component of vocal presentation. Perhaps the most important element of volume is that *your volume should be appropriate for the context of your speech*.

For example, if you are speaking to a large crowd in a big hall, it is important to project your voice loudly; if you are addressing a small group in a classroom, it is far more effective to adopt a conversational tone.

Some speakers feel that they always need to speak loudly and aggressively in order to appear confident and forceful. There is no question that this can be worthwhile, but if used continuously, it can have the opposite effect – the speaker can appear flustered and out of control. It is often more effective *not* to give the impression of taking your argument and “shoving it down your audience’s throat” – it is more effective to speak softly, almost as though letting your audience in on an important secret. This style has the advantage of forcing your audience to concentrate harder on what you are saying, and can itself give the impression of force and confidence, because you are comfortable enough to deliver your message in a more relaxed and subdued tone.

The ultimate goal with volume should be to present a confident speech that is appropriate to the context, and to be confident enough to vary your volume where appropriate.

Variation

Whether or not variety is indeed the spice of life, it can certainly help your manner mark! Of course, you can always have variety in your visual presentation – by using different kinds of gestures, for example. However, variety in manner is essentially an issue of vocal presentation. This is because, as a speaker, the monotone poses the greatest risk of monotony.

Perhaps the most important way to avoid a monotone is to use your palm cards effectively – simply reading your palm cards is the easiest way to fall into a comfortable (and boring!) monotone.

It is important, therefore, to vary your style of presentation throughout. For example, you can vary the pitch of your voice by speaking in an expressive and animated style, rather than in a monotone. You can vary your natural speaking rhythm by pausing. Ironically, the best way to regain your audience's attention on what you are saying is often to say nothing – to pause quite deliberately between sentences, arguments or ideas. Finally, always remember variation in volume. There is no rule about how or when to do this, except that you should generally aim for sharp and noticeable changes, rather than subtle or gradual variation. For example, it can be very effective to finish one argument in a loud and aggressive style, take a significant pause, and then commence your next argument in a soft and analytical manner.

This last example is a case of a 'manner change'. A manner change is a specific form of variation in manner, involving a sharp and noticeable change at a key point in your speech. Further, it often involves your *entire* manner – for example, you may change from speaking aggressively, quickly and with large gestures to speaking softly, slowly and with more constrained gestures. Manner changes are most popular when moving from substantive arguments to summary, or from one argument to another. Some coaches and adjudicators swear by manner changes; others are less concerned. Ultimately, manner changes are one form of effective variation, and it is variety that is the key.

VERBAL PRESENTATION

Matter and method (content and strategy) are often described as comprising “what you say”. This, however, is not strictly true – in reality, matter and method comprise the *ideas* behind what you say. The *way* that you actually use words to express those ideas and concepts is best understood as being a component of manner – verbal presentation.

It is impossible to teach people how to express their ideas in words – that is a natural skill learned from a young age! However, this expression can be refined and improved for debating purposes.

The importance of clarity

Clarity is by far the most important element of verbal presentation. For many public speakers, ‘clarity’ refers to the *way* that they enunciate their words. That, however, is not the point here – we should be far more concerned with the actual words used to enunciate ideas. Too many debaters use long words and convoluted sentences to sound impressive – even if that means making their speeches difficult to understand and painful to follow.

The opposite should be true. You should always aim to express your ideas as simply and clearly as possible, using simple language and short sentences wherever possible. We have already seen an example of this earlier, when discussing Adam Spencer’s colloquial and effective explanation of an argument about Microsoft’s market power. The underlying principle should be clear: you should aim to present an impressive case, not to use ‘impressive’ words and phrases! Of course, this is *totally unrelated* to the content of your argument itself – although arguments should be simple, there is no need to reduce your ideas to colloquial or banal concepts. Our concern here is the language used to *express* those concepts, however intricate they may (or may not) be. There are a number of important principles.

- ***Avoid complex vocabulary wherever possible.*** For example, there is no reason to accuse your opposition of ‘naïve inductionism’ – it is far simpler and hence more effective to say, ‘our opposition assumes that because [X] has occurred in the past, it will continue to occur in the future’.
- ***Acronyms can cause great confusion to adjudicators or audience members who don’t understand them.*** Therefore, you should state what any acronym stands for the first time you use it. For example, it is not enough to simply refer to the ‘WHO’ – the first time that you do so, you should say something like, ‘the WHO – the World Health Organisation’.⁷
- ***There can sometimes be value in using technical terms, but these need to be explained.*** For example, it is never enough simply to refer to ‘economies of scale’ – you need to explain the term as well (‘declining average costs as production increases’).
- ***Answer any rhetorical question!*** Rhetorical questions can be a useful way of directing your audience’s attention to the core of your argument. However,

⁷ This principle does not apply to the *very* simplest acronyms, such as the USA or the UN.

there is nothing worse than leaving a rhetorical question unanswered (for example, “How can we possibly justify having killed innocent Iraqi civilians?”). Your opponents will happily answer the question for you – or rather, for them (for example, “Our case shows exactly why it was justified to take innocent Iraqi lives to avoid a much greater conflict in the future.”).

Finally, this is as good a point as any to discuss the use of ‘clever’ verbal techniques. In other forms of public speaking, speakers are often encouraged to use various ‘devices’ when writing their speeches – for example, the frequent use of metaphors, ‘triplets’ or alliteration. There is nothing inherently wrong with these techniques, but they do understandably sound scripted. Therefore, in debating, they should be confined to those areas of your speech where the audience expects to hear well-crafted prose – essentially, to your conclusion and your formal introduction. A debater who presents substantive arguments (or even rebuttal) in cleverly crafted language will almost always suffer as a result, because these arguments will lack the sincerity and effectiveness of a more natural expression.

Humour

Humour in debating is a double-edged sword. If used effectively, it can significantly improve your connection with an audience; if used poorly, it can distract, confuse and reduce your credibility. Humour is very difficult to teach, but easy to practice. We will therefore simply examine some general pointers as to the use of humour in debating.

- You don’t need humour! It is often easy, particularly in the company of funny and entertaining debaters, to see humour as an essential part of debating. It is not – some of the great argumentative speeches in history were presented without any humour (can you imagine, “I have a dream... in fact, I have lots of dreams...what it is about dreams anyway...?”). Usually, a debater’s sense of humour – and sense of when to use that humour – develops slowly and over many years. There is no need to rush this process.
- If you are using humour, make sure that it is appropriate for your context. Of course, manner should always be appropriate to its context, as we will examine shortly. This is especially important in the case of humour. If, for example, you are debating about sport or television, jokes are probably great. If, on the other hand, you are debating about terrorism or domestic violence, jokes will almost certainly go down poorly – and even if they are well received by the audience, they will hardly improve your credibility on the issue of debate.
- Obviously, there is no point using isolated jokes. If your humour does not directly relate to the issue and the debate, it will hardly be amusing. For example, general witticisms may raise a smile, but will not improve your

credibility on the issue of debate (for example, “Our opposition’s case is like a skyscraper – it has many ‘flaws’”.)

- Don’t get personal or sarcastic. We learned in Step One of Chapter One that it is important to always maintain polite and respectful relations with your opposition – cracking personal jokes about your opponents is probably the easiest way to violate this principle.
- Keep it clean. Humour in debates is supposed to lighten the atmosphere and endear you and your arguments to your audience. Jokes that even *some* members of your audience may find lewd or rude will only harm your persuasive credibility as a speaker.
- Remember, laughter is not rebuttal. It does not matter how many jokes you make about your opposition’s case, nor how much your audience laughs – this does not in itself show why your opponents’ arguments are wrong. Of course, you can use humour to *assist* your rebuttal, but it will never substitute for actual analysis and argument.
- Don’t get distracted. It is very easy to become enthused because your audience is responding warmly to your jokes. At this point, you have a choice – either push on with your arguments (confident that your audience is responding well to your speech, and is listening carefully to what you say) or simply tell a few more jokes. Too many debaters in this situation choose the latter. Musicians sometimes say, “If you play for applause, that’s all you’ll ever get” – the same can be said of debaters who get carried away and manage to trade their argument for a few more laughs.

For a section on humour, this all sounds very depressing! Our list of general pointers was a list of “don’ts”. This is not to suggest that humour should not be used – in fact, if it is used effectively, humour can be one of the most effective contributors to effective manner. The key is to use humour carefully so that the joke doesn’t end up on you.

GENERAL POINTERS

There are some important concepts that do not apply exclusively to visual, verbal or vocal presentation. Rather, these issues are important because they apply to manner *as a whole*.

Using palm cards effectively

The vast majority of manner problems among inexperienced debaters are caused, either directly or indirectly, by ineffective use of palm cards.⁸ Essentially, you will suffer all kinds of manner problems if you read your speech from your palm cards, rather than simply using notes on your palm cards to prompt you in explaining your argument. Most obviously, your eye contact will suffer – short of using an autocue, it is almost impossible to make effective eye contact while reading from a script. However, an equally serious problem is that your entire vocal presentation will suffer. Quite simply, your audience and adjudicator will know from the intonation of your voice that you are reading a script. This is not a problem for newsreaders, or politicians giving ‘set piece’ speeches, because audiences expect and accept those presenters to read. However, audiences and adjudicators respond best to debaters who *actually* argue – not to those who read an argument from a palm card. In simple terms, it is more effective to stumble occasionally by putting your thoughts into words during your speech than to present a perfectly fluent speech read verbatim from your notes.

So much for theory – how can you put this into practice? The answer is simple: don’t write much on your palm cards. Perhaps the most frustrating common remark to hear from debaters is, “Of course, I won’t read my speech word for word, but I will write it on my palm cards word for word, just to be sure.” This makes no sense – if you have your entire speech on palm cards, you will almost inevitably read it word for word. Even if you manage to avoid doing this, your presentation will still suffer, because it is very difficult to extract your key points from a speech that is written out word for word.

What should you write on your palm cards then? There is no simple answer – every debater’s palm cards look different, because everybody has a different way of taking notes and of abbreviating ideas. However, the general principle is that you should ***write as little as possible, while preserving the important ideas of your speech***. Just what those ideas are will obviously vary from one debate to the next. Most good debaters find it helpful to note the ‘signposts’ and ‘subheadings’ in their speech. For example, in presenting a substantive argument, most good debaters will write the label of the argument, then note some kind of internal structure on their palm card – for example, the ‘label, reasoning, substantiation, tie-back’ structure. This does not mean

⁸ This section refers to palm cards because the use of palm cards is the norm in Australian schools debating. At the World Schools Debating Championships, speakers are entitled to speak from any kind of notes, including A4 note pads. I will refer to palm cards because they are the norm in Australia and seem to remain most popular at the World Championships. However, my comments are generally applicable to other forms of notes as well.

writing those words, but it does mean using subheadings to maintain the internal structure of your argument. The following ‘palm card’ gives a very simple example of this, with subheadings (a label, ‘Why?’, ‘e.g.’, ‘So what?’) to remind the speaker of the internal structure of the argument.

<p>[LABEL]</p> <p><u>Why?</u> [EXPLANATION]</p> <p>e.g. [EXAMPLE(S)]</p> <p><u>So what?</u> [TIE-BACK]</p>
--

Of course, this does *not* mean that you should use this format for a palm card. The format of your palm cards is closely related to the internal structure of your argument, so it is important that you think about this carefully on an argument-by-argument basis.

A similar common remark to hear from debaters is, “Oh sure, I will only write notes on my palm cards – but I like to write my speech out word for word on other paper first, *then* reduce it to note form”. This misses the point – notes on palm cards are designed to summarise *ideas*, not specific sentences. You should worry about the clarity and persuasiveness of your arguments, not about how specific sentences are to be expressed. On a more practical level, this approach is a complete waste of time – why bother writing your speech out word for word only to speak from notes?

Save your time! The best approach is to write your speech *directly* onto palm cards, in note form. The time that you save by not writing it out word for word is best spent practising delivering your speech from those palm cards – that is, practising taking the notes on your palm cards and presenting them as a speech. Many debaters find that the best way to practise like this is to speak to a mirror – this can also help to improve your visual manner. The advantage of preparing this way is twofold: not only will you deliver your immediate speech in a more natural and sincere way, you will improve the technique of delivering a speech from notes on a palm card. These are two advantages that you will never gain by writing your speech out word for word.

The importance of context

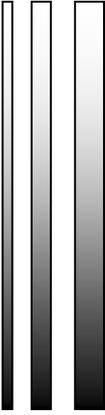
Context is all-important for speeches in everyday life. It would be rare to speak in the same ‘manner’ to a friend or family member as to a teacher or employer – and it would be ridiculous to ask which manner is ‘better’. So it is in debating. Although the basic characteristics of good manner do not change, your overall manner should reflect the context of your debate. That is, it is impossible to have a standard ‘perfect manner’ – the requirements of good manner will be somewhat different before different audiences, against different opponents, in different venues and on different issues.

We have already considered the danger of using humour in a debate about a solemn topic. The point here is that the issue of debate is an important part of context, and your manner should reflect that context if you are to be a credible presenter.

We have also examined the importance of context for volume. If you are debating before a large audience in a large hall, you will probably find it most effective to use a loud voice and expansive gestures. However, if you are debating before a small group in a small classroom, that kind of manner will probably not endear you to your audience, who will likely feel simply that you are shouting at them. Instead, this is the best time to use a conversational tone and more restrained gestures.

Your opposition is undoubtedly part of the context of the debate. For example, you may find yourself debating a flippant and funny opposition that appears to have endeared itself to the audience. Although it can be tempting to try to match this style, this is not always the most effective approach. Instead, it can be more effective to take the opposite tack – to emphasise just how serious your topic is, without making a single humorous remark.

As with so many aspects of debating, it is impossible to be dogmatic about the circumstances in which different forms of manner work best. However, the underlying point is important: when it comes to effective manner, one size does not fit all – not all speakers, and certainly not all contexts.



CHAPTER FOUR:

POINTS OF INFORMATION & REPLY SPEECHES

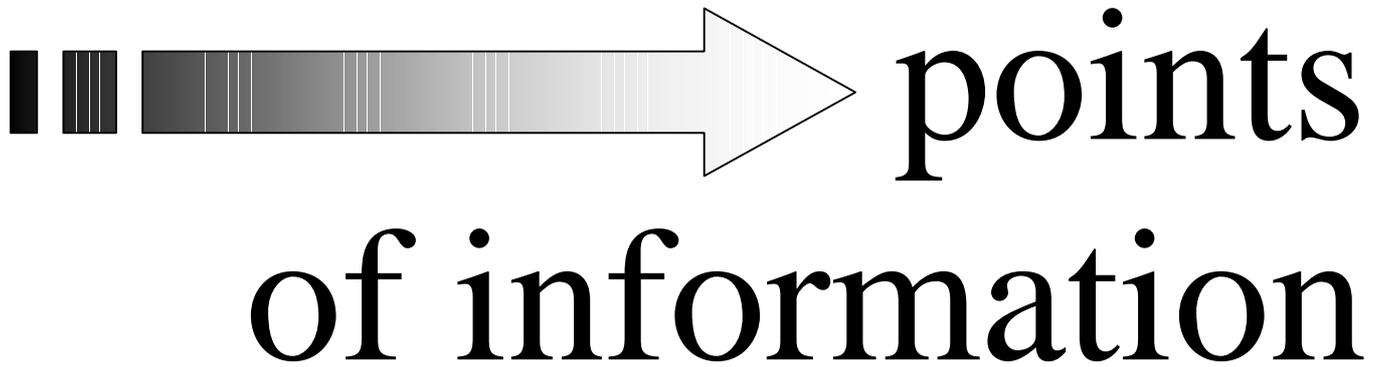


Introduction

The first three parts of this book have covered the essence of good debating technique in the style that is used in many debates around the world. However, we also need to examine two further aspects of that style: points of information and reply speeches.

Points of information and reply speeches tend only to be used at the higher levels of debating. For example, most school debates follow a simple structure of six speeches with no points of information. However, the Australian National Schools Debating Championships and the World Schools Debating Championships do use points of information and reply speeches.

Points of information and reply speeches do not substantially change the characteristics of good debating technique – they add to what we have already covered, not replace it. However, they do pose specific challenges, because both techniques have specific techniques and etiquettes of their own.



points of information

All debaters have surely sat listening to their opponents and thought, “That is *so* wrong!” – impatient at waiting until their speech, and frustrated by not being able to intervene immediately. Points of information go some way towards easing that frustration, by allowing a speaker’s opponents a limited right of interjection.

If done well, points of information can greatly improve the standard and spectacle of debate – they make a debate more dynamic and exciting to watch, they reward debaters who can think on their feet, and they generally make speakers more accountable. Many debaters fear doing points of information for the first time, but this is misplaced – the vast majority of debaters learn to master points of information quickly, by following a few simple techniques.

What are points of information?

Points of information are interjections by a speaker’s opponents. They are allowed in the ‘middle part’ of speeches. For example, in an eight-minute speech with points of information, a bell is rung at one minute and at seven minutes – between these bells, points of information may be offered. (Of course, there would also be a double bell at eight minutes, to signal the end of the allocated speaking time.)

Debaters offer points of information by standing in their place and saying, “Point of information”. The speaker may then either accept or decline the point. If the speaker accepts, the offeror asks a question or makes a statement relating to the speaker’s argument; if the speaker declines, the offeror simply sits down.

Offering points of information

How many points should you offer?

As a general rule, *each* speaker of a team should offer two, three or four points of information to *each* speaker of the opposition. You should keep a tally of the number of points that you have offered during each speech in order to keep track of this.

The minimum requirement (two points) is a strict one – if you offer one point, or don't offer any points, an adjudicator will be entitled to deduct marks. You *must* offer at least two points of information, therefore. This is one reason that many debaters time every speech in the debate – by timing their opponents' speeches, they know how much time remains to offer points of information. Many debaters who do not offer at least two points of information see this as a sign of “not having anything to say”. Usually, this is far from the truth – every debater has something to say! Instead, it is usually the result of not having the confidence to stand up and have a say. This can be overcome with a little experience and a determination to show the flaws in your opponents' arguments.

The maximum requirement (four points) is not strict. You may offer more than four points without necessarily having marks deducted. In this case, the overall context is the key. Specifically, it is important not to use points of information to ‘badger’ your opponents. For example, if your team-mates have offered two points of information each, there would hardly be a problem with you offering six points. However, if everybody on your team offers six points, this may be viewed as badgering.

This does not necessarily mean that there is a *team maximum* for the number of points to be offered – whether or not you are ‘badgering’ depends on the context of the debate. If you offer many points politely to a confident speaker, you are less likely to be penalised for ‘badgering’. If your team offers the same number of points in a loud and aggressive manner to a timid and struggling speaker, you are more likely to be penalised. This does not mean that you should ‘go easy’ on weak speakers: each member of your team is still rightly entitled to offer four points of information. However, it does mean that context is important in determining if you should offer any more than four.

When should you offer points of information?

The general answer to this question is simple: when you have something to say! Even by standing and offering a point, you are showing disagreement with what the speaker is saying. This is important: there are few things more complimentary to a speaker than for his or her opposition to sit mute for a significant period of time. It is vital, therefore, to offer points throughout your opponents' rebuttal and substantive arguments.

That said, you should *never* give points with the intention of being rejected. Some debaters do this by offering points at times when they are unlikely to be accepted (for example, just after the one minute bell, or just before the seven minute bell), or by offering in a particularly confident and aggressive manner. It may be true that these techniques *reduce* your chance of being accepted, but they don't *eliminate* it. Therefore, offering points throughout your opponents' rebuttal and substantive

arguments means thinking hard to find flaws in your opponents' rebuttal and substantive arguments, then offering points of information with those flaws in mind.

There are a few times when you definitely should *not* offer points. You should not offer points during a speaker's set-up (for example, when a first affirmative is presenting the definition, theme and split, or when any speaker is presenting his or her outline). This is because it is generally difficult to disagree with a set-up on its own, and if you *do* disagree (for example, because the opposition's definition is unreasonable), your concern will usually be too detailed and important to be reduced to a single point. You should not offer a point if you or a team-mate has just had a point rejected – it is unlikely that the speaker will accept your point, and this is the easiest way to give the impression of badgering.

How should you offer points of information?

The simplest way of offering points is the best – stand in your place and politely say, “point of information”. There is no need to be aggressive – you are unlikely to have your point accepted, or achieve anything, by rising in a flurry of noise while throwing your pen onto the desk! Similarly, some debaters (particularly at intervarsity level) offer points by placing one hand on their head and outstretching the other towards the speaker. There is no need to do this – for the uninitiated audience member, this is likely to cause confusion, distraction and, occasionally, no end of mirth!

Some debaters offer points by saying something other than “point of information”. For example, some speakers say, “point of contradiction”, “point of misrepresentation” or “point of factual inaccuracy”. This approach is unsporting and wrong – by saying this, you have effectively *had* your point of information. It is the speaker's right to accept or decline a point, not the offeror's right to impose an idea on the debate. What's more, it will hardly endear you to your audience and adjudicator, who will likely see you as short-cutting the rules of debate for an easy advantage.

Occasionally, more than one member of your team may offer a point simultaneously. In that situation, it is best to quickly and quietly decide who should offer the point and leave only that person standing. For example, one speaker may not have offered enough points, or may have a particularly strong point. This avoids the confusion of the speaker saying, “Yes?”, and your team fumbling around as it decides who will speak!

How should you deliver a point when you are accepted?

There are a number of important techniques for delivering a point of information.

- Despite their name, there is no requirement for ‘points of information’ to be about giving information at all – you can mention facts, statistics, the logic of your opposition’s case, or anything else that is relevant.
- The point should be relevant to what the speaker is saying at the time that the point is offered, or just prior to that. Some debaters and coaches consider it good technique to ask a point relating to something much earlier in the speaker’s speech, with the aim of confusing the speaker’s timing and method. However, this approach risks confusing the debate unnecessarily and harming your credibility – it can give the impression that you haven’t been following!
- Where possible, phrase your point as a question. This demands a response from the speaker and it can help to clarify your point. For example, suppose that a speaker is discussing the great benefits that the Internet can bring to the developing world.
One point of information might be, “Approximately 80% of the world’s population has never used a telephone.”
However, a more effective point would be, “You say that the Internet is bringing significant benefits to the people of the developing world. How is this consistent with the fact that approximately 80% of the world’s population has never used a telephone?”
- Try not to ask ‘Dorothy Dixier’ questions – questions that allow the speaker to expound the virtues of your opposition’s case. This usually occurs if your point is too general. For example, asking, “How can you prove that assertion?” simply invites your opponent to explain exactly how he or she plans to prove that assertion!
- Keep your points as short as possible. A point of information can be as long as fifteen seconds before the chairperson or adjudicator will call the offeror to order. However, it is far more effective to offer a simple and concise five-second point than an intricate and rambling fifteen-second one. If your point is particularly intricate or subtle, it may be best saved for rebuttal.
- Delivering a point of information is *not* the start of a conversation. You should deliver your point and sit down – don’t remain standing while the speaker answers, and don’t engage in any further exchange with the speaker.
- Your point should attack your opposition’s case, not defend your own case. In some circumstances (for example, extreme misrepresentation), you may find it

necessary to defend your case by emphatically clarifying your argument. However, this is a rare situation – on the whole, points are better used to attack.

- Don't offer points of clarification. This is a wasted opportunity to attack, and any clarification provided will only really help your opposition.
- Many debaters find it helpful to run over the opening words of their point during the time between offering the point and being accepted. This can help to deliver the point in a concise and hard-hitting way.
- Some ideas are too controversial and complex to be raised effectively in a point of information. We have already considered the strategic advantage (in some circumstances) of arguing controversial cases. We also noted that such cases need a clear and careful explanation. Clearly, points of information – which must be short, and which give an immediate right of reply – are a very weak way of raising such an idea.
- Be willing to refer back to a point of information later. For example, in your rebuttal, you may find it effective to say something like, “Now, I asked the first speaker about this on a point of information, and she said [X]. However, even this doesn't really explain things...”.
- Use points of information to identify problems with your opposition's *case*, not reasons that your opposition might *lose*. For example, if your opposition has forgotten to rebut the main argument of your case, leave it that way – you can always remind the audience and adjudicator of this fact in a reply speech or at third negative (if you are negative, of course). For example, it would be a massive strategic mistake to offer a point of information saying, “You haven't rebutted our major argument, which is [X]”. This simply ‘gives the game away’ – a wise opposition speaker will address the issue immediately, so that it is no longer a problem for your opposition!

Responding to points of information

How many points of information should you accept?

Two. It's that simple! Adjudicators will expect you to accept *at least* two points, and will be entitled to deduct marks if you don't. However, strategically, there is no reason to take any more than two points – this is simply giving your opposition additional opportunity to speak!

When should you accept points of information?

The most important principle in accepting and dealing with points of information is that you, the speaker, are in control. Your opposition is trying to interject in *your* speech, so they will do it on *your* terms. Merely because your opposition is aggressive or frustrated does not mean that you have any greater responsibility to accept a point of information – you should accept a point of information if and when it suits you.

As a general rule, you should aim to accept points of information when you are established and clear in what you are saying. For example, the ‘middle’ or ‘end’ of an argument is often an excellent time to accept a point, because you have explained what the argument is about. The ‘set-up’ of an argument, or of your speech as a whole, is generally a very poor time to accept a point of information – you should clarify the foundations of your case or argument before allowing your opposition to confuse matters. Similarly, you should not accept points of information during rebuttal. Rebuttal should be about attacking your opposition’s case – accepting points of information can make your rebuttal seem confusing and defensive. Finally, on the small chance that you might be making a weak argument – don’t accept a point! Hopefully, you should never find yourself in this position, but if you do, you will only compound your problems by giving your opposition a say.

How should you decline a point of information?

As with offering points, the simplest approach is the best.

Always be polite in declining a point of information – just say, “No thank you”. There is no need to be abrupt (“No!”) or rude (“No – this is *your* fault!”). It is generally not a good idea to decline a point simply by gesturing at the offeror – this can seem discourteous, and he or she may not understand the gesture anyway!

Do not waste time declining points of information. For example, if you say, “No thank you, please sit down” or “No thank you, you’ve had your turn” every time you decline a point, you will quickly lose momentum and time in delivering your speech. The simplest approach is the best!

How should you accept a point of information and respond?

So you’ve decided to accept the point of information that you’ve just been offered. What should you do next? First, you should finish your sentence! This is unquestionably one of the most underrated debating techniques – it seems trite and simple, but is very important. Debaters who ‘drop everything’ to answer a point give the impression of being flustered and of allowing their opponents to dictate terms. By finishing your sentence, you maintain control of your speech – and give the impression that you are doing so!

You can accept a point simply by turning to the offeror and saying, “Yes?”, or something to this effect. It is generally considered rude and inappropriate to put pressure on the offeror, for example by saying, “And what do you think of [one of the finer points of the example being presented]?”. Similarly, it is not acceptable to ask the offeror what the point is about before deciding to accept or decline.

If more than one member of your opposition has offered a point simultaneously, you should never choose which opponent you will accept. This gives the impression (whether accurate or not) that you are deliberately picking what you think will be the weakest point offered.

It is important to listen carefully to what the offeror has to say. Many debaters view responding to points of information as a kind of ‘time out’ – they take the opportunity to check where they are up to in their palm cards, or to see how much longer they have to spend on a given argument. Other debaters interrupt the point before it is complete, saying something like, “Yes, yes, I understand, but the problem is...”. If this does occur, the offeror is obliged to sit down – after all, the speaker on the floor has the right to control the speech. However, unless the offeror is waffling badly, interrupting seems very weak. Rather than appearing as though you *know* what your opponent is saying, you give the impression that you *don’t want to know*!

Occasionally, you will not have understood the offeror’s point. For example, the offeror may have explained things in a particularly oblique way or, at an international competition, you may have trouble understanding the offeror’s accent. In that case, it is entirely acceptable to politely ask the offeror to repeat the point. Alternatively, if repeating the point is unlikely to help, you may respond with something like, “I understand you to be saying [X]. In that case, my response is [Y].”

Usually, however, this will not occur – the offeror will deliver a perfectly good point of information that demands a good response. It is important to answer the point that was delivered. Many debaters respond to points of information by answering a point *similar* to that which was delivered, or simply by restating their initial argument. Although this is better than simply ignoring the point, it is far inferior to listening carefully and actually responding to the point that was delivered. Although it is important to give a *good* answer, this need not be a *long* answer. On the contrary, it is important not to get carried away when answering a point – you should aim to give an effective but concise answer that allows you to return to your prepared material.

When you do return to your prepared material, it is important to finish whatever you were up to. For example, you may have said something like, “This is true for two reasons”, but only presented one reason when you accepted the point. It is important to return to where you were, and to make this clear. For example, you might continue, “I said there were two reasons – the second reason is...”.

Sometimes, your opposition will deliver a point of information that relates to an argument that you have already presented, or an argument that you or a subsequent speaker will present. Rather than waste time arguing the point twice, the strategic approach is to refer to the other argument, then briefly answer the point. For example, you could say, “My second speaker will be dealing with that in depth. Essentially, he will show you that [X]...”. This is much better than simply saying, “Um...my second speaker will deal with that” – this gives the impression that you are ‘running scared’ from answering the point!

Finally, you will occasionally receive points that you simply can’t answer. Usually, this is because the point relates to a very specific example, beyond your general knowledge. For example, an opponent may ask, “How does this relate to the Dabhol Power Corporation and its activities in the Indian state of Maharashtra?”. Obviously, the best response is to explain exactly how your point relates (or doesn’t relate) to that example. However, if you cannot answer the point, the best response is to put the onus back on your opponents, by saying something like, “I don’t see how the Dabhol Power Corporation has any direct relevance. If our opposition would like to explain what elements of that example are so important for us, we will be happy to answer them later.”



reply speeches.

What are reply speeches?

Reply speeches are speeches that follow the third speeches. They are significantly shorter than the substantive speeches – usually, the substantive speeches are eight minutes long, whereas the reply speeches are only four minutes long, with a warning bell at three minutes. Reply speeches are given by either the first or second speaker on each team.

Reply speeches occur in reverse order – the negative reply before the affirmative. The negative team therefore has two consecutive speeches: the third negative speech, followed by the negative reply speech.

Reply speeches are not ‘more of the same’ – they are not merely a continuation of the third speeches. The aim of reply speeches is to give each team a brief opportunity to consolidate its ideas and review the debate, in order to present the debate in the most favourable light for each side.

The aim of a good reply speech

By now, you will have realised that some parts of debating can be very inflexible, even painfully technical. Reply speeches are quite the opposite. Being a good reply speaker is therefore largely about understanding the *aim* and the *role* of an effective reply speech, rather than learning numerous rules.

The reply speeches should be different from the other six speeches in the debate. By the time the reply speeches arrive, the debate is essentially concluded. The goal of the reply speech, therefore, is not so much to win the *argument* as it is to step back and explain how your team won the *debate*. Of course, saying, “We have won this debate because...” is hardly likely to endear you to either your audience or your adjudicator! However, this is the essential *idea* that drives effective reply speaking.

In many respects, you should view a reply speech as a post-match interview after a football game that your team has won. You can emphasise the reasons that your team

won, and you can constructively criticise your opponents' approach, explaining why they lost. However, you cannot tackle an opposition player who merely happens to be walking past at the time!

The distinction between tackling an opposition player (rebutting an opposition argument, in our case) and criticising your opponents' approach can seem minor. However, it is nonetheless important, and can be reinforced by using two techniques:

1. Use a tone that is less confrontational, and more analytical. That is, worry less about why your side of the topic is true and more about why your side won the debate.
2. Use the past tense wherever possible. For example, instead of "We say [X]", try "We showed you that [X]".

You can show why your side won the debate by critically 'adjudicating' their case as you recount it. For example, suppose that your opposition has argued that "[X] is true" (whatever that may mean!). If you were to *rebut* this in a substantive speech, you would aim to (i) criticise the way the argument was presented, and (ii) use this to show how "[X] is false". In a reply speech, you would find it more effective to focus merely on the criticism – to say (for example), "Our opposition *asserted* that [X] is true. However, they made no effort to substantiate this assertion. In fact, their third speaker largely conceded the point when she claimed [Y]."

The structure of a reply speech

There is no set structure for a reply speech. As a reply speaker, you really can structure your speech in whatever way you choose. Of course, this does not mean that every structure is equally good – your structure will be marked on its effectiveness, so an issue-by-issue analysis will always outdo a random collection of ideas! Most reply speakers, however, like to have a structure to work with, so we examine the two most common approaches here.

Regardless of the structure you choose, the best way to start a reply speech is generally to identify the issue of debate. A reply speech is designed to be a simple and brief overview of the entire debate, so there is no need to make this complicated or subtle. Usually, the issue that you decided in preparation will have been – at least in the broadest terms – the issue of the debate. It may not be exciting, but it is generally a safe way to start a reply!

The simplest approach is to spend approximately half of your reply speech discussing your opposition's case, and approximately half discussing your own. Of course, this does not mean giving an even-handed appraisal of the cases – naturally, you will analytically criticise your opposition's case as you summarise it, and emphasise the strengths of your own case. Ideally, when you summarise your case, you will show how it answered the questions or problems posed by your opponents.

Another approach is to recount the debate as it occurred – essentially, give a ‘blow by blow’ summary. This approach is not often used, because it can be confusing. However, it can be very effective in a debate where your opposition’s case has changed throughout the debate, or where the issues have substantially evolved. For example, this approach might be the best way to explain *how* your opposition’s case changed in response to your rebuttal, how this was inconsistent with your opposition’s earlier arguments, and why you therefore won the main issues of contention.

A more sophisticated approach (although not necessarily more effective) is to show how the cases clashed on an issue-by-issue basis. This is done by spending the first three minutes of your reply speech comparing and contrasting the cases, and the last minute on a summary of your own case and a conclusion.

Of course, we still need to know just what ‘compare and contrast’ means. Under this structure, it means identifying a few main issues in the debate. As the reply speaker, you can then move through those issues. Within each issue, you can set out your opposition’s argument(s), and provide some kind of response – either by a ‘critical adjudication’, or by showing how your team answered that argument. At the end of each issue, you can briefly highlight any further arguments that your team made on the point.

Having taken the trouble to divide the debate into issues, it is worthwhile outlining those issues before presenting them, and summarising them afterwards. Having summarised the issues of debate, you can then summarise your own team’s approach before presenting a ‘punchy’ conclusion.

Choosing the issues

Choosing the issues or areas upon which to base your reply speech is very similar to the process of choosing the issues or areas for a third speech. Inevitably, there will be many issues in the debate. It is not enough merely to choose some of the more important of these – you will miss important ideas. Instead, you need to *group* the issues and arguments of the debate into larger and more abstract areas, just as a good third speaker will group arguments and sub-issues into his or her targets for rebuttal.

Both the third speaker and you as reply speaker will therefore be undertaking a similar task in choosing issues for your structure. However, ideally, you should not choose the same issues – if you do, the reply speech may seem like merely a rehashing of the third speech, which is clearly not its aim. Besides, the reply speech is an additional four minutes of material for your team – if you can use it to look at the debate from a somewhat different perspective, you will likely have covered the issue in a more comprehensive way. This does *not* mean that the third speaker and the reply speaker should discuss different content (although obviously the reply speech is shorter and

presented somewhat differently). Rather, it means that the third speaker and the reply speaker should ideally choose *different groupings* to examine the *same content*.

It is important to remember that a reply speech is your last chance to convince an adjudicator that you deserve to win the debate. For that reason, as with rebuttal generally, you should not necessarily focus on your team's strongest arguments, or on those aspects of the debate about which you feel confident. Rather, you should concentrate first on those significant aspects of the debate about which you do not feel confident – these will be the most likely reasons for you to lose, so you should pay special attention to showing how you prevailed on these issues.

Finally, look for *specific* reasons that your opposition may have lost the debate. For example, your opposition may have established criteria that it has failed to meet, or promised to support a model that has not been mentioned since the first speaker. Similarly, your opposition may have forgotten to rebut one of your arguments – you should keep track of this, because it can be a significant point in your favour.

As we noted earlier, it is not endearing to say, “Our opposition has lost because...”. However, short of actually using those words, you should highlight any specific problems that your opposition's approach may have suffered. As experienced debaters know, nothing sways an adjudicator like a broken promise – if your opposition has promised something but not delivered, you should remind your audience and adjudicator of that in the clearest terms!

The interaction between reply speeches and third speeches

We noted earlier that points of information and reply speeches do not substantially change the characteristics of good debating technique. They do, however, have some impact on the ideal structure. Specifically, the presence of reply speeches has an impact on the optimal structure for a third speech.

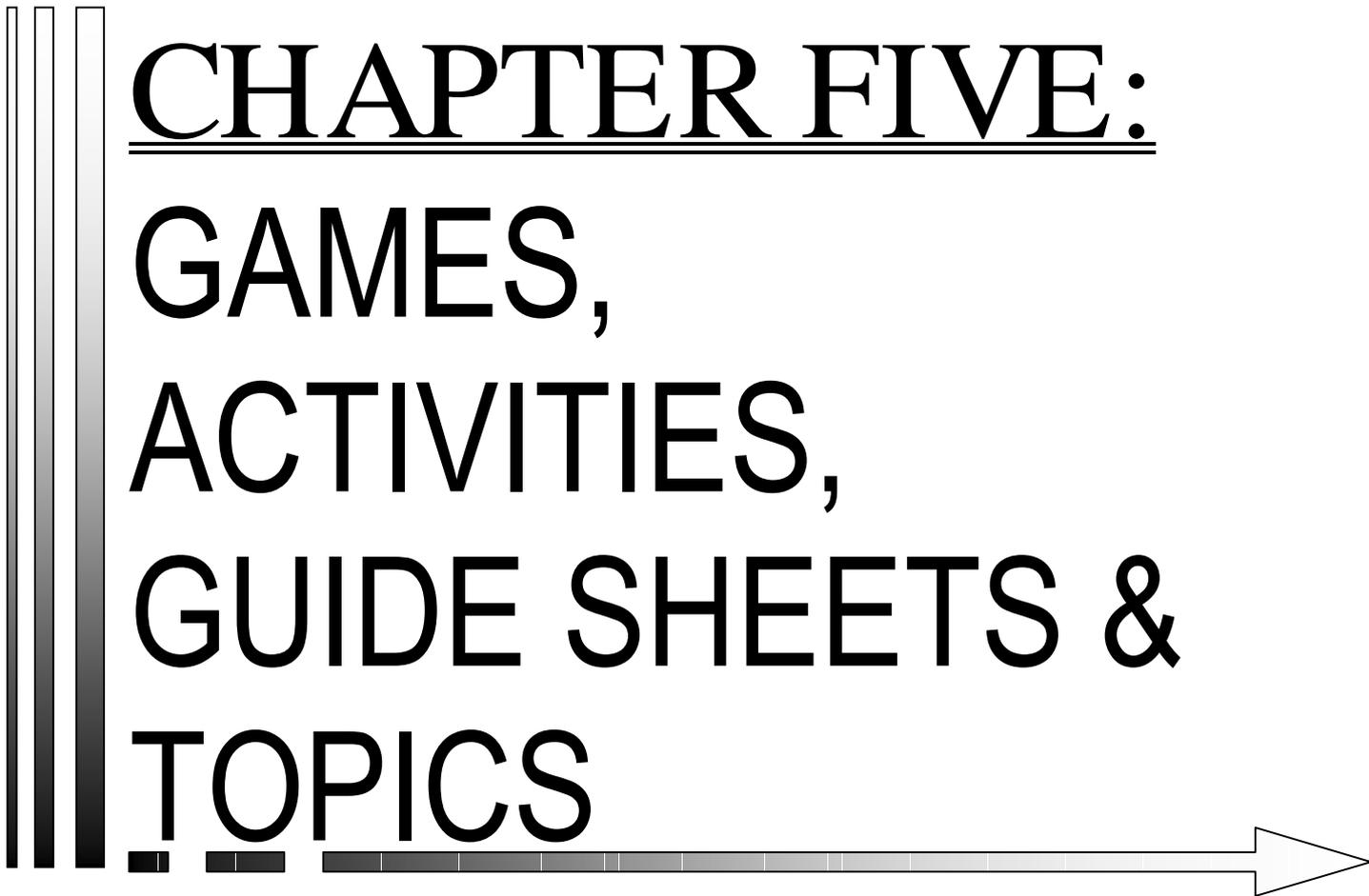
Without reply speeches, the third speaker is the final speaker of a team. It is therefore a third speaker's responsibility to provide quite a detailed summary of the team case. Specifically, the third speaker would be expected to summarise the theme and perhaps the basic case approach, as well as summarising each speaker's individual arguments.

However, when reply speeches are used, they are the final speeches of each team. Therefore, the bulk of the summary (namely, the summary of the individual arguments) should pass to the reply speaker. The third speaker needs only to summarise very briefly the theme and case approach, and perhaps mention the team split (that is, the labels for the first and second speakers' speeches). More detailed summary of arguments can strategically be left to the reply speaker.

Manner and reply speeches

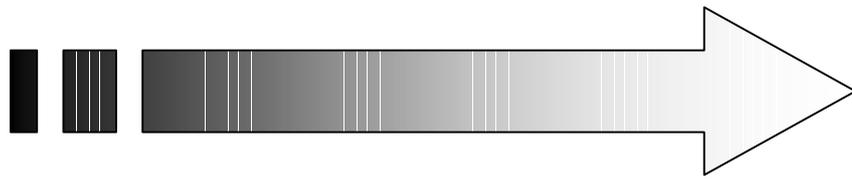
We learned in Part Three that manner must be appropriate to its context. It is worth emphasising the context of a reply speech: a reply speech should be analytical (rather than confrontational) and it should be different from the third speech. This, therefore, should govern the manner of your reply speech. Ideally, you should speak in a calm and analytical manner – without speaking too loudly or quickly. Of course, this does not mean lulling your audience to sleep! Above all, it means you avoid the trap of becoming flustered. A reply speaker often needs to cover a relatively large number of points in a relatively short period of time. The best way to do this is to maintain a calm and controlled demeanour. Becoming flustered may be easy, but it is not helpful!

Finally, if possible, you should try to provide a contrast to your third speaker's manner. This is less important, but it can still help: just as variation in the identification of issues is welcome, so too is variation in manner.



CHAPTER FIVE:

GAMES, ACTIVITIES, GUIDE SHEETS & TOPICS



games and activities

Success in debating is about understanding theories and mastering techniques. Until now, we have focussed almost exclusively on theory – the theory underlying effective debating techniques, to be sure, but theory nonetheless. For many coaches and other supporters, this is where learning debating ends – their attitude is, “Well, you know how debating should be done, so go and do it!”.

This attitude is understandable, but still somewhat strange – it certainly doesn’t apply to other competitive activities. After all, as we noted at the outset, it really doesn’t matter how many books you’ve read or photos you’ve studied, you won’t learn to play cricket without picking up a bat, nor learn to swim without diving into a pool!

In many respects, the same applies to debating – experience matters. Of course, the best way to gain experience in debating is to debate! However, for the sake of variety, time and technique, you can also gain experience by using various games and activities. In many respects, these games and activities are to debating what a ‘net session’ is to a cricket team: they are not ‘the real thing’, but they allow us to focus on specific aspects of our technique and, hopefully, to improve our game!

Of course, there is no set or specific way to use these games and activities. As a coach or debater, you can use all of them or none of them; follow precisely from the book or transform them almost beyond recognition. The point is simply that, in my opinion, debaters don’t use activities like this enough – such activities can simplify techniques and engender confidence in public speaking, especially in younger grades.

This section is written primarily for debating teachers and coaches. However, many of the activities do not specifically require a coach or teacher present. Motivated debaters and debating teams will be able to do many of the activities on their own. Don’t forget – we have already covered a number of effective techniques and activities earlier in the book, such as ‘rebutting yourself’, or practising your speech in front of a mirror. These games and activities merely *supplement* those we have already covered.

Introduction to debating

The following activities are designed to introduce people to debating for the first time. They are designed to emphasise that a debate is an *argument*, not merely a series of speeches on either side of a topic.

Group preparation

Aim: To encourage inexperienced debaters to develop distinct arguments on both sides of an issue.

What to do:

- Sit down with a small group of debaters – anywhere between three and ten, for example. You are all on the same ‘team’.
- Announce a topic and adopt a side of that topic. Try to match the topic to the age and experience of the debaters. For example, announce, “The topic is “THAT HOMEWORK SHOULD BE BANNED FOR PRIMARY STUDENTS”. We will be on the Affirmative side – that means that we agree with the topic.”
- Give the debaters time *individually* to prepare reasons to support your side of the topic. There should be no talking during this time!
- Have the debaters share their ideas, one at a time.
- *After* all of the ideas have been shared, develop a single list of reasons in support of your side of the topic. For example, write a list on a whiteboard, or on a piece of butcher’s paper.
- To encourage more sophisticated discussion, encourage the debaters to consider:
 - Whether numerous speakers, although they have used different words, have really expressed the same argument or idea.
 - Whether their idea is a *reason* to support your side of the topic, or an *example or statistic* to support a *reason* (to support your side of the topic!).
- To encourage still more sophisticated discussion, try to develop distinct arguments from the reasons that you have collated. It may be too difficult to develop any single unifying idea (that is, theme), but you can use a truncated version of the basic structure explained earlier in this book: Label – Explanation – Substantiation. (That is, you can ignore ‘tie-back’ for now.)
- Now adopt the other side of the same topic. Repeat the exercise, so that you end up with a good list of reasons both for and against the issue.
- Ask the debaters to consider which side of the topic they personally agree with, and why. Discuss this in the group.

Forum debate

Aims:

- To show inexperienced debaters that debating is as much about a lively and dynamic argument as it is about presenting formal public speeches.
- To take prepared arguments and use them for a debate.

What to do:

- Select two teams with approximately equal numbers. There should be between three and ten speakers on each team.
- Set a topic for debate, and allocate sides. As with the '**Group Preparation**' activity earlier, try to choose a topic appropriate to the debaters' age and experience.
- Have each team prepare arguments supporting their side of the topic. Essentially, this will follow the '**Group Preparation**' structure set out earlier, although you may choose not to follow that structure so rigidly (for example, you need not necessarily chair the preparation this time).
- If you have a large number of speakers, you may wish to divide each team into two groups of approximately equal numbers: one group will present prepared arguments, and the other group will present rebuttal. (Of course, this does not mean that the rebuttal speakers should start writing their rebuttal – the point is for them to respond to what the other team says *during* the debate.)
- Arrange the room in what might broadly be termed a 'parliamentary' configuration – have the two teams sitting facing each other.
- Introduce the teams, the topic and the general rules of debate (which follow).
- Start the debate by calling on a member of the affirmative team to present a prepared argument.
- Call on a member of the negative team to present a brief rebuttal of that argument.
- Call a different member of the negative team to present a prepared argument for the negative side.
- Call on a member of the affirmative team to present a brief rebuttal of that argument.
- Continue until all of the prepared arguments have been presented and, ideally, everyone has spoken.
- Continue a general argument about the issue, by alternating between the teams and asking for volunteers to speak.
- Declare the debate closed. Tell the speakers that there is no result – that is not the aim of this style of debate.

- Ask each speaker to consider which side of the topic he or she supports. Ask each speaker to briefly state *why* he or she supports that side of the topic (for example, "Of all the points presented, which one swayed your opinion?").

Specifics of the speeches:

- Each prepared argument should be quite short – a maximum of one minute in length (two minutes at most!).
- Each rebuttal point should be even shorter – about thirty seconds long.
- Speakers should stand in their place when they speak. They should be strongly encouraged not to use any notes – this is the point of keeping the speeches very short. The aim of this exercise is to encourage the speakers to view debating as an *argument*, so speakers should be encouraged to express themselves in a natural and informal way.

Understanding Theory

This is a general activity that can be used to teach many aspects of debating theory.

Aim: To teach the theory of good debating in an enjoyable and interactive way.

What to do:

- Divide the participants into groups of between three and five students – each group will work separately and then compare results.
- Announce a topic to all participants and, if necessary, a side (for example, affirmative).
- Announce one aspect of preparation – for example, the issue, the definition, et cetera.
- Give the participants a short amount of time to prepare that aspect of a case for that topic (for example, one minute to work on an issue, three minutes to work on a definition).
- Each group must agree among itself. Groups can then share their responses with all participants.
- Repeat the activity as desired, changing the topic and aspect of preparation each time.
- To properly test the participants' understanding, choose difficult or obscure topics. Such topics don't necessarily make for the best debates, but they can prove most effective in learning techniques. (For example, we used the topic "THAT BIG IS BEAUTIFUL" to examine the technique of finding an issue in Chapter One).

General knowledge and Current Affairs

A general knowledge and current affairs test

We discussed general knowledge tests in Step Three of Chapter One. A general knowledge test is straightforward, but often overlooked by teams and coaches. Simply, it involves giving debaters a test, usually written, on the kind of general knowledge and current affairs that is useful in debating – for example, naming names (“Who is the Secretary-General of the United Nations?”), knowing key statistics (“Approximately what proportion of the world’s population lives in the developing world?”), or following current events.

The test serves as a way of judging debaters’ general knowledge (for example, to assist selecting a debating team) and gives debaters an incentive to stay in touch with news and current affairs.

The ‘name game’

Aim: To test and improve debaters’ general knowledge in a fun and interactive way.

What to do:

- Divide the participants into groups so that each group has an even number of members (greater than two). The game generally works best when played in groups of four or six. The following instructions apply to a single group – in this case, a group of six.
- Have each member of the group write ten names on small pieces of paper, and fold each piece in two. The names cannot be fabricated – they must actually belong to people who are relatively well known! Limit who those people are depending on how seriously you are playing the game. For example, if you are playing for fun, allow television characters or movie stars – if you are playing it simply for the most debate-worthy purposes, limit the names to those people who are more likely to arise in debates.
- Put all of the names into a container. In our example, therefore, there would be sixty folded pieces of paper in the container.
- Divide the group into pairs. Each pair becomes a team. For reasons that will become apparent shortly, the game is usually more competitive if the players are divided into teams *after* they have written their names.
- Randomly choose an order for the teams. In our example, we will assume that Team One will go first, Team Two will go second and Team Three will go third.
- Team One chooses a player to ask first. Pass the container to that player.
- That player takes one folded piece of paper from the container, and tries to prompt his or her team-mate to say the name written there. However, he or she cannot say any part of the person’s name. Phonetic descriptions (“sounds like...”) are

acceptable, as long as the compared word is real! For example, the player asking could say,

- “A Senator for the State of New York”, or,
 - “Wife of the previous American President”, but could not say,
 - “Wife of Bill Clinton”, nor,
 - “Rhymes with ‘Clillary Hinton’!”.
- The player has one minute to prompt his or her team-mate to say the name. If the team-mate correctly identifies the name, the player discards the folded paper and picks another piece from the container. When one minute is up, the player returns the current unidentified name to the container, and passes the container to the chosen player from Team Two.
 - The process continues. Players on the same team must alternate turns asking and responding. For example, after Team Three has had its minute, the container passes to the member of Team One who answered the first time.
 - The game finishes when there are no more pieces of paper in the container. A team wins by having correctly identified more names than any other team.

Manner skills

There are many ways of improving your manner – for example, by practising your speech in front of a mirror, or by paying special attention to the adjudicator’s comments.

In many sports, participants train by working separately on the various elements of their technique – for example, swimmers will often use a kickboard to concentrate only on their kick, and cricketers will use a ‘catching cradle’ to work on their slips fielding. It is difficult to separate the elements of manner without doing specific exercises. If you try to improve your manner merely by debating, you will find yourself trying to improve your stance, gesture, eye contact, vocal variation and pause – all while thinking about what you’re actually saying! This is a general activity that can easily be varied to work on different components of manner individually.

Aim: To separate the various elements of manner and to make the speaker conscious of them.

What to do:

- Work with a relatively small number of participants – for example, six or fewer.
- Give each speaker a topic. This may be a debating topic, or it may simply be something to talk about (for example, ‘what I did on my holiday’). If you wish, allow the participants to choose their own topics.
- Each speaker will be required to speak for one minute on that topic. Give the speakers a short amount of time (for example, between one and five minutes) to prepare.

- Move through the participants, with each participant delivering his or her speech. Have the group give constructive feedback after each speech.
- *However*, don't merely allow the participants to stand up and speak! Instead, isolate one or more components of their manner. For example,
 - Work on vocal and verbal presentation by having the participants deliver their speeches seated, and with their hands clasped or by their side. Remove the distraction of walking around and gesturing – force the speakers to think about their vocal and verbal presentation only.
 - Work on gesture by having the speakers consciously think of the gestures that they are using. You may wish to have each speaker deliver the same speech twice – first with deliberately exaggerated gestures, and second with 'normal' gestures. This should encourage the speakers to be aware of the gestures that they use.
 - Work on vocal presentation by having the speaker deliver the same speech twice – first in a small room with the audience sitting close, and second in a large room or hall with the audience sitting down the back. In the small room, speakers will need to work on their conversational manner; in the large room, speakers will need to project their voices and give a more 'powerful' impression. The point of this is not really to have the speakers 'practise' a distinct 'small room' and 'large room' manner – rather, it is to encourage the speakers to think about varying their manner style according to the context of the debate.
 - Work on emotive delivery by giving each speaker an emotive issue (for example, an issue concerning life and death, such as capital punishment). Of course, an emotive delivery need not mean crying or screeching – ultimately, the challenge is to present the issue sincerely, while nonetheless trying to use the 'moral high ground' for persuasive value.
 - Work on a speaker's habit of "wandering" by placing a mark on the ground and insisting that the speaker deliver his or her entire speech while standing on that spot. There is no need to do this in debates themselves, but this will make the speaker aware of just how much he or she wanders.
 - Work on a speaker's overall presentation by videotaping his or her speech and playing it back. Many speakers have never watched themselves speak, so this can be a very effective technique. Specifically, it often highlights manner problems (such as mumbling, annoying mannerisms or wandering) in a way that the speaker never saw them – from the audience's perspective!

Preparation and Delivery skills

These activities are designed to improve a team's ability to prepare together. Usually, they are most useful in coaching a team to do short preparation debates effectively.

Short preparation practice

Sometimes, the simplest approach is the best! If a team wants to learn how to do short preparations well and under pressure, it simply has to do many short preparations. What's more, it often helps to have a coach or supporter watching the team as they do this, to give constructive feedback.

Aim: To practise short preparations.

What to do:

- Give the team a topic and a side (for example, "The topic is "THAT THE UNITED NATIONS HAS FAILED", and you are the affirmative.")
- Have the team prepare the topic. This should take 35 minutes – 10 minutes for brainstorming and 25 minutes for case development. (This timing was explained in Chapter One – there is no need to have the team members write their speeches when practising like this.)
- At the end of 35 minutes, ask the team members to explain their case to you, the observer. Ensure that every team member understands the case in the same way – if they do not, this is a technical flaw in the preparation process, which the team needs to improve.
- Have a discussion with the team members as to how well the preparation went. For example, is the case strong? Did the team members work well together? What needs to be improved?

Very short preparation debates

Aim: To encourage debaters to identify the issues behind a topic quickly and efficiently.

What to do:

- Separate your participants into two teams. These should be teams of three, but they can also be teams of two (that is, you can ignore the role of the third speakers).
- Announce a topic and the sides for the debate.
- Give the teams only 15 minutes to prepare, then start the debate.

Most teams do quite poorly at this, at least initially. However, very short preparation debating can have significant benefits for a debater's techniques – for example,

debaters need to spot the main issues quickly, need to develop a simple case, and will not have the time to write their speech out fully on their palm cards. These are all important skills for any form of debating, particularly for short preparation debates.

Mixing things up

Aim: To improve debaters' ability to think on their feet and to focus on the 'big issues'.

What to do:

- As before, form two teams and announce sides and a topic.
- Have the teams do a short preparation. This could be a regular one-hour short preparation, or it could be much shorter – for example, 15 minutes.
- Immediately before the debate, surprise the participants by 'mixing things up'. For example, change the order of the speakers on each team, or swap each team's side of the topic (that is, the team who prepared the affirmative becomes the negative and vice versa).

This exercise, like 'very short preparation' debating, emphasises the basics – it forces the participants to think quickly and to work efficiently under pressure. It also encourages participants to think about the other side of the topic during preparation – a good team will not be troubled by arguing the other side of the topic, because it will have identified the main issues of the debate and will have thought about what *both* teams should say about those issues.

'Scramble' debates

Aim: To improve debaters' ability to do 'short preparation during the debate' (as we examined in Chapter One).

What to do:

- Separate the participants into teams and announce the sides.
- Take the affirmative team aside and announce the topic.
- Give the affirmative team 15 minutes to prepare its side of the topic.
- Announce the topic immediately before introducing the First Affirmative speaker to start the debate.
- The negative team is therefore required to prepare a case and rebuttal while the First Affirmative speaks. As we discussed in Chapter One, this is essentially what the negative team must do if it is required to abandon its case in an actual debate.

This style gives an obvious advantage to the affirmative team, but that is really beside the point – the negative team gains experience in ‘short preparation during the debate’, while affirmative team nonetheless practises ‘very short preparation’ debating.

‘Surprise case’ debates

Aims:

- To force debaters to think about the assumptions underlying their case.
- To encourage debaters to be flexible and to respond directly to an opposition’s challenge.

What to do:

- Separate the participants into teams and announce the sides and topic.
- Send the teams off to do a short preparation (that is, one hour).
- Interrupt the preparation of one team.
- Tell that team what to argue, and make it a particularly radical approach. For example, if the topic is “THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED”, have the affirmative team argue that men and women should not be equal, and that feminism has failed because it has taken women from their ‘rightful’ place in the home. If the topic is “THAT THE WAR IN AFGHANISTAN IS JUSTIFIED”, have the negative team argue that the war in Afghanistan is not justified because the September 11 attacks (which were the stated justification for that war) were themselves justified.
- Proceed to debate the topic.

This exercise should force one team – the team whose preparation was not interrupted – to substantiate its assertions on a much ‘deeper’ level. For example, most teams would argue that feminism has succeeded because it has improved women’s opportunities – this activity forces a team to explain clearly why that is a good thing.

Interrogation debate

Aim: To encourage debaters to consider opposition arguments while preparing, and to respond to those arguments effectively during the debate.

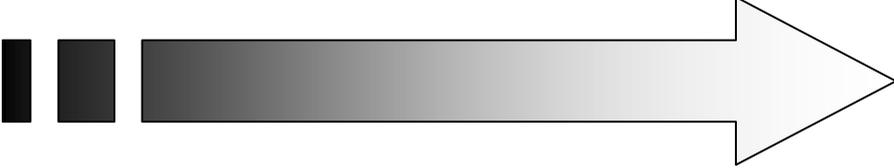
What to do:

- Separate the participants into teams and announce a topic and the sides. You really only need two speakers on each side for this activity.
- Have the debaters prepare the topic, either as a short preparation debate (one hour) or a very short preparation debate (15 minutes). Explain the activity in its entirety before the debaters begin their preparation.
- The premise of the debate is that you, as the judge, will decide whether or not the topic is true. For example, if the debate is about a war with Iraq, suppose that you

as the judge have the sole power to decide whether or not to go to war; if the debate is about whether feminism has failed, suppose that you as the judge have the sole power to 'rule' on the success of feminism. (Of course, you do not actually need to make any ruling at the end!)

- The order of speeches is First Affirmative, Second Affirmative, First Negative, Second Negative.
- During each speech, interrupt the speaker as much as necessary to 'test' the argument. For example, if the speaker makes an unsubstantiated assertion, ask, "Why is that the case?". If the speaker is not dealing with an important issue, raise that issue and ask for the speaker's response. There is no need for rebuttal as such, but you may ask speakers how they respond to arguments raised by the other side.

This activity should encourage debaters to anticipate attacks on their argument during preparation – essentially, it encourages speakers to 'rebut themselves'. It also encourages speakers to defend their argument forcefully during the debate itself.



guide sheets.

The following four pages contain three ‘guide sheets’. They are:

- ***A chairperson’s sheet.*** This is a suggested guide to the duties of a chairperson. It includes an example of each duty. A chairperson can simply fill in the gaps if he or she wishes.
- ***A timekeeper’s guide.*** This sets out the basic duties of a timekeeper. It includes a template to record each speaker’s time, if desired.
- ***A case preparation template.*** This is a two-page outline of the main elements that a team must prepare. Of course, this is not *everything* that a team must prepare – for example, there is no room for a model or criteria. We have repeatedly seen that effective debating is about deciding the most strategic approach *in any given circumstances*, so you should not get the impression that effective preparation is merely a matter of filling in the spaces on a template! However, the template may nonetheless be an effective guide *for debaters still learning the important elements of preparation.*

CHAIRPERSON'S SHEET

This is a very general guide to the duties of a chairperson.

DUTY	EXAMPLE
Set up the room before the debate.	<i>[See the diagram in the 'Basic Introduction' section.]</i>
Welcome your audience and adjudicator and introduce the debate as a whole.	<p>Good evening, ladies and gentlemen, and welcome to this evening's debate.</p> <p>My name is _____ and I will be the chair this evening.</p> <p>The topic of tonight's debate is THAT _____ _____.</p>
Introduce the teams.	<p>The affirmative team is from _____. They are: First speaker: _____ Second speaker: _____ Third speaker: _____</p> <p>The negative team is from _____. They are: First speaker: _____ Second speaker: _____ Third speaker: _____</p>
Introduce the adjudicator.	The adjudicator for tonight's debate is _____ _____.
Announce the speaking time.	Speeches will be ____ minutes long. There will be a double bell at this time. There will be a warning bell after ____ minutes.
Introduce the first speaker. Introduce each speaker in this way. Wait for the adjudicator to signal that he or she is ready before you introduce the next speaker.	I now call the first speaker of the affirmative team.
After the final speaker has concluded, introduce the adjudicator (when he or she is ready, of course!).	I now call the adjudicator, _____, to announce the result and to give feedback.
Call a representative of each team to give a vote of thanks. As a general rule, you call a representative of the losing team first, but don't describe them that way!	<p>I now call on a member of the _____ team, to propose a vote of thanks.</p> <p>:</p> <p>I now call on a member of the _____ team, to second that vote of thanks.</p>
Conclude the debate.	<p>That concludes this evening's debate.</p> <p>I would like to thank you all for your attendance and support, and wish both teams the best for their future debates.</p>

TIMEKEEPER'S GUIDE

As the timekeeper, you are responsible for ringing bells to indicate where each speaker is up to in his or her speech. Assuming that there are no points of information, each speaker will receive two 'bells':

⇒ A single warning bell. The length of speeches depends on the grade and competition of debate. However, the warning bell is usually rung two minutes before the speaker's time has expired. For example, if speeches are eight minutes long, a warning bell is usually run at the six-minute mark.

⇒ A final double bell. This indicates that a speaker's time has expired. A speaker is expected to finish his or her speech shortly after this double bell. If a speaker continues for any significant period of time (for example, thirty seconds or more), the adjudicator will usually stop considering the speech, and will deduct marks. This is to avoid giving an unfair advantage to speakers who speak overtime.

Some adjudicators appreciate a summary of speakers' times. This table can be used for that purpose.

<u>AFFIRMATIVE TEAM</u>	<u>TIME</u>
First Affirmative	
Second Affirmative	
Third Affirmative	

<u>NEGATIVE TEAM</u>	<u>TIME</u>
First Negative	
Second Negative	
Third Negative	

CASE PREPARATION TEMPLATE

TOPIC: _____

SIDE: **AFFIRMATIVE** / **NEGATIVE**

WHAT IS THE ISSUE THAT THE TOPIC REQUIRES US TO DEBATE?

DEFINITION:

<u>TERMS</u>	<u>MEANINGS</u>

THEME (THIS SHOULD EXPLAIN BOTH **HOW** AND **WHY** YOUR TEAM AGREES/DISAGREES WITH THE TOPIC): _____

SPLIT:

SHORT LABEL FOR 1ST SPEAKER'S ARGUMENTS: _____

SHORT LABEL FOR 2ND SPEAKER'S ARGUMENTS: _____

OUTLINES:

1ST SPEAKER ARGUMENTS (2-4 ARGUMENTS):

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

2ND SPEAKER ARGUMENTS (2-4 ARGUMENTS):

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

**SINGLE ARGUMENT STRUCTURE
(TO BE PLANNED ELSEWHERE)**

LABEL YOUR ARGUMENT

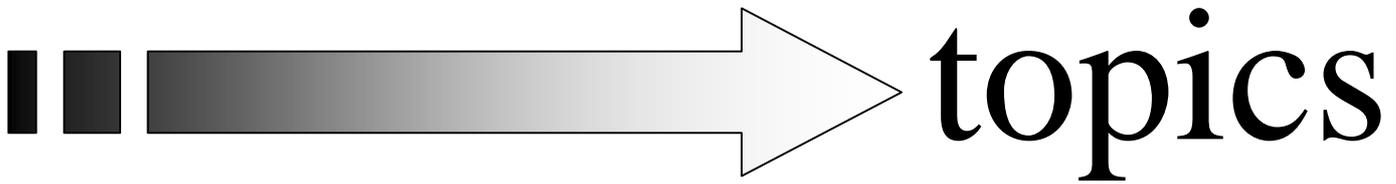
EXPLAIN WHAT THAT ARGUMENT IS SAYING

SHOW **HOW AND WHY** THIS IS TRUE, THEORETICALLY

GIVE SOME **PROOF** TO SHOW THAT IT *IS* TRUE, IN THE 'REAL WORLD'
USE:

- **SIGNIFICANT AND REAL EXAMPLE(S), AND/OR**
- **STATISTICS (WITH SOURCES WHERE POSSIBLE!)**

EXPLAIN HOW THIS SUPPORTS YOUR SIDE OF THE TOPIC: **TIE IT BACK.**
THE KEY QUESTION, WHICH YOU SHOULD KEEP ASKING YOURSELF WHEN
PREPARING THIS PART, IS "**SO WHAT?**".



Introduction

Despite all the challenges of debating technique, the most frustrating part of organising a debate can sometimes be finding a good topic! A good debating topic, for our style of debate, is generally one in which the issue is clear and tangible, and for which both teams can make strong and simple arguments.

What follows is a list of five hundred suggested debating topics. They are arranged in categories, and sometimes in sub-categories. They relate to a wide variety of issues, at various levels of debate. Most of the topics are very general, although not all of these topics will be relevant to all debaters in every country.

This is hardly a 'perfect' or definitive list of debating topics. Hopefully, you will find these topics relevant and useful, whether you set them as an organiser, use them as a coach or peruse them as a debater.

Asylum Seekers

- ⇒ THAT THERE SHOULD BE MAXIMUM DETENTION TERMS FOR ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA'S TREATMENT OF ASYLUM SEEKERS IS A NATIONAL DISGRACE
- ⇒ THAT ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS SHOULD BE TREATED LIKE CRIMINALS
- ⇒ THAT THE DETENTION OF MIGRANT CHILDREN IS JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD END THE MANDATORY DETENTION OF ASYLUM SEEKERS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REPATRIATE ALL ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS

Australia's Nationhood

- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD BECOME A REPUBLIC
- ⇒ THAT NEW ZEALAND SHOULD BE AUSTRALIA'S SEVENTH STATE
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED A NEW AUSTRALIAN FLAG
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED A NEW NATIONAL ANTHEM
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT A POPULARLY ELECTED PRESIDENCY
- ⇒ THAT THE AUSTRALIAN SENATE SHOULD BE ABOLISHED
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD ABOLISH ITS STATE GOVERNMENTS
- ⇒ THAT PARLIAMENTS SHOULD HAVE ONLY ONE CHAMBER

Censorship

General

- ⇒ THAT WE NEED MORE FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS NO PLACE FOR CENSORSHIP IN A DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD TAKE LEAVE OF OUR CENSORS
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED MORE CENSORSHIP

Freedom of Speech

- ⇒ THAT DEFAMATION LAW IS A REMEDY FOR THE RICH
- ⇒ THAT HATE SPEECH SHOULD BE OUTLAWED
- ⇒ THAT RACIAL VILIFICATION SHOULD BE A CRIME
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALWAYS HAVE THE RIGHT TO BE WRONG
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD CENSOR HATE
- ⇒ THAT SPEECH SHOULD BE ABSOLUTELY FREE

Freedom of Expression

- ⇒ THAT ART SHOULD BE FREE FROM CENSORSHIP
- ⇒ THAT DEPICTIONS OF VIOLENCE SHOULD BE BANNED
- ⇒ THAT FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION SHOULD EXTEND TO FLAG BURNING
- ⇒ THAT PORNOGRAPHY SHOULD BE BANNED

The Courts

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT JUDGES SHOULD BE ELECTED
- ⇒ THAT THE JUDICIARY SHOULD BE A TOOL FOR SOCIAL CHANGE
- ⇒ THAT THE SINGAPOREAN JUSTICE SYSTEM SHOULD BE A MODEL FOR US ALL
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS A DIFFERENT LAW FOR THE RICH
- ⇒ THAT THE SEXUAL HISTORY OF RAPE VICTIMS SHOULD BE ADMISSIBLE IN COURT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD NOT EXTRADITE ACCUSED CRIMINALS TO FACE THE DEATH PENALTY

The Jury

- ⇒ THAT THE JURY GETS IN THE WAY OF JUSTICE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH TRIAL BY JURY

Crime and Punishment

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT WE ARE TOO SOFT ON CRIME
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REHABILITATE NOT PUNISH
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND LESS AND CONDEMN MORE

Topics

- ⇒ THAT WE CARE TOO MUCH ABOUT CRIMINALS AND NOT ENOUGH ABOUT VICTIMS
- ⇒ THAT CRIMINAL TRIALS SHOULD BE TELEVISED
- ⇒ THAT DRINK DRIVERS SHOULD LOSE THEIR LICENSE FOR LIFE
- ⇒ THAT MENTALLY UNSOUND CRIMINALS SHOULD GO TO JAIL
- ⇒ THAT PRISONERS SHOULD HAVE NO RIGHT TO VOTE
- ⇒ THAT PROSTITUTION SHOULD BE LEGALISED
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN PRISONERS FROM PUBLISHING ACCOUNTS OF THEIR CRIMES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BRING BACK THE BOOT CAMP
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT MANDATORY SENTENCING FOR REPEAT OFFENDERS
- ⇒ THAT BANNING HANDGUNS GIVES CRIMINALS THE UPPER HAND

Capital Punishment

- ⇒ THAT CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IS NEVER JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT CAPITAL PUNISHMENT SHOULD BE REINTRODUCED
- ⇒ THAT EXECUTIONS SHOULD BE TELEVISED

Crimes of Universal Jurisdiction

- ⇒ THAT FOLLOWING ORDERS SHOULD BE NO EXCUSE
- ⇒ THAT INTERNATIONAL CRIMES DESERVE AN INTERNATIONAL COURT
- ⇒ THAT OLD DICTATORS SHOULD NOT HAVE TO FACE THE MUSIC
- ⇒ THAT THE INTERNATIONAL CRIMINAL COURT WON'T WORK
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD CONTINUE TO PROSECUTE WORLD WAR II WAR CRIMINALS

Juvenile Crime

- ⇒ THAT JUVENILE CRIMINALS SHOULD BE STRICTLY PUNISHED
- ⇒ THAT JUVENILE OFFENDERS SHOULD BE TRIED AS ADULTS
- ⇒ THAT STRICT PUNISHMENT IS THE BEST WAY TO DECREASE JUVENILE CRIME
- ⇒ THAT WE ARE TOO SOFT ON JUVENILE CRIME

Culture

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT A LANGUAGE THAT NEEDS PROTECTING ISN'T WORTH PROTECTING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD GIVE NATIONAL TREASURES BACK TO THEIR PEOPLE

The Arts

- ⇒ THAT THE ARTS SHOULD FUND THEMSELVES
- ⇒ THAT GOVERNMENTS SHOULD SUBSIDISE THE ARTS

Local Content Requirements

- ⇒ THAT THERE SHOULD BE MORE AUSTRALIAN PROGRAMS ON TELEVISION

Topics

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT DOMESTIC CONTENT QUOTAS IN BROADCASTING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD STOP THE POLLUTION OF LOCAL MEDIA

The Film Industry

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE INFLUENCE OF HOLLYWOOD
- ⇒ THAT HOLLYWOOD SHOULD STOP TRYING TO TEACH HISTORY
- ⇒ THAT THE BLOCKBUSTER HAS RUINED THE ART OF CINEMA

Democracy

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY IS A SHAM
- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY IS AN ILLUSION
- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY IS OVERVALUED
- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY IS SO GOOD THAT EVERYONE SHOULD BE MADE TO HAVE IT
- ⇒ THAT TECHNOLOGY ENHANCES DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT TRUE DEMOCRACY IS DIRECT DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT CITIZEN-INITIATED REFERENDA

Democracy and Development

- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY SHOULD NEVER BE COMPROMISED FOR PROGRESS
- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY HAS FAILED THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Democracy and Dictatorship

- ⇒ THAT DEVELOPING NATIONS NEED STRONG DICTATORSHIP
- ⇒ THAT DICTATORSHIP IS JUSTIFIABLE
- ⇒ THAT STRONG DICTATORSHIP IS BETTER THAN WEAK DEMOCRACY

Drugs

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT ALCOHOL IS A GREATER PROBLEM THAN CIGARETTES
- ⇒ THAT MARIJUANA SHOULD BE TREATED THE SAME AS ALCOHOL AND CIGARETTES
- ⇒ THAT THE WAR ON DRUGS IS NOT WORTH THE FIGHT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE ALL DRUGS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE SOFT DRUGS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT A HEROIN TRIAL

Alcohol

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN ALCOHOL
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN THE ADVERTISING OF ALCOHOL

Tobacco

- ⇒ THAT THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD BAN SMOKING
- ⇒ THAT TOBACCO COMPANIES SHOULD COMPENSATE INDIVIDUAL SMOKERS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN ALL TOBACCO ADVERTISING
- ⇒ THAT TOBACCO COMPANIES SHOULD NOT BE ALLOWED TO SPONSOR SPORT

The Economy

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT COMPANIES SHOULD BE MADE MORE ACCOUNTABLE
- ⇒ THAT THE COSTS OF CAPITALISM OUTWEIGH THE BENEFITS
- ⇒ THAT THE EURO WILL FAIL
- ⇒ THAT TRADING HOURS SHOULD BE UNRESTRICTED
- ⇒ THAT WE LEAVE TOO MUCH TO THE MARKET

Trade

- ⇒ THAT WE HAVE GONE TOO FAR DOWN THE PATH OF FREE TRADE
- ⇒ THAT WE STILL NEED TRADE BARRIERS
- ⇒ THAT FREE TRADE HAS BENEFITED AUSTRALIA
- ⇒ THAT FREE TRADE IS THE WAY FORWARD
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUBSIDISE TRADITIONAL INDUSTRIES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT FREE TRADE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE EXISTENCE OF TRADE BLOCS
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD TRADE ORGANISATION IS THE FRIEND OF THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Public Ownership

- ⇒ THAT THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD BUY BACK MAJOR PUBLIC UTILITIES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PRIVATISE THE LOT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT PRIVATISATION

Education

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT ALL COMPUTER GAMES SHOULD BE EDUCATIONAL
- ⇒ THAT ALL EDUCATION SHOULD BE FREE
- ⇒ THAT EXAMS SHOULD BE REPLACED BY OTHER FORMS OF ASSESSMENT
- ⇒ THAT FORMAL EDUCATION HAS FAILED US
- ⇒ THAT MONEY SPENT ON SENDING STUDENTS ABROAD IS MONEY WELL SPENT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH STUDENT GRANTS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SPEND MORE ON EDUCATION

School Education

- ⇒ THAT ALL SCHOOLS SHOULD BE CO-EDUCATIONAL

Topics

- ⇒ THAT ALL YEAR EIGHTS SHOULD BE MADE TO DO 'HOME ECONOMICS'
- ⇒ THAT HOMEWORK SHOULD BE BANNED FOR PRIMARY STUDENTS
- ⇒ THAT INTER-SCHOOL COMPETITIVE SPORT DOES MORE HARM THAN GOOD
- ⇒ THAT PRIVATE SCHOOLS ARE NOT IN THE PUBLIC INTEREST
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOL ATTENDANCE SHOULD BE VOLUNTARY
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOL DAYS ARE THE BEST DAYS OF OUR LIVES
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOL DAYS SHOULD BE LONGER AND FEWER
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOL UNIFORMS SHOULD BE COMPULSORY
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOL UNIFORMS SHOULD BE SCRAPPED
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOLS SHOULD FOCUS ON PREPARING STUDENTS FOR JOBS
- ⇒ THAT SCHOOLS SHOULD NOT GIVE ASSIGNMENTS OVER THE SCHOOL HOLIDAYS
- ⇒ THAT STUDENTS SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO LEAVE SCHOOL AT 14
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS A CRISIS IN BOYS' EDUCATION
- ⇒ THAT THERE SHOULD BE NO COMPUTERS IN SCHOOLS
- ⇒ THAT WE ARE TAUGHT TOO MUCH ABOUT EUROPE AND NOT ENOUGH ABOUT OUR NEIGHBOURS
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED MORE DISCIPLINE IN OUR SCHOOLS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH PUBLIC FUNDING FOR PRIVATE SCHOOLS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH SCHOOL TUCKSHOPS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BRING BACK CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN SCHOOLS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD HAVE TO LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AT SCHOOL

Tertiary Education

- ⇒ THAT CORPORATISATION OF UNIVERSITIES WILL HURT THE CAUSE OF KNOWLEDGE
- ⇒ THAT TERTIARY EDUCATION SHOULD BE FREE

Employment and Labour

The Right to Strike

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE RIGHT TO STRIKE
- ⇒ THAT STRIKERS SHOULD BE SACKED
- ⇒ THAT THE STRIKE IS A FAIR WEAPON
- ⇒ THAT PROVIDERS OF ESSENTIAL SERVICES SHOULD HAVE THE RIGHT TO STRIKE

Trade Unionism

- ⇒ THAT TRADE UNIONISM THREATENS DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT TRADE UNIONS HAVE BECOME IRRELEVANT
- ⇒ THAT TRADE UNIONS HAVE SERVED THEIR PURPOSE
- ⇒ THAT TRADE UNIONS HAVE TOO MUCH POWER
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT COMPULSORY UNIONISM

Labour Market Regulation

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH THE MINIMUM WAGE

Topics

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT A MAXIMUM WAGE
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD HAVE A LONGER WORKING WEEK
- ⇒ THAT THE MINIMUM WORKING AGE SHOULD BE INCREASED
- ⇒ THAT THERE SHOULD BE A MANDATORY RETIREMENT AGE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD WORK FOR THE DOLE

The Environment

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RECYCLE ENVIRONMENTALISTS
- ⇒ THAT DAMS SHOULD BE DAMNED
- ⇒ THAT ENVIRONMENTAL TREATIES DO MORE HARM THAN GOOD
- ⇒ THAT RECREATIONAL FISHING AND HUNTING SHOULD BE BANNED

The Environment and Development

- ⇒ THAT CAPITALISTS CANNOT BE ENVIRONMENTALISTS
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS NOT ENOUGH GOLD TO GO GREEN
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SACRIFICE ECONOMIC GROWTH FOR THE GOOD OF THE ENVIRONMENT
- ⇒ THAT MODERN AGRICULTURE IS BAD FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Global Warming

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD STILL SUPPORT THE KYOTO AGREEMENT
- ⇒ THAT THE KYOTO SUMMIT DIDN'T GO FAR ENOUGH
- ⇒ THAT THE USA WAS JUSTIFIED IN ABANDONING KYOTO
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT INTERNATIONAL TRADING OF POLLUTION PERMITS
- ⇒ THAT GLOBAL WARMING SHOULD BE OUR NUMBER ONE PRIORITY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABANDON FOSSIL FUELS

The Environment and Tourism

- ⇒ THAT ECO-TOURISM HAS FAILED
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALLOW COMMERCIAL TOURISM IN NATIONAL PARKS

Feminism and Gender Relations

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT FEMINISM HAS FAILED
- ⇒ THAT FEMINISM IS CORRUPTING THE FAMILY
- ⇒ THAT FEMINISM IS DEAD
- ⇒ THAT THE FEMALE OF THE SPECIES IS MORE DEADLY THAN THE MALE
- ⇒ THAT THE WEST SHOULD TREAT STATE SPONSORED SEXISM AS APARTHEID
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED A MEN'S MOVEMENT TOO
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET FEMINISM
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RESERVE SEATS IN PARLIAMENT FOR WOMEN

Topics

⇒ THAT WOMEN SHOULD FIGHT IN THE FRONT LINE

Marriage

- ⇒ THAT HOUSEWIVES SHOULD BE PAID FOR THEIR WORK
- ⇒ THAT MARRIAGE IS AN OUTDATED INSTITUTION
- ⇒ THAT THE BRIDE SHOULD WEAR BLACK
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD MAKE DIVORCE EASIER

Parenthood

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD HAVE PAID PARENTAL LEAVE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PAY WOMEN TO HAVE BABIES

Gay Rights

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD “OUT” GAY CELEBRITIES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE SAME SEX MARRIAGE
- ⇒ THAT SAME SEX COUPLES SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO ADOPT CHILDREN

Globalisation

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT ALL BORDERS SHOULD BE OPEN
- ⇒ THAT GLOBALISATION IS KILLING LOCAL CULTURES
- ⇒ THAT GLOBALISATION IS BENEFITING AUSTRALIA
- ⇒ THAT GLOBALISATION MARGINALISES THE POOR
- ⇒ THAT IT WOULD BE BETTER TO LIVE ON A DESERT ISLAND THAN IN THE GLOBAL VILLAGE
- ⇒ THAT HIGH FENCES MAKE GOOD NEIGHBOURS

Multinational Corporations

- ⇒ THAT MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS ARE THE NEW IMPERIALISTS
- ⇒ THAT MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS DO MORE HARM THAN GOOD

National Sovereignty

- ⇒ THAT NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY HAS BECOME MEANINGLESS
- ⇒ THAT SOVEREIGNTY IS AN OUTDATED CONCEPT
- ⇒ THAT THE NATION-STATE IS OUT OF DATE

Human Rights

General

- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED NATIONS SHOULD TAKE A STRONGER STAND AGAINST HUMAN RIGHTS ABUSES
- ⇒ THAT THERE ARE NO SUCH THINGS AS UNIVERSAL HUMAN RIGHTS

Topics

- ⇒ THAT WE NEED A BILL OF RIGHTS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PAY COMPENSATION FOR THE INJUSTICES OF PAST GENERATIONS

Human Rights in the Developing World

- ⇒ THAT AID TO DEVELOPING NATIONS SHOULD BE TIED TO HUMAN RIGHTS
- ⇒ THAT CHILD LABOUR IS JUSTIFIABLE IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD
- ⇒ THAT HUMAN RIGHTS ARE A LUXURY THE DEVELOPING WORLD CANNOT AFFORD
- ⇒ THAT RICE IS MORE IMPORTANT THAN RIGHTS
- ⇒ THAT THE ONLY HUMAN RIGHT IS THE RIGHT TO GOOD GOVERNANCE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT CHINA'S "ONE CHILD" POLICY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BOYCOTT COMPANIES THAT USE CHILD LABOUR

The Individual and Society

Organisation of Society

- ⇒ THAT CAPITALISM PROVIDES FOR A BETTER SOCIETY THAN SOCIALISM DOES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE DEMISE OF COMMUNISM
- ⇒ THAT THE NATION'S PROBLEMS ARE BETTER SOLVED BY THE PRIVATE SECTOR THAN BY GOVERNMENT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD GIVE MARXISM ANOTHER TRY

Social Goals

- ⇒ THAT A FAIRER SOCIETY NEEDS HIGHER TAXATION
- ⇒ THAT A GOVERNMENT THAT GOVERNS LEAST GOVERNS BEST
- ⇒ THAT EQUALITY IS THE BENCHMARK OF SOCIETY
- ⇒ THAT EQUITY IS MORE IMPORTANT THAN EFFICIENCY
- ⇒ THAT LOW TAXES ARE PREFERABLE TO EXTENSIVE GOVERNMENT SERVICES
- ⇒ THAT SMALL GOVERNMENT IS THE BEST GOVERNMENT
- ⇒ THAT "EQUAL OPPORTUNITY" IS UNFAIR
- ⇒ THAT SOCIAL SECURITY SHOULD NOT BE MEANS-TESTED
- ⇒ THAT TAXATION IS THEFT
- ⇒ THAT THE WELFARE STATE IS A RIGHT, NOT A SAFETY NET
- ⇒ THAT THERE MUST ALWAYS BE THE POOR
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ABOLISH DIRECT TAXATION

Civil Liberties

- ⇒ THAT CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE IS JUSTIFIABLE IN A DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS SHOULD NOT BE ALLOWED TO EXCLUDE MEMBERS ON THE BASIS OF RACE, GENDER OR SEXUALITY
- ⇒ THAT NATIONAL SECURITY CONCERNS JUSTIFY THE RESTRICTION OF CIVIL LIBERTIES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD COMPROMISE CIVIL LIBERTIES IN THE INTERESTS OF SECURITY
- ⇒ THAT VICTIMLESS CRIMES SHOULD NOT BE CRIMES AT ALL

Topics

- ⇒ THAT THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD STOP PROTECTING CITIZENS FROM THEMSELVES
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD OUTLAW FASCISM
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REINTRODUCE NATIONAL SERVICE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Assorted

- ⇒ THAT INDIVIDUALISM IS DEAD
- ⇒ THAT NATIONAL SERVICE SHOULD BE COMPULSORY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BREAK A BAD LAW
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BREAK THE LAW IN THE INTERESTS OF JUSTICE

International Relations and Conflict

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT A GOVERNMENT OWES NO DUTY TO PROTECT THE CITIZENS OF OTHER NATIONS
- ⇒ THAT MIGHT IS RIGHT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN LAND MINES IMMEDIATELY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PLAN FOR PEACE BY PREPARING FOR WAR
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT CONSTRUCTIVE ENGAGEMENT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT MISSILE DEFENCE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD TRADE LAND FOR PEACE

Economic Sanctions

- ⇒ THAT ECONOMIC SANCTIONS ARE PREFERABLE TO WAR
- ⇒ THAT ECONOMIC SANCTIONS DO MORE HARM THAN GOOD

The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)

- ⇒ THAT NATO IS NO LONGER NECESSARY
- ⇒ THAT RUSSIA SHOULD JOIN NATO
- ⇒ THAT THE EXPANSION OF NATO IS A WRONG MOVE
- ⇒ THAT THE NATO BOMBING OF YUGOSLAVIA WAS JUSTIFIED

Unipolarity versus Bipolarity

- ⇒ THAT ONE SUPERPOWER IS BETTER THAN TWO
- ⇒ THAT THE UNIPOLAR WORLD IS MORE PEACEFUL
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD WAS BETTER WITH THE BERLIN WALL
- ⇒ THAT TWO SUPERPOWERS ARE BETTER THAN ONE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RESENT HAVING ONE SUPERPOWER

The United Nations

- ⇒ THAT THE UN SHOULD TAKE A GREATER ROLE AS A GLOBAL ENFORCER
- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED NATIONS HAS FAILED

Topics

- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED NATIONS IS A SPENT FORCE
- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED NATIONS SHOULD HAVE A STANDING ARMY

Political Assassination

- ⇒ THAT POLITICAL ASSASSINATIONS ARE A LEGITIMATE TOOL OF FOREIGN POLICY
- ⇒ THAT THE ASSASSINATION OF DICTATORS IS JUSTIFIABLE

Conflict with Iraq

- ⇒ THAT THE SECOND WAR WITH IRAQ WAS JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT IRAN AND NORTH KOREA SHOULD QUAKE AT THE UNITED STATES' MILITARY SUCCESS IN IRAQ

The United States in International Affairs

- ⇒ THAT THE USA IS THE EVIL EMPIRE
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD NEEDS AMERICA TO BE ITS POLICEMAN
- ⇒ THAT WE NEED THE USA IN SOUTHEAST ASIA
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT US MILITARY BASES IN ASIA
- ⇒ THAT WE REGRET THE INFLUENCE OF THE UNITED STATES
- ⇒ THAT THE US IS MORE SINNED AGAINST THAN SINNING

Military Intervention

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD INTERVENE MILITARILY IN OTHER PEOPLE'S WARS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD INVADE IN THE INTERESTS OF DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD KEEP PEACEKEEPERS OUT OF CIVIL WARS

The Internet and Communication Technology

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT MARX WOULD APPROVE OF THE INTERNET
- ⇒ THAT KIDS SPEND TOO MUCH TIME ON THE INTERNET
- ⇒ THAT THE INFORMATION HIGHWAY IS LITTERED WITH ROAD KILL
- ⇒ THAT THE INTERNET WILL BE THE DEATH OF INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD FEAR THE INFORMATION AGE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD WELCOME BIG BUSINESS TO THE INTERNET
- ⇒ THAT WE'RE CAUGHT IN THE WEB

Regulation

- ⇒ THAT WE NEED AN INTERNET WATCHDOG
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD CENSOR THE INTERNET
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGULATE TRAFFIC ON THE INFORMATION SUPERHIGHWAY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ESTABLISH AN INTERNATIONAL CYBER CRIME COURT

Microsoft

- ⇒ THAT BILL GATES IS TOO BIG FOR HIS BYTES
- ⇒ THAT MICROSOFT IS TOO BIG
- ⇒ THAT MICROSOFT SHOULD BE BROKEN UP

The Media

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT THE MEDIA HAS BECOME TOO POWERFUL
- ⇒ THAT THE MEDIA IS MORE POWERFUL THAN GOVERNMENT
- ⇒ THAT THE MEDIA IS MORE POWERFUL THAN THE CHURCH
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD TAME THE TABLOIDS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD TRUST THE MEDIA
- ⇒ THAT FREEDOM OF THE PRESS IS LIMITED TO THOSE WHO OWN ONE
- ⇒ THAT TELEVISION NEWS COVERAGE IS TOO VIOLENT
- ⇒ THAT THE RIGHT TO A FREE PRESS IS MORE IMPORTANT THAN THE RIGHT TO A FAIR TRIAL
- ⇒ THAT REALITY TV SHOULD BE VOTED OUT OF THE HOUSE
- ⇒ THAT REALITY TV REINFORCES DEMEANING SOCIAL STEREOTYPES

Advertising

- ⇒ THAT ADVERTISING DOES MORE HARM THAN GOOD
- ⇒ THAT ADVERTISING IS A CURSE
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH ADVERTISING IN OUR SOCIETY

The Media, Government and Politics

- ⇒ THAT GOVERNMENTS SHOULD REGULATE THE MEDIA
- ⇒ THAT THE STATE SHOULD HAVE NO ROLE IN BROADCASTING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PRIVATISE THE AUSTRALIAN BROADCASTING CORPORATION
- ⇒ THAT THE MEDIA PLAYS TOO GREAT A ROLE IN MODERN POLITICS

The Media and Privacy

- ⇒ THAT PUBLIC FIGURES HAVE THE RIGHT TO PRIVATE LIVES
- ⇒ THAT THE PRIVATE LIVES OF POLITICIANS SHOULD BE PUBLIC BUSINESS
- ⇒ THAT THE PRIVATE LIVES OF PUBLIC FIGURES SHOULD NOT BE PUBLIC PROPERTY
- ⇒ THAT THE PUBLIC'S RIGHT TO KNOW OUTWEIGHS A CANDIDATE'S RIGHT TO PRIVACY

Nuclear Weapons and Nuclear Energy

General

- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD STOP MINING URANIUM

Topics

- ⇒ THAT NON-NUCLEAR NATIONS SHOULD STAY THAT WAY
- ⇒ THAT WE REGRET THE NUCLEAR AGE

Nuclear Weapons

- ⇒ THAT EVERY NATION SHOULD HAVE THE RIGHT TO DEFEND ITSELF WITH NUCLEAR WEAPONS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN ALL NUCLEAR WEAPONS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE NUCLEAR DETERRENT

Nuclear Energy

- ⇒ THAT COAL AND OIL ARE A GREATER DANGER THAN NUCLEAR POWER
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE USE OF NUCLEAR ENERGY

Politics

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT SMALL PARTIES AND INDEPENDENTS IMPEDE THE PARLIAMENTARY PROCESS
- ⇒ THAT THE THIRD WAY IS THE RIGHT WAY
- ⇒ THAT THE TWO-PARTY SYSTEM HAS FAILED US
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH SECRECY IN GOVERNMENT

Reform of Politics

- ⇒ THAT ELECTION CAMPAIGNS SHOULD BE FULLY FINANCED BY THE STATE
- ⇒ THAT VOTING SHOULD BE COMPULSORY
- ⇒ THAT PARLIAMENTARY PRIVILEGE SHOULD BE ABOLISHED
- ⇒ THAT PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION SERVES BETTER THAN 'FIRST PAST THE POST'

Politicians

- ⇒ THAT MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT SHOULD HAVE TERM LIMITS
- ⇒ THAT OUR LEADERS ARE NOT EQUAL TO THE CHALLENGES OF TOMORROW
- ⇒ THAT OUR LEADERS HAVE FAILED US
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS A DEARTH OF LEADERSHIP
- ⇒ THAT POLITICAL COURAGE IS DEAD
- ⇒ THAT OUR POLITICIANS DESERVE MORE RESPECT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE RISE OF CAREER POLITICIANS
- ⇒ THAT OUR POLITICAL LEADERS WORRY TOO MUCH ABOUT THE NEXT ELECTION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL POLLS

Political Correctness

- ⇒ THAT POLITICAL CORRECTNESS HAS GONE TOO FAR
- ⇒ THAT POLITICAL CORRECTNESS IS NECESSARY TO ACHIEVE SOCIAL JUSTICE

Poverty and Development

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT DEVELOPING NATIONS SHOULD NOT FOLLOW THE WESTERN MODEL
- ⇒ THAT SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IS A MYTH

The Developed World and the Underdeveloped World

- ⇒ THAT THE DEVELOPED WORLD HAS FAILED THE UNDERDEVELOPED
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD BANK IS PART OF THE PROBLEM
- ⇒ THAT TRADE IS BETTER THAN AID
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD FORGIVE THIRD WORLD DEBT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REMOVE PATENTS ON PHARMACEUTICAL DRUGS FOR THE DEVELOPING WORLD
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REMOVE PATENT RESTRICTIONS ON AIDS DRUGS FOR THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Population

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE END OF THE POPULATION EXPLOSION
- ⇒ THAT THIRD WORLD AID SHOULD BE DEPENDENT ON BIRTH CONTROL
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT INCREASED POPULATION CONTROL
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT POPULATION CONTROL BY LEGISLATION

Race Relations and Indigenous Affairs

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALLOW MORE IMMIGRATION
- ⇒ THAT HUNTING WITHOUT LICENSES SHOULD BE ALLOWED FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLE
- ⇒ THAT MULTICULTURALISM IS A MIRAGE
- ⇒ THAT THE MELTING POT HAS FAILED
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT INDIGENOUS CLAIMS TO SELF-DETERMINATION

Aboriginal Reconciliation in Australia

- ⇒ THAT RECONCILIATION IS ON THE WRONG TRACK
- ⇒ THAT THE AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT SHOULD MAKE A TREATY WITH OUR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES
- ⇒ THAT THE TIDE HAS TURNED AGAINST ABORIGINAL RECONCILIATION
- ⇒ THAT WE CAN CLOSE THE BOOK ON ABORIGINAL RECONCILIATION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD APOLOGISE TO THE STOLEN GENERATION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD COMPENSATE THE STOLEN GENERATION

Religion

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT RELIGION HAS NO PLACE IN SCHOOLS
- ⇒ THAT ALL SCHOOLS SHOULD BE REQUIRED TO TEACH THE THEORY OF EVOLUTION
- ⇒ THAT THE CHURCH SHOULD PAY MORE ATTENTION TO THE OPINION POLLS
- ⇒ THAT THE POPE SHOULD GET MARRIED
- ⇒ THAT SCIENCE HAS MADE GOD REDUNDANT

Religion and the State

- ⇒ THAT GOVERNMENTS SHOULD LEAVE CULTS ALONE
- ⇒ THAT THE SEPARATION OF THE CHURCH AND THE STATE HAS GONE TOO FAR

Religion and Politics

- ⇒ THAT THE CHURCH SHOULD STAY OUT OF POLITICS
- ⇒ THAT RELIGION AND POLITICS DON'T MIX

Science

General

- ⇒ THAT SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY ARE ADVANCING AT A RATE TOO FAST FOR THE GOOD OF SOCIETY
- ⇒ THAT SCIENCE HAS OUTLIVED ITS USEFULNESS
- ⇒ THAT SCIENCE IS THE ALCHEMY OF OUR AGE
- ⇒ THAT SCIENCE IS THE ENEMY OF THE PEOPLE
- ⇒ THAT THE MARCH OF SCIENCE HAS GONE TOO FAR
- ⇒ THAT WE LET TECHNOLOGY DO TOO MUCH
- ⇒ THAT MEDICAL TECHNOLOGY HAS OUTSTRIPPED MORALITY

Intellectual Property and Science

- ⇒ THAT INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY SHOULD NOT BE PROPERTY AT ALL
- ⇒ THAT PATENTING OF GENE TECHNOLOGY SHOULD BE BANNED
- ⇒ THAT PATENTING OF MEDICAL FINDINGS IS JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT THE RESULTS OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH SHOULD BE FREE FOR USE BY EVERYONE

Space Exploration

- ⇒ THAT MARS SHOULD WAIT
- ⇒ THAT SPACE EXPLORATION SHOULD BE LEFT TO PRIVATE ENTERPRISE
- ⇒ THAT THE COST OF SPACE EXPLORATION IS JUSTIFIABLE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD GO BACK TO THE MOON
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT SPACE EXPLORATION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD WELCOME SPACE TOURISM

Testing

- ⇒ THAT GENETIC SCREENING SHOULD BE BANNED
- ⇒ THAT INSURANCE COMPANIES SHOULD BE ABLE TO DO GENETIC TESTING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT COMPULSORY AIDS TESTING
- ⇒ THAT EMPLOYERS SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO DRUG TEST THEIR EMPLOYEES

Surrogacy

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALLOW SURROGACY FOR PROFIT
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALLOW SURROGATE MOTHERHOOD

Reproductive Technology

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN REPRODUCTIVE TECHNOLOGY
- ⇒ THAT THE FATHER SHOULD BE PRESENT AT CONCEPTION

Cloning

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD CLONE HUMANS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SEND IN THE CLONES

Genetic Engineering

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD GENETICALLY ENGINEER FARM ANIMALS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT GENETIC ENGINEERING
- ⇒ THAT THE BENEFITS OF GENETIC ENGINEERING OUTWEIGH THE RISKS
- ⇒ THAT THE ENGINEERING OF GENES SHOULD BE LEFT TO LEVI
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN GENETICALLY MODIFIED PRODUCTS

Assorted

- ⇒ THAT THE SANCTITY OF LIFE OUGHT TO BE VALUED OVER THE QUALITY OF LIFE
- ⇒ THAT WE PLACE TOO MUCH FAITH IN THE MEDICAL PROFESSION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD ALLOW RESEARCH ON FOETAL STEM CELL TISSUE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD HAVE A COMPREHENSIVE DNA DATABASE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE VOLUNTARY EUTHANASIA
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD OUTLAW GENETIC DISCRIMINATION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN ALL EXPERIMENTATION ON ANIMALS
- ⇒ THAT ABORTION IS JUSTIFIABLE

Specific Nations and Regions

Africa

- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED STATES OF AFRICA WOULD BE A GOOD IDEA
- ⇒ THAT PLACING 'SMART SANCTIONS' ON ZIMBABWE IS NOT ENOUGH

Australasia

- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA HAS A SHAMEFUL HUMAN RIGHTS RECORD
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALASIA SHOULD HAVE A COURT OF HUMAN RIGHTS
- ⇒ THAT ASIA SHOULD TAKE THE LIBERAL PATH
- ⇒ THAT ASEAN SHOULD ADOPT EAST TIMOR
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD PLAY POLICEMAN IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD RENOUNCE ITS CLAIM ON TIMORESE OIL
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD STOP BEING UNCLE SAM'S NEPHEW
- ⇒ THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD UPGRADE ITS DEFENCES
- ⇒ THAT EAST TIMOR'S BLOOD IS ON AUSTRALIA'S HANDS
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD HAS FAILED EAST TIMOR
- ⇒ THAT INDONESIA SHOULD TURN ITS BACK ON DEMOCRACY
- ⇒ THAT BHP HAS SOLD PAPUA NEW GUINEA DOWN THE RIVER
- ⇒ THAT CHINA SHOULD FREE TIBET
- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY HAS FAILED INDIA
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD CONDEMN SINGAPORE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD FEAR CHINA
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD FEAR PAKISTAN

Europe

- ⇒ THAT WE SUPPORT EUROPEAN FEDERALISM
- ⇒ THAT KOSOVO'S BLOOD IS ON THE WEST'S HANDS

The Middle East

- ⇒ THAT ISRAEL IS MORE SINNED AGAINST THAN SINNING
- ⇒ THAT THE MIDDLE EAST PEACE PROCESS WILL NEVER SUCCEED
- ⇒ THAT THE PEACE IN THE MIDDLE EAST IS AN ILLUSION
- ⇒ THAT THE WEST SHOULD STOP EXCUSING ISRAEL
- ⇒ THAT WE CAN WORK WITH ARAFAT AS A PARTNER FOR PEACE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE WEST'S CURRENT APPROACH TO THE MIDDLE EAST
- ⇒ THAT THE WEST SHOULD LEAVE THE MIDDLE EAST ALONE

Russia

- ⇒ THAT DEMOCRACY IS THE BEST WAY FORWARD FOR RUSSIA

The United States of America

- ⇒ THAT THE AMERICAN DREAM HAS BECOME A NIGHTMARE
- ⇒ THAT THE STATUE OF LIBERTY IS ANYTHING BUT
- ⇒ THAT THE USA SHOULD BE CONDEMNED FOR ITS HUMAN RIGHTS RECORD
- ⇒ THAT GEORGE W BUSH AIN'T ALL THAT BAD
- ⇒ THAT THE UNITED STATES IS IN DECLINE

Sport

Sport in Society

- ⇒ THAT WE ARE TOO OBSESSED WITH SPORT
- ⇒ THAT WE PAY TOO MUCH ATTENTION TO SPORT
- ⇒ THAT OUR SPORTING HEROES DON'T DESERVE OUR ADMIRATION
- ⇒ THAT SPORT AND POLITICS SHOULD NOT MIX
- ⇒ THAT SPORTING TEAMS SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE FOR THE ACTIONS OF THEIR HOOLIGAN FANS
- ⇒ THAT TELEVISION NETWORKS SHOULD BE REQUIRED TO BROADCAST MEN'S AND WOMEN'S SPORT EQUALLY

Money and Sport

- ⇒ THAT COMMERCIALISM HAS RUINED SPORT
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS TOO MUCH MONEY IN SPORT
- ⇒ THAT PROFESSIONALISM HAS RUINED THE OLYMPIC GAMES
- ⇒ THAT SPONSORSHIP IS RUINING SPORT

The Spirit of Sport

- ⇒ THAT SPORT HAS BECOME TOO COMPETITIVE
- ⇒ THAT THE OLYMPIC SPIRIT IS DEAD
- ⇒ THAT THE SPIRIT OF SPORT IS DEAD

Sporting Bans

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN BOXING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN HUNTING WITH HOUNDS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGALISE PERFORMANCE ENHANCING DRUGS IN SPORT

Terrorism

General and Assorted

- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD SUPPORT THE DEATH PENALTY FOR TERRORISTS
- ⇒ THAT THE WORLD HAS CHANGED FOR THE BETTER SINCE SEPTEMBER 11
- ⇒ THAT US FOREIGN POLICY WAS RESPONSIBLE FOR SEPTEMBER 11
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RESTRICT THE REPORTING OF TERRORIST ATTACKS

Justification for Terrorism

- ⇒ THAT SOCIAL INJUSTICE JUSTIFIES POLITICAL VIOLENCE
- ⇒ THAT TERRORISM IS NEVER JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT THERE IS A TIME FOR TERRORISM

Negotiation with Terrorists

- ⇒ THAT LONG-TERM NEGOTIATION IS THE BEST RESPONSE TO TERRORISM

Topics

- ⇒ THAT NEGOTIATION WITH TERRORISTS IS JUSTIFIED
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD TALK TO TERRORISTS

The War on Terror

- ⇒ THAT THE WAR ON TERROR IS AL-QAEDA'S GREATEST VICTORY
- ⇒ THAT TERRORISM JUSTIFIES WAR
- ⇒ THAT THE BEST WAR ON TERROR IS THE WAR ON POVERTY
- ⇒ THAT CAPTURED MEMBERS OF AL-QAEDA SHOULD NOT BE TREATED AS ILLEGAL COMBATANTS

Young People in Society

- ⇒ THAT CHILDREN SHOULD PLAY LESS AND STUDY MORE
- ⇒ THAT KIDS HAVE NEVER HAD IT SO GOOD
- ⇒ THAT KIDS TODAY HAVE IT TOO EASY
- ⇒ THAT OUR LEADERS ARE TOO OLD
- ⇒ THAT PARENTS SHOULD HAVE THE RIGHT TO SMACK THEIR CHILDREN
- ⇒ THAT THE VOTING AGE SHOULD BE LOWERED TO 16
- ⇒ THAT YOUTH ICONS MAKE POOR ROLE MODELS

Various

- ⇒ THAT COUNTRY LIFE IS BETTER THAN CITY LIFE
- ⇒ THAT DEMONSTRATIONS ARE A WASTE OF TIME
- ⇒ THAT IT'S NOT WHETHER YOU WIN OR LOSE BUT HOW YOU PLAY THE GAME
- ⇒ THAT THE GOVERNMENT SHOULD DO MORE TO SUPPORT TRADITIONAL FAMILIES
- ⇒ THAT THE NEW CENTURY WILL BE BETTER THAN THE LAST
- ⇒ THAT TOLERANCE COSTS TOO MUCH
- ⇒ THAT VALENTINE'S DAY IS TOO COMMERCIALISED
- ⇒ THAT WE ARE THE LOST GENERATION
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BAN GAMBLING
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BE MORE PROTECTIVE OF PRIVACY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD BREAK THE LAW TO PROTECT THE RIGHTS OF ANIMALS
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGISLATE FOR TOLERANCE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD LEGISLATE NOT LIBERATE
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD NOT TAX STUPIDITY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD PROTEST AGAINST McDONALD'S
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD REGRET THE TWENTIETH CENTURY
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RESTRICT PRIVATE CAR OWNERSHIP
- ⇒ THAT WE SHOULD RESTRICT VEHICLE ACCESS TO THE CITY
- ⇒ THAT ZOOS SHOULD BE CLOSED



CONCLUSION

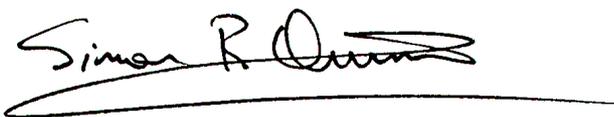
Conclusion

Every debater likes to think that he or she can finish on the key point, and I'm no different. My key point, I think, is simply this: *debating is a game*. Yes, debating teaches valuable skills, and hopefully debating is interesting – but ultimately it is still a game. The aim of a debate, as with the aim of any game, is *to win*. There is no better way to improve your debating, and to have fun doing so, than to enter every debate determined to do whatever possible – within the rules and the spirit of the contest – to win.

Of course, nobody who debates for any length of time keeps winning – sooner or later, adjudicators will award debates against you. This can be difficult to accept, but it is important to remember that most debaters learn most of their vital lessons from the debates they lose, not the ones they win. Sadly, every adjudicator has stories of debaters, coaches or supporters from a losing team who prefer to disagree emphatically with the result rather than to consider the reasons for their loss. This is unfortunate, and not merely because most adjudicators undoubtedly get it right most of the time. Every debate is an opportunity to learn something – particularly the debates you lose. In my experience, those debaters who learn the most over the long haul are those who never rest upon the good days and never whinge about the bad.

This book has been full of detailed explanations – of tips and techniques, rules and other requirements. These things are vital to successful debating, at any age and at every standard. But, ultimately, they are not what debating *is*, and they are certainly not what makes debating *fun*. When I started debating in primary school, I knew little about technique and even less about the rules. But I thought debating was exciting and that debates were fun. And there was just one simple reason for this – *I got to stand up and argue with somebody in public*.

I decided to write this book because I thought that I should write down what I had learned about debating while I still remembered it. This book will have been a success if it helps some debaters, their coaches or their supporters to understand better the rules, the motivations and the strategies for successful debating. If it encourages some young people to take an interest in some important issues of social discussion, that will be better still. But ultimately, I hope this book inspires debaters to enjoy and to keep enjoying debating for what it is: the simple challenge and thrill of standing up and telling someone that they're wrong.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Simon R. Quinn". The signature is written in a cursive style and is underlined with a long, horizontal stroke.

Simon R. Quinn
January 2005