

Research Package #1

(Junior High School – Cross – Examination Style)



"BIRT terrorism can be justified."

(Values DEBATE)

Fall Workshop Topic (Sept./Oct.) 2008-2009



Code of Conduct

Preamble: Coaches need to familiarize themselves with this code as well as the rules in the POLICY AND RULES MANUAL and formally inform their debaters, parents, and supporters about these ethics and rules prior to competition each school year.

1. PARTICIPANTS:

GENERAL

- a. Participants shall be courteous and friendly to other competitors, judges, organizers and guests.
- b. Participants shall use language conducive to proper public speaking decorum. **Profanity is unacceptable.**
- c. In the event of a complaint, all participants must bring the issue to their coaches only, who will then approach the tournament organizer on their behalf. Complaints must be lodged immediately following a round of debate or speech.
- d. Participants shall not argue with the judge or their opponents about the conduct or the result of the speech or debate. Participants shall not dispute the result of a debate or speech round in the presence of the judge(s).
- e. The Association does not approve of the use of any illicit drugs or the consumption of alcohol at Association sponsored events

DEBATE

- a. Debaters shall not seek to influence the judge by means other than evidence and argumentation during the debate.
- b. Debaters shall not listen to teams debating that they might meet on the same topic at a later time and thereby gain a competitive advantage. Coaches may, however, observe their own teams.
- c. Use of audio or visual equipment for the purpose of recording a debate may be done with the prior consent of both teams, their parents, and the organizer of the event.
- d. A team shall not seek or provide second-hand information regarding the cases of potential opponents.
- e. Debaters shall not breach normal courtesy by interruption, heckling, grimacing or whispering loudly while an opponent is speaking. Heckling, in an appropriate manner, in the case of Parliamentary style debating is acceptable.
- f. Debaters shall not, either by word or action, seek to belittle their opponents. Debates must be a clash of issues and not personalities.
- g. Competing teams must not collude to affect the debate in any way.
- h. Debaters must respect the personal physical space of an opponent. (Do not invade an opponent's space.)
- i. In an Impromptu style debate, debaters must define definitions in the spirit of debate. In other words, they must be defined fairly and allow for debate on both sides of the resolution.
- j. Students may not use computers, palm pads, cell phones, or any communication technology during a round of debate. Debaters must be able to compete on their own merit and the strength of their research done prior to the event.
- k. A debater shall not pass notes/cards to his/her partner when one of them has the floor, either from the constructive speech or the cross-examination. Debaters are judged on individual skills.

Any conduct not in accordance with these codes will be grounds for disqualification in a tournament, and may include banning participants from future ADSA activities. Matters may be referred back to school based administrators.

2. COACHES:

- a. According to the School Act, as well as School Liability, a Teacher Representative/Coach must be present at all ADSA events that their students participate in.
- b. In the spirit of cooperation, coaches shall actively encourage the sharing of resource materials available from public libraries and other public resource centers between teams within their own school.
- c. Coaches must demonstrate qualities of courtesy and good sportsmanship. These are evidenced by proper acceptance of officials' judgement, positive encouragement of student performance and polite interaction with tournament organizers in the event of a complaint.
- d. Coaches will support the volunteer efforts of fellow coaches and judges, and will encourage their debaters to do so as well.
- e. The Coach/Teacher, as a representative of the school, is responsible for the conduct of all personnel composing the school's team (participants, spectators from their school, and parents of your students). Coaches/Teachers shall make an attempt to control any negative situations, before it becomes an issue for the tournament organizer.
- f. When organizing tournaments, organizers should make an effort to ensure that students from the same school can avoid debating each other when possible and that all debate teams from a school will have a fairly even split of Proposition and Opposition debates. Coaches should try to assign a bye to the school with the most teams at a tournament.
- g. Coaches will not scout out teams.

Any conduct not in accordance with these codes shall be grounds for the ADSA to notify the School's Administration. If behavior does not change, the ADSA will hold the right to ban coaches/teachers from attending future ADSA activities.

3. PARENTS AND SPECTATORS:

- a. Parents and spectators, both student and adult, will demonstrate courtesy and good sportsmanship by positive encouragement (before and after a debate) for their team/children.
- b. Parents and spectators will demonstrate respect towards opponents, coaches, judges and tournament organizers.
- c. In the event of a complaint, parents and spectators are only permitted to approach their team/child's coach, who will then approach the tournament organizer (in that order). Parents, spectators and coaches will not approach opposing teams, coaches or judges after a debate has been completed.
- d. Parents will encourage their child to follow the rules of debate.
- e. Parents will not scout out teams.
- f. Parents and spectators will act in a supportive manner towards all volunteer personnel, who help in the development of all participants' skills, and encourage the promotion and growth of the ADSA.

Any conduct that is not in accordance with this code, shall be as grounds for ejection from a tournament, and may include suspension of future participation in ADSA tournaments or interaction with the ADSA volunteers and participants.

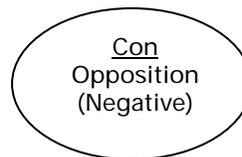
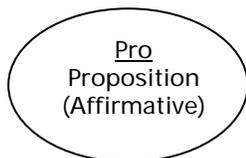
What is a debate?

Debate is an organized way to discuss and come to a conclusion about an issue. The issue is stated at the beginning and is sometimes called a proposition or resolution. For example – **BIRT terrorism can be justified**. All of the discussion must relate to it. In a debate, one person speaks at a time and the other participants listen.

The idea behind debate is that there are two sides to every issue. In a debate, the two sides are known as the Affirmative or Proposition and the Negative or Opposition. The two sides of the debate have different jobs arising from their position with respect to the resolution, issue, or topic.

The Proposition (Affirmative) supports the Resolution.

The Opposition (Negative) opposes or clashes with the Proposition (Affirmative).



To win a debate, you must do two things:

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

The Alberta Debate and Speech Association is an organization that encourages debate. We have established a set of rules to ensure that these debates are fair for all competitors. ADSA has been in existence since 1974.

What kinds of Debates are there?

The two types of resolutions which you will most commonly encounter are:

1. Propositions of policy (Should the drinking age be changed?).
2. Propositions of value (Women are better than men).

Policy Debate – In a policy debate, the resolution is a statement that a particular course of action should be pursued. For example, "BIRT the federal government refuses to allow the testing of Cruise missiles within its territorial boundaries", or "BIRT the government limit the availability of medicare". In a policy debate, the Proposition must propose **arguments to support the resolution and a plan for carrying it out**. They must show that their plan is feasible but not necessarily that it is legal or constitutional. They must be prepared to defend attacks on their position from the Opposition while clashing with their opponent's arguments.

Value Debate – In a values debate, the resolution is a statement of opinion. For example, "A program of nuclear deterrence is more likely to create peace than a program of nuclear disarmament" or "Women are better than men". Evidence that makes the audience likely to accept your view can be presented but the statement is still simply an opinion and so it cannot be conclusively affirmed or disproved.

Unlike policy debate, the teams are not required to produce statistics and evidence. Instead, they make logical arguments for their points. This is not to say they may not use proof, but rather that this is not necessary to win the debate.

The Proposition does not introduce a plan in values debate. The Proposition team simply argues for the resolution and the Opposition against it. The Proposition still carries the burden of proof.

So the BIG difference between a policy debate and a values debate is the Plan. You need a plan in a policy debate, you do NOT need a plan in a values debate.

What kind of Debate will this one be?

This first debate topic for the 2008 season – justification of terrorism is a **values** debate

THE PROPOSITION

The Proposition speaks first in any debate because the Proposition is suggesting a change. Without this change there would be nothing to talk about.

The job of the Proposition in any debate is to persuade the judges that the present system, or status quo, should be **significantly** changed. In order to accomplish this, there are a number of steps that the Proposition team must go through.

- 1) Define the resolution (Make sure everyone is clear about what the Proposition is debating).
- 2) Present a model (If needed).
- 3) Present arguments in favor of the resolution.
- 4) Refute Opposition attacks on the Proposition case. (Show why the Opposition is wrong and why the Proposition is correct).

Owing to time restrictions, the Proposition duties are normally divided up between the first and second Proposition speakers. It is customary for the first proposition speaker to present two arguments followed by the second speaker who presents the final argument.

AN EXAMPLE OF A PROPOSITION STATEMENT

Terrorism is a Justifiable Way to Further a Cause No Matter the Cost.

There has always been a negative stigma around the idea of terrorism. The terrorist attacks on America on September 11th 2001 seemed to the world to be an unforgivable act of needless bloodshed. However terrorism has brought about some of the best political changes in the history of civilization. Terrorism has brought down oppressive dictatorship and seen the rise of liberty and justice for citizens of nations.

The late Yasser Arafat former President of the Palestinian Authority once said "I come bearing an olive branch in one hand, and the freedom fighter's gun in the other". The freedom fighters gun that Mr. Arafat referred was the same gun the international community labeled as the gun of a terrorist.

Faced with a choice between a deadlocked democratic process and a more violent yet pragmatic approach of Terrorism, many groups and individuals faced with the choice are choosing terrorism as an effective way to further their respective causes.

THE OPPOSITION

The job of the Opposition is to be disagreeable! Whatever the Proposition believes, generally, the Opposition counters. The more you disagree, the better! The Opposition has to convince the judges not to accept the Proposition resolution.

The Proposition wants to convince the judges that their proposal should be adopted.

The Opposition wants to convince you that the Proposition proposal should not be accepted for one or more reasons.

The steps that the Opposition should use are:

- 1) Either agree with the Proposition definition or propose a definition of your own.
- 2) Rebut the Proposition arguments in favor of the resolution.
- 3) Attack the Proposition Plan and sometimes propose a counter model.
- 4) Present reasons (arguments) to oppose the resolution.
- 5) Refute Proposition attacks on the Opposition case (show why the Proposition is wrong and Opposition is right).

Owing to time restrictions, the Opposition duties are divided between the first and second Opposition speakers.

It is customary for the First Opposition Speaker to present two arguments and the second opposition speaker to present the final argument.

AN EXAMPLE OF AN OPPOSITION STATEMENT

Terrorism is Never Justified

The use of terrorism to further a social/political end can never be justified because of the unjustifiable nature of the acts and the unnecessary nature of the means. Violence can only bring forth more violence, thus creating a system of using violence to further a political end just entrenches violence in the society.

Any justification given to terrorism destroys the legitimacy of the normal standard process of change within a system. The normal democratic methods of change may be slow and pandering to the masses, however they are given legitimacy by the peoples within the system. Giving into terrorism will breed more extremism as individuals will take issues into their hands and thus destroy the agreed upon method of government, thus sending the entire system into chaos.

Before the debate begins, members of both teams should clearly write the Resolution on the board at the front of the room and indicate their full names and team codes/numbers, to allow the judges to enter this information on their ballots.

BIRT Terrorism can be Justified

Team # 422 (Bears)
 1st Proposition – John Smith
 2nd Proposition – James Wright

Team 410 (Moose)
 1st Opposition – Henry Dixon
 2nd Opposition – Shirley Mace

What are the formats and times of Junior High Cross Examination Debate?

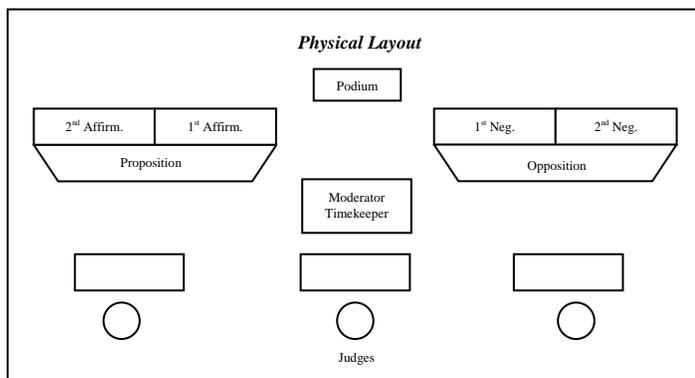
	Beginner	Open
1 st Proposition Constructive	5 min	6 min
1 st Proposition cross-examined by 2 nd Opposition	2 min	3 min
1 st Opposition Constructive	5 min	6 min
1 st Opposition cross-examined by 1 st Proposition	2 min	3 min
2 nd Proposition Constructive	5 min	6 min
2 nd Proposition cross-examined by 1 st Opposition	2 min	3 min
2 nd Opposition Constructive	5 min	6 min
2 nd Opposition cross-examined by 2 nd Proposition	2 min	3 min
Break	5 min	5 min
Rebuttal Speech by 1 st Opposition	4 min	4 min
Rebuttal Speech by 1 st Proposition	4 min	4 min

Bilingual Junior High	(Both Categories)
1 st Proposition Constructive in French (Definitions in both languages)	6 min
1 st Proposition cross-examined by Second Opposition in French	3 min
1 st Opposition Constructive in French	6 min
1 st Opposition cross-examined by 1 st Proposition in French	3 min
2 nd Proposition Constructive in French	6 min
2 nd Proposition cross-examined by 1 st Opposition in French	3 min
2 nd Opposition Constructive in French	6 min
2 nd Opposition cross-examined by 2 nd Proposition in French	3 min
Break	5 min
Rebuttal by 1 st Opposition in English	4 min
Rebuttal by 1 st Proposition in English	4 min

Special notes:

- The first speaker is the Reply speaker, and this never changes.
- Speakers must never interact with their partner while speaking.
- During cross examination, heckling, talking, pulling faces and the like are never tolerated.
- Passing of notes is not acceptable.

What is the Physical Layout of a debate?



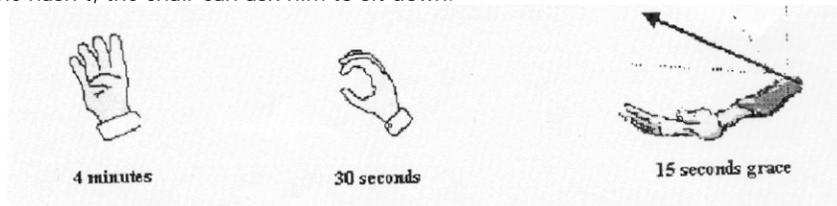
The Proposition and Opposition teams always face the audience from the front of the room. Proposition on the left and Opposition on the right from the point of view of judges. Seated in clear view of both teams is a "chair/timer".

The debate is 'controlled' by the 'chair' (also referred to as a 'chairperson'). Debaters should always start their speeches by acknowledging both the chair and the audience. A male chair is usually referred to as "Mr. Chairman"; a female chair as "Madame Chair". A common way of starting a debating speech is therefore, "Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen", or "Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen".

The chair/timer introduces the debaters before they speak and is in charge of ensuring that the debaters know how much time they have left in their speeches. This is indicated either on numbered cards or through standard hand signals.



The timekeeper indicates the number of minutes left in a speech by holding up the appropriate number of fingers. The last 10 seconds are counted down on the timekeeper's fingers, in the same way the minutes were counted. After the full time of the speech is completed, the debater still has a 15-second grace period to finish his remarks. This is counted down with the timekeeper's arms (imagine the second hands ticking down on a clock). The debater must have finished his speech by the end of the grace period. If he hasn't, the chair can ask him to sit down.



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

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

A speaker who speaks for less than his time is making a significant strategic mistake – he or she is missing important persuasion time. That being said, it is important not to go over time, either. Judges will generally allow a speaker about 15 seconds overtime before they start deducting marks. Speaking overtime is completely unwarranted – not only will Judges deduct marks; they will stop listening to what you are saying!

There is no single way to ensure effective timing. Some speakers wear stopwatches and check the time of their speech; most simply develop a good sense of how long an argument should take. Either way, you need to be aware of time as your speech progresses. When you see the card showing one minute left, you need to finish the point that you are on and start summarizing. When you see the stop card, you need to finish whatever you're on and sit down!

Finally, to decide the winning team and evaluate the individual speakers, an odd number of judges must be present. Having an odd number of judges is necessary in most tournaments to eliminate the possibility of a tie being awarded. The judges work individually in scoring the debate; they may not confer with each other or with anyone else in the room until they have completed their ballots.

Values Debate Flow Sheet

Jr. High – Cross Examination

The Task of the Proposition Team

- The Proposition will argue **for the resolution**
- Members of the Proposition team will provide contentions and arguments and evidence in support of the resolution
- If the Proposition Team’s Position is, on balance, more credible than the Opposition, then the Proposition wins the debate

The Task of the Opposition Team

- The task of the Opposition is to argue **against the resolution**
- Members of the Opposition team will provide contentions and arguments and evidence in opposition to the Proposition and in support of the Opposition position
- If, on balance, the Opposition Team’s Position is more credible than the Proposition, then the Opposition team wins the debate.

1st Proposition Beg – 5 min, Open – 6 min	Cross X Beg – 2 min, Open – 3 min	1st Opposition Beg – 5 min, Open – 6 min	Cross X Beg – 2 min, Open – 3 min	2nd Proposition Beg – 5 min, Open – 6 min	Cross X Beg – 2 min, Open – 3 min	2nd Opposition Beg – 5 min, Open – 6 min	Cross X Beg – 2 min, Open – 3 min	Break 5 min	Opposition Reply Speech 1 st Opposition 4 min	Proposition Reply Speech 1 st Proposition 4 min
Introduction	1 st Proposition Cross examined by 2 nd Opposition	Introduction	1 st Opposition Cross examined by 1 st Proposition	Introduction	2 nd Proposition Cross examined by 1 st Opposition	Introduction	2 nd Opposition Cross examined by 2 nd Proposition	Debaters use this time to work on reply speeches	Both reply speeches summarize their position and point out the basic flaws of the opposition. No new arguments can be introduced. Explain why your team should win and the other team should lose. Remind the judges of your arguments. Tell the judges why they should believe your arguments even after the other team’s attack. Explain why the judges should not listen to the other team. Review critical evidence.	
Definitions		If necessary, attack definitions		Show unity with Caseline		Show unity with Caseline				
Theme/Caseline		Theme/Caseline		Clash with Opposition arguments		Clash with Proposition arguments				
Model (if needed)		Clash with Proposition arguments		Additional arguments to support resolution		Further arguments against resolution				
Arguments in support of resolution		If necessary- counter model, otherwise arguments against Proposition								
Conclusion		Conclusion		Conclusion		Conclusion				

1st Proposition Constructive Speech

1st Proposition Constructive Speech
Beg - 5 min.
Open - 6 min.

1. **Introduction**
2. **Definitions**
3. **Model (If used)**
4. **Theme/Case line**
5. **Proposition Arguments**
6. **Conclusion**



The First Proposition Speaker commands a most important role in the debate. He/she presents and clarifies the resolution for debate and is the first person to speak in favour of accepting the terms of the resolution and as such sets the initial tone and direction of the debate. The First Proposition constructive speech is the only speech that is prepared in its entirety prior to the debate.

In the first proposition speech over eighty - five percent of the speech should be reserved for the constructive matter. The first proposition usually develops two constructive points in their speech giving each point equal time. For example in a six minute speech:

- The first minute would contain the introduction and definitions
- The next two minutes would present the first constructive argument
- The following two minutes would present the second constructive argument
- Last minute would summarize and conclude the arguments.

This speech has six main components:

1. Introduction

A formal introduction is required for the First Proposition speaker. This means more than merely saying, "Good evening", or "Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen..." – it means that they need to actually introduce the debate *as a whole*. In essence, a formal introduction involves 'taking the audience by the hand', and introducing to them the overall *issue* of the debate. This does not mean giving an intricate factual or historical background to the issue; the goal is simply to provide a conversational and 'big picture' introduction to the debate. This however does not mean you need to welcome each person in the room individually to the debate. An introduction such as "Good evening, Mr. Chairperson, Ms. Timekeeper, Judges, Audience, Ladies and gentlemen and of course my most worthy opponents" is not necessary and wastes valuable time.

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

The important point is that a formal introduction is more than a mere greeting – it is an introduction to the issue and, if you choose, a characterization of that issue from your team's point of view. In essence, it is a roadmap telling the judges what the team will do. This is sometimes called "the split."

The following is an example:

"Good Morning, ladies and gentlemen. I rise today to talk about a hugely contentious issue. The topic for debate is THBT Terrorism can be justified. It is an issue that is becoming more important with the rise of transnational terrorism and the terrorist attacks on America on 9/11. As the first speaker, I will define terms, present our model, present a theme, and then offer two arguments in favor of the resolution. My partner will present a further argument in favor on the resolution to complete our case.

2. Definitions

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

Debaters cannot define the topic however they like. Rather the definition must be reasonable – the test for a reasonable definition is HOW WOULD THE ORDINARY PERSON ON THE STREET DEFINE THIS TOPIC.

Not many debating topics involve complicated words. Therefore, the purpose of the definition is *not* to tell your audience, Judge and opposition what a word means *in general*. Instead, the purpose of the definitions is to explain what a word means *for this debate*.

In *all* cases, the Proposition Team must present a definition of the topic; a clear statement of what the team understands the topic to mean. The First Proposition speaker presents this definition early in his or her speech. Essentially, by defining the topic, the First Proposition speaker is saying, "We think that this is what the topic means for the purposes of our debate. We think that *both* teams should debate on the basis of this meaning."

In some circumstances, the Opposition Team may disagree with the Proposition Team's definition. In that case, the Opposition Team is essentially saying, "No – we disagree with your suggested interpretation of the topic. We think that *both* teams should be debating on the basis of another meaning – the meaning given by our definition." Therefore, before every debate, *both teams* need to prepare a definition of the topic.

Above all, both teams should try to be as clear and as simple as possible when defining the topic. Definitions should embody the standard meanings of the terms of the resolution in contemporary public discourse. Creative, novel or whimsical definitions are not appropriate. (This is sometimes referred to as "squirreling" definitions). Choose straightforward terminology. Be specific and give details so all parties understand the topic being debated.

There are a number of ways in which the terms can be defined. Debaters can define the topic as a whole or define individual terms. By defining terms in the topic it does not mean every single word. There is nothing wrong with defining individual words. However, you should *choose* the terms and words to define; don't just define every word for the sake of it. Defining many words (such as 'a' or 'the') is both confusing and a waste of time.

From a judge's point of view, the worst debates are when the two sides are talking about completely different things. So make it clear for judges and on both teams by defining the terms of the resolution fairly!

For this first example debate the resolution might be defined as a whole as:

Acts of intentional violence against civilian or other targets to achieve political or ideological goals known, as terrorism, is a well-grounded and acceptable means of political change.

Or term by term:

Terrorism- acts of violence against civilian or other targets to achieve political or ideological goals

Justified- acceptable means

Hint for the Opposition: If the definition is defined in a way that is not fair this must be contested in the first speech. The ADSA constitution states:

- a) The Proposition must reasonably define the essential terms of the resolution.
- b) The Opposition should take issue with the definitions only if it feels those provided by the Proposition are patently unreasonable. If this happens, the judge shall accept the definition that is best supported through evidence and argument throughout the debate. Definitional debates are a drag for everyone.
- c) The Opposition should not first accept and then later object to the definitions. Failure to challenge a definition is understood to be acceptance of it.

The Opposition may challenge the definitions offered by the Proposition only at the beginning of the First Opposition speech and on the grounds that the definition does not meet the requirements set out in the previous rule. The judges must decide at the start of the debate whether such a challenge is warranted. If the Opposition does not challenge the definition offered by the Proposition at the beginning of the First Opposition speech, it will be assumed to have accepted them.

PLEASE AVOID CHALLENGING THE DEFINITIONS AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE. DEFINITIONAL CHALLENGES RUIN DEBATES.

3. The Model

After presenting the definitions in some debates it is necessary for further clarification about the nature of the topic. If a model is going to be presented in the debate it must also be done in the first speech. A model is much like a plan in a policy debate however it is much less specific. The model helps to answer the five W's of the debate. Who is implementing this resolution, what is going to happen, when is it going to take place, how is it going to take place, and why this specific course of action.

An example of a Model for the resolution This House Would Subsidize Hybrid Cars:

The Government of Canada will provide a direct tax credit to individual and corporations that have purchased hybrid cars for 15% of their value. Thus decreasing the cost of a hybrid car when compared to their non-hybrid counterparts.

The Proposition's model must be completely presented during the First Proposition speech. When proposing a counter model, the Opposition must describe the entire counter model in the First Opposition speech.

4. The Theme/Case line

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

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

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

For example, consider the topic "BIRT Globalization is doing more harm than good". A theme for the Proposition Team might be, "Globalization's emphasis on economic competition advantages a few developed nations at the expense of the majority of the world's population." Assuming that it reflects the Proposition Team's arguments, this is an effective theme (whether or not, of course, it is actually true). Specifically,

- It explains **WHY** the topic is said to be true: the Proposition Team opposes globalization because it "advantages a few developed nations at the expense of the majority of the world's population", and
- It explains **HOW** this comes about: through "globalization's emphasis on economic competition."

The simple approach to formulating a theme, therefore, is to ask, "Why is it true to say that our side of the topic is correct?" In this case, it should be asked, "Why is it true to say that globalization is doing more harm than good?" An effective theme would answer this question.

A CASELINE ALMOST ALWAYS IS WORDED AS A "BECAUSE" STATEMENT. As an example in this first debate, the theme/case line could be:

Terrorism can be justified BECAUSE it is an effective and effective way to create social/political change within a society.

How often should the theme be used?

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

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

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

How should the theme be presented?

The theme is first presented by the first speaker of the team, early in his/her speech. There are a number of ways that the theme can be introduced. Some of these are:

- "Our theme for this debate is ..."
- "Our central thematic argument will be ..."
- "The crux of our case is this: ..."
- "Tonight, our team will show you that ..."
- "The fundamental reason that we support [or oppose] tonight's topic is ..."

5. The arguments in support of the resolution

Like many words used in debating, the word 'argument' has many meanings. For debate purposes, an argument is *a distinct point supporting your side of the topic*. For example, if the topic is "BIRT Schools give too much homework", then the essence of an argument for the Proposition might be, 'Students have so much homework to do that they do not have enough time for sport or other activities.' This is not necessarily the *main* point for the Proposition team, and it is hardly the *central* point (that is, the theme). However, it is *a* point nonetheless so, for debate purposes, it is an 'argument'. Therefore, in the simplest sense, we can consider a debating case to comprise different arguments, brought together by the case approach.

When presenting arguments, or any other important point in a debate, the debater should go through 4 steps:

1. State their point.
2. Explain their point.
3. Provide evidence in support of their point (give an example).
4. Explain how that evidence proves their point (tie it back to their theme).

How many arguments does a debate need?

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

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

It is important that arguments are given equal weight within the speech. Meaning that the time given to developing and presenting each of the contentions should be relatively equal. Thus in a six minute speech, leaving two minutes for the definitions and introductions and conclusions, each argument should be about two minutes in duration.

The arguments need to be divided between the first and second speakers, so that each speaker knows what he or she has to present. This process is known as the 'split'. Therefore, *as a general principle*, the first and second speaker should each have two arguments. This means that, as a team, they should prepare three or four arguments. Here are some suggestions for the first topic. Do not use all these arguments. Pick the ones you can support well, or present some of the views of the side of the debate that is presenting.

Arguments in Favour of the Proposition Caseline

- 1. In extreme cases, in which peaceful and democratic methods have been exhausted, it is legitimate and justified to resort to terror. In cases of repression and suffering, with an implacably oppressive state and no obvious possibility of international relief, it is sometimes necessary to resort to violence to defend one's people and pursue one's cause.*
- 2. Terrorism works. In many countries terrorists have succeeded in bringing governments to negotiate with them and make concessions to them. Where governments have not been willing to concede to rational argument and peaceful protest, terrorism can compel recognition of a cause. Nelson Mandela moved from terrorist to President. In many other countries we see this trend too – in Israel, Northern Ireland, recently in Sri Lanka, and in the Oslo peace process that led to the creation of the Palestinian Authority. Therefore, terrorism is justified by its success in achieving results when peaceful means have failed.*
- 3. Terrorism can raise the profile of a neglected cause. The hi-jackings of the 1970s and 1980s brought publicity to the Palestinian cause, helping to bring it to the attention of the world. States can use their wealth and media to put across their side of the story; their opponents do not have these resources and perhaps need to resort to terrorism to publicise their cause. In this way, limited and focused use of violence can have a dramatic international impact.*
- 4. Ideals like "freedom" and "liberty" are more important than a single human life; they are what gives meaning to the lives of hundreds of thousands of people. Of course, peaceful methods should be tried first, but when all else fails then a nation/ethnic community or other group must be able to fight for its freedom and independence.*
- 5. Actions should be judged by their consequences. In bringing hope, popular recognition, and ultimately relief to the plight of a group, terrorism is aimed at laudable objectives and can achieve sufficient good to outweigh the evil of its methods.*
- 6. The definition of terrorism depends very much upon your point of view - the proposition does not need to defend every atrocity against innocent civilians to argue that terrorism is sometimes justified. A broad definition would say terrorism was the use of violence for political ends by any group which breaks the Geneva Conventions (which govern actions between armies in wartime) or ignores generally accepted concepts of human rights. Under such a broad definition, states and their armed forces could be accused of terrorism. So could many resistance groups in wartime or freedom fighters struggling against dictatorships, as well as participants in civil wars - all irregular groups outside the scope of the Geneva Conventions. Effectively, such a definition says that the armies of sovereign states should have a monopoly on violence, and that they can only act in certain ways. Some exceptions to this are surely easy to justify - e.g. the actions of the French resistance to German occupation in World War II, or of American patriots against the British in the 1770s.
A narrower definition would say that terrorism was the use of violence against innocent civilians to achieve a political end. Such a definition would allow freedom fighters and resistance groups with a legitimate grievance to use force against dictatorship and occupation, providing they only targeted the troops and other agents of oppression. Yet even this tight definition has grey areas - what if the soldiers being targeted are reluctant conscripts? Are not civilian settlers in occupied territories legitimate targets as agents of oppression? What about their children? Doesn't it make a difference if civilians are armed or unarmed? Don't civil servants such as teachers and doctors count as agents of an occupying or oppressive state?*

6. A conclusion

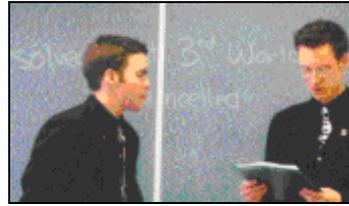
No matter how hard they have concentrated, and how carefully they have listened, audiences and judges can still be swayed by an effective appeal to emotion or a punchy summary of a main idea. This is the role of an effective conclusion of a good debater– to succinctly and powerfully remind the audience of the central point of the debate and that their team has successfully defended that argument.

It is useful to try to find something – a quote, an idea, a triplet, or any other kind of punchy line that sum up the sides approach.

Cross Examination

In Cross Examination debate – when the 1st Proposition speaker has finished his constructive speech, he/she remains standing and says, “I am now open (ready) for cross examination.”

First Proposition cross-examined by 2nd Opposition
Beginner – 2 min.
Open – 3 Min.



After delivering a constructive speech, each debater is cross-examined by one opponent. You are always cross-examined by the member of the opposite team who is NOT speaking next. Cross-examination is a skill that is often practiced separately from speech-making. Although it is an integral part of cross-examination style debating, it requires special knowledge and strategy.

Have you ever seen an attorney fire questions at a witness in a heated courtroom scene on TV or in a movie? Although usually less thrilling than this artificial replication, cross-examination is essentially just that. In debating, cross-examination is a tool by which a debater attempts to extract damaging admissions from an opponent, thereby exploiting loopholes in the opponents' case while strengthening his/her own claims.

In cross-examination, one debater, like the attorney, asks all the questions. This person is called the *examiner*. The other debater (the one who has just finished delivering a constructive speech) must answer all the examiner's questions and is known as the *witness*.

Rules for Cross-Examination

- The examiner controls the cross-examination. The respondent should be permitted reasonable - but not unnecessary - time to answer questions.
- The respondent must answer all relevant questions honestly and must not ask questions except to request clarification.
- A debater shall not seek assistance from his partner while asking or answering questions.
- Judges should penalize speech making, irrelevance, flippancy, discourtesy or any attempt to personally discredit an opponent. Judges should also penalize lack of co-operation by a respondent and browbeating and rebutting by an examiner. (Examiners should only ask questions.)
- New contentions and evidence may be introduced during cross-examination.
- The examiner should ask fair, relevant questions. Questions need not directly relate to the speech just delivered but should relate ultimately to the topic at hand.
- Questions may not be personal** (i.e. Did you vote in the last election?).
- If an irrelevant answer is given to a relevant question, the moderator, on request or on his/her own initiative, should order the respondent to answer the question properly.
- The witness has the right to qualify answers.
- Stay out of each other's space and do not touch each other's materials.

1st Opposition Constructive Speech

1st Opposition Constructive Speech
Beg - 5 min.
Open - 6 min.

- 1. Introduction**
- 2. Counter Model (if necessary)**
- 3. Outline "the split"**
- 4. If necessary, attack definitions**
- 5. Opposition team's theme/caseline**
- 6. Clash with Proposition arguments**
- 7. Explain arguments for opposing resolution**
- 8. Conclusion**



It is usually the role of the first Opposition speaker to oppose the Proposition philosophy and, in turn, the resolution. In particular, the First Opposition attacks the points made by the First Proposition. The internal timing for the 1st Opposition Constructive Speech, is seventy five percent of the speech should be reserved for the constructive matter. The first proposition usually develops two constructive points in their speech, giving each equal time. For example in a six minute speech:

- The first minute and 30 seconds would be used for refutation and rebuilding
- The next two minutes would be used for the first constructive argument
- The next two minutes would be used for the second constructive argument
- Last thirty seconds would be used for a short summary and conclusion

1. Introduction

How does the First Opposition actually start his/her speech? The answer is simply by acknowledging the chair of the debate and the audience, and not wasting time doing it! For example, start with something such as, "Good evening Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen ...", or "Madame Chair, ladies and gentlemen ...", then proceed straight into the speech.

2. Outline of "the split"

Before the rebuttal the debater needs to set up the team's approach. The first speaker of each team must carefully move through every part of the 'foundation' of his or her team's case. Just like First Proposition did, First Opposition must also present the "big" picture. Here's what First Opposition might say in this debate:

"The Opposition Team is going to oppose this resolution. Our claim is that Terrorism is never justified because it does not attain its objectives. It causes further backlash to the terrorist cause and uses violence, which the opposition team believes is never justified. As the first speaker, I will outline our theme/caseline and present two arguments to oppose this resolution. My partner will present a further argument for opposing as well as indicating other avenues that are available."

3. Definitions

If the Proposition has failed to define any key terms of the resolution, First Opposition may offer definitions. If the Proposition definitions are absolutely illogical or unreasonable, First Opposition must contest them immediately by providing compelling reasons for their rejection. (Check the rules on this point). Otherwise, it is assumed that the team's team is in complete agreement with the terms as defined

4. Opposition team's theme/caseline

Just as First Proposition did, First Opposition would present the Opposition theme/caseline. In this debate, the Opposition theme might be:

Terrorism.....

5. Rebuttal (clash with Proposition arguments)

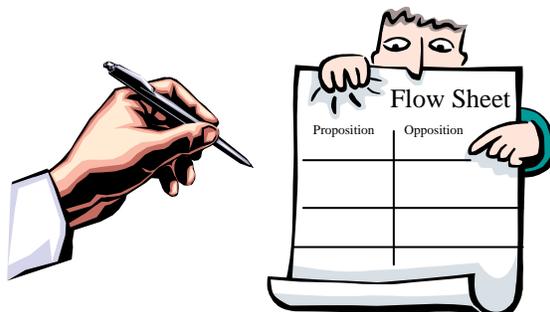
In the rebuttal the debaters must now attack the opponents' arguments. The goal of a debate is to convince the audience that the side of the topic a debater is defending is true. Therefore, a good debater should refute the opposition's case – by rebutting any notion, assertion, argument, example, statistic or anything else whose demise will contribute to the successful collapse of the opposition's case.

How can a debater keep track of all the points made by the opponent?

During a debate, it is important to take notes: as a debater one will need to clash with each point the other side makes as it is impossible to remember everything that is said in a debate unless notes are taken. Debater can use whatever note-taking method works best for them, but many debaters find it helpful to keep a flow sheet with the Proposition on one side and the Opposition on the other. One should write down each point the other side makes, as well as their responses to it. Also a debater should make notes of evidence that supports their own arguments. Debaters can use this sheet for during the refutation part of the speech. Clash, done well, does not just involve taking issue with the logic of the opposition argument. It incorporates evidence that a side has held in waiting for just such an occasion.

Creating a flow sheet:

- 1) Make notes on the key points of the opposition's speech on a piece of paper.
- 2) Leave room on the paper to jot down arguments used in response.



- 3) Make a note of evidence that supports argument that are used.
- 4) This page can be used for the refutation part of the speech.

The Flow Sheet

A Flow Sheet is kind of like a cheap video tape recorder... it allows one to record what the other debater said and to let you think about what an appropriate response should be.

THEM	US

- A Flow Sheet allows debaters to respond to all the points the opponent makes. This is important because judges also keep Flow Sheets. Forgetting, or omitting a point can be the downfall in a close debate and thus the reason for concise note taking.
- Flow Sheets also provide you with a sort of tape recording of the debate.
- You cannot possibly remember everything in the right order and in enough detail without a Flow sheet (**order your opponents' ideas into a structure that better highlights the strengths of your case points**).
- Wouldn't you rather give a speech from a Flow sheet than off the top of your head?

What things should the rebuttal concentrate on?

The first issue is the rebuttal of the opposition's theme. A debater should attack the important ideas and assumptions underlying the opposition's case, *and refer to the opposition's theme while doing this*. The second issue is rebuttal of substantiation (examples and statistics). If the opposition's case is well supported by certain examples or statistics, one needs to rebut them effectively. *If one does rebut examples and statistics, the debater needs to constantly consider and discuss their relevance and context in the debate*. In simple terms, it can be very effective to rebut an example or statistic *if* the debater shows how the opposition's case was reliant upon that material.

6. Counter Model (if one is used)

The COUNTER MODEL involves the Opposition agreeing with the resolution, and then presenting a plan that is *significantly different* from the Proposition's plan. Debaters must remember that it must be substantially different, or it will sound like the model is agreeing with the Proposition, which one must not do on any account if the debater wishes to keep their dignity as an Opposition team member! If one runs this strategy, make sure to explain clearly to the judges what you are doing. Be sure that the counter model is within the resolution and therefore this strategy is only used when it is conducive to do so.

There are problems with the counter model strategy. In agreeing with the resolution the Opposition Team gives away half of the debate, leaving an uphill fight. This strategy is not recommended unless the debaters consider their counter overpowering.

If a counter model is presented, it must be done entirely by the 1st Opposition speaker.

7. Arguments against the resolution

First Opposition must now present arguments to oppose the resolution. Because the debater was rebutting First Proposition's arguments', First Opposition will only have time to present two (2) arguments to oppose the resolution. Just like First Proposition, when presenting the arguments, the debater should follow the four steps as outlined:

- 1) State the point.
- 2) Explain the point.
- 3) Provide evidence in support of the point (Give an example).
- 4) Explain how that evidence proves the point (Tie it back to the theme).

Below are some suggested arguments against the resolution. Do not use all these arguments. Only pick the ones that the side can support well, or present their own.

Arguments in Favour of the Opposition Caseline

1. Terrorism is never justified. Peaceful and democratic means must always be used. Even when democratic rights are denied, non-violent protest is the only moral action. And in the most extreme cases, in which subject populations are weak and vulnerable to reprisals from the attacked state, it is especially important for groups not to resort to terror. Terrorism merely exacerbates a situation, and creates a cycle of violence and suffering.
2. Terrorism does not work. It antagonises and angers the community that it targets. It polarises opinion and makes it more difficult for moderates on both sides to prevail and compromise. A lasting and peaceful settlement can only be won with the freely given consent of both parties to a conflict or disagreement. The bad-feeling caused by the slaughter of hundreds, perhaps thousands, of innocent people by terrorists makes such consent desperately difficult to give. Furthermore, states or institutions created in concession to terror are often corrupt, dominated by men of violence with links to organised crime. Nothing is achieved to improve the lives of the people in whose name terror has been used.
3. All publicity is definitely not good publicity. Powerful images of suffering and death will permanently mark the terrorists' cause, losing the battle for public opinion around the world. Furthermore, groups that resort to terrorism play into the hands of their opponents; states suffering from terrorism can win powerful support from similarly affected nations, such as the USA, in combating this threat.
4. Abstract ideals are insignificant when compared to the value of even a single life. Life is sacred, and to murder anyone in pursuit of an idea – or even the improvement of other people's lives – is shocking, abhorrent and wrong. No one has the right to say another person's life is worthless, or worth less than the cause which is pursued through terrorism.
5. The end does not justify the means. The consequences of any action are by no means clear. The success of terrorism is not guaranteed; it is an immoral gamble to kill people in the hope of achieving something else. And even if the goal was realised, the price paid is literally incalculable. Those who use violence in the pursuit of "higher" aims presume to be able to calculate suffering. But the fear, suffering and death caused by terrorism damage millions of people. Not just the victims are affected, with their families and fellow citizens, but also people in many different countries who are put at risk because terrorists from other countries are inspired by these atrocious acts.
6. States who ignore the Geneva Conventions, for example by mistreating prisoners or deliberately attacking civilian targets, are guilty of terrorism and this cannot be justified. Nor are the Conventions only applicable to warfare between sovereign states - their principles can be clearly applied in other kinds of conflict and used to distinguish between legitimate military struggle and indefensible terrorism.
Nor is it reasonable to argue that there are grey areas, and that civilians are sometimes legitimate targets - once such a claim has been made anything can eventually be "justified" in the name of some cause. All too often the political leaderships of protest movements have decided that limited "physical force" is necessary to advance their cause, only to find the violence spiralling out of control. The "hard men" who are prepared to use force end up in control of the movement, which increasingly attracts criminals and others who love violence for its own sake. The original base of support for the movement in the wider population and internationally is alienated. The authorities against whom the movement is struggling also respond by using increasingly repressive measures of their own, generating a spiral of violence and cruelty.

8. Conclusion

Just as we suggested for First Proposition, here too, an effective conclusion needs to remind the judges/audience of your central point.

Cross Examination

In Cross Examination debate - when the 1st Opposition has finished his constructive speech, he/she too remains standing and says "I am now open (ready) for cross examination."

**First Opposition is then cross-examined by 1st Proposition.
Beginner – 2 min.
Open – 3 Min.**



2nd Proposition Constructive Speech

2nd Proposition Constructive Speech

Beg - 5 min.
Open - 6 min.

1. Introduction
2. Clash with points made by Opposition
3. Outline team's case approach
4. Further Proposition Arguments
5. Conclusion



The Second Proposition speech is the first opportunity the Proposition Team has to directly clash with the arguments of the Opposition's case. It is also the Proposition's last chance to present new contentions that support the resolution and their proposal. The internal timing for the six (6) minute Second Proposition Constructive Speech is three (3) minutes for construction and three (3) for refutation. For example in an six minute speech:

- The first thirty seconds would be used for the introduction
- The next two minutes for refutation of the opposition and rebuilding
- The next two minutes for construction of a single new argument
- The final thirty seconds for the conclusion

1. Introduction

Acknowledge the chair and the audience and then immediately begin the rebuttal.

2. Rebuttal (Clash with Opponent's arguments)

- Use a flow chart to keep track of everything that the First Opposition speaker said
- Now directly address each of the specific challenges that he/she issued. Challenge the arguments that he/she gave. Show why Second Proposition considers his/her reasoning or evidence to be wrong. One way or another, Second Proposition should deal with every argument, example and significant idea that the opposition raised.
- Is it possible to rebut the rebuttal? What happens if the opposition rebuts one of the proposition's arguments? Should they rebut their rebuttal? The answer is – yes, every time. One should not spend too much time doing this, but it must be done.

3. Outline team's case approach

As a second speaker, they will not have to set up a case. However, it is nice to give a sense of 'case unity' – to show the audience and judges how the team's arguments fit together. Therefore, as a second speaker, it helps to provide a brief link to their case as a whole before commencing into the individual arguments. Usually, this means stating your team's theme and briefly recounting your first speaker's arguments, before moving on to outline your own. For example, you could say:

Our first speaker presented you with the theme that terrorism can be justified BECAUSE it is an effective way to create social/political change within a society. He presented 2 arguments to support our contention. It is my duty to present one further argument in favor of our theme.

4. Further Proposition Arguments

Second Proposition must now continue to present arguments to support the resolution. Because he/she was rebutting Second Opposition's arguments, Second Proposition will only have time to present 1 more argument. Just like First Proposition, when presenting the arguments, he/she should go through four (4) steps:

- 1) State the point.
- 2) Explain the point.
- 3) Provide evidence in support of the point (Give an example).
- 4) Explain how that evidence proves the point (Tie it back to the sides theme).

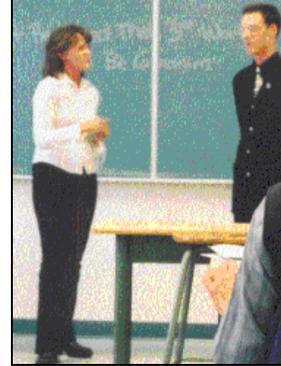
5. Conclusion

As with the other two (2) speakers, here too an effective conclusion needs to remind the judges/audience of the central point of the argument.

Cross Examination

In Cross Examination debate - after 2nd Proposition finishes his/her constructive speech, he/she says "I am now ready for cross-examination."

The 2nd Proposition is then cross-examined by 1st Opposition.
Beginner - 2 min.
Open - 3 Min.



2nd Opposition Constructive Speech

2nd Opposition Constructive Speech
Beg - 5 min.
Open - 6 min.

1. **Introduction**
2. **Continue attack on Proposition**
3. **Outline team's case approach**
4. **Further arguments against resolution**
5. **Conclusion**



This final constructive speech of the debate gives the Second Opposition speaker an opportunity not only to criticize the Proposition plan, but also to present the final contentions that complete the Opposition case. The usual split between for the Second Opposition speech is four (4) minutes for refutation and two (2) minutes for construction. It is good practice in a debate to only introduce a single argument in the second speech. For example in a six minute speech:

- The first thirty seconds is used for an introduction
- The next three minutes would be used for refutation
- The next two minutes would be used for the last constructive point
- The final thirty seconds to conclude the opposition side of the debate

1. Introduction

Acknowledge the chair and audience and then straight into rebuttal.

2. Rebuttal (Clash with opponent's arguments)

The key to the Opposition strategy is refutation. This involves using flow sheets as was described previously. Keep track of everything that the Second Proposition has said and then specifically challenging everything he/she has stated.

The role of the Opposition is to defeat the Proposition by persuading the judges that the Proposition's proposal should not be accepted. One way this can be accomplished is by attacking the Proposition arguments and/or the Model.

- Attack the Proposition plan as unworkable, undesirable, and/or unnecessary.
- Deny the supposed benefits of the plan.

- Refute the Proposition case as a whole. Defend and strengthen Opposition arguments, including those presented earlier by First Opposition. Try to refine and solidify your best points without sounding repetitive.

3. Outline team's case approach

Just as with the Second Proposition, the debater will not have to set up a case. However, it is nice to give a sense of 'case unity' – to show the audience and judges how the team's arguments fit together. Therefore, as a second speaker, it helps to provide a brief link to the case as a whole before you commence the individual arguments.

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

4. Further arguments

Second Opposition must now present one more reason to oppose the resolution. Because he/she was rebutting Second Proposition's arguments, Second Opposition will only have time to present one more argument. Just like the other speakers, when presenting the argument, he/she should go through 4 steps:

- 1) State the point.
- 2) Explain the point.
- 3) Provide evidence in support of the point (Give an example).
- 4) Explain how that evidence proves the point (Tie it back to the theme).

5. Conclusion

Here too, as with the other three speakers, an effective conclusion reminds the judges/audience of the team's central point.

Cross Examination

In Cross Examination debate – when the 2nd Opposition finishes his/her speech, he/she says "I am not open (ready) for cross-examination."

The 2nd Opposition is then cross-examined by the 2nd Proposition.

Beginner – 2 min.

Open – 3 Min.



Break (5 min.)

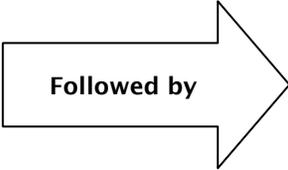
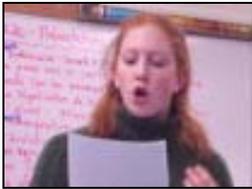
The 5 minute break is the opportunity for both sides to review the debate and focus their ideas for the concluding speeches. A well-developed final speech requires teamwork; so both debaters should be fully involved in contributing ideas.

During this 5 minute break, the judges usually use this time to jot down notes and review their flow sheets. Members of the audience usually chat together and may even leave the room.



Reply Speeches

Reply Speech by 1st Opposition
(4 min)



Reply Speech by 1st Proposition
(4 min)



Reply speeches are given by the first speaker on each team. Reply speeches occur in reverse order – the Opposition reply before the Proposition. The Opposition team therefore has two consecutive speeches: the second Opposition speech, followed by the Opposition reply speech.

Reply speeches are not ‘more of the same’ – they are not merely a continuation of the second speeches. The aim of reply speeches is to give each team a brief opportunity to consolidate its ideas and review the debate, in order to present the debate in the most favourable light for each side.

The reply speeches should be different from the other four speeches in the debate. By the time the reply speeches arrive, the debate is essentially concluded. The goal of the reply speech, therefore, is not so much to win the *argument* as it is to step back and explain how your team won the *debate*. You can emphasize the reasons that your team won, and you can constructively criticize your opponents’ approach, explaining why they lost.

The simplest approach is to spend approximately half of your reply speech discussing your opposition’s case, and approximately half discussing your own. Of course, this does not mean giving an even-handed appraisal of the cases – naturally, you will analytically criticize your opposition’s case as you summarize it, and emphasize the strengths of your own case. Ideally, when you summarize your case, you will show how it answered the questions or problems posed by your opponents.

Look for *specific* reasons that your opposition may have lost the debate. For example, your opposition may have established criteria that it has failed to meet, or promised to support a model that has not been mentioned since the first speaker. Similarly, your opposition may have forgotten to rebut one of your arguments – you should keep track of this, because it can be a significant point in your favour.

Judges Break

Following the last reply speech, the chair/timer announces that the judges will be given time to complete their evaluation sheets. At this time, the two teams may approach each other to shake hands and offer congratulations. The teams should then return to their seats and remain there quietly until the chairperson collects the judge's forms.

Debate Judge's Ballot Jr. High High Cross Examination

Proposition Team code ____			Opposition Team code ____	
Name _____	Name _____		Name _____	Name _____
1 st Speaker	2 nd Speaker	Criteria for individual evaluation A scale of 1 to 5, 1 is poor and 5 is excellent	1 st Speaker	2 nd Speaker
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	Organization: The speech should be well structured, logical & coherent, containing and effective introduction and conclusion	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	Evidence/Logic: Facts, statistics & authorities offered in support of contentions must be sound. Credit should be given for thorough and relevant research.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	Delivery: Poise quality & use of voice, combined with emphasis, variety and enunciation. Effectiveness and ease of gestures, and eye contact should be assessed.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	Refutation/Clash: The ability to apply logic and evidence in refuting the opponents' contentions while defending your own.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	Format: Does the examiner develop a series of questions which draw admissions? Does the Examiner remain in control? When answering questions, does the witness show an understanding of the issues? Is the witness cooperative?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
____/25	____/25	Totals (please double check addition)	____/25	____/25

Cross Examination Scoring Rubric

	1	2	3	4	5
Organization – The speech should contain an effective introduction and conclusion. It should be well structured, logical and coherent. Argumentation and logic should be straightforward and relevant and, as much as possible, strategy and organization should complement each other.	No introduction or statement of resolution	Has an introduction but does not state the resolution.	Introduces the resolution.	Introduction was interesting. Clear statement of resolution.	Introduction grabs your attention. Clear statement of resolution.
	Little sign of organization. Difficult to follow. Little, if any, notes making it impossible to verify information.	Some sign of organization is demonstrated but speech does not flow smoothly. Inadequate notes and unable to find information.	Speech shows some signs of organization. Some weakness in overall flow. Adequate notes but took time to find information.	Well structured and interesting speech. Able to follow the flow. Good notes and information can be retrieved, as needed.	Awesome speech which keenly holds your interest. Logical and easy to follow. Excellent notes and readily accessible information.
	No conclusion	Uncertain conclusion.	Stated conclusion.	Clear conclusion brings closure to the topic.	Effective conclusion convinces you.
Evidence – Facts, statistics, and authorities offered in support of contentions must be sound. Credit should be given for thorough and relevant research.	Does not seem to address the topic. No facts are given to support the topic	Seldom addresses the topic. Few facts are given to support the topic.	Tries to address the topic. Some facts are given to support the topic.	Usually addressed the topic. Uses facts to support the topic.	Always addresses the topic issues. Uses many sound facts to accurately support the topic.
	Contentions are missing or unclear.	Contentions are vague and hardly convincing.	Contentions are clear and plausible.	Contentions are clear, somewhat concise and usually convincing.	Contentions are clear, concisely stated and convincingly.
	No evidence of any research or serious factual errors. Details/examples conflict with the position.	No direct credit given for any research. Details/examples do not contribute to the position.	Credit given for some research. Details/examples have a minor influence in the clarity of the position.	Credit given for most research. Details/examples attempt to add clarity to the position.	Credit given for thorough and relevant research. Details/examples clarify the position.
Delivery – The mechanics of good speech should be faithfully observed throughout. Poise, quality and use of voice, effectiveness and ease of gesture, emphasis, variety, and enunciation should be assessed.	Appeared very nervous and did not use gestures. No eye contact.	Difficulty with voice control and ineffective gestures. Little eye contact.	Appropriate attempt to control voice and gestures. Some eye contact.	Good control of voice and gestures. Good eye contact.	Excellent control of voice and gestures. Excellent eye contact.
	Limited vocabulary, often repetitive, and somewhat monotone.	Minimal descriptive language with very little tone change.	Some descriptive language with occasional tone change for emphasis.	Some descriptive language presented with good variance of tone.	Very descriptive language presented with varied emphasis.
	Appears very nervous. Bad posture coupled with many distracting movements.	Appears unsure and nervous. Bad posture and a number of distracting movements.	Body language shows control. Good posture but some distracting movements.	Body language exhibits confidence. Good posture with not too many destructive movements.	Appears confident and comfortable at all times. Excellent posture and no distracting movements.
Refutation/Clash – Each speaker should demonstrate an ability to apply evidence and logic in refuting his opponent’s contentions.	No clash	Little clash to show the opposing arguments have been understood.	Clash shows some understanding of the opposing arguments.	Good clash demonstrating an understanding of the opposing arguments.	Clashes are appropriate and show a clear understanding of the opposing arguments.
	No counter-arguments made.	Almost no counter arguments made.	Few effective counter-arguments made.	Some effective counter arguments made.	Many effective counter-arguments are made.
Format: Cross Examination – Has each student demonstrated an ability to develop a series of questions which challenge the witness? Did the examiner remain in control? Did the witness show an understanding of the issues? Was the witness cooperative?	Questioning tactics are very poor. Questioner reads questions, appears to have no goal in mind. Questions are of a simplistic nature. Questioner lost control.	Questioning tactics are fair, but Questioner appears to have no goal in mind. Questions are reasonably phrased. Questioner at times loses control.	Questioning tactics are good but are single and do not form a series. Phrasing of questions is good. Questioner retains control.	Questioning tactics are clear and appear to have purpose in mind. Phrasing of Questions is well done. Questioner keeps questioning on target.	Questioning tactics are excellent. Questions form a series designed to get witnesses to admit contradictions. Questioner knows where he wants questions to lead.
	Witness appeared to have problems answering questions. Often answers were of a one-word variety. Often witness appeared to be hostile and made personal remarks. Examiner dominated questioning process.	Witness appeared to have difficulty answering. Often responses were uncertain and short. At times hesitated in making responses. Examiner took advantage of his uncertainty.	Witness answered questions honestly, courteously and was cooperative. He did not abuse the questioning process.	Witness shows a good understanding of issues. Is cooperative and courteous. Was able to dominate questioning process. Controlled cross examination exchange	Witness shows an excellent understanding of issues. Is always cooperative and courteous. Was able to take over control of questions. Dominated cross examination exchange.
	Speaker is rude, disrespectful, uncooperative, makes personal remarks.	Speaker occasionally shows disrespect & resistance. Appears to make personal remarks	Speaker is courteous and respectful, does not make personal remarks.	Speaker is courteous and cooperative. Does not make personal remarks.	Speaker looks and acts professionally, deliberately refrains from making personal remarks.

Decision

In most tournaments, once the judges have completed their ballots, the chair/timer will announce the winning team. Every debate has a result – one team wins and one team loses. There cannot be a draw. Judges are not allowed to make random or arbitrary decisions – they must follow clear guidelines about what is, and is not, good debating. Of course, debaters and audience members will often disagree with a judge’s decision, and sometimes judges disagree with each other. However, this is part of the challenge of debating: to debate well enough that you can persuade *any* judge that you deserve to win the debate.

In some tournaments, the Chair/timer may be asked not to announce the decision so that debaters cannot predict who the finalists will be. Individual ratings are not revealed.

Judges’ Reponses

After the judges have submitted their ballots, they are sometimes invited to share their thoughts on the debate. The constructive comments received there, based on “Principles of Debate” outlined in the “ADSA Guide to Judging Debate,” are a real asset to debaters, contributing greatly to the refinement of their skills. **Debaters or anyone in their party (except coaches on rare occasions only), cannot respond to, or question the judges either during or after the debate. Judges’ decisions are final.**

RESEARCH

This Research booklet is not complete. It is only an overview of information and good debaters will use this booklet as a basis for their thinking and move on to other ideas and research. As well, the best foundation for any research into a topic begins with some basic reading on the ideas. Follow this with an interview with someone who is knowledgeable, can suggest ideas and can direct you to other ideas and research. Although you cannot quote this person unless he/she is published in print or on video, a human being can always explain issues better than an article.

Terrorism justified

[\(http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/terrorism/\)](http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/terrorism/)

Kai Nielsen approaches questions to do with political violence in general and terrorism in particular as a consequentialist in ethics and a socialist in politics. The use of neither can be ruled out categorically; it all depends on their utility as a method for attaining morally and politically worthwhile objectives such as “a truly socialist society” or liberation from colonial rule. “When and where [either] should be employed is a tactical question that must be decided ... on a case-by-case basis ... like the choice of weapon in a war” (Nielsen 1981: 435). Nielsen has a wide definition of terrorism, but his examples show that the innocence of the victims of terrorism makes no difference to its justification — that is, that his conclusions apply to terrorism in both the wide and narrow sense. In his view, terrorist acts must be justified by their political effects and their moral consequences. They are justified (1) when they are politically effective weapons in the revolutionary struggle and (2) when, everything considered, there are sound reasons for believing that, by the use of that type of violence rather than no violence at all or violence of some other type, there will be less injustice, suffering and degradation in the world than would otherwise have been the case (Nielsen 1981: 446).

Historical experience, in Nielsen's view, tells us that terrorism on a small scale, used as the sole method of struggle in order to provoke the masses into revolutionary action, is ineffective and often counterproductive. On the other hand, terrorism employed in conjunction with guerrilla warfare in a protracted war of liberation may well prove useful and therefore also justified, as it did in Algeria and South Vietnam. (For an earlier statement of the same view, see Trotsky 1961: 48-59, 62-65.)

Terrorism unjustified

[\(http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/terrorism/\)](http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/terrorism/)

Nicholas Fotion also uses a wide definition of terrorism. He, too, is a consequentialist (although some of his remarks concerning the innocence of many victims of terrorism might be more at home in nonconsequentialist ethics). But he finds standard consequentialist assessments of terrorism such as Nielsen's too permissive. If some types of terrorism are justifiable under certain circumstances, such circumstances will be extremely rare. Terrorists and their apologists do not perform the requisite calculations properly. One problem is the “higher good” to be promoted by terrorism: more often than not, it is defined in ideological terms, rather than derived from settled preferences or interests of actual people. But for the most part Fotion discusses the issue of means. If a terrorist act or campaign is to be justified instrumentally, it must be shown (1) that the end sought is good enough to justify the means, (2) that the end will indeed be achieved by means of terrorism, and (3) that the end cannot be achieved in any other way that is morally and otherwise less costly. Terrorists not only, as a matter of fact, fail to discharge this burden; Fotion argues that, with regard to terrorism that victimizes innocent people, it cannot be discharged. All direct victims of terrorism are treated as objects to be used — indeed, used up — by the terrorist. But

in being treated as an object, the innocent victim is worse off than the (alleged) guilty victim. Insofar as the latter is judged to have done a wrong, he is thought of as a human. [...] For the terrorist the innocent victim is neither a human in this judgmental sense nor a human in the sense of simply having value *as* a human being. Of course the terrorist needs to pick a

human being as a victim ... because [that] brings about more terror ... But this does not involve treating them *as* humans. Rather, they are victimized and thereby treated as objects *because* they are humans (Fotion 1981: 464).

In reply, terrorists can claim that they advisedly sacrifice valued human beings for a higher good. But for this claim to carry any conviction, they would have to show that they have no alternative. Yet, Fotion argues, they *always* have the alternative of taking on the opponent's military establishment, and often also have the option of going after government officials responsible for the wrongs they object to, instead of attacking innocent persons. That kind of terrorism may sometimes be justified, whereas terrorism that targets innocent people never is.

The Justification of Terrorism

<http://www.its.caltech.edu/~masonium/essays/terrorism/terrorismpaper.html>

In philosophical debates regarding terrorism, one usually considers two major questions: "What is terrorism?" and "Is terrorism every justified?". In this paper, we will give enough respect to the former question to address the latter. We will approach a few major ideas regarding the justifications of terrorism before examining a case which demonstrates these issues.

We first set out to find an acceptable definition of terrorism for our purposes, so that we know what it is we are justifying. To do this, we will use C.A.J. Coady's classification of potential terrorism characteristics to find a suitable subset. Coady, through analyzing a survey of philosophical papers dealing with terrorism, found that the definitions employed in these papers differ by their uses of different subsets of the following 6 characteristics:

- a. The effect of extreme fear, either as intended or achieved
- b. An attack upon the state from within
- c. The strategic purposes for political violence is used
- d. The supposedly random, indiscriminate nature of terrorist violence
- e. The nature of the targets of political violence
- f. Secrecy in the use of political violence

Ideally, our definition should be as "open" as possible, in the sense that there are as few disqualifications as possible. For instance, some philosophers assume that the attacking party must not be a state in order for the attack to be one of terrorism. This is rather unacceptable, as this immediately discounts many hotly debated actions committed by nations in recent years. The atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, for instance, are often considered terrorist attacks. We want to keep a priori exclusions such as this to a minimum.

On the other hand, we must be careful that our definition discounts actions that should merely be considered as crimes against the state (or perhaps war crimes, in the case of nation against nation terrorism). For instance, few would suggest that a premeditated murder of one's ex-spouse were an attack of terrorism, even though it might share some of the listed characteristics, namely (e) and (f). According to Coady's study, the vast majority of the studied philosophical papers consider having a political agenda to be the bare minimum for setting apart terrorism from "mundane criminal violence" (Coady, 4). We shall not argue differently.

Based on these desired traits, it seems that (a), (c), and (e) should all be essentially required for any act to be considered terrorist. However, these characteristics alone should define terrorism. One objection to the ex-spouse case above is that there is only one victim, whereas terrorist acts typically involve a large or highly visible group of people. We therefore accept, as a tentative definition for terrorism, a violent act in which a group targets innocents or non-combatants on a sufficiently large scale in order to instill fear in a population for the ultimate purpose of coercing political change. This definition, however, comes with a few issues that should be addressed. First, even though the other characteristics are not required for an act to be terrorism, they still strengthen the case for such a classification.

Secondly, this definition obviously is not acceptable to everyone. Some philosophers, such as Coady, would argue that the definition is too strict because it requires the instilling of fear. He suggests that "we would surely call the bombing slaughter of a busload of schoolchildren 'terrorist' even if the perpetrators intended to spread anger rather than fear", so fear should not be a determining factor (Coady 6). However, I would suggest that the distinction between fear and anger is, in the light of public reaction, not as crisp as Coady suggests. At the very least, I argue that any reference to fear accounts for similar

emotions, such as anger or disgust. Our definition, then, still classifies the bus case as terrorism. In any case, the definition is acceptable for fostering philosophical discussion on the topic.

Thirdly, the use of “sufficiently large scale” is admittedly vague, so it should be clarified. “Large scale” does not necessarily reference the physical size of the attack (e.g. casualty counts, property damage costs, etc). Rather, it should be interpreted in terms of importance. For example, the assassination of a random person on the street could hardly be considered terrorism, but the assassination of the President could be a terrorist act in certain cases. This is not to suggest that the President’s life is more valuable than the average American’s life; it only acknowledges that an attack on the President’s life is a much stronger catalyst for political change. In this sense, “large scale” also indirectly reflects physical size, since the size of an atrocity usually correlates with public and political reaction.

Equipped with a reasonable definition, we are now ready to tackle the major question at hand. We will begin similarly to how we began with defining terrorism. That is, we will discuss some potential characteristics for justification before deciding on an appropriate set, if any set at all. Nick Fotion approaches justification arguments in “The Burdens of Terrorism”. Among other things, Fotion argues that, since terrorist attacks are particularly atrocious, most likely involving civilian casualties, terrorists must be given the burden of proof of innocence rather than the benefit of the doubt.

Fotion rejects a brute consequentialist argument. That is, Fotion does not believe that fighting for a just cause, however great, is not adequate justification for a terrorist act. As he states, “... even if the higher good is achieved... that alone does not justify their tactics. To do that they must show that no other tactical option is available which has a reasonable chance of bringing about the higher good”. This view is actually shared among other philosophers. Robert Young, for instance, argues that “the moral justification for any particular instance of terrorism...will turn on whether justice can be achieved with fewer, and better targeted, killings and injuries, or less destruction, than by any of the other available alternatives.”

To some consequentialists and other skeptics, this line of reasoning might seem suspect. Naively, it seems as though terrorists are required to show an undue amount of justification for their acts, compared to other moral dilemmas. However, it is important to realize that many moral dilemmas are framed in the idea of choices, particular utilitarian-centric dilemmas.

One common example is the scenario in which an unwitting man parks his car on train tracks and decides to go for a walk. The car is supposedly his nest egg; it is worth hundreds of thousands of dollars, even though it is not insured, and he has little other savings. Soon, he sees a train headed straight for the car. He happens to be next to the rail switcher, so he can pull the lever and deflect the train. Unfortunately, shortly down the alternate track is a poor child, whom we are told either has a foot stuck in the tracks or is deaf or something of the like. The poor man cannot signal to the child, so the child will most likely be killed. Fortunately, his car is not too far down the track, compared to the train. If he acts quickly, he could run to the car and try to start it and move it out of the way before the train comes, even if he isn’t in as good of shape as he used to be. Given that this last option has little chance of success and is a risky to himself and his car, which of the three options should the man take?

Given that he is close enough to possibly run to his car, most would argue that pulling the lever is not a reasonable option. Despite the importance of the car to this man, most philosophers would argue that someone else’s life, particularly his innocent life, is not worth sacrificing for one’s car. However, if we somehow exclude the third option (perhaps the man had walked too far to run back in time), the option to pull the lever seems to be more viable. Most would be hesitant to pull the lever, from a third-person perspective, but the man could easily argue that, since the car is so important to his financial well-being, destroying it would surely bankrupt him, creating for him a life that is not worth living. In any case, this illustrates that the introduction or removal of options can strongly affect the moral validity of a given decision. We can then safely accept the idea that the justification of terrorism depends, at least partially, on the unavailability of other effective options.

Fotion further deduces that the justification of an act of terrorism also depends on whether the act was successful in achieving the desired political goals. He argues that, although it may be possible to justify a much greater good with a few well-placed civilian casualties, it is much harder to argue for a failed attempt at political change given the huge sacrifices involved. However, this idea is more debated. Young, for instance, insists that one must “separate the effectiveness of an act of terrorism from its moral justifiability” (Young 59).

Fotion’s notion is somewhat dubious in that it is painfully non-general. For instance, one would hardly expect that an otherwise unjustifiable act of terrorism could be justified because it had an unexpectedly favorable outcome. The September 11 attacks are a good example of this phenomenon. The plane hijackings directly influenced, or possibly created, America’s War on Terror. Through this war, America has already overthrown two oppressive regimes in both Afghanistan and Iraq.

Few would hardly suggest that the terrorist bombings were justified as a result. Similarly, one would not blame a good Samaritan for a superficially good deed that unforeseeably went wrong. Therefore, it is not particularly useful to use the end result of a terrorist act as a means of justification or lack thereof.

To facilitate our discussion, we can introduce a real life example of a possible act of terrorism. This will serve as a suitable test bed for our theories thus far. One less considered example is the Stono Rebellion. On September 9, 1739, twenty slaves gathered near the Stono River in an attempt to escape to St. Augustine. The slaves raided a general store for guns and ammunition, killing the store owners in the process. They then marched toward St. Augustine, burning homes and brutally killing the inhabitants. The march also gained followers as the day pressed on, reaching a group of sixty by the time a group of slave owners caught up to the rebellion. When the two groups confronted each other, a bloody battle ensued leaving twenty whites and forty slaves dead, along with the hopes of freedom.

From our established definition, this event surely qualifies as a terrorist act. The slaves specifically killed many non-combatants throughout the march. Furthermore, whether the rebellion was for the personal freedom of the slaves or the collective freedom of all slaves in South Carolina or even all the colonies, their goal was obviously a form of radical political change. Finally, the slaves most certainly instilled fear by confirming the greatest concerns of a state whose population was already a slave majority (Wax 136). Also, three months following the rebellion, a militia was called to patrol the area and watch the black population (Wax 138). This further suggests that the whites were afraid of more rebellions, arguably another goal of the Stono Rebellion.

As an established act of terrorism, we can also argue that the Stono Rebellion was justified. Surely the overall cause was just. One would be hard-pressed to find any philosopher, or any individual for that matter, who would consider large scale forced labor and complete lack of basic or political freedoms an unworthy cause to fight for. To be sure, the slaves' cause satisfies the Universalizability Principle. This principle states that "If, in justifying an action, we carry our reasons back to such universal principles, our justification has some claim to be called 'ethical'" (Fotion 50). The forced labor and gross mistreatment of a large population of individuals who have committed no crimes is universally wrong by this principle.

Furthermore, the slaves had few, if any, other viable alternatives. Walzer usually suggests the vast majority of terrorist acts are unjustified because there are always appeals to the state that can be made before attempting violence (Young 58). However, even if that were true, this case warrants exception. The slaves in question not only did not have a right to vote; it was illegal for these slaves to be taught to read and write. This prevented slaves from having any means to create a normal political movement. Later Supreme Court decisions and congressional acts would show that a slave was thought of as property rather than human or, at best, three-fifths of a person for the purposes of representation in Congress. Furthermore, much of the colonies' prosperity hinged on the use of slave labor. No colony would seriously consider the abolition of slavery at the time, especially if argued by the slaves themselves.

Some might argue that the slaves could just run away to the North, in an attempt to escape. This was implausible for multiple reasons. First, if their goal was the emancipation of all slaves, or at least a large number of them, merely running away would do very little for the cause. Secondly, patrol acts were already in effect which forced whites to serve on a militia that watched for runaways (Wax 139). This would make running away even less likely to succeed in itself.

Hence, we can see that, with certain stipulations, certain acts of terrorism can be justified. The Stono Rebellion is an exemplary illustration of this justification. The political group was left with no other recourse for moving toward a just cause, thereby justifying their extreme measures so long as we reasonably ignore the obvious failure of their attempts.

Works Cited:

- Coady, C. A.J. "Defining Terrorism". *Terrorism: The Philosophical Issues*. ed. Igor Primoratz. New York: Palgrave Macmillan Press, 2004. pg. 3-14
- Fotion, Nick. "The Burdens of Terrorism". *Terrorism: The Philosophical Issues*. ed. Igor Primoratz. New York: Palgrave Macmillan Press, 2004. pg. 44-54
- Wax, Darold D. "'The Great Risque We Run': The Aftermath of Slave Rebellion at Stono, South Carolina, 1739-1745". *The Journal of Negro History*, Vol. 67, No. 2. (Summer, 1982), pp. 136-147.
- Young, Robert. "The Burdens of Terrorism". *Terrorism: The Philosophical Issues*. ed. Igor Primoratz. New York: Palgrave Macmillan Press, 2004. pg. 55-64

Is Terrorism Ever Justified? -- A Debate
<http://www.uky.edu/Classes/PHI/350/terroism.htm>

Terrorism is **SOMETIMES** justified (counter argument to NEVER justified)

=====

Note: quick points are made in brackets after the sentence

Different Definitions:

According to the Funk & Wagnalls Dictionary--

- 1) The art of terrorizing or the state of being terrorized.
- 2) Unlawful acts of violence committed in an attempt to overthrow a government. (US Revolution of 1776)
- 3) A system of government that rules by intimidation. (Japanese Americans in WW2)

According to the National Resource Net--

Terrorism is the use of force or violence against persons or property in violation of the criminal laws of the United States for purposes of intimidation, coercion or ransom. Terrorists often use threats to create fear among the public, to try to convince citizens that their government is powerless to prevent terrorism, and to get immediate publicity for their causes. (The abolitionists and the underground railroad.)

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)--

Terrorism is the unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population, or any segment thereof, in furtherance of political or social objectives. (anti-abortionists and animal right activists)

Terrorism Research Center

Terrorism by nature is difficult to define. Acts of terrorism conjure emotional responses in the victims (those hurt by the violence and those affected by the fear) as well as in the practitioners. Even the U.S. government cannot agree on one single definition. The old adage, "One man's terrorist is another man's freedom fighter" is still alive and well. Listed below are several definitions of terrorism. For the purposes of the Terrorism Research Center, we have adopted the definition used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Historical Aspects:

American Revolution (Boston Tea Party, etc)

Underground Railroad and similar anti-slavery movements

The US's detention of Japanese Americans during world war 2.

Misc Points / Counterarguments to certain points:

(taken from the Terrorism Research Center's FAQ on terrorism)

What is the definition of terrorism?

There is no single, universally accepted definition of terrorism. There are many reasons for this (not the least of which is the cliché "one man's terrorist is another's freedom fighter"). Even different agencies of the US gov't have different working definitions. Most definitions usually have common elements, though, oriented around terrorism as the systematic use of physical violence--actual or threatened--against non-combatants but with an audience broader than the immediate victims in mind, to create a general climate of fear in a target population, in order to effect some kind of political and/or social change. For examples of various definitions of terrorism, please see our definition page.

What is the main cause of terrorism?

Dissatisfaction with a political or social system or policy, and an inability to change it through "mainstream" or non-violent means.

Is terrorism ever, in any situation, justifiable in this day and age?

For any act of terrorism, there is always a political, social, ethnic or religious creed that can be used to justify it by someone. To "justify" an act, one must compare it with a legal or ideological system as a basis of justification.

If one considers an act "justifiable," one probably wouldn't call it terrorism.

What are some motives behind terrorism?

Political (e.g. Red Army Faction), religious (e.g. Islamic extremism), ethnic (e.g. hate crimes), social (e.g. single-issue such as anti-abortion).

Main points of my part of the presentation-

Looking upon the statement: "Terror is never justified."

1. This could mean anywhere on the time-line: past, present, or future.

2. "Never" means there isn't even ONE exception. Meaning ALL terroristic activities EVER committed were/are/and will never be justified.
3. Justification can be of several types: legal, moral, ethical, religious, etc.
4. What is seen as unjustifiable to one person/party/group may be seen as justified to another.
5. In the U.S., the general consensus sees the terroristic actions of abolitionists and american revolutionists as justifiable.

 Web site address of information gathered:
<http://www.dreamscape.com/frankvad/terrorism.html>
www.terrorism.com
<http://www.globalterrorism.com/secure/interviews/drap.html>
<http://www.globalterrorism.com/secure/interviews/pos.html>
 =====

Chris Keesling - Terrorism

Summary

Terrorism is relative (Labeled terrorism when cause is unpopular, rebellion when it is supported)

Three main points:

1. If freedom is sacred enough to preserve with the loss of human life, than it is sacred enough to achieve with the loss of human life.
2. The state has legitimate power only so long as it serves the people it governs. Revolt always starts out as acts of terrorism against corrupt governments.
3. As long as the American government has justification for its power over us(elections, representation) we have no justification for taking that power away. Acts of terrorism aimed at revolution cannot be based on paranoia or petty anti government sentiments.

My research included philosophical works on government and the right to revolt. These included the Declaration of Independence, Rousseau's Social Contract, and excerpts from Malcolm X, John Locke, John Adams, Abraham Lincoln and David Hobbes.



Resources

Useful Sites:

- [Insurgency Research Group](#)
- [A reliable and daily updated Open Sources Center that includes a "Terrorism" section.](#)
- [Diplomacy Monitor - Terrorism](#)
- [Jihad Monitor](#)
- [Transatlantic Responses to Terrorism](#)
- [Centre for Terrorism research](#)
- [The official US government site: US position on international policy](#)
- [Department of Homeland Security, US Government: Domestic responses to terrorism](#)
- [Centre for the Study of Conflict, University of Ulster: Detailed analysis of a terrorist conflict](#)
- [Israel/Palestine Centre for Research and Information: Independent think-tank analysing one of the world's most enduring terrorist conflicts](#)

Useful Books:

- [Terrorism: An Introduction](#) By: Jonathan R. White
- [Origins of Terrorism: Psychologies, Ideologies, Theologies, States of Mind](#) By: Walter Reich
- [Inside Terrorism](#) By: Bruce Hoffmann
- [A long walk to freedom](#) By: Nelson Mandela
- [The Terrorism Reader](#) By: David Whittaker
- [Terrorism: A Very Short Introduction](#) By: Charles Townshend
- [Hope and History: Making peace in Ireland](#) By: Gerry Adams
- [The Spirit of Terrorism](#) By: Jean Baudrillard
- Audrey Kurth Cronin, "Behind the Curve: Globalization and International Terrorism," *International Security*, Vol. 27, No. 3 (Winter 2002/03), pp. 30-58.
- Stathis N. Kalyvas, [The Paradox of Terrorism in Civil Wars](#) (2004) in *Journal of Ethics* 8:1, 97-138.
- [Prof. Troy Duster "From Theatre of War to Terrorism"](#)
- [Syed Ubaidur Rahman "Thousands of Muslims gather to denounce terrorism"](#)
- [Hans Köchler, The United Nations, the International Rule of Law and Terrorism](#). Supreme Court of the Philippines, Centenary Lecture (2002)
- [Hans Köchler, The United Nations and International Terrorism. Challenges to Collective Security](#) (2002)
- [GTD, successor to the Terrorism Knowledge Base](#)
- [Global War on Terrorism / Strategic Studies Institute](#)
- [Terrorism Research Center](#) - Terrorism research site started in 1996.
- [Terror Finance Blog](#) - Multi-expert website dealing with terrorism finance issues.
- [Terrorism Research](#) - International Terrorism and Security Research
- [Scale invariance in global terrorism](#)
- [Security News Line: Global Terrorism and Counter-terrorism www.debriefed.org](#)
- [The Evolution of Terrorism in 2005. A statistical assessment](#) An article by Rik Coolsaet and Teun Van de Voorde, University of Ghent
- [Terrorism/Anti-terrorism](#) - An analysis on the causes and uses of terrorism
- ^[59] "Al Qaeda's New Front," PBS "Frontline" January 2005. In the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, the locus of the investigation quickly shifted to Europe and the network of radical Islamic jihadis who are part of "Eurabia," the continent's expanding Muslim communities. Since 9/11 America has been spared what authorities feared and expected: a second wave of attacks. Instead Europe, once a logistical base for Islamic radicals and a safe haven, has itself become the target.
- [Teaching Terrorism and Counterterrorism with lesson plans, bibliographies, resources: from US Military Academy](#)
- ["European Union's Security With Regard to the International Situation After September 2001"](#). Archived from [the original](#) on [2007-05-14](#). - Special Report on Terrorism in the European Union on 'Analyzing EU'
- [Germany's contribution to the fight against global terrorism](#)
- "Al Qaeda Today: The New Face of the Global Jihad," by Marlina Telvick, PBS *Frontline*, January 2005.^[60] Former CIA caseworker Dr. Marc Sageman explains how Al Qaeda has evolved from an operational organization into a larger social movement, and the implications for U.S. counterterror efforts.
- The Intelligence & Terrorism Information Center- [www.terrorism-info.org.il](#)