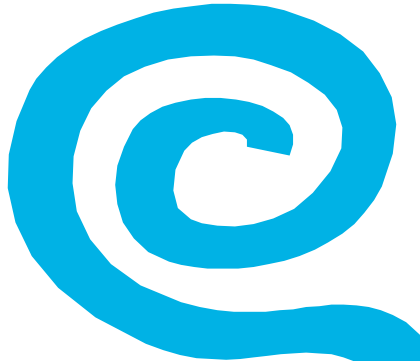
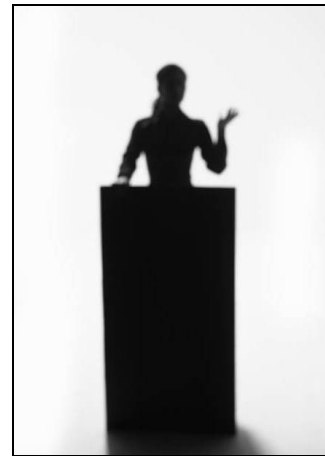
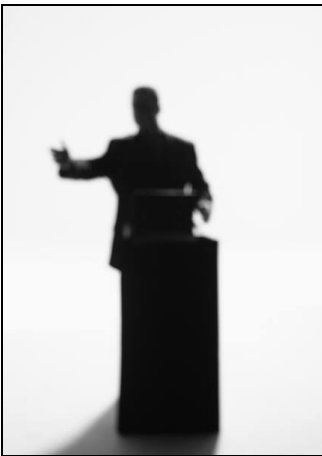


Perspectives



A Brief Introduction to Lincoln-Douglas Debate



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Introduction

The purpose of this *Brief Introduction to Lincoln-Douglas Debate* is to provide a concise summary of the world of Lincoln-Douglas Debate (“LD”). As the name implies, this work is meant to briefly introduce students and others to LD by addressing the fundamental issues including the format of LD, how to effectively argue in LD and other pertinent issues. This is not comprehensive and it is not intended for experienced debaters. Because debate is such a difficult activity to pick up and understand without the proper training, this book should be a starting point for anyone interested in debate. However, by forging ahead, any student, parent, coach, or judge who participates LD will be participating in one of the most rewarding and enjoyable experiences of their lives.

The Value of Debate

The values of debate are endless. If you did a random sample of the debate alumni database, you would find a list of lawyers, congresspersons, judges, CEO’s, businesspeople, scientists and others. Former debaters include Bill Clinton, Malcolm X, Adam Sandler, and even Oprah Winfrey! Through debating, students hone their writing and speaking skills to a superior level, become a first-class researcher, and gain expert knowledge in a number of interesting topics. Equally importantly, the debate awards students amass make them a stronger candidate for college, and may help you earn scholarship monies. There are over 40 colleges and universities that offer full scholarships for debate.

What is Lincoln-Douglas Debate?

While everyone argues every day, it is not common to hold a formal debate, with an established topic, sides ascribed to each person, and times that each person takes. LD is one format of debate that formalizes arguments and provides a clear winner at the end of the round. **LD is a one-on-one values-based debate.** For each debate round, one student affirms (argues *for* the resolution) and one other negates (argues *against* the resolution). That LD is a values-based debate means that students are not supposed to debate specific policy proposals. Instead, LD focuses on the values that underlie decisions to enact certain proposals and the philosophical beliefs that are used to justify certain actions. For example, on a topic like school safety vs. students’ civil liberties, LD does not focus on whether school uniforms should be implemented in public schools or whether metal detectors are effective, but rather, on whether the *value* of school safety overrides the *value* of students’ civil liberties.

There are several important features of debate that you should know:

1. The debate topic is referred to as the “resolution” and it is phrased as a statement that one side agrees with (affirms) and one side disagrees with



(negates). Thus, debaters are either on the affirmative side or the negative side. An example of a resolution is “Resolved: hamburgers are better than hot dogs.”

2. Each debater must defend both sides of the resolution in different debate rounds.
3. The national LD topic changes every two months so students can prepare for competition. Throughout the year, there will be up to 6 different topics.
4. In each round, debaters are allotted a certain amount of preparation time, or what debaters call “prep time”. This is cumulative time to come up with arguments and prepare for their upcoming speech and can be used before any of their upcoming speeches (e.g. with 3 minutes of prep time, aff can use 2 minutes before the 1AR and 1 minute before the 2AR). As a general rule, you will have at least 3 minutes in each debate round. Some larger tournaments give debaters 4 or 5 minutes of prep time.
5. Attacking an opponent’s argument is commonly referred to as “rebutting” or “refuting” their argument. Hence, a rebuttal is a period of time that a debater is given to argue against their opponent’s arguments.

Format of an LD Round

Affirmative Constructive (AC) 6 minutes

The round starts out with the affirmative presenting his/her arguments in support of the resolution. This speech is called the constructive because it is the time for the affirmative to construct his/her case that he/she will use throughout the rest of the round.

Negative Cross Examination (NCX) 3 minutes

After the affirmative finishes his/her constructive, the negative has the opportunity to question the affirmative for 3 minutes about his/her case or position to clarify issues or poke holes in the affirmative’s case.

Negative Constructive (NC) 7 minutes

The negative then has seven minutes to do two things. First, construct his/her arguments to negate the resolution independent of what the affirmative said. Second, respond to the arguments made in the affirmative’s constructive.

Affirmative Cross Examination (ACX) 3 minutes

Just as the negative had the opportunity to question the affirmative, the affirmative now has the opportunity to question the negative with the same goals in mind.

First Affirmative Rebuttal (1AR) 4 minutes



This is the affirmative's first chance to respond to the negative's case and defend his/her own arguments from the negative's objections.

Negative Rebuttal (NR) 6 minutes

This is the negative's last speech where the debater should defend his/her own case, renew his/her objections to the affirmative case, and then summarize the debate for the judge. This summary should emphasize the reasons why the judge should vote negative in the round as it is his/her last opportunity to speak.

Second Affirmative Rebuttal (2AR) 3 minutes

As the final speech for the affirmative and for the round, this rebuttal should summarize the debate round with a significant emphasis on why the judge should vote for the affirmative considering every argument made in the round.

As well, there are several well-accepted rules to LD that you should know about:

1. No new arguments after the first rebuttal speeches (NC and 1AR) because the opponent has little or no time to come up with an adequate response.
2. No "sliming": If an affirmative says something in his or her AC, doesn't bring it up again in the 1AR, but then brings it up in the 2AR, that is called a "slime". Slimes should be ignored by judges because the debater never talked about the issue in the 1AR, meaning he/she dropped it. To bring it up in the 1AR is unethical because it attempts to avoid the NR's ability to adequately address the issue after the 1AR.
3. Dropped arguments are considered conceded arguments. An argument is "dropped" when the opposing debater does not address it in a speech. For example, if the negative does not address the affirmative's second contention in the NC, the negative dropped the second contention. Because of the formalization of debate, this means that the debater tacitly conceded the truth of the argument because he/she did not argue against it. Once an argument is dropped by a debater, that debater cannot challenge the validity of the argument (attacking the warrant) because it was conceded. So even if one debater says something absurd like "the sky is green", if his/her opponent does not refute that, it is considered a dropped argument, and the judge should consider the statement true because it was not refuted.

How to Make an Argument

Arguments are more than mere assertions. If someone says "motorcyclists ought to wear a helmet," they haven't made an argument.



They've only stated an opinion. But an opinion is not good enough in debate. Debate requires substantive arguments that tell the judge *why* to choose one opinion rather than another. In debate, there are three essential parts to an argument: **claim, warrant and impact**. Here is what they mean:

Claim: What the argument is. This answers the "what?" question, "what is the argument?"

Warrant: The reason the argument is true. This answers the "why?" question, "why is this true?"

Impact: The reason the argument matters in the round. This answers the "so what?" question, "so what if the argument is true?" or "why does it matter that the argument is true?"

Each portion of the argument is absolutely essential and cannot be eliminated. If no warrant is provided, the argument is unsubstantiated. If no impact is given, then the argument has no relation to the round. By telling the judge your argument, why it's true and why it matters, a debater provides a well-structured argument that supports their position in the round. **Here is an example of a well-developed argument:**

Claim: As compensation for the injustice of slavery, the US government ought to compensate organizations like the NAACP that protect and promote the civil rights of African Americans.

Warrant: The US government pays individuals when it takes away their property (e.g. eminent domain), when they become physically injured as a result of government action (e.g. injured veterans of war), and when other fundamental freedoms are removed (e.g. compensation as a result of civil litigation). Because slavery caused these harms to black Americans, the NAACP and other prominent African American organizations ought to be compensated, in accordance with treating all citizens equally.

Impact: The impact of this argument is that governments ought to make economic reparations for past discriminatory actions, as otherwise, they would be treating particular minority groups unequally under the law.

This is a well-developed, warranted, and impacted argument. As clarification, you are able to have multiple warrants and impacts to an argument. This is a good strategy in fact because it makes it more difficult for your opponent to refute your argument. They must take out multiple justifications to defeat your argument instead of just having to take out one. The way to make an effective argument is to provide comprehensive answers for why the argument is true and why it matters in the round.

Now that you know how to make an argument, you may wonder, how do you effectively refute an argument? **Here are 6 ways to refute an argument:**

1. **Deny the validity of the warrant:** Argue that their argument is not true for X reason.



2. **Show there is no warrant:** Your opponent's argument has no warrant, and so there is no reason for why it is true.
3. **No impact:** Your opponent's argument is justified, but it has no impact and so no reason for the judge to consider it in the round.
4. **Non-sequitur:** In Latin, this means "it does not follow". In other words, you are arguing that your opponent's argument has no logic as to why it connects at all. (They argue $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, but A does not lead to B , which does not lead to C).
5. **Outweigh:** You concede that your opponent's argument is justified and the impact is true, the entire argument is true. However, it is not as important as one of your arguments for some reason.
6. **Turn the argument:** Your opponent's argument really helps your side rather than theirs. If your opponent says that they defend free speech on their side and that's a reason to vote for them, a turn could be that free speech is a reason to vote in the round, but it's a reason to vote for you rather than them. Or if your opponent says that they will increase agricultural subsidies on their side and that's a good thing, a turn would be to say that more agricultural subsidies are bad and that's a reason to vote for you instead.

When responding to an argument, you can make several different responses that use different forms of refutation. You can first attack the warrant, then attack the impact and say that it is a non-sequitur. A variety of responses provides yourself "even-if" scenarios: even if you lose one response, you can win on another.

How to Write a Case

In debate, a case is the initial speech that a debater presents to support their position as either the affirmative or the negative. It is the case one makes for their side. **There is a general format debaters use to write a case: establishing what the resolution means, presenting a standard and providing contentions to achieve the standard.**



Establishing what the resolution means ensures that everyone in the room understands the topic that is being debated. It is not enough to simply say the resolution. Topics are sometimes ambiguous and different people may interpret it differently. Defining key terms and phrases is important to make sure everyone is on the same page. As well, you can make “observations” to clarify the resolution in a way that would not come about through definitions alone. This could include a general interpretation of either the affirmative or negative, burdens one side has, or connotations of terms in the resolution. Here is an example:

1. Resolution: A just government should provide health care to its citizens.
2. Words to define: provide, healthcare, citizens. What does it mean to provide health care? E.g. should the government provide health care facilities, or does the government need to only subsidize private facilities?
3. Possible observation: For a government to provide healthcare to its citizens, it does not need to physically provide healthcare or solely establish government run facilities. Rather, a government can provide healthcare if it subsidizes the healthcare industry to such an extent that all citizens are able to access necessary medical service at any point.

Note: Definitions and observations can be debated because there are multiple ways to interpret a resolution. Be ready to defend your interpretation!

The standard is the **weighing mechanism for the round** that the judge uses to evaluate which arguments are most important. Another way of conceiving it is as a “filter” where the standard filters out certain arguments, but keeps others. The purpose of having a standard is to specify what the round is about, what types of arguments should be considered by the judge to vote either affirmative or negative.

Simple standard:

Resolution: Wendy’s is superior to McDonald’s

Standard: Greatest physical nourishment per penny paid

Possible aff argument: Wendy’s dollar fries are 5 oz. larger than

McDonald’s, and so because it provides the greatest physical nourishment per penny paid, Wendy’s is superior to McDonald’s.

In debate, you’ll be debating larger issues than just fast food: the issues you’ll be debating often question things like what makes a government legitimate. Because of that, examples of standards commonly used in LD include “maximizing social welfare”, “protecting individual rights” and “minimizing discrimination”. Standards are commonly an action of some kind because it’s doing something whereas a thing is not something one is able to achieve by affirming or negating. **Here is an example for the topic “Resolved: oppressive government is more desirable than no government.”**

1. Standard: Protecting individual rights
2. Arguments that meet the standard:



- a) Aff: At least under an oppressive government, people know what rights they have (even if limited), vs. under no government, there are no defined rights.
 - b) Neg: An oppressive government with centralized power violates individual rights more easily than no government at all.
3. Arguments that don't meet the standard:
- a) Aff: Without centralized economic standards like a single currency set by government, the economy can't grow and so quality of life is lower. (The economy and quality of life is not the same thing as having rights.)
 - b) Neg: Excessive government regulation limits free market forces and so it squanders innovative abilities. (Innovative abilities have nothing to do with individual rights. I may have a right to life, but there is nothing in the Constitution that says I have a right to innovate.)

Both of these arguments fail to address what rights people have and how oppressive government or no government protects those rights. Neither argument would be considered in the round because they do not impact to the standard.

In LD, debaters do not just say they have a standard, though. **The standard is presented in two parts: the value and criterion.** The first step is to give a **“value”**. Since LD is a values-based debate, the purpose of giving a value is to have a principle goal the debater wants to achieve. Values are generally good things that no one would say is bad such as “justice”, “social welfare” or “democratic ideals”. The value is usually prescribed by the resolution (e.g. if the resolution is R: a just government should provide health care to its citizens, then the likely value would be “justice” or “a just government.”). The second step is to give a **“criterion”** to achieve the value. **The criterion is generally the same thing as the standard** because it is the means of achieving the overarching value in the round. The important thing to note is that every argument you make in your case for the judge to affirm/negate the resolution must impact to the standard.

Lost yet? Don't worry. Understanding how the standard functions in debate is like riding a bike: it may take practice, but once you get it, you've got it!

The final section of a case then is to provide **contentions**. **A contention is fancier way of saying an argument.** This part of the case is the easiest to grasp because this is the opportunity to present arguments for your side of the resolution. To win the round, it is not enough to provide a standard to know what arguments matter in the round, but the debater must also achieve the standard by providing arguments that link to the standard.

Now that you know the sections of a case, it's time to talk about how to actually write the case. **There are several steps that should be followed to write a case:**



1. Interpret the topic: Before someone can either affirm to negate a resolution, he/she must know what the resolution says, so clearly establishing what the topic means and what the affirmative and negative jobs are makes it a lot easier.
2. Research the topic: Researching the topic is essential to constructing a well-developed case.
3. Come up with arguments: Develop both contentions and arguments within contentions.
4. Develop a thesis/criterion: With arguments ready, debaters should find a common theme that runs through their best arguments. Whatever this theme is should be the criterion because each argument links to it. As well, this can become the student's thesis. The value of a thesis in a round is that it provides a one-sentence story for the judge to remember at the end of the round.
5. Finish it: Everything for a case is ready then, and all that is left is putting on finishing touches.

How to Cross-Examine

Cross-examination is an easy concept. During the negative cross-examination, the negative gets to ask the affirmative any question he/she wants to. During the affirmative cross-examination, the affirmative gets to ask the negative any question he/she wants to. This part of the round is not flowed because arguments are not actually being made. Questions are just being asked. When questioning, there are several strategies debaters employ. One is to use the time to clarify issues if a debater didn't understand something their opponent said. Another is to identify contradictions or logical flaws in their opponent's case. But as well, cross-examination can be used to just point out general problems with the resolution. **A final note: during cross-examination, debaters should NEVER look at one another.** They should be side by side, facing towards the judge. Why? Because the purpose of debate is to present the argument to a judge, so if debaters are looking at each other, they are not presenting to the judge.

How to Flow

Flowing is simply the process of taking short-hand notes, for the purpose of keeping track of arguments in the round. Flowing is probably the most difficult skill to master when you are beginning debate, but once you get it, you never quite forget how to do it. This isn't an easy task as a debater because while taking notes, you will also be listening to the your opponent, thinking up responses, and generally thinking about the round.

So, how does one begin flowing? Well, as soon as your opponent starts reading their case, you should start flowing. This means that you should be taking notes of their case in a *vertical, column* format. To do this, **on two**



pieces of paper, turn your paper vertically and divide it into five columns. Label them with the speeches at the top (AC, 1NR, 1AR, 2NR, 2AR; for the other side NC, 1AR, 2NR, 2AR) and make sure you are clear as to what is a column and what it is for. Throughout the round, you need to be trying to write arguments in each column. These arguments should be next to one another so that they can be directly compared (i.e. the responses to the AC should be next to it!). You should try to segment your flow of their case properly; if your opponent says that he or she has two contentions and two sub points, that's what your flow should reflect as well. (Look for a sample flow in *Appendix B* if you are unsure about the orientation of your flow. This is a sample flow of a debate round held at the Philadelphia Debate Institute and is a good example of what a well-written flow should look like.)

As the round progresses, you should be flowing the debate. **You should use two sheets of paper, and two different colored pens (one color for aff, one color for neg).** One sheet should have the AC, the NC responses to the AC (in the column next to the AC), the 1AR extensions from the 1AC (next to the NC), the 2NR (next to the 1AR), and the 2AR (next to the 2NR). On the other sheet, you will have the same thing, but for the NC. Eventually, when you get better at flowing, you won't need to divide your paper, and you will naturally be able to write in the column format.

Once you have the basics down, **you should use short cuts to write more, faster.** One tip is to abbreviate words. For example, if their value is justice, you can write "V: J". As well, you should create symbols for the words that are very common. You should also try to cut vowels out of words when you flow them to make it faster. For example, "rights" should be "rgts" or even just an R in a circle. Any symbol you can create that will save you time when writing is a good symbol.

Your flows will probably never be perfect, but you should always keep trying to make them better. There are videos posted online of high level debates (at both www.victorybriefsdaily.com and www.snfiled.org). You can practice flowing these rounds to get more experience and help you flow faster and more effectively. To change it up, try flowing the news or music that you listen to. Anything is able to help you practice flowing because all you're learning to do is write faster. Ultimately, there's no precise way to teach anyone how to flow. It all comes down to a lot of practice to so you feel comfortable with how you do it... so keep practicing!

How a Tournament Works

Debate tournaments usually occur on the weekends. Most local tournaments are during the day on Saturday. For larger tournaments that span 2 or 3 days, there are normally 3-6 preliminary debate rounds where debaters compete against others first in a randomized manner and then according to skill level. At the end of the tournament, the top debaters from prelims will advance to "outrounds" which is a single-elimination tournament that continues in a



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bracket similar to the NCAA tournament until the final 2 debaters compete for the championship title. Think of it as pre-season vs. play-offs, with pre-season being preliminary rounds and play-offs being the “outrounds.”

Be sure to bring pens, paper, timer, water and snacks for the tournament to be ready for anything. At most tournaments, it is customary for students to wear suits. At the very least, you should be wearing dress shoes, nice slacks/skirt, and a nice shirt. This does not mean to go out and buy a new wardrobe, but to identify a few items in your wardrobe that you would wear to a nice dinner or ceremony.



Appendix A Logical Fallacies

Generally, a logical fallacy is an error in reasoning. It occurs when an argument is presented that does not follow prescribed logical guidelines and so does not represent a legitimate or accurate argument. The conclusion of the argument may be true, but the reasoning behind it is wrong. Since debate has students compete over argumentation ability, being able identifying logical fallacies is a powerful tool in debate. Here is a list of logical fallacies that may come in handy in your debate rounds:

1. Hasty Generalization- The argument over-generalizes a situation to lead to an incorrect conclusion.
2. Spurious Correlation/*post hoc ergo proctor hoc*- The argument says that because B and A are associated with one another, that B is caused by A.
3. Naturalistic Fallacy- The argument assumes that because something *is*, that is the way it *ought* to be.
4. Authorial/*ad hom*- The response indicts the author of the argument rather than the validity of the argument itself.
5. False Analogy- When two things are made analogous to one another but can't be because of some overlooked difference.
6. Fallacy of Composition- When a part of the whole is indicted, the whole is indicted.
7. Bandwagon- The argument is accepted as true because many or certain people accept it as true.
8. False Dichotomy- When a person is only given two options while a viable third option is ignored.
9. Appeals (appeal to emotion, appeal to pity, appeal to fear, appeal to authority etc)- arguments that avoid logic and use something else to justify their conclusions.
10. Gambler's fallacy- Since an unexpected event occurred, it must come to an end soon.



Appendix B Sample Case

Note: It is customary when including evidence (a quote by another author) that debaters include the entire quote in their case, even if they only plan to read a portion of the quote (typically the underlined part).

Because money shouldn't determine of who lives and who dies, **I stand to affirm that resolved: a just government should provide health care to its citizens.**

For clarity,

Provide is to "supply or make available"¹. Because provide does not imply accept, a governmental system of health care can exist in conjunction with private institutions.

Health care is defined² as having the "adequate package of care ~~should~~ [including] 'physician services; inpatient and outpatient hospital services; laboratory and roentgenogram services; prescription drugs; institutional care for the elderly and the physically or mentally disabled, dental services, early and periodic screenings, diagnosis, and treatment services, family planning services, home health and personal care services, and other medically necessary professional services.'"

In contemporary society, many nations provide health care by reimbursing and subsidizing private institutions that provide care.

As implied by the resolution, **my value is a Just Government**. It is important to keep in mind that justice questions the morality of a situation, not the economic feasibility or benefits. Slavery was one of the most economically successful systems in history, however, it was clearly in violation of justice

Individuals join society because they seek endowments that can only be attained from a social context. These endowments allow them to function autonomously in the public sphere. Michael Walzer explains why communities are obligated in the provision of needs:

"Men and women come together because they literally cannot live apart. But they can live together in many different ways. Their survival and then

¹ Merriam Webster dictionary "Provide"

² According to the Ad Hoc Committee, "Defining an adequate package of health care benefits" by Paul E. Kalb, University of Pennsylvania law review. 1987.



their well-being require[s] a common effort: against the wrath of the gods, the hostility of other people, [and] the indifference and malevolence of nature (famine, flood, fire, and disease), the brief transit of a human life... The idea is simply that we have come together, shaped a community, in order to cope with difficulties and dangers that we could not cope with alone. And so whenever we find ourselves confronted with difficulties and dangers of that sort, we look for communal assistance. As the balance of individual and collective capacity changes, so the kinds of assistance that are looked for change, too.

Here, then, is a more precise account of the social contract: it [there] is an agreement to redistribute the resources of the members in accordance with some shared understanding of their needs, subject to ongoing political determination in detail.”

Thus, the resolutional question becomes “to what extent is the community obligated to provide for its members?”

I uphold the **value criterion of Provision of Biological Needs**.

Biological needs are human necessities demanded for physical survival, such as the need for water, food, and shelter. Biological needs are a prerequisite to the formation of any conception of justice. It would be ill-logical to seek higher values, such as rights and civil liberties, when the basis for realizing these values is not fulfilled. If medical aid were to be provided based upon anything other than need, it would negate the purpose of medical aid itself. Medicine would no longer serve the purpose of curing ill, but to cater to the upper class.

My first contention explains how health care is necessary for basic human functioning and that when it is allocated by the free market, the free market deprives certain individuals of health care.

Sub point A. The goal of medicine is to equalize and compensate for the biological disadvantages between individuals. Norman Daniels³ explains the specific need health care provides for:

“Course of life needs are those needs which people have through their lives or at certain stages of life through which all must pass. Adventitious needs are the things we need because of the particular contingent projects on which we embark. Human course of life needs [these] would include food, shelter, clothing, exercise, rest, companionship, a mate and so on. Such needs are not themselves deficiencies, for example, when

³ “Health care needs and distributive justice” philosophy of public affairs vol 10, no 2. Spring 1981 p 146-179.



they are anticipated. But a deficiency with respect to them endangers the normal functioning of the subject to be considered a member of natural species.

Still, there is a clue here to a more plausible account [is that]; impairments of normal species functioning reduce the range of opportunity we have within which to construct life plans and conceptions of the good we have a reasonable expectation of finding satisfying or happiness producing. Moreover, if persons have a higher order interest in reserving the opportunity to revise their conceptions of the good through time, they will have a pressing interest in maintaining normal species functioning by establishing institutions- such as health care. Health care are those things we need in order to medically maintain, restore, or provide \ equivalents to normal species functioning."

Health is a necessity not only to life itself, but to the higher functions of life. We establish institutions of care because we recognize that individuals could not attain medical care on their own. Thus, the affirmative definitionally provides basic needs.

Sup point B explains how only public health care allows society at large—and not just the upper class—to access human needs. An unregulated market for health care fosters competition that takes advantage of the consumers. By nature of the system, certain individuals will have access, and others who are taken advantage of by the system will be denied. Gary McCuen⁴ explains:

"Purists would have us believe that markets always provide the best possible economic outcomes. In this view, competition among suppliers to sell their goods and maximize their profits ensure that we play the lowest possible prices for the highest quality goods. But there is no market for medical services in the traditional sense. Demand is determined not by consumers but by physicians in their recommendations to patients. And physicians are also the suppliers of their services. There are potential conflicts of interest here. People do not shop around for the cheapest surgeon, physician, or medicine. Even if they did, they are ill-equipped to judge the quality of the medical care delivered."

The impact is the inherent conflict of interest in a capitalist market place means that the focus is not on good care or on universal provision.

⁴ "Health Care and Human values" Ideas in conflict Gary McCuen.



My second contention is that without a governmental system that non-discriminatorily provides aid, private insurance companies have incentive to limit their access. Analysis from the Harvard Law Review⁵ expands:

“From a moral view, the current health care financing system is suspect because it increasingly denigrates the communal aspects of the provisional of care, insofar as it excludes millions of individuals from the insurance pool and hampers greatly their ability to seek medical care. The crisis of health care continues to drive the market for health insurance into a competitive free for all; cost containment strategies have fostered an enormous financial burden on lower income workers and have fueled stringent risk taking practices that pit the high-risk against the low risk. In both cases, relational identity is disrupted and the sense of community disserved by the exclusion of people from coverage to create a more profitable insurance pool.”

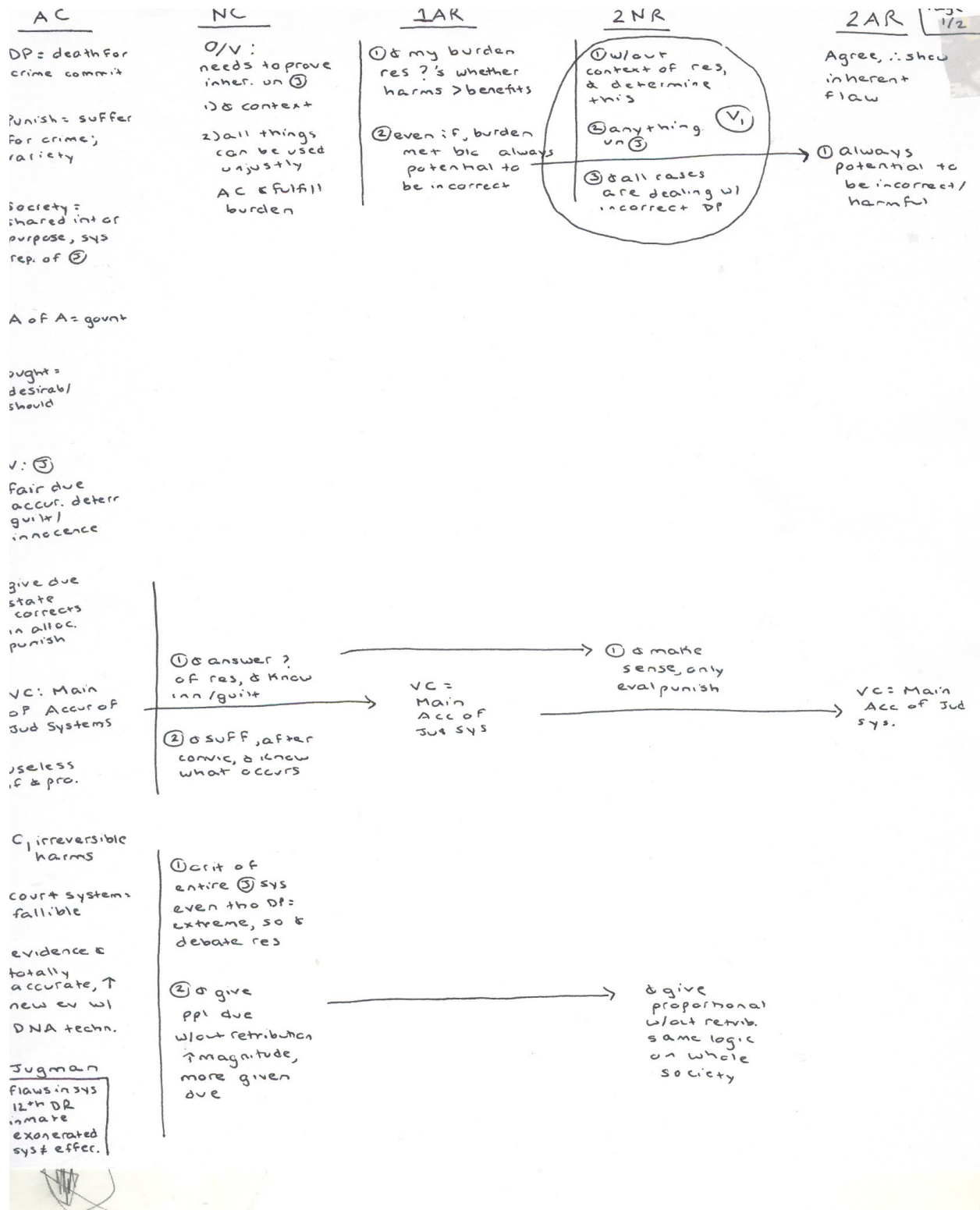
At the point where the poorest members of society are denied insurance, they have two options; to live with the illness or to pay the expenses themselves. Living with illness is not a feasible solution as it gravely endangers their life. Paying medical fees throws individuals into huge amounts of debt. Those in debt are even further denied the ability to advance in the society, entrenching the power of the elite. Thus, negation denies a portion of society the capacity to attain the basic need of medical service.

Because a just government does not allow money to determine who lives and who dies, I affirm.

⁵ “Universal Access to health Care” Harvard Law Review, Vol 108, No 6, April 1995.



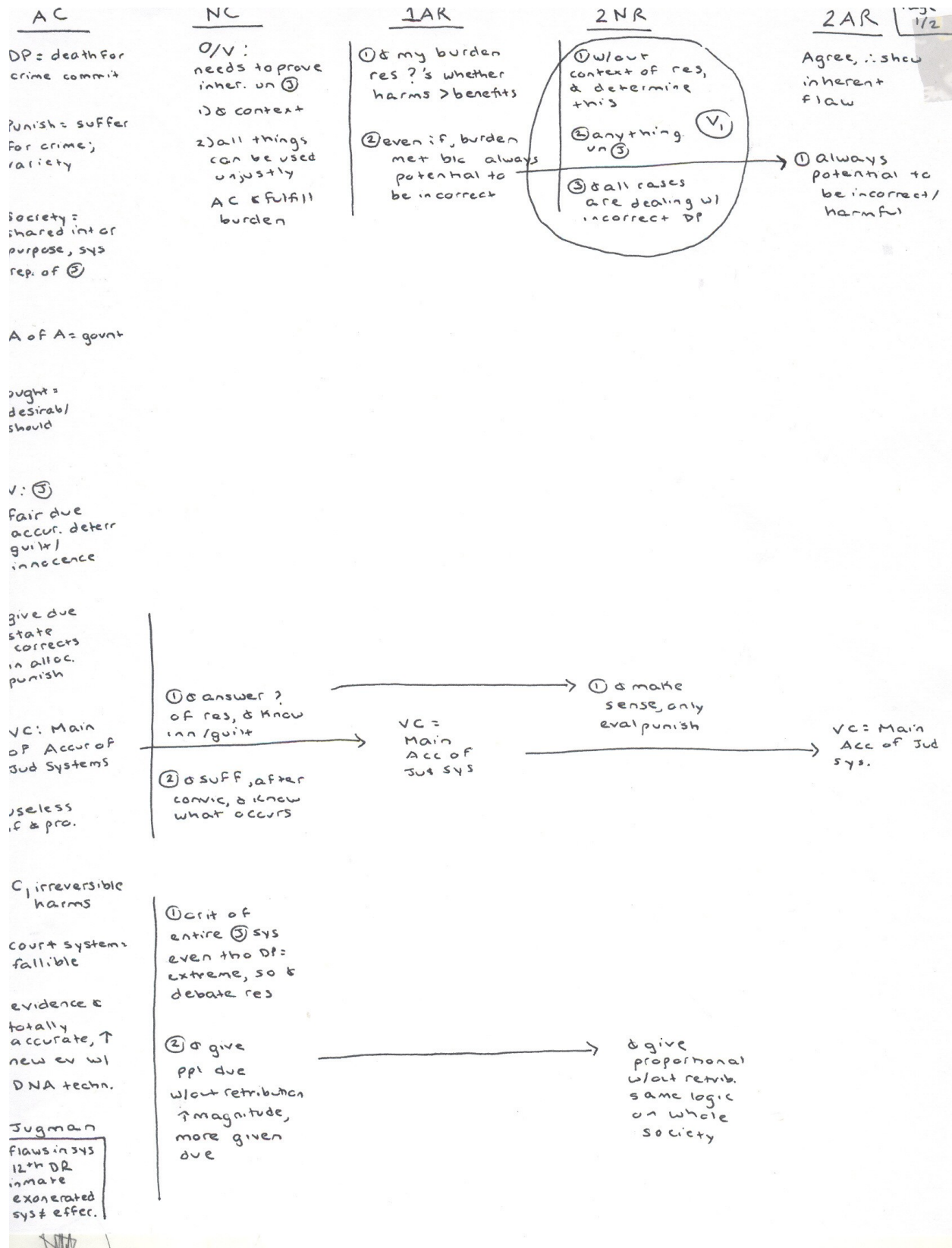
Appendix C Sample Flow





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Appendix D: Skill Drills

Skill drills are ways to improve particular debate skills outside of a debate round. This is a short compilation of drills that you can do by yourself that will help you become a better and more successful debater. The more you practice, the better you will be.

Flowing Drills: These drills help you become better at flowing and taking arguments.

1. Cases: If you have teammates, take turns reading off each other's cases while the other flows. This is a good chance to practice your vocal inflection at the same time as flowing an actual case.
2. The News: Practice flowing the news. This can be done on your own and since different anchors speak, quote sources, and cover many issues, it's similar to debate.
3. Music: Flowing music is a great way to practice because the lyrics can be either very fast or slow. Start with songs you know (you'd be surprised at how hard it is!)

Cross-Examination Drill: This requires several people. Have one person stand up and read his or her case. When he or she is finished, have 2-4 other people take turns asking questions in rapid fire. Limit the number of questions allowed per person to about 4 to make sure you change topics fast enough and force the questioners to come up with more effective questions.

Speaking Drills: These drills help you become a better speaker.

1. Peanut Butter Drill: Take a large glob of peanut butter into your mouth and start reading your case. This will improve your enunciation.
2. Read Your Case Backwards: Start at the end of your case and read each word going backwards. This teaches you to read every word and not anticipate certain phrases so you don't accidentally say the wrong thing and stutter or get side-tracked.
3. Read Fiction: By reading fiction aloud, you can practice your enunciation, vocal intonation and persuasiveness that will transfer over when reading cases.
4. Pen-in-Mouth: Take a pen, hold it horizontally and bite on it. Then start reading your case. This forces you to enunciate and work harder to speak so that when you speak without the pen, you will be much clearer.

Rebuttals: These help you think faster on your feet and prepare for rebuttals.

1. Rebuttal Re-Gives: Take an old flow and focus on one of your rebuttal speeches (NR, 1AR, 2AR or second half of the NC). Time yourself and give the speech again. This is a chance to improve your word economy and method of delivery. Try to give the same speech over again in 1-2 minutes less than it needs to be.



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2. Rebuttal Re-Do's: Take an old flow and focus on one of your rebuttal speeches. Before giving the speech again, go through your responses and revise your arguments. If you dropped a point, add a response. If you made a bad response, change it. Make this speech better by making better arguments. Give the speech over again and try to deliver it in a shorter amount of time. This helps you recognize what arguments to make and how to make them faster.