The

“Step by Step”
Guide to Debate

www.saskdebate.com
SEDA

The Saskatchewan Elocution and Debate Association (SEDA) is a non-profit organization that promotes speech and debate activities in English and French. The Association is active throughout the province from grades 5 through 12, and at the University of Regina and the University of Saskatchewan. The Association co-ordinates an annual program of speech and debate tournaments and other special activities, including a model legislature.

SEDA’s staff, along with printed and audio-visual materials, are available to assist any individual or group interested in elocution and debate.

SEDA is a registered charitable organization. Charitable No. 11914 0077 RR0001.

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Originally prepared by Rolf Pritchard
Updated September 2009 with additions by Wendy James and SEDA staff
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# STEP ONE

**STEP ONE – Introduction to Debate**

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# Unit 1
How a Debate Operates

## Objective

To introduce the student to the concept of debate and to review a basic debate.

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## Instructor

Maximum value can be gained from this unit through these steps.

1. Arrange for a demonstration debate. This can be done in a number of ways: school’s debate club, alumni, DVD or video tape from SEDA

2. Discuss the demonstration debate:
   
   a) What was the role of each speaker?  
   b) What were the needs for change or arguments?  
   c) Did the Negative challenge the definition of terms?  
   d) Did the Negative challenge the needs for change?  
   e) Did the Negative defend the present system or present alternative arguments?  
   f) Did the Affirmative have a plan or model?  
   g) Did the Affirmative defend itself against the Negative attack?  
   h) How did the Negative attack the Affirmative plan?  
   i) Who won the debate?  

3. Have groups of students prepare practice questions based on the demo debate and have them ask each other and the instructors. Give positive feedback.  

![](image.png)
PART ONE
Basic Philosophy of Debate

What is a debate? If you look in the dictionary you might see one of the following definitions:
• a formal discussion
• a consideration of issues
• a formal presentation of contrasting ideas.

If you ask the average person they may say that a debate is an argument.

Whether you look at a debate as a discussion or an argument, a key point is the notion that it is a formal procedure. This doesn’t mean that you have to wear your best clothes, but it does mean that there are certain rules and traditions...

• There are two sides in every debate. One side is called the Affirmative, Government or Proposition and the other side is called the Negative or Opposition.

• Every debate has a subject which is known as the resolution or the bill. For example: “Be it resolved that debate is the greatest activity.”

• The Affirmative always presents a case that supports the resolution, while the Negative presents a case against the resolution, which also clashes or disagrees, with the Affirmative case.

• The role of the Affirmative is seen as more difficult because the Affirmative has the job of moving peoples’ opinions away from the current thinking and towards something different. A debate is won by the team that presents the best case: thesis, arguments, evidence, summary and clash. Debate is no longer about the Affirmative proving the resolution is true with the negative clashing. Both sides must present constructive cases. The judges then must decide who presented the best case. Both teams remain vulnerable to attacks on the issues, methods, logic, definitions, evidence, and so on.

• Because they are often arguing for a change from the status quo, the Affirmative speaks first and last in any debate.

There are three types of debate depending on the nature of the resolution.

1) A proposition of fact. Resolutions of this type are not common because a debate can only occur if evidence is vague and leaves the question open. “Be it resolved that aliens have visited the earth.”

2) A proposition of value. Propositions of value tend to be debates about opinion. “Be it resolved that these are the best of times.”

3) A proposition of policy. Here a particular course of action is proposed. “Be it resolved that the legal drinking age be lowered.”

This guide will deal with both propositions of value and propositions of policy.

PART TWO
Physical Layout of a Debate

For a debate to occur the following is required:

1. Two teams, one Affirmative, one Negative, each with two or three people.

2. An odd number of judges, preferably three or five. No ties are awarded this way.

3. A Chairperson/Timekeeper. This person is like the host of a talk show. The Chair introduces the debaters and topic, starts the debate, introduces the respective speakers, and at the end, announces the Judges’ decision. The Chairperson/Timekeeper also times the speeches and signals to the speaker, through a sign or signal, the amount of speaking time left.

4. A room with sufficient furniture to ensure that everyone has a seat and a bit of table space. Only one debate should occur at a time in a room; otherwise, it will be impossible to concentrate.
PART THREE
A Step-by-Step Look at Discussion Style

While there are several styles of debate, all of them share some common elements:
- Constructive speeches
- Questions
- Official rebuttal time

Discussion style, practiced at the Beginner Level, is an introductory format and will be used as a model at this stage of the guide.

Also, new debaters will most likely use the Needs-Plan Model of case construction, which will be used throughout STEP ONE. The Case Line Model of case construction will be covered, in detail, by STEP TWO.

Discussion debate has certain sections:

The Constructive Section

Speeches in this section are called constructive because this is where the debaters build up their cases.
- 1st Affirmative Constructive Speech
- 1st Negative Constructive Speech
- 2nd Affirmative Constructive Speech
- 2nd Negative Constructive Speech

The Question Section (Discussion Period)

An unstructured discussion period follows the constructive speeches. In this period, debaters may ask and answer questions, refute points or provide further evidence supporting contentions made in the constructive speeches.

No new constructive arguments or contentions can be introduced. The Chairperson controls the discussion, alternating where possible from side to side commencing with the first debater to catch his eye by raising a hand. Each contribution to the discussion may not exceed one minute.

Five Minute Break

A time during which debaters prepare their rebuttals.

The Rebuttal Section

In the rebuttal portion debaters summarize their arguments and rebut or attack their opponents’ points. Rebuttal is not limited to this portion and debaters should not wait until the rebuttal section to rebut or refute their opponents’ arguments.
- Negative Rebuttal Speech
- Affirmative Rebuttal Speech
The Constructive Section
First Affirmative Constructive Speech

The Affirmative speaks first and last in a debate. Experts say that the Affirmative has the hardest job, so letting the Affirmative speak first makes up for this.

First Affirmative Constructive Checklist

Needs-Plan Model
1. State resolution
2. Define terms of resolution
3. Present Affirmative needs for change by showing these are serious ills in the present system and provide evidence
4. Introduce an outline of the plan

Now, let’s look even closer . . .

1. State the Resolution

This way we all know that we came to the right debate! “Be it resolved that gambling be significantly reduced in Canada.”

2. Define the Terms of the Resolution

Just so that we are all discussing the same thing, let’s define the major terms of the resolution. This is important because different things mean different things to different people.

For example, let’s suppose the resolution is “Be it resolved that gambling be reduced.”

Gambling could mean:
- all gambling
- legalized gambling
- illegal gambling
- all gambling except lotteries

Reduced could mean:
- 100% reduction
- 75% reduction
- 50% reduction

As you can see, it is important to define your terms. Remember that it is wrong to define the terms in a way that gives you an unfair advantage or is unreasonable. For example, to define gambling as swimming in sewers is unfair, because no one will argue against reducing swimming in sewers.

Always avoid tautologies and truisms that lead to circular definitions: basically when the same word is used to define itself, or when something is obviously true and therefore not debatable.

Definitions do not need to be formal dictionary quotations or include every word in the resolution; they should clarify the direction of the debate. Good definitions can either narrow or broaden the focus of the debate and they work closely with the needs and plan or case.

See Unit 15 on Squirreling and Impromptu Debates for more information about definitions.

3. State the Need for a Change (Arguments)

As the Affirmative you are presenting a resolution that usually calls for a big change to the present system or status quo. Before presenting your change you must explain why we need this change.

Debaters usually present about 3 major needs for change, each supported by evidence. These points form the arguments of the debate.

Your change must be significant; otherwise you fail to fulfill your duty as Affirmative. In a policy debate, you are required to change the system, not make changes within the system.

4. Introduce the Plan

Part of the Affirmative case is to introduce a plan that will solve the need for change. The first Affirmative must present an outline of the plan so that the Opposition has an idea where the debate is going.

Use the “Step by Step” checklist on the following page to guide you through the duties of each speaker. See Formats of Debates on page 66 for the speaking times.

Unit 3, Part One will discuss Affirmative strategies in depth.
**First Negative Constructive Speech**

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<td>3. Attack Affirmative needs for change</td>
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<td>4. Attack plan or plan outline</td>
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### 1. Argue Affirmative definitions of terms

If you disagree with the definitions you must say so in your first speech. Otherwise the assumption is that you accept the definitions. You cannot first accept the definitions and later reject them! So there!

If the affirmative has given you absolutely unfair and unreasonable definitions, then it is your responsibility to reframe the debate. Let’s say the resolution was “BIRT Opinion polls be banned.”

If the affirmative defined the key term “opinion poll” as “a conversation between two neighbours over the back fence on Christmas Eve” you as the negative must point out how absurd, unfair, unreasonable, and against the spirit of the debate the definitions are, then give definitions that are in line with the true intention of the debate.

Definitional debates get ugly, but at this point you have to give the new definitions, reframe what should have been the affirmative’s arguments, then move on with your constructive case. You argue, “if the affirmative had said this, then this argument…”.

Your other option when confronted with bad definitions is to point out to the judges how bad the they are, but state that in order to have a good debate, you are willing to debate on their terms.

Don’t whine about bad definitions. State the problem, deal and move on. In the final rebuttal, point out briefly how the affirmative did a bad job of setting the debate and how well your team did at trying to salvage it.

### 2. Introduce basic Negative Case

There is more to the Negative then just clashing against the affirmative points. The negative will build a strong case if it offers arguments in favour of the status quo. A good rule is to have two or three good constructive arguments, which are independent of points used for direct clash.

As debaters become more experienced, having a constructive negative case becomes important.

### 3. Attack Affirmative needs for change

SEDA has a couple of tools to help the negative attack the affirmative: the Clash Cards and the Refutation Chart (See page 30 of Unit 3). For each “Need” put forth by the Affirmative, the Negative should ask:

- Is this need true?
- Is it supported by evidence?
- Is the evidence reliable?
  - What is the source?
  - Are they biased?
  - What is the science behind it?
  - Are we seeing the whole story?
- If it is true, is it relevant?
- If it is relevant, is it significant enough?
- Is this the real problem?

This is just a sample of the questions that debaters should be asking about the needs. Try developing your own checklist of questions.

The answers to all these questions form the bulk of your negative speech! Clash is the art of showing how the other team is wrong. Bring up your own evidence that counters their points and show how they missed the boat on what is the real problem.

### 4. Attack plan or plan outline

Again ask your self some questions to prepare for your clash:

- Will the plan solve the problem?
- Will it create more problems?
- Do the points in the plan address each of the needs for change?

Unit 3, Part 2 discusses Negative strategies.
Second Affirmative and Negative Speeches

Second Speakers

1. Present or attack plan
2. Explain or attack benefits of Affirmative plan
3. Attack opponents’ point of view
4. Rebuild own arguments
5. Respond to opponents attack
6. Defend and clash

Second speakers have to pay close attention to what has been happening in the debate.

Second Affirmative Speaker

The second Affirmative speaker must present the rest of the plan in detail. The plan must address the problem in the resolution and solve the needs for change presented by the first speaker. The speaker must show the benefits to implementing this plan, over any other possible plan. They must defend the plan against any attacks made by the negative.

The second Affirmative speaker must also defend and repair any attacks made on the needs for change, while clashing with the constructive points made by the Negative.

It is up to the speaker as to the order in which they present the plan, attack the negative and rebuild their own arguments. There is no set way.

Second Negative Speaker

Chances are the first Negative speaker did not clash much with the plan, if there was only a brief outline. It is up to the second Negative speaker to address all the previous questions and more about the plan:

- What are the benefits?
- What are the risks?
- Is there a better way?

The second Negative speaker must attack the repairs the affirmative tried to make to their arguments, and rebuild their own case.

If it has been a confusing debate, or a close debate, a good tip is to have the second negative speaker “step-back” and talk about what has really been going on in the last four speeches and bring clarity to the debate and point out what the negative has done really well.

Again, the order in which the negative completes each of these steps is up to them. Experience will show what is most successful for them.

Discussion: What is It?

The discussion period is a single period that occurs at the end of the final constructive speech and before the five minute break.

In this period, debaters may ask and answer questions, refute or provide further evidence supporting contentions made in the constructive speeches. No new constructive arguments or contentions can be introduced. The Chairperson shall control the discussion, alternating where possible from side to side, commencing with the first debater who catches his eye. Each contribution to the discussion may not exceed one minute.

Why?

Many debaters and coaches believe cross-examination and discussion are much more exciting formats because it allows for direct confrontation between the debaters. Many feel that it is an opportunity to clarify issues and question evidence directly rather than asking for such information during actual speeches.

Fryar & Thomas, Basic Debate, 1980

Objective of Discussion Period

As the questioner, your objective in discussion is to attack the case of the opposition and to prepare the audience for the next speech given by your team.

As the witness, your objective is to rebuff the attacks of the examiner and to convince the audience that your case is the best case.
Discussion period can be used:

- to collect further information;
- to determine whether there is adequate evidence;
- to support the points (contentions) made;
- to show lack of information and preparation;
- to challenge the feasibility and desirability of the plan;
- to challenge the benefits of the plan;
- to demonstrate contradictions;
- to demonstrate lack of logic;
- to point out new harms of plan.

This all sounds great... but how do you do it? Let’s work through a few steps...

How To Prepare

The first step is to be familiar with the subject. If the issue regards left-handed jack hammers, then you should be reasonably familiar with left-handed jack hammers.

Ask your self what are the important points you want to make during the discussion period. What points do you want the opposition to agree with? What are questions that you can ask that will prove your point and weaken your opponent’s stance? What flaws in your opponent’s case can you highlight?

Just as the Negative speeches attack the needs and the plan, the Negative questions must attack the needs, the plan and, if necessary, the resolution. By the same token, just as the Affirmative constructive speeches attack the present system and the Negative’s minor repairs (or the counterplan) ... so the Affirmative’s questions must attack the present system and the Negative’s minor repairs (or counterplan).

For example, say the debate concerns whether or not legalized gambling should be eliminated. Say that you are the Negative and the Affirmative will argue to abolish legalized gambling. After doing your research you establish the following possible needs for change:

- Too many people addicted to gambling
- Unfairly taxing poor people
- Makes people dream

The Negative must attack the needs; therefore questions such as the following would be asked:

- How many people are addicted?
- Who says that too many are addicted?
- If gambling is a voluntary tax, how can it be unfair?
- How are these taxes spent? Are they spent beneficially?
- What is wrong with people dreaming?

Although prior preparation is encouraged, this should not preclude spontaneous response to issues that arise. Debaters may also wish to ask simple questions regarding a quote, a statistic, or a point they require clarification on.

TIP: never ask open questions like: “Can you explain your plan again?” Don’t give them an opening to showcase their good points! See Unit 9 on Cross-Examination style for more hints.

Rules of Discussion Period

| a) | During the discussion period debaters will raise their hand, and upon being recognized by the chairman, will proceed to ask or respond to questions from the Opposition. |
| b) | No new constructive arguments can be introduced, although it is permissible to introduce new evidence during the discussion period. |
| c) | Each contribution may not exceed one minute. |
| d) | Questions should alternate from side to side. |
| e) | During the discussion period, an equal contribution must be made by all debaters. Judges are instructed to penalize lack of participation by a debater. |

5 minute Break

Use this time to incorporate the results of the discussion period into your final rebuttals. Partners can confer quietly to prepare the speech together.
The Rebuttal Section

In the rebuttal portion debaters summarize their arguments and rebut or attack their opponents’ points. Rebuttal is not limited to this portion and debaters should not wait until the rebuttal section to rebut or refute their opponents’ arguments.

Negative Rebuttal Speech

The first negative speaker gives the first rebuttal speech.

Negative Rebuttal
(Speech given by 1st Negative)

1. Meet any significant attack by Affirmative
2. Final attack to show needs are insignificant
3. Final attack to show plan is unworkable and/or will cause greater ills than the current system (and is therefore undesirable)
4. Final attack to show benefits will not be achieved or are insignificant
5. Final attack to show lack of evidence, logic and/or preparation in the Affirmative case
6. Conclusion

Rebuttal speeches are only three minutes long, so debaters must choose what are the most important points.

This is your last chance to persuade the judges and make it clear in their minds why you should win. Don’t try to do a point-by-point recitation of everything that was said before – you just don’t have time and you’ll lose the judges’ interest.

Sample of needs, clash and evidence set up:

<table>
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<th>THEM</th>
<th>US</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Get rid of seatbelts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Actually kill people</td>
<td>Save more people than they hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Uncomfortable</td>
<td>New belts are great</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Don’t work</td>
<td>Statistics prove that they work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Instead, point out the key areas where the affirmative has failed in their duties and why they must lose and you should win.

At the very end, try to stay away from the standard “And for all these reasons this resolution must stand/fall.” Pull out the best image from your debate and leave a strong impression in your judges’ minds.

Affirmative Rebuttal Speech

The affirmative should not try to restate all their needs for change, the supporting evidence and the details of the plan. Instead, address areas of weakness the negative pointed out and show how your key points and evidence are still strong. Emphasize the benefits of the plan and how it truly solves the problem put forth by the resolution. Talk about how dire life would be if we don’t adopt the resolution and its plan.

Both rebuttals should end on a strong note. Timing in the rebuttal is critical! Although debaters are allowed the “15 seconds grace”, this should only be used to finish your last word or two. Too often, debaters try to cram all their big and little points into one last sentence.

See Unit 16 on Winning a Debate to see what judges are looking for in successful debaters.
"Step by Step" Checklist for Beginner Discussion Style (Direct Clash)

1. **First Affirmative Constructive Speech**
   1. State resolution
   2. Define terms of resolution
   3. Present Affirmative needs for change by showing there are serious ills in the present system (arguments)
   4. Introduce an outline of the plan

2. **First Negative Constructive Speech**
   1. Argue Affirmative definitions of terms (if necessary). If you disagree with the definitions you must say so in your first speech. Otherwise the assumption is that you accept the definitions. You cannot first accept the definitions and later reject them! So there!
   2. Introduce basic Negative case
   3. Attack Affirmative needs for change
   4. Attack plan or plan outline

3. **Second Affirmative Constructive Speech**
   1. Present Affirmative plan
   2. Explain benefits of Affirmative plan and how it solves needs for change
   3. Attack Negative point of view
   4. Rebuild Affirmative reasons for change
   5. Answer all First Negative attacks

4. **Second Negative Constructive Speech**
   1. Extend and develop arguments in light of opponent’s attacks
   2. Attack Affirmative plan as unworkable, undesirable, not solving needs
   3. Attack insignificant benefits
   4. Reemphasize any strong points made by partner

5. **Discussion Period**
   An unstructured discussion period shall be conducted following the constructive speeches. In this period, debaters may ask and answer questions, refute points or provide further evidence supporting contentions made in the constructive speeches.

   No new constructive arguments or contentions can be introduced. The Chairperson shall control the discussion, alternating where possible from side to side commencing with the first debater to catch his eye. Each contribution to the discussion may not exceed one minute.

6. **5 minute break**

7. **Negative Rebuttal**
   (Speech given by 1st Negative)
   1. Meet any significant attack by Affirmative
   2. Final attack to show needs are insignificant
   3. Final attack to show plan is unworkable and/or will cause greater ills than the current system (and is therefore undesirable)
   4. Final attack to show benefits will not be achieved or are insignificant
   5. Final attack to show lack of evidence, logic and/or preparation in the Affirmative case
   6. Conclusion

8. **Affirmative Rebuttal**
   (Speech given by 1st Affirmative)
   1. Meet any significant attacks by Negative
   2. Rebuild reasons for change
   3. Show how proposed plan is workable and desirable
   4. Emphasize the benefits arising from the plan
   5. Conclusion

Note: Discussion style can use the Case Line Model of building a case.
Cue cards to help new debaters remember all the steps of the debate. Photocopy as needed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Affirmative</th>
<th>Second Affirmative</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First speech</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>- INTRODUCTION</td>
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<tr>
<td>- State resolution</td>
<td>- Repair damage to needs &amp; evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Define key terms</td>
<td>- Fully develop the plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Present 3 needs for change (arguments) with evidence: statistics, facts, studies, expert quotes</td>
<td>- Discuss the benefits of the plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Introduce plan</td>
<td>- Show weaknesses of the other team</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Clash with the negative's points</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Rebuttal</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Tell why your team should win</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Your strongest points</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Benefits of your plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Weakness &amp; failures of the other team</td>
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<td>- Strong closing line</td>
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**CLASH**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>First speech</strong></td>
<td>Only speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>- INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>- INTRODUCTION</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Challenge the definitions if needed</td>
<td>- Clash with the plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Clash/disagree with the needs for change</td>
<td>- Clash with the needs for change</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Clash/disagree with the plan</td>
<td>- Challenge the evidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Challenge evidence</td>
<td>- Defend the negative's constructive points</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Add constructive points for the negative</td>
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</table>

**Rebuttal**

| - Tell why your team should win |                          |
| - Your strongest points |                          |
| - Problems with the needs, arguments, evidence |                          |
| - Why the plan will not work |                          |
| - Weakness & failures of the other team |                          |
| - Strong closing line |                          |

**CLASH**
Glossary of Terms

Affirmative/Government/Proposition – the team that argues in favour of the resolution

Arguments/Contentions – the propositions, introduced in the constructive speeches, through which debaters construct their cases

B.I.R.T. – a commonly used abbreviation for ‘Be it resolved that . . .’, a standard phrase which proceeds some debate resolutions

Case – all of the elements that comprise a team’s strategic approach to a resolution

CASE – A way of remembering the components of a case line: C - the case statement  A - the arguments  S - the strategy  E - the process of exposition (clash and case analysis)

Case Line Statement – the main point a team is proving. Both the negative and the affirmative have a case line statement, and that statement must agree with the side of the resolution they are on. Also known as a case thesis.

Clash – the fundamental point-counterpoint progression of a debate; two teams continually attempt to undermine each other’s individual points by presenting more convincing arguments for their own side. Clash can be a direct attack on one point through another point (see direct clash), an attack on several points by addressing the underlying idea (see global clash) or an attack of the underlying principle of an entire side of a debate (see case line).

Comparative Advantage Case – a case where the affirmative attempts to prove their plan is superior to the current system but not perfect. The plan must meet the goals the current system is based on.

Constructive Speech – a speech in a debate when debaters present new contentions to build their cases

Criteria Case – a case where the affirmative argues that any solution to the problem presented in the resolution must meet a set criteria they have devised. The criteria become the standard that the current system has failed to meet (replacing needs for change) and the plan must meet the criteria.

Definition of Terms – may limit the terms of the resolution but must be reasonable; are presented in the first affirmative speech to provide a common basis for discussion. Definitions in values debates may contain the idea of “how” the resolution would be implemented or be followed by a brief model.

Definitional Challenge – occurs when the first negative speaker claims that the affirmative definitions are unfair or illogical and then introduces and attempts to substantiate better ones

Direct Clash – is a type of attack where one argument is specifically refuted using another

Evidence – is a statistic, quotation or case study (example) to support an argument you are making. Be sure you understand not only what the evidence says, but the reason for saying it and the context. Remember that all arguments must be substantiated with either evidence or logic.

Forgotten Actors – a method to generate arguments. Consider all the individual people, groups, communities, organizations, institutions, businesses, and governments possibly affected at the personal, local, regional, national and international levels.

Global Clash – is a type of refutation where several points in an opponent's case are attacked through one point that strikes at assumptions
**Goals Case** — a case where the affirmative looks at the stated goals of the current system (they must be formal written goals found in policy or legislation) and proves the current system does not meet those goals (replacing the need for change. The plan introduced by the affirmative meets the goals).

**LEET** — a way of remembering the parts of an argument: Label, Explanation, Evidence, Tie-back

**Logic** — a method of proving an argument to be true. Logic uses clear, defensible statements that work together to create a point. The statements cannot rest on other points that are unproven (fallacy) or on themselves (circular argument). Remember that all arguments must be substantiated with either evidence or logic. See SEDA's resources on logic on page 58 for more detailed information.

**Model** — brief course of action proposed after the definitions by the Proposition to show how the resolution could be implemented or has been implemented elsewhere; used in Values debates.

**Needs case** — the affirmative identifies 3 reasons to change (needs) and suggests a plan to meet that need

**Negative/Opposition** — the team that argues against the resolution

**Plan** — in Policy debates, a detailed course of action proposed to implement the resolution, and outlined by the first affirmative speaker and explained in detail by the second affirmative speaker. The negative may propose a **counter-plan** if they agree there is a problem but think they have a better solution.

**Policy debate** — a debate about what should be done, why and how. A policy debate requires an affirmative to introduce a plan to solve a problem. The plan must be introduced in the first Affirmative and fully explained by the second affirmative. The negative clashes with both arguments and the plan.

**Rebuttal** — the affirmative or negative concluding speech that is used for summary and refutation only and not for the development of new contentions

**Refutation** — the process of proving that the other teams arguments are incorrect or illogical

**Resolution** — the subject to be resolved through debate

**SPLEEEM** — an acronym for remembering types of arguments you can use in a debate. They include:

S - social  P - political  L - legal  E - economic  E - environmental  E - education  M - moral

**Status Quo** — a Latin term that refers to the present established system

**Summary/Reply** — final speeches similar to a rebuttal speech, but will have a slower tempo and shift in tone from the rest. These speeches examine the big picture and point out the crux of the debate.

**Thesis** — the main point a team is proving. Both the negative and the affirmative have a case line statement, and that statement must agree with the side of the resolution they are on. Also known as a case line statement.

**THW / THB / THS** — This House would / believes / should, etc… a standard phrase which proceeds some debate resolutions and generally interpreted to mean Canada, or parts of the world (western countries, developing nations, etc), depending on the subject of the rest of the resolution.

**Values Debate** — a genre of debate based on asking and answering the big question of “why” we should take an action and not about “how to implement” a change – both sides may have equally valid but conflicting beliefs but defend why they are “more right”. Most SEDA resolutions are now Values ones.

**Why Well** — method of asking questions to break down an idea to find the ultimate, defendable truth of a statement. Ask why (or other questions) to explain each step of an argument.

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Unit 2
Research

Objective

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<td>PART TWO</td>
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Instructor

You may wish to have a librarian do a seminar on library skills.

Bring newspapers, magazine, or text book articles to class. The object here is to pick out key sentences or statistics that summarize the themes of the articles.

Assign a Social Concept from the index to the debaters. Each meeting, have one person discuss their Concept.
PART ONE
Gathering Information

A key to being successful at debate is to know as much as you can about a wide variety of topics, not just the resolution.

The more you know, the easier it will be to understand the debate, fill your time, ask questions and make intelligent comments and answers.

Let’s work through some steps . . .

1. Research the Package

For most topics, SEDA provides research packages to get debaters started. They include articles and web site links for and against the resolution.

Read through the information and get an idea what further research you need to build your case and fill in the evidentiary holes.

Since everyone receives the same information, you must do independent research to get an edge on your competition.

A word of warning: in a debate, NEVER say: “it is in the package”!

2. Talk to people

This is a very important step. Talk to people who know something about the topic. They can tell you what is important, current or noteworthy on a particular issue.

a) First talk to parents and your teachers - they can get you started.

b) Telephone:
   • Reporters at newspapers or T.V. and radio stations;
   • Anyone working in the area you are studying;
   • University professors;
   • Provincial or federal offices – they have information on just about everything.

When you are interviewing people, keep in mind the 5W’s of journalism: Who, What, Where, When, Why (and How)!

In order to use information gained during an interview in a debate, you must make a transcription of the conversation (at least the key points) and have the interviewee sign it.

2. Collect Information

Information can also be obtained from the following sources:

a) All government offices will mail information;

b) People you visit will often supply copies or direct you to where you can get material.

c) The library (if in doubt talk to the librarian) - books, magazines, government documents, gateways to databases.

d) The Internet

Enter the key words and terms of the resolution into your favorite search engine. As you find more articles and links, you might come across new search terms or begin to see common threads.

Internet searching can reveal who are the authorities on the topic and what others think about the evidence and ideas they present.

Remember: You must establish the credibility of your Internet sources as you would for any other source. See Part Two for detailed questions.

For the purposes of authentication, bring to the debate a hard copy of any e-mail correspondence including the source’s e-mail address or a printout of the web page your evidence is from including the URL of the site.

NOTE: Wikipedia itself is generally NOT a good source – be sure to follow the footnotes for original source material.
3. Sort Information

This is more important than it sounds. The trick to debating is having the right facts and knowing where they are when you need them.

- Read/skim all information;
- Discard useless material;
- Make note of material more suited for Affirmative arguments or Negative arguments by highlighting or making notes.
- When you make a specific point you will require evidence. Use “evidence cards” for each point, indicating what argument it supports or refutes and the source. There are sample cards at the end of this Unit.

The theory in debate is that if you are familiar with the issues you can discuss them casually without notes.

3. Presenting evidence

Each need or argument you put forth should be supported by at least one piece of evidence. A good rule is to be prepared with at least 10 pieces of evidence to support your case. Chances are you’ll use three to five. Evidence or “proof” takes many forms:

- Statistics
- Studies
- Statements by authorities
- Quotations
- Examples
- Illustrations

Strive to use a variety of evidence throughout your case:

- Present just a few numbers, slowly and carefully – use vivid comparisons for impact
- Establish the importance and relevance of your authorities and use clear and definite quotes
- Several familiar examples leading to the same conclusion can support a case
- Illustrations should be of everyday experiences, draw a very clear parallel, and have just the right amount of detail to make a striking and memorable impact

4. Formulate Arguments

You are now ready to formulate your cases:

As the Affirmative, evaluate the material and determine which three or so arguments you are going to use for your needs. Make sure you have key evidence to back them up, that you know what the negative might say and that you have some counter-evidence.

Your plan may be built on existing models. Have your sources ready to support your plan.

You must always consider what the Negative will say. The first Affirmative speech may be prepared ahead of time. If you use a “Needs Case” the second member is presenting the plan; the plan part of her speech can also be prepared ahead of time.

As the Negative you must be prepared for anything that the Affirmative could bring up. If you have done your research you will have a fair idea as to what alternatives the Affirmative has.

As you hear their case, sort your evidence cards to prepare for your attacks. Remember that, in addition to clashing with the Affirmative, you may wish to present material defending the present system.

With the exception of the above noted instances, debaters should not prepare speeches ahead of time. Given the nature of debate, (the emphasis on confrontation) familiarity with issues is the key aspect of preparation. Debaters will be penalized for reading a prepared speech.

Having a solid understanding of the topic, and having key arguments and evidence, for both sides, on cards is the best way to be prepared for your turn to speak.
PART TWO
Thinking Critically about Web pages

Questions to Ask About a Web Page to Determine Authority and Accuracy

Note: The greater number of questions listed below answered “YES”, the more likely it is you can determine that the source is of high information quality.

1. Is it clear what company or individual is responsible for the contents of the page?
2. Is there a link to a page describing the goals of the company/organization?
3. Is there a way of verifying the legitimacy of this company/organization? Example: is there a phone number or postal address to contact for more information? (email address is not enough).
4. Is it clear who wrote the material & are the author’s qualifications for writing on this topic clearly stated?
5. Are the sources for any factual information clearly listed so they can be verified in another source?
6. If the material is protected by copyright is the name of the copyright holder given?
7. Is the information free of grammatical, spelling and other typographical errors?
   TOTAL YES’S = ______

Questions to Ask About a Web Page to Determine Fact or Opinion

Note: The greater number of questions listed below answered “YES”, the more likely it is you can determine that the source is of high information quality.

1. Are the organization’s biases (particular viewpoint and opinion) clearly stated?
2. If there is any advertising on the page, is it clearly differentiated from the informational content?
3. Is the site’s purpose clear and does the content reflect the purpose, be it to entertain, persuade, educate or sell?
   TOTAL YES’S = ______


Source: Statistics Canada web site

REMEMBER: Always verify sources, especially if you are using Wikipedia, blogs and other similar sites as a starting point.
PART THREE
Common Social Concepts

Research on a specific topic is very important, but it is also helpful for debaters to have a well-rounded background. Debaters should gradually become aware of certain concepts to add depth and sophistication to their arguments. Complete definitions can be found in the Coaching Manual or at: http://bitbucket.icaap.org.

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<thead>
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<td>Stalinism</td>
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<td>Utilitarianism</td>
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Unit 3
Plan Building & Direct Clash

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Instructor

In the past, beginner debaters typically used the Needs Case, but recently all debaters are being taught the Case Line / Arguments Model. Ideally, all debaters should be using the Case Line Model, especially for “Values” resolutions, as most SEDA resolutions now are. However, debaters may incorporate needs, goals, comparative advantage or criteria cases into that model as well.

PART ONE
Affirmative Strategy

In a debate both the Affirmative and the Negative teams have a variety of approaches or strategies which they can use. For beginning debaters, the most common affirmative strategy is the Needs-Plan Model, followed by its variations. Returning debaters should start using the Case Line Model discussed in STEP TWO.

Affirmative
- The Need Case
- The Comparative Advantage Case
- The Goals Case
- The Criteria Case

Negative
- Refutation & Rebuttal
- Minor Repairs Case
- Counterplan Case

Before proceeding it is important to realize that, regardless of the strategy used, the Affirmative carries the obligation to make major changes for significant reasons. Regardless of the strategy we must be convinced by the Affirmative that there is a valid reason to change, be it a need for change, or an advantage derived from that change.

In addition to making a change, the Affirmative must ensure that the change is major or significant. A major change is one in which one system is exchanged for another. Changes within the system are minor and should not be introduced by the Affirmative unless they are part of the package that includes major changes. Failure to present a major change is a win to the Negative.

A note about Constitutionality

Any ideas that you have must be possible, but they are not required to fit into current legal or constitutional rules. Because debate is about why we do the things we do, you need to prove there is a good why and some how, but not that the how must fit with the status quo. Affirmative teams must challenge the status quo, and bigger challenges make more challenging debates.

It is acceptable for the negative to point out that the ideas of the affirmative represent big changes from how we do things now, and attack
the feasibility of the plan, but that is not an inherent problem in the affirmative case.

The negative would be much wiser to focus on how those changes violate what we believe in, bringing the debate back to ‘why’ and out of ‘how.’ The Negative can say the constitution must change, and even point out that is hard to do, but it doesn’t change the outcome of the debate. The argument that “this is change and change is bad” does not mean the affirmative loses.

Here then are the major Affirmative strategies:

1. **The Need Case**

Concept: The Affirmative proposal should be adopted if it provides the best solution to serious evils that exist in the present system.

Method of Presentation:

a) There is a need for change in the present system because:
   - a major problem exists;
   - the problem is part of the present system;
   - it is sufficiently widespread to cause concern;
   - the effects of the problem are so harmful that they constitute serious social, political, or economic evils.

b) State the Affirmative plan. The plan usually addresses:
   - key changes that have to be made
   - how it will be implemented
   - how it will be paid for
   - how the public will be educated to the change
   - who will be responsible for the change
   - enforcement and penalties
   - how the problem is solved and benefits

c) Prove that the Affirmative plan will best solve the problems. The Affirmative usually demonstrates additional advantages.

For example, consider the issue of mandatory seatbelts.

- A need for change existed because people were dying needlessly and those needlessly injured were a burden to the taxpayers.
- The Government made it illegal to drive without seatbelts... solving the problems.

It is recommended that all students be acquainted with this strategy at the time they begin to debate. As students become more experienced, they may wish to use some of the alternative strategies that are discussed.

2. **The Comparative Advantage Case**

Concept: The Affirmative proposition should be adopted if it offers significant advantages not available under the present system. In this strategy the Affirmative, rather than arguing that there are disadvantages in the present system, argues that there are great advantages in adopting the proposal.

Method of Presentation:

a) State the Affirmative plan.

b) List the advantages of the plan.
   - Prove that the advantages are desirable.
   - Prove that the advantages are significant.
   - Prove that the present system cannot provide the advantages.
   - Prove that the Affirmative plan can provide the advantages.

For example, consider the issue of mandatory organ donation.

- Present a plan in which upon death, viable human organs become property of the state.
- Although people agree with the practice of freely donated organs, point out how your plan allows more lives to be saved under this system.

3. **The Goals Case**

Concept: The Affirmative proposition should be adopted if the system it proposed fulfills the goals better than the system in place.
Method of Presentation:

For example, consider the issue of protecting agricultural land:

a) State the goal(s) of the present system.

b) Prove that the present system cannot meet its own goals.

- The Goal of the present system is to protect certain types of land from being used for purposes other than agriculture.
- Increasingly good farm land is being turned into residential land; this is bad news.
- Pass laws restricting the non-agricultural use of good farm land.

4. The Criteria Case

Concept: The Affirmative plan should be adopted if it is better able to meet the desired criteria than the present system. (Criteria which you establish through argumentation.)

Method of Presentation:

a) Define the terms of the resolution.

b) State the criteria for determining the most effective policy.

c) State the Affirmative plan.

d) Prove that the present system cannot meet the criteria:
   - Prove that failure to meet the criteria is significant.
   - Prove that failure to meet the criteria is undesirable.

e) Prove that the Affirmative plan can meet the criteria.

For example, consider the issue of the death penalty.

- A reasonable criterion for the justice system is that it should reduce violent crimes resulting in death. There is research that shows that the death penalty deters violent crime.
- Reinstate the death penalty, reduce violent crime resulting in death and meet the criterion.

Note: The goals and criteria cases, although similar in presentation, differ because goals and criteria are not the same thing. Goals are generally official, published objectives, whereas criteria are what you establish by arguing that your standards are reasonable and desirable.

Debate . . .

It can change your mind!
PART TWO
Negative Strategy

Many people make the mistake of assuming that because the Affirmative wishes to change the system that the Negative must therefore defend the system. This is not true. In addition to building constructive arguments, the objective of the Negative is to “clash” with the Affirmative. There are three Negative strategies:

1. The Refutation & Rebuttal Case
2. The Minor Repairs Case
3. The Counterplan

1. The Refutation and Rebuttal Case
The key idea here is the notion that the Affirmative case is not perfect. The Negative probes for mistakes and flaws. See the clash cards and refutation chart and at the end of this unit for detailed attack strategies.

Consider the following points when presented with the Affirmative case:

a) Have the Affirmative established all parts of their case:
   • the reasons for advancing a plan;
   • the plan; and
   • its benefits?

b) Is the change beneficial?

c) Is the change significant?

d) Can the present system solve the problem without major change?

e) Do the disadvantages of the plan outweigh the benefits?

2. Minor Repairs Case
The Negative team accepts that there are problems associated with the present system but argues that these problems are not significant needs for change. It argues that “minor repairs” to the present system will be sufficient to rectify the problems as outlined by the Affirmative team. The Negative team realizes that major changes are costly, and create problems of their own.

3. Counterplan Case
In this strategy, the Negative team accepts the need for change but argues that the Affirmative plan is undesirable and/or not feasible. The strategy obliges the Negative team to develop an alternative plan which must be significantly different and demonstrably more desirable than the Affirmative plan. This strategy is not recommended for students beginning debate in that it requires the Negative to undertake the same burden of proof as the Affirmative in respect to its plan, in addition to accepting the need for change.

There are two types of acceptable counterplans:

In one type of counterplan the Negative agrees with the Affirmative’s analysis of the status quo, but disagrees that their plan is the best way to solve the problem. The Negative’s counterplan is an alternative to that of the Affirmative and solves the problem without “adopting” the resolution.

It is not just another way of implementing the resolution, but differs from it. e.g. “Be it resolved that Canada introduce an elected Senate.” The Negative admits the problem but introduces a counterplan that abolishes the Senate, since the resolution itself is unacceptable.

Another type of counterplan works within the resolution. e.g. The Negative introduces a counterplan including an elected Senate, but one very different from what the Affirmative proposes.

Debaters usually find that the most effective Negative strategy is to combine 1 and 2. In other words, attack the Affirmative case, but if the Affirmative has presented a strong case “blunt” it by showing that a desirable degree of change can be incorporated under the present system.
CLASH CARD

When you hear your opponents’ plan, ask the following questions

- How much will it cost?
- Where will the funds come from?
- Does it solve the needs for change?
- Could the problem be more easily solved with some minor change?
- What proof is there that the plan will work?
- What protections are in place to monitor the success of the plan and remove it if it fails?
- How will the public be educated regarding the plan?
- Does the plan duplicate existing programs?
- Will the plan be consistent with Canada’s legal system (not is it legal)?

Remember SPLEEEM

Social, Political, Legal, Economic, Environmental, Educational, Moral

When Your Opponents do the Unexpected

Areas for clash focus

- Is the definition legitimate?
- Truism/Tautology (if yes, redefine — if no, ignore)
- Inherent advantage to Affirmative (if very strong, redefine — otherwise ignore)
- Does this match our values?
- What practical problems will be associated with this?
- How much will this cost?
- Is this a significant change?
- What is the key point and how can it be attacked?
- How is there no change?
- Follow the argument to the extreme — what are the ramifications?
- Apply the Slippery Slope and do some fear mongering.
- Apply the emotional appeal: will this harm children or the elderly?
# REFUTATION CHART

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Refutation</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenging the Problem</strong></td>
<td>Opponent doesn't understand the real issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent doesn't deal with the real issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenging the Analysis</strong></td>
<td>Opponent overlooked important parts of issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent doesn't understand consequences of issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent looking at issue from the wrong angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent's argument based on false/fatal assumptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem with authority of evidence</strong></td>
<td>Person is not specialized in the topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person's bias is questionable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person's research is not conclusive in results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person's research methods is questionable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem with statistic</strong></td>
<td>Statistic of too small sample group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic of too narrow sample group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic inconsistent with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic used biased questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic of different group of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic is irrelevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corollary Argument</strong></td>
<td>Demonstrate opposite results from argument of opponent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No relationship --&gt; no cause and effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minimization/Mitigation</strong></td>
<td>Opponent used extremes to prove case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent only used isolated incidents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;So what&quot; - benefits outweigh consequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact actually good not bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Special arguments</strong></td>
<td>Opponent is using circular reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent is appealing to prejudice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent is appealing to habit/ritual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent is contradicting previous argument/speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent's principles lead to unwanted precedent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent's actions will inevitable lead to bad results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent's suggestions of 2 options false, 3rd available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Created by Vinay Kumar Mysore, 2004
Unit 4
Flow sheeting

**Objective**

To allow a debater to respond directly, and in an organized manner, to the comments which an opponent makes.

A large part of debate involves giving a speech that is not written out, but rather one that is made up as you go along.

A copy of a flow sheet is provided at the back of this guide.

**Instructor**

At the conclusion of this unit is an exercise to supplement this section.

A debate is not the same thing as a speech. Two people can disagree, give speeches, but still not be debating.

Debating requires that participants:

1. Listen carefully to what their opponent is saying
   
   and

2. Respond specifically and directly to the statements and attacks of the opponent.

   *That is what is known as "CLASH"*

The failure by either the Negative or the Affirmative to respond to key arguments of the opponents can be grounds on which to decide the outcome of the debate.

With the exception of the 1st Affirmative, all speakers must, to some degree, “clash”. This means that only the 1st Affirmative speech can be written beforehand. Therefore debating requires that speakers must create their speeches on the spot.

For example, let’s suppose you are the 1st Negative Speaker:

- Now you understand the issues but you don’t know exactly what the 1st Affirmative is going to say. Let’s pretend that the resolution is: "Be it resolved that the legal drinking age be changed."

- The 1st Affirmative could raise or lower the drinking age and you don’t know which she will do. As a result you can’t possibly write your speech beforehand.
• The 1st Affirmative gives her speech . . . now you have to respond . . .

  What do you do?

  Let’s pretend for a moment that you have a video cassette recorder and have taped the 1st Affirmative’s speech and you can stop the tape at any time.

  In theory you could replay the tape and write your speech . . . being sure to respond to all the Affirmative’s points.

  A “cheaper” technique exists which will allow you to respond and “Clash” and it is called Flow Sheeting.

  A flow sheet is kind of like a cheap video tape recorder . . . it allows you to record what the other guy said and to let you think about what you want to say.

  For a flow sheet use a good size piece of paper. Some people use scrap books, others use 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper.

  When your opponent gets up to give a speech - place your flow sheet on the table where both team members can see it.

  The two team members can either run a flow sheet jointly or each run their own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEM</th>
<th>US</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Needs for change:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plan:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Traffic deaths</td>
<td>1. Raise the legal drinking age to 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teenage alcoholism</td>
<td>2. Better alcohol education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the "THEM" side is being filled in the member of your team who will speak can fill out the points he wishes to make on the "US" side. (See below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEM</th>
<th>US</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Needs for change:</strong></td>
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<td>2. Better alcohol education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Problems occur with all age groups, not just young people (read quote). Too much alcohol in society as a whole.

Won’t solve problem
Good idea but we can do this without changing drinking age, so there!

Your flow sheet provides you with a framework on which to base your speech and your future discussion or cross-examination questions. Laid out in front of you are the opponents’ points and your responses to them. All you need to make a speech out of this is a little understanding of how a speech should be organized. Not only are your opponents flow sheeting or “flowing” your debate, but so are the judges.

The more organized your material is the more readily judges will respond positively to your material. There is an old saying that all speeches should be organized along the following principles:

  1. Tell them what you are going to tell them about;
  2. Tell them;
  3. Tell them what you told them.

Techniques for sign posting will be covered in depth in Unit 5.
This corresponds to the notion in writing that there are three parts to all essays:

- The Introduction
- The Body
- The Conclusion

Let’s use the example again of the 1st Negative speaker who is going to give a speech based on the flow sheet created during the debate, and which we created on the last page. Let’s look at the flow sheet to refresh our memory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEM</th>
<th>US</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Needs for change:**  
  1. Traffic deaths  
  2. Teenage alcoholism | **Problems occur with all age groups, not just young people (read quote). Too much alcohol in society as a whole.** |
| **Plan:**  
  1. Raise the legal drinking age to 20  
  2. Better alcohol education | **Won’t solve problem**  
  **Good idea but we can do this without changing drinking age, so there!** |

Based on the flow sheet shown you might hear the following speech:

**Introduction**

*Good afternoon ladies and gentlemen.*

*In my speech I would like first to respond to the Affirmative needs for change and then second to respond to the Affirmative plan.*

**Body**

*The Affirmative presented two needs for change, traffic deaths and teenage alcoholism. These problems are not specifically related to a particular age group, but rather are problems that affect all of society.*

*The Affirmative plan to raise the drinking age won’t solve the problem and, as for the idea of more education, this can be achieved under the present system.*

**Conclusion**

*The needs presented and the plan are no good; we can make minor repairs and do more to help people; therefore the Affirmative’s case must fall.*

Beginning debaters should strive to incorporate this type of structure into their speeches. This is easy to say when you have time to write it out, but it may be a different matter when you try it for the first time.

Sample Flow sheets are provided at the end of this unit. As debaters gain more experience, the debates become more complex and their flow sheets evolve to follow the lines of arguments across the debate, to track key points to exploit, and to highlight logical weaknesses and underlying assumptions to attack.

Debaters should develop their own methods of flowing a debate that works for them.
REMEMBER

- Beginner debaters have a habit of speaking until they can’t think of anything and then stopping. They tend to believe that once they stop, they won’t start again. They also believe that judges will score them poorly if they stop. Remember that this is a debate, not a speech competition.

- Take a moment to organize your thoughts before you start to speak.

- When you finish a point, stop, cross it off your flow sheet and look for the next point and then carry on.

- The debater who hesitates but is thorough in responding will always impress the judges.

---

**Challenge**

*Get the students to work through a few examples of flow sheeting.*

1. Set up a flow sheet on the blackboard or overhead projector.

2. Using one of the following examples or your own creations state your example and write it in on the left portion of the flow sheet.

   Possible cases you can present:

   a) Cats are better than dogs:
      - they are prettier;
      - they are smarter;
      - they require less care.

   b) Classical music concerts are better than rock music concerts:
      - more soothing;
      - musicians dress better;
      - no need for amplifiers.

   c) Coke is better than Pepsi:
      - it tastes better;
      - it has a nicer bottle;
      - it outsells Pepsi.

3. Through class discussion get students to respond and write the responses in on the right of the example.

4. Call on students to give a short speech incorporating the right and left hand sides of the flow sheets. Look for students to use a structure which establishes;

   a) The point of contention (the Affirmative side);
   b) Their response to the point of contention (the Negative side).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Us</th>
<th>Them</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Resolution: Be it resolved that:

(FLOW SHEET
to help me clash affirmative and negative)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Proposition</th>
<th>First Opposition</th>
<th>Second Proposition</th>
<th>Second Opposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P Case line:</td>
<td>P Case line clash</td>
<td>O Case line clash</td>
<td>P Case line clash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. (hinted at)</td>
<td>O Assumptions to attack:</td>
<td>P Assumptions to attack:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unit 5
Style & Delivery

**Objective**

The objective in this unit is to present the speech basics which speakers must consider when they debate. Once a debater is comfortable with the basics, they can begin developing their style.

This unit covers:
1) Organization and signposting;
2) Basic Speech Mechanics.

**Instructor**

Delivery is a controversial issue in debate. When an individual gives a speech it is always difficult to decide what weight to attach to the two key factors of style and content.

In Saskatchewan, content is considered to be more important than style. Judges are instructed to consider the issues and the “clash” of issues as the primary basis of evaluation. Having said this, a famous debater, well aware that judges were instructed to consider content first, once said, “Style is everything.” The fact is that judges are often swayed by style and the wise coach should not ignore this. Style and flair come with practice!

The coaching manual extensively covers developing debaters’ speaking styles as it relates to their debate content. This material should be reviewed with the debaters, and should be considered when pairing teams, if possible.

A good delivery will stress two areas equally:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Organization</strong></th>
<th><strong>Speech Mechanics</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How to put a good speech together.</td>
<td>Physical mannerisms of your voice and body.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organization & Signposting

Most debate speeches follow a certain “template” depending on what type of case you are running. Certain points have to be made in a particular order.

Debaters are encouraged to “signpost” their speeches. Basically, you briefly give the judges and your opponents an outline of what you are going to accomplish in your speech. Signposting works with the “tell them what you are going to say, tell them, tell them what you said” model, but takes it a step further.

The type of case you are presenting (needs, criteria, comparative, goals, case line, minor repairs or counter plan), will determine what you need to include in your signposting.

You need to clearly tell the judges what approach you are taking, or they will be lost (remember, you are the expert). Briefly explain how the case works and what you must accomplish with it to win.

If you are the first speaker, give your introduction (hook), state the resolution and definitions, then outline what is going to happen next. State what you are going to cover, and what your partner will cover. This is especially important with the Case Line Model. State what your three needs, arguments, etc. will be. Give them a “snappy” label, so they are easy for the judges to note.

For example a first affirmative might say: “In my speech, I am going to address three arguments: the current social, economic and environmental reasons why the resolution is important. I will briefly outline our plan, which my partner will give in detail later. In the end, I will tell you why we must adopt this resolution.”

A first negative might say: “In my speech, I am going to clash with the arguments put forth by the affirmative and their lack of supporting evidence. I am also going to show how there is no logical way their plan will work or how there could possibly be any benefits. Finally, I will discuss two constructive arguments of the negative: how the current system is actually performing better then expected and how any change will be detrimental.

Signposting is crucial with the Case Line model. Debaters must clearly outline what they are their partner are each going to cover and in what order they are going to offer constructive and deconstructive arguments. Debaters should experiment with the order that they construct and deconstruct to see what works.

If you clash first, you get your opponent’s points out of the way first, then leave your best points in the judges’ minds. If you lay out your case first, then it is easier to clash in a positive way – by showing how your points are more favourable. Good debaters will seamlessly integrate both at once.

Signposting should not be “wooden”. Incorporate this technique into your speech with flair and style! Most importantly, follow through with your sign posting. Don’t say you are going to cover three points, then only talk about one!

Basic Speech Mechanics

Physical mannerisms of your voice and body can either distract people or intensify their enjoyment of your speech. It is important to realize this and observe the rules of good speech mechanics.

Stance
• Stand firmly on two feet - do not lean or slouch. Avoid leaning on chairs or tables.
• Hands - best clasped in front of you, moving them for useful and effective gestures when necessary. Keeping hands out of pockets looks best.
• Use of a lectern - use only when you have to rely on notes. Avoid its use when possible by moving it away or stepping in front of it.
• If you are small, take control of your space to be more commanding; if you are larger, find a comfortable space that is non-threatening
Appearance
• Dress neatly and attractively.
• Appearance and dress can influence your audience no matter who is in attendance.

Look at the Audience
• Do not look at only one or two people or only at one side of your audience. Your eyes should constantly rove over the entire group.
• Watch the audience carefully for reaction - you should be able to easily detect boredom, lack of understanding, interest or annoyance.
• Do not keep your eyes glued to notes or read notes at length - this is a certain way to lose the attention of your audience.

Volume and tone
• Speak loudly enough for all to clearly hear. Do not be afraid to use extra volume to emphasize, but lowering your voice to barely a whisper can be effective as a technique for emphasis providing you have the full attention of your audience to start with.
• In general, vary the volume and pace of speaking according to what you want to stress.
• Use passion, calm logic, aggression, meekness, etc. to emphasis your points and to defuse or contrast favourably with your opponents.

Pace of Speaking
• Do not speak too quickly. The biggest danger will arise when you are reading since the rate of speech always increases when material is being read.
• Speak slowly when you want to emphasize something, or have complex information to present such as statistics.
• As stated about volume, the important rule is variety.

Pause
• The finest speakers use pauses to emphasis something. The pause can be in the middle or at the end of a sentence.
• Practice the effective use of pauses and listen to the way good speakers use them.

Use of Questions
• Use of rhetorical questions involves your audience in your speech.

“Ladies and Gentlemen. What is the greatest problem facing native groups today? Is it lack of education? Is it lack of opportunity? Is it a dying culture? Is it a lazy and disinterested and apathetic government? It is none of these. It is rather the . . .”

Facial Expressions
• You can do a great deal with your eyes and smile; a smile early in your speech can do wonders.
• Set the mood of your talk or parts of it with the way you look at the audience.

Gestures
• Emphasis and expression with the hands is another technique found with all good speakers.
• Gestures should be relevant and varied. They should never be distracting or annoying.

Nervousness
Ways to reduce nervousness include:
• Knowing what you are going to say. Thorough preparation usually eliminates all nervousness except the momentary feeling at the start of the talk.
• Taking a few deep breaths before standing to speak.
• Relaxing in the knowledge that every speaker (even the greatest) is nervous.
• Most nervousness does not show as much as you think it does. Just keep talking as though it was not there.

Notes
• Do not use cumbersome, distracting sheets of paper, small cards are recommended.
• Do not hold cards low or rest them on the table.
• Do not worry about people knowing that you need to rely on notes - it is better for your head to be up so that your voice can carry.
• Do not write your speech out word for word or else you will be tempted to read it. A few general headings on cards which you can glance down at occasionally will free your eyes for good audience contact.
• Do not feel you have to keep to a carefully prepared script. If new and relevant thoughts occur, you can make use of them.
Humor
• Entertaining speeches require careful preparation. One can be humorous and entertaining and still have a serious and worthwhile message. Keep your humor relevant and suited to the audience. You can entertain just as well with witty choice of words and style of presentation (effective use of pauses), as with a joke. Avoid sarcasm.
• Humour can be valuable if used with skill. Sarcasm in Parliamentary debate can be quite effective if used in moderation. Be careful not to offend the judges, though. Remember, what seems humorous to a student-debater could even be perceived as not funny or even offensive by a judge who is somewhat older.

Microphone
• Raise it to just below the level of your mouth. Keep 15 - 30 centimeters away from the microphone.
• Always look beyond the microphone to your audience when you speak. Do not step away from the microphone or sway while you speak.

Reading your audience
• Who are your judges? Are they young? Will they get current pop culture references? Are they older, more conservative? Are they wearing suits or casual clothes? What is the gender of each judge? Can you hypothesis what their professions and biases might be?
• Although the answers will only lead to generalizations, the composition of the judging panel can play a role in the type of debate you present and the appeals you make.
• Consider if you should make the debate lighter in tone, or stay serious. Should you use emotional appeals to soft-hearted parents, or more logical approaches to the suits?
• Are they smiling or frowning during each speech? Are they following you, or do they look confused? Do you need to change something about your presentation?

Challenge
Here are a couple of exercises to help students overcome some of their self-consciousness by speaking in a less formal environment. Before proceeding to these exercises, discuss them with students and give them time to prepare.

1. Blah, Blah, Blah
   • name an emotion or tone (angry, submissive, aggressive, meek, logical, passionate, etc.)
   • have a speaker convey that tone, using only “blah” in repetition
   • analyze how body language, volume, stance, etc. convey the tone

2. Mirror Mirror
   • a debater gives a speech in front of a partner
   • the partner mimics and exaggerates the speaking mannerisms and tick of the speaker
   • reflect on what needs to be improved; switch roles
   • repeat, trying to make the changes

3. Impromptu speeches
   • prepare a list of speech topics
   • a student picks a topic and is given just a few minutes to prepare
   • while the first student is speaking, the next student is preparing
   • practice giving speeches with different styles then your own: dramatic, logical emotional, entertaining/humorous, serious, etc.

4. Triple Speak
   • on individual slips of paper write speech topics in the categories of people, places and things
   • student draws a topic from the people category and speaks for 1 minute; then draws a places topic, speaks for another minute; then draws a final topic from things and speaks for one last minute, incorporating all three topics into the speech
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Unit 6
Building a Case

**Objective**
To help debaters know how to make a case.

You will know how to identify the key argument in a resolution and show how it forms the philosophy of your case.

**Instructor**
Case line is a powerful affirmative and negative strategy that moves debaters beyond the “how” of Needs cases and to the real heart of a debate – “why”. Case line makes for very strong, engaging debates and its use should be the goal of all debaters.

**PART ONE**

**Central Issues**

All debates are related to a series of central issues. The issues are essentially unsolvable because there are two good positions, and which one is right depends on many things. You will win if you:

- identify the underlying issue (central issue)
- state your position on it
- defend that position better than your opponents do

Both sides must have a main argument and relate their points to it. Merely clashing with your opponents’ arguments is no longer sufficient to win a debate. Similarly, having a series of unrelated points is a weak constructive speech.

**Identifying Central or Underlying Issues in Debate**

A central issue is a big idea that societies base choices on. They can be common values or ideologies. They always have two valid but opposite ideas in them.

For each resolution, look at some central issues and try to see if they relate to the resolution. You will know you have a good underlying issue when it captures what the debate is about for you.

After getting the resolution:

1. Ask: “Why are we having this debate?”
2. Brainstorm a list of central issues.
3. Decide what the two positions in each central issue are
4. Pick central issues where the positions match the debate in the resolution

There are a number of common issues underlying all debates. Here are a few examples:

(More examples can be found on page 48)

- Individual freedom versus group security
  1. Position 1 – the individual has the right to make choices that are the best for him or her. Society must not interfere with the choices a person makes.
  2. Positions 2 – A society must protect itself. If individuals threaten society, the rights of the group are more important.
3. Common resolutions:
   - Locker searches
   - Terrorism
   - Censorship
• The ends versus the means
  1. Positions 1 – How we do things is the most important factor in judging if what we did was good.
  2. Positions 2 – What happens at the end is more important than what you do to make it happen
  3. Common resolutions:
     • Euthanasia
     • War time choices
     • Spanking

Once you have identified the central issues, choose one central issue to build your case around.

PART TWO
Building Cases

A case is built around a central issue. It is a philosophical position supported by a series of arguments.

What is a case?
• A position on a central issue
• The main point that your side of the debate is proving (thesis or case line statement)

AND
• Supporting arguments that show the main point is true

How do I know what my case should be?
• You think about why the debate is happening. All debates are a part of bigger debates about what is the right way to approach things (central ideas), and you pick the best one or ones
• You find why the debate is happening, then construct a thesis (your point) that states the problem
• You support your thesis with key arguments that prove your thesis about the nature of the problem is correct

Example:
_BIRT that school uniforms be mandatory_

Step 1 – Determine the central issue in our society

Are the rights of the group or the individual more important?

Step 2 – Think about the main points for each side and choose your main point (case)

_Affirmative Case_ - Uniforms protect students from being targeted by other students.
_Negative Case_ - Uniforms prevent students from expressing their individuality.

Step 3 – Support your case with arguments

_Affirmative Case Line_ – Uniforms are an important tool that helps us protect our children
  _Argument 1_ – Affordability and Status (economics)
  _Argument 2_ – Gangs and safety (criminal/legal)
  _Argument 3_ – Appropriate dress (moral)
  _Argument 4_ – Improved academic success (educational)

_Negative Case Line_ – Uniforms prevent our children from becoming strong individuals.
  _Argument 1_ – Create artificial experiences (social)
  _Argument 2_ – Prevent self-discovery (educational)
  _Argument 3_ – Violates freedom of choice (legal)
  _Argument 4_ – Creates the illusion of homogeny (moral)

Once you understand how to chose a central argument and a case, you are ready to learn how to make a good case line statement and support it with a good variety of arguments.

PART THREE
Case Line and Arguments

What is a Case Line?

A case is your main constructive point and the things that support it. A case line is formal organization that tells others about your case. For a judge to understand all of your ideas, you need to present them in a simple and predictable structure. This is called your case line.
A case line includes:
- The thesis comes from your case, but is more specific and represents a position. It summarizes all your points. This is called either the case line statement or the thesis.
- The thesis or case line statement is simple, catchy and clear.
- All your argument directly support your case line statement. This means:
  - The arguments prove your case line
  - The arguments come from the same central idea as your case line
  - Do not use arguments that do not meet these criteria. They are either irrelevant (red herrings) or they actually contradict your case. Both things could case you to lose the debate.

A case line statement includes the position of the team and why they believe in their position.
- Case idea: Capital punishment should be reinstated for the benefit of all Canadians.
- Case line statement: Capital Punishment saves lives.

Case line statement + arguments + evidence = Case line

Choosing a good case line

Once you have the elements of a case line, you need to check and be sure the case line is a good one. A good case line:
- Can be backed up with arguments from at least 3 SPLEEEM categories
- Takes the moral or practical high ground
- Solves a clear problem
- Is a based on philosophical position (case), not a point (argument)
- Is exciting for you to debate

Building arguments

An argument is a proposition or contention that is used to prove a case line. It is developed through explanation and supported by evidence.

If the case line is Capital punishment saves lives:
- **Argument**: Known killers can’t re-offend
- **Development**: You can’t escape, be released or commit crimes in jail when you are dead.
- **Evidence**: Statistics on the number of murderers who kill again.

For practice in building arguments, complete the quiz at the end of this unit or online at www.saskdebate.com/caseline/examples/argument_development.htm

**Types of Arguments - SPLEEEM**

Cases should have a variety of diverse arguments. Debaters have developed the short hand SPLEEEM to remember the types of arguments:
- Social
- Political
- Legal
- Economical
- Environmental
- Educational (or Ethical)
- Moral (or Medical)

A case is stronger and less susceptible to attack if there are several types of arguments. If all of the arguments were moral, all the opposition would have to do is discount the whole idea that morals are important to the debate.

A short quiz illustrates how to incorporate different arguments into a case:

Let's assume that Canada had not yet legalized gay marriage. If the resolution asked for it to be legalized, the case line might be that the legalization of gay marriage is consistent with Canadian Society.

Name SPLEEEM category that each of the following arguments would fit under:
- A-Moral  B-Political  C-Social  D-Legal

2. "Canada is a secular society and we believe the state has no place in the bedrooms of the nation."

3. "We must treat minorities in the way we would want to be treated in a similar circumstance."

Answers: 1. D; 2. C; 3. A

How do I know if I have a good argument?

Good arguments state the argument, use evidence or logic to expand it and tie it to the case statement. Failure to tie an argument to the case statement is the most common error debaters make once they learn to make a case line. You can use the following steps to see if your argument supports your case line:

1. Write down your thesis (case line statement)
2. Write down what things would have to be true for your thesis to be right (given assumptions)
3. Check that your arguments do not contradict the given assumptions
4. Check that your arguments prove the given assumptions

Discard any arguments that do not meet the steps, and be sure you have 3-5 arguments when you are done

Case Line - a philosophy of thinking about debate and a method of structuring the arguments made by a team. The case is considered in a broad context, then a case line statement (like a thesis) is generated. Finally three or four arguments to support the case line statement are generated.

- Define resolution: BIRT Canada legalize Euthanasia.
- State thesis: We have the right to determine our own destiny based on our own values, as long as it does not cause greater harm to others

Arguments:
1. Canadians have an inherent right to life, liberty and security, which extends to the right to die (legal Charter argument)
2. Canadians believe in freedom of belief and practice of belief (moral argument)
3. The potential harm from Euthanasia does not outweigh the benefits (moral pre-emptive argument)

Having a case line is not the same as using that case line. Common errors include:
- stating a case line but never returning to it after each argument
- building arguments that do not follow the case line statement
- not having a case line on the negative and just running a clash case
- failure to clash with an opponent's case line

Presenting your case

It is very possible that in a debate, your opponents, and most importantly, your judges, will be unfamiliar with the Case Line model of debate. They will be used to the Needs-Plan Model and its variants.

It becomes very important for the affirmative to clearly explain this approach and outline what they are doing, without being too obvious, like saying “now I will tell you our case line thesis statement...”.

Remember, you still want to have an interesting hook to open your speech. You need to sign post, so everyone knows how you and your partner have split the arguments between the two of you. Generally, the first speaker will take two arguments and the second speaker will cover one, along with the bulk of deconstruction. Also, the arguments are split along SPLEEEM lines. Maybe you have two really strong economic arguments, leaving the social one for your partner.

When signposting, give each of your arguments a snappy label that describes the
main point of the argument, so you can easily refer to them. Once you start laying out your arguments, remember there is a pattern to presenting them. State the argument, explain it, give evidence to support the argument, and remember to always tie back the argument to the case statement. At SEDA’s day camp, this model was nicknamed “LEET”. Refer to the case building worksheet at the end of this Unit to ensure you have prepared all the steps for a strong case.

Moral High Ground

In a debate it is important to appear as if you care about what will happen as a result of your ideas. There are many types of high ground you might have in debate. Your ideas might help stimulate the economy or reduce unemployment, which gives you the economic high ground.

However, the most critical issue is that your case arouses the sympathy of the judges. Moral issues are the most likely issues to create sympathy in your audience. In particular, it must be clear that you care about average people and the disadvantaged. The appearance of care about vulnerable people and things is called the moral high ground.

You can “take the moral high ground” by being clear about how what you are saying benefits the vulnerable, such as children, the environment, the elderly or a minority. If you recommend searching student lockers, you will be more likely to get the sympathy of the judges if you are “protecting vulnerable youth from drugs” than “punishing delinquent hooligans.”

When your opponents have taken the moral high ground you can handle it in one of three ways:

1. Express the critical need to help the disadvantage group and sadly point out that their ideas will not do so.
2. Find another disadvantaged group that is harmed by their ideas.
3. Establish that the group needs to help itself and suggest an alternative solution of empowerment.

Persuasive Language

How do you typically open your speech? Is it with a lengthy good evening honourable, worthy, etc preamble? Or do you wisely use those first 30 seconds to make a strong impression?

Consider starting with a fact, quotation, analogy, metaphor, sob story (great for gaining the moral high ground) or other hook!

To persuade, carefully choose your words and vocabulary. Consider the connotations of words, for both the affirmative and negative sides. Are they loaded with emotion, or more neutral? The words you select can minimize the impact made by your opponents.

For example, compare:

- condemned, murderer vs convict
- travesty vs. errors
- concentration camps vs detention centers

Consider the language used when talking about any of your arguments. Do your legal arguments evoke the need for justice, or are they dry statutes? Do your social arguments grip the sympathies of your judges as you talk about protecting communities, or are you discussing government commissions? Are your economic arguments understandable terms that a person doing their finances at home would use?

If you are talking about a concept that might be unfamiliar (economic, philosophical), explain in through context or synonyms. While you may be tempted to make your opponents look uninformed, don’t make judges feel stupid!

Is the last line of your speech usually “for all these reasons, this resolution must stand/fall”? Is this the most persuasive ending?

Timing is very important. Your speech should end exactly on time, without you trying to cram in another several sentences in the last 15 seconds grace. Aim to have your last sentence leave the impression with the judges that what you just said was the most important, winning point of the debate.
List of Common Cases

- Individual freedom versus group security
  1. Position 1 – the individual has the right to make choices that are the best for him or her. Society must not interfere with the choices a person makes.
  2. Positions 2 – A society must protect itself. If individuals threaten society, the rights of the group are more important.
  3. Common resolutions:
     - Locker searches
     - Terrorism
     - Censorship

- The ends versus the means
  1. Positions 1 – How we do things is the most important factor in judging if what we did was good.
  2. Positions 2 – What happens at the end is more important than what you do to make it happen
  3. Common resolutions:
     - Euthanasia
     - War time choices
     - Spanking

- Rights versus responsibilities
  1. Position 1 – The most important issue is what you can be free do without other people interfering
  2. Position 2 – The most important issue is what you should do instead of what you can do
  3. Common resolutions
     - Environmental issues
     - Foreign Aid
     - Role of the press

- Majority versus minority
  1. Position 1 – The majority of people decide what the group should do, and the minority must follow what the majority says
  2. Position 2 – The minority must be protected from the control of the majority
  3. Common resolutions
     - Multiculturalism
     - Aboriginal self-government
     - Integration

- Legal versus ethical
  1. Position 1 – We must do what the law says we should
  2. Position 2 – We should do what we know is right
  3. Common resolutions
     - Civil disobedience
     - Gay marriage
     - Environmental issues

Continued…
List of Common Cases (continues)

- Control versus natural evolution
  1. Position 1 – We should plan how to meet our goals and change things to meet our plan
  2. Position 2 – What will be will be, and we should not interfere
  3. Common resolutions
     - Economic issues
     - Environmental issues
     - Welfare

- Cost versus gains
  1. Position 1 – We should do the thing that costs us the least
  2. Position 2 – We should do the thing that gives us the most benefits
  3. Common resolutions
     - Capital Punishment
     - Heath care
     - Gun registry

Others?

Continue to add to the list as you discover other common cases and their typical resolutions.
Argument Quiz

1. What are the steps for developing an argument?

A. State the argument, use evidence or logic to expand it and tie it to the case statement.
B. State the argument, expand the argument and tie it to the case line.
C. State the argument and tie the examples to the case line.
D. State the argument and give examples.

2. If the resolution is BIRT Canada pursue alternative energy sources, and the case statement is alternative energy sources are an investment in the future, what is the following: "It is the duty of a country to protect its members, and a toxic environment poses a major threat to the future of Canadians."

A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.

3. If the resolution is BIRT Canada pursue alternative energy sources, and the case statement is alternative energy sources are an investment in the future, what is the following: "Canadians pollute our atmosphere more than ever before."

A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.

4. If the resolution is BIRT Canada pursue alternative energy sources, and the case statement is alternative energy sources are an investment in the future, what is the following: "78% of Canadians say that cleaning up our environment is more important than building our economy, according to the May 7th Globe and Mail."

A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.
A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.

5. What is the role of an argument in a case line debate?

A. To support your side of the resolution.
B. To support your case line's needs for change.
C. To support your plan.
D. To support your case line statement.

6. If the resolution is BIRT Canada pursue alternative energy sources, and the case statement is alternative energy sources are an investment in the future, what is the following: "Environmental clean up stimulates economic growth."

A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.

7. If the resolution is BIRT Canada pursue alternative energy sources, and the case statement is alternative energy sources are an investment in the future, what is the following: "Investing in environmental reform will give us a better environment in the future."

A. It is an argument.
B. It is development of an argument.
C. It is evidence.
D. It is a statement that is not appropriate for the case line statement.

Case Building worksheet (as presented at SEDA Debate Day Camp 2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resolution:</th>
<th>SPL</th>
<th>EEEM</th>
<th>US</th>
<th>THEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Underlying principle</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Case line statement</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Splits</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Arguments</strong></td>
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<td>L</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Label (describes main pt of argument)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Explain argument</strong></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Give examples to support argument</strong></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Tie back argument to case line</strong></td>
<td>T</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Why test</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you need it?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Will it help win?</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Potential refutation &amp; global clash</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Our underlying assumptions</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opponents underlying assumptions</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Unit 7
Deconstruction

**Objective**

To help debaters know how to deconstruct a case.

Usually referred to as “refutation”, deconstruction encompasses a much broader scope of clash.

**Instructor**

PART ONE
Deconstruction

The process of exposing, which is also known as clash, is the process of breaking down or deconstructing an opponent's argument.

Beginner flow sheets only look at what your opponents have said and what you might say. They support direct clash. Because debate is two big premises in contradiction, in addition to just arguments, more experienced debaters need to deconstruct cases using three types of clash: direct clash, global clash and case clash.

Remember that different types of clash are effective for different types of deconstructing:

**Direct Clash** – Use to attack a particularly vulnerable argument

- a type of attack where one argument is specifically refuted using another

  - *Affirmative point:* Abortion is the act of killing a person and people have a right to life.

  - *Negative direct clash:* A fetus is not a person, but the woman is. She has a right to control her own body.

**Global Clash** – Use to attack the underlying philosophy of an argument and to attack groups of arguments with one clash point

- a type of refutation where several points in an opponent's case are attacked through one point that strikes at assumptions

  - *Affirmative points:* You can't re-offend if you are dead so lives are saved. You will be less likely to commit murder if you know you will die, so lives are saved.

  - *Negative global clash:* Lives will still be lost because capital punishment is a punishment not a prevention. It is better to prevent the murders by altering the social conditions that encourage murder.

**Case Clash** – Use to attack the philosophy of an opponent’s case (if you defeat the principle, you don’t need to attack the examples!)

- a type of refutation where the case construction of one side is designed so that it automatically disagrees with the case construction of the other.
• For example, imagine the resolution is about legalizing abortion, and the affirmative case line is that we must protect the rights of the unborn. A negative case line that we must protect the reproductive rights of women will automatically clash with the affirmative case.

Learning to use all three types of clash can be complicated. To be a good at clash you must be able to:
• decide which of your opponents' points are most important
• select the most effective method of clash
• use that method well

**Clashing with opponents is a lot like attacking a tree:**
• Direct clash cuts of one branch
• Global clash cuts several branches that extend from the same assumption
• Case line clash destroys the roots of the argument, and the tree will fall even when the branches are still attached

The best way to learn how to clash is by practice. The following exercises and quizzes will help. Visit SEDA’s web site for the answers and further discussion:

**Listen to a speech and try the types of clash:**
1. **Listen to the speech** at [www.saskdebate.com/caseline/deconstruction_case_line.htm](http://www.saskdebate.com/caseline/deconstruction_case_line.htm) or have the coach or other debaters present a good example and keep a flow chart of the arguments.

2. Record the arguments in the *them* category, and write your suggested clash in the *us* category.

3. When you are done, look at the chart you created. Label the clash you planned to use as direct, global or case line.

**Key Questions:**
1. What type of clash do you use most often and why?
2. What forms of clash should be used most often?
3. Why is deconstruction essential to a debate?

As mentioned in Unit 4 on flow sheeting, at this level, the flow sheet must become more complex. Flow sheeting is not just about writing down every word an opponent says, it should be a logical diagram of the key points of the debate.

Debaters need to track each of the arguments presented by debaters and their team’s response, across the whole debate. This is where sign posting becomes very important.

The flow sheet should identify which arguments need direct clash, which ones can be grouped together and attacked with global clash, and what part of their case is the thesis, and underlying assumptions, so they can be attacked with case clash.

The flow sheet also needs to track a team’s own constructive points and the response of the other team, so debaters know where they are vulnerable to attack as well.
PART TWO
Practice Quizzes

Quiz 1 Can you determine the most important argument to clash with?

Match the arguments on the left with the descriptions on the right.

The negative team is arguing we should continue having pop machines in schools.

- The money raised comes from a variety of sources like kids, parents and community members, and it is much easier than large scale fundraising.
- Fundamentally, our society is a free market economy and what people want to buy should be sold, unless it is illegal. This philosophy underlies all our choices.
- We have signed contracts for the machines and would leave ourselves open to being sued if we just get rid of them.
- Kids will just buy pop at stores, so you aren't solving the problem.
- Pop machines are a good source of revenue for schools, which badly need money to help children.

- This is the case line and it's the most important
- Not a strong point, you can skip it because it can be clashed with at the same time as other more important points
- Main point, strong clash here
- Red herring, irrelevant to the debate about what we should do
- Global clash at underling problem needed for this one

Quiz 2 Can you tell which method of clash to use?

Read the affirmative statement and then select the most beneficial type of clash to use from the options: A Direct Clash   B Global Clash   C Case Line Clash

1. **Resolution:** BIRT Capital Punishment be reinstated in Canada.
   **Affirmative Point:** Capital Punishment must be accepted because it will prevent people from murdering. It is a deterrent and if used, prevents you from committing another murder.
   **Negative Case line:** Capital punishment is inconsistent with Canadian values and justice.

2. **Resolution:** BIRT Canada remove herself from NAFTA.
   **Affirmative Point:** Free Trade is bad because it prevents us from making the best choice for Canada.
   **Negative Case line:** It is in the best interest of Canadians to participate in NAFTA.

3. **Resolution:** BIRT Saskatchewan lower the drinking age.
   **Affirmative Point:** 60% of Canadians believe in some form of capital punishment, so we should change the law.
   **Negative Case line:** Capital Punishment is not the best way to prevent murders from happening.

4. **Resolution:** BIRT Capital Punishment be reinstated in Canada.
   **Affirmative Point:** The drinking age should be lowered because under age kids keep drinking despite the law.
   **Negative Case line:** The problem with teen drinking is not caused by the legal drinking age.
Quiz 3 Can you identify the type of clash each statement is?

Read the affirmative statement and the corresponding negative clash, then select the correct term for the type of clash used: A Direct Clash   B Global Clash   C Case Line Clash

1. Resolution: BIRT Saskatchewan schools require uniforms.  
Affirmative: School uniforms prevent discrimination because everyone looks the same.  
Negative: People should have the right to dress how they want, so uniforms cause bad conformity

2. Resolution: BIRT Canadian Schools should routinely employ random locker searches.  
Affirmative: We will be much safer with locker searches, because we will find the bad things people bring to school, like guns and drugs.  
Negative: Your argument assumes that students who bring bad things to school will always keep them in their lockers. They could just as easily keep them in a bathroom, a closet, a desk, a backpack, or on themselves. Searches won't create safety.

3. Resolution: BIRT Saskatchewan schools require uniforms.  
Affirmative: School uniforms prevent discrimination because everyone looks the same.  
Negative: Looking the same damages our freedom of expression and does not prevent discrimination. We have much to lose and little to gain. If we all look the same, it tries to solve problems of intolerance not by creating tolerance, but by removing our ability to perceive differences. This solution will make the problem of intolerance and the resulting discrimination worse.

4. Resolution: Canada must reject the war on Terror.  
Affirmative: Participating in the war on terror is both futile and destructive to human rights.  
Negative: Both arguments assume that the rights of the individual supersede the possibility of safety for Canadians.

After completing the clash tests, recall that CASE has four parts:

- **C** - the case statement
- **A** - the arguments
- **S** - the strategy
- **E** - the process of exposing (not the fun kind)

**E** is the process of exposing - it occurs in clash and final speeches. We will be looking at using all the parts of CASE in the next Unit on final speeches.

The final part of CASE is

- **E** - the process of exposing, which is clash and case line analysis.

Case analysis is the process of putting the debate in perspective. It has a basic structure in a reply speech:

1. Restate the case line in a new broader sense. This is like re-stating your thesis in the conclusion of an essay.
2. Highlight the underlying issue of the debate (case line clash).
3. Show how your main three arguments remain standing and reinforce your thesis about the underlying issue.
4. Show how the fundamental principle of the opponent’s case line is wrong.
5. Global clash with 1-3 key arguments.
6. Put the debate into perspective and answer the question – “Why does it matter?”
PART THREE
Internal Logic of a Case

Debate is a team sport. Each idea presented by every debater on a side must be consistent with all the other ideas and follow the case line. If debaters raise ideas that are not relevant or internally contradictory, they harm their own side. In the example below, two partners are actually refuting each other:

Resolution: “BIRT: School uniforms be mandatory”

Negative One: “School uniforms should not be used because they give the illusion that we are all the same. Students don’t learn how to deal with differences.”

Assumption: Uniforms make us see the world in an unrealistic manner.

Negative Two: “School uniforms don’t actually fix the problem. Poor kids are still bullied in schools with uniforms. Kids see through that stuff.”

Assumption: Uniforms don’t affect how we see the world.

The debaters have actually clashed with each other; the other team did not even need to clash with them! Not only do they appear confused, they make all of their other arguments seem weak.

Avoiding logical erosion

Always test everything you say against your case line. If it does not agree with your case line or is not relevant to it, DO NOT say it.

When you construct your case, try to anticipate common arguments against it and test your responses to be sure they are logically consistent. If an argument comes up during the debate and you haven’t had time think it through but need to clash, say “one of the possible effects” or “either x or y may occur”.

If the debaters in example one had argued that uniforms were negative because they always failed to solve the problem they were designed to address, the arguments would have been fine. Either students don’t care about the uniforms so they are irrelevant or students do care and don’t develop life skills.

Format your arguments to avoid absolutes and focus on case statements.

Summary

Clash can be direct, global or imbedded in the case line. Each type of clash has a specific purpose. If the Negative has a constructive case, good case line clash happens automatically and makes the job of the Affirmative much more difficult.

In any debate, the primary form of deconstruction should be global clash because it is the most efficient and shows higher-level skills than direct clash. A good debater does not use direct clash as the default method of clashing.

Case line gives you the advantage of offering positive reasons in your clash, not negative ones as in a needs case.

Principles of a good case line:

- Brings the debate back to the major underlying principle
- Relates to the case and split
- Concise
- Memorable & catchy
- Holds the moral high ground
- Is not an assertion

Why case lines are good:

- Keeps the debate on track
- Test arguments against it
- Team cohesion & unity
- Judges understand
- Deconstruction and clash is easier
- Case is easier to prove
- Case is easier to understand
- Sets team stance/position
Fallacies & Logical Arguments

Knowledge of common fallacies can help debaters develop good arguments and defend against the attack of their opponents. Further discussion on each fallacy with examples can be found at Stephen’s Guide to the Logical Fallacies at [http://onegoodmove.org/fallacy/toc.htm](http://onegoodmove.org/fallacy/toc.htm), Wikipedia or other web sites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fallacies of Distraction</th>
<th>Fallacies of Distraction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>False Dilemma</strong>: two choices are given when in fact there are three options</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>From Ignorance</strong>: because something is not known to be true, it is assumed to be false</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slippery Slope</strong>: a series of increasingly unacceptable consequences is drawn</td>
<td><strong>Fallacy of Exclusion</strong>: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Complex Question</strong>: two unrelated points are conjoined as a single proposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appeals to Motives in Place of Support</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appeal to Force</strong>: the reader is persuaded to agree by force</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appeal to Pity</strong>: the reader is persuaded to agree by sympathy</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consequences</strong>: the reader is warned of unacceptable consequences</td>
<td><strong>Fallacy of Exclusion</strong>: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prejudicial Language</strong>: value or moral goodness is attached to believing the author</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Popularity</strong>: a proposition is argued to be true because it is widely held to be true</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changing the Subject</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attacking the Person</strong>:</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
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<tr>
<td>the person’s character is attacked</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
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<tr>
<td>the person’s circumstances are noted</td>
<td><strong>Fallacy of Exclusion</strong>: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the person does not practise what is preached</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appeal to Authority</strong>:</td>
<td><strong>Prejudicial Language</strong>: value or moral goodness is attached to believing the author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the authority is not an expert in the field</td>
<td><strong>Popularity</strong>: a proposition is argued to be true because it is widely held to be true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experts in the field disagree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the authority was joking, drunk, or in some other way not being serious</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anonymous Authority</strong>: the authority in question is not named</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fallacies Involving Statistical Syllogisms</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accident</strong>: a generalization is applied when circumstances suggest that there should be an exception</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Converse Accident</strong>: an exception is applied in circumstances where a generalization should apply</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fallacy of Exclusion</strong>: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal Fallacies</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post Hoc</strong>: because one thing follows another, it is held to cause the other</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Joint effect</strong>: one thing is held to cause another when in fact they are both the joint effects of an underlying cause</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Insignificant</strong>: one thing is held to cause another, and it does, but it is insignificant compared to other causes of the effect</td>
<td><strong>Fallacy of Exclusion</strong>: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wrong Direction</strong>: the direction between cause and effect is reversed</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Complex Cause</strong>: the cause identified is only a part of the entire cause of the effect</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing the Point</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Begging the Question</strong>: the truth of the conclusion is assumed by the premises</td>
<td><strong>False Analogy</strong>: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Irrelevant Conclusion</strong>: an argument in defense of one conclusion instead proves a different conclusion</td>
<td><strong>Slothful Induction</strong>: the conclusion of a strong inductive argument is denied despite the evidence to the contrary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Anonymous Authority**: the authority in question is not named | **Fallacy of Exclusion**: evidence which would change the outcome of an inductive argument is excluded from consideration |

| Straw Man**: the author attacks an argument | **False Analogy**: the two objects or events being compared are relevantly dissimilar |
**Style Over Substance**: the manner in which an argument (or arguer) is presented is felt to affect the truth of the conclusion

**Inductive Fallacies**

- **Hasty Generalization**: the sample is too small to support an inductive generalization about a population
- **Unrepresentative Sample**: the sample is unrepresentative of the sample as a whole
- **Accent**: the emphasis on a word or phrase suggests a meaning contrary to what the sentence actually says

**Category Errors**

- **Composition**: because the attributes of the parts of a whole have a certain property, it is argued that the whole has that property
- **Division**: because the whole has a certain property, it is argued that the parts have that property

**Non Sequitur**

- **Affirming the Consequent**: any argument of the form: If A then B, B, therefore A
- **Denying the Antecedent**: any argument of the form: If A then B, Not A, thus Not B
- **Inconsistency**: asserting that contrary or contradictory statements are both true

**Syllogistic Errors**

- **Fallacy of Four Terms**: a syllogism has four terms
- **Undistributed Middle**: two separate categories are said to be connected because they share a common property
- **Illicit Major**: the predicate of the conclusion talks about all of something, but the premises only mention some cases of the term in the predicate
- **Illicit Minor**: the subject of the conclusion talks about all of something, but the premises only mention some cases of the term in the subject

**Fallacies of Ambiguity**

- **Equivocation**: the same term is used with two different meanings
- **Amphiboly**: the structure of a sentence allows two different interpretations

**Fallacies of Explanation**

- **Subverted Support** (The phenomenon being explained doesn’t exist)
- **Non-support** (Evidence for the phenomenon being explained is biased)
- **Untestability** (The theory which explains cannot be tested)
- **Limited Scope** (The theory which explains can only explain one thing)
- **Limited Depth** (The theory which explains does not appeal to underlying causes)

**Fallacies of Definition**

- **Too Broad** (The definition includes items which should not be included)
- **Too Narrow** (The definition does not include all the items which should be included)
- **Failure to Elucidate** (The definition is more difficult to understand than the word or concept being defined)
- **Circular Definition** (The definition includes the term being defined as a part of the definition)
- **Conflicting Conditions** (The definition is self-contradictory)
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eleven Common Logical Errors</th>
<th>Clash Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Faulty Premises</td>
<td>1. Inconsistencies in statements and logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Faulty Conclusion.</td>
<td>2. Statements that are unsupported or underdeveloped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Composition</td>
<td>3. Validity of any point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Fallacy of Common Cause</td>
<td>5. Quality of evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <em>Ad Hominem</em></td>
<td>6. Has a real need for change been established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Straw Man</td>
<td>7. Feasibility of the action items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. False Dilemma</td>
<td>8. What disadvantages would be created by their case?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Improper Appeal to Practice</td>
<td>10. Overall, where does their case lead (a better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Faulty Analogy</td>
<td>society or worse one)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from the Alberta Debate and Speech Association Senior High Advanced Strategy Booklet on Debate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clash Points</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inconsistencies in statements and logic</td>
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<td>3. Validity of any point</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Validity of logic</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>6. Has a real need for change been established</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Feasibility of the action items</td>
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<td>8. What disadvantages would be created by their case?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Does their case represent a net loss?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Overall, where does their case lead (a better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>society or worse one)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from the Alberta Debate and Speech Association Senior High Advanced Strategy Booklet on Debate

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**Delving into the WHY WELL!**

How do debaters successfully challenge assumptions and ask brilliant questions? They ask: why, how, who, what, when, where!

*The technique: Start with a statement: “multiculturalism is good”*

- Give speakers 5 minutes to prepare their argument(s)
- With each point presented, ask why (or other appropriate question)
- Keep having the speakers justify their answers, until you have come to the **bottom of the well** and either:
  - Found the truth behind the assumption
  - Completely defeated the assumption

“Multiculturalism is good.”

Why? - Because then all cultures feel included.

Why does that matter? - Everyone wants to participate and work together. We fight less.

How do you know? - We will feel valued for who we are and we value others

Why does that matter? - We can see all the good things in our differences.

Why is that important? - We get the best things from each individual. Our culture grows and changes.

Why does that matter? - A society must keep growing and changing to survive. {Fundamental value that change is at the root of societal success}

OR try “Multiculturalism is bad.”

Why? Follow this down to diversity leads to tension and conflict, and end with society must be productive and united to succeed.

The WHY WELL reveals the fundamental roots and values at the core of the debate and makes debaters ready to approach a case position.
# Unit 8
## Reply & Summary

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<th><strong>Objective</strong></th>
<th>Debaters using a Case Line model must know how to differentiate between a rebuttal and a reply speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instructor</strong></td>
<td>Have debaters give a typical rebuttal speech. Then, have them rewrite it as a reply speech.</td>
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</tbody>
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## PART ONE
### Case Line and Final Speeches

Debates are often won or lost in the final speech. That speech has to put the whole debate in context, summarize your side and complete the attack on your opponents. In case line, that speech is a reply. It uses elements of the traditional rebuttal and the lowly summary, but also focuses on case line analysis.

This is your last chance to persuade the judges that your team presented the best case.

While a rebuttal speech tends to be a rapid-fire repetition of all the points on both sides, in a reply speech, debaters will slow down, “step-back” and change the pacing, tone and style.

The reply is a big-picture examination of what happened in the debate. Debaters will use language that makes it sound like they already won. They will point out what the key issues were on each side, and what the “crux” of the debate was really about, rather than focus on details. They will try to twist or reframe their opponents’ case in a negative light and show how their team did everything right that is needed to win.

Debaters using the Case Line Model need to know how to differentiate between a rebuttal and a reply. In all of Saskatchewan’s styles of debate either a reply or a rebuttal may be deliver in the final address from each side. In other places, either a rebuttal or a reply is required. Because reply speeches require a stronger understanding of the entire debate and greater experience with debate in general, reply speeches are typically mastered after a debater learns to deliver a good rebuttal. If a debater is using a case line, a reply must be used.

Listen to the opening statements of the sample rebuttal and a reply speeches and think about the following questions listed below.

**Questions:**
- What is the role of the final speech on each side of a debate?
- What makes an effective concluding speech?
- What type of final speech do you usually do?
- What skills must a debater have to do a rebuttal? A reply?

**Resolution:** *This house believes that low taxes are preferable to extensive government services*

**Negative case line:** *Social Services are beneficial to society in both an economic and humanitarian sense.*
PART TWO
Sample Speeches
A sample Negative rebuttal:

Ladies and Gentlemen, we have shown that lower taxes should not come at the price of social programs. Our opponents stated that taxes are too high, but they are not as high as many other places. Our opponents also argued that things like our health care system are not working and we should let people pay for better service. However, this also means some people get no service like in the United States. Do we want a country of people who are petrified about losing their health benefits? We on the negative do not want to live in that kind of world. You may think that our opponents are correct when they state that many people abuse social services. But what about the child who needs to eat or the elderly woman on a fixed income? Are they abusing the system? No! As my partner has proven, the vast majority of Canadians need the social services they get. Finally, the Affirmative has argued that lower taxes will stimulate growth in the economy and we will all be better off. As I stated in my first speech, what lower taxes really do is increase the gap between those with money and those without. The working poor can afford less and the wealthy can afford more. Clearly my opponents' argument is based on faulty economics. Ladies and Gentlemen, the Negative has proven to you today that the ideas of the Affirmative would rip apart the fabric of our society. We have shown that the current system is superior even if it has its faults. This resolution must fall.

Steps to building a reply speech:
- put the debate in perspective
- distil the opponents’ case line, and put it in a negative light
- restate own case line including three major constructive points
- attack the fundamental principle of an opponents’ case
- rebuild the principle of your own case
- conclude with case line and why it matters

A sample Negative reply:

Ladies and Gentlemen, the issue here today is the best way to invest in the future of Canadians. (perspective) My opponents believe in the principle of every man for himself. (distil) We on the Negative contend that pooling our money is the best way to invest from not only an economic perspective, but also with regards to quality of service and quality of life. (restate) The Affirmative has focused their argument on the basic Keynesian principle that giving people more spending money through less taxes has huge economic benefits. They have contended that this outweighs the value of social programming. This viewpoint is fundamentally short-sighted. Education is a classic social program. It is funded almost completely through taxes, and those taxes are an investment in our future. As these young people achieve high levels of learning and join the economy, they are what really stimulate growth. Rather than a short-term increase in consumer spending, we could achieve a capable workforce with the resources to both make and spend higher income. Any good capitalist will tell you that you need to spend money to make money. Because the need to stimulate the economy is best met by the Negative case and not the Affirmative, the basic tenant of their case falls. (attack) In addition, the clear benefits of social programming remain undiminished. Public sector care is best across the entire spectrum. Yes, the Affirmative is right the rich Americans receive more timely care and better access to health care. But the majority of American’s struggle to meet their health care needs and the care that 20% of Americans receive is considered a travesty in Canada. Finally, social programs are intrinsic as a part of Canadian values. We are ultimately a people that care about the equal treatment of all, and the future of our children. (rebuild) Money put into one needy child does not merely feed that child; it provides that child with the opportunity to feed others when she becomes an adult. The Affirmative case cannot stand on the basis of economics and is destroyed on the basis of human decency. We could never support this resolution. (conclude)
## STEP THREE

### STEP THREE – Styles of Debate

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Unit 9
Styles & Speaking times

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>The objective of this unit is to familiarize students with the formats of debate.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit you will find all the formats of debates used in Saskatchewan, along with the speaker order and speaking times.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructor</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All debaters in your club should be familiar with the structure, timing and rules of each style of debate.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

PART ONE
Formats of Debate in Saskatchewan

There are three main formats of debate used in Saskatchewan: Discussion, Cross-examination, and Parliamentary. Four other styles are also listed: British Parliamentary, Academic, National and Worlds.

These last four forms are used at interprovincial competitions and may be offered at some SEDA events. In the past, SEDA debaters from Grades 6-9 debated Discussion style almost exclusively. Changes have been made so debaters in Grades 7-9 have more opportunities to debate the other styles as well.
<table>
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<th>Discussion Style</th>
<th>Beginners &amp; Intermediate</th>
<th>Juniors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>4 min</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Negative Constructive</td>
<td>4 min</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>4 min</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Negative Constructive</td>
<td>4 min</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion Period</td>
<td>6 min</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break</td>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Negative Rebuttal</td>
<td>3 min</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>3 min</td>
<td>3 min</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross-Examination Style</th>
<th>(Intermediate, Junior, Novice and Open)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1st Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Affirmative Cross-Examined by 1st Negative</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Negative Constructive</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Negative Cross-Examined by 2nd Affirmative</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Affirmative Cross-Examined by 2nd Negative</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Negative Constructive</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Negative Cross-Examined by 1st Affirmative</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliamentary Style</th>
<th>(Junior, Novice and Open)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prime Minister’s Introduction</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Opposition Speech</td>
<td>8 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Government Speech</td>
<td>8 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader of the Opposition’s Speech <em>(The last 3 minutes. of this speech are a rebuttal)</em></td>
<td>8 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Prime Minister’s Rebuttal</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Formats of Debate in Saskatchewan continued

British Parliamentary Style with POIs (Intermediate, Junior, Novice and Open)
All eight speakers
5 min. preliminary rounds or 7 min. final rounds

Cambridge Academic Style with POIs (Intermediate, Junior, Novice and Open)
1st Affirmative Constructive
1st Negative Constructive
2nd Affirmative Constructive
2nd Negative Constructive

Break

1st Negative Rebuttal
2nd Affirmative Rebuttal
2nd Negative Rebuttal
1st Affirmative Rebuttal

National Style (Beginner, Intermediate, Junior, Novice and Open)
1st Proposition Constructive
1st Opposition Constructive
2nd Proposition Constructive
2nd Opposition Constructive

Summary/Rebuttal speeches
1st Opposition Speaker
1st Proposition Speaker

Worlds Style (Intermediate, Junior, Novice and Open)
1st Proposition Constructive
1st Opposition Constructive
2nd Proposition Constructive
2nd Opposition Constructive
3rd Proposition Constructive
3rd Opposition Constructive

Reply speeches
1st or 2nd Opposition Speaker
1st or 2nd Proposition Speaker
Moderating/Timing Parliamentary Style

**Moderators**

- You are the boss! What you say goes in all things, without debate.
- When you stand up time stops and all debaters must stop talking immediately and take their seat. No exceptions! If they do not, remind them politely (“Order in the House! Order, please!”) that this is what’s required.
- All debaters must refer to each other in the third person – “The Honourable Member said that…”
- All debaters must refer to you when they speak – “Mister/Madam Speaker, I would like to start my speech today by saying…”
- If the debaters do not refer to each other in the third person or refer to you, you are encouraged to take control of the debate – “I remind all members that all comments in this debate should be addressed to me.”
- Heckling is not only permitted, but encouraged!
- A debater may rise to pose a question to another debater. In this case you will rise and say, “Why is the Honourable Member on his/her feet?”
  - “I was wondering if the Honourable Member opposite would entertain a question?”
  - “Will the Member opposite entertain a question?”
  - “I will, Mister/Madam Speaker.” or “Not at this time.”
- A debater may rise on a Point of Order/Personal Privilege. In this case you will rise and say, “Why is the Honourable Member on his/her feet?”
  - “Mister/Madam Speaker I rise on a Point of Order/Personal Privilege.”
  - “Please explain your point.”
  - Following the explanation you rule either “Your point is well taken.” or “Your point is not well taken.” If the point is not well taken, the debater raising the point must apologize to the House.
- Points of Order can be raised for concealing your hands, pointing a finger or a pen at another debater, heckling too often or causing similar disturbances, not referring to another Member in the third person, not addressing the Speaker when speaking, preaching treason or belittling the Crown, lowering the level of debate, and other such actions.
- Points of Personal Privilege can be raised when a debater has been slandered, misquoted, or otherwise misrepresented. A debater may only raise a Point of Personal Privilege for himself or herself, and not for another person.

**Timers**

- The timing of the speeches is as follows:
  - First Affirmative: 5 minutes
  - First Negative: 8 minutes
  - Second Affirmative: 8 minutes
  - Second Negative: 8 minutes
  - First Affirmative: 3 minutes
- The clock stops when a member stands to ask a question. The clock starts again when the question has been answered.
- The clock stops when a member rises on a Point of Order or Personal Privilege. This is tricky!
  - If the point is not well taken, the clock resumes as though nothing happened.
  - If the point is well taken, the time it took to raise the point is subtracted from the speaker’s overall time.
  - Do your best, estimates are acceptable.
Unit 10
Cross-Examination

**Objective**

To introduce students to the skills involved in Cross-Examination and Discussion.

The following areas are covered:

- Cross-Examination: What is It?
- Cross-Examination: Why?
- Cross-Examination: How to Do It?
- Points to Keep in Mind
- Rules of Cross-Examination

**Instructor**

Please refer to the Handout section of the Coaching Manual for more details on lines of questioning. Download a copy of Excellence in Cross-examination from the SEDA web site for more useful tips.

Provide students with several opportunities to practice drafting questions, asking them, and answering them.

**Introduction**

**Cross-Examination: What is It?**

Cross-examination is a three minute period at the end of each constructive speech during which the individual who has just spoken is cross-examined by a member of the opposing team. The speaking order for cross-examination style debate is listed in Unit 9. Constructive speeches are presented just as outlined in the units on Introduction to Discussion, Plan Building or the Case Line debates.

**Cross-Examination - Why?**

No substitution has ever been found for cross-examination or discussion as a means of separating truth from falsehood and of reducing exaggerated statements to their true dimension.

Terry, Modern Debate Case Techniques, 1978

Each debater should think of themselves as an advertising agency. Your objective is to sell your product as effectively as possible in the time which you are given.

Think of each speech as air time in which you can promote your product. The cross-examination period should be thought of as a period during which rival companies are competing for the same air time, with whoever dominating that time successfully selling their product.

Following this line of reasoning your object in cross-examination is to sell your product and to discredit the product of your opponent. (If this sounds just like debate in general you’re right!)

Many people see cross-examination as a period they have to “survive.” In fact, the ideas and arguments in your speeches are the material on which the discussion and cross-examination is based. In other words, in cross-examination you try to reinforce, expand and develop your constructive speeches.
Cross-Examination can be used:
• to collect further information;
• to determine whether there is adequate evidence
• to support the points (contentions) made;
• to show lack of information and preparation;
• to challenge the feasibility and desirability of the plan;
• to challenge the benefits of the plan;
• to demonstrate contradictions;
• to demonstrate lack of logic;
• to point out new harms of plan.

As the questioner, your objective in discussion or cross-examination is to attack the case of the opposition and to prepare the audience for the next speech given by your team.

As the witness, your objective is to rebuff the attacks of the cross-examiner and to convince the audience that your case is the best case.

This all sounds great . . . but how do you do it? Let’s work through a few steps . . .

**Cross-Examination: How To Do It**
The first step is to be familiar with the subject. If the issue regards left-handed jack hammers, then you should be reasonably familiar with left-handed jack hammers.

Debaters need to keep in mind that the cross-examination period is a performance for the judges. Their demeanor while asking and answering questions is just as important as the content.

Develop general lines of questions in response to the major issues that you perceive will arise. Some people use “Question trees”. They’ll start with a basic question and then brainstorm possible off-shoots from it.

Good lines of question begin with the examiners knowing what answer they want – what point they want to prove. From there, they will create a series of short questions, going from the general to specific that shows if the witness agrees to the basic premise of each question, then they must agree to the parallel point the question is designed to prove. The SEDA Coaching Manual has a handout with several examples. Download this and other resources from the SEDA web site.

Just as the Negative speeches attack the needs and the plan or arguments, the Negative cross-examinations must attack the needs, the plan, if necessary, the resolution or the arguments. By the same token, just as the Affirmative constructive speeches attack the present system and the Negative’s minor repairs (or the counterplan) . . . so the Affirmative’s cross-examination must attack the present system and the Negative’s minor repairs (or counterplan). The same goes for attacks on the parts of a Case Line Model – the case line, the arguments, the evidence, the tie-back.

For example, say the debate concerns whether or not legalized gambling should be eliminated. Say that you are the Negative and the Affirmative will argue to abolish legalized gambling. After doing your research you establish the following possible needs for change:
• Too many people addicted to gambling
• Unfairly taxing poor people
• Makes people dream

The Negative in their cross-examination must attack the needs; therefore questions such as the following would be asked:
• How many people are addicted?
• Who says that too many are addicted?
• If gambling is a voluntary tax, how can it be unfair?
• How are these taxes spent? Are they spent beneficially?
• What is wrong with people dreaming?

Although prior preparation is encouraged, this should not preclude spontaneous response to issues that arise. Debaters may also wish to ask simple questions regarding a quote, a statistic, or a point they require clarification on.

The cross-examination period does not exist in a vacuum. Admissions or errors made during the period should be incorporated early on in the speech directly following the cross-examination.

This requires that both team members pay close attention to the answers received.
**Some Points to Keep In Mind**

a) All questions should be related to central issues. Questions should be prepared with regard to the type of admissions or information you wish to obtain.

b) Preparation must be thorough enough to enable one to deal with unexpected answers.

c) Questions should be specific, and the intent should be clear. Questions should not be open-ended, permitting long answers by witnesses.

d) Plan a series of questions to deal with anticipated weak areas.

e) Type or write questions on file cards or in a small notebook.

f) Address the audience and judges as well as the examiner.

g) All questions fairly asked should be answered in the same fashion. Stalling, irrelevancy, flippancy or answering questions with another question are quite unacceptable. Judges will penalize debaters for such actions.

h) The witness is not obliged to provide a yes or no answer. If it is necessary, she can qualify her answer.

i) If a question contains more than one question, ask the questioner which of the several questions she wants answered.

j) Judges are instructed to invoke heavy penalties for sarcasm, browbeating, discourtesy or other attempts to discredit an opponent.

k) Never ask a question for which you have no notion of the answer.

l) Learn how to shift from one question to another. Do not spend too much time on a question once it is apparent that you cannot obtain the answer you want.

**Rules of Cross-Examination**

a) The examiner shall control the cross-examination. The witness, however, shall be permitted reasonable time to answer a question.

b) The witness has the right to qualify answers.

c) The witness must answer all relevant questions.

d) The witness shall not ask questions unless to request clarification.

e) A debater shall not seek assistance from her colleague while asking or answering questions.

f) Judges shall penalize speech-making on the part of the examiner, lack of co-operation by the witness, stalling, irrelevance, flippancy, discourtesy, browbeating, or any attempt to personally belittle or discredit an opponent.

g) During the cross-examination, it is permissible to introduce new contentions and new evidence.

h) A witness shall not take unnecessary time to answer a question.

i) The examiner should ask fair questions on relevant subjects. Questions need not be directly related to the speech just delivered by the witness, although they should pertain ultimately to the issue at hand.

j) During a cross-examination, examiners may only ask questions; accordingly they should be penalized for making speeches or rebutting at this time.

k) The moderator shall not intervene when irrelevant remarks are made, unless they are in response to a pertinent question; in that case, either on request or on her own initiative, she shall order the witness to answer the question directly.
"Step by Step" Checklist for Cross-Examination Style (Case line & Global Clash)

First Affirmative Constructive Checklist
1. Hook your audience with a good introduction
2. State resolution
3. Define terms of resolution
4. Sign post:
   Label your three arguments and indicate how they will be divided between you and your partner
5. Present your case line
6. Present, explain and prove your first two arguments (LEET)
7. Tie-back your case to your case line
8. Say “I will now stand for cross-examination.” Remain standing.

Second Affirmative Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Incorporate admissions from cross-examination and deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line
6. Say “I will now stand for cross-examination.” Remain standing.

Cross-Examination Period
First Affirmative speaker is cross-examined by the First Negative speaker.

First Negative Constructive Speech
1. Argue Affirmative definitions of terms (if necessary). If you disagree with the definitions you must say so in your first speech. Otherwise the assumption is that you accept the definitions. You cannot first accept the definitions and later reject them! So there!
2. Sign post your strategy
   You have the option of presenting your own constructive case first, or dealing with the deconstruction then moving on. Indicate how the constructive arguments will be divided between the partners.
3. Present your case line, incorporate any admissions, etc. from the cross-ex period, put forth the first two arguments of your constructive case (LEET) and deconstruct (clash) the previous speech
4. Say “I will now stand for cross-examination.” Remain standing.

Second Negative Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Incorporate admissions from cross-examination and deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line
6. Say “I will now stand for cross-examination.” Remain standing.

Cross-Examination Period
Second Negative speaker is cross-examined by the First Affirmative speaker.

5 minute break

Negative / Affirmative Reply Speeches (Given by 1st speaker on each team)
1. Put the debate in perspective
2. Distil the opponents’ case line, and put it in a negative light
3. Restate own case line including three major constructive points
4. Attack the fundamental principle of an opponents’ case
5. Rebuild the principle of your own case
6. Conclude with case line and why it matters
Unit 11
Parliamentary Debate

**Objective**

To acquaint the debater with those procedures and terms unique to the Parliamentary format of debate.

This section covers the purpose of each speaker, and stylistic conventions specific to the Parliamentary format: heckling, questions, points of privilege and points of order.

Please refer to Unit 21 for British Parliamentary Debate.

**Instructor**

Parliamentary format differs in style, but not in terms of the requirements of content. What applies to discussion and cross-examination applies to Parliamentary. The notes in this section deal with stylistic differences.

Refer to your SEDA Constitution and Policy Manual for detailed rules on Parliamentary debate.

INTRODUCTION

**The Government**

*Purpose:* In Parliamentary debate the Government presents, defends and attempts to pass the bill before the House (convince the judges that the bill “must stand”). Since the onus is on the Government to prove its case - making it more vulnerable to attack - the Government team should bear in mind the importance of connection and expansion. Arguments presented in Government speeches should be connected. Each speech should make and expand one or two key points. Strong, well-documented points are needed to withstand the rebuttal of a skilled Opposition.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister is responsible for introducing and defining the bill. A bill that is not carefully defined becomes wide open to attack from the Opposition, while a well-defined bill is an asset to the Government. In her speech, the Prime Minister should keep in mind that one or two solid points - emphatically made and documented - are usually more effective than five or six brief, imprecise points.

It is very important that the Prime Minister make effective use of her three-minute rebuttal. She should identify the one or two basic arguments or themes of the Opposition and shatter them.

Second Government Member

The second member should first re-enforce his partner’s points and connect his speech to hers and to the bill. He should then clash with key arguments introduced by the first Opposition speaker and refute Opposition arguments that threaten those of the Prime Minister or of his own. He should conclude by re-iterating the main points made by the Government, crystallizing these in the minds of the judges.

**The Opposition**
**Purpose:** The chief objective of the Opposition is to prevent the Government’s bill from being accepted by the House (the judges). To accomplish this the Opposition should refute the key Government arguments in support of the bill and introduce and document counter-arguments that convince the judges that the Government’s resolution “must fall”. Note that the Opposition, like the Government, is a two-person team. The contentions and counter-arguments in both speeches should be coherent and complementary. Two unrelated speeches by teammates are not very effective.

**First Opposition Member**

The first Opposition speaker has several key duties. First, he must disagree with the bill and state his reasons for doing so. It also helps to pave the way for his partner’s arguments by outlining the line of reasoning she will take.

He should then examine and attack the Prime Minister’s speech. He may disagree with the Prime Minister’s definition and may present his own terms of reference, if necessary.

The tone of the Opposition’s arguments should be established early. By the time that the first Opposition speaker has finished, he should have crushed the Prime Minister’s key arguments, built a convincing list of his own points and paved the way for his partner’s speech.

**Leader of the Opposition**

Rebuttal is the key here, but she should attack all of the Government arguments presented during the debate. She should identify core themes among the Government arguments and attack them. It is most advantageous if she can convince the judges that the entire Government case stands or falls on one or two key points and then undermine their validity.

The Leader of the Opposition speaker should review the main points of her partner’s speech and then flesh out the Opposition’s overall case - providing coherence and unity.

She should bear in mind that she represents the Opposition’s last opportunity to score the telling blow against the Government.
Protocol
Always begin your Parliamentary speeches with “Mister (or Madam) Speaker”. Refer to other members of the House as “the Honourable Member Opposite” or “the Honourable Prime Minister” (or “Honourable Leader of the Opposition”).

Never address other members directly. Always address remarks through the Speaker, except when heckling.

Heckling
Heckling is permissible - indeed encouraged - in Parliamentary debate, but be careful. It can work to your disadvantage if your overdo it. Short, witty retorts are best.

Questions
Members may rise at any time to ask another member a question.
To ask a question, a member rises and once recognized by the Speaker says: “Mr./Madam Speaker, will the member accept a question?” The member speaking surrenders the floor momentarily, then has the option to accept or decline the request, before hearing the question. Answers should be short and smoothly incorporated into the flow of the speech.

Members will receive about one extra minute of speaking time, if several questions are asked.

Points of Personal Privilege/Order
Point of Personal Privilege
This point may be raised when a member believes that he has been slandered, his character has been defamed or that his remarks have been misrepresented. Only the member directly slandered, defamed or misrepresented may raise the point. Any point not meeting the above requirements will be ruled out of order when raised as a Point of Personal Privilege.

To raise a Point of Personal Order/Personal Privilege, a member rises and once recognized by the Speaker says: “Mr./Madam Speaker, I rise on a Point of Order/Personal Privilege.”

The Speaker asks the member to explain his point. The Speaker then rules either that the member is correct (“Your Point is well taken.”), or that the member was incorrect (“Your Point is not well taken.”). If the plaintiff’s point is valid he must apologize to the House. Debate continues immediately.

Point of Order
A Point of Order is the method used by any member to call the attention of the House to a violation of the rules of the House. A Point of Order may be raised at any time, even though another member may be speaking. When a Point of Order has been raised, all members must be seated until the Speaker rules upon it, after which the debate shall resume.

Rules concerning the Floor:
a) No member may cross the floor without the leave of the Speaker.
b) The Speaker will not recognize a male member without a tie.
c) All remarks from the floor must be directed to the Speaker (i.e. “Mr./Madam Speaker”).

Rules concerning decorum:
a) No unparliamentary language is permitted in the House.
b) Every member’s behaviour must be of a standard befitting the House.
c) No member may directly refer to another member or direct his comments to another member.
d) Every member must attire himself in a standard appropriate to the House.
e) Members must not needlessly lower the level of debate or the decorum of the House.
f) No member may preach treason or belittle the Monarchy in the House.

Rules concerning security:
a) No member may conceal his hands from the House.
b) No member may point a contrivance, object or extremity at any other member of the House.

There is no protected time during any of the Parliamentary speeches. More rules concerning Parliamentary-style debate can be found in SEDA’s Constitution and Policy Manual.
"Step by Step" Checklist for Parliamentary Style (Case line & Global Clash)

Prime Minster Constructive Checklist
1. Hook your audience with a good introduction
2. State resolution
3. Define terms of resolution
4. Sign post: Label your three arguments and indicate how they will be divided between you and your partner
5. Present your case line
6. Present, explain and prove your first two arguments (LEET)
9. Tie-back your case to your case line

Second Government Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Incorporate admissions from questions and deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line

Leader of Opposition Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Incorporate admissions from cross-examination and deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments

First Opposition Constructive Speech
1. Argue Affirmative definitions of terms (if necessary). If you disagree with the definitions you must say so in your first speech. Otherwise the assumption is that you accept the definitions. You cannot first accept the definitions and later reject them! So there!
2. Sign post your strategy
   You have the option of presenting your own constructive case first, or dealing with the deconstruction then moving on. Indicate how the constructive arguments will be divided between the partners.
3. Present your case line, incorporate any admissions, etc. made through questions, put forth the first two arguments of your constructive case (LEET) and deconstruct (clash) the previous speech

Last 3 minutes of the Leader of the Opposition’s Speech and the Prime Minister’s Reply speeches
1. Put the debate in perspective
2. Distil the opponents’ case line, and put it in a negative light
3. Restate own case line including three major constructive points
4. Attack the fundamental principle of an opponents’ case
5. Rebuild the principle of your own case
6. Conclude with case line and why it matters

All Debaters
Remember to use Questions, Heckles, Points of Order, Points of Personal Privilege, and parliamentary language (Madam or Mr. Speaker, my constituents, this House, etc.)
Unit 12
Cambridge Academic Style

**Objective**

To acquaint the debater with those procedures and terms unique to the Academic Style of debate.

Academic style introduces debaters to POIs and rebuttals by all four debaters.

**Instructor**

All debates styles share common elements; however, there are several variations as to format and rules. SEDA uses the three styles previously discussed during all official provincial competitions. However, when debaters travel to out-of-province tournaments, they often encounter new or varied styles. Like SEDA, each provincial organization has their own rules, but Academic is a style practiced at the National Seminar.

Refer to the CSDF web site for detailed rules.

**Introduction**

The CSDF National Seminar uses cross-examination, parliamentary and academic styles. The first two styles are similar to what is practiced in Saskatchewan. Generally the speaking times and rules are the same, but there are a few exceptions. Sometimes heckling and questions are not allowed in Parliamentary style and there may be protected time during certain speeches. In cross-examination style, debaters may be required to give a Cambridge format rebuttal. However, the rules do change from year to year, so debaters should always check with the CSDF for the latest guidelines.

The third style, Academic, is sometimes referred to as “Classical” or “Platform” style debating. In this style, each debater is expected to deliver a constructive speech and to rebut. General debate rules of conduct apply.

**Rule Infractions**

Since there are no Points of Order or Privilege, at the conclusion of each debate the moderator will give each debater an opportunity to point out any infraction of the rules or misrepresentation of his or her position by his or her opponents. When alleging such an infraction, a debater must identify the specific debate rule that has been broken or his or her remake that has been misconstrued and the debater accused of the violation or misrepresentation should be given an opportunity to defend himself or herself. The Moderator shall not rule on any such objections.

**Heckling**

Heckling may or may not be allowed. Sometimes, if World Points of Information are being used heckling is not allowed. When allowed, heckling should be pertinent, humorous, brief and infrequent, and it should not
be used to just to disrupt the delivery of an opponent. Judges will severely penalize debaters who lower the level of debate through excessive or thoughtless interruptions.

Points of Information
Where permitted Points of Information as used at the World Schools Debating Championships shall be entertained. Such a Point of Information may be in the form of either a question to the debater making a speech, or a remark addressed through the moderator.

All debaters are required to raise at least one such point with each opponent during each contest and while the debater who is interrupted is required to accept at least one point raised by each opponent, he or she has sole discretion whether and when to accept them and how long to let them go on.

Points of Information must be brief and may not be raised during the first or final minute of a constructive speech or during rebuttal-defence-summary speech.

To raise on a Point of Information, a debater shall stand and say “Point of Information”; the interrupted debater may decline to take the point and cut off or ask the interrupter to sit down, accept the point immediately, or defer it to a later point in his speech. If several debaters raise such points simultaneously, the speaker with the floor may refuse to accept any of them or may entertain one. A debater whose point is not accepted shall immediately sit down. Excessive raising of such points shall be penalized.

The time take to rise and reply to such Points shall be included in the speaking time of the debater with the floor. If the debater speaks less than five minutes, opponents may each ask one unraised Point of Information at the conclusion of the speech, within the allotted five minutes.

Plans
If a plan is to be introduced, it must be done so completely in the first affirmative speech. In the rebuttal portion, speakers may rebut, defend and/or summarize, with these functions divided between the members of a team. The first Affirmative can not introduce any new evidence in the final rebuttal speech.

Speaking times
Constructive Speeches
First Affirmative  6 minutes
First Negative   6 minutes
Second Affirmative 6 minutes
Second Negative  6 minutes

(Points of information are allowed during the constructive speech except during the first and last minutes)

Rebuttal Speeches
First Negative   3 minutes
Second Affirmative 3 minutes
Second Negative  3 minutes
First Affirmative  3 minutes

• Cambridge format of rebuttal:
Each debater delivers a constructive address and later an official rebuttal

• Oxford format of rebuttal:
The first affirmative and first negative debater deliver an official rebuttal
"Step by Step" Checklist for Cambridge Academic Style (Case line & Global Clash)

First Affirmative Constructive Checklist
1. Hook your audience with the introduction and state the resolution
2. Define terms of resolution
3. Sign post: Label your three arguments and indicate how they will be divided between you and your partner
4. Present your case line
5. Present, explain and prove your first two arguments (LEET)
6. Tie-back your case to your case line

Second Affirmative Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line

First Negative Constructive Checklist
1. Argue Affirmative definitions of terms (if necessary).
2. Sign post your strategy
   You have the option of presenting your own constructive case first, or dealing with the deconstruction then moving on. Indicate how the constructive arguments will be divided between the partners.
3. Present your case line, incorporate any admissions, etc. made through questions, put forth the first two arguments of your constructive case (LEET) and deconstruct (clash) the previous speech

Second Negative Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line

Second Negative Constructive Speech
1. Sign post the order you intend to construct or deconstruct, and the last major argument you are going to make
2. Deconstruct (clash)
3. Put forth your final argument (LEET)
4. Advance the first two arguments
5. Tie your case back to your case line

First Negative Rebuttal
This speech should combine “rebuttal” (attacks on opposing arguments and evidence) and “refutation” (defense of one's own arguments and evidence) as well as some summary and reply. No new constructive material (arguments or evidence) is allowed.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal
This speech should combine “rebuttal” (attacks on opposing arguments and evidence) and “refutation” (defense of one's own arguments and evidence) as well as some summary and reply. No new constructive material (arguments or evidence) is allowed, expect in direct defense of material presented in the last negative constructive speech.

Negative Reply (2nd Negative)
followed by
Affirmative Reply (1st Affirmative)
1. Put the debate in perspective
2. Distil the opponents’ case line, and put it in a negative light
3. Restate own case line including three major constructive points
4. Attack the fundamental principle of an opponents’ case
5. Rebuild the principle of your own case
6. Step back, look at the big picture, crux
7. Tell the judges why your team “has won”
8. Conclude with case line and why it matters

All Debaters
Each debater should offer at least one POI per speaker and accept at least one POI from each speaker. The first and last minute of each speech is protected time. There are no POIs in the Rebuttal/Reply speeches.
Helpful Hints on POIs

- **Give two POIs, and take two POIs**
  - POIs shouldn't be given for the sole purpose of destroying the other team's case. POIs should build your case up as well.
  - If you're in the opening half of the debate your priority in the second half should be to remain involved. Make sure your arguments aren't lost among the second half of the debate. POIs are the best way to accomplish this.
  - If you're in the second half of the debate then you should be extremely careful about the POIs that you give to first half teams. Sometimes your opening team may try and steal your extension if you give too much away in your POIs. (refers to British Parliamentary style)
  - Try to remain involved in the debate by standing on POIs, but do not harass the speaker by continually standing on POIs and saying things like "On Liberty", "On the Geneva Convention", etc.
  - It is always better to get in one or two excellent POIs than four or five mediocre ones. One of the best ways to accomplish this is for you and your partner to put a sheet a paper between you with your best POI written down. Then, when the speaker takes either of you you're certain to have an excellent POI.
  - Just because everyone else is standing up on a POI doesn't mean you have to, Sometimes when a speaker says something monumentally stupid everyone on opposite benches will stand up. Usually the speaker won't take a POI at that time, but if there's someone who stood up late, they just might let them ask a question. Often, the debater giving the POI will be caught off-guard by this. So don't stand up on a POI just because everyone else is. But if you do, make sure you have a question.
  - Let people finish their question before you wave them down, but if they start to make a speech, or refuse to sit down, start waving them down immediately. If they still won't sit down then the speaker will deal with them.
  - Finish your thought before you accept a question. It is very easy to forget where you were if you allow someone to interrupt you.
  - If you want to get your question taken it is often better to stand at the end of the speaker's point. They'll be more likely to take you.
  - If you are in a round with teams of very disparate skills, it may at first seem like a good idea to take POIs from the weakest team. And that can work. But the judges will be more impressed if you give a good answer to a difficult POI than if you smack down a weak POI. So you might want to choose to take POIs from the better team. This will show the judges that you're willing to engage the better team in the round.

Adapted from the British Parliamentary guide found at www.csdf-fcde.ca/english/resources/University_BP_Guide.doc
Unit 13
National Style

Objective

To acquaint the debater with those procedures and terms unique to the National Style of debate.

National Style offers a variation on Academic, Parliamentary and Worlds style. There are POIs, but only one rebuttal / summary speech per team.

Instructor

Debaters hoping to attend the National Championships and Worlds Tryouts should have considerable experience with the requirements of the National Style.

Introduction

The Canadian National Debating Format is used at the Senior High National Debating Championships. This is a new style of debate to be used at the National Debating Championships. Individual provinces are strongly encouraged, but not required, to implement this style at their qualifying events. It is in some ways a cross between Parliamentary Debating and World’s Style Debating.

The following is a summary of the rules as written by Chris George of the Ontario Student Debate Union.

Teams

Each team consists of two people, and the teams are called the “Proposition” and “Opposition”. Individual speakers are referred to as its First and Second Speakers.

Topics

Topics are to be on substantive issues. All motions will start with “This House ...”. No squirrelling is permitted.

Speaking order

Constructive Speeches

First Proposition Speaker 8 minutes
First Opposition Speaker 8 minutes
Second Proposition Speaker 8 minutes
Second Opposition Speaker 8 minutes

Summary/Rebuttal speeches

First Opposition Speaker 4 minutes
First Proposition Speaker 4 minutes

Description of Constructive Speeches

a) The first proposition speaker has to define the terms, establish the case line and give the case division (who covers what points). This speaker will normally have two or three constructive arguments. The first speaker must make the team’s approach crystal clear.

b) The first opposition speaker must clash with the points just made by the first proposition and advance the case line, case division and normally the first two arguments of the opposition side. In World’s Style, this division is usually 2 minutes and 6 minutes, although for our purposes these are just guidelines. The
debater should be evaluated on the overall effectiveness of the speech. Constructive argumentation or refutation may be done first, and once again, the judges will consider the effectiveness of the strategy chosen.

c) The second proposition speaker has to clash with the case presented by the first opposition speaker, and should advance one or two more constructive arguments for the proposition. The speaker should also take time to rebuild the proposition case.

d) The second opposition speaker should also introduce one or two constructive arguments. This speaker should also take time to clash with the new constructive matter presented by the second proposition, and summarize the opposition case presented. He/she should NOT engage in an overall summary / rebuttal of the debate.

**Summary / Rebuttal Speeches**

The first speaker on each side, starting with the Opposition, will deliver a four minute summary / rebuttal speech. It was decided that there would be no set format for this speech, given the variety of valid strategies and techniques used. In general, speakers should attempt to summarize the key themes or ideas that have taken place in the debate. This speech tries to put the debate in context and explain the ‘crux’, or the internal logic of both cases and explains why, on this basis, his/her team has to win. It can examine and summarize the arguments presented, but should focus on the major areas of contention that evolved during the round. This is the final opportunity for a team to convince the judge why his/her team has won the round. Of course, no new information is to be presented in this speech.

**Points of Information**

Points of Information, also known as POIs for short, are used in Worlds Style, plus a variety of other debating forums. Essentially, a POI is a question or statement that one makes while someone is giving a speech as a means of gaining a tactical advantage. It is expected that every speaker offer and accept POIs during the round. POIs are only allowed during the constructive speeches, but not during the first and last minutes of these speeches (called “protected time”). During the round, the moderator will bang the desk after one minute has elapsed to signal that POIs are now allowed, and again with one minute remaining in a speech, to signal that time is once again protected. Points of information should be short and to the point. To offer a Point of Information, a debater may stand silently, possibly extending an arm. A debater may also simply say “on a point of information”, or “on that point”. The speaker has control over whether to accept the point. One may not continue with their point of information unless the floor is yielded by the speaker.

The speaker may do one of several things:

a) reject the point briefly, perhaps by saying something like “no thank you” or “not at this time”. The debater who stood on the point will sit down. It is also acceptable for a debater to politely wave down the speaker without verbally rejecting it and disrupting his/her speech.

b) accept the point, allow the point of information to be asked, and then proceed to address the point. A speaker may address the point briefly and move on, choose to merge an answer into what they were going to say, or state that they will deal with this later on (in which case be sure you do!)

c) say something like “just a second”, or “when I finish this point”, and then yield the floor when they have finished their sentence or thought.

It is expected that each debater will accept at least two POI’s during his/her remarks. Each debater on the opposing team should offer, at least, two POI’s to the debater delivering the speech. Adjudicators are instructed to penalize teams if the lower limits are not attained! How well a debater handles themselves in the rough and tumble of offering and accepting POI’s is key in this style of debate.

**Evaluation**

The ballot for this style of debate contains the following criteria: Content & Evidence, Argument & Reasoning, Organization, Presentation & Delivery, Refutation & Rebuttal. While points of information do not get marks on
their own, they are weighted, perhaps significantly, in a judge’s decision. Judges are encouraged to score holistically and award a final score that makes sense in both absolute and relative terms. The win-loss is critical, and judges must weigh this very carefully in their adjudication.

**Standings**
The standings are based primarily on win-loss. More details are available in the Senior Nationals Constitution.

**Other Points**
Points of order, points of personal privilege and heckling are all prohibited.

See the Ontario Student Debate Union website at www.osdu.oise.utoronto.ca for scripts, scoring guidelines and ballots.
"Step by Step" Checklist for National Style (Case line & Global Clash)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Proposition Constructive Checklist</th>
<th>Second Opposition Constructive Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Define the terms</td>
<td>1. Introduce one or two constructive arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establish the case line</td>
<td>2. Clash with the new constructive matter presented by the second proposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Present two or three constructive arguments.</td>
<td>4. DO NOT engage in an overall summary/rebuttal of the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Make the team’s approach crystal clear.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Opposition Constructive Speech</th>
<th>First Opposition Summary/Rebuttal Followed by First Proposition Summary/Rebuttal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Must clash with the points just made by the first proposition</td>
<td>1. Summarize the key themes or ideas that have taken place in the debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Advance the case line</td>
<td>2. Put the debate in context and explain the ‘crux’, or the internal logic of both cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Advance the case division</td>
<td>3. Explain why, on this basis, your team has to win.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Present the first two arguments of the opposition side. (Constructive argumentation or refutation may be done first, and once again, the judges will consider the effectiveness of the strategy chosen.)</td>
<td>4. Examine and summarize the arguments presented,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Focus on the major areas of contention that evolved during the round.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Final opportunity for a team to convince the judge why their team has won the round.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. No new information is to be presented in this speech.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Proposition Constructive Speech</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Clash with the case presented by the first opposition speaker</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Advance one or two more constructive arguments for the proposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Rebuild the proposition case.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All Debaters
Each debater should offer at least one POI per speaker and accept at least one POI from each speaker. The first and last minute of each speech is protected time. There are no POIs in the Rebuttal/Reply speeches.
Unit 14
Worlds Style

**Objective**

To acquaint the debater with those procedures and terms unique to the Worlds Style of debate.

World’s style is the culmination of all the previous debating skills discussed in this guide. It is a true test of a debater’s ability to build cases, support a case line, handle questions, deconstruct and refute, logically analyze a debate and summarize and reply, all within specific time parameters.

**Instructor**

All debaters should try World’s style at least once. Ambitious debaters should begin preparing for the Worlds try-outs at least by Grade 8. SEDA’s board selects promising students in Grade 9, 10 and 11 to go. These students must demonstrate skills that the Team Canada committee is looking for.

**Introduction**

A Modest Précis re: Worlds Style Debating
By: Harold Kyte

1) Worlds style debating differs from Parliamentary debating significantly even though the format appears, at first blush, to be similar. There are two sides (called proposition and opposition) and three debaters per side. The proposition advances definitions and a case with three arguments. The proposition speaks last. Rebuttal takes place.

2) The differences are, however, much more striking than the similarities. The burden of proof, while real, is much less significant than in parliamentary debating:

   a) In worlds style, both sides present a case line and (usually) three arguments.
   
   b) There are two (count ‘em) two cases on the floor – The most compelling case wins. There are no ties and the proposition does not carry a significant burden. In practice, if the proposition makes a clear and prima facie case in the first speech, they have fully discharged the burden of proof.
   
   c) The debate is concluded by the reply speeches (not rebuttals) – starting with the opposition team. The first or second speaker per side will deliver the reply speech. The reply speech is not a rebuttal - but an attempt to put the arguments in a proper context by outlining the underlying logic of each case line.

3) Each speaker has 8 minutes to accomplish different tasks.

   a) The first proposition speaker has to define the terms – always straight (no squirreling) – and to establish the case line and to give the case division (who covers what points) – normally the first speaker deals with arguments 1 and 2 while the second speaker covers the 3rd argument. The point is that the first speaker must make the team’s approach crystal clear.
b) The first opposition speaker must allow only two minutes to clash with the points just made by the first proposition and use six minutes to advance the case line, case division and the first two arguments of the opposition side. This is critical.

c) The second proposition has two to three minutes to clash with the opposition case and to use five or six minutes to finish the proposition arguments. This is critical.

d) The second opposition has to use four minutes to clash and four minutes to finish the opposition case. This is critical.

e) The third proposition will use two minutes to summarize and rebuild the proposition’s case and six minutes to give the rebuttal. This is critical.

f) The third opposition will use one minute to rebuild and seven minutes to rebut. This is critical.

g) The opposition (first or second speaker) gives a four-minute reply speech. The reply speech is distinct from the just-completed rebuttal. It demonstrates an alteration in mood and power. The reply speaker tries to put the debate in context. The debater explains the ‘crux,’ or the internal logic of both cases and explains why, on this basis, the opposition has to win.

h) The first or second proposition debater gives the reply speech. This is the concluding speech in the debate.

4) Each debater (with the exception of the reply speeches) will be subjected to points of information (POI’s) in the middle six minutes of their speeches – the first and last minute being ‘protected time.’ It is expected that each debater will accept at least two POI’s during his/her remarks. Each debater on the opposing team should offer, at least, two POI’s to the debater delivering the speech. Adjudicators are instructed to deduct one or two marks if the lower limits are not attained!! How well a debater handles themselves in the rough and tumble of offering and accepting POI’s is key in world styles debate.

5) There are three adjudicators per debate.

6) Team standings are based on the win/lost record with the number of adjudicator ballots (number of judges voting for the team over the course of the competition) as the first tiebreaker. For example if two teams are tied with a 5 (wins) and 1 (loss) record over a six event tournament and the first team as received a total of 13 adjudicator ballots (out of a possible 15), and the second team has only 11 ballots, the first team is placed above the second. If the two teams are still tied, total points are used to decide their relative standing.

7) The marking scheme is: based on 100 per debater with effective (allowed) scores being between 60 and 80.

   a) The categories are presentation, content and strategy with 40 points for the first two and 20 for the last.

   b) Presentation is marked from a purely public speaking perspective: How did the debater actually deliver the speech? Was the tone correct? The rate of speech? The pitch? The pauses? The eye contact? The confidence? Etc. The presentation mark is between 24 and 32 with a score of 24 being very weak and a mark of 32 being spectacular.

   c) Content is also marked out of a possible 40 points. The content mark is scored as if the speech was submitted in essay form. It has everything to do with logic, preparation and analytic skill and has nothing to do with the presentation. A mark of 24 is indicative of very little success and the score of 32 is truly and unusually outstanding.

   d) Strategy is marked on 20 points with the range being between 12 and 16. Strategy refers to the success the debater has in clashing with the arguments of the opposing team. Has he/she thoroughly understood the presented arguments and have they...
responded effectively, logically and comprehensively in refutation.

e) The reply speech is, of course, also marked on presentation, content and strategy with the effective mark range between 12 and 16 for both presentation and content and between 6 and 8 for strategy. The reply speech is therefore marked out of 50 points - 20 points presentation, 20 for content and 10 for strategy.

Example of the worlds ballot:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Present.</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reply</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The team above would have scored 253 out of a possible 280. If this total exceeds the total for the opposing team, they are awarded the win. For the hypothetical debater referred to above, a 76 (out of a prefect 80) is considered a very good mark. A score of 68 is considered a relatively weak result. A mark of 73 is somewhat above average. The reply mark counts in terms of the team score but is not counted vis-a-vis the individual rankings since only some debaters will give these speeches in the course of a tournament.
"Step by Step" Checklist for World Style (Case line & Global Clash)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Proposition Constructive Checklist</th>
<th>Third Proposition Constructive Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Define the terms (always straight, no squirreling)</td>
<td>1. Use two minutes to summarize and rebuild the proposition’s case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establish the case line</td>
<td>2. Use six minutes to give the rebuttal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Give the case division (who covers what points – normally the first speaker deals with arguments 1 and 2 while the second speaker covers the 3rd argument)</td>
<td>3. This is critical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Must make the team’s approach crystal clear</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Opposition Constructive Speech</th>
<th>Third Opposition Constructive Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Must allow only two minutes to clash with the points just made by the first proposition</td>
<td>1. Use one minute to rebuild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Use six minutes to advance the case line, case division and the first two arguments of the opposition side</td>
<td>2. Use seven minutes to rebut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This is critical.</td>
<td>3. This is critical.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Proposition Constructive Speech</th>
<th>Opposition Reply Speech (Speech given by 1st or 2nd Opposition)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Use two to three minutes to clash with the opposition case</td>
<td>1. The reply speech is distinct from the just-completed rebuttal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Use five or six minutes to finish the proposition arguments</td>
<td>2. Demonstrate an alteration in mood and power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This is critical.</td>
<td>3. Put the debate in context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Explain the ‘crux’, or the internal logic of both cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Explain why, on this basis, the opposition has to win.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Opposition Constructive Speech</th>
<th>Proposition Reply Speech (Speech given by 1st or 2nd Proposition)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Use four minutes to clash</td>
<td>1. This is the concluding speech in the debater.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Use four minutes to finish the opposition case</td>
<td>2. Demonstrate an alteration in mood and power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This is critical.</td>
<td>3. Put the debate in context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Explain the ‘crux’, or the internal logic of both cases</td>
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<td>5. Explain why, on this basis, the proposition has to win.</td>
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<th>All Debaters</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Each debater should offer at least one to two POI per speaker and accept at least one POI from each speaker. The first and last minute of each speech is protected time. There are no POIs in the Reply speeches.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unit 15
Values & Impromptu Debate

**Objective**

| PART ONE | Values Debates
|-----------|------------------|
| PART TWO  | Preparing for Impromptu debates

**Instructor**

Debaters should spend considerable practice time brainstorming links and ensuring they will lead to debatable cases.

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**PART ONE**
**Values Debates**

**Values Debate** is one of the oldest forms of debate. It is a form of debate where the arguments revolve around a central debatable idea rather than a specific course of action. This central idea, or resolution, tends be structured as one of three types:

**Proposition of Value**

A resolution that discusses a statement based on the values of one group of people. “Software piracy is wrong” is a classic proposition of value. The resolution is structured so that the Affirmative has a clear position, but the negative has more flexibility.

**Proposition in Opposition**

A resolution that states two opposing viewpoints and rates one a superior to the other. For example “Multiculturalism is more important than unity” forces the Affirmative to argue that the value of multiculturalism and the Negative to uphold the value of assimilation.

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The crux of this style debate revolves around the word “more” and comparative value.

**General Proposition**

General proposition resolutions are used exclusively for values debate that is not prepared in advance (impromptu). Resolutions are typically general, and often quotations. A resolution like “Might makes right” is typical of this style of debate. This is the most difficult of the three styles because both sides have more challenging jobs. The affirmative must create a definition that links to the resolution then shift the debate to a topic that is debatable. The negative does not know what this will be in advance, and so must be prepared to debate anything. Please see the section on definition for further information.

**Policy Debate versus Values Debate**

In policy debate, the affirmative presents a concrete case, often involving needs for change, and always involving a plan (Needs-Plan Model). The Case line Model is most suited to Values debates, but can be used for Policy debates as well. The structure just needs to be modified slightly to include a Plan.
Although both policy and values debates discuss the motion that something is true or false, right or wrong, good or bad, etc., the policy related topics generally require that the Affirmative, in addition to proving that something is true, right, or good, etc., must present a plan so that we can all enjoy the benefits of the Affirmative’s beliefs.

In values debate, plans are not used. Rather both sides debate the merit of the resolution from a philosophical perspective. As a result, the burden of proof is different.

Since the affirmative is no longer required to suggest a significant change and formulate a plan, the affirmative team no longer has a more difficult job. The Negative cannot just base a case on refutation; it must also have a constructive case of its own.

The negative and affirmative must each make their own side into the most attractive position.

**Key Affirmative Questions:**
- Policy Debate: What is the problem and what specific steps will we use to solve it?
- Values Debate: What viewpoint is the best?

**Key Negative Questions:**
- Policy Debate: What is wrong with the affirmative case and why?
- Values Debate: What viewpoint is the best?

**PART TWO**

**Impromptu Debates**

**Preparing Impromptu debates**

Debaters may have anywhere from 10 minutes to an hour from when they hear a resolution in Impromptu values debate to when they must start debating. A good Affirmative team should spend at least half of that time preparing definitions. Coaches are not allowed to assist debaters with any preparation for the impromptu round.

Create a timeline based on your allotted time: 15, 30, 60 minutes, etc. and focus on time management! If you don’t know your partner (coordinate pairings), then spend a couple quick minutes finding out what interests and knowledge base you share in common.

**Impromptu prep steps & timeline for the Affirmative**
1. Brainstorm “spirit of the resolution” links & Select a link (1/8th time) or ask: “Why are we having this debate?”
2. Tighten your definitions & reframe the resolution to be similar to traditional resolutions (1/8th time) and / or develop your case line
3. Build your case & develop arguments (1/4th time)
4. Check to be sure there is an opposing side, build refutation & rebuttal, and questions (1/4th time)
5. Look at holes & create pre-emptive arguments (1/4th time)
(Know major principles of both sides)

**Impromptu prep steps & timeline for the Negative**
1. Brainstorm a list of possible “spirit of the resolution” links (1/2 time) or ask: “Why are we having this debate?”
2. Consider the major principles possibly represented by the “spirit”(1/8th time) or develop own opposing case line
3. Outline arguments (1/4th time)
4. Create possible questions (1/8th)

**1. Brainstorming**

Impromptu resolutions can be either straightforward, like “Be it resolved that schools adopt a zero tolerance policy towards bullies” or be a general statement like: “Be it resolved the cup runneth over”.

In the first example, the definitions are easy to determine and more time can be spent on developing the case arguments. In the second example, debaters must start by brainstorming and deciding what the phrase means (interpretation).

**General Proposition** resolutions are ones where a link is made between the statement in the resolution and the statement to be debated. For example, a resolution might be “It’s not easy being green”. The affirmative starts by thinking...
of logical interpretations of the word green, like jealous, rich, or environmentally conscious. Then they reword the resolution to make it into either a proposition of value or a proposition in opposition. The new wording might be something like “It is fiscally difficult (it’s not easy) for Canadian Companies to be Environmentally responsible (be green)”. This rewording is acceptable because there is a clear link to the original resolution, it is tightly defined, and there is a good opposing side.

Another example would be the Interpretation of “BIRT the cup runneth over”:

The phrase means that an object that holds other things is incapable of containing all of those things (literal meaning) or it means that we have so many great things we are overwhelmed (cultural meaning). Once the intent has been established, the next step is to determine what the words in the resolution will be linked to. Remember that the spirit of the definitions must be the same as the spirit of the original resolution.

Once the spirit of the resolution is defined, brainstorm links for the word "cup" and the phrase "runneth over"

“Cup” = government, school, world, country, army, parents, internet, students, policy, alcoholics . . .

“runneth over” = gone too far, overspent, stress levels, overworked, too much information, good luck, abundance, excess . . .

Sample links could include:

- BIRT our parents are over-stressed
- BIRT the internet has too much information
- BIRT students are overworked
- BIRT that the world has an abundance of resources

2. Definitions

The most difficult element of values debate to master is the creation of good definitions. In values debate, since the issue of “best” is often central, exactly what you are discussing is key. However, definitions are difficult to master, as the types of values debate require different types of definitions:

Propositions of Value and Propositions in Opposition require clear, tight definitions. A word like better might be defined as “superior to” in policy debate. In values debate, how it is superior must be built into the definitions. Better might be defined as “more likely to result in profit” or “less likely to result in loss of life”.

However, debaters cannot force their oppositions to deal with unfair definitions. Since the rules for these are the same in values and policy debates, debaters should carefully read the Rules section of this guide before proceeding with values debate.

As the Negative or Opposition, a team must record the exact wording of the definitions then check it against the rules to be sure it is fair. While debates about definition hurt everyone, the Negative must contest the definitions in the first negative speech if they will be contested at all.

Bad examples (truisms, unfair advantages and squirreling):

- BIRT alcoholics drink too much (true by definition)
- BIRT Saskatchewan adopt Daylight Savings Time (no relation to spirit)
- BIRT Canada develop a military defense shield (squirreled)

Please refer to all of SEDA’s General Rules of Debate, but specifically regarding Definitions, please refer to the following clauses:

a) Defining the resolution is the responsibility of the Affirmative team. The first speaker must reasonably define key words in the resolution.

b) The Affirmative shall not define the resolution in such a way as to give them a competitive advantage not inherent in the resolution. The definition must not be manipulated to produce a self-evident fact or something that is true by definition.

c) If the first Negative speaker believes that the first Affirmative speaker’s definitions are unreasonable or unfair he may challenge them and redefine the terms. Judges shall then
accept the definitions best supported by evidence and argumentation.

**Squirreling**

In Saskatchewan, Squirreling is defined as the act of taking a general proposition and fitting it to a case that was prepared in advance. Squirreling is not permitted in Saskatchewan. An example of Squirreling “BIRT we have sold our souls” would be if the affirmative ran the case: BIRT the government reduce our reliance on imprisonment (a topic from a couple years ago). It is a very difficult link from souls to imprisonment. Squirreled cases are often characterized by detailed and specific evidence on a topic, rather than broad general knowledge type evidence.

**Extreme** examples of squirreling can and should be called as rule violations. Further, the negative is always free to substitute its own definitions if they feel the definitions offered by the affirmative unfairly restrict the debate. The negative must clearly point out the fact they are making definitional challenges to their judges and the reasons why. Definitional debates are entirely possible, however these debates are generally uninteresting and usually turn out poorly. Usually, neither side knows how to continue or what definitions to use for the rest of the debate. Students using unfair and unworkable definitions usually end up losing the debate. Claims of squirreling or other definitional challenges are not to be used if the negative is “unprepared” for reasonably fair, but unexpected definitions.

### 3. Building a Case

All the suggested resolutions in the “cup runneth over” example work within the idea that something (the cup) has too much (runneth over). Once they have brainstormed possible links and developed a fair and debatable resolution, the affirmative then needs to build a case, developing three or four points, with philosophical statements and examples to back them up. In the example of students being overworked, the affirmative could point to the expectations of the number of courses students need to take, the workload in each, the expectation of being involved in extra-curricular activities, plus after school jobs.

Once the Negative hears the opening of the Affirmative case, they need to quickly decide what their case will be. Sometimes the resolution forces a position on the negative, in other resolutions the negative gets to chose a direction. Negative teams should use common arguments as the basis for their case when they are struggling. In the above example, it would then be the negative’s job to prove that students are not overworked, that this is a reasonable expectation, and that their “cups are not running over.”

**Proof**

The way argumentation is constructed in policy and values debate is different. In policy debate, the debater makes an argument, then gives a quotation or statistic to defend it. In values debate, the case often hinges on foundational arguments, ones that must be true for the case to be true, for example, a philosophical argument saying that all people are created equal to one another. Proof more often takes the form of rhetoric or philosophical quotations, examples and illustrations, rather than concrete figures.

### 4. Reviewing the case

The last two steps of the preparation are important to ensure that the case will be debatable and fair to the opposition. Each argument should be evaluated for possible attacks and the impact that will have on the case overall. Counter and supporting arguments should be prepared, as well as key questions that will prove key points of your case. Basically, ensure you have a strong case line and that all your arguments will support it.

**Summary of the Examples**

In the example “BIRT we have sold our souls”, the affirmative will have to brainstorm ideas for the phrases “we have sold” and “our souls”. They must keep in mind the common associations with these phrases and the intent of the resolution, which is the giving up of
something of value. Since this is a values topic, both sides will argue the question, “What viewpoint is the best?” Proof includes philosophical arguments and often takes the form of rhetoric or philosophical quotations. The negative needs to brainstorm possible ideas they may be confronted with, and prepare evidence that builds several possible cases within the intent of the resolution. The spirit of this resolution requires the affirmative to prove that a) we have received something (the word sold implies a trade of goods or money) and b) we traded something for it that was bad (ethically or morally) to give up. The affirmative must define who we is, what sold means and what souls are.

In the example, “It is not easy being green”, the Prime Minister’s Speech might start out with:

“Madame Speaker. Throughout the world, there is growing pressure on us all to consider the environmental impact of our actions. When we on side Government hear that it is not easy being green, we agree. Green, of course, is being environmentally responsible, and that is the direction this debate will take. We define “it’s not easy” to mean it is fiscally difficult, and “green” to be environmentally responsible. In specific, we would like to look at Canadian companies. We contend that it is very difficult for Canadian companies to be green given the current climate, and that this responsibility must rest with individual consumers.”

In this example, the Prime Minister has changed a general proposition into a proposition in opposition and can now start building the case.
Helpful Hints on Resolutions

There are debate topics appropriate to every occasion. Some are serious, some are not; and even topics apparently serious can be humorously treated in the right (or wrong) hands. Correspondingly, an apparently frivolous topic can be rendered concrete by appropriate definition.

The Coaching manual has an extensive list or resolutions that attempts to provide examples of all sorts of resolutions. Regard the list as a starting point, not the end of your search: students prefer to debate topics they are personally interested in. Far better the list suggest a way of using a topic you want than that you feel obliged to use a listed topic you don’t want.

Let me say a preliminary word about drafting resolutions and general purpose "generic" resolutions.

The first convention is that resolutions should be worded affirmatively, and the second is that they should propose a change in the status quo (if they are resolutions of policy). These conventions are born of good sense: an affirmative wording is simpler and less ambiguous than a negative one, and a proposal for change allows issues to be talked about in a logical order. (If the affirmative defends the status quo, we then have the awkward situation where the first speaker must construct a "straw" list of reasons why the status quo might be changed and argue against them.)

It is also a convention that resolutions for Parliamentary debates be propositions of policy: in other words, the Government team must present a detailed Plan for their course of action. So, for example, in a debate on unemployment, the Government has an obligation to explain at what cost and by what means it proposes to reduce unemployment. The Opposition can win the debate, although agreeing that unemployment should be reduced, by disagreeing with the Government Plan. The resolution in a Parliamentary debate will often take the form "Be it resolved that the Government take greater steps to ...[reduce unemployment]" Almost any resolution may be made into an appropriate resolution of policy by this or a similar wording.

Resolutions for other styles of debate may be propositions of Fact, Value or Policy. (Teams may wish to agree beforehand how they will proceed.)

Some of the best resolutions are "generic" resolutions - standard wordings into which you can incorporate a particular current topic. One standard one is to approve of a particular government policy: "Be it resolved that the government was correct in its decision to [invoke the War Measures Act; boycott the 1980 Olympic Games; abolish the Crow Rate; etc.]." A second standard wording considers items on the public agenda that are not yet decided: "Be it resolved that the government take steps to ... [state any item you wish legislated]."

A different sort of generic resolution is "Be it resolved that the two greatest problems facing Canada today are ..." Each team secretly chooses two different problems, which the moderator ensures are not duplicated by the other team. When the debate begins, each team learns (through the ordinary speeches) what problems the other team has chosen. In this debate, it is almost as if there were two affirmative teams: much emphasis is placed on clash and rebuttal. This is interesting to watch and an excellent training style of debate.

Resolutions are unlimited. Book, movie, game or song titles, or any topic in the news, in the classroom or general conversation can spark a resolution. Keep an ear tuned to what people are talking about and you’ll quickly generate your own list of resolutions!
# Unit 16
## Bilingual Debate/Débats Bilingues

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### Introduction

**Bilingual Debate: Why?**

Bilingual debate uses the same skills and formats of English or French debate, but offers debaters the extra challenge of strategic use of language.

Immersion students and Francophone students who are competent in the second language, but not necessarily completely fluent, find Bilingual debate an exciting format.

Bilingual debate enriches and enhances listening and speaking skills in the two languages.

Bilingual debate fosters cultural exchange and a sense of belonging to a bilingual Canada.

Bilingual debate offers Francophone and Anglophone debaters the opportunity to communicate with each other in French and English.

Bilingual debate communicates ideas and values in a uniquely Canadian way.

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**Le débat bilingue: pourquoi?**

Le débat bilingue utilise les mêmes habilités et formats que le débat en français ou en anglais, mais offre aux débuteurs le défi de l’utilisation stratégique de la langue.

Pour les étudiants en immersion et les francophones qui sont compétents dans leur deuxième langue, mais pas nécessairement totalement aisés, le débat bilingue est un format excitant.

Le débat bilingue enrichit et améliore le savoir écouter et le savoir parler dans les deux langues.

Le débat bilingue favorise l’échange culturel et le sentiment de faire partie d’un Canada bilingue.

Le débat bilingue offre aux débuteurs anglophones et francophones l’opportunité de communiquer entre eux en français et en anglais.

Le débat bilingue permet la communication des idées et des valeurs dans un format uniquement canadien.
a) All bilingual debates shall be governed by the SEDA Rules for Debate, including formats and speaking times, with the exceptions as noted in the following bilingual rules.

b) All participants, including the moderator, shall speak both English and French during the debate. The amounts of time to be spent in each language shall be prescribed by SEDA for each style of bilingual debating involved.

c) Although the minimum required time in the second language is 25%, judges tend to be more impressed by those who divide their time closer to 50/50.

d) In Bilingual Debate, both the English and French translations of the resolution, topic or question to be debated shall be simultaneously available to participants at the time of announcement of the resolution, topic or question.

e) As soon as the timing begins, the first member of the affirmative team will define the key terms of the resolution in both official languages.

f) In impromptu debate, if a link is made that relies on wordplay in one official language, that link should not be challenged on the grounds that the wordplay does not work in the other official language.

**Rules for Bilingual Discussion Debate**

a) Each debater shall speak both French and English in the course of his or her speech. If the debater’s principal language is English, at least 25% minimum of his or her speech shall be delivered in French, and vice versa. Debaters are encouraged to spend an equal amount of time in both languages.

b) A debater shall not continually switch from one language to another. He or she may choose when to switch to the second language, but this having been done, the debater must continue to speak the second language until the 25% minimum time has been spent.
c) The timekeeper shall keep a record of the time spent in each language. He or she will signal the debaters when the required time had been spent in each language, and if required, shall advise the judges if the required time was spent in each language.

d) The other language must be used for rebuttal speech. The entire official rebuttal shall be delivered in one language, subject to the right to introduce and quote material described in Bilingual Discussion Rule f).

e) During the discussion period, questions may be asked in either French or English, but they must be answered in the language in which they are asked. The debaters may use both French and English during the discussion period, but individual questions shall be asked entirely in one language or the other.

f) Provided the 25% second language requirement is otherwise met, debaters may introduce and quote material in either language during the debate, notwithstanding Bilingual Discussion Rules a) and b).

Rules for Bilingual Cross-Examination Debate

a) Each debater shall speak both French and English in the course of his or her speech. If the debater’s principal language is English, at least 25% minimum of his or her speech shall be delivered in French, and vice versa. Debaters are encouraged to spend an equal amount of time in both languages.

b) A debater shall not continually switch from one language to another. He or she may choose when to switch to the second language, but this having been done, the debater must continue to speak the second language until the 25% minimum time has been spent.

c) The timekeeper shall keep a record of the time spent in each language. He or she will signal the debaters when the required time had been spent in each language, and if required, shall advise the judges if the required time was spent in each language.
d) The other language must be used for rebuttal speech. The entire official rebuttal shall be delivered in one language, subject to the right to introduce and quote material described in Bilingual Cross-Examination Rule f).

e) During periods of cross-examination, questions may be asked in either French or English, but they must be answered in the language in which they are asked. The examiner may use both French and English during the period of cross-examination, but individual questions shall be asked entirely in one language or the other.

f) Provided the 25% second language requirement is otherwise met, debaters may introduce and quote material in either language during the debate, notwithstanding Bilingual Cross-Examination Rules a) and b).

Rules for Bilingual Parliamentary Debate

a) Each debater shall speak both French and English in the course of his or her speech. If the debater’s principal language is English, at least 25% minimum of his or her speech shall be delivered in French, and vice versa. Debaters are encouraged to spend an equal amount of time in both languages.

b) A debater shall not continually switch from one language to another. He or she may choose when to switch to the second language, but this having been done, the debater must continue to speak the second language until the 25% minimum time has been spent.

c) The timekeeper shall keep a record of the time spent in each language. He or she will signal the debaters when the required time had been spent in each language, and if required by the Speaker, shall advise the judges if the required time was spent in each language.

d) The Prime Minister may deliver his or her constructive speech entirely in one language and the official rebuttal in the other if, in doing so, the 25% second language requirement has been met.

d) La réfutation officielle au complet doit se faire dans l’autre langue. Seules les citations sont permises dans les deux langues.

e) Pendant le contre-interrogatoire, l’interrogateur peut questionner dans une langue ou l’autre et le témoin doit répondre dans la langue employée pour poser la question. Chaque question doit être posée dans une seule langue.

f) Si le critère de 25% est respecté dans l’ensemble du discours, l’orateur peut citer et présenter des preuves dans une langue ou l’autre, en dépit des règles a) et b) des débats contre-interrogatoire bilingues.

Règles des débats parlementaires bilingues

a) Chaque orateur s’adressera en français et en anglais au cours de son discours. Si la langue maternelle de l’orateur est l’anglais, au moins 25% de son discours doit être présenté en français et vice versa. On encourage les orateurs à partager leur discours également entre le français et l’anglais.

b) Un orateur ne doit pas changer continuellement d’une langue à l’autre. Il doit choisir quand il changera et, après l’avoir fait, continuer de parler dans cette deuxième langue jusqu’à ce qu’il ait atteint le minimum de 25%.

c) Le chronométreur notera le temps qu’un orateur accorde à chacune des deux langues. Il fera signe à l’orateur quand ce dernier aura atteint le minimum de temps requis dans chaque langue et, si le président le lui demande, il signalera aux juges si le temps requis dans chaque langue a été respecté.

d) Le Premier ministre peut présenter son discours constructif entièrement dans une langue et sa réfutation officielle dans l’autre si en ce faisant il respecte le critère de 25%.
e) All formal interruptions of the debate as well as heckling may be in either language.

f) Provided the 25% second language requirement is otherwise met, debaters may introduce and quote material in either language during the debate, notwithstanding Bilingual Parliamentary Rules a) and b).

**Judging**

**Use of Second Language**

a) Does the debater speak in his/her second language for the required amount of time?

b) Disregarding the debater’s accent, is he or she fluent enough in the second language to communicate clearly and to follow the debate intelligently?

**Pour les juges**

**Emploi de Langue Seconde**

a) Le participant utilise-t-il la langue seconde pendant la durée fixée?

b) Maitrise-t-il suffisamment la langue seconde pour communiquer intelligemment et suivre le débat? (sans tenir compte de son accent).
Helpful Hints on Mannerisms

Bilingual debate is very much about strategy, but presentation plays an important role in all debates. The following are good and bad habits to watch out for!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bad habits</th>
<th>Good habits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leaning on desk</td>
<td>Standing firmly on both feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slouching</td>
<td>Standing straight and tall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hands in pockets</td>
<td>Hands comfortably by your sides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacing around</td>
<td>Meaningful movement and use of space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetitive hand gestures</td>
<td>Hand gestures used to make a point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unconscious habits (pens, hair, etc.)</td>
<td>No distracting gestures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wearing caps, untidy clothes, etc</td>
<td>Clothes tidy and dressed appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chewing gum</td>
<td>No gum or candies in mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mumbling</td>
<td>Speak clearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giggling</td>
<td>Keep your composure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looking down or away from audience</td>
<td>Maintain eye contact, look over group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading the whole speech</td>
<td>Gauge audience response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holding a large paper in front of face</td>
<td>Use small cue cards or know your material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring the audience</td>
<td>Rhetorical questions engage the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking too quietly, too loudly or monotone</td>
<td>Vary volume and tone for emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking too fast, not pausing for breath</td>
<td>Pause for emphasis, vary speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rambling, disjointed speech</td>
<td>Clear introduction, vary speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trailing off at the end, sitting abruptly</td>
<td>Strong finish leaving a good impression</td>
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**Bad gestures:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bad gestures</th>
<th>Good gestures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wagging the forefinger</td>
<td>Folding the arms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointing the forefinger</td>
<td>Gripping or pounding the table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stabbing the forefinger</td>
<td>Hands in pockets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising the forefinger aloft</td>
<td>Removing glasses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sawing the air (cleave, rend, chop, pummel, part, grasp, knead, compress, mould, tie, lift, smooth...)</td>
<td>Blessings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clenching or balling the fist</td>
<td>Laying right hand on heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising both fists</td>
<td>Loosening tie, playing with clothing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stretching arms wide</td>
<td>Scratching head or other parts of body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thumbs up sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Touching your nose</td>
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## STEP FOUR

### STEP FOUR – Attending a Debate

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General Rules of Debate

1) Definitions

a) Defining the resolution is the responsibility of the Affirmative team. The first speaker must reasonably define key words in the resolution.

b) The Affirmative shall not define the resolution in such a way as to give them a competitive advantage not inherent in the resolution. The definition must not be manipulated to produce a self-evident fact or something that is true by definition.

c) If the first Affirmative speaker fails to define the resolution he must accept any reasonable definitions proposed by the first Negative speaker. If the first and second speakers fail to define the terms, the right to define falls to the remaining speakers in turn.

d) If the first Negative speaker believes that the first Affirmative speaker’s definitions are unreasonable or unfair he may challenge them and redefine the terms. Judges shall then accept the definitions best supported by evidence and argumentation.

e) If there is no other clash between Affirmative and Negative cases, the debate must be decided solely on the issue of the interpretation of terms.

2) Evidence

a) Assertions of fact by debaters must be accurate and should be supported by proof. Debaters must be prepared to cite specific authority.

b) Debaters may introduce any visual aids and tangible evidence they desire; such evidence then becomes available for use by their opponents.

c) Except for reasonable role-playing purposes, all assertions of fact by debaters must be accurate and debaters must be prepared to cite specific authority (publication, page, author, date, etc.). The actual publication or at least a copy of that page must be available. It is the opponents’ prerogative to examine evidence, if they so desire.
d) Interviews may be introduced as evidence if the debater has with him a transcript signed by the interviewee.

e) Letters from experts may be used as evidence and must be available to the opposing team.

f) Evidence must not be fabricated, misquoted, distorted or quoted out of context.

g) If a judge suspects that evidence is inaccurate he may request full documentation at the end of the debate, before rendering a decision. Judges should penalize debaters severely for using inaccurate evidence.

h) If a judge is certain that a debater has deliberately fabricated or falsified evidence he should report this to the tournament host immediately. A debater guilty of fabrication or falsification of evidence becomes ineligible to win any prize or distinction at the tournament.

i) In SEDA impromptu debates, debaters are not allowed to refer to any published or printed materials to assist them with preparation, with the exception of a print dictionary and an almanac. (Note: if SEDA provides background material prior to the tournament, it can not be brought into the impromptu prep period)

3) Team obligations and rights

a) Right to speak

The moderator (or in Parliamentary style, the Speaker) grants the right to speak by introducing a debater. Once gaining the floor, a debater is obliged to surrender it only when ordered to do so by the moderator or timekeeper.

b) Delivery

i) Debaters shall stand to deliver all speeches and while asking and answering questions in cross-examination debate. In discussion style, all debaters remain seated during the discussion period.

ii) Debaters must not read their speeches, though they may make reasonable reference to notes and may read quotations. Judges should penalize debaters for excessive reading, and for memorization which results in stilted or unnatural delivery.

c) Forms of address

i) Debaters need not engage in formal or elaborate forms of address except in Parliamentary style.

ii) Debaters must refer to one another in the third person (for example, my worthy opponent).

d) Refutation

i) In these rules “refutation” means attacking the opposing arguments and evidence and defending one’s own arguments and evidence.

ii) Refutation is not restricted to the official rebuttal period. The Affirmative must not wait until the official rebuttal to respond to important opposition points in the debate.

iii) The functions of refutation and defence shall be divided among the members of each team. All debaters must attack the opponent’s case while developing their own. Judges will score debaters on how well they discharge their respective responsibilities.

iv) No new constructive arguments or evidence may be introduced during an official rebuttal except that the Affirmative may respond to new arguments or evidence introduced during the second Negative constructive speech.

v) The Negative team’s primary duty is to clash directly with Affirmative arguments. Judges should severely penalize debaters in the refutation category who rely heavily upon prepared negative speeches rather than direct refutation.
e) **Rule violations**

Except in Parliamentary style debate, following the rebuttals, both teams are given the opportunity to register rule violations by their opponents. Each team is allowed to speak once, debate is not allowed and each alleged violation must refer to a specific rule. Judges must determine whether the alleged infraction is legitimate, how serious it is and what penalty (if any) is appropriate.

4) **Conduct**

a) Debaters should always conduct themselves with dignity and be courteous towards everyone present. They should not make personal comments about their opponents. Judges should penalize debaters guilty of any attempt to personally belittle another debater. The moderator should try to protect debaters from abuse.

b) Debaters must not disturb a speaker with interruptions or distractions such as loud whispering, shuffling papers etc.

c) Debaters must use appropriate language.

d) Debaters should not try to unduly influence judges.

e) Debaters may speak on any relevant topic but should not be obscene, blasphemous or defamatory.

f) Debaters may not communicate with or prompt colleagues in any way while one of them is speaking nor shall a speaker consult them for assistance, but they may consult with one another quietly while an opposing speaker delivers his speech.

g) At a tournament, debaters and coaches must not attend debates involving potential opponents to gain a competitive advantage. Coaches may observe their own teams debate.

h) A team must not seek information regarding the case of potential opponents.

i) No ostensible signs of school affiliations are allowed in a debate room.
Helpful Hints for Debaters

1. Communicate an attitude of confidence, without appearing snobbish. Be poised, friendly, courteous and assertive. Even in a heated clash, never stoop to sarcasm or shouting. Be sincerely aroused, but keep in control. Have a good command of the language; a good vocabulary is important, but make sure you can understand and properly pronounce the words you use. Though you can refer to some notes, don’t ever read your speech.

2. When you speak, rise and stand in a comfortable spot on your side of the room, or in front of a podium if one is provided. Maintain an alert posture; avoid leaning on a table or desk and keep your hands out of your pockets and belt loops. Never cross in front or behind the speaker and/or moderator or the opposing team.

3. Maintain self-control; be firm but flexible, exhibit no anger though be unafraid to stand up to face your opponents vigorously and forcefully. Retain a sense of humour without trying to be a comedian.

4. Don’t do anything that will distract you or the judges, such as playing with your hair, jewellery, etc. Never wear a hat during a debate (unless it’s for religious custom). Look “presentable” as you are trying to impress the judges.

5. If you get flustered, stop, compose yourself, take a deep breath and start your sentence over again. Avoid nervous giggling by taking a deep breath as well. When in doubt about what you are doing, repeat the resolution or resume what you have said. Don’t have “dead space” in your delivery, causing the judges to wait and wonder if you have anything else to say. If you are finished, then repeat the resolution to conclude your speech and sit down.

6. Avoid using words and phrases such as: “um,” “OK”, “you know”, “like, uh”, “etceteras”, “and so forth”, “and lots more.” If you think there are more reasons, state them; do not use vague statements. And don’t read your speech.

7. Though you will be addressing the speaker, maintain eye contact with the judges when you speak, NOT the opposition. Remember not only are you unable to convince your opponents, you don’t even want to – it’s the judges who are marking you - convince them.

8. Don’t be afraid to heckle a bit during a parliamentary debate. Keep it short, tactful and preferably humourous. Don’t get distracted or flustered if you are heckled. Continue your speech and ignore the heckle. NEVER respond to your opposition’s heckles or questions; in fact, don’t ever acknowledge them during your speech.

9. Always remember that you and your partner are a team, and must support each other. Refer to each other’s remarks. Don’t talk or whisper to each other during an opponent’s speech. If it is necessary, discreetly pass notes.

10. Never admit that you are wrong about something (unless you misspoke yourself) that would contradict your standpoint. By seeming uncertain, judges will doubt your credibility and penalize you.

11. Don’t worry about pointing out the blatantly obvious. No matter how silly it may seem to you, the judges may not have realized or even considered it. This could score you an extra point or two, but it could also not hurt you.

12. Be organized. Know what you want to say, how you want to say it and in what order you want to say it. Don’t shuffle papers around looking for a particular item to discuss. For fewer papers, write points (not sentences) on small index cards. Take notes during all speeches by your opponents to help you in developing your rebuttal and cross-examination questions.

13. After a debate is over, teams traditionally rise, meet in the centre and shake hands with their opponents.

~ Adapted from the paper by Doug Clarke for Alberta Debate and Speech Association, on the CSDF web site
Unit 18
Choosing a Debate Category

**Objective**
To familiarize debaters and coaches with the categories and styles.

Select a category based on your grade, skill and experience. They are designed to have fairly matched debaters competing against each other. Your selection will determine the styles you debate and the opportunities for advancement. Junior Nationals is generally just for Gr. 9 students, unless one partner is younger. Experienced Gr. 9 debaters going into Gr. 10 can compete in either Novice or open.

**Instructor**
Help debaters choose the correct category and prepare for the right style.

All debaters must select a category to compete in, at the beginning of the Tournament season. The categories are based on a combination of grade and experience. Debaters and coaches must choose carefully. Once a debater has entered a tournament in one category, they cannot move back to a lower category. They must also compete in the same category twice to qualify for Provincials.

Debaters will move up a category when a partner is needed or if they feel their skill and experience level is sufficient to try something more challenging. Coaches are to contact SEDA in extreme situations. The first chart shows the styles of debate used at each tournament, by debaters in each category. The second chart shows the opportunities open to debaters in those categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category/Style</th>
<th>Tournament 1</th>
<th>Tournament 2</th>
<th>Tournament 3</th>
<th>Tournament 4</th>
<th>Provincials</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginner Gr. 5-6</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intermediate Gr. 7-8</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>Junior Gr. 9</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Cross-Ex</td>
<td>Cross-Ex</td>
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<tr>
<td>Novice Gr. 10-12</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Cross-Ex</td>
<td>Cross-Ex</td>
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<td>Parliamentary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Gr. 10-12</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Cross-Ex</td>
<td>Parliamentary</td>
<td>Parliamentary</td>
<td>Parliamentary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Opportunities for SEDA Debaters  
(please see Constitution & Policy Manual for details)

**Beginners**  
**Grade 5-6**  
Weekend workshop  
One-day workshops  
Tournaments  
*Provincials  
Summer Camp

**Intermediate**  
**Grade 7**  
Weekend workshop  
One-day workshops  
Tournaments  
*Provincials  
Summer Camp

**Intermediate**  
**Grade 8**  
Weekend workshop  
One-day workshops  
Tournaments/Worlds  
Tryouts  
*Provincials  
Debate Camp  
Summer Camp

**Junior**  
**Grade 9**  
Summer Day Camp  
Weekend/One-day/Advanced workshop  
Tournaments / Pro-Am & *Provincials  
Model Legislature  
Junior Nationals (3 teams)  
Oxford Cup / Worlds (Team Canada) tryouts

**Novice**  
**Grade 10 (experienced)**  
**Grade 10, 11, 12 (no experience)**  
Summer Day Camp / Weekend workshops  
One-day workshops / Advanced workshops  
Tournaments / Westerns  
Oxford Cup / Worlds (Team Canada) tryouts  
Pro-Am / *Provincials / Nationals  
Model Legislature / Mock Trials  
MUNA

**Open**  
**Grade 10, 11, 12 (experienced)**  
Summer Day Camp / Weekend workshops  
One-day workshops / Advanced workshops  
*Tournaments / Pro-Am / *Provincials  
Bilingual & French Debate (French Senior)  
Oxford Cup / Worlds (Team Canada) tryouts  
National High School Debate Championships (top two teams)  
Speech Nationals (1 North, 1 South)  
Model Legislature / Mock Trials / MUNA  
National Seminar (1 English/4 regions, 2 French, 2 bilingual)  
*Canada Day Televised Final (1 North team, 1 South team)*  
(other National Invitationals on their own!)

*Both Speech & Debate  
Provincials*
Unit 19
Winning a Debate

**Objective**

The objective of this unit is to prepare debaters to be judged.

In this unit you will find the criteria used by judges to score debaters and to select a winner. Debaters need to tell judges why they should win!

**Instructor**

When critiquing practice debates, select a couple of the judging criteria to focus on, and help debaters improve in one or two specific areas.

What Judges are looking for

We all know that judging is highly subjective. The best SEDA can do is set criteria for the judges to base their decisions on and hope that the judges put aside their biases and use the guides provided. Every debate is a learning experience. Use the judges’ comments and your scores to continue to improve your performance.

So, how does a judge pick the winning team? How do they decide on a speaker score? And what can you as a debater do to ensure you receive the best mark?

Be familiar with what the judges are looking for!

In your debate, *show and tell* the judges that you have met or exceeded the criteria for winning the debate and for receiving a high speaker score. Of course, it is not enough to tell them why you deserve to win, you must actually present a debate that achieves all the criteria.

Judges are looking for a winning team that:

- presented a clear main point with supporting arguments and evidence
- logically supported their case
- rebuilt their own ideas that the opponents attacked
- deconstructed specific arguments of the opponents’ case (direct clash)
- attacked the basic premise of the opponents’ case (global clash)
- identified and attacked the assumptions of the opponents’ case
- identified and attacked the logical inconsistencies of the opponents’ case
- presented their ideas clearly, effectively and persuasively
- clarified the crux of the debate and what it was really about

A good debater shows an understanding of opponents’ cases, identifies relevant and irrelevant points, summarizes and synthesizes the cases, uses direct, global and case line clash to refute all critical points, summarizes key themes and points out logical weaknesses.

Judges are also marking individual speakers in five categories. Each category has a rubric out of 5 marks. Debaters must achieve all the standards of each mark in order to receive that grade.
Ballot Categories

**Arguments & Evidence:**
- 5 understands all aspects of the issue and excellent research and clear logic shown;
- 4 understands both sides of issues well and presents effective evidence, with considerable logic shown;
- 3 understands one side of the issue well and uses some evidence to substantiate the case;
- 2 some logic and research evident;
- 0/1 case is incoherent or research is absent, said nothing or was offensive

**Case development and structure:**
- 5 ideas are cleverly organized, effectively sequentialized and designed to develop a central thesis of the debate. The case is well coordinated with the partner’s speeches and there is a naturally persuasive flow to the case as a whole;
- 4 Ideas are well organized, deliberately sequenced and related to a main point. The contentions of the debater are consistent with the partner;
- 3 Ideas are loosely organized and relate to the resolution;
- 2 ideas are stated but not related and may be contradictory a times;
- 0/1 ideas are confused, scattered or non-existent, said nothing or was offensive

**Deconstruction:**
- 5 demonstrates seamless integration of appropriate methods;
- 4 clashes with a variety of methods but does not summarize;
- 3 some variety of clash; attempts summary;
- 2 clashes directly with some critical points;
- 0/1 no relevant clash or understanding of opponents; said nothing or was offensive

**Delivery:**
- 5 persuasive, memorable, effective use of voice and body;
- 4 good pace, tone eye contact, does not rely solely on notes, fairly persuasive;
- 3 Delivery flaws in pace, tone and diction which reduce persuasiveness, reads notes; 2-uncomfortable, lacks confidence, reads entire speech;
- 0/1 delivery is offensive or non-existent

**Style:** give one point for each demonstrated:

**Discussion:**
- concise and well thought out questions and answers;
- obeys rules of discussion period (no new contentions, etc.);
- avoids making speeches;
- participates effectively (asks and answers questions equally with partner);
- courteous and appropriate

**Cross-Ex:**
- gives concise, well worded questions and answers;
- obeys the rules of cross-examination;
- anticipates the significance of questions and builds lines of questions;
- the cross-ex period is related to the entire debate;
- is courteous and appropriate as both the examiner and witness

**Parliamentary:**
- knows when to interrupt with questions, points of order & privilege;
- is actively engaged throughout the entire debate;
- uses parliamentary tools to persuade (language, address, rules, etc.);
- uses heckles appropriately and effectively (brief, witty and to the point);
- is respectful of their partner, their opponents, the Speaker, and the House

**National:**
- questions and answers are concise and well-thought out;
- obeys the rules of National style (protected time, etc.);
- anticipates and understands the significance of questions;
- actively engaged throughout the debate (asks and accepts at least 1-2 questions);
- all questions and answers are related to important issues in the debate
Unit 20
How To Run a Debate

Objective

The objective of this unit is to prepare students to conduct a debate.

Instructor

The object of all debate instruction is ultimately to become involved in debating. As with many skills, proficiency only comes with practice. Many teachers have students research and participate in a debate as an alternative to a term paper or as part of a term’s work.

Schools involved in extra-curricular debating are encouraged to host a tournament. Complete details can be found in the Debate Tournament Host Guide, available from the SEDA office.

Debate Layout

The layout of a debate was covered in Unit 1, Part Two: The Physical Layout of a debate, found on page 9.

Scripts

Chairperson/Speaker scripts for the Discussion, Cross-Examination and Parliamentary styles can be found on SEDA’s web site at www.saskdebate.com.

Judging & Ballots

There should always be an odd number of judges, preferably three or five. Judges must not discuss their decision until all judges have recorded their decision on their ballot. Judges’ decisions should be based on which team best met its obligations through case advancement, argumentation, evidence, and refutation.

Criteria for judging is discussed in Unit 19, Winning a Debate.

Judges will need to flow sheet to keep track of the debate to help reach a decision. A flow sheet is built into the ballot to record the debaters’ comments, responses, evidence, questions and answers. Copies of the Discussion, Cross-Examination and Parliamentary ballots can be found on SEDA’s web site at www.saskdebate.com.

In the event that the teams are evenly matched, then the judge should rank the team with the highest combined individual evaluations as the winner. There is a section on the ballot for individual speaker evaluations. Regardless of how the judges reach their decision, individual evaluations should be filled in.
Unit 21
British Parliamentary Debate

Objective
To acquaint the debater with those procedures and terms unique to the British Parliamentary format of debate.

This section covers the purpose of each speaker, and stylistic conventions specific to the British Parliamentary format: four teams, POIs, and knifing.

Instructor
Each debater in British Parliamentary style has very specific duties to fulfill, but the debate basics of case construction, deconstruction and summary/reply still apply.

SEDAC Constitution and Policy Manual does not yet have detailed rules on British Parliamentary debate.

INTRODUCTION
How the Round Runs
There are four teams of two in a British Parliamentary round, the 1st proposition (prime minister and deputy prime minister), 1st opposition (leader of opposition and deputy leader of opposition), 2nd proposition (member of government and government whip), and 2nd opposition (member of opposition and opposition whip).

Each team must support the other team on their side (i.e. 2P cannot contradict 1P) while distinguishing itself as the best team on that side, while deconstructing arguments from the other side (the opposition teams).

The teams speak in order (1P/1O/2P/2O) with the front half teams setting up the debate, and the back half teams ‘extending’ and summarizing the debate.

Each speech is 5 or 7 minutes long.

Complexity of the Round
With four teams instead of two, the round becomes much more complicated and much more difficult to judge.

You’ll notice that a lot of the speakers have some sort of summary role within their speech: this is necessary to help simplify the inherently complex round.

Each team usually tries to identify itself with some broad theme to help them stick out among all the other things in the judges’ minds.

Judges will rank teams from 1 to 4, so there are 24 different outcomes for each round instead of the 2 outcomes for each round in CP.

Therefore, judges often look for easy ways to make their decisions, which means there are some things you should avoid.
Ways to Lose

‘Knifing’ (contradicting) your corresponding front-half team as a back half team is often considered an automatic loss. You can’t disagree with them or change their case significantly.

Setting up a messy debate or over-interpreting the resolution as the 1P team will often cause you to lose, so make sure your case/model is clear, and the debate you want to have is understood by each other team.

Introducing no extension or a poor/irrelevant extension as a back half team will give judges good reason to drop you. A good extension introduces new arguments, shifts the focus of the debate, examines new case studies, or significantly develops a previously underdeveloped point.

How to Win

Unlike in CP debate, it isn’t enough to just have the best arguments in the round (although it is very important), you also have to fulfill your role as a team.

1P should be able to set up a good debate, defeat the 1O team in argumentation, restrict the 2P team by covering all the relevant arguments, and stay in the round with good arguments and POIs.

1O should defeat the 1P team in argumentation, restrict the 2O team by covering all the relevant arguments, and stay in the round with good arguments and POIs.

2P should defeat the 2O (and 1O) team in argumentation, present an extension that is stronger and more interesting than 1P’s case, be active (through POIs) early in the round, and summarize the round in prop’s favor (but 2P specifically).

2O should defeat the 2P (and 1P) team in argumentation, present an extension that is stronger and more interesting than 1O’s case, be active (through POIs) early in the round, and summarize the round in opp’s favor (but 2O specifically).

Most often, the teams that best meet their position’s specific criteria do better in the round and are ranked higher.

Other

POIs are allowed, just like in National style. The first and last minute of each speech are protected from POIs, and you can only ask POIs to teams on the other side of the house (i.e. 2P cannot ask questions to 1P).

You can always refuse POIs when speaking, but it is generally expected that you will accept two during your speech, and you should try to be strategic in who you accept POIs from.

Heckling is NEVER allowed… you’ll have to restrict yourself to non-verbal interjections (head shaking, expressions, quiet outrage, silent laughing, etc.).

Although specific knowledge is not allowed in CP rounds, not only is it allowed in BP rounds, but it is required in order to do well.

You can bring magazines, binders, notes, etc. with you to a tournament and quote them in the rounds, although a good understanding of world issues should be adequate for regional-level debates.

Preparing for a Round

In British Parliamentary, all of the teams in the round are given a straightforward topic 15 minutes before the round begins (e.g. THW ban cosmetic surgery).

Every team can prepare during this time, since they all know what the round will be about (unlike university Canadian Parliamentary, where only the government knows the topic for debate).

Resolutions cannot be ‘squirreled’ or interpreted in any way, they must be debated as presented, although the PM may impose a specific model for the resolution.

The front half teams can plan on using any arguments they prepare, but the back half teams will have to develop many lines of argumentation (since they can’t repeat the front half teams) and then pick the best one during the round.

Resources

Thank you to the University of Saskatchewan Debate Society for the information provided in this unit:

http://homepage.usask.ca/~ss_usdbs/module4.doc

Other resources on the internet can be found at:


http://www.albertadebate.com/adebate/resources/debate/Advanced_BP.ppt


http://cusid.ca/documents/guides/BPGuide.doc
"Step by Step" Checklist for British Parliamentary Style

| Prime Minister – 1st Proposition team (1P) | 1. Explain status quo  
| 2. Define case/model  
| 3. Construct arguments |
| Leader of the Opposition – 1st Opposition team (1O) | 1. Challenge definitions if needed  
| 2. Construct arguments  
| 3. Deconstruct Prime Minister’s arguments and case |
| Deputy Prime Minister – 1st Proposition team (1P) | 1. Construct rest of arguments  
| 2. Deconstruct Leader of the Opposition’s arguments  
| 3. 1st half ‘rebuttal’ |
| Deputy Leader of the Opposition – 1st Opposition team (1O) | 1. Construct arguments  
| 2. Deconstruct Deputy Prime Minister’s arguments  
| 3. 1st half ‘rebuttal’ |
| Minister of the Government – 2nd Proposition team (2P) | 1. Summarize 1st half  
| 2. Present extension  
| 3. Deconstruct Deputy Leader of the Opposition |
| Minister of the Opposition – 2nd Opposition team (2O) | 1. Sum 1st half + Minister of the Government’s arguments  
| 2. Present extension  
| 3. Deconstruct Minister of the Government’s arguments |
| Government Whip – 2nd Proposition team (2P) | 1. Deconstruct Minister of the Opposition’s arguments  
| 2. Summarize round  
| 3. Do not provide constructive arguments |
| Opposition Whip – 2nd Opposition team (2O) | 1. Deconstruct Government Whip’s presentation of the round  
| 2. Summarize round  
| 3. Do not provide constructive arguments |