A MANUAL FOR THE BEGINNER IN TOURNAMENT DEBATE

A Thesis

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Master of Science in Education

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by

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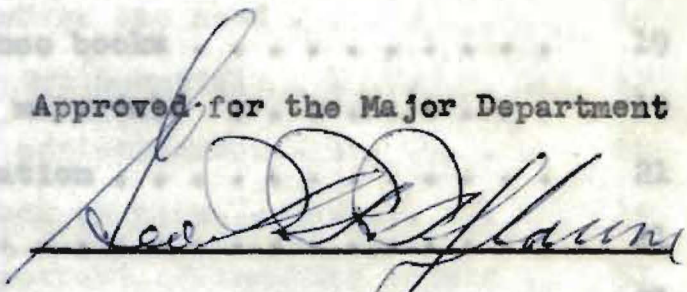

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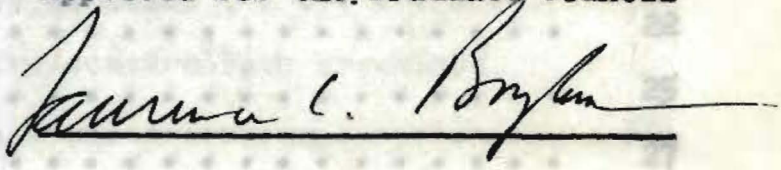

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THE PROBLEM AND METHODS USED

Tournament competition in high school debating increases every year. The majority of debate directors have little or no formal training in techniques of argument and persuasion. Students frequently have no direct training in techniques of argument and persuasion before they begin participation in competitive tournament debating. Students, in many cases, have never heard tournament debating.

Classes in debate are offered in many high schools. These classes are used primarily to prepare students for participation in the interschool meets. Within six to eight weeks after a student first enters a debate class, he may have an opportunity to participate in a tournament. The result has been that students have very little time to study techniques of debate before they must actually begin debating. Most classes begin directly with the study of the proposition to be debated. Such skills of argumentation and persuasion that students learn are absorbed from competing, either through trial and error, or through observing a debater superior to them. Both of these methods have inherent disadvantages. It is wasteful and discouraging to lose through errors of ignorance when knowledge is available. In observing a "superior" debater, bad habits are copied in many cases by the beginning debater. The "superior" debater

is also learning through trial and error, and the beginning student is as likely to copy his errors as he is to copy his successful features.

Many textbooks have been written on debate. During this writer's twelve years of active participation in tournament debating no suitable text has been found. No text this writer has found has been written for the participating tournament debater. One of three facts is always ignored. First, the student is not prepared for technical language and Latin phrases. The beginning debater is frequently of high school freshman or sophomore classification. He is not certain that he wants to debate. He has heard that it will be difficult, but the coach will usually have promised him that he will enjoy it. But he is not sure that he is up to it. Most debate textbooks are written for the advanced college debater or coach. The language style is difficult for the beginning student. Plodding through advanced language emphasizes the hard work debate involves instead of the fun. A director building a program and giving students their first introduction to debate wants to encourage them, not frighten them away. Second, the debater has no more than one week to spend on theory before he must start to prepare for his first tournament. Textbooks presently available must be read almost completely before enough understanding of debate is presented that preparation could begin. This is

the most serious problem in present texts. Third, debaters need only such information that can help them immediately. Some texts include such details as outlining procedures (which are not entirely applicable to debate) and use of argument in law and business. Debaters preparing for competition are using many hours gaining knowledge on a specific proposition they are to debate. When faced with the problem of sorting applicable facts from extraneous detail, most will surrender to the detail and use their limited time in other ways, thereby missing the applicable facts that would benefit them.

The purpose of this project will be to prepare a manual for beginning debaters who will be competing while learning. An attempt will be made to include only the most basic skills and knowledge that a student can use immediately. Chapter organization will be planned for the competition debater who must begin and continue research and practice on the tournament proposition while he is learning theory.

Limitations

No effort is made to cover thoroughly any or all areas of organization, argumentation, or persuasion. A direct and deliberate effort will be made to limit this paper to the debate techniques and experiences this writer has found most effective and most commonly used by winning debaters.

This paper is not intended to reveal new facts regarding the areas of argumentation and persuasion. Since Aristotle wrote his comprehensive work, The Rhetoric, more than 300 years before the birth of Christ, few new thoughts have been expressed in this field, even though many new books have been published.

It is instead my purpose to reorganize and rewrite some of the known facts in such manner as will make them more readily usable by the teacher or student who is trying to participate in an active debate program.

A MANUAL FOR COMPETITIVE DEBATING

CHAPTER I: ME DEBATE? WHY?

Me debate? Why?

OK! That's a fair question. Why should you debate? Do you like fun? Do you like to be accepted as one of the group? Would you like to make new friends? Do you enjoy sports, really competitive sports? Do you like to be a member of the team? Would you like to be a leader? Would you like to learn skills that will help you to advance in any profession you may choose in later life?

More debaters compete because it is fun than for any other reason. It is exciting to enter tournament competition. It is a satisfying brand of fun to argue in a friendly manner with students like yourself from other schools. It is a genuine thrill to win, to know that you have participated in a game of wits and won.

Competitive sports are fun. That is the reason football and basketball are popular. Can you imagine the competition that would result in a basketball tournament where 30 to 50 schools had teams entered? It is not unusual for this many schools to enter a debate tournament. Of course most of them do not win first place in the tournament, but someone does. And imagine the thrill that

results from becoming one of the best in this kind of competition.

It is fun just to be a member of the team. Of course you will want to do as well as you can but just traveling with the group is fun. It is fun to make friends with the intelligent and popular students from other schools who usually form the debate squad.

Debate is a means of advancement within your own school too. Debaters learn to organize and express their ideas. These are the qualities of good leaders. These qualities bring recognition to students in classrooms, school politics, and social affairs. It is not uncommon in schools that have active competitive debate programs for the president of student government to be a debater. This writer has known several instances where both the president and vice-president were debaters.

Debating competitively will help you succeed after you graduate from school too. Alexander Meiklejohn, former president of Amherst College, predicted:

> I see it most clearly when I try to single out from a long line of students some one group which shall stand forth as intellectually the best--best in college work and best in promise for future intellectual development. Much as I would like to do so, I cannot draw the line around my own favorite students in philosophy, nor the leaders in mathematics, nor those successful in biology, nor can I fairly award the palm to the Phi Beta Kappa men who have excelled in all their subjects. It seems to me that stronger than any other group, tougher in

> intellectual fiber, keener in intellectual interest, better equipped to battle with coming problems, are the college debaters--the boys, who apart from their regular studies band themselves together for intellectual controversy with each other and their friends from other colleges.[1]

A leader in industry telling his opinion of the values of debate said:

> I have for years given preference in employment and paid premium salaries to lawyers who, in addition to adequate professional background have the advantage of debate training. They get all the facts. They analyze them accurately. They present them logically and clearly. To me, that is what best serves a client.[2]

The classic philosopher, Aristotle, expressed it as a duty when he said that if it is a disgrace to a man when he cannot defend himself in a bodily way, it would be absurd not to think him disgraced when he cannot defend himself with reason in a speech.[3]

Why should you debate? Because you will enjoy this activity. Because debate can help you to be a better man or woman. Because debate can help you to achieve your goals in school and in life. But these are all selfish reasons. In a democratic society each citizen has an obligation to study the workings of government, to learn to evaluate the

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[1]Alexander Meiklejohn, The Liberal Arts College, Marshall Jones Company, p. 102.

[2]Robert B. Watts, The Forensic, XLIV, May, 1959, p. 112.

[3]The Forensic, XLIV, May, 1959, p. 112.

action of elected representatives, to express his views in the most effective manner in order that the forces of right and justice will always be represented. These are skills that are learned through competitive debate.

Debate because you enjoy it, but remember that you are preparing to take your place as a leader in our democratic society. Prepare yourself to meet this obligation.

CHAPTER II: WHAT IS DEBATE?

Debate is speaking for or against a proposal, with each speaker attempting to convince others that his suggestions should be accepted. In most competitive debate situations, the suggestions are worded as statements that say that something should be done. These statements are called propositions or questions. They are usually selected by national or state debate leagues. An example of a proposition is the 1958-1959 national high school question, "Resolved: That the United States should adopt the essential features of the British system of education."

In competition two teams, each having two speakers, will debate the value of the suggestion made in the proposal. One team, the affirmative, will try to convince the audience or judge that the suggestion is a good one and should be tried. The other team, the negative, will try to convince the audience or judge that the proposal is not good and should be rejected.

The debate is divided into two parts. The first part, the constructive speeches, is the only time that prepared arguments (called contentions) may be presented. The second part, the rebuttals, must be used exclusively for tearing down the contentions of the other side and rebuilding arguments originally presented in the constructive period.

Each debater speaks during each part of the debate. The constructive speeches are usually ten minutes each. The rebuttal speeches usually last five minutes. The order of speaking is:

Constructive Speeches
First Affirmative----10 Minutes
First Negative-------10 Minutes
Second Affirmative---10 Minutes
Second Negative------10 Minutes

Rebuttal Speeches
First Negative------- 5 Minutes
First Affirmative---- 5 Minutes
Second Negative------ 5 Minutes
Second Affirmative--- 5 Minutes

In many tournaments hosted by schools in the East, the debate is stopped for three to five minutes after constructive speeches to allow the debaters to organize rebuttal speeches. In the Midwest and Far West the first rebuttal is usually started immediately after the constructive speeches are concluded.

To think of speaking for fifteen minutes on a subject about which they have very little knowledge is a frightening prospect to most beginning debaters. But any student who has previously debated knows that a properly prepared debater will wish he had had more time to present his arguments. The fifteen minutes that seems so long at the beginning of the year will seem very short before the season ends.

In debating a proposition each team will consider the answers to three questions:

1. Is the present situation unsatisfactory?
2. Will the proposed plan (the proposition) correct the problems that make a change desirable?
3. Is correcting the present problems more important than any danger the negative can show will come from the plan?

The affirmative will attempt to give enough proof to convince a judge that the answer to all of these questions is yes. If the negative can establish that the answer to any of these questions is "no," the negative will win the debate.

This gives the negative team an advantage. But this advantage is balanced by two privileges granted to the affirmative team. The affirmative team is allowed to select the problems that they propose to correct. The affirmative may also (within the limits of the proposition) select the plan by which they propose to solve those problems. Assuming that the affirmative fairly defines terms the negative must adjust to the problems and plan that the affirmative has chosen to support.

Both teams must understand the problems that seem to exist in the present situation (commonly called the status quo). The affirmative must know them before they can prove they exist. The negative must know them before they can prepare to prove they do not exist.

Both teams must also understand the plans that are possible under a legitimate definition of terms. The affirmative must know them before they can select the best possible approach to solve the problems they claim exist. The negative must know them to prepare arguments designed to show them undesirable. The affirmative, in turn, must be prepared to justify or deny (with proof) any undesirable characteristics the negative may present.

Finding the problems

The first step in finding the problems is to use the knowledge you already have. Examine the proposition in relation to your own experiences and previous reading.

> Ask yourself all sorts of questions about it. Who wants this? Why? Whose business is it? Why? Who will pay for it? Why? Who will suffer by it? Who will profit by it? What kind of a question is it? What interests are at stake? Economic? Moral? Aesthetic? Social? Political? Commercial? Industrial?[4]

After you have thoroughly searched your own knowledge for possible problems, you are ready to begin your study. The next chapter will deal with this in detail.

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[4]James H. McBurney, James M. O'Neill, Glen E. Mills, Argumentation and Debate, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1955, p. 45.

CHAPTER III: COLLECTING INFORMATION

Most winning debaters find it necessary to spend a great deal of time collecting information. It is not uncommon for successful debaters to voluntarily use as much time reading about proposition as they use in studying for all of their classes. There are at least three reasons debaters do this. First, research is interesting. The first few weeks of research may seem burdensome because the questions are usually new to the student. This makes the early study difficult to understand. But after a debater reads to the extent that he begins to see the arguments and the reasons for the arguments, the question becomes interesting. Then students read because they want to learn.

The second reason debaters study a question is that it is necessary to have a broad background and extensive specific knowledge to be a winner. Only through study can a debater hope to find all or most of the arguments he may wish to (or be forced to) discuss. In almost any argument there are many factors that may make the argument seem more or less important or more or less true. The successful debater must learn as many of these factors as possible.

A debater is also under obligation to give "proof" for any statement that he may make. This "proof" must be based on evidence and reasoning supported by evidence. It

is not enough for a debater to *believe* that a problem exists that would justify a change. It is not enough to *believe* that the proposition will correct that problem. The debater who makes an assertion must *prove* it true.

Only through finding and reading information can a debater know the arguments and prove his ideas.

Finding the arguments

Periodicals. Begin your research by searching for specific problems in magazines and newspapers written for the general public.[5] There you will find the problems that make this question important now. The definitions of terms that will probably be most commonly accepted will be found in such commonly read publications as *Newsweek*, *Time*, *U. S. News and World Report*, *Atlantic*, *Harpers*, *Life*, etc.

Most libraries subscribe to *The Readers' Guide* and to *The New York Times Index*. *The Readers' Guide* catalogues magazine articles by topic, title, and author. *The New York Times Index* catalogues the New York Times in a similar

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[5]Some authors suggest that researchers begin with general reference works and work from the general to the specific. They suggest reference works (encyclopedias, etc.) because they are more objective and give what is primarily background material. This author has found this to be more burdensome (and therefore discouraging to beginning debaters) than looking for the problems that make the specific question important now. Magazines written for the general public are usually written in the less technical language that is more suitable to the beginning debater.

manner. Librarians are usually happy to teach the use of these guides.

An attitude of caution and only tentative acceptance should be taken of the ideas found in magazines written for the general public. Many of the articles are written as propaganda. They are designed to influence opinion to serve their own purposes. Magazines frequently tend to invite the most outspoken of critics or defenders to write articles. While the outspoken speak eloquently they seldom speak modestly. It may be difficult to prove everything they said when in a debate.

Correspondence

Much information that will not be found in libraries may be obtained by requesting it directly from the source. Three of the most commonly used sources of this type are (1) authorities, (2) pressure groups, and (3) government sources.

Authorities are busy people. Too frequently they are bothered with requests for information of the type that can be found in other places. Requests for information from authorities should come only after completing many hours of research. Then letters may be written to authorities requesting precise information. The letters should be short, neat and in proper business letter form. The source

should be assured that full credit will be given whenever his ideas are used. After receiving information from an authority, a second letter should be sent to express appreciation. They will appreciate the thoughtfulness and will be more likely to respect future requests for information.

Pressure groups are also busy, but they like to distribute information. A pressure group is any organized group that is trying to influence public opinion or legislation concerning the general area the proposition concerns. For example, labor unions, the National Association of Manufacturers, and the United States Chamber of Commerce are vitally effected by any proposition that will either strengthen or weaken unions or management. These groups plus the Farmers Union, Farm Bureau and National Grange are vitally interested in farm legislation. Names and addresses for societies and associations with literally hundreds of purposes are listed in The World Almanac under the title "United States--Associations and Societies." Most of these groups will welcome requests for information.

Most of these groups make no attempt to disguise their bias. This limits the value of the source as proof. It should also be remembered that a debater learns only one side of the argument by reading information they may send. Look for the pressure group, that is almost certain to exist, that supports the other side of the question. If

you carefully read and compare the two packets of information you will probably be able to reach some conclusions of your own.

Some of your best materials frequently come from the United States government. A request to your local Senator or Representative for information will usually be worthwhile. Request general information on the subject. If it is a subject of national importance, a Senate or House committee has probably had hearings regarding it. These hearings are bound and usually available without charge. If they can be obtained they will usually be your most thorough and objective single source. Your Representative's name will be listed in The World Almanac.

Other governmental agencies that usually have information to distribute are listed in The World Almanac under such titles as "Congress--Standing Committees" and "United States Governmental Agencies." If you are debating a proposition that concerns foreign countries the representatives of that country will probably have information to distribute. They will be listed under the title "Ambassadors and Ministers."

Professional Journals

Most professions have magazines published periodically. They are usually written for use by people working

in the profession and have little distribution outside the profession. Some of these are catalogued in The Readers Guide but many are not. Check with people working in the field for information concerning this type of journal.

The information will usually be technical and more difficult to read than those found in magazines written for the general public. But they will also be more objective and authoritative than the easier articles. Therefore, they will probably be worth the extra effort it takes to obtain and understand them.

Books

Books written in the general area of the proposition can be especially useful because (1) they usually discuss a subject thoroughly and therefore provide a good background and (2) because they are usually written by prominent people who will be accepted as authorities.

The card catalogue in the library lists books by title, author, and subject. Most librarians are willing to teach students to use the card catalogue.

In addition to books written directly on the proposition, many high school and college texts have chapters that will be valuable. Texts concerned with economics and sociology are frequently useful.

Bibliographies are frequently sent, if requested, from government agencies and pressure groups. Special debate materials usually contain bibliographies also.

General Reference Books

An objective presentation of background facts can be found in most encyclopedias. Propositions dealing with economic, political, and social questions are usually treated at length in encyclopedias. In addition, well selected bibliographies are found at the end of the articles.[6]

The Statistical Abstract of the United States, The World Almanac, and The Statesman's Yearbook all contain facts and statistics on almost any question of the type selected for competitive debate.

Special Debate Materials

Several companies publish materials specifically for high school or college debaters. Two of the best collections are:

> Reference Shelf, New York, H. W. Wilson Company
> Discussion and Debate Manual and the Forensic Library, National University Extension Association, Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials. Bower Aly, handbook editor. Robert H. Schraft, 1327 University Avenue, Madison 5, Wisconsin, committee chairman.[7]

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[6]Luther W. Courtney, Glenn R. Capp, Practical Debating, J. B. Lippincott Company, p. 71.

[7]George McCoy Musgrave, Competitive Debate, New York, The H. W. Wilson Company, pp. 155-6.

These materials can frequently be borrowed by writing the extension librarian of your state university. Of course it is more convenient if each debater or at least one member of each team can own a copy of these materials. But they are good enough that every debater should find some means of studying them.

Other sources that publish debate handbooks include:

Marquette Debaters, Marquette University, 625 North 15th Street, Milwaukee 3, Wisconsin.

J. Weston Walch, publisher, P. O. Box 1075, Portland 1, Maine.

Midwest Debate Bureau, P. O. Box 8, Normal, Illinois.[8]

Handbooks are to be considered only an aid to research and not a substitute. Some coaches do not give handbooks to debaters until they have completed extensive research by other methods. Several weeks are usually required to obtain these helpful aids. If they are not ordered until debaters start researching the question, ordering time will usually be sufficient delay to achieve this end.

Three other sources that are not compiled especially for debaters but that usually have complete editions on the problem being debated are:

Congressional Digest, 1631 K Street NW, Washington 6, D. C.

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[8] Ibid., pp. 154-5.

Editorial Research Reports, 1011 20th Street NW, Washington 6, D. C.

International Review Service, A. G. Mezerik, editor, 15 Washington Place, New York 3, New York

The International Review Service is considered by this writer to be one of the best sources on questions dealing with international affairs.

Recording Information

Why Record. Read with a purpose. Aimless reading will become boring and careless. Taking notes will make you a more careful reader. It is also necessary to prove the validity of your arguments. Evidence, to be used as proof, should be compiled from your reading.

What to Record. A debater records facts and opinions regarding facts. Facts consist of statistics (compiled numbers), circumstances surrounding examples, analogies (comparisons of examples), and other tangible or concrete findings that relate to the question. Opinions are conclusions or beliefs.

Most debaters record too few facts and too many opinions. Any fact may prove useful in any given debate. A debater can argue from facts and draw his own conclusions. This is the correct method for debate. Too frequently, debaters record only the opinions of authorities and try to make the authorities develop their arguments.

Authorities' opinions are valuable when they are used to interpret events, or to support conclusions regarding facts that can not be determined experimentally. Debaters should look for the reasons authorities hold certain opinions. The fact that an authority supports or opposes the proposition is not as important or as useful as the reasons for that support or opposition.

During the early reading on a question, a list of possible negative and affirmative arguments should be kept. Later the best of these will be selected in building a case. All of the arguments must be understood to (1) have the largest variety from which to choose a case and (2) know what other debaters may be using so that answers may be prepared in advance.

Evidence will be considered in more detail in a later chapter.

How to Record. Three methods are in general use for recording materials. They are card files, notebooks, and plastic folders. More important than the style selected is that one style is used consistently. Recording information is useful only if it can be found when needed. If part of the information is recorded in one style and part in another, it is easily lost when the debater is under the pressure of competition.

Cards of any standard size may be used. Facts or opinions should be recorded as follows:

Mr. Dan Towell; Debate Coach, Pittsburg High School, Pittsburg, Kansas, and former president of Kansas NFL; The Rebuttal Box, April, 1959.	VALUES AFF
"What are some of the values of the National Forensic League? One of the greatest is found in the encouragement and incentive NFL gives one to become an effective speaker and hence a more successful and influential citizen in whatever endeavor he chooses." p. 17	

The illustration is prepared for reading in a debate. The card records the data it is important to give in a debate. The name of the authority, his qualification for having an opinion, the magazine the quotation was found in, and the date of publication are all recorded in the order in which they would be presented in a debate.

The term "VALUES" in the upper right hand corner is a code name for the argument this card concerns. The "AFF" below it indicates the side of the question this authority upholds. If it had opposed the concept of values, the abbreviation of negative, "NEG" would have been used. The "p. 17" indicates the page number and is not read in the debate. It is recorded for the debater's future reference.

This card shows a direct quotation. That is, the words of the authority are quoted exactly as published in

the source given. It is permissible to paraphrase an authority if you do not change his meaning. Sometimes it is advantageous to paraphrase if you can express the same thought in fewer words. If this is done, quotation marks will not be used. In reading a quotation that is paraphrased you should say, "Mr. Dan Tewell, debate coach at Pittsburg High School, Pittsburg, Kansas, and former president of the Kansas National Forensic League said in The Rebuttal Box for April, 1959, that...." The term "that" indicates to the audience that you are giving his idea instead of his words.

Another method for reducing the length of a quotation is shown on the following card.

Mr. Dan Tewell; Debate Coach, Pittsburg High School, Pittsburg, Kansas, and former president of Kansas NFL; The Rebuttal Box, April, 1959.	VALUES AFF
"One of the greatest (values) is found in the encouragement ... NFL gives one to become an effective speaker..."	
p. 17	

The parentheses around the word "values" indicates that it was not there in the original. The word "values" was added in parentheses to make the meaning clear without using the preceding sentence.

The use of three periods indicates that some words were left out that were there in the original.

Be careful that the meaning the author intended is not changed when words are added or removed from the original publication. To change the meaning is a form of lying about the author's opinion. It is not only immoral but dangerous. If caught misusing evidence, the debater is likely to be distrusted on all points. This will probably result in losing the debate.

The same general rules and forms may be used on loose leaf pages of a notebook. When using either a notebook or cards, only one idea should be recorded on a single card.

Plastic folders to fit an 8" by 11" paper may be obtained at stores selling school supplies. Several quotations, all regarding the same argument, may be typed on a sheet of paper and kept in such a folder. A black crayon type marking pencil can be used to check the quotation or quotations that are appropriate for a particular speech. After the debate, the checks will wipe off easily.

How to File. In the beginning you will probably have to file material under such general headings as "Military," "Political," "Social," and "Economic." After your research begins to take form you should devise code names for arguments. Some code names used by college debaters debating the proposition, "Resolved: That the further development of nuclear weapons should be prohibited by international

agreement" were "Tactical Weapons," "Nth Nation," "Radiation," "Breakthrough" and "Detection."

Various types of file boxes (Debaters call them Rebuttal Boxes) for cards may be purchased at your school supply store. Purchase a sturdy box as they frequently have rough treatment during travel. Most file boxes do not have latches on them. Many embarrassing and annoying spills have been avoided by getting a latch put on. A substitute for a latch is two sturdy rubber bands. One might break but two will probably not both give way at the same time.

Many debaters have found a briefcase to be a good investment. They can be purchased in varying qualities and sizes with prices ranging from four to forty dollars.

CHAPTER IV: BUILDING THE CASE

A case for any type of debate is the approach which a given side prepares for a specific debate. It consists of the over-all strategy, the arguments and the evidence.[9]

The case represents a team position. Both members of the team agree regarding the stand they will make in the debate. Each team member will probably present a portion of the case. But each debater is responsible for arguments his colleague advances as well as for his own.

Cases are constructed to support either a yes or no answer to the three questions mentioned in the first chapter. They are:

1. Is the present situation unsatisfactory? Debaters frequently phrase this, "Is there a need?"
2. Is the proposed plan (the proposition) the best plan for solving the problems that make a change desirable?
3. Will the advantages of the new plan be more important than any disadvantages that might occur?

The affirmative team will attempt to indicate that "yes" is the correct answer for each of these questions. The negative will attempt to answer "no" to at least one of the questions. The organized attempt to achieve these goals is the "case" of that team.

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[9]Waldo W. Braden, Earnest Brandenberg, Oral Decision Making, New York, Harpers and Brothers, 1955.

Contentions

Contentions are organized main arguments that support the desired answer to the above questions. The combination of contentions on each side gives in outline form the case of that team.

Contentions are based on problems. The affirmative is saying that problems exist when it attempts to prove that the present situation is unsatisfactory. The negative is saying problems will exist (if the plan is adopted) when it suggests disadvantages.

But what is a problem? Is it a problem if it promotes communism? Certainly this writer would agree with most Americans that it is. But if the Russians were to consider it, they would consider it an advantage instead of a problem. If something is non-Christian some Americans would consider it a problem. But to a member of another faith, it is no problem. If one state receives more than its share of government projects, it may be considered a great problem outside that state and no problem within it. If a new federal dam is built, it is a wonderful advancement to the sportsman searching for a new place to boat or fish. But to the farmer who must give up his land and home it is a disaster. That a popular rock and roll singer is making fewer records is no problem to the person who does not favor rock and roll.

So who determines what constitutes a problem? Whose standards will be used? "The standards accepted by those who judge you are almost inevitably going to control the decision you will get."[10] Build your case in relation to what is a problem to your judge. This may not always agree with your values. "If you think you have better standards than your judge your first obligation is to convert the judge to your standards."[11] This is usually difficult to do.

It is generally easier to find standards that are universally accepted by the American public and then prove a violation of these standards.[12] For example, there would seem to be a universal belief that peace is desirable. The contention that says, "Further development of nuclear weapons will increase the chance of war" is based on a violation of that universal belief. When the negative team replies that "Prohibiting the further development of nuclear weapons will endanger the free world's defenses," they are saying that the proposition will cause a violation of the commonly accepted belief that the free world's defenses must remain intact.

A contention should be developed in three steps. It is based on the old saying "You tell them what you are going

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[10]McBurney, O'Neil, Mills, op. cit., p. 33.

[11]Ibid., p. 34.

[12]Kim Giffin, Speech given at Kansas State Speech Association Meeting, May 2, 1959.

to tell them. You tell them. Then you tell them what you told them." Or to express it more formally it has: (1) the initial summary or main argument; (2) the detailed development or minor arguments; and (3) the final summary.

The initial summary or main argument states the violation of principle that is occurring or will occur. This value should be important enough that the judge will believe it necessary to prevent it from being violated. It will do you little good to prove a violation if the other team may truthfully say, "So what?" after you prove it. A statement of a main need contention might read, "Our national security is weakened by our school system." If an affirmative can prove this to be a fact, a judge will probably agree that some change is desirable.

The violation of principle must be so much a part of the present system or the proposed system that it can not be corrected by something less than the adoption or complete rejection of the affirmative plan.

The detailed development or minor arguments will attempt to prove the violation claimed in the initial summary. It will use argument supported with evidence to prove each minor argument and the minor arguments should combine to prove the major argument or contention. For

example, note the development of the minor arguments presented for the contention mentioned above:

Main Argument: Our national security is weakened by our school system.

Minor Argument: Our national security depends upon our doing the best possible job in educating our citizens.

Minor Argument: Conditions exist in our schools that prevent them from doing the best possible job in educating our citizens.

If the two minor arguments could be proved, they would support the major argument.

The final summary for the above argument would be:

"Therefore, because our national security depends upon our doing the best possible job of educating our citizens and because our present educational system is not doing the best possible job, we contend that our national security is weakened by our school system."

The final summary in a contention is sometimes called an internal summary because it is given in the middle of a speech. It would be hard to over-emphasize the importance of this summary. A debater should not expect the judge to remember his arguments. He must remind him frequently. The internal summary is the debater's device for "telling him what you told him."

CHAPTER V: DEBATING THE AFFIRMATIVE

One good form for developing and debating an affirmative case in the constructive speeches is as follows:

1st Affirmative
- Introduction
- Define terms
- Restate proposition in your own words
- State Affirmative case in outline form
- Develop one or more need contentions
- Final review

2nd Affirmative
- Introductory remarks
- Attack negative constructive arguments
- Present plan
- Review and rebuild need contentions
- Show how plan solves the need
- Restate Affirmative case

The First Affirmative Speech

Introduction

It was once considered proper form for each speech to begin with, "Mr. Chairman, Honorable Judge, worthy opponents, honorable colleague, ladies and gentlemen." It is now considered proper by most debate instructors to begin without addressing the audience in any way. But some debate judges still prefer that the debater at least say, "Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen." It is usually a good policy to use the latter opening rather than to risk offending a judge's preference.

The introduction should not exceed one minute in length. It has two purposes. It should (1) direct attention to the proposition and (2) help to establish a favorable opinion of the affirmative team and their proposition.

Several techniques are useful in accomplishing these goals. Some debaters establish good relations with the audience through expressing a sincere compliment or sincere appreciation to the host school. Sincerity is important as a phony is almost certain to be recognized and distrusted throughout the debate. But the speaker should be able to find something for which he is sincerely thankful or with which he is sincerely impressed. This method is frequently used with one of the other methods.

A brief history of the proposition is sometimes used. Any history that is presented should be selected with care. It will be impossible to present all of the events leading up to the debating of the proposition, so the debater should select those events that are favorable to his cause. A summary of current problems in the area of the proposition is sometimes useful. This summary is appropriate because the current problems are probably the reason the proposition was adopted. It is useful because the affirmative will probably base much of its case on the solving of these problems.

A statement of the principle upon which the case is based can be used. In debating the proposition, "Resolved

that the United States should adopt the essential features of the British system of education," one debater started with the statement, "With the Russian sputnik circling overhead every ninety minutes it is imperative that the United States have the best possible educational system." He later developed the idea that while we had a good educational system, it is not the best we could obtain.

A quotation, either from a classical philosopher or a modern day authority may make an impressive beginning. If the quotation states the principle of the affirmative case, it may add authority to it that will make it more readily accepted by the judge.

Whatever type of introduction is used, it should be worded to make it lead naturally to the presenting of the proposition. The introduction should state the proposition at its conclusion.

Defining Terms

The affirmative team has an obligation to define any terms on which there might be a lack of understanding or a misunderstanding. It is not necessary to define such commonly used terms as "the government of the United States." But it would seem necessary to define "the essential features" of the British system of education.

The affirmative team may debate any legitimate definition of terms. In defining the "essential features" of the British system of education, high school teams found that there was considerable disagreement on interpretation. Most affirmative teams will propose as little change as the proposition will allow. Some affirmative teams defined "essential" in such a manner that only the feature of dividing students according to abilities qualified as "essential." When negative teams attempted to force them to support other features, such as religious education, they had to show only that the affirmative definition was one fair definition. "When in a debate a proposition is capable of two legitimate interpretations, it is clearly the privilege of the affirmative to choose which is the meaning to be debated."[13]

While the affirmative may support any stand they can show is technically correct, it is bad psychology to base a case on an interpretation so unusual that it seems to avoid the actual issues. Many teams have learned through sad experience that they can win debates and lose decisions if the judge is convinced that they are attempting to avoid the issues. It is generally better to use a standard definition of terms to avoid this risk.

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[13]McBurney, O'Neil, Mills, op. cit., p. 29.

The affirmative must support everything for which the proposition calls. They may support anything in addition to the proposition that they desire to support. In making additions to their plan, care should be taken that the proposition is necessary to solve the needs. If the added features will solve the problems, the negative may accept the added features and the affirmative will have no need for the proposition.

The word "should" is included in most propositions. It is included to prevent the affirmative team from having to prove that their plan either "would" or "could" be adopted. The affirmative team is never obligated to prove that some legislative body, such as congress, would cast a majority vote for their plan. Neither are they required to prove that their plan is in accordance with the Constitution of the United States. They must prove only that if the plan were legally adopted through whatever procedure was necessary, its results would be beneficial. Thus, in debating the prohibition of development of nuclear weapons, an affirmative team did not need to prove that Russia would sign such an agreement. They needed only to prove that the over-all results would be good if they did sign.

The term "should" does not remove the burden of showing that plan would be enforceable. So while an affirmative might, as mentioned above, say that they do not need to

prove that Russia would sign an international agreement prohibiting the development of nuclear weapons, they would have to prove (if forced by the negative team) that Russia would keep such an agreement or that the benefits would occur even if it were not kept. In debating a proposition advocating the return to prohibition, an affirmative would not be responsible for proving the twenty-first amendment could or would be repealed. But they might have to prove prohibition could or would be enforced after repeal came or that advantages would still occur if it were not enforced.

In most cases, when a plan can not be enforced, it will result in no harm as well as no benefit and the negative will gain little if any good from pointing it out.

Methods of Defining Terms. Professor Crocker in his book Argumentation and Debate lists seven methods for defining terms:

1. Example
2. Authority
3. Explication
4. Negation
5. Derivation
6. Function
7. Context

"The student should attempt to make use of as many of these ways as are necessary to show exactly what the terms mean, so that both sides may reach an agreement."[14] This will

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[14]Lionel Crocker, Argumentation and Debate, American Book Company, 1944, pp. 32-5.

require a lengthy definition on some questions and almost no definition on others.

(1) Example. Definition by example was used by Galen Frantz of Manchester College as he defined the "world democracies" as being:

> the nations of the British Commonwealth..., France, Belgium, Netherlands, Switzerland, Sweden, ... Finland ... (and) other countries ... guaranteeing the rights of the individual.[15]

In defining "major agricultural products," debaters said that they were those products that had a major effect on the economy, such as wheat, corn, and cotton. When they said "such as wheat, corn, and cotton," they were defining by example. "In defining the various types of chain stores it was common to point to Rexall drug stores, the Red and White stores, the A and P stores, as types of chains."[16]

(2) Authority. William Welsh of Northwestern University used definition by authority in the final round of the 1959 national collegiate tournament:

> ...there are perhaps two terms in this proposition which are somewhat nebulous and should be defined for purposes of clarity and if we might, we would like to undertake this burden of defining those terms by turning to the definition of the terms as advanced by the Atomic Energy Commission of the United States in their

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[15] Egbert Ray Nichols, Intercollegiate Debates, Noble and Noble Publishers Incorporated, 1940, p. 159.

[16] Crocker, op. cit., p. 33.

last semi-annual report at the end of 1958. Now they suggest that further development in this topic must be equated with "any organized and concentrated effort which directly results in any significant operational change in a nuclear weapon" and they submitted that a nuclear weapon was simply "any warmaking device which was reliant upon a nuclear or thermo-nuclear reaction for its actual detonation.

Definition by authority is probably the form most commonly used by competitive debaters.

(3) Explication. "Think of explication as the opposite of implication. Instead of suggesting the definition we tell exactly what the terms mean."[17] James Wilson of the University of Redlands used definition by explication in a first negative speech when he said:

> The word "permanent" is defined by Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as "continuing until the end." Now we realize we can't force the gentlemen of the affirmative to prove to you that there will be no change in their law, there would be no political influences, there would be no variation whatsoever in the type of policy that it adopted. Simply they must show to you that Congress would deem it continually advantageous to leave the law and the agency in existence and not to repeal it and never to find it advantageous or wise to amend it. If they can do this, then they have given you a permanent need and a permanent plan in a sense that both would be permanently advantageous to our economy.[18]

(4) Negation. Definition by negation consists of telling an audience what is not meant by a term or phrase. When this form of definition is used, the debater should also explain

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[17] Ibid.

[18] David Potter, Argumentation and Debate, The Dryden Press, New York, p. 286.

what he does mean. In high school debates on the proposition, "Resolved: That the United States should adopt the essential features of the British system of education," negation was used frequently. Affirmative teams often stated that they were not proposing that the British system be used instead of the present American system. They were proposing that the essential features of the British system be added to the American system.

Many teams would use this type of definition again as they would say that they were not proposing that the essential features be added to the American system in exactly the manner in which they are used in Britain. Instead they proposed that they be "adopted and adapted" to meet the needs of American education.

(5) Derivation. Some words can be understood by examining the origin of the word.

> Such a word might be "unicameral" in the proposition, "Resolved, That the state of Ohio should adopt the unicameral legislature." Uni means one and cameral comes from the word meaning chamber, therefore the proposition becomes, Resolved, That the state of Ohio should adopt the one-chamber legislature.[19]

(6) Function. Function refers to the purpose of the matter to which the term refers. An "umbrella" might be defined as "an object that is held above the head in the rain to keep

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[19]Crocker, op. cit., p. 34.

the person holding it from getting wet." Or the office of principal in a high school might be described by explaining the duties he performs.

(7) Context. The words which precede or follow a term in the proposition may change the meaning of it. In defining the terms in the proposition, "Resolved, that the powers of the Federal Government should be diminished," William Roskin of the University of Redlands defined "powers" as "power in use" as contrasted with the powers specifically granted the Federal Government in the Constitution.[20]

In a similar proposition context was used in defining the "powers of the Federal Government in its relationship to other units of government."[21]

Restating the Proposition

Definitions are at times quite technical. This may be necessary to obtain a precise definition that will limit the question to include only the proposal the affirmative wishes to make. But before the actual debating of issues can begin, it must be clear exactly what is being proposed. In using the definition of "further development" stated earlier (under definition by authority, page 38), the

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[20]Nichols, op. cit., p. 3.

[21]Crocker, loc. cit.

debater stated that they would advocate prohibiting testing and production of nuclear weapons to stop further development.

In debating the proposition, "Resolved, That the prices of major agriculture products should be supported at not less than 90% of parity," many students restated it after defining several terms as "Resolved, That the growers of cotton, corn, rice, wheat, and tobacco should be guaranteed that they will be able to sell their products at least 90% of a fair price."

State Affirmative Case in Outline Form

The affirmative team will generally find it advantageous to make clear early in the debate the stand they intend to take. John Claypool of Baylor University debating the proposition, "Resolved, That the Federal Government should adopt a permanent program of wage and price control, used this technique.

> For the clarification of the affirmative attitude in this debate, we would base the adoption of such a program on a twofold need; first of all, that inflation presents a permanent threat to our economy; second, in meeting with this threat the present channels are inadequate. I shall deal with this twofold need, and my colleague in his second speech will present our program of solution.[22]

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[22]Potter, op. cit., p. 282.

The first affirmative speaker should use no more than two and one-half minutes of a ten minute speech on all the steps (introduction, defining terms, stating affirmative case in outline form) that come before the development of the first contention.

Develop Contentions

Methods for developing contentions are discussed in Chapter IV. One of the most frequent mistakes is attempting to develop too many contentions. An affirmative team should not attempt to prove too much. It is better to develop two or three contentions well and have time to defend them rather than to try to develop a number of contentions inadequately and not have time to prove the minor arguments in each. The debater who attempts to develop many contentions inadequately may find himself with so many questions to answer that it will be impossible to do so. The negative has the right to ask the affirmative to prove each subpoint of any contention the affirmative brings into the debate.

Final Review

The final review will usually restate all affirmative contentions mentioning each subpoint that supports the contentions. It will be a combination of the material presented in each of the internal summary reviews.

Occasionally only the main contentions will be mentioned. This is the technique used by Mr. Claypool in concluding the first affirmative speech that was quoted earlier.

> Thus, the affirmative attitude in this first speech has been the upholding of a simple twofold need: first of all, that inflation presents a permanent harmful effect to our economy, and second, that in coping with this need the present system, both the indirect and temporary controls, are inadequate. On the basis of this need, we would highly advocate adoption of the permanent wage and price control that my colleague will present.[23]

The Second Affirmative Speech

Introductory Remarks

A formal introduction is not generally used by the second affirmative speaker. Introductory remarks presented in this speech are usually unplanned. They are frequently limited to a statement regarding what the speaker will attempt to accomplish in this speech.

If the negative has disagreed with the definition of terms presented in the first speech, this speaker should clarify the affirmative stand. He may explain that the two teams are not in actual disagreement but that they are merely saying the same thing in a different way. This is not uncommon. If the negative is actually suggesting a

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[23]Potter, op. cit., pp. 285-6.

different interpretation, the affirmative must support their original definition. This is done through further use of the methods of definition explained earlier.

Attack Negative Constructive Arguments

The affirmative should always attack negative constructive arguments or negative contentions at their first opportunity after they are presented. It is considered unethical to make the first reply to negative constructive arguments in the last rebuttal. Most debate judges will discount any answer to negative contentions that is not made while the negative has a chance to reply. Therefore, the affirmative may only answer negative contentions in the second constructive speech or the first rebuttal. If the second speaker leaves negative arguments unanswered, he adds to the already overburdened first affirmative rebuttal.

Methods for refuting argument will be discussed in later chapters.

Present Plan

The affirmative must present a plan for putting the proposition into effect. How many details of the plan the affirmative will explain will vary according to the proposition. It is best to present only such details as are necessary (1) to show that the plan will solve the problems presented and (2) to prevent some possible dangers the negative

may present. Have a definite reason for presenting each portion of the plan that is presented.

Sometimes the affirmative plan can be stated in one sentence. In other propositions the plan must contain considerable detail before it adequately meets the above goals. The negative has a right to request a reasonable number of details to be presented.

Review and Rebuild Affirmative Contentions

The second affirmative speaker will review the need contentions presented by his colleague. Where attacks have been made on these need contentions, he must rebuild them. New evidence should be used to rebuild the contentions.

It is sometimes desirable for the second affirmative speaker to add another need contention.

Show How Plan Solves the Need

In many cases it will seem obvious that the plan will solve the problems if the need contentions are properly constructed. Therefore, some debate judges agree that it is not always necessary to specifically show that the plan will meet the need unless the negative team challenges it.

But other judges insist that the affirmative must show with evidence that the plan will solve each of the problems presented. Because some judges hold this opinion, it is

best to present evidence showing that the plan will solve the need.

The second affirmative speaker should take each problem (need) presented and, one by one, show how the affirmative plan will solve them.

Another usable form of organization for a second affirmative speech is combining the "reviewing and rebuilding of the need" and the "showing of how the plan meets the need." In this style, the debater reviews and rebuilds the first need contention. Then he shows how the plan solves that problem. Then he will review and rebuild the second need contention and show how the plan solves that problem. Using this method, the debater has completed showing that the plan will meet the need by the time he has completed his review. This organization is particularly useful when the affirmative plan has several parts with each part solving one of the affirmative needs.

The First Affirmative Rebuttal

The first affirmative rebuttal is one of the most crucial speeches in the debate. It comes after the negative has spoken for fifteen minutes straight. It is the last opportunity that the affirmative team has to make the first reply to negative constructive arguments. They may not be answered in the last rebuttal if they have not been answered

previously. Most negative teams will have presented new constructive arguments in the second negative speech. Most negative teams will present new objections to the affirmative plan. These must be answered in this speech.

If the first affirmative rebuttal is done properly, it will break the negative argument to such a degree that the second affirmative rebuttal can concentrate on review.

The first affirmative rebuttal should follow this order:

Attack negative contentions.

Meet direct negative attack on plan.

Rebuild most important affirmative points.

Attack Negative Contentions

An attempt should be made to group negative contentions. Most contentions are based on similar principles. If you can deny a principle that several contentions rely upon, you can deny the contentions in less time. For example, it is often possible to show that the contentions do not apply specifically to the affirmative plan. If you can do this, it is especially good as it helps to bring the debate back to the affirmative case.

The affirmative team has no obligation to answer constructive arguments presented for the first time in the rebuttal speeches. If the negative presents new constructive

arguments in the first negative rebuttal speech, the first affirmative rebuttal speaker should point this out and say that he will refute them anyhow if time permits.

Some negative contentions are objections that can be admitted without serious harm to the affirmative position. It does no good to tear down negative arguments that are unimportant in the beginning.

Some negative teams will present several arguments in a very few minutes and with very little support. The affirmative should show what parts of the arguments need to be proved and suggest that after they are proved, the second speaker will deal with them. This reverses the plans of the negative. The original negative plan was probably intended to make the first rebuttal speaker use his valuable time refuting arguments that were not proved. If the affirmative can force the negative to drop the arguments by asking them to prove them, they will gain an advantage. If they can force the negative to use their second negative rebuttal to prove the arguments, they will prevent them from making other gains at that time. The affirmative may answer an argument in the last rebuttal if the negative does not support it until the last negative rebuttal.

Meet Direct Attack on Plan

If the negative has made a direct attack on the affirmative plan, the affirmative may not wait until the

last speech to reply. The first affirmative rebuttal is the last opportunity to make the first attempt to rebuild the plan.

The method of rebuilding the plan will depend upon the attack made. Two types of attacks that are frequently made are easy to recognize and easy to answer. The first occurs when the workability of a plan is attacked by showing that parts of it will not solve the need without the help of the other portions of the plan. Remember, no one part of the plan has to solve the problem by itself. It is the workability of the complete plan that is important.

A second type of attack that occurs is an attack of the abuse of the plan rather than the use. This attack usually concentrates problems that exist under the plan in operation today and need to be corrected regardless of whether the proposition is adopted. In debating the merits of adopting the essential features of the British system of education, some debaters attempted to insert the problems of segregation. In debating a question regarding labor unions, some teams tried to force the affirmative teams to show how they would correct the problems that now exist in the National Labor Relations Board. In both of the above cases, the affirmative was able to show that the problem was not a part of the proposed plan but was, instead, a part of the present plan. They would contend that we should correct it

in the present plan and the affirmative plan will be of benefit to all.

Rebuild Most Important Affirmative Points

There will usually be very little time left for this step. Therefore, it is important that the debater examine the negative attacks very carefully to determine which are crucial. If the second affirmative has done a thorough job of rebuilding the need arguments in his constructive speech, it will make this step easier.

This is the only rebuttal speech that will not necessarily end with a review. If time allows, it is well to review in this speech. But if time does not allow (and against a good negative team it probably will not), the summary may be omitted in this speech. The three points listed are essential and should be considered in the order listed.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal

The second affirmative speech must concentrate on the affirmative case. It will spend very little time answering negative constructive arguments. It should follow this form:

Reattack negative constructive arguments if rebuilt.

Review and rebuild affirmative need.

Review and rebuild plan showing it will solve need.

Ask for adoption of proposition.

Reattack Negative Constructive Arguments if Rebuilt

This step should take no more than two minutes of the last rebuttal.

If negative arguments were not rebuilt or reviewed in the last negative rebuttal, do not reattack them. The time can be used better in other ways. If several arguments that were refuted were not rebuilt by the last negative rebuttal speaker, the debater should mention this to remind the judge that the affirmative won those arguments. If a negative argument that seemed damaging to your case earlier was answered in the first affirmative rebuttal and not rebuilt in the last negative rebuttal, this should be mentioned to show that the negative accepted the affirmative answer as true.

If the second negative rebuttal has resupported negative contentions, they must be answered. Often they may be answered by referring to an earlier answer.

Review and Rebuild Affirmative Need

The attacks made upon the affirmative need must be answered. But equally important in this speech is the emphasizing of the points that were not denied by the negative. The needs that are reestablished should be emphasized

to show the importance of them. When the debater finishes this step, it must be very important to the judge and audience that these problems be solved.

Review and Rebuild Plan Showing It Will Solve Need

The direct attacks made upon the affirmative plan must be answered. Then the speaker should refer back to the need and emphasize how this plan will solve the problems.

Ask for the Adoption of the Proposition

The last affirmative rebuttal speaker should ask the audience for the adoption of the proposition. It is usually coupled with a restatement of the affirmative contentions as justification for adopting it.

CHAPTER VI: DEBATING THE NEGATIVE

The first step in preparing to debate the negative is to thoroughly understand the affirmative. It is necessary to analyze the possible affirmative need arguments, know the results that the proposition can achieve, and, equally important, know its limitations.

A mistake frequently made by negative teams is not taking a definite stand and making it clear early in the first negative speech. A good technique is to make the negative stand the first statement of the negative team. Research has shown that an audience tends to remember the first statement better than any other.[24]

There are three possible stands that a negative team may take. They are: (1) status quo; (2) repairs; and (3) counterplan. These terms all refer to the position the negative takes in relation to the affirmative need.[25]

The "status quo" and "repairs" stands are the most frequently used. The "counter-plan" will be discussed in detail in Chapter XII.

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[24] H. L. Hollingworth, The Psychology of the Audience, American Book Company, 1935, p. 88.

[25] Some authors list as many as four or as few as two. The same stands are offered but they are classified differently.

Status Quo

The status quo is defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as "the state in which anything is" or "the state existing." The "status quo" approach says that conditions are good enough the way they are. It contends that either no need or problem exists or that the problems are not important enough to justify a change. It should be coupled with negative contentions or arguments to show disadvantages of the affirmative plan. This stand says, in effect, that there is no reason to change from the present method and even if some problems do exist, the disadvantages of the affirmative plan are so great that they make the plan impractical.

An outline of the negative constructive speeches using a status quo approach would look as follows:

First Negative

State Negative Stand

Agree or disagree with affirmative definition of terms

Attack affirmative need

Direct Attack

Indirect Attack

Review Negative Stand and attack on need

Second Negative

Restate Negative Stand

Direct Attack on Affirmative Plan

In relation to need

Desirability

Indirect Attack on Plan

Review Attack on Plan

First Negative Constructive Speech

State Negative Stand

The importance of stating the negative stand was mentioned earlier.

Agree or Disagree with Affirmative Definition of Terms

If the negative team does not believe the affirmative has presented a fair definition of terms they must state their disagreement in the first negative speech. If the negative team does not say that they do not agree to the definition of terms in the first negative speech, the affirmative team may assume that they agree. If it later develops that the definition is not fair the negative may not object even if it gives the affirmative an unfair advantage.

If the negative wishes to agree to the affirmative definition they just do not state any disagreement. If no disagreement is stated in the first speech, it is assumed that the negative agrees to the definition.

It is generally best to agree with the definition presented if the negative can still debate without major

changes in their case. The affirmative will usually win any argument over terms that may occur. This is true because they (1) need only to prove that their definition is one fair definition (not necessarily the only one) and (2) because they should anticipate a disagreement if they have an extremely unusual definition and should have a defense developed for it.

If an unusual definition is presented the negative team should determine whether it makes the affirmative plan broader or more narrow. If it makes the plan broader, more disadvantages will occur. If it makes it more narrow, it will not solve as many needs. The importance of this will be discussed with the negative attack on the affirmative plan.

Attack Affirmative Need

Two methods are usable in attacking the affirmative need. A combination of the two is usually used by beginning debaters. The first method consists of a direct attack on the affirmative need. Each argument of the affirmative is attacked exactly as it was presented. Evidence is used to show that the affirmative need arguments are either untrue or exaggerated. The negative debater who thoroughly understands the affirmative side of the question can prepare answers in advance to the problems that are most likely to be the basis of the negative need arguments. Careful

listening habits should be developed as the debater can not prove untrue an argument that he does not understand. Any answer to negative arguments that is prepared in advance must be adjusted in the debate to make it fit the argument in exactly the manner in which the affirmative presented it. More on the methods of direct attack will be presented in Chapters IX and X.

The direct attack is the heart of a good debate. The negative team is responsible for making a clash on arguments. The new debater should attempt to make a direct attack the first time he debates. It will seem difficult at first. But as he gains experience and a thorough knowledge of the question, it becomes easier. The attack (Debaters call it refutation.) is the real fun of debate. It is in refutation that superior intelligence and the results of thorough research become evident.

The second method of attack is indirect refutation. Indirect refutation does not refer to the specific affirmative arguments. It emphasizes what we do right at the present time. For example, in debating the proposition, "Resolved; That the Federal Government should substantially increase its regulation of labor unions," the negative will show the many desirable results of union freedom instead of denying that some results have been bad. This type of refutation says, "Even if the charges you make are true, there are

still so many good features in the present system and so many good results from the present system that your charges do not justify a change."

The indirect attack is used more by the beginning debater than by the advanced debater. It has the advantage of being prepared in advance. Therefore, it does not require as much skill to use. But it is not as effective as a direct attack because it does not actually deny the affirmative case. It only says, "Do not sacrifice our present advantages to gain new advantages." Some advanced debaters use direct refutation entirely. But beginning debaters will find it advantageous to have indirect refutation prepared. It will give them confidence that regardless of what needs the affirmative may present, they will have something to say.

Review Negative Stand and Attack on Need

Some negative teams will review the entire attack they have made in point by point form, mentioning their specific reply to every subpoint of the affirmative need. Others simply restate the major objections they have advanced. James Wilson of the University of Redlands used the latter method when he concluded:

> Therefore, I think we can see, in the first place, that "we face a permanent threat of inflation" is a statement that has to be seriously qualified. For

unless we can foresee when, or at least significantly how often, they can offer us no reason for believing that Congress will find a continual advantage to keep on their economy some cumbersome agency for imposing price and wage control. Secondly, international tension does not necessitate any dislocations warranting price and wage controls. And, thirdly, the time lag was not nearly so drastic as the gentlemen would have you believe. For these reasons, we move for the rejection of the resolution.[26]

Second Negative Constructive Speech

Direct Attack on Affirmative Plan

The second negative speaker should analyze the affirmative plan carefully (1) in relation to the need presented and (2) to find undesirable characteristics.

In examining the plan in relation to the need, the negative should be looking for two fallacies. First, the need or problems may not be solved by the plan. If the negative team has analyzed the possible affirmative needs and the possible affirmative plans while preparing to debate, they should know the problems that each plan will solve. This fallacy occurred frequently in debates regarding the recognition of Communist China. Many affirmative teams claimed that recognition would increase trade with China. But the lack of diplomatic relations was not what was preventing trade. Trade with the Chinese Communists was forbidden by

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[26]Potter, op. cit., pp. 289-90.

a federal law that would not have been effected by establishing diplomatic relations.

The second fallacy the negative team looks for in examining the plan in relation to the need occurs when the problems stated are too small to justify the change to the new system. In debating the proposition, "Resolved, That the requirement of membership in a labor organization as a condition of employment should be illegal," many teams charged corruption to the labor unions and labor leaders. Careful examination revealed that even the most outspoken of labor's critics would charge embezzlement of only about one dollar out of every $10,000 handled. And corruption could be charged to fewer than ten of the more than 190 national unions. It was hardly justification for passing a law that would effect all unions. The negative team may require the affirmative team to show that the problems they have presented are so vital a part of the present system that only a plan that changes the basic structure of the present system will correct them. If the problems exist only in isolated areas of the present system, it is not usually justification for the affirmative plan.

In making the direct attack on the affirmative plan, the second negative speaker should also examine the specific affirmative plan presented in each debate to find possible problem areas that would exist. In debating the desirability

of stopping the development of atomic weapons, many affirmative teams found that it would take a staff of thousands of trained men to administer their plan. Some plans presented on that question provided for international inspectors with such broad powers that any foreign inspector would have ready access to our military secrets.

The debater should examine each point of the affirmative plan asking the question, "What would happen if this were put into effect?" and "What principles, institutions, and people will be effected by this? How will they be effected?"

Indirect Attack on Plan

An indirect attack on the plan should be made by presenting negative contentions. These contentions should be developed as suggested in Chapter IV. They should show problems that will occur if the plan is adopted.

Review Attack on Plan

This should be done in the same manner as used in the review of the attack on need in the first negative speech. It is not necessary to review the attack on the affirmative need at this point as the first negative rebuttal speech will concentrate on the affirmative need again.

Repairs

The team debating a repairs stand says, in effect (if not actually), "We recognize that conditions are not perfect, but neither are they as bad as the affirmative team charges. Conditions are not bad enough to warrant a complete change of principle as proposed by the affirmative team. They can be corrected by some less drastic changes that will allow us to keep our present principles but achieve better results." The negative attempts to diminish the importance of the affirmative need. They try to show that some problems do not exist through direct attack. But some charges are admitted and attempts are made to solve them with lesser action than the affirmative proposes.

For example, when teams debating on the union shop would say that men should not be required to belong to unions because some unions had corrupt leaders, many negative teams proposed that laws be passed to clean out the corruption and keep the union shop. When affirmative teams would propose on another question that all testing of atomic weapons be prohibited because radiation was endangering human lives, some negative teams proposed that only those tests that spread radiation be stopped. This would have allowed underground testing to continue and would therefore have stopped short of the affirmative plan.

When the repairs plan is used, it will substitute for one area of direct attack on the need. It will admit part of the affirmative need and substitute a plan for an attack on that part of it. The negative procedure will be otherwise unchanged from the "status quo" stand.

The First Negative Rebuttal

A first negative rebuttal follows the second negative constructive speech. The fifteen minutes that the negative has in the middle of the debate is called the "negative bloc." After the negative bloc, the affirmative has ten minutes (both rebuttals) while the negative only has five minutes (second negative rebuttal). The affirmative also has the advantage of speaking last. The combination of these facts makes it necessary that the negative have a large lead coming out of the negative bloc.

The best way to gain that lead is through a careful division of duties in the bloc. New constructive arguments may not be presented in the rebuttal speeches. Therefore the first negative speech must be entirely refutation and rebuilding. The second negative constructive speaker concentrated his attacks upon the plan. The first negative rebuttal will be used to reattack the need. It will contain the following steps:

Reattack affirmative need

Review entire negative stand

Reattack Affirmative Need

The first negative speaker made an attack on the need in his constructive speech. The second affirmative speaker will have rebuilt the need somewhat. Now the negative has about four minutes to re-establish the weaknesses of the affirmative need.

Review Entire Negative Stand

The entire negative stand is now presented. The entire negative attack on the affirmative need and plan has been made. It is up to the negative to hold the advantage they have. They can do this best by spreading the affirmative arguments as thin as possible. This review should contain a list of objections to the affirmative case that is so long that the affirmative can not hope to answer them all.

Second Negative Rebuttal

Second negative rebuttal speakers should vary their approach according to the method used by the first affirmative rebuttal speaker in attempting to answer the negative bloc. The guiding principle of this rebuttal is that the

negative is trying to spread the debate again. The affirmative attempts to consolidate a debate in rebuttals and the negative attempts to widen it.

The second negative rebuttal will be divided into four parts:

Reattack or review the refutation of the affirmative need

Reattack or review attack on affirmative plan

Rebuild or review negative contentions

Review of total negative stand

About one-half of the speaking time should be used to repair the negative approach from the attacks made against it in the first affirmative rebuttal. The remainder of the speaking time should be spent reviewing the attacks not mentioned in the first affirmative rebuttal. The speech should close with a review of the charges against the affirmative with special emphasis placed on the negative contentions.

CHAPTER VII: EVIDENCE

Evidence is composed of facts and authoritative opinion. Facts are instances, cases, and statistics that can be seen, described (measured, counted, or classified), and reported. Examples would include such items as "the average salary for teachers in Kansas in the 1957-58 school year was $619 below the national average" or "my office has only one window." That Ingemar Johannson won the world's heavyweight boxing championship from Floyd Patterson in 1959 is a fact. If the same method of measurement or classifying is used by several people, they will all arrive at the same conclusion if it is actually a fact. No person could look at my office, count the windows by any form of measurement and arrive at a conclusion other than the one that says I have only one window.

Authoritative opinion is the point of view held by a person who for some reason is considered to have special ability to interpret the meaning of facts. Examples of opinion would include "Kansas teachers are underpaid," "my office has poor ventilation," "Ingemar Johannson is the world's best heavyweight fighter." Whether this was authoritative opinion would depend on who said it and what made him qualified to express an opinion.

Both facts and opinion depend on the reliability of the person reporting or interpreting the facts. The author's three year old daughter wins arguments from her playmates by insisting that her "teacher said so." Of course she does not attend school and has no teacher (as she uses the term). She is thoroughly bewildered when her father reverses her bad reporting and tells her that he knows it is not so because he teaches teachers. (A common fallacy in reasoning but she is a little young to tell about Ad Verecundiam.) A more formal examination of the reliability of witnesses is included later in this chapter.

When to Use Evidence

Evidence is used in constructing, refuting and rebuilding subpoints (minor arguments) and conclusions within a case. For example, look at the following contention:

Our educational system is endangering our national defense.
A. Our educational system must be the best possible or it will endanger our national defense.
B. Our educational system is not the best possible.
Therefore: Our educational system is endangering our national defense.

In constructing the above contention, each of the subpoints would have to be supported with evidence. To support the first subpoint evidence might be involved as follows:

Facts

A. Cold war exists today.
B. Hot or fighting war is possible.

Authoritative opinion

A. The best possible education is needed in a cold war to prevent losing the propaganda battle (which would in turn, weaken national defense.) A specialist in overseas propaganda who also understands the defense structure of the free world would be considered a reliable authority for such a statement.

B. The best possible education is needed in a fighting war to maintain the necessary lead in weapons. A military authority (to predict the military demands that would be made on our education) who also understands education well enough to know that it will require the "best" our educational system can do to meet those military demands would be needed to be considered a reliable authority on this point. Separate authorities may be required to support each section of this opinion.

The second subpoint might be developed by showing:

Fact

A. Our educational system has a specific weakness.

Opinion

B. Our educational system can be improved. This opinion should be based on facts.

Authoritative opinion might be used to establish the importance of not violating the principle on which this contention is based. That is, evidence may be used to support the idea that our national defense must not be endangered. This would probably not be necessary as the audience or judge will probably believe this already. But such is not always the case with every contention.

Evidence might also be used to show that authorities have looked at the same facts and arrived at the same conclusions the debater has. This is using evidence to support his reasoning.

In refuting this contention through using evidence, the opponent might admit the facts of the first subpoint and present other authorities to dispute the authoritative opinions you present. For example, a specialist on the defense structure of the free world might say that our national defense would not be weakened by losing a propaganda battle. If such an authority was presented, the affirmative would have to convince the judge that their authoritative was better qualified to express an opinion or that his opinion was agreed to by most authorities in the field. The team that can show their authority to be the most likely to be correct will probably win the point. For this reason, debaters should have a great deal more support for any subpoint than they anticipate having to use. They should also attempt to use the most authoritative persons available on a subject.

Qualify Your Authorities

One of the most common failings of beginning and advanced debaters alike is that they do not explain thoroughly the qualifications of their authorities. If the full value

of the qualifications of an authority are to be realized, the audience must be told why he has special right to be believed. If he has no special qualifications, his opinion is no more valuable than the debaters and it is a waste of time to quote him. Unsigned magazine articles carry no weight so far as expressing opinions. They may be very useful in reporting facts if the magazine has a reputation for accuracy in reporting.

Qualification for authorities can usually be found at the source of the information. The flyleaf on a book will usually give a buildup of the authority that will express his qualifications. Magazine articles usually give some qualification for their special writers. Who's Who in America lists most people who are really authoritative on a national debate proposition. Some of the debate handbooks have special sections that explain the special claim to authority that the writers they quote have.

Sources of Evidence

The sources of evidence were discussed in the third chapter.

Tests of Evidence

Evidence varies greatly in value. There are tests of evidence that may be applied to determine the value.

Professors McBurney and Hance list six tests of logical adequacy:[27]

1. Is the evidence clear?
2. Is the evidence consistent internally?
3. Is the evidence consistent with known facts and other evidence?
4. Is the evidence consistent with logical argument?
5. Is the source of the evidence competent?
6. Is the source of evidence free from prejudice?
7. Is the source of the evidence reliable?

This author would add to this list:

8. Is the source the most recent available?

Is the Evidence Clear?

Is it plain what the evidence means? Is it referring specifically to the situation it is being used to support? Does it use words or phrases that could have only one meaning? Is the actual meaning of statistics presented? Or is only an interpretation presented? Is it clear how statistics were compiled? In general, is the evidence clear enough that the debater can be sure it says what it seems to say?

In the proposition concerning recognition of the communist government of China, one debater quoted what seemed to be a reliable source as saying that "with this plan" great advantages would occur. Upon examination the negative debaters found that "this plan" included not only the

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[27]James H. McBurney, Kenneth G. Hance, Discussion in Human Affairs, Harpers and Brothers, New York, pp. 133-34.

proposition but also included withdrawal from Korea, stopping occupation of Japan, and giving up Formosa. The evidence as originally presented was not clear. It did not refer directly to the affirmative plan.

In discussing prohibiting the development of nuclear weapons, debaters found that some reliable sources said that 300,000 lives would be lost because of radiation. Other equally authoritative sources said that the harm done by radiation was insignificant. This seeming contradiction was explained by clarifying the meaning of "insignificant." Those claiming the harm done was "insignificant" usually admitted the estimates but argued that they were insignificant when spread over a thirty-year period among the almost three billion people who inhabit the earth. Or they argued that it was insignificant when compared with free world security or the effects of natural radiation.

Is the Evidence Consistent Internally?

Does the evidence used by any debater or team always express the same opinion? In debating a proposal to remove tariff protections for industry in all the countries of the free world, some teams would argue that the other countries had nothing we wanted to buy. In another contention the same team might give evidence to show that other countries would sell in the United States to such an extent that it

would harm American industry. This would represent a lot of sales for a country which had nothing that we wanted to buy.

Is the Evidence Consistent with Known Facts and Other Evidence?

If you know that other evidence contradicts some fact or opinion, examine it closely to determine why the differences exist. In the seeming contradiction of evidence that occurred in the discussion of the effects of radiation, the actual meaning of those who said the results were insignificant was not discovered until it was found that it did not seem to be consistent with other known facts.

When one team presented evidence to indicate that Negroes did not favor civil rights legislation, it was contradictory to commonly accepted fact. Investigation revealed that the source was an opinion that had been expressed by an unqualified person in a "Letters to the Editor" column.

It does not necessarily prove that evidence is wrong just because it contradicts other evidence or so-called "known facts." But it does give reason to doubt its truthfulness and to search for information that will clear up the contradiction.

Is the Evidence Consistent with Logical Argument?

The next chapter concerns logical argument and common fallacies in argument. After studying it, a debater should examine evidence to see if it is reasonable.

Is the Source of the Evidence Competent?

Was the source of this evidence in a position to gain the information? Did he have the background, training, and intellectual ability to determine the facts or opinions that were reported?

In the 1950's and probably for some time to come, many people are returning from travel in Russia and expressing opinions concerning every part of Russian life from their education to their military preparations. It is doubtful that many of these people had the opportunity to observe more than carefully selected areas of Russian life. It is also doubtful that most of them have the training necessary to evaluate the present or predict the future of many, if any at all, of the subjects on which they are being quoted.

Congressmen are frequently quoted by debaters. Most congressmen follow the advice of the real specialists in the particular field. Debaters would do well to follow their example.

Is the Source of the Evidence Free from Prejudice?

Many people who are in a position to know the facts are not in a position to interpret them objectively. A leader in industry has a broad background in dealing with labor unions. But he has probably been conditioned to color his opinions with the interest of profits ahead of the

interest of the working man. The union leader would probably tend to overstate his objections concerning management because he is constantly competing with them for public support.

Any evidence based upon a source who has an "ax to grind" should be inspected carefully to determine what effect, if any, this bias has had. It does not necessarily follow that a person will not report facts objectively just because he has an active interest in one viewpoint. But it is sufficient to make it psychologically weak to use them as authorities.

The best evidence is that from persons who would be expected to favor the other side. It is well to point out that "this person supports (or would be expected to support) the other side but even he must admit this fact." For example, a union leader's complaining about corruption in unions would probably receive a more favorable reception than the same facts expressed by a leader in industry.

Is the Source of the Evidence Reliable?

Can you depend on the source to gather the facts accurately? Some persons are engaged in direct propaganda and have been known to tell outright lies to gain belief. The Russians change the "facts" of history to suit their immediate goals. One weekly news magazine in the United

States publishes a section for which they claim only "87%" accuracy. Another publishes the rumors that are told in Washington, D. C. These have high reader interest but low evidence value.

Is the Source the Most Recent Available?

Most debaters find themselves caught without the latest information sometime during their high school or college competition. It is always embarrassing and sometimes disastrous (so far as winning is concerned).

The best way to prevent this from happening is to continue research throughout the season. Do not stop working just because you have enough information to be prepared for the first tournament. Many debaters were surprised to learn that France possessed an atomic bomb while they were contending that the further development of nuclear weapons should be prohibited to prevent them from getting it.

How to Use the Tests of Evidence

The debater who reads the tests of evidence and does not attempt to learn to use them is passing a valuable skill that would help him to win debates. This skill should also be useful throughout life in helping the debater make the right decisions regarding what he buys, the college he attends, the career he selects and every other important choice that requires a choice.

The debater who reads these tests should examine his own case. It is to his benefit to know if he is proving the points that support his contentions. It is important that he know if his authoritative opinion comes from biased or incompetent authorities. If the debater will objectively analyze his own material, it will help him to learn these skills for future reference.

After evaluating his own evidence, the debater should practice evaluating the extent and quality of evidence used by his opponents. Many debates have been won by using superior evidence.

CHAPTER VIII: REASONING

Reasoning "is the process of drawing a conclusion from one or more statements."[28] It is not new to the debater. He has done it with some degree of correctness all of his life. He learned as a baby that crying would bring a bottle. He cried, a bottle came. His conclusion, "one time I cried and got a bottle." At a later time he cried again. Again he got a bottle. Conclusion, "twice I cried, twice I got a bottle." After repeating this process several times, he concluded, "when I cry, I get a bottle." And the reasoning process is complete.

In building debate contentions, the debater begins with a problem. His reasoning is basically that "we want something, we are not getting it, so we should change our methods to obtain it."

How does he know that we want something. He reasons: (1) It's a fact that we work for it; (2) It's a fact that we spend money for it; (3) Authorities hold the opinion that we feel insecure without it; and (4) Authorities hold the opinion that we say we want it. Therefore, we must want it.

How does he know we are not getting it? He reasons: (1) Facts show we are not getting it; and, or (2) Authorities

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[28]Stuart Chase, Guides to Straight Thinking, Harpers and Brothers, New York, p. 5.

say we are not getting it. Therefore, we are not getting it.

In both statements, the debater is using facts and authoritative opinion and drawing conclusions from them.

Here is how it would look in contention form.

Our educational system is endangering our national defense.
A. Our educational system must be the best possible or it will endanger our national defense.
B. Our education system is not the best possible.
Therefore: Our educational system is endangering our national defense.

The theme that "we want something" is contained in the last half of the main point. It is implied by the words, "endanger our national defense." We want to protect our national defense. That is the "something" we desire in this case. How do we know we want it? It seems obvious that we want it. Why does it seem obvious? Because (1) It is a fact that we spend $40 billion yearly to maintain it; (2) It is a fact that many people voluntarily join civil defense groups; (3) Authorities express the opinion that we feel a need for it; and (4) Every person we know wants it. This is a solid desire. It is so solid that the debater would probably not find it necessary to prove that the people want this unless he was challenged to do so. One debater proposed that the proposition he was supporting would hasten disarmament. The assumption, "people want disarmament." When shown several reasons why disarmament was undesirable, he

had no reply. Obviously, it made little difference if he could show that the people could not get something if he could not show they wanted it.

In the development of the contention shown in the example, parts A and B say merely that we are not getting what we want. It uses facts and authoritative opinion and draws a conclusion from them.

Thinking, based on evidence, is used in each step of constructing an argument. An argument may be challenged on this thinking at any point. A debater must learn to think critically about each point that the other team advances. He must think critically regarding each piece of evidence that is used to support the argument. It will help to learn some of the mistakes (fallacies) that debaters most often make.

Common Fallacies in Reasoning

Stuart Chase, in his very readable book, Guides to Straight Thinking, lists the following fallacies:[29]

> In each, the reason which follows the term because, fails, under analysis, to make sense. Either the facts are inadequate, or the logis is bad, or both. Here they are in bare outline:
>
> (1) Over-generalizing. Jumping to conclusions from one or two cases.

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[29] Ibid., pp. 37-8.

2. "Thin entering wedge." A special type of over-generalizing involving prediction. If this is done then that--usually dire--will follow.
3. Getting personal. Forsaking the issue to attack the character of its defender.
4. "You're another." My point may be bad but yours is just as bad, so that makes it quits.
5. Cause and effect. If event B comes after event A, then it is assumed to be the result of A.
6. False analogies. This situation, it is argued, is exactly like that situation--but it isn't.
7. Wise men can be wrong. Clinching an argument by an appeal to authority.
8. "Figures prove." A subclass of the above, especially popular in America today.
9. Appeal to the crowd. Distorting an issue with mass prejudices.
10. Arguing in circles. Using a conclusion to prove itself.
11. "Self-evident truths." Trying to win an argument by saying "everybody knows" it must be true.
12. Black or white. Forcing an issue with many aspects into just two sides, and so neglecting important shades of gray.
13. Guilt by association. Making a spurious identification between two dissimilar persons or events.

Chase adds to these "the appeal to ignorance" and "multiple questions." This chapter will attempt only to illustrate each of these briefly in the way they are used in competitive debate. The reader may wish to study Mr. Chase's Guide to Straight Thinking to find his useful exposure of these fallacies as they exist in many areas other than formal debate.

Over-generalizing

One method of drawing conclusions is to expand the application of what we learn to other situations. The baby who concluded that "when I cry, I get a bottle" was basing

his conclusion on past cases. He will probably change this conclusion as he grows older and learns that there may be other results from crying. He has reached his conclusion too soon.

This method of reasoning (called inductive reasoning) from example depends upon having the examples being like the cases about which the conclusion is drawn. That is, if we are to say that it happened this way once, therefore it will happen this way again, we must be sure that it always happens the same. While complete certainty can not be obtained in any generalization without checking each case, we can draw many conclusions if we (1) check a sufficient number of instances; (2) make sure the instances are typical; and (3) check for exceptions.

This seems easy enough but it is one of the most common fallacies. Debaters are frequently heard to say that labor leaders are corrupt. They base this corruption charge on a few well publicized examples and ignore the more than 80,000 local unions that have democratic elections and honest leaders.

In debating the proposition, "Resolved, that the Congress of the United States should enact a compulsory Fair Employment Practices Law," some debaters would cite examples of Negroes in high paying jobs and conclude that this "proved that discrimination against Negroes did not exist."

Thin Entering Wedge

The thin entering wedge involves a prediction of future effects from past events. It is sometimes justified to make predictions from past events but frequently results are predicted that go far beyond reason.

In debates regarding the so-called "Right to Work" bill, unthinking industrial leaders were claiming that defeat of the bill would open the way for corrupt labor leaders to establish a dictatorship in the United States. The Union leaders replied with another equally unreasonable entering wedge that passage of the bill would mean the complete destruction of all labor unions and a return to the conditions of the early twentieth century. Actual changes in conditions in states that have passed the bill have been small.

Getting Personal

This fallacy occurs when the debater attacks an individual instead of his argument. Forms of this fallacy that occur in debate involve ridiculing the opposing debater or an authority instead of examining their argument. The debater will do well to remember that wisdom sometimes comes "from the mouths of babes."

The opposing debater may be young, inexperienced, and not know how to tie his tie. But his argument must be

answered. An argument can not be disproved simply by attacking the person supporting it.

"You're Another"

This fallacy occurs when a debater tries to hide his own weaknesses by diverting attention to his opponents' weaknesses. The debater who said, "We know that we have not been able to show that our plan can solve our need but the negative has not been able to uphold any of their contentions" was committing this error. He would lose the debate because the negative would not have to support any contentions if the affirmative plan will not solve the problems. When the debater spots this error, he should point out the fact that the opposition has admitted his argument and merely tried to divert attention from it.

Cause and Effect

It is possible to reason that some factors cause certain events to occur. It is reasonable to say that if you stand in the rain with no protection that you will get wet. It is also reasonable to expect the lights to come on when you flip the switch. It does not always happen but it usually does. So you can assume that it will usually happen. If you check the principles of electricity and the wiring in the room, you can understand the reason flipping the switch will turn on the lights.

A common fallacy occurs when it is assumed that just because one event follows another event, the first causes the second. For example, in 1954 the Russians charged that American H-bomb tests were causing disastrous floods in Europe. The Democratic Party has long charged Herbert Hoover with causing the depression of the thirties even though its causes were many and complex. Hoover was in office only about a year when the depression hit. Increased wages may partially explain increased prices, but examination will sometimes reveal that prices increased more than wages. The farm surplus has long been blamed on government price supports without considering such factors as improved production methods, improved fertilizers, reduced consumption of grains by farm animals, and the trend of the American people to diet.

Debaters may avoid this error by following these rules:

1. Establish <u>how</u> one event causes another. Do not be satisfied that one event causes another just because they occur at the same time.

2. Determine if there are other causes that help to produce the second event. If there are other causes, how important is the first cause?

3. Determine if other forces are working that might prevent the effect. You won't get wet in the rain if you have an umbrella over your head.

False Analogies

Eugene Kennedy of DePaul University analized a false analogy in debating the proposition, Resolved, that the United States should join a federal union of world democracies.

> ...we see upon examination of the affirmative case that it is based largely on an analogy. This analogy is represented as existing between the various democratic nations of today and the thirteen colonies at the beginning of the history of the United States. Now an analogy is good only in so far as it is an analogy. If I am being compared to a Martian in order to prove a point in a discussion, that point is proved only if I do bear an essential resemblance to a Martian. If I do not bear an essential resemblance to a Martian, the entire argument falls flat. But we find a wide difference between the world union and the thirteen colonies. The thirteen colonies were bound together by grim necessity and by the closest economic and cultural ties. But what cultural ties sufficient to carry the analogy exist between the United States and the Union of South Africa? Geographically, New Zealand, Belgium, Ireland and the United States are distributed as widely apart as is reasonably possible on the globe. No necessity is felt to bind all these nations together in order to secure their existence. For the union is already existing and getting along without us, and certainly the United States has been getting along without the union. The whole analogy is seen, then, to be distorted, and carries no weight.[30]

As Mr. Kennedy stated, if there is not an "essential resemblance" the entire argument "falls flat."

An analogy is no more than a comparison between two things. They are of two types, literal and figurative. A literal analogy compares two situations which are actually

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[30]Nichols, op. cit., pp. 181-2.

somewhat similar. An example of a literal analogy is the comparison between two government situations that Mr. Kennedy was analyzing. If the comparison involves two situations that are actually alike in the essential characteristics, it is a useful reasoning process. A fallacy occurs if the comparison is: (1) based on too few resemblances; (2) based on insignificant resemblances; or (3) ignores important differences.

A figurative analogy is a comparison of two things which are not actually similar. As such, they violate the rules listed above. The only time a figurative analogy is used properly in debate is when it will emphasize or clarify a point already proved by other methods. An example of a figurative analogy is, "a good debate case is like a house. Both must be carefully planned and have good foundations."

Wise Men Can Be Wrong

This fallacy is likely to occur when debaters let their "authorities" reason for them instead of using them to support the debaters' reasoning. Some British schools used to post the saying, "Think for yourself. The teacher may be wrong," in every classroom.

Just because a congressman or even the president "said so" does not make it true. The debater has the obligation to examine their reasons for "saying so" before he

accepts it. If the people of Germany had challenged the reasoning of Hitler, World War II may have been prevented. Debaters should use authority for support, but no authority is above question.

Debaters commit this fallacy when they say that "this is not what our founding fathers intended" or "this is unconstitutional." Our founding fathers recognized that they were capable of mistakes and that changing circumstances would require changing government. That is why they provided a method for changing the constitution.

The debater should remember that the reason a wise man holds an opinion is more important than the fact that he holds it.

"Figures Prove"

This fallacy is a variation of "wise men can be wrong." Just as in the "wise men can be wrong" fallacy, this is more of an attempt to stop reasoning than it is to encourage it. Statistics can have great value in debate. If properly collected and interpreted they represent a number of facts and carry much more weight than any individual fact. But an old maxim says, "figures don't lie. But liars figure."

A debater should analyse statistics with the tests of evidence presented in Chapter VII, paying special attention

to the source. In addition he should ask the following questions:

1. What do the statistics actually measure? Who or what is included? Who or what is left out?
2. What caused the results these statistics show? Will that cause stay the same?
3. Does the scale stay the same?

What Do the Statistics Actually Measure? Who or what is included? Who or what is excluded? Statisticians have a field day comparing selected examples. Who has not seen the test results of the average American secondary school graduate compared with those of the average European graduate? But what subjects are included in the test? Do they include subject areas both school systems emphasize or do they accept European standards as what should be studied and test only on these subjects. Do they they include all school age youths in both systems? Or do they include all in the American system and only a selected group that are allowed to finish school in Europe. Those critics using statistics to attack the American education system frequently fail to tell what they are actually measuring. Request a breakdown of statistics to find who or what is included.

Averages are especially deceptive. One class had four students with an average income of more than $10,000. But a breakdown on incomes revealed the following:

Student A--	$ 400
Student B--	300
Student C--	800
Student D--	40,000
Total income	$41,500

Insist on knowing the breakdown of statistics.

What Caused the Results These Statistics Show? Statistics may be used to present vast problems without considering the source of the problems. When this happens, the real problem may be lost in the maze of statistics. A contention may be developed and accepted that has no relation to the proposition. In one debate, an affirmative team presented a proposal to remove certain law making powers from congress. Statistics were used to show that congress had moved slowly when haste was needed. Examination revealed that congress had been developing a bill that was different than any other. Since they had no previous bill to guide them, it was argued that it was necessary to go slow. It was further argued that this cause would not exist in the future and so the statistics had no meaning.

Does the Scale Stay the Same? Be suspicious when the method of listing statistics is shifted. For example, in justifying increased prices wages are often shown to be the cause by shifting from dollars to percentages. If wages are $2 of the cost of a product and are increased to $2.20, there has been a 10%

increase in wages. If the price of the product was to be increased just enough to absorb the increase in wages it should be raised $.20. But it is more likely to be raised 10%. If the total cost (labor, material, machinery, profit, etc.) of producing the product before the wage increase was $6 then raising the price by the amount of the wage increase would make the product cost $6.20. But raising the price of the product by 10% would make it cost $6.60.

Appeal to the Crowd.

The appeal to the crowd fallacy occurs when a political or social issue is argued, not on its merits, but by an emotional appeal to a popular view or a slogan.[31] It was particularly popular to refer to labor leaders as "labor racketeers" on one proposition recently debated in college. Giving federal money to education is referred to as "federal aid" and "federal gifts." The farm price support program is referred to as "a minimum wage law for farmers" and "handouts from the worker's pockets." Congressmen are "statesmen" or "politicians" (said with a sneer).

This fallacy also occurs when a debater argues that "the people" favor (or oppose) the proposition. It does not matter whether the public (generally uninformed as they are)

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[31]Chase, op. cit., p. 109.

believes that they desire a proposal. It only matters whether the proposal is good. It may be that it will be difficult to enforce a proposal that the public does not support. But the problems of enforcement must then be compared to the advantages that will result from enforcement.

Arguing in Circles

This fallacy occurs when a statement is assumed to be true because it says it is true. It is argument based on itself. This writer heard an affirmative team argue that the further development of nuclear weapons should be prohibited because (1) a basis is needed for international agreements, and (2) an international agreement is the best basis for such agreement. In effect they were saying that the reason we should have an agreement is that we should have an agreement.

Chase used a personal example when he said, "Chase has written several books on economics because he is an authority. Chase is an authority on economics because he has written several books." Chase is usually conceded to be an authority on economics but this example merely says he is because "he is." It is frequently assumed by debaters that all who write books are authorities by using this kind of logic.

Arguing in a circle is presented in its simplest form by the child who answers every question with, "cause." Ask

them "cause why?" They will probably answer "Just cause."

Self Evident Truths

This fallacy occurs when a debater attempts to gain agreement by assuming agreement already exists. In debating a proposed federation of the English speaking nations one debater was guilty of this fallacy three times in one speech. He said, "As you all know, it is almost impossible to distinguish between Canadians and Americans."[32] And, "We all know that we have too much red tape in our own government."[33] And again, "We all realize, I think, that for the last few years British power and prestige in the Far East have been maintained largely by the firm attitude of the United States toward Japan."[34] To make this valid argument this debater supported the assertions with other forms of proof.

Black or White

This fallacy assumes that there are only two sides to an argument. It ignores the fact that there are many greys existing between black and white. A recent letter to the editor published in a newspaper asserted that the telephone

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[32]Nichols, op. cit., Volume XXII, p. 59.

[33]Ibid., p. 61.

[34]Ibid., p. 62.

company's service is not as good as it was before a new dialing system was installed because the writer's telephone does not ring as loud as it did before. Another reader replied that the service was better than it was before because her telephone was easier to hear. Both ignored the obvious fact that some telephones will ring louder and others not so loud. (Of course, both are also ignoring the fact that the volume of the bell has no relation to most of the service functions of the company.)

Advocates of the so-called "right to work" bills argued that labor unions must not restrict freedom (the "freedom" to work without paying dues to the union that represents them). The opponents of the bill also argued that freedom must not be restricted but they referred to the "freedom" of unions and management to agree to require all workers in a plant to pay dues to the union. Freedom is a relative term. Freedom to drive a car stops when a driver comes to a stop sign. That is, it stops except for firemen, policemen, ambulances, etc. operating in the line of duty.

A university may be a better school than a college in some areas and not as good in others. City living may be better than country living in some ways and not as good in others. An economist who later became famous has been charged with stating in the early 1900's that he was not going to buy an automobile because there was not enough oil

in the world to last more than five years. He was wrong once, but he was right many times in his later life.

Sometimes situations are either "black or white." But often they are not. A debater should always look for other alternatives.

Guilt by Association

This fallacy occurs when it is assumed that because some similarities exist between two persons or things, they are alike in other ways. In debate it is used primarily in attempts to deny the reliability of authorities. It does not follow that a person believes in communism because he opposed the execution of the Rosenbergs. But some persons were persecuted because they had this belief in common with the communists. The communists also favor equal rights for minority groups, federal aid to education, the national post office system, and social security. It is difficult to find a person who opposes every program the communists propose, but it is equally difficult to find a communist.

This reasoning looks like this:

Wealthy men believe in America.
Trent believes in America.
Therefore: Trent is a wealthy man.

An examination of the facts reveals this to be ridiculous. It would be no more false if the two similar statements were reversed as follows:

Trent believes in America.
Wealthy men believe in America.
Therefore, wealthy men are Trent.

All that can be safely concluded from such a similarity is that both share one common belief.

Appeal to Ignorance

This fallacy occurs that when something can not be disproved, it is assumed true. Debaters frequently assert that "the opposing team could not deny this fact." The opposing team does not have to disprove a claimed fact. The team that asserts that the fact is true must prove it. In an Oklahoma debate tournament Gary Sherrer of Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia revealed this fallacy:

> Now the affirmative team asserts that we can not disprove that the further development of nuclear weapons will result in an accident that will start a war. In the first place, we do not have to disprove this charge. It is the affirmative's obligation to prove it true. We will not attempt to deny that it is possible. But almost anything is possible. It is possible that that light fixture will fall and injure the chairman. But until I am given some reason to believe it is true, I will not shout a warning to him. Neither will I agree that we should become alarmed about the chance of an accidental war until we are given proof that it is more than a very remote possibility.

Multiple Questions

This occurs when a question is asked that contains two or more ideas. The classic example is, "Do you still beat your wife?" Or "Are you for the Republicans and peace, progress and prosperity?" The Democrats would word the last

one, "Are you in favor of the Republicans and another depression?"

Each of these questions has not one, but two facts, that is being determined. The last one should be asked, "Are you in favor of the Republicans?" and "Are you in favor of another depression?"

The multiple question fallacy occurs at times in standard debate but more frequently in cross-examination debate. The latter form will be discussed in detail later.

The author is aware that there is considerable overlapping in these fallacies. Some are similar and some are only a different use of the same mistake in reasoning. But your author believes them to be separate enough to serve the debater's purpose.

The list is not all inclusive. Any good book on logic will give you more. The entire area of deductive reasoning has been touched only indirectly. Your author does not apologize for this. It was done purposely because the complexity of that area makes it difficult to locate and apply tests to it. In the next chapter, a method for analyzing arguments will be presented that this author has found to serve better than studying formal logic.

refutation is usually the difference between winning and losing debates. While developing skill in refutation will not assure the debater that he can win tournaments, not developing this skill is almost certain to assure him that he will not win tournaments.

The secrets to successful refutation are three:

1. Advance preparation.
2. Critical listening in debates.
3. Organization in refuting.

Advance Preparation

Advance preparation for rebuttals should follow steps:

1. Get the facts.
2. Develop possible arguments into contentions.
3. Test the contentions.
4. Prepare refutation to stock arguments.

Get the Facts

The debater needs facts from which to draw conclusions. The method of obtaining these facts was discussed in detail in Chapter III. Chapter III suggested that a list be made of all possible arguments that are found during early research. More arguments can probably be added to that list now.

Develop Possible Arguments into Contentions

Each of the arguments that has been listed will be true, false, or partially true. After reading and some practice in debating, the debater is prepared to make a guess regarding the relative truthfulness of each of these arguments.

Each of these arguments should be outlined according to what the debater guesses to be true. Organize each just as though a contention were being built. Include all steps of reasoning. Include your evidence that supports this reasoning.

Test Your Contentions

After outlining his guess, the debater should pretend that he is debating the other side of the question. He should question each subpoint of his argument, attempting to refute it. He should examine each fact to determine how it was determined. He should challenge the line of reasoning to be certain that it does not contain one of the common fallacies explained in Chapter VIII. He should examine the problem presented to see what action it will take to solve that problem. Which of the possible plans that the affirmative may offer will solve this problem and which will not should be determined.

Many fallacies will usually be found in the problems that are mentioned by propaganda groups (including pressure

groups, politicians, and most writers in popularly read magazines). The debater will change the arguments presented by these groups to state the actual, unexaggerated truths that exist on each side of all debate propositions. The steps described above will help him find those truths. A debater should never present an argument that he knows is untrue. It is not only dishonest. It is also unwise. It is much more difficult, if possible at all, to support an untrue statement. In testing, the debater should remember that it is only important that he find the truth. It is not necessary that his guess be the truth. If he finds faults in his own facts or reasoning, he will probably find the same faults in others' reasoning.

After following the steps suggested above to find the attacks that can be made against a given argument, the debater should attempt to rebuild the argument as he would in a debate. If the available evidence was not enough to prove the argument, the debater should write down the missing facts and look them up later.

After the debater has examined the arguments and tested his own arguments, he should obtain help in testing his theories. Debaters can achieve testing and valuable practice by working in groups. Four to eight debaters should meet together for this purpose. One debater will start a discussion by expressing his view. Some of the other

debaters will challenge his argument. The first debater and any who wish to join him will support it. Only one argument will be discussed at a time. The discussion will not end until all are agreed as to what is the actual truth. The only exception that will stop the discussion is if there is a disagreement regarding facts. In that case, the doubted fact should be recorded for further research. In most cases where facts are in doubt, the discussion can continue by considering both possibilities. That is, they will say, "If this is true, what does it mean?" and "If it is not true, what does it mean?"

After the degree of truth in an argument has been decided, there are still two important facts to be determined. First, how will the proposition effect the argument? Second, what is the order of importance between this argument and other arguments?

In determining how the proposition will effect the argument consider how each of the several possible plans the affirmative may present will effect it. If the argument is an affirmative need argument, two questions will be asked. First, will the plan solve the problem? And second, is it necessary to have the affirmative plan to solve this problem or will some lesser action do the job?

The second important fact, the order of importance, will be useful in debates. If it can be determined that some

arguments are more important than others, this information can be used to help the debater select his best arguments. It can also be useful in a debate if both teams have an argument unrefuted. Then if the debater knows that his argument is more important and can show it more important, it will probably allow him to win the debate.

To determine the importance of any particular argument, it is well to think of the way a contention is constructed. The debater will recall that all contentions show a violation of some standard. The affirmative arguments show that a violation is occurring today. The negative arguments show that a violation will occur if the proposition is adopted. To determine the importance of an argument, the debater must know the importance of the standard that is violated and the extent it is violated. If the standard is unimportant or if it is violated very little the argument will not carry much weight. One way of showing that it is unimportant is to show that it was violated in the past with no undesirable results. The most important arguments are those that show a major violation of an important standard.

This process will take literally hours on any important argument. Frequently the author's squad will use a whole evening testing one argument. This may seem burdensome to a beginning debater who has not tried it. It has been this author's experience that it is considered stimulating

and fun by most debaters. Since it frequently takes most of the evening, some squads serve light refreshments and treat it as a social event as well as a work session. This works well in most cases if all remember their real purpose for meeting.

This testing process is so important that the debater or squad that skips it is seriously handicapped when competing with the squads using it. In some cases, coaches do the thinking and working for the squad. Those squads, of course, do not need these test sessions. But the debater misses a valuable part of the training debate offers when this is the case. As the season progresses, the debater who has done his own thinking and testing is usually more successful.

Care must be exercised to prevent heated argument. Disagreement is desirable only if it remains friendly and objective. All participants must remember that friendly discussion, not heated argument, aids objective thinking.

Prepare Refutation to Stock Arguments

After several weeks of debate practice, several arguments will be used by almost all teams. These are known as stock arguments. Answers may be organized in advance for these arguments. Three advantages result from planning these answers in advance. First, it makes for a coordinated action between team members. Each debater knows the line of

attack his colleague will make on a stock argument. This removes much of the necessity of colleagues talking during rounds. A second advantage is improved organization of answers. This should make the reply easier to understand and therefore easier to believe. Finally, any thinking that can be done before a debate starts will reduce the amount that must be done during the debate. If the approach that is to be taken toward stock arguments can be planned in advance, more time is available for analyzing other arguments during a debate.

Answers should be organized, numbered, and evidenced. They should not be written out and memorized. They must be adapted to the specific argument as it is presented in the debate. If they are written out in word for word form, they will not fit the specific argument they are prepared to meet.

Answers should be outlined. Evidence to support the answers should be attached to the outline with a paperclip. These answers will be prepared charges against the arguments. A method for using them in the debate will be presented in Chapter X.

CHAPTER X: PREPARING FOR REFUTATION (CONTINUED)

Critical Listening in Debates

Critical listening involves three steps. They are:

1. Recognition
2. Interpretation
3. Evaluating

Recognition occurs when the debater hears the words and knows how to define them. Interpretation follows recognition. It involves a process by which the mind puts the meaning of words together into sentences, phrases, and paragraphs to understand the ideas the speaker is trying to express. The third step in critical listening is evaluating. Evaluating is more than understanding the ideas of the speaker. It is determining such facts as can be obtained by answering the questions, "Is it true?", "Is it consistent?", "Is it proved?", "Is the underlying principle sound?", "Is it relevant?", etc.

Most people never think past the first two steps, recognition and interpreting. They are easy prey for the fast talking salesman or politician. They are also easy to defeat in debate if their opposition is listening critically. Some skilled debaters slip into the trap of non-critical listening. They assume that when they hear a stock argument being presented that it will be exactly the same as they have heard in the past and have prepared to answer. Often

they find that a new twist has been added that makes some of their previous answers unusable. The debater must always be alert against lapses in listening.

Ten Critical Listening Areas

Ten common mistakes are made over and over again in debate. The trained critical listener will recognize them immediately. The beginning debater should learn to recognize them. He should make a list of them and deliberately apply them to every debate he participates in or hears until their application becomes automatic.

The ten common mistakes are:

1. Insufficient valid evidence.
2. False reasoning.
3. Mistaken disadvantage.
4. Unsupported alternatives.
5. Absurd principles.
6. Straw men.
7. Shift of stand.
8. Inconsistency.
   A. Evidence.
   B. Argument.
9. Plan will not solve need.
10. Need does not justify plan.

Insufficient Valid Evidence

The tests that will determine whether evidence is valid were presented in detail in Chapter VII. The debater may want to review that chapter.

Sometimes all of the evidence presented on a given point is valid but the point remains unproved because evidence

is not presented to support vital subpoints. When this occurs, the opposing debater should point this out and state that the point is not established until the missing proof is presented.

It is generally well to also attack the argument in other ways to establish that other objections still exist even if the requested evidence is presented.

False Reasoning

Chapter VIII presented the common forms of false reasoning. The reader may wish to review that chapter.

Mistaken Disadvantage

The mistaken disadvantage occurs when one team presents argument or evidence that can be interpreted to help his opponent's case.

When evidence presented by one team is misinterpreted, it will frequently further his opponent's case. Instead of just showing a weakness in the evidence, his opponent may also show how a new interpretation of the facts builds his case. The new interpretation of the facts may be disputed, but the facts which were presented originally can not be denied. Therefore, if the opponent can show the new interpretation to be correct, he will have supported his point with the other team's evidence.

Any action will help some people and harm others. When one team proposes a change, they do it to help someone. The other team should examine who is being harmed. For example, a bill to raise teachers' salaries will help teachers because it will give them more money. But it will propose that money be taken from taxpayers. If the opposing team can convince the judge that it is more important to protect taxpayers than it is to pay teachers, they can turn the facts around and use them to oppose the plan.

Remember, facts do not take sides. They are neither affirmative or negative until they have been interpreted. If they are interpreted to change wealth, prestige, defense, social position, etc., they will help some groups and harm others. The debater should learn to use the other team's facts.

Unsupported Alternatives

Professors Nichols and Baccus explained the unsupported alternative as follows:

> Mentioning alternative plans or courses of action without supporting them is a negative device or strategy to aid in refutation of an affirmative plan. It is inferred that there are many things that are better that should be tried first.[35]

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[35]Egbert Ray Nichols, Joseph H. Baccus, Modern Debating, New York, W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., p. 274.

This device was frequently used by negative teams debating the question, "Resolved, that the requirement of membership in a labor organization as a condition of employment should be illegal." When affirmative teams would say that men were often forced to belong to corrupt unions, many negative teams would reply that a better plan would be to clean the corruption out of the unions. The affirmative teams would tell them that this was a negative counter-plan and that they must present it and support it if they want it to be considered.

Professors Nichols and Baccus explained how to meet it:

> In refuting this strategic device the affirmative should call attention to the fact that the negative has not supported the alternatives. It can be insinuated that they were afraid to commit themselves. It can be pointed out that the affirmative has given much time to establishing a plan, and that the negative is attempting to make a substitution or choice of plans without giving any adequate reason or evidence to show superiority. It can be inferred that if showing superiority for a substitute plan were possible and if the negative believed in their own remedies, that they would take time to support at least one of them...[36]

Absurd Principles

Principles underlying arguments can often be shown absurd by assuming it were true and carrying it to its logical extreme. Charles Bush of Wisconsin State in Eau

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[36] Ibid.

Claire used this principle in one debate the author judged on prohibiting the development of nuclear weapons. He showed extreme difficulties in detecting when a nuclear explosion occurred and concluded that to set up an adequate detection system it would be necessary to have an inspector on top of every bomb test. Richard Kirshberg of Northwestern University used the same technique to reply as he denounced the argument as ridiculous and said that even if it were true, detection would still be possible. All they would have to do is keep a list of the inspectors and if one of them did not come back they would know there had been a test.

Straw Men

The fallacy of "straw men" occurs when one team sets up arguments they believe the other team will support and refutes them. If the other team had not intended to present these arguments, they may point out that it was not their argument that had been refuted. This will usually have the effect of making the first team look ridiculous for having attacked the "straw man." If the second team had intended to support them, they may use the straw man attack to strengthen the importance of their argument by reminding the judge that the first team had considered this argument "so important and so damaging to their case that they attempted to refute it before it was even advanced."

Shift of Stand

Some teams will attempt to rebuild arguments in s different way than they were built before they were attacked. Often this is done through presenting new subpoints after the old have been refuted. When this occurs the attacking debater should show that they have abandoned their original stand. He should infer that the arguments which were presented as being so important in the earlier speeches have now been abandoned. Once a stand has been taken by either member of a team, it must be maintained throughout the debate by both members.

Inconsistency

Inconsistencies occur in both argument and evidence. Most inconsistencies in argument are caused by the principles upon which the arguments are based being inconsistent. For example, in debating free trade, one negative team developed two contentions. The first said that American industry would be destroyed by free trade. The second said that the other nations would have their industries destroyed by free trade. Both arguments were supported with authoritative opinions without telling the basis for these opinions. What the negative team did not realize was that the only way American industry could be damaged was being unable to compete with foreign industry. They also did not explain

that the only way foreign industry could be hurt was by not being able to compete with American industry. Obviously, one of the two had to be false. Actually, both were partially true and partially false but as they were presented by this negative team, one of them would have to be totally false.

When an inconsistency is spotted, it is best handled by asking questions. For example, in the debate described above, the affirmative team asked the negative to present more evidence on each of these two contentions. The goal is to force the inconsistency open wider. After the evidence was presented, the affirmative said,

> Let's look at the basis of this first argument. They are trying to tell us that American industry is so weak that foreign industry will destroy it. Let's answer this argument by looking at the authorities they presented for us. In the second contentions they quoted the following persons as telling us that not only could American industry compete successfully, but it very well may be so competitive that it will destroy foreign industry.

After examining the second contention and showing it untrue according to the evidence used in the first contention, the debater concluded that the negative must now either shift their stand and admit that one of the arguments is untrue or they must admit that both arguments are grossly exaggerated.

Inconsistencies in evidence can occur when an authority is quoted out of context. Usually the inconsistency will take the form of quoting only half of a statement when the conclusion says something else. Some handbooks have

been known to quote material that is inconsistent. Because this happens, it is good policy to obtain the original source of any information that is quoted in handbooks.

Plan Will Not Solve Need and Need Does Not Justify Plan

Both of these fallacies were discussed in detail in Chapter VI (see pages 54 to 66).

Organization of Attack

The attack on each argument should contain the following steps:

1. State or summarize argument to be refuted.
2. State the charge against the argument.
3. Support the charge.
4. Show damage done by defeat of the argument.

State or Summarize Argument to Be Refuted

> The reason for re-stating or summarizing the argument one proposes to refute is to make clear to the audience and the judge exactly what point or argument or issue is being attacked. Unless this is done, they may not follow the reasoning, and one wastes his effort and his refutation does not register. Often a judge will be taking notes and will appreciate a moment to identify or recognize the argument, find it in his notes, and take the refutation, so the debater should make sure the judge has this opportunity.[37]

State the Charge Against the Argument

> Always make perfectly clear to the audience...just what is the point that is to be attacked, and the nature

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[37] Nichols, Baccus, op. cit., p. 267.

> of the attack to be made. Show what you are going to refute and how you are going to refute it. Repeat what your opponent has said and then say that you will show this to be false, irrelevant, unimportant, untrustworthy, etc., as the case may be.... It must be made clear that there are two opposing arguments which directly meet, and that one overthrows the other. The force of refutation is destructive, and it can not achieve its full effect unless the audience understands just what is to be destroyed and just how the refutation accomplished the destruction.[38]

Show Support for the Charge

After the charge against an argument has been made, it must be explained. The fallacy must be clearly shown. If conflicting evidence is to be presented (and it is always well to do so whenever possible), this is the time to present it.

Show Damage Done by Loss of Argument

A debater should refute only those arguments that hurt his case or help the other team's. Any attack that is made should substantially effect some major portion of the case. It should strengthen or weaken a plan, some major part of the need, or an objection to the plan.

After the attack has been made, the debater should show how defeating the argument seriously reduces the effectiveness of some vital part of the case.

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[38] McBurney, O'Neill, Mills, op. cit., pp. 240-1.

Taking Notes in a Debate

Thorough note taking in a debate helps critical listening and thinking. Most debaters divide an 8" by 11" sheet of paper down the middle with a line. On one side of the line they record the opposing team's arguments. On the other side of the line they record their answers to the arguments. The diagram shows how the notes of a negative team might look.

Aff. arguments	Neg. answers
1st Aff. argument--	--answer to first argument
2nd argument-------	--answer to second argument
Plan---------------	--direct attack on plan

Another sheet of paper is used to record the attacks the other team makes on a debater's constructive arguments. This time the paper is divided into three columns. An outline of the constructive case is typed or printed in the first column before the debate starts. The second column is used to record the attacks made by the opposing team on the constructive arguments. The third column is used to record the reply to the attack. The diagram shows how the notes of

an affirmative team might look if they were using this method.

Aff.	Neg. attack	Aff. reply
1st argument 1st subpoint 2nd subpoint	attack	rebuild by answering attack
2nd argument 1st subpoint 2nd subpoint	attack	rebuild by answering attack
Plan		

Some debaters prefer to divide two sheets into eight columns and carry each argument through each speech. Each debater should experiment with both methods to determine which works best for him.

CHAPTER XI: THE DEBATER AND PUBLIC SPEAKING

Becoming an effective public speaker is one of the results of debate. The debater is learning to win issues through superior argument construction, superior analysis of evidence and argument, and superior defense of arguments. But every superior debater knows that it is possible to be right on every argument and still lose the decision to an opponent who has better delivery. It takes more than just being right. The debater must be able to convince a judge that he is right. He must be able to hold the judge's attention and get his ideas across. He must make the judge want to agree with him. These are the techniques of an effective public speaker. The debater who wants to win decisions as well as arguments must become skilled in the art of public speaking.

Types of Delivery

There are four types of delivery. The debater will have occasion to use each. He must become skilled in the use of each. They are:

1. Memorized
2. Manuscript
3. Impromptu
4. Extemporaneous

Memorized Delivery

Memorized delivery involves writing the speech out in word for word form and learning the words. This method has the advantages of thorough preparation, careful wording and timing, and a possibility for exceptionally smooth delivery. It has several problems. It may sound memorized. If it does, it will not sound sincere. The debater may forget the speech. If he is only reciting words and not ideas, he will probably have a difficult time remembering what he was saying if he forgets a word. The wording is not easily changed if something happens that makes a change necessary. An unusual case presented by the other team, a sudden change of facts on the day of the tournament, or some distraction in the room are examples of situations that would demand more change than is possible with this type of delivery. Memorized delivery is very burdensome. Time that could be used better in research or testing of arguments is required to completely memorize the script.

The advantages of careful preparation and smooth delivery make this type of delivery useful in the first affirmative speech and in presenting the plan. There is no opportunity for the other team to effect the debate with an unusual case before the first affirmative speech. The first speech must be presented with effectiveness and efficiency. Memorized delivery can achieve this if the debater is willing

to spend the many hours it takes to prepare a memorized speech. He must remember that presenting a memorized speech is more like being in a play than it is giving a speech. He must study the meaning of every sentence to obtain the right inflection on each word to make the speech sound natural and sincere.

Memorized delivery may be used in presenting a plan. It is important that a plan be presented in exact words to be certain that every provision is understood. Memorized delivery is probably the best way to achieve this.

Manuscript Delivery

Manuscript delivery is reading from the printed page. This is the least effective of all public speaking forms and the least used in debate. Its only use in debate is reading of evidence.

Proper emphasis is essential in reading quotations. The debater uses quotations because it adds weight to his ideas. But quotations are useless if they are not understood. Improper emphasis in reading may change the meaning of quotations. Evidence should be marked for emphasis to help the reader interpret it in a debate speech. It should be held high enough to be read without tilting the head downward. It should be carefully practiced to obtain the best eye contact possible.

After reading a quotation, the debater should restate the essential thought that he wishes to draw from the authority.

An entire debate speech should never be read. It will result in poor audience contact. It is taken by some to indicate insincerity. It is often believed to be the result of the coach writing the student's speeches. It is probably the surest method available for losing debates.

Impromptu Delivery

Impromptu delivery occurs when the debater speaks on the spur of the moment with no opportunity for specific preparation or organization. It is used to meet an unexpected turn of events, such as an unexpected argument or an unexpected attack on an argument. It is to be avoided by every means available, short of not answering the argument. Answers made for the first time in the pressure of a debate are usually disorganized. They are frequently stated in such a way that they harm a debater's case more than they help it.

Careful preparation for refutation using the methods suggested in Chapters IX and X will prevent most of the surprises that make impromptu speaking necessary.

Extemporaneous Delivery

Extemporaneous delivery involves careful, detailed preparation of arguments without actually selecting the

words to be used in presenting the argument. It is the best method for most debate speeches. It has the advantages of organization, preparation, naturalness, and flexibility. It is adjustable to any situation. It is ideal for maintaining good audience contact. The speaker is presenting ideas to an audience instead of words. He needs notes only to remind him of the next idea. He can stay on an idea until he sees an audience understands it.

Extemporaneous delivery should be thoroughly practiced. Even though the speaker may never use the same words twice while practicing, it will make it easier to word the idea in a debate if it is thoroughly practiced.

Extemporaneous speaking should be thoroughly organized. Only the order of ideas is organized, not the order of words to be used.

Conversational Style

The best style of delivery to use when speaking extemporaneously is a conversational style. It is named "conversational" in contrast to an "oratorical" style. The oratorical style is more aggressive, flowery, and domineering than a conversational style. The conversational style is closer to that used in everyday conversation but it is on a higher level. It is the style a speaker might use if he were talking to some very important person and wanted to

impress him as a capable, qualified, cultured person with good ideas. In addition to good ideas (which have received most of the emphasis in this book), the debater wants to give an impression of sincerity and make a good general appearance.

Sincerity

The debater should think of the meaning of every word, phrase, and sentence he says. He should develop the attitude that it is important to him that every sentence is absorbed by the audience. If he will do this, he will never become a "debate machine." A "debate machine" is a person who believes he can win decisions by saying more, saying it faster, and saying it louder than the other team. Anyone who has heard a "debate machine" knows that it is difficult to listen to him for ten minutes.

Neither will the debater become a monotone if he concentrates on making every sentence understood by the audience. A monotone is a person who uses no variety in speaking. He may talk slow and soft. But he is as hard to follow as the "debate machine."

A debater with the right attitude will develop a sincere enthusiasm for his subject. This enthusiasm will be evident in every sentence. This enthusiasm will give variety to the pitch, rate, and volume of speaking. The highness or

lowness (pitch) of the voice will vary with the meaning of each statement and the development of the argument. The speed and volume with which the words are said will increase and decrease depending on the meaning intended.

It is easy for a debater to become a monotone or a debate machine. They are anxious to say so much. They are apt to forget that they must do more than win the argument. They must also convince a judge that they won the argument. And they can not convince the judge by pounding at him or by putting him to sleep with the monotony of a voice that lacks variety.

A voice should convey some emotion. It must be the emotion of sincerity of purpose and intensity of need or danger. It must not be over-dramatic but it must convey a sincere desire to have his ideas accepted.

The minute a judge sees a debater he expects something good or something bad from him. He bases this early judgment upon his posture, bodily movement, gestures, and dress. This early judgment will undoubtedly influence the decision. The judge will not conscientiously penalize the debater who makes a bad first impression, but anyone who has ever judged knows that it has its effect. The judge tends to root for the debater who makes a good impression. He tends to accept their arguments as having some authority.

Because this is true, no debater can afford to ignore the impression his appearance makes.

Good posture consists in standing and sitting straight without appearing stiff. Head and shoulders should be held erect but relaxed.

Correct stage movement should benefit the speaker. Incorrect stage movement will be distracting. The debater will generally move when he is changing ideas. The movement should help make the audience aware that a change is being made. Movement should be from side to side. Moving backwards is awkward. Moving forward will make it necessary to move backwards later. Movements should be short. Some debaters find it effective to step to the side of a table or rostrum to present their major points. They return to the rostrum to obtain notes and evidence. For a thoroughly prepared debater, notes will be required only when they are changing ideas. Unmeaningful pacing from side to side should be avoided. Movements should not be planned. They should come only when the speaker feels motivated to move while he is speaking.

Gestures are bodily movements, generally thought of as involving only the hands and face. This idea is incorrect. Good gestures will effect the entire body.

Gestures should be used when the debater feels an urge to use one. They should not be planned. Planned gestures generally look planned and insincere.

Most beginning debaters are hesitant to use gestures to help them speak. Practicing before a full length mirror can help to remove this fear. If the debater will practice gestures of various types until they feel natural, it will be easy to use them in debates. Beginning debaters should always try to use gestures in practice rounds. It will feel awkward at first, but it will eventually become so much a part of the speaker that he will be unaware that he is doing it.

Caution: Use many different gestures. Debaters frequently repeat one or two gestures so frequently that they become distracting. Instead of emphasizing the meaning of a phrase, they draw attention away from it. Advanced debaters make this mistake too. The debater must always remain on guard to prevent overusing a few favorite gestures.

A well groomed appearance aids the speaker. Judges admire a well-groomed person. They tend to accept their ideas more readily. The extra few minutes it takes to get the hair combed just right or to shine shoes is well invested. Men debaters should wear suits, white shirts and ties. Women should wear hose, heels, and "dressy" dresses or suits. Clothes wrinkle if packed in a suitcase while traveling. Take them out of the suitcase at the first opportunity and give them a chance to hang out. Portable traveling irons may

be purchased and some individuals or squads have found them to be a good investment in good grooming. It is inexpensive to carry a portable shoe shine kit and unshined shoes are inexcusable.

Debaters must avoid all extremes in appearance. Flashy ties, novel hats, dangling earrings and bracelets, unusual haircuts and sexy dresses have no place at a debate tournament. They are all signs of immaturity. Debaters are trying to convince adults to accept their ideas on mature subjects. The extremes of immaturity are not likely to help them achieve their goal.

Clothing stores usually have pamphlets that give tips in dressing. Other guides to good grooming are magazine advertisements and some television personalities.

The techniques for making a good first impression can not all be learned at once. The debater must practice them constantly. They must become such a part of him that they will be automatic when he starts to debate.

But, even though the techniques can not be perfected immediately, they can be started immediately. The person who wishes to advance, not only as a public speaker and debater but in all of his dealings with the public, must learn these techniques or be content to face serious handicaps. The time to begin is now.

CHAPTER XII: STRATEGY

Strategy is using the rules of debate cleverly to gain an advantage over the other team. Properly used they are honest methods of making it more difficult for the opposing team to win the major arguments in the time set for debate. Eight forms of strategy have proved useful to this author's teams. They are:

1. Strategic use of time
   a. Case organization
   b. Questions and challenges
2. Strategic use of evidence
3. Unstated standards
4. Apparent weaknesses
5. Trap questions
6. Unexpected plan
7. Unexpected need
8. Counter-plan

Most of these strategies can be countered if recognized in advance. Therefore, the debater will find it useful to change his strategies during the season.

Strategic use of time

Time strategies work because of the limited time allowed each team. The goal is to burden the other team in the rebuttal period to make it more difficult for them to support their arguments in the alloted time.

Strategies of time take two forms, case organization and questions or challenges.

Case organization. The most common form of case organization strategy was presented in Chapter VI in the discussion of the negative bloc. The reader may wish to review the construction of the second negative constructive speech and the first negative rebuttal in Chapter VI. He will note that the strategy is to gain a large enough lead in the bloc that it will be impossible for the affirmative to catch up in the first affirmative rebuttal.

Another strategy is designed to prevent the negative from fully using the bloc. It is called the "added advantages" strategy. Late in the second affirmative constructive speech, three to five advantages of the affirmative plan are presented. They are frequently arguments commonly used by other affirmative teams as needs but which the affirmative team in that debate has not chosen to present as needs. They are presented with little evidence. Generally an authoritative opinion is presented that states that they will occur and that they are important. This bases the entire argument on the qualification of the authority used.

The goal of this strategy is to make the negative team use several minutes of the fifteen minute bloc answering the added advantages. If arguments commonly used as needs by other affirmative teams are used, the negative team will usually give the entire answer to each of the added advantages that they had prepared to refute well developed need arguments.

The negative may completely destroy the added advantages but in doing so they will use the time that should have been used to attack the plan or re-attack the need. Since the affirmative must win only the plan and the need they may lose the advantages and still win the debate. If the added advantages can prevent the negative from overburdening the first affirmative rebuttal speaker with arguments that must be answered they will have served their purpose.

If the added advantages are thoroughly attacked, the first affirmative rebuttal speaker will usually not mention them. If the second affirmative rebuttal speaker has time after re-supporting the affirmative need and plan, he should make some attempt to re-establish them. But if the time in the second affirmative rebuttal is needed to re-support the plan and need, this speaker may just let the negative win the "added advantages." If the added advantages are not attacked, both affirmative rebuttal speakers should emphasize them and increase their importance in the debate.

Questions and challenges. Each team may ask a reasonable number of questions of the other team concerning their plan. The team asking these questions should be prepared to use the answers. Aside from questions concerning plans, each team may question or challenge any unproved assertions made by their opponents. They may ask for the method used in

collecting statistics and a breakdown of the meaning of the statistics. When authoritative opinion is presented that says something is true but does not say why it is true, it is permissable to request that his reasoning be presented so that it may be examined. Each of these questions should be justified to the audience on the basis that the argument can have no value unless the basis of it is known. The goal of this strategy is to force the other team to use their time supporting their first presentation.

This strategy should be used along with more solid attacks based on evidence instead of by itself. If used alone, the debater may trap himself with this strategy. How this may happen is explained more thoroughly in the fourth strategem, the "apparent weakness."

Strategic use of evidence

Evidence may be used to overpower on a few arguments. It may also be used to increase the number of arguments in a debate. The first strategy is used primarily by affirmative teams and the second primarily by negative teams.

Overpowering arguments. When evidence is used to overpower a few arguments the goal is to present so much support in the first presentation of the argument that the other team will never be able to match it. Evidence must be presented in the most concise form possible. Much evidence is

paraphrased but the source is thoroughly documented. A number of one sentence quotations are used. After stating an idea or argument, the debater may say that "essentially the same idea was expressed by..." and may read an impressive list of authorities. Of course, extreme care must be taken that all authorities so used can be shown to actually support the idea or argument.

The opposing team may request that statements from each of the authorities be read. Since this would consume much of the debater's time, he can not do this efficiently unless the other team will concede the argument if he does it. Therefore, the debater should reply that "if the challenging team will concede the argument, he will read a quotation from each. But if they are just doubting his truthfulness he will gladly read a quotation from any one they wish to select and will submit the rest in written form for the judge's inspection." Of course, the debater had better be prepared to do whichever his opposition chooses.

Filing in plastic folders with several quotations in each will allow the displaying of the evidence as it is being used (See Chapter III, page 22).

Increasing the number of arguments. This is primarily a negative technique for widening the debate. It attempts to make the affirmative team disprove several arguments which

are presented with little evidence. Usually authoritative opinion is used to express an argument. To use this technique successfully, special care must be given to qualifying the authority. The debater is asking the audience or judge to accept this as true simply because an authority said it was. This places a lot of reliance upon the opinion of one man. It can often be strengthened by showing other authorities who agree.

Unstated standards

The debater will recall that contentions are based upon showing that the standards of the American people are being or will be violated. (See Chapter IV.) If the debater can prove a violation of the standards that some people support he may wish to show this even though they are not accepted by everyone. For example, in debating the merits of a Fair Employment Practices Law that would prohibit discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, or creed, teams could show that discrimination now exists. The standard that was being violated was that it is morally wrong to discriminate on the basis of race, color, or creed. In some areas (not only the South), many judges did not agree to this standard. To state the standard to them would probably assure the team of a loss. To debate this argument in these areas, some teams would not state the standard.

They would try to center the debate on the truth of the argument that such discrimination now exists. If the negative team wanted to state the standard, they could try to disprove it. But they would usually find it was as dangerous and difficult to try to disprove it as it would be for the affirmative to try to prove it.[39]

Apparent Weakness

The strategy of the apparent weakness attempts to throw an opponent "off the track." It directs attention away from a real weakness by directing it to a deliberately created weakness. Then the deliberately created weakness is strengthened and the argument is claimed.

In debating prohibiting the development of nuclear weapons, plans were difficult to support. One successful team in an Eastern tournament in February, 1959, quoted evidence from 1957 to show that their plan would work. The negative team took the bait. They showed many changes since 1957 that would prevent the plan from working in 1959. The affirmative team then showed that the negative agreed to the argument with the exception that they did not believe evidence from 1957 was recent enough. They then read several quotations from January and February of 1959 and claimed the

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[39] Giffin, loc. cit.

argument won. By using an apparent weakness, they got the negative to answer the argument in a manner for which they had a ready reply.

Trap questions

Trap questions are designed to make the opposing team state its stand on a point. The hope of the team using the trap question is that the admission may be used to gain an advantage later in the debate.

In debating the prohibition of the development of nuclear weapons, one negative team asked the question, "Would there be any cause that would justify the exploding of a nuclear weapon after the agreement went into effect?" If the affirmative answered that there would be no justification, the negative team would show that the plan would stop peacetime progress and would also prevent our use of the nuclear weapons our defense is based on if we needed them in a small war. If the affirmative answered that some exceptions would be allowed, the negative team would show how Russia could continue development under the exceptions.

Musgrave told of another case where this strategy was used.[40]

An effective trap was used by the team which won the Ohio high school championship a few years ago. They

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[40]Musgrave, op. cit., p. 89.

were debating the affirmative of the federal union question. They anticipated, naturally enough, that the negative would contend that Russia would not join a world government and that any attempt to set one up would only widen the split between East and the West.

Before the negative had a chance to bring up this argument the affirmative asked a direct question, "Do you believe that Russia's intentions are peaceful?" The negative, not knowing what the affirmative intended to do with this information hedged; it pointed out many warlike acts by Russia and some peaceful acts, concluding that no one knows what Russia's intentions are.

Later in the debate, when the negative claimed that Russia would not join the union (and therefore the split between East and West would be widened), the affirmative calmly pointed out that since by the negative's own admission no one knows what Russia's intentions are, the negative is hardly justified in asserting that Russia would not join the union. The affirmative's conclusion was that the negative argument simply couldn't be considered established.

Unexpected plan

The unexpected plan is one of the most used strategies. It usually depends upon an unusual interpretation of the terms of the proposition. By proposing a plan that is basically different from what the negative team expects the affirmative may make many of the arguments the negative has prepared unusable. It should force the negative team to resort to impromptu delivery. This will usually harm their organization. Inconsistencies frequently occur in attacks that are made impromptu. Evidence is usually lacking. Smooth delivery usually suffers.

Definite disadvantages exist in debating an unusual interpretation. It sometimes verges on dishonesty as it may be a result of twisting of the meaning of the terms. (Of course, it is possible that the unusual is the correct interpretation.) Many judges have their mind made up as to what the terms mean. They may think the unusual interpretation an attempt to hide from the actual problems. The judge may consider it an attempt to win a debate unfairly. Many debaters have won all of the issues in a debate but lost the decision because the judge thought they were being underhanded.

Another objection to the unexpected plan is that most good teams will have studied the plan if it is supported by any important people. If it is not supported by important people, the reason for this lack of support is probably that it has serious faults. A debater should avoid any plan that he knows has serious faults.

The surprise value of the unexpected plan is good only until the other teams hear about it. An effective surprise plan is usually told by the first team who loses to it to other opponents. The appearance of avoiding the issues is frequently more likely to harm a team than surprise will help them.

The advisability of using an unexpected plan would depend on the question being debated and the conditions surrounding the debate.

Unexpected need

The unexpected need is much more likely to be accepted by the judge as a legitimate stand than is the unexpected plan. It is up to the affirmative team to tell why they support the proposition while it is the responsibility of both teams to decide what the proposition means.

Many good teams have found the unexpected need to be an effective device. In 1951, a team from Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia won their way to the finals of the national college tournament using a surprise need. They were proposing that a federal world government should be adopted to gain the advantages of free trade. This unexpected need surprised many teams.

Another winning college team proposed free trade by advancing a need to reduce the powers of monopolies.

Problems in debating unexpected needs are that they are frequently not important problems to be solved or the need will not stand examination in relation to the plan. If they are true advantages that will actually be gained by the proposed plan, it is likely that some national figures who favor the plan will be using them. If they use them, they will probably be known to most debaters and have little surprise value.

The need must justify the plan. If the plan will not solve the need, it does not matter whether the need exists.

If the need can be solved without the affirmative plan, the plan is not justified.

In spite of the problems, a team will find the unexpected need a useful device if they will develop their contentions clearly and with a great deal of support.

Counter-plan

The negative team may choose to support a counter-plan. If they do they will, in effect, be saying, "We know the present system is wrong. We know some change must be made. But we believe the affirmative is proposing the wrong change. We are proposing another plan that we believe is better than the affirmative plan or the present system."

The principal advantage of supporting a counter-plan is that it may give the negative team a strategic advantage. Because the affirmative team will probably not expect a counter-plan, they will not have studied it enough to be prepared to show that problems exist in adopting it. Its principal disadvantages are: (1) judges are not always aware that the counter-plan is a legitimate stand and (2) the negative sacrifices the natural advantage that exists because of the tendency of most people to be conservative and like what we have now. If a counter-plan is presented properly the first disadvantage can usually be overcome.

The negative may justify a counter-plan by showing that: (1) there are added advantages to be gained; or

(2) there are disadvantages in the affirmative proposal that may be avoided in the negative counter-plan. One of these justifications must be presented and both should be. The negative team must show that the counter-plan is not only as good as the affirmative plan, but better.

An outline of the constructive speeches of a negative team debating a counter-plan would look as follows:

First Negative
- State negative stand
- Develop new need
- Show affirmative plan won't solve new need
- Present negative counter-plan
- Show how counter-plan differs in principle from proposition
- Review negative stand

Second Negative
- Show how counter-plan will solve affirmative and negative need
- Develop contentions showing counter-plan is better than affirmative plan
- Review negative stand

First Negative Constructive Speech

State Negative Stand. The first negative speaker should immediately make clear the negative stand. He should state that: (1) The negative agrees the problems exist as claimed by the affirmative; (2) The negative does not believe the affirmative presented the entire problem and the negative intends to present the rest of it; (3) The affirmative proposition will not correct the whole problem; (4) There are other problems in the affirmative proposition; and (5) The

negative team intends to present a counter-plan that will correct the whole problem without incurring the disadvantages of the affirmative proposal.

Develop New Need. A new need may be developed or new areas within the affirmative need may be presented. In debates on the proposition, "Resolved that the Federal Government should guarantee higher education to qualified high school graduates through grants to colleges and universities," some affirmative teams said that limited classroom space and limited state resources to increase the number of classrooms made federal grants to colleges and universities desirable. A team from Washington Rural High School in Bethel, Kansas added to this need the problems that some qualified students do not have enough money to attend school but after graduating from college they will be capable of earning much more than the average non-college graduate. They developed as a problem the fact that students do not pay the actual cost of their education and that the taxpayers who subsidize them will have to compete with them for jobs after they graduate. They agreed with the affirmative needs and added to them another problem.

Some other affirmative teams on the same question would propose not only the classroom need but also the fact that some students do not have enough money to attend college.

The counter-plan was then adjusted to show new areas of the need presented rather than developing a new need. They would still show that the students will have more than an average income in the future, that students do not pay the actual cost of their education, and that the taxpayers who subsidize their education later have to compete with them for jobs.

The new need or new areas of the affirmative need that the negative teams present must be developed with evidence and argument just as it would have been if the affirmative had presented it originally. But now the negative has the obligation to defend it against the attack of the affirmative team.

Show Affirmative Plan will not solve the New Need. If the affirmative plan has been presented, the negative should examine each area of the new need in relation to the plan showing that the affirmative plan will not solve it. In the counter-plan referred to above, the debaters would show that the affirmative proposition called for grants. Regardless of the method the affirmative chose to grant the money, the students would still not be paying the actual cost of their education and the taxpayers were being forced to subsidize the education of their competition. If the affirmative plan did not provide for students' expenses they could show that many qualified students would be deprived of an education.

If the affirmative team does not present its plan in the first speech (and they are under no obligation to do so) the negative may (1) show the proposition does not meet the new need or (2) challenge the affirmative to show how they will solve the new need. In some propositions, little variation in plan is possible. If such is the case, the negative may show that the proposition will not solve the new need. If several interpretations are possible, the second method should be used.

Present Negative Counter-plan. A plan must be presented while the other team has a constructive speech left to reply to it. This rule allows the affirmative team to wait until their second constructive speech before presenting their plan. But it requires a counter-plan to be presented in the first negative speech.

The same recommendations that apply for presenting the affirmative plan apply to the counter-plan equally well.

The counter-plan presented in the "education" example had two parts. First, it provided for long term, low interest government loans for needy students. The second part provided that students would pay the actual cost of their education.

Show how the counter-plan differs in principle from the proposition. The counter-plan must represent a change in

principle from the proposition. It must not be merely another method for putting the proposition into effect or for administering the proposition. It must not be another affirmative plan.

In the "education" example, the counter-plan provided for loans instead of the grants called for in the proposition and for an increase in tuitions. It is important that this difference be shown in the first speech to prevent confusion about the area of disagreement between the affirmative and negative teams.

Review Negative Stand. Each step of the organization of the first negative speech should be reviewed. The area of agreement and the area of disagreement should be plainly stated. This is important as it limits the debate to the area the negative has chosen to debate.

Second Negative Constructive Speech

Show how counter-plan will solve affirmative and negative need. Just as the affirmative must show how their plan will solve the problems they present, the negative must show how the counter-plan will solve both needs. The negative should use evidence in this step. Each need should be considered individually to demonstrate how it will be solved by the counter-plan.

In the "education" counter-plan, the negative showed how students could obtain money to enable all qualified students to obtain a college education. They showed further that sufficient funds to provide needed classroom space would be available when students paid the actual cost of their education. Evidence was also given to show that students would borrow to finance their education.

Develop Contentions Showing Counter-plan is better than affirmative plan. Contentions should be developed with evidence to show problems that exist in the affirmative plan. Care should be taken to illustrate that the same problems do not exist in the counter-plan. In the "education" example, the negative showed that the affirmative plan would be expensive and unfair to taxpayers.

Review Negative Stand. Review the entire negative stand in the same manner as before.

Rebuttal Speeches

The rebuttal speeches will vary somewhat in accordance with the adjustments the affirmative makes to the counter-plan. In most debates the first negative rebuttal speaker will rebuild the new need and make a direct attack on the affirmative plan. He must be careful in making direct attacks on the affirmative plan that he does not present arguments that apply equally well to his own plan.

In most cases the second negative rebuttal speech will be used to compare the two plans. The negative speaker will, of course, attempt to show the counter-plan as being better than the affirmative plan.

Defending the counter-plan

A counter-plan will change the debate. The next move is up to the affirmative. The initiative has been taken from them. They no longer have to contend that there must be a change. That is agreed. But they must regain the offense if they hope to win the debate. There are six methods for doing this: (1) They may adopt the counter-plan in addition to the affirmative proposal; (2) They may show that the counter-plan does not involve a change of principle; (3) They may deny the new need; (4) They may solve the new need through the proposition; (5) They may deny the claimed disadvantages; and (6) They may present disadvantages of the counter-plan and try to show it worse than the affirmative proposal.

The affirmative will probably attempt a combination of several of these attacks.

Adopting the counter-plan. The affirmative may adopt the counter-plan if (1) It is not inconsistent with the affirmative proposal; and (2) If it does not remove the necessity for the affirmative proposal. The negative's best reply to

the adoption of the counter-plan is to show that the counter-plan is either inconsistent with the affirmative proposal or that it makes the affirmative plan unnecessary. Of course, these replies must be true if made. Before proposing a counter-plan, a team should be certain that this reply can be made.

A good technique for an affirmative team to use in adopting a counter-plan is to pretend that it had always been their intent to have it as a part of their plan. The best way to do this is to number the points of the plan, giving the counter-plan a number as well. For example, they might say, "The first point of the affirmative plan is..., the second point is the same as the negative counter-plan, and I am happy to hear that they agree that this needs to be done, and the third point is..."

Showing Counter-plan does not change principle. The second answer, showing that the counter-plan does not involve a change of principle, attempts to show that the negative is merely proposing another affirmative plan. For example, if the negative team proposes basically the same principles of the affirmative but advocates a plan that will bring them on slowly, they are probably not disagreeing with the proposition. They are disagreeing only with the method of putting the plan into action. If the affirmative team recognizes

this situation, they can suggest that the negative team also agrees to the proposition and is actually proposing only another affirmative plan for adopting the proposition. To be on the safe side the affirmative should attempt to show that their method for adopting the proposition is better than that proposed by the negative team.

If the affirmative can force a debate on one of these two principles they will probably win. Therefore, a negative team that chooses to debate a counter-plan should be certain that: (1) The counter-plan is different in principle from the affirmative proposal; (2) The counter-plan is inconsistent with the affirmative proposal; and (3) The counter-plan removes the necessity for the affirmative proposal.

Denying the new need. In denying the new need the affirmative will use the same techniques suggested for a negative team debating a status quo stand.

Solving the new need. If the affirmative team chooses to solve the new need through their proposal, they must analyze it carefully. If they have studied as suggested in preparing their own case, they should know immediately if it is within the scope of their plan. If it is within the scope of the affirmative plan, it is an indication that the negative was guilty of one of two sins, neither of which a champion dares

to risk. They were either careless in preparing their counter-plan or they underestimated the affirmative team.

Denying the claimed disadvantages. Using this defense the affirmative will attempt to refute the charges made against their plan. They will use the normal methods of refutation. They may also show that if the disadvantages exist in the affirmative plan, they also exist in the counter-plan. A properly prepared counter-plan will not have the same disadvantages as the affirmative plan.

Showing disadvantages of the counter-plan. This technique is usually used along with the other methods. The affirmative attempts to show that the counter-plan has some disadvantages. The negative has the advantage in this exchange of charges against plans because they know the affirmative plan in advance and can prepare disadvantages in contention form. The affirmative should use evidence, if available, when showing disadvantages of the counter-plan.

Desirability of debating a counter-plan

The debater should realize after reading this far that the counter-plan is a lethal weapon. It must be handled with skill and care. Careless handling can result in confusion that is almost certain to give the affirmative team the decision. Handled properly it can defeat many teams that would not be beaten without it.

The counter-plan should be considered an advanced technique that requires detailed preparation. It should be debated many times in practice before trying it in a tournament. It is not recommended for use by most beginning debaters. It relies on the skills of refutation, extemporaneous speaking, and adaptability to arguments. These skills should be learned thoroughly before attempting the counter-plan in tournament competition.

CHAPTER XIII: CROSS EXAMINATION DEBATE

A popular variation of debate includes a questioning period after each speech. The National Forencis League, a high school forensic association that sponsors the national high school meet, uses this variation.

Cross-examination debate is similar to the traditional debate form discussed in the first twelve chapters. Cases are constructed the same. The goals of each team remain the same. Refutation and strategy remain essentially the same.

Time limits vary according to the tournament director's preference. The National Forensic League uses the following time limits.

First Affirmative Constructive--Eight Minutes
  Questioned by Second Negative Speaker--Three Minutes
First Negative Constructive--Eight Minutes
  Questioned by First Affirmative Speaker-- Three Minutes
Second Affirmative Constructive--Eight Minutes
  Questioned by First Negative Speaker--Three Minutes
Second Negative Constructive--Eight Minutes
  Questioned by Second Affirmative Speaker--Three Minutes
First Negative Rebuttal--Four Minutes
First Affirmative Rebuttal--Four Minutes
Second Negative Rebuttal--Four Minutes
Second Affirmative Rebuttal--Four Minutes

In addition to the usual debate skills the skills of questioning must be learned to compete successfully in cross-examination debate. They are:

(1) Selecting questions
(2) Asking questions
(3) Using the answers
(4) Answering questions

Method of selecting questions

There are only two times for selecting questions, before the round begins and during the round. A combination of the two is advantageous.

Advance preparation. Advance preparation should consist of three steps:

1. Determine the purpose of the questions.
2. Word the questions properly.
3. Make duplicate copies of the questions.

(1) Determining the purpose. The two purposes that are most justifiable are (1) setting up arguments, and (2) exposing weaknesses in the opponent's arguments. Valuable constructive speaking time can be saved by obtaining agreement on facts that would otherwise have to be proved. Need issues and plans will become standardized and questions can be prepared in advance to expose weaknesses in the opponent's arguments.

(2) Wording the questions. Questions should be short and to the point. They must ask for only one opinion or fact. Questions should be worded so they can be worded with a simple "yes" or "no".

The list used when asking questions should not be typed. Some judges assume that these questions must be entirely spontaneous. Therefore, the debater should let it appear that they are.

(3) Making duplicate copies. Duplicate lists of questions will make it easy for the questioner's colleague to record the answers accurately. A duplicate list is easily prepared for questions worded in advance.

Obtaining duplicate lists of questions prepared during the round is a little more difficult. Carbon paper can be used to provide duplicate copies of questions prepared during the debate.

Preparing during the debate. Some preparation of questions can be and should be done during the round. Prepared questions should be adapted to the manner in which the arguments were presented by the other team. This method may be used to show weaknesses in unusual arguments that are presented. It may also be used to expose the unreliability of an opponent's sources. A team that has not done enough research to thoroughly understand their arguments can be rapidly exposed.

It is difficult to think of and word properly all of the questions that will be asked in a round. Therefore, many of the questions should be prepared in advance. But sole reliance on prepared questions with no adjustment will prevent the achieving of some worthwhile goals and make the questions appear "canned." A combination of the two seems to work best.

Two suggestions will help determine what to ask. First, the debater should have a reason for asking every question. He should know what that reason is. If he can not say why he asked any question, he is probably just searching in the dark. Against a skillful opponent he would probably serve the opponent's purposes more than his own if the questioner does not know his purposes.

Second, the debater should know the answer to any question he asks. He is supposed to be as well informed as his opponent. He should ask questions to get admittances, not information. Of course, at times the questioner will ask for details of their plan. In such a case he should understand the alternatives and the meaning that each alternative will have to the debate.

Asking the questions

The debater must be fair in asking questions. He must appear to be honestly seeking information. As already mentioned he should word his questions to allow for short answers. Insist, in a firm but polite manner, on getting short answers. The questioning time belongs to the person asking the questions. He should keep control of it but be fair while doing it.

A series of questions should lead to a conclusion. The questioner should plan for this to be a conclusion that

strengthens his case or weakens his opponent's. He should ask questions only to the point that his conclusion becomes obvious. The questioner should not ask if the conclusion is true. The questioned speaker will almost certainly qualify it to reduce the damage of his admissions. His answers should be quoted in speaking periods and conclusions drawn from them.

Questions should not be asked in the manner of a television attorney. Ask questions with the sincerity and honesty of a modest young lady or gentleman. The debater trying to act the part of Perry Mason (one of the author's favorites) will probably have a win-loss record similar to Hamilton Burger's. If opponents get belligerent and hostile, the debater should be extra nice. It makes him look better and his opponent worse.

Using the answers

Probably the most common error is not using the answers after they are obtained. The best authority in debate is always the reluctant source. The opinion of the opposing team as expressed under questioning is the best source not only because it was given reluctantly but also, because they can not match an authority's opinion against it and remain consistent.

If questions are prepared in advance it is a simple matter to record answers. The debater may either do it

himself as he asks questions (by using "Y" for yes and "N" for no) or his colleague may record answers as he asks questions. On questions prepared during the round, it works best if the colleague does the recording. Sometimes he may have to be content with recording only the conclusions that are admitted.

When possible, it is good technique to quote both the question and answer when using the information obtained. The judge will probably remember the answer if this is done.

Answering questions

The skill of asking questions is only half the fun. Answering is also a skill.

Questions should be answered with a sincere confident manner. The debater must not appear evasive or give the appearance of being cocky. He should stand straight and answer questions immediately when asked. He should never appear surprised by a question or alarmed about any admission he may make.

Only the question should be answered. Additional information should not be volunteered. The debater may volunteer to prove an answer if that answer is likely to help him. If asked for specific facts, he should offer to read evidence. If the questioner will let him do this he is answering their question fairly and reducing the number of questions they may ask.

If the questioned debater sincerely does not understand a question he may ask them to rephrase it. This should not be used as a stalling technique.

If asked for an opinion, the speaker should try to give the names of authorities who support the same opinion. This will allow him to support his answer on the questioner's time.

If asked a question that may be answered with a yes or no, but answering it in that manner will more seriously damage his stand than the same question would if he had an opportunity to explain his stand he may answer, "It would have to be qualified before I could give you an honest answer, so I will give you a qualified yes (or no)."

Cross-examination debate determines very rapidly who really knows the answers and who is bluffing. The only way to be sure to know the answers is to find the questions first and then research to find the answers. The techniques of preparing the refutation (See Chapter IX) are useful for this purpose also.

Practice debating at every opportunity. The debater will be surprised at some of the answers his colleague will give to questions. They should agree on the stand they will take and know why they are taking that stand. Frequent practices will help in finding the best stands.

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