**Red Book**

**ncfca 2015 edition**

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Red Book Digital Addenda

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Contributors

Will Martin, Content Editor

Will Martin has competed in both NCFCA and Stoa debate leagues throughout his six year career in Lincoln-Douglas debate. He also competed in extemporaneous, impromptu, and broadcasting speech events, enjoying his greatest successes in Lincoln-Douglas value debate and parliamentary debate. Will has continued his debate career into college and enjoys coaching current high school competitors.

Will strongly believes that speech and debate will change your life. It teaches communication, a truly essential skill, but also develops a strong worldview and the ability to think critically. It will prove to be a valuable addition to your arsenal of thought.

Nathaniel Mullins

By the age of 7, Nathaniel Mullins knew what he wanted to be when he grew up. He wanted to be a pastor. However, pastoring a church requires preaching, and he suffered from a speech impediment. Nathaniel took speech therapy for over a year to defeat the impediment. Still, he knew he had much to learn about speaking before he could be a preacher. At the age of 14, he started to compete in NCFCA team-policy debate with no club, no coaching, and no idea what he was getting into. Fueled by his desire to preach, he quickly came to love all styles of speech and debate, competing in both team-policy and Lincoln-Douglas debate as well as seven speech events during his four years of competition.

Although Nathaniel placed at a qualifier level in every speech event he tried, debate is his passion. Nathaniel placed 6th at the 2013 NCFCA National Championship in Lincoln-Douglas debate, also Qualifier in Lincoln-Douglas debate.

After graduating high school, Nathaniel took a gap year to serve as an intern at a missionary school in Japan. There he taught a broad variety of classes, including rhetoric. He plans to attend Patrick Henry College in the fall where he will continue his participation in debate, hoping to become the best preacher he can be.

Benjamin Vincent

Benjamin Vincent is a 17-year-old high school junior with a passion for speech, debate, and writing about speech and debate. Going into his third year of competition in the NCFCA, Benjamin has found that the best part of competition is forming relationships with like-minded students from all across the country. He's the oldest of three children and hails from the beautiful Pacific Northwest.

Benjamin has always had a love for communication. Outside of competition, he utilizes his communication abilities by writing, teaching guitar, and telling stories to preschool groups at church. He also enjoys speaking in front of his peers by giving occasional messages at youth group. It's easy to get him talking about almost anything; it's getting him to stop talking that can be tricky.

Apart from speech and debate, Benjamin likes to spend his time writing, playing music, working (playing!) with children, and goofing around with friends. He loves God and his chief goal is to glorify God and set a positive example for the people he interacts with every day.

Christopher Larson

Christopher Larson competed in the NCFCA for three years. After barely competing his first year, he attended 5 tournaments in the 2013-14 season, breaking in LD at all of them and advancing to semifinals at a qualifier, quarterfinals at Regionals, and finals at Nationals. He also won two tournaments, including Regionals, in Apologetics. During the 2014-15 season he attended two tournaments, making it to quarters at a qualifier and winning Regionals in LD and Apologetics.

Christopher enjoys reading philosophy, theology, and fiction. Some of this favorite writers include Flannery O'Connor, G.K. Chesterton, and Blaise Pascal. He blogs regularly at thereandblogagain.com.

Tyler Belyeu

Tyler Belyeu has competed in speech and debate with the NCFCA for four years. In his first year, as an eighth grader, he qualified to National’s in Lincoln-Douglas debate. Since then he has returned to Nationals twice in Lincoln-Douglas debate, earning 11th and 10th place respectively. This past year he competed in team-policy debate, and with his partner, they won the Bradenton Florida Tournament and also competed at Nationals. As an LD competitor he won the Jonesboro Qualifier two years in a row. This past year he also earned first place in extemporaneous speaking at that tournament. He has taken many speeches to Nationals including an informative speech on the Civil Air Patrol and earning 9th place in both extemporaneous and impromptu at Nationals 2015.

Tyler really enjoys speech and debate but has many other interests as well. He is a Spaatz Cadet in the Civil Air Patrol and serves as the Cadet Programs Adviser at his local squadron. He is the team captain of both his football and soccer teams and also competes in track and weightlifting at his local high school in Umatilla Florida. He has taken his solo flight and will have his pilot’s license by the end of this summer. In addition, he is an avid hunter and scuba diver. His most recent adventure includes completing the USPA Accelerated Freefall Program which puts him on his way to becoming a licensed skydiver! Tyler’s goal after high school is to attend the United States Air Force Academy and serve his country as an Air Force officer.

Gabe Hanson

Many things happened in 1995: Windows 95, DVD's popping up for the first time, *Toy Story* coming out in theaters and of course good ol' Java Script was announced. But nothing could prepare the world for what would happen in a little town known only as Cook Minnesota. During September 9th on a cold day Gabriel Hanson was born and the world — for better or worse — would never be the same.

Since an early age Gabe has had a passion for speaking. He's one of those people who seems to never stop talking. So the activity of speech and debate was a no brainer. Gabe took to it like a magnet against metal. His first year he competed in debate and three other speech events. Even though he thought he would prefer speech, his true passion for debate shined through. His first year he dabbled in team-policy after which he decided LD was a much better fit.

But other than debate, Gabe says his hobbies include hiking, frisbee, philosophy, hanging with friends, listening to music and playing video games.

Travis Herche

Travis Herche is a professional online coach with a decade and a half of experience. He has worked with kids from many leagues and dozens of different forensic disciplines. His five-tier approach to improvement has led his hundreds of online students to incredible successes, including several national championships.

Way back when he competed, Travis earned two entries in the NCFCA Hall of Fame. He is the author of *Keys to Interpretation* and *Keys to Lincoln-Douglas Debate* and can be found at travisherche.com.

Travis lives in central California with his wife Christina, his turtle Darlene, and his two cats, Sydney Aniston and Dread Rio Samson. He enjoys cooking, philosophy, and strategy gaming.

Joseph Abell

Joseph Abell is a third year debater with an insatiable work ethic. In a freak accident during a game of Twister, Joseph sustained a concussion that cancelled any further involvement in the sports he loved. Ever since, he's chosen to pursue debate to the fullest. His passionate curiosity resulted in him attending 2 camps and 18 tournaments during the 2014-15 season, trying some new events along the way.

In his first year of extemp, he placed 1st at the NCFCA North Carolina National Open, out of 103 competitors. And although IE's were a blast, Joseph's favorite part of the season was doing Parli with his best friend Michael Tant. They were blessed to win three state tournaments and finish the year ranked 5th nationally.

But most notable was his performance at Stoa Nationals, where he took 1st place speaker in both LD and Parli debate. He also took 2nd in extemp and 6th in LD, going on to clinch the NITOC Tournament Championship through four entrances into the Stoa Hall of Fame.

Although Joseph had successful moments, he can tell you that most of his season was dominated by mistakes and crushing disappointments. He wants you to know that while painful, those defeats are the most critical part of a debater's career-- whether you can truly own your failure and refuse to blame others for it will be the real determiner of how successful you'll be: both as a debater and as a person.

He attributes his success to the graces of God, as well as a coach named Travis Herche.

Outside of debate, Joseph is an avid poet and piano composer. He also loves weightlifting and eating chicken nuggets with his friends.

Levi Gulliver

Levi Gulliver was born, raised, and currently lives in Orlando, Florida. He has five siblings (insert your preferred joke about homeschool family size here). Levi first competed in public debate with a mock trial in ninth grade and loved it; however, Levi did not compete in forensics seriously until his senior year. Despite this late start, Levi finished 8th at his first tournament, qualified to NITOC in two speeches and debate, and was an ironman at his first (and last) regional tournament.

After graduating from High School, Levi began pursuing a degree in Liberal Studies with CollegePlus. While working on his degree, Levi teaches Latin, writing, literature, and (of course) speech and debate. One day, Levi hopes to be a law professor.

Michael Tant

Michael Tant has competed in academic high school speech and debate for six years in both Stoa and NCFCA. Debate has been his focus in competition where he has competed in all events possible (LD, TP, Parliamentary, IP and even Mock Congress).

From a competitive perspective, he is proud to say he has grown consistently better in speaking and debating every year in competition. In team-policy he and his partner got 14th as well as 8th in parliamentary debate at NITOC in 2014. In 2015, he was ranked 3rd in parliamentary debate in the nation going into NITOC. In LD, he qualified to nationals in NCFCA and has done consistently well in LD in Stoa as well with a cumulative record of 52 wins and 19 losses. He hopes to continue debating in college.

Michael loves the Lord and he believes that Speech and Debate has equipped him to serve the purpose of furthering God's kingdom.

Chris Ostertag

Chris is a high school senior who is head-over-heels in love with debate. He's competed in NCFCA for five years, serving his local club as a coach for two of those and qualifying to nationals in several events. Though he spent a year in policy debate, his true passion is LD, in which he has had the privilege of winning his regional tournament in placing and speaking, as well as – this last year – two of three qualifiers and the Massachusetts National Open. Listed on SpeechRank.com as the fourth-highest-ranked LD debater in the nation, he jumped into Stoa’s National Invitational Tournament of Champions, ultimately securing the #1 Pennsylvania Stoa LDer by the end of the season. This summer Chris will be fulfilling his pedagogical zeal by teaching at the Calvin Coolidge debate camp in Vermont. Debate is a competition between big ideas; as a deep thinker and avid reader he finds it intrinsically appealing to participate in an insitutionalized test of them.

When Chris is not debating, writing a crazy new case, or studying – admittedly a rare occurence – he can be found composing music, serenading a wall with his violin, attending a performance of Bach, or reading lengthy, abstruse science fiction. Naturally, despite his abiding attachment to music, he is an abominable dancer. Finally, he enjoys philosophy, Starbucks, boat shoes, and sunny days; he's also inordinately fond of jellybeans.

Introduction



Welcome to *Red Book!* You’re in for an awesome journey of Lincoln-Douglas debate competition. The champion authors of this sourcebook—the longest-lasting and most revered staple for Lincoln-Douglas debaters—have been working much of the 2015 summer getting articles and cases ready for you and your upcoming season of competition. As the publisher, I think I can speak for all of them when I say *we love doing what we do*, and we hope *Red Book* is your guide to a most successful year.

We don’t want *Red Book* to be the end of your journey, however. In addition to owning *Red Book,* there are three knock-out actions you can takethat will help keep you focused throughout your debate season.

**1. Listen to the Training Minds Podcast every week.**

We just finished our very first twelve-month season of the Training Minds Podcast. I loved putting out top-quality information for debaters, much of it valuable educational material that helped many-a-debater become better at the skill. Every week a new *something* is released, like:

* Interviews of coaches, authors, and student champions.
* Explanations of complex competitive theories and strategies.
* Camp sessions from various summer camps in the past.
* Weekly deals, specials, or other timely incentives for events and resources.
* Much more!

Here’s a good way to look at the weekly Training Minds Podcast: It is your personal weekly coaching session. Sometimes we have the best coaches in the world join us! To subscribe to weekly reminders, go to <http://www.trainingminds.org/about/subscribe>.

**2. Download your worksheets and lessons.**

Your coach or teacher may already have done this for you, as many educators utilize the Ironman Curriculum for their classes. They have lesson plans that will attempt to teach you all there needs to be taught before your first tournament, but you have digital access to the worksheets that come along with it *whether or not you or your teacher follow Ironman.*

Don’t brush this one off. I personally spend a great deal of time updating the accompanying curriculum every year. I was recently asked why I put so much time into this every summer, and I answered, “Because I want to make this as simple as possible for speakers and debaters.” If you have ever thought debate was a complicated sport, you were right. But this is why I write the curriculum: to make the complex simple and (hopefully) *fun*.

All you need to do is download your free study-helps at [www.trainingminds.org/ironman-downloads-2015](http://www.trainingminds.org/ironman-downloads-2015).

**3. Let’s stay connected.**

I find little more joy than meeting parents, students and coaches who have utilized Monument Publishing resources over the years. The compliments that come my way at my booth at the national tournament mean more to me than anything. It gives me great joy to see people like you utilize my resources to help them succeed in competition.

People sometimes find it surprising how available I am. Don’t get me wrong: I’m a busy guy, father of a large family, and an entrepreneur with many irons in the fire. Nevertheless, I have made it a purposeful duty of mine to make myself as available as possible. There are several ways you can stay connected with the speech and debate resources I provide and even me personally:

* Subscribe to Monument Publishing’s blog: [www.monumentpublishing.com/blog](http://www.monumentpublishing.com/blog). This blog is updated regularly with all sorts of information regarding the plethora of resources we write.
* “Like” our Training Minds Ministry Facebook Page: <http://facebook.com/trainingminds>. I typically post information on Facebook right away when resources become available, and you will be able to share the news with your friends.
* Subscribe to my personal blog: [www.chrisjeub.com/connect](http://www.chrisjeub.com/connect). I may post articles on my family that you’ll have to struggle through, but when I get excited about speech and debate you’ll want to be included in the online conversation.
* Send our office an email: [info@monumentpublishing.com](mailto:info@monumentpublishing.com). I do most of the checking and responding personally.

All this to say: *I love speech and debate and I want you to succeed in your participation.* Same for all the authors contributing to this sourcebook. We give up much of our summer because of this love for the activity. From now until your first tournament, use *Red Book* to make for a great kickoff to a most successful year!

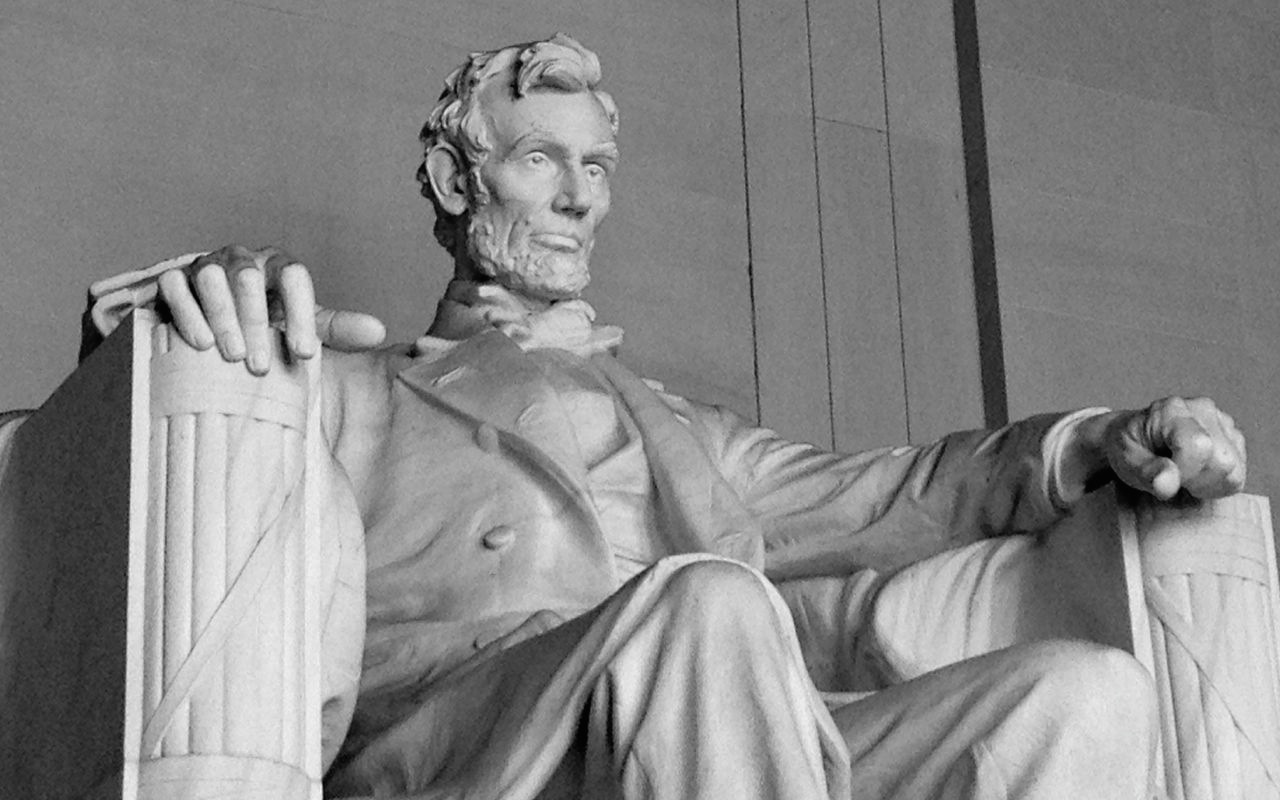


Chris Jeub, Publisher

Part I:   
Educational Articles

Much of the Educational Articles were written by Cheyenne Ossen, a national champion in Lincoln-Douglas debate and current debater at Colorado Christian University. Chris Jeub helped contibute to this 2015 edition.

The Lincoln-Douglas Debate Round



Once on a nice June day a man with an extremely tall top hat stated, “In my opinion it will not cease until a crisis shall have been reached and passed. ‘A house divided against itself cannot stand.’ I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free.”[[1]](#footnote-1)

Two months later, on a hot, muggy day in Ottawa, a stout, well-dressed man stood at a lectern and stated, “I now wish to ask you whether that principle was right or wrong which guaranteed to every state and every community the right to form and regulate their domestic institutions to suit themselves.” [[2]](#footnote-2)

One man believed that the federal government should unite the states and the other believed that states should choose their own laws and policies. They both valued an ideal. Through the course of debating ideas these men changed the history of a nation.

This, ladies and gentlemen, was the first Lincoln-Douglas Value debate. Each held a worldview dear to his heart, and they debated what motivated the other person to action. Abraham Lincoln valued unity above all else whereas Stephen Douglas valued the rights of the individual states. Today you have embarked on a debating journey much like theirs 150 ago.

Through Lincoln-Douglas Value Debate (LD) you will learn about worldviews, history, philosophy, current events, and have a ton of fun along the way!

# The Resolution

Every competitive debate is based on a resolution, a topic involving a difference in ideology or course of action that is either affirmed or negated. The affirmative supports the resolution and the negative disagrees with the resolution. This year, NCFCA debaters will debate:

Resolved: When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security.

It helps to put this resolution to memory as soon as possible. Following Part I of *Red Book,* we will analyze the resolution in much more detail. For now, to best get a handle on the structure of the Lincoln-Douglas debate round, we will apply a funny resolution. Let’s try: *Resolved: Dogs ought to be more highly valued than cats*.

The affirmative would present a case proving why dogs should be more highly valued. The negative would disagree and try to prove that dogs should not be valued as much as cats.

**Affirmative**This is true!

Resolved: Dogs ought to be more highly valued than cats.

**Negative**This is false!

Doesn’t look too complicated yet, does it? Let’s get more specific about what will be expected of you during your first tournament.

# The Round

There are four players in each competitive LD round: the judge, the timer, your opponent and YOU. You will be in charge of either the *affirmative* side of the resolution or the *negative* side of the resolution. Each side has their own set of responsibilities.

## Affirmative Constructive (AC)

This is the opening speech of the debate round. The affirmative presents a six-minute case that supports the resolution. The content of this speech is normally read from a prepared case.

EXAMPLE: The AC gets up and makes the case that dogs are more useful than cats, so therefore ought to be more valued.

## Negative Constructive (NC)

This seven-minute speech has two functions: one is to set up the reasons why the negative disagrees with the resolution, and the second is to argue against the affirmative’s position. The negative generally begins by reading a three to four-minute prepared case and then rebuts the affirmative.

EXAMPLE: The NC makes the case that usefulness is not the best criterion for valuing pets. Attitude is, so therefore (naturally!) cats ought to be more valued than dogs.

## Affirmative Rebuttal (AR)

After the two constructive speeches, no new arguments are supposed to be presented. The debaters must use the examples and logical arguments already presented in the round to prove their point. The affirmative has four minutes to rebut the negative’s case and respond to the allegations made against his or her case.

EXAMPLE: The AR makes the argument that attitude in pets amounts to absolutely nothing in life, and usefulness is a paramount value in this round. Which is why you need to side with the affirmative side of the resolution: that dogs ought to be more highly valued than cats.

## Negative Rebuttal (NR)

This is the last chance the negative has to speak in the round. The negative must address the arguments made in the previous speech, and present the judge with a summary of reasons why the negative should win the round. This speech is six minutes long.

EXAMPLE: The NR strongly disagrees between the values of *usefulness* and *attitude.* Usefulness can be trained in a pet, while attitude is engrained in their psyche. Therefore, negate the resolution and value cats above dogs.

## Second Affirmative Rebuttal (2AR)

This is the last speech in the round. It is a tricky speech to execute because it is only three minutes long and the debater must respond to everything in the round and present the judge with reasons to vote for the affirmative.

EXAMPLE: The 2AR rebuts the value of attitude and calls on the judge to affirm the resolution that dogs ought to be more valued than cats.

# The Rest

Of course, you won’t be debating the value of cats and dogs in Lincoln-Douglas debate. However, you will be debating what should be valued, and perhaps conflicts between opposing values. We’ll get more into that in later chapters, but for now, there are a couple other elements you need to understand in the structure of a debate round.

## Cross-Examination (CX)

After each constructive speech, the speaker is examined by his or her opponent. This is the only time in the debate that the two debaters will directly speak to each other. One side — the opposing side to who just spoke — is allowed to ask questions for clarification or to poke rhetorical holes in the opponent’s case. The negative first examines the affirmative, and then after the NC the affirmative examines the negative. Each CX is three minutes long.

## Format

Every debate round walks through specifically timed speeches. There is typically a timekeeper in the room that records the speaking time and keeps debaters on track with hand signals. Sometimes tournament ask either the judge to time the round or the students to time themselves, keeping track of their opponent’s speech length. Every debate round runs along this same format. It will not take you long to put this to memory:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Affirmative Constructive | Negative  Cross- Examination | Negative Constructive | Affirmative  Cross- Examination | 1st  Affirmative Rebuttal | Negative Rebuttal | 2nd Affirmative Rebuttal |
| 6 minutes | 3 minutes | 7 minutes | 3 minutes | 4 minutes | 6 minutes | 3 minutes |
| Both side have 3 minutes of prep time | | | | | | |

## Prep Time

Debaters should use every spare minute of the debate round to prepare for their upcoming speeches. Each debater is given three minutes of allowed “prep time” to use before any of their speaking times. In other words, the debaters can ask to use their “prep time” right before they go to the podium for their speeches.

# The Judge

While there is a lot more to understanding the Lincoln-Douglas debate round, these are the basic elements that you need to understand. There is one more worth mentioning: *the judge.*

This is sometimes difficult to grasp, but always remember this: *you are out to persuade the judge.* Not your opponent. I know, this is a debate, but the purpose is not to persuade anyone else but your judge. He or she is the one holding your ballot, and her or she fully expects the both of you (you and your opponent) to hold a position in the round. This is why you always face your judge — even during cross-examination — to keep this perspective throughout the debate.

Follow so far? Let’s now turn from the structural side of Lincoln-Douglas debate and discuss the stylistic side: values and criteria.

Values & Criteria



Why does Iran want to have nuclear weapons? Why do you want privacy? Why does free speech matter to you? Why would you want to eat your dessert before your broccoli?

At the core of all these questions there is a common theme: *your motivation*. You are going to choose to do something or believe in something. It is perhaps more important to know *why* you will do what you do or *why* you believe what you believe. Lincoln Douglas Debate attempts to answer, “What is your motivation?”

Suppose you were given the following value statement: *Resolved: The United States should rely more on home-delivered newspapers than Google News.* Why would you support this resolution? Why would you disagree with the resolution?

You would decide to support or reject the resolution based on what you value more. For example, do you value tradition? If you really like having your cup of black coffee, sitting down and reading the newspaper that you picked up from your driveway, then you affirm the resolution. You value the *tradition*. But if you prefer to stand in a line at Starbucks and read the news on your smartphone, then you would negate the resolution. You value the efficiency of the negative. Why do *you* think the United States should rely more on home-delivered newspaper rather than Google News? It depends on some core value like *tradition* or *efficiency*.

In a debate round both debaters must present a **value**, an external reason to support a side of the resolution. You would not just say that Google News is better because it is Google News. You would say that you support Google News because it is in line with the value of *efficiency*. A value is a weighing mechanism for the judge to decide which side to vote for. In a metaphorical world, the value is the benefit that the judge would gain from voting for you. If the judge votes for the affirmative he values *tradition*; if he or she votes for the negative, *efficiency* is valued. It is your job to prove to your judge that voting for your side of the resolution will offer a better value than voting for your opponent.

In this simple resolution over news, *tradition* and *efficiency* are conflicting values. Every resolution presents you with this: the *value clash.* It is the battle over that which your judge should care about more. The question you must always keep in mind is: what kind of motivation do you want to present to your judge? Should the judge care about your value because it is a good value, or because it brings about valuable things?

# Ways to Think About Values

As you could have guessed, there are quite a few different ways to think about values. It is important to know the following as you get into these debates.

## An Intrinsic Value

An intrinsic value is when you value something because it is valuable in and of itself. Human dignity is a great example of an intrinsic value. We all like to be treated as humans, which should naturally come with a certain amount of respect. Human dignity is valuable because it has inherent worth.

## An Extrinsic Value

An extrinsic value is something you value because of the results or opportunities it will give you. Take for example *prosperity*. You do not just value being prosperous. You value the money and the respect that comes from being prosperous. You can think of an extrinsic value as a gateway to many other values.

Once you have decided if your value is intrinsic or extrinsic, then it is good for you to decide if your value is obtainable or unobtainable.

Note: Sometimes it is difficult to differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic values. For example, some would see *equality* as being intrinsically valuable, while some might see it as only valuable because it protects other values (like a person’s *right to life* or *freedom*).

## Obtainable Values

An obtainable value is one you can hold, achieve, and see the effects of. An example of an obtainable value would be *wealth*. You can see and link the effects that wealth has on a person, so you can “obtain” the benefits of the value.

## Unobtainable Values

An unobtainable value, on the other hand, is where you treasure the value as an idea. We all like the idea of world peace, but it can be argued that we can never live in perfect peace. Even though you cannot obtain peace perfectly, that does not mean that you cannot value and strive for it.

As with intrinsic and extrinsic values, many values don’t fit neatly into one category or the other. Take a look at this chart and how these values cross over each other.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Intrinsic** | **Extrinsic** |
| *Obtainable* | Quality of Life | Success Democracy |
| *Unobtainable* | Peace Freedom | Excellence Security |

# Why This Matters

Now you know how to put values into the correct category. The question you should ask yourself now is, “Why does it matter?” The fact is that there are strengths and weaknesses associated with each type of value. Let’s start with intrinsic and extrinsic values.

## Intrinsic Values

Strengths: Intrinsic values tend to be the most appealing to judges in value conflicts because they are at the pinnacle of the value hierarchy. In other words, because they are intrinsically valuable, we tend to see them as more important than values we treasure because they give us something else.

Take for example an intrinsic value like justice compared to an extrinsic value like *prosperity*. Have you ever thought about whether you value *prosperity* more than *justice*? Would you rather obtain wealth and respect, or would you rather have everyone in society be given their just due? Most people would generally choose justice because they don’t want murderers running around on the streets more than they want wealth. All this to say that usually you will have an uphill battle convincing most judges to prefer an extrinsic value compared to an intrinsic value.

Weaknesses: While intrinsic values certainly tend to garner the most respect, they are not without weaknesses in a debate round. The first major weakness of intrinsic values is that they can be difficult to define. Freedom is something most of us would consider an intrinsic value, but there have always been debates about exactly what the nature of freedom is. Is freedom the state of not having people interfere with your life, or is it the ability to live a life of dignity? If it means not having people interfere with your life, what limits are we allowed to put on it before people are considered “unfree”?

If you choose to use an intrinsic value, plan on spending a lot of time debating over exactly what it means and how it can be achieved.

## Extrinsic Values

Strengths: The single biggest strength of extrinsic values is that they are very flexible.

Take, for example, the value of democracy. Democracy promotes many excellent values: *equality*, *human rights*, *accountability*, and in many cases *prosperity*. Because democracy promotes so many great things, you can “change” it from round to round. If the debate round comes down to which side promotes prosperity the best, you can argue that democracy promotes prosperity. The next round, you can instead argue that it promotes human rights. Why commit to a single intrinsic value when an extrinsic value can give you pieces of half a dozen?

Weaknesses: The “Achilles Heel” of extrinsic values is that they aren’t as naturally appealing as intrinsic values, as discussed in the strengths section of intrinsic values.

Now that we have covered the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic values, it is important to cover the difference between obtainable and unobtainable values.

## Obtainable Values

Strengths: Obtainable values are (the title speaks for itself) *obtainable*. The advantage this gives you in a debate round is that it is easier to see if an obtainable value has been upheld in a particular instance. For example, compare the obtainable value of *equality* *before the law* to the unobtainable value of *pragmatism*. You could argue to your judge that the reason to prefer equality before the law above pragmatism as a weighing mechanism is that we can actually look at laws of a country and see if they are written such that they do not prefer one group or entity above another. Pragmatism on the other hand, is an unobtainable concept. We cannot always look at two countries and say “they are more pragmatic” because pragmatism is an unobtainable concept that we cannot measure.

Weaknesses: We live in a fallen world. Anything that is concrete and observable is imperfect. Perfection only exists beyond the physical (if it exists at all). No matter what your value is, if it is obtainable, your opponent will be able to point to examples where it was a bad thing, or at least where it failed to prevent an evil.

## Unobtainable Values:

Strengths: Ever since Plato wrote about the forms, the West has considered timeless disembodied concepts to be superior to more concrete ones. Why is that? There are many reasons, but one is that unobtainable values are, in theory, perfect. Take *justice*, for example. You can argue that justice is implemented wrongly sometimes, and you can even argue that people have different views of what brings about justice. However, most people would say that justice itself is always a good value to uphold.

Weaknesses: The weakness of unobtainable values is essentially the opposite of the strength of obtainable ones. As stated earlier, it is more difficult to point to a given example and evaluate whether your value was obtained or not.

Note: It may seem like most intrinsic values are unobtainable and most extrinsic values are obtainable, but this is not always the case. *Life*, an intrinsic value, is usually considered to be more on the obtainable side of the scale. We can look to a given instance and say that lives were saved or lost. *Pragmatism*, on the other hand, is almost certainly an extrinsic value. We value practicality because it gives us many different benefits. In spite of this fact, pragmatism isn’t really “obtainable.” You can’t measure practicality the same way you can number lives.

Congratulations! You now know the basic mechanics of values, what they are, and the strengths and weaknesses associated with different types of values. By placing different values on the grid and considering their unique properties, you will be more equipped to put the next section into use.

# Debating Values

When you are going up against your opponent’s value, there are several different methods of addressing the value battle. This checklist of questions will help you when thinking through how to argue your opponent’s value.

## Does the value link to his side of the resolution?

The first thing you must ask is if your opponent can even achieve the value that he or she has presented. For example, let’s imagine your opponent is on affirmative so he is arguing for competition with the value of *justice*. Does competition always achieve justice? Sometimes competition justly shows who should win and who should lose, but it can also cause people to cheat and be corrupt. So, it can be argued that competition does not link to justice. There is no point in arguing that your value is better than your opponent’s if he cannot even achieve his or her own value.

## Are we valuing the same thing?

Many values in debate are similar, so closely related they are not worth debating about. Take, for example, if you were valuing *security* and your opponent was valuing *national security*. There is no reason to prefer one value to the other. At other times the values are not as closely related, but they are saying the same thing, such as *human dignity* and *justice*. Now, you have to pay attention to the definition, but often these two values are accentually the same. There is not really a value debate to be had. You can agree that you both are seeking to value the same thing. Then the question becomes, “Who can achieve the value?”

## Can the value be subsumed?

Take another example: you are valuing *human rights* and your opponent is valuing *property*. As was stated in the Declaration of Independence (and most definitions of human rights): life, liberty, and property. Now, you are not going to argue that your opponent’s value is bad because it is a part of your value. You tell the judge that she should value your side of the resolution because your value subsumes your opponent’s. By voting for your value, the judge will not just get property, but life and liberty as well.

## Reasons to prefer

In a round where your values directly clash you have to find a way to tell the judge that your value is superior. This should be more than just a simple claim, “My value is better than my opponent’s value.” If a debater can pull it off properly, these debates are most fun. Let’s say you’re valuing *security* and your opponent is valuing *freedom*, and they both link to their respective sides of the resolution. You have to prove that security is paramount. You will do this by giving your judge reason to prefer your value. The first reason to prefer is that freedom can be turned into anarchy, and people can do terrible things. Security, you explain, protects us from those types of dangers. *Bam!* Protection from danger is your judge’s reason to prefer security. It is a good idea to have two or three of these planned out when you stand up to speak, and have warrants to prove what you are saying.

# Criteria

You now know what it takes to explain your motivation. But how to do you achieve the goal or goals for your motivation? You can do this through a **criterion**. The criterion is a method of either achieving your value, limiting your value, or measuring what kind of value you have. You do not always need a criterion, but sometimes it helps the logical flow of your case.

Criteria are typically presented at the top of your case right after explaining what your value is. Let me explain three popular kinds of criteria used by debaters.

## Measuring Criterion

A **Measuring Criterion** determines when your value is achieved. It is most commonly used when an unobtainable value needs to be understood or measured.

For example, let’s say you are valuing *equality*. But equality is amoral; it can be good or bad. You want the judge to believe that your value is a good thing. In order to make your value always a good value you add a criterion of *human rights*. You now only value equality up to the extent that human rights and equality are compatible. As soon as equality harms human rights you no longer value it. Human rights measure how valuable equality is. A measuring criterion tells you to what extent you find something valuable.

## Stepping Stone Criterion

A **Stepping Stone Criterion** helps you when you need to link your value to the resolution or to your applications.

Take, for example, a debate where you are on the affirmative and you want to value *justice* as related to democracy. The only problem is that democracy does not automatically link to justice. You are missing a logical link. You need a criterion of *accountability*. Now you are supporting democracy which leads to accountability. The more accountable a government is, the more just it will be. A stepping stone criterion helps make those logical links.

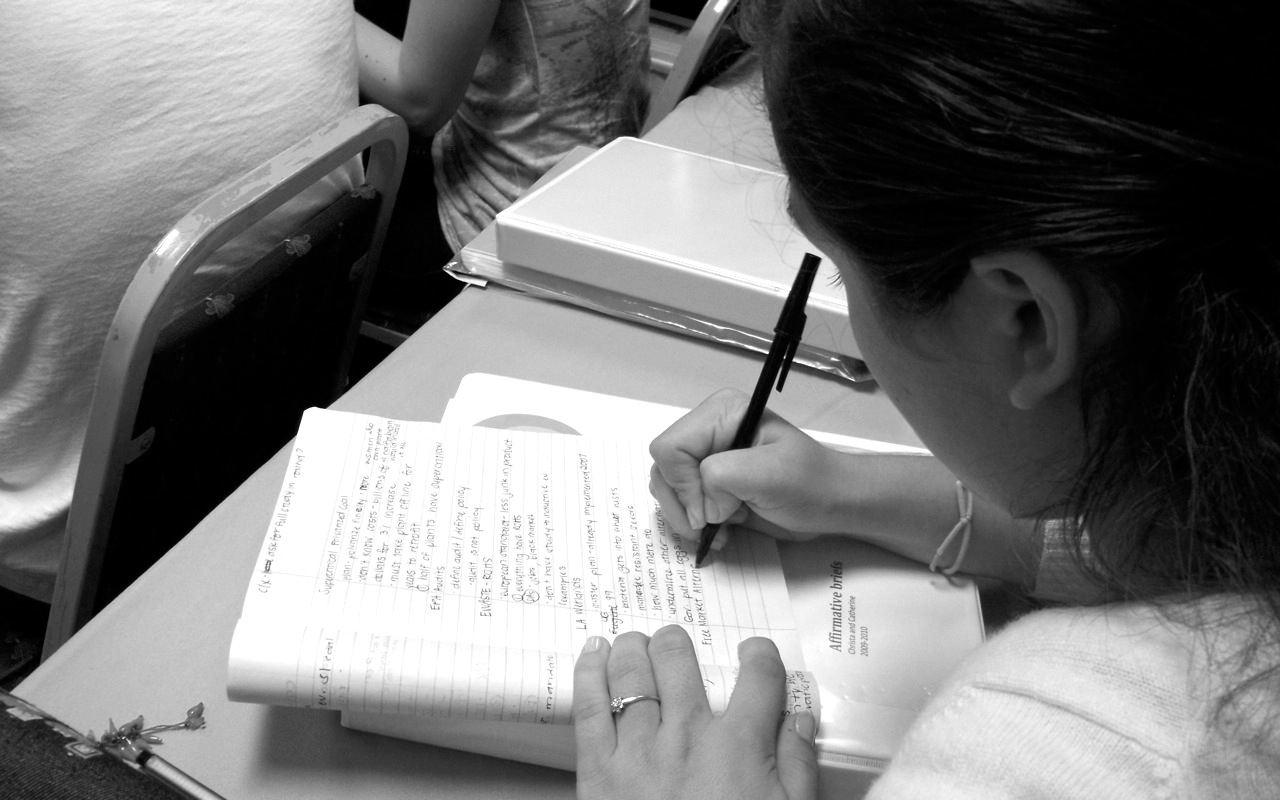
## Limiting Criterion

**Limiting Criterion** set parameters for your value. It is like setting your toddler little brother in a sand box and telling him that he has to play within the boundaries of the sandbox.

Take a value like *liberty*, for example. Most Americans think of liberty as a wonderful value. However, in debate one of the most common arguments against liberty is that it can lead to anarchy, because if humans have unlimited liberty they will do terrible, horrible things. To automatically avoid that argument you can set limiting criteria on liberty, like *rule of law*. You are only valuing liberty that functions with law, not in the natural state of chaos. Limiting criteria set parameters for the use and power of your value.

Criteria are not always used to build your case, but it is sometimes helpful to make your case easier to understand to your judge and your opponent. If your case takes a lot of explaining to be understood, perhaps adding criteria would be helpful to everyone.

How to Write a Case



A wise man built his house on a rock. Your rock in debate is your case. Your case sets up the foundational arguments you will use for the rest of the debate round.

In the first two speeches of the debate — the 1A and the 1N — each present a **case** or an explanation of why they believe the resolution should be voted for (affirmative) or against (negative). A case is a combination of augmentation and essay writing. It is scripting a speech. These are the elements you need to create a rock-hard case.

# Introduction

“Once upon a time…” “In a galaxy far, far away…” “Four score and seven years ago…” Each one of these introductions gives you an idea about the tale that is going to unfold. An introduction to a case is where you set the tone for what you will be discussing throughout the rest of the debate. This can be done with a story, with a quote, with shocking evidence, or an analogy.

Debate can be somewhat boring, but your introduction is your changes to engage your judges. You have to get their attention and keep them interested. An introduction should be read within thirty seconds.

# Resolution

Stating the resolution is a nice wrap-up of your introduction. It helps “get to the point.” As affirmative, you should state the entire resolution word-for-word so that the judge is not confused on what you are talking about. It is not necessary for the negative to state the resolution, but it is a good idea to tell the judge your stance in a single sentence. This is much like stating a thesis in a written paper.

# Definitions

Definitions are vital to the entire debate. How you choose to define a word can change the direction of the discussion and make or break your case. There are several different considerations when choosing definitions.

* Key Words. You should define all key words in the resolution as well as pertinent key words in your case. When deciding which definitions to put in your case, consider: (1) What definitions help explain my case? (2) What does the judge need to understand? (3) Am I interpreting any words differently than the “common man” would? If you ask yourself these questions you should have a pretty good idea of what words in the resolution need to be defined.
* Phrases v. Individual Words. Another thing to consider is how to define phrases. A resolution that stated “popular sovereignty” might have a straight-up definition. However, if you look up the definition of “popular” and “sovereignty” you would have to cite two different definitions much like “butter” and “fly” mean something very different from “butterfly.” Based on how you are interpreting the resolution you need to decide whether you are defining phrases within the resolution or individual words.
* Sources. When finding definitions for your case, it is best to consult many different dictionaries before deciding on a definition to use. Other sources to define terms are also useful, like philosophical quotations or operational definitions.

# Resolutional Analysis

This is a section where you explain to the judge how you see the resolution and what burdens you believe you have to fulfill to win or lose. A Resolutional Analysis (RA) is like an extended definition section, but you’re giving your view on the meaning behind one or more words, or the resolution as a whole.

In 2013, debaters in another league debated the resolution *privacy is undervalued*. This year’s NCFCA resolution compares similarly. Let’s take a look at how this Resolutional Analysis played out in some debate rounds.

* “**The resolution is a fact statement.”** The resolution doesn’t ask what should be done or what should be valued. It simply states what is. Thus, the burden is for me to prove this fact true and for my opponent to prove it false.”  
    
  This type of RA establishes what type of resolution is being debated: Fact.
* “My argument is that the resolution is **true as a general statement**. We have been asked to debate whether this fact is true or not. As with any debate over facts, it is my duty to prove this fact as being generally true and my opponent has to prove that it’s false.”  
    
  This type of RA makes an argument about the meaning behind the resolution as a whole, stating that it was meant to make a statement about reality as a whole and may or may not be always true. Of course, this person’s opponent may disagree and may try to argue that the resolution must be proven true 100% of the time. It’s up to the judge at that point.
* “When examining privacy, we have to know the victim and the perpetrator. When we know these details we can tell whether privacy is currently undervalued or not.”  
    
  This type of resolution introduced an actor to the resolution. There are two purposes for Actor Resolutional Analyses. (A) To clarify the resolution. If you believe the resolution implies a certain agency that is being debated about, you can introduce an actor to clarify. (B) To amend the resolution. This type of RA basically says the resolution is too broad, undebatable, or otherwise flawed and should be changed. For example, you could introduce the actor of the “United States” to our sample privacy resolution to make the resolution say, in effect, “Privacy is undervalued *in the United States.”* While this type of RA has been used, it can be rebutted as too limiting. Basically it says, “I don’t want to debate the resolution as is, so I’m going to change it. Disregard any arguments my opponent makes that dealt with the real resolution but don’t fit into my amended version.”

# Value/Criteria

Remember, the value is why you support your side of the resolution. In the framework of the case you need to state what your value is, the definition for the value, and some explanation of why the value applies to the resolution (which are sometimes called “value links”). Generally you would place the criteria right after you explain your value.

# Contentions

These are the meat of your case. In your contentions you place your support for your side of the resolution. Contentions are structured exactly like your arguments (because that is what they are). You need a tag, a title for the contention, a claim, warrant, and impact. Most debaters have three contentions in their case, but you can use one big contention or five little ones in a case. Take a look at the Spotlight Cases in Red Book to give you an idea of how the contentions deliver the points of your case.

# Conclusion

Remember how important impacts are to an argument? The conclusion has the same type of power in a case. You need all the parts of a good conclusion sentence, like in an essay, and you need to impact your entire case to the round. A good rule of thumb is to mention your value, the important point of your contentions and tell the judge that is why they should vote for your side of the resolution.

A case is a work in progress. There is no such thing as a perfect or unbeatable case. Don’t be worried about making a perfect case. Look at the cases in Red Book to get your mind started, research, and then use them as “templates” to create cases using your version. With practice, anyone can make a quality case.

Argumentation



Arguing is a word that is tossed around with little care or respect. Before people get violent, they “argue.” You “argue” with your siblings. You get into “arguments” with your friends or relatives. Fortunately, for both society at large and innocent family members of young debaters, this is not what we consider argumentation. *Argumentation* is a very thoughtful and gracious form of communication. It is a civil discourse of ideas.

In your debate rounds, you need to effectively communicate your ideas to persuade your judge. You are debating your opponent, but you are not trying to change your opponent’s mind. He or she was assigned to one side and you were assigned to the other. There is no way you are going to convince your opponent to agree with you. You are to persuade your judge, and that is what will win you the round.

You’re going to learn a ton about argumentation as you venture into the world of debate. For starters, it is helpful to know four-point refutation, how to flow, and the elements of effective rebuttals.

# Four-point Refutation

There are four steps in argumentation that will help you accomplish the goal of showing the judge why you are right and your opponent isn’t. This is commonly called **four-point refutation.** They are (1) Identify, (2) Claim, (3) Warrant and (4) Impact.

## 1. Identify

When making a response to your opponent’s argument, you may know what you are going to say, but your judge does not. So, you have to identify what argument you are addressing. Now, this sounds like a common-sense step, but so many debaters forget to do it. There are two steps to identifying arguments: signpost and tag.

A **signpost** lets your judge know what argument you are addressing. It is like a direction sign on your flow. It would sound something like, “Under my first contention…” It is so simple! All you are doing is telling your judge what you will be talking about. The second step is to identify what you are going to say by tagginganargument. As debaters we naturally speak in paragraphs. We have so much to say and so little time! However, a good judge will want to take notes of what you are saying, and if you do not break up the paragraphs they will not remember what you said. It is your goal as a communicator to speak to the judge. One of the most important ways to do that is to tag your arguments.

A **tag** is a three- to five-word phrase that summarizes your argument, and it helps to emphasize it by stating it twice. It is like putting a title on your argument. So instead of saying, “Human Dignity is better than general welfare because…” You would tag your argument and say, “Human Dignity is paramount.” Your judge can write that down, and then you can move into explaining why justice is better than general welfare.

It is imperative that you identify what you are talking about and you can accomplish this task by signposting and tagging.

## 2. Claim

You say, “The last cookie is mine.” Your sibling says, “No, it is mine.” Both of you have staked a claim to the cookie. A claim is a statement of something that you believe and will defend. Think of a claim as a short thesis statement about your argument.

After you identify what argument you are going to be addressing you are going to make a claim as to why you disagree with what your opponent said. For example,

1. “Under the value…” (signpost)
2. “…we will see why human dignity is paramount.” (tag)
3. “Human dignity is paramount to general welfare because it prioritizes the rights of all people; whereas, general welfare only cares about doing what is best for the majority.” (claim)

The claim is where you “Tell ‘em what you’re gonna tell ‘em”.

## 3. Warrant

This flows right into the third step in refutation: *the warrant*. The warrant is where you support your claim. Let’s go back to the cookies…

1. Your claim: “The last cookie is mine.”
2. Your sibling’s claim: “No, it is mine.”
3. Warrant: “Mom said I could have the last cookie because I helped make the batch.”

Now we have a reason to believe that the cookie may belong to you, not your opponent.

There are many different types of support that can comprise a warrant. The following is a list of the types of support you should use to fill your contention and rebuttal arguments:

* Current events
* Historical examples
* Quotations (directly quoting a qualified individual that said something better than you could)
* Philosophies
* Formal Studies (conducted by people with PhDs)
* Contextual Statistics (opinion polls, studies, etc.)
* Logic

In Lincoln-Douglas debate, we do not always have to prove what we are saying with cited evidence. This sometimes becomes a contentious issue if claims are made in debate rounds that are difficult to believe. Remember, you don’t want to confuse your judge, so sometimes having cited evidence is a good idea. What’s more important here is this: you need to support what you are saying. In fact, one of the criteria your judge will be rating you on is “support.” What do I mean by that? Take this argument for example:

1. Identify. Signpost: “Looking to the value argument…” and tag, “…well-being is a vague concept.”
2. Claim. “Well-being cannot be a superior value to mine because it is far too relative to measure. The definition is based on a human’s attitude toward a situation, and that is an extremely fickle standard.”
3. Warrant. “There are three main factors that make it a vague concept. First, psychological and actual well being are two different things. Second, It is possible to feel safe (a necessary component of well-being) without being safe. Poor people can feel that they are comfortable, when in reality they are not.”

Do you see how the warrant logically supports the claim? Sometimes evidence comes in handy, and it is impressive when you cite it in a debate round. Let’s take this example of you debating your opponent’s value of human dignity:

1. Identify. “Under the value argument…” (signpost), “Valuing Human Dignity Leads to Entitlement…” (tag).
2. Claim: “Human dignity should not be preferred above my value because it leads to a universally detrimental mind set of entitlement.”
3. Warrant: “This can be seen through the *United Nations Declaration of Human Rights* Article 24: Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.[[3]](#footnote-3)“

In the example above you were citing the *United Nations Declaration of Human Rights*. You should have a copy of the evidence from the source. Debaters sometimes have a list of quotations that they bring up with them in rebuttals along with a printed copy of the page they found the quote. When you cite information in your cases it is important that you accompany the evidence with a citation. Misquoting evidence or plagiarizing is taken very seriously — sometimes raised as an adjudicatable offense — so keep track of where your information comes from.

You have a lot of arguments to cover in a rebuttal, so it is a good plan to only directly quote what you have to in debate rounds. It is up to you how much research and evidence you bring into the round with you. The important thing to remember is *support.* So, when you are making an argument remember your claim must be supported by a warrant.

## 4. Impact

The final step in making an argument is impacting the argument to the round. You can have an extremely logical argument that is well supported, but if you forget this last step, every other part of the argument was a waste of your time. You have to tell the judge why he or she should care about what you are saying, why it matters to the round and ultimately the decision on the ballot. Let’s go back to the example of *well-being*.

1. Identify: “Let’s look at the value argument: Well-being is a nonexistent concept.”
2. Claim: “Well-being cannot be a superior value to mine because it is far too relative to measure. The definition is based on a human’s attitude toward a situation, and that is an extremely fickle standard.”
3. Warrant: “There are three main factors that make it a nonexistent concept. First, psychological and actual *well-being* are two different things. Second, it is possible to feel safe (a necessary component of well-being) without being safe. And third, poor people can feel that they are comfortable, when in reality they are not.”
4. Impact: “The value of well-being is an extremely vague value. Well-being can create illusions that can be harmful to individuals and society. Thus it should not be preferred over my value.”

See how impact is important? Without it, the judge may ask himself or herself, “Who cares?” Adding that impact shows the judge why. It is so easy to put in the impact to wrap up the four-point refutation.

Four-point refutation is one of the most important steps to becoming a successful debater. Judges will love you if you do this. You will use the concepts of four-point refutation to structure each of your arguments. However, it is also important to structure all your arguments together. This is done through flowing the round and keeping things orderly.

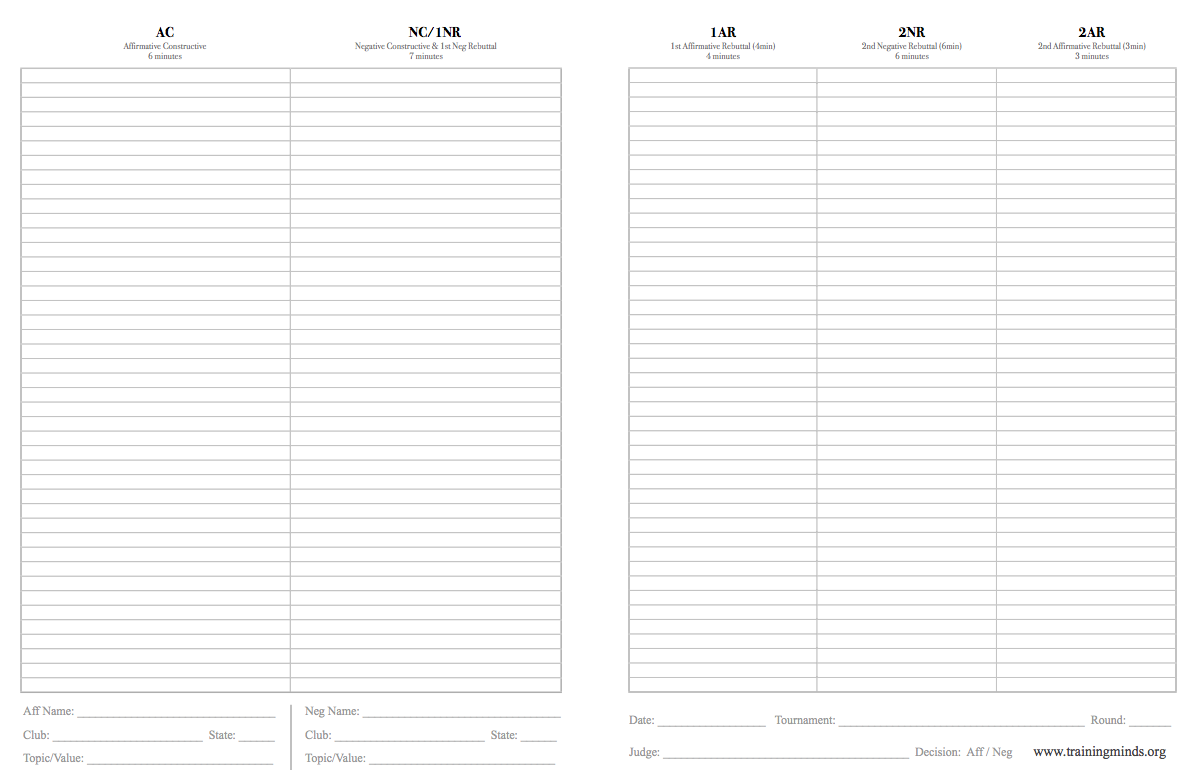
# Flowing

Have you ever had a debate in your head? Like from the Emperor’s New Groove when Kronk is listening to his shoulder angle and devil argue to him:

* “Listen up, big guy. I’ve got three good reasons why you should just walk away. Number one...Look at that guy! He’s got that sissy, stringy music thing.”
* “We’ve been through this. It’s a harp, and you know it.
* “Oh, right. That’s a harp and that’s a dress.”
* “Robe!”
* “Reason number two...Look what I can do.”
* “But what does that have to do with anything?” [[4]](#footnote-4)

See how the arguments flow from one person to the other? The logical banter in debate flows the same way. Your responsibility is to “flow” or write down important parts of the debate to reflect what is happening in the round. Since every argument in the round needs a response, you will need to learn how to *flow*.

“Flowing” is more than just a fancy debate term for taking notes. It has a greater purpose: to keep track of how ideas flow to and from each other. There are several flowing strategies debaters have developed over time, the most common called the “vertical flow.” This is done by dividing the debate round into five columns on a sheet of paper. These five columns are where you flow the logical progression of the debate round.



This is a picture of Monument Publishing’s Red Book Flowsheets.[[5]](#footnote-5) This is a book of flowsheets that can be used to keep track of each individual round, and the rounds are kept in a neat coil-bound book. You can see how the five columns “flow” vertically from one speech to another.

Before the round begins it is important that you pre-flow your case. This means that you sit down and write the tags and important parts of your case on your flow. So when the round begins you can quickly write your opponent’s responses against your case down on your flowsheet. The affirmative case generally takes up a large portion vertically of their section of the flow. The Negative’s case should be flowed at the bottom of the paper, so that the cases do not overlap.

It is a good idea to practice listening and writing at the same time. Take notes during a movie, a sermon, or when your mom is speaking (then you can actually remember what she told you to do!) so you are used to writing down the main thoughts of the person speaking. Get used to summarizing the thoughts accurately, maybe even directly quoting the central ideas of their thoughts. Note taking in debate in imperative. Through the process of flowing you can learn the strategies of rebutting your opponent. The key to flowing is listening to what your opponent is saying.

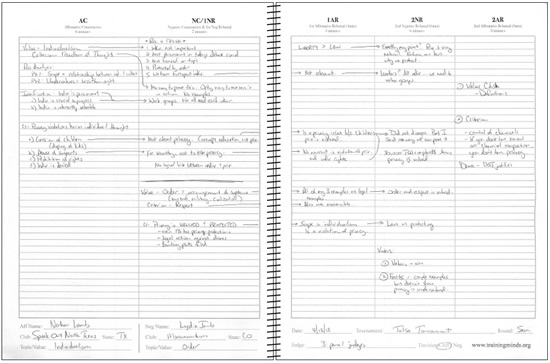
Note: Don’t assume you know what your opponent will say. Only write your case on the paper and then listen to your opponent and write down his case. No matter how well you think you know your opponent or the response to your own case, you need to actually listen to what he or she is saying.

Every argument needs to be responded to, but that does not mean that you have to have an original idea for every new argument. Cross applying is when you want to respond to one or more arguments with the same thread of logic. You use four-point refutation to state your response, and then you create an impact for every argument you address. So if you are cross-applying an argument to three of your opponent’s arguments, you would have three separate impacts. You have to tell the judge why your response defeats those arguments, and how it impacts the round. Cross application is very useful because it saves you a lot of time. It also simplifies the round to a few arguments that are easy to debate instead of many arguments that could get muddled. Cross application is a great strategy when used appropriately.

The standard rule when debating is that every argument needs a response. When an argument is not responded to because you lack time, you forgot, or you simply do not have a response, this is called “dropping” an argument. When an argument is dropped you respond to the drop with four-point refutation. You tell the judge that the argument was dropped, remind them quickly about the argument, and why it is important to the round that the argument was dropped.

A debate round will likely get messy, arguments flying to and fro. Chances are good that your judge is having a hard time keeping up, too. However, if you are the debater who listens carefully and keeps track of the flow of arguments, you will be able to bring clarity to the round and perhaps show the judge that you know what you’re talking about. And win the ballot!

Here’s an example of a flowsheet filled out from the beginning to the end of a round:



# Rebuttals

Reading off your case is one thing. You prepared that back home or in club. But responding to your opponent’s case is what makes the round a debate round. The responses you give are strategic and sometimes take just as much (or more!) time to prepare. These are called “rebuttals.”

## 1st Negative Rebuttal (1NR)

Red Book Flowsheets (pictured) tag the first negative speech with the 1NR in the heading, but some flowsheets don’t list it as such. It is almost easy to miss the first rebuttal, because it is embedded in the first negative speech. Very typically, a negative speaker will get up and give their case in the first 3-4 minutes of their 7-minute speech, then move into the rebuttal of his or her opponent.

Just because you have 7 minutes in the negative column does not mean you need to write a 7-minute speech. In fact, this would be unwise because you need to give yourself time to rebut the affirmative case. Instead, pace yourself by making sure your negative speech takes only 3-4 minutes to read.

## 1st Affirmative Rebuttal (1AR)

This is arguably the hardest speech to do correctly in the round. The speech is only four minutes long and you have to address all of the arguments on affirmative and negative. The debate is often won and lost in this speech. The vital step in the affirmative rebuttal is prioritizing your arguments.

**Prioritize Arguments**: Arguments are like cash in the fact that they are not all worth the same thing. Some are worth a hundred bucks, some a dollar. You have to pay more attention to the ones that could cost you the round. During prep time look at your flow and determine what arguments you *need* to win, what arguments you *want* to win, and what arguments you *just* can win.

* Need to win: These are the arguments that you want to spend the most time on. Focus on explanation, and even having evidence to help support your point. Most importantly, remember to impact the importance of the argument to the round.
* Want to win: There will be arguments that you and your opponent will banter back and forth on and they may end up landing in either court. Remember, time equals importance. The more time you spend on an argument the more it means to the round and thus the judge. Even though you might be passionate about one of these particular arguments, make a mental note that you cannot spend as much time on it. This is a good time to cross-apply arguments.
* Just can win: Debate is about real life. That means that there will be times that you simply cannot argue a point. Your opponent may be 100% right. Do not freak out. It is actually okay not to win every single argument. There are two things that you can do:
* Wash the argument: Washing an argument does not mean that you are going to go soak words in bleach. “Wash” means to “wash off the flow.” It means that no one wins the argument. An example of this would be if you and your opponent both present the application of the Rwandan Genocide in your cases. Instead of arguing who wins the application you can concede that you both are correct and that the application proves both sides of the resolution, thus should not be considered in the round. Your opponent does not have a good rebuttal at that point, and the application will not have an impact. The strategy of washing is, “If I cannot have it, then nobody can.”
* Concede and weigh: Guess which arguments you cannot beat. The end. But don’t fear, that does not mean that you have lost the round. Tell the judge that your opponent is right, that in that circumstance their side of the resolution is correct. Then show the judge all the arguments that you have won, and that comparatively your side of the resolution is superior. It is a two-step process: concede and weigh. Judges like to hear that you are a reasonable thinker, and that you are not just twisting logic and playing tricks. It is a relief to them when you recognize that you cannot win them all. However, you still take the high ground when you compare the one argument that your opponent is winning to all the other ones that you are winning.

The main thing to remember in rebuttals is that time equals importance. Time management is an art that is acquired with practice. If you always deliver arguments with four-point refutation, you will stay organized and will be able to learn how to address all of the arguments. The magnitude of an argument is the difference between winning and losing the ballot.

## 2nd Negative Rebuttal / 2nd Affirmative Rebuttal

You’re now getting to the end of the round, and you will want to summarize to the judge why you believe your side of the resolution warrants the ballot. A voting issue is self-explanatory. You are explaining to the judge what to vote on. There are two equally good formulas for voting issues.

First is the *summary*. Summary voting issues are when you give an entire rebuttal, addressing every argument, and then at the end you summarize the points that you believe the judge should vote on. This is when you re-cap arguments using four-point refutation, impacting them to the round. You generally have to save one to two minutes at the end of your speech to give these voting issues the proper attention. This type of voting issue is good when you have lots of logical threads that do not cross apply. It is more commonly used in a negative rebuttal because then you have about five to six minutes to debate your opponent, and then one to two minutes to give closer to your position.

Second is *topical.* Topical voting issues are where you spend the entire speech weighing why you won the round for your judge. During prep time you boil all the arguments in the round to three to five main logical threads. Then you spend the whole speech cross-applying applications into those main issues and impacting why you won them. This is almost always the method used in the 2nd Affirmative Speech because you can address the whole flow in three minutes. This form of voting issue helps the judge sort out what you were actually debating about the entire time.

These are both excellent methods of impacting all of the arguments to the round. As you practice debating, try both types and figure out which works best for you. When you become experienced, you will be able to get a feel for the round and decide which method you will use. No matter the formula, it is imperative that you use four-point refutation and keep things orderly on the flow, which will keep you winning over the judge and the rounds to your favor.

Cross-Examination



I’d like to return to a part of the debate round that is perhaps the best part: cross-examination. These are the three-minute trials that often win or lose rounds. It is one of the few times in life that you can mercilessly ask questions to prove your point without the other person interrupting you or talking back. Feel the power. But, with great power comes great responsibility. We will look at how to channel this power through the proper etiquette being an examiner and examinee.

# Set up

Cross-examination occurs after each constructive speech and before you take your prep time. Both debaters stand and face the judge. You are not to look at your opponent for any reason, for they are also meant to keep focused on the judge. The first cross-examination occurs after the first affirmative speech, where the negative examines the affirmative. The next cross-examination occurs after the first negative speech, in which the affirmative has their chance to do the same. There are specific tactics that you should utilize in each role.

# Examiner: Asking the Right Questions

There are two goals when acting as the examiner: building up your case and tearing down your opponent’s case.

## Build Up Your Case

Your opponent will never agree with your position. They are as set on winning their side of the resolution as you are to winning yours. Imagine a canyon and you and your opponent stood on opposite sides arguing with each other to try to get the other person to jump to the opposite side. Neither of you will be willing to make the jump. However, if you build a bridge, you may be able to persuade your opponent take a few steps forward. The bridge that you have to build is common ground. You have to start by making them agree to self-evident truths. These are questions that any reasonable person would agree or disagree with.

* “Do you like freedom?”
* “Yes.”
* “Is it wrong for the citizens of the United States to expect the government to honor the constitution?”
* “No”
* “Should the government uphold the constitution in every circumstance?”
* “Yes”

The questions mentioned above are ones that are general and not too scary for your opponent to answer. Once you start leading them down this logical bridge you can take this area of agreement to the next level — setting up your position.

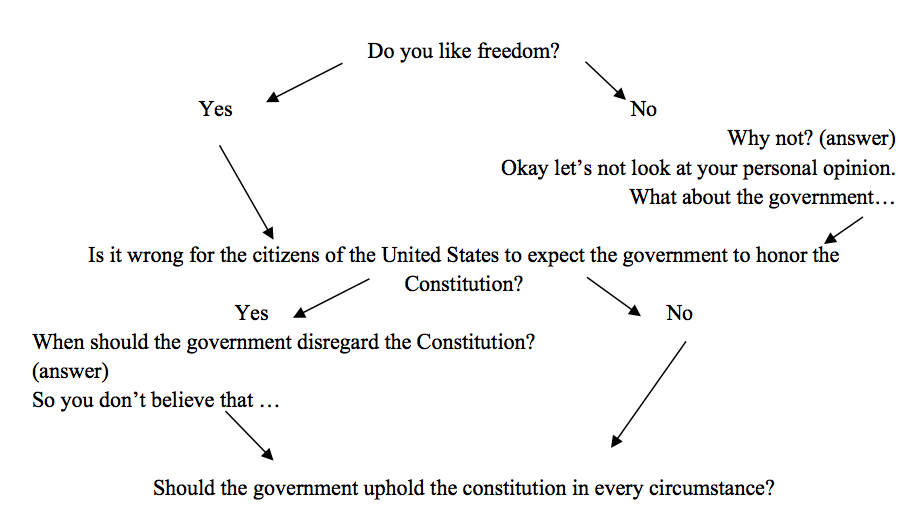
* “Does the First Amendment to the Constitution give us the freedom of speech?”
* “Yes”
* “Should freedom of speech be upheld in every circumstance?”
* “Well, um, let me think…”

In this example, you have just set up that your value (freedom of speech) should be upheld by the government no matter what. You just guided your opponent from a safe zone into a danger zone.

Building up the main logical threads in your case is essential to being an examiner. You will not get them to agree to everything. Don’t expect them to. But you can build enough common logic to pull them closer to your side of the arguments than their side. Your opponent will never cross to your side of the canyon, and that is okay. Your goal is simply to move them out over the gorge and closer to your side.

Sometimes it is hard to come up with delicate, strategic, generic questions on the fly. It is a good idea to have some pre-scripted questions available for you. Advanced debaters may think that this suggestion only applies to novices. Wrong. Pre-scripting questions are a great back up if you don’t know what to ask, and when used tactfully, it can get you to lead your opponent exactly where you want them to go. Besides, at the beginning of the year it is good to get scripted questions written down.

Here is an example of how to think through pre-scripting questions:



These thought-through questions may eventually get your opponent to where you want him or her to be. Thinking through all the results of the questions will help train you to know what questions to ask, when to ask them, and how to word them. You cannot plan for everything, but this is a great place to start to become a good debater.

## Tear Down Your Opponent’s Case

One of the greatest joys in debate is finding a logical flaw in your opponent’s case and exploiting it. Cross-examination is the time to do it. Remember, your opponent will not just lay down and admit that his or her logic or position is wrong. However, there are ways of showing a judge how you should win the round.

**Yes or No**: A good strategy is to as questions that force your opponent to answer with a *yes* or a *no*. This sometimes keeps your opponent from taking up your time by rambling. The second reason is that you can control the direction of cross-examination. Yes or no questions are extremely powerful.

**Nothing to say**: What if you stand up for cross-examination and do not have any questions? When you first start debating, coming up with questions is hard and your opponent can be intimidating. Even as an advanced debater I sometimes have no idea what to ask. A key way of avoiding this is by pre-scripting some generic questions (just like in the exercise above). You may have to ask clarifying questions, but try not to ask these just to stall.

**Clarification Question**: Cross-examination is the only chance you will get to clarify what your opponent is saying. If you are confused about something there is a good chance your judge is as well. You can help yourself and the judge by asking your opponent to re-explain the logic. However, use clarification questions sparingly. If you ask too many of them and your judge is not confused, it could seem like you were not paying attention. Try to only no more than three questions that help clarify what your opponent was saying.

# Examinee: Answering the Questions Right

This is the most strategic role you can play in debate. While the examiner’s goal is to lead you in to admitting flaws and supporting his or her own case; it is your goal to out whit your opponent. Think of yourself as a teacher. The judge and your opponent are confused people that need your assistance to navigate the round and (of course) lead to the ballot you want.

## Rules of Engagement

Just because you are in a debate round does not mean that honor and respect go out the window. As an examiner and examinee you need to exercise the upmost respect for the other debater. As an examinee, you have to fight the temptation to argue back or ask questions of the examiner. It is your job to listen and answer politely.

## How to Answer

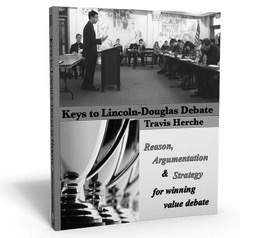
**Clarification Questions**: Once again, this is a teaching role. Welcome clarification questions! This is an opportunity to tell everyone more about your case and your side of the resolution. Be mindful of the time that you use, though. If your opponent is letting you talk, just keep talking. However, if he or she is trying to ask another question, be polite and rap up what you are saying and let the question be asked.

**Building-up Questions**: You know your opponent is wanting to build up his case and the other side of the resolution. Do not be unreasonable, but watch out for those questions that build common ground. Without appearing unreasonable, resist stepping onto the bridge your opponent is building. Consider the same questioning on freedom:

* “Do you like freedom?”
* “Of course I do, but I understand that freedom cannot be unlimited.
* “Is it wrong for the citizens of the United States to expect the government to honor the constitution?”
* “The government should uphold the constitution, but that does not always mean that freedom will be upheld.”
* “So, the government should not uphold the constitution in every circumstance?”
* “The courts often have to decide whether the Constitution favors freedom in a circumstance. So while the constitution should be upheld, freedom may not be the result.”

The examiner’s goal was to make the examinee admit that freedom should always be favored. But the examinee anticipated this and gave an answer that didn’t give too much to the opposing view. Notice that yes or no questions were being asked, but the examinee resisted answering with just a yes or no. By giving an explanation, you do not box yourself into the answer that your opponent wants you to give.

**Tearing Down**: Your opponent wants to exploit all the logical holes in your case (just like you when you’re asking the questions). Now you’re on the opposition’s turf. You want your opponent to spend as much time focusing on your case as possible. Time often equals importance, and the more time that is spent on your case the more important your ideas are to the round. An inherent advantage you have is that you know more about your applications than your opponent. Do not be scared when your opponent starts picking on your case, it is just an opportunity to inform both your opponent and the judge a little more about why you should win the round.

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**Travis Herche is a professional coach and contributor to *Red Book.* He wrote an excellent book digging deep into the key concepts that make for a champion Lincoln-Douglas Debater. *Red Book* just scratches the surface. Get a copy of *Keys to Lincoln-Douglas Debate* by Travis Herche.**

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Part II:   
Resolutional Articles

A Brief History of American Surveillance  
—  
by Will Martin

“From Military Intelligence to Domestic Spying”

It’s impossible to have a debate between privacy and national security without one side or the other introducing modern surveillance policies. Understanding the historical context of American surveillance will lend an advantage to NCFCA debaters this season.

The main target of United States surveillance programs before 9/11 was foreign entities, almost always competing nations. With the attacks of 9/11, our society, as well as our surveillance, saw a series of rapid changes. The earliest targets were individual foreign agents. But more recently, due to the threat of homegrown terrorism, the target has been shifting toward average American individuals, even though our culture has become increasingly alarmed by the intrusion.

In this article we will examine the history of America’s surveillance kingpin—the NSA—to observe this phenomena.

Arguably, especially in debate rounds this year, it can be said that the National Security Administration is the greatest aggressor toward the individual’s right to privacy in the United States.

Let’s explore the controversial legacy the NSA inherited, the history of the agency itself, and the evolution of its methods and responsibilities.

# The Cipher Bureau of Military Intelligence (1917-1929)

The start of American surveillance can be traced back to another infamous piece of history: The Zimmerman Telegram, an incredibly infamous piece of diplomacy. It was a telegram to the German Ambassador to Mexico that solicited Mexican Military action against the US, should the US enter World War 1 on behalf of the Allies.1 The telegram was intercepted by a British Cryptography unit and published in The United States on March 1, 1917. This telegram was one of the key factors that drove the United States’ public to support the war, yet it deserves infamy for another lesser-known legacy. The interception of the Zimmerman Telegram brought the merit of an electronic cryptography unit to the government’s mind. So, when the US declared war, the Wilson Administration founded the Cipher Bureau of Military Intelligence (CBMI). This agency would serve as the start of a legacy for American surveillance.

Herbert Yardley was appointed to lead this new bureau, and at the close of World War I the mission changed. The Cipher Bureau was re-tasked to diplomatic and peacetime surveillance.2 However, with the end of the war they lost their legal ability to obtain telegrams from private companies. In *The American Black Room* (a book written after the CBMI was shutdown), Yardley wrote,

But there were now no code and cipher telegrams to work on! The cable censorship had been lifted and the supervision of messages restored to the private cable companies. Our problem was to obtain copies of messages. How? I shall not answer this question directly.3

Unfortunately this also means that the full extent and use of their capabilities remains largely mysterious to this day. Their contributions included breaking Japanese and German codes, which gave us important diplomatic advantages in the Washington Naval Conference of 1922.2 In 1929 the CBMI was shut down by the Hoover Administration.

Interestingly, the first attempt at government spying only targeted the codes and communications of other governments.

# The Signals Intelligence Service (1929-1952)

The same year the CBMI closed its doors, the US Army organized its new Signals Intelligence Service (SIS). The SIS was headed by the famous William Friedman, a mathematician turned cryptanalyst. For over twenty years the SIS was the cornerstone of American surveillance. They are remembered for achievements such as:

* Breaking German codes
* Breaking the Japanese Purple code
* Inventing the SIGBA code machine
* Breaking Soviet Codes in 1946

The CIA’s website states that the breaking of Japanese and German codes, “Allowed the FBI to launch an extremely effective counterintelligence attack on German and Japanese espionage and sabotage operations in the western hemisphere in the late 1930’s and 1940’s.”4 Most notably, the breaking of the Purple code allowed the defeat of Japanese forces at Midway and the assassination of Admiral Yamamoto.

The wartime SIS proved itself to be an effective method of providing national security. Still, it should be noted, the primary target of US surveillance was communications of other governments.

# The Early NSA (1952-1975)

In 1952, President Harry Truman reorganized the SIS into the new National Security Agency. According to the NSA’s 60th Anniversary commemoration, “the creation of NSA allowed the Defense Department to consolidate cryptologic support to military operations, and to meet challenges that the nation would face in the Cold War.”5 At first the mission for the NSA was unchanged. They continued the SIS program that had broken Soviet codes, called “Project Venona.” As they began to monitor the Soviet Union, they intercepted diplomatic messages discussing their agents in America. The biggest bust to come from this surveillance was the arrest of Julius and Ethel Rosenberg, famous Soviet spies that stole our nuclear secrets. Venona was continued all the way to 1980.6 Venona succeeded in catching individuals, but the primary target was the Soviet Union.

Up until 1975, The NSA had avoided the public eye. That would change in the Church Senate Hearings. Richard Nixon’s Watergate had prompted public outcry and investigation into America’s surveillance programs. This was the first time that the American public had direct confirmation that the NSA existed, and it was a shocking revelation. The director of the NSA testified that they had illegally monitored the phone calls of American citizens and foreign citizens.7 The Church Committee’s report said,

The legal questions involved in intelligence operations were often not considered. On other occasions, they were intentionally disregarded in the belief that because the programs served the “national security” the law did not apply.8

This was the first of a series of constitutional breaches to come at the NSA.

# FISA and the USA PATRIOT act (1978-2001)

The Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act (FISA) was passed in 1978, largely due to the scandal involved in the Church Hearings. It set out to regulate the Government’s surveillance powers. The Electronic Privacy Information Center reports,

Surveillance under FISA is permitted based on a finding of probable cause that the surveillance target is a foreign power or an agent of a foreign power, irrespective of whether the target is suspected of engaging in criminal activity. However, if the target is a "U.S. person," there must be probable cause to believe that the U.S. person's activities may involve espionage or other similar conduct in violation of the criminal statutes of the United States. Nor may a U.S. person be determined to be an agent of a foreign power "solely upon the basis of activities protected by the first amendment to the Constitution of the United States.9

FISA attempted to reconcile the illegal searches of the NSA with Fourth Amendment protections from unreasonable search. The Fourth Amendment requires a warrant for a search to be legitimate. FISA attempts to dodge this requirement by establishing that a target is not subject to Fourth Amendment protection. FISA would grow to include restrictions on eavesdropping, wiretapping, and pen/trap orders.

After 9/11, The PATRIOT Act (“PATRIOT” stands for “Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism”)included a host of amendments to FISA, such as:

* Lowering the surveillance standards
* Adding roving wiretap authority, and
* Allowing increased uses of tracing devices.

FISA had originally required investigations to be primarily for gathering foreign intelligence. The PATRIOT Act amendment FISA allowed any investigation with a “significant” emphasis on foreign intelligence to become FISA authorized, meaning surveillance was allowed. Roving wiretap authority freed the NSA from having to specify what telephone lines or communication devices they were surveilling. Use of tracing devices was changed from, *“an agent of foreign power”* to *“for any investigation to gather foreign intelligence information.”*9 These large amendments to FISA allowed the NSA to expand its operations and meet the increased surveillance demand, especially following 9/11.

# Post 9/11 (2001-2013)

The attacks on America on September 11, 2001, ushered in a new world for government surveillance. The enemy could no longer be identified by a capital and flag, but instead represented shadowy groups lurking in the shadows. This created a regrettable, but inevitable, shift in America’s intelligence community. The focus moved from watching a government to watching individuals. In doing so, the banner of national security infringed on privacy more than ever before.

After 9/11, Reporting on the NSA’s activities become more controversial and much more contradictory. There have been a whole host of authors, reporters, and whistleblowers that had varying perspectives to different events and decisions. This has created a flood of accusations, inconsistencies, and theories intermingled with facts, and a few generally acknowledged programs. What we do know for certain is that the NSA has aggressively expanded its surveillance programs throughout the 2000’s. The NSA is confirmed to have operated an email metadata program and continues to operate a telephone metadata program.

What is “metadata”? It’s an important term to understand when understanding the massive amounts of information the NSA collects, and why it concerns privacy rights advocates. Metadata is simply data about data. Think of it like the address on the outside of your envelope, where it’s from and to whom it goes. The NSA collects phone and email metadata, so that they can tell who you talk to. This lets them hunt for foreign agents or people with ties to terrorism.

One of the biggest and most well known of the modern NSA programs is called PRISM. PRISM was first leaked by Mark Klein and William Binney both whistleblowers claiming that the NSA had set up surveillance devices in AT&T facilities.10 Then again as a classified power-point presentation from Edward Snowden.11 His material claimed that the NSA had built a system to directly pull information form the servers of massive internet companies like Yahoo, Google, Facebook, and Microsoft. The Washington Post said that NSA analysts use search algorithms to ensure that a target is at least 51% probable to be a foreign citizen, but cannot avoid incidentally spying on Americans. They also claimed that NSA training manuals said that it has “nothing to worry about” if they accidently collect American’s information. PRISM has been very contested by the private companies involved, with all of them squarely denying any involvement with the NSA.17 CNN also reported that the NSA had undercover agents infiltrating video games.12,13 In fact, there were so many government agents allegedly playing these video games that special precautions had to be taken to ensure they were not spending time spying on one another!

# Edward Snowden

Large portions of what we know about the NSA’s modern operations can be attributed to Edward Snowden. Chances are, you are familiar with the name. After fleeing the country in June 2013, Edward Snowden began leaking classified documents to *The Guardian* and *The Washington Post*. His leaks spawned a media frenzy, with additional reports and evidence surfacing. Eventually, his revelations would lead to reforms, executive orders, and mounting distrust of government surveillance, transforming the NSA’s legacy forever.

To be honest, the full intricacies of everything Snowden revealed would require this entire book, if not more. His first leak was a court order from FISC, Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Courts, forcing Verizon to hand over millions of customer calls to the FBI and NSA. Documents he leaked confirmed the PRISM Program, revealed the Boundless Informant Program (A real-time assessment of the NSA’s surveillance capabilities by country), and pointed out that a NSA program, “Shell Trumpet,” had collected 1 trillion pieces of metadata by 2012. Another major program revealed was called, “Upstream.” Designed to work with PRISM, Upstream gathered general Internet traffic from fiber optic cables. Unlike PRISM, which targeted specific companies, Upstream had full access to any internet traffic. His leaks also exposed that the NSA’s domestic policy believed it could store US citizen’s data for “any other information that could aid the agency’s electronic surveillance.”18

In August 2013, concerns over the NSA were exacerbated by a Washington Post article that claimed the NSA had violated its own rules 2,776 times from March 2011 to March 2012.19 The same day the Washington Post also published an internal rationale to coach NSA employees on how to answer to their external FAA overseers.20 This document told employees that,

Your rationale MUST NOT contain any additional information including: probable cause-like information (i.e. proofof your analytic judgment), how you came to your analytic conclusions, any RAGTIME information, classification marking, or selector information.

In other words, on August 15, 2013, Americans found out that the NSA couldn’t be trusted to follow its own rules, and that it was intentionally teaching its employees to avoid keeping clear records of tracking requests.

# Recent Developments

After the infamous leaks from Edward Snowden, the NSA’s programs were once again subject to public outcry. This prompted a series of policy changes from 2013 onwards.

First, in October of 2013, President Obama ordered the NSA to stop spying on the World Bank and the IMF. He also ordered them to reduce their surveillance on the UN headquarters.14 Then in January 2014 President Obama ordered the NSA to surrender all telephone records to a different agency and location. The President also instituted requirements for investigations to review information gathered under a FISA warrant.15 Most recently in June 2015, the Senate passed the USA Freedom Act.16 This act reinstituted expiring authority for the NSA’s metadata collection program. However, this extension comes with severe restrictions. The NSA must now acquire a targeted warrant that explains the who/what/where behind the search. While this prevents the NSA from spying on millions of Americans on a whim, some argue that it doesn’t protect citizen’s privacy enough.

# Impact on the Debate

Congratulations! That was a lot of information to read, thank you for hanging in there. Being armed with the history of the NSA is important to winning key applications this year. Surveillance is the bogeyman of national security, and being well read on the subject will win you credibility in any debate this year.

As an affirmative, you should be able to clearly articulate what made an effective intelligence agency into a veritable big brother, and as a negative you can appeal to the recent reforms to sooth your judge’s worries. If you want to research the NSA and spying in general, I would recommend checking into these sources: The Electronic Frontier Foundation [www.eff.org](http://www.eff.org), The Electronic Privacy Information Center [www.epic.org](http://www.epic.org), and finally The NSA themselves at [www.nsa.gov](http://www.nsa.gov).

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Definitions for National Security  
—  
by Christopher Larson

“Connotations of the Active and State of Being”

It hasn’t been long since national security made an appearance in NCFCA Lincoln-Douglas debate. Two years ago the resolution was, “Resolved: National Security ought to be valued above the freedom of the press.” This year we have a slightly different conflict, one between privacy and national security. That means the debate won’t be the same, but at least one idea will be: national security.

Two years ago there were two primary understandings of national security, and going back to these understandings will help ground you for a successful debating year.

The two understandings are how national security is both an *action* and a *state.* This article explains more.

# National Security as an Action

The first understanding was fairly predictable and common sense. To put it simply, national security is when a government tries to protect its citizens. This is probably what most people think of when they hear the term. Multiple dictionaries back up this idea, two in particular:

1. Macmillan Dictionary says national security is, “the protection or the safety of a country’s secrets and its citizens.”[[6]](#footnote-6)
2. Random House Dictionary says it is, “a collective term for the defense and foreign relations of a country, protection of the interests of a country.”[[7]](#footnote-7)

Defining national security this way has its benefits. It is an intuitive idea that judges can easily latch onto. Most people will accept this definition, limiting the likelihood of definition debates. It also provides a clear focus for the round: should the government take action (national security) to limit a right (privacy)?

# National Security as a State

The other idea of national security is less tangible but just as important to understand. If you look at the term itself—national security—you’ll notice that there isn’t a verb. There is a noun (security) and an adjective (national). That means that technically speaking national security doesn’t do anything. It simply is. What does that mean?

It means that national security is a *state of being*. Again, definitions matter here. Merriam-Webster defines security as, “the state of being protected or safe from harm.”[[8]](#footnote-8) National security, then, is simply the state of the nation being protected or safe from harm. This definition of national security actually makes a good bit of sense. In fact, it seems to more accurately reflect the term itself.

At the end of the day, the definition you choose will depend on your case and the type of argument you make. To help you think through these two ideas, however, here are some arguments for and against each definition.

# Reasons to Accept and Reject National Security as an Action

## Reason to Accept #1: Meaning Depends on Usage

People use words in different ways. Sometimes, the literal meaning of a word isn’t what people intend when they use it. Take “butterfly,” for example. Literally, the word means that a stick of butter is flying, but in everyday language that isn’t what people mean. We have to define words based on how they are used, and national security is most often used to refer to an action.

How would this play out in the round? Assume the Affirmative defines national security as an action. They might defend the definition in Cross-Examination like this:

Negative: Doesn’t the word “security” refer to a state of being? And thus “national security” would refer to a national state of being?

Affirmative: Not necessarily. If we take that approach to definitions, we end up with all sorts of ridiculous concepts, like “butterfly” meaning a stick of butter flying. We have to look at how the term is used in regular conversation. That’s what my definition does.

## Reason to Accept #2: Constitutional Meaning

The Constitution says that, “to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men.”[[9]](#footnote-9) The Constitution itself understands that governments are supposed to secure the rights of their citizens. Of course, they should do this on a national level—hence, national security. The Constitution, then, views national security as an action.

Here’s how an affirmative might defend this in Cross-Examination:

Negative: Why should we define National Security as a state?

Affirmative: Primarily because the experts define it that way. Our Constitution is a showcase of major ideas in political philosophy—which is what we’re debating, after all—and it defines national security as an action. In short, we should accept this definition on the authority of our founders.

## Reason to Reject: Literal Meaning

To say that the meaning of words is determined by their usage is to make language arbitrary. Words can now mean whatever I want them to. This could be devastating to communication. Just think of a courtroom: witnesses promise to tell the truth. But if words are determined by what I want them to mean, then by “truth” I could mean, “whatever benefits me.” No one could say I lied; I just understood “truth” differently. We have to look at what the words literally mean.

Here’s how you could bring this idea up in Cross-Examination:

Negative: Now you say we have to define words based on how we use them, correct?

Affirmative: That’s correct.

Negative: So any word–even words like truth, goodness, and beauty–is subjective?

Affirmative: Yes.

All the negative would have to do is pick a simple scenario—like the courtroom mentioned above—to argue against that idea.

# Reasons to Accept and Reject National Security as a State

## Reason to Accept: Literal Meaning

This is just the reverse of Reason to Reject above. To argue this point, just show how “national security” has no verb, merely a noun and an adjective.

## Reason to Reject #1: Unachievable

There’s no way we could ever get to total security, which is what this definition demands. That means that we’re pitting an unachievable goal against a very achievable right. The debate is skewed from the beginning.

Here’s a way you could make this argument in Cross-Examination:

Negative: You say that national security is a state of being and privacy is a right, correct?

Affirmative: Yes.

Negative: Can we ever achieve the perfect state of national security?

Affirmative: No, we can’t.

Negative: But we can achieve privacy?

Affirmative: Yes.

Negative: So you want the judge to decide between a completely unachievable and unrealistic goal, and an easily achievable right?

Affirmative: Yes.

Now, all the Negative has to do is point out how that makes the debate unfair from the start.

## Reason to Reject #2: Vague

What does this state look like? It has never existed in the world, so what exactly is it? How much privacy do people have in this state? How little privacy? How much liberty? With this definition, national security is not only unachievable, we don’t even know what it is.

To present this in Cross-Examination, all you’d have to do is ask some of the questions I just asked. “How much privacy do people have in this perfect state of being? How much liberty? Who can they and can’t they associate with? Who decides what this state looks like?” Pick any of those questions and you’ll have made your point.

These aren’t the only arguments for and against these definitions, but they are enough to get you started. I would highly recommend reading up on the definitions and history of national security, even if you already have an opinion on what it is. Doing so will give you a depth of knowledge that is extraordinarily useful in debate rounds and will help you debate these definitions more successfully.

Why the State of Nature Matters  
—  
by Christopher Larson

“Anarchy, Monarchy, and Privacy”

In any given NCFCA LD round, it is likely you will hear the names of at least two philosophers: Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. While certainly not the only political philosophers, these two men are incredibly important. It could be said that they represent two sides of the spectrum regarding government.

Hobbes argued for monarchy. Locke argued for a republic. Both referred to the State of Nature to make their case.

Surprisingly, Hobbes and Locke got to their differing conclusions in part by using the same thought experiment. Both of them address this experiment early in their books (*Leviathan* and *The Second Treatise of Government,* respectively). But despite the popularity of these philosophers in Lincoln-Douglas debate, this idea hardly ever comes up. In my opinion, this is a mistake, and in this article I want to show you just how important their idea—the state of nature—is to this resolution.

# The State of Nature Defined

First, we have to understand what the state of nature is. The core idea is simple enough. Imagine a world with no government, no laws, and no societal norms. Every man provides and fights for himself. What would such a world look like?

That’s the state of nature in a nutshell.[[10]](#footnote-10) In the absence of government, how do people act? An immediate objection arises. “How is this helpful? We all live in a world with governments, so why spend our time thinking about a world without one?” Locke and Hobbes provide the answer. Building off their respective theories on what the state of nature looks like, the two philosophers justify varying sizes of government. Hobbes endorses a monarchy and Locke endorses a semi-republic. Each of them argues that their government is justified based on how they view the state of nature.

On this, the two men appear to agree: the amount of power that should be given to governments is determined by the state of nature. To apply it to this resolution we could say that whether a government should value privacy or national security highest depends on what the state of nature looks like.

From here, the two philosophers had differing opinions. Let’s explore each.

# Hobbes’ View of the State of Nature

That leads directly to the next point: what does the state of nature look like? Hobbes portrays a brutal, harsh, and violent state, but he gets there through common sense ideas. Michael Lacewing, who teaches philosophy at the University of London, summarizes the first idea:

“Self-preservation” is our most fundamental desire; and if there is no law or authority to override our acting on this desire, no one to tell us how or how not we may try to stay alive [sic]…Hobbes argues that in a state of nature, we have the right to use our power however we choose in order to stay alive.[[11]](#footnote-11)

That’s a fairly simple idea. We want to stay alive and, because there is no government, we can do that however we want. Hobbes goes on to explain that everyone’s attempts to stay alive are going to lead to conflict with other people. But the battle won’t be fair. Some people are stronger, some more cunning, and some more evil than others.[[12]](#footnote-12) Not only will these people cause chaos but others, wanting to protect themselves, might preemptively attack the strongest and most dangerous individuals.

The result? Hobbes explains:

In such condition, there is no place for Industry; because the fruit thereof is uncertain: and consequently no Culture of the Earth; no Navigation, nor use of the commodities that may be imported by Sea; no commodious Building; no Instruments of moving, and removing such things as require much force; no Knowledge of the face of the Earth; no account of Time; no Arts; no Letters; no Society; and which is worst of all continual fear, and danger of violent death; And the life of man, solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.[[13]](#footnote-13)

Simply put, Hobbes doesn’t think the state of nature is a good place. Because of this, Hobbes says you need a big government to restrain man.

# Locke’s View on the State of Nature

Locke takes a more optimistic view. According to him, the state of nature isn’t optimal, but it isn’t horrible either. Within this state people have the right to judge for themselves what to do when someone harms them. Locke points out that this leads to partiality, where unfair judgments are passed.

I doubt not but it will be objected, that it is unreasonable for men to be judges in their own cases, that self-love will make men partial to themselves and their friends: and on the other side, that ill nature, passion and revenge will carry them too far in punishing others; and hence nothing but confusion and disorder will follow, and that therefore God hath certainly appointed government to restrain the partiality and violence of men.[[14]](#footnote-14)

This is one of Locke’s harshest condemnations of the state of nature. On the whole, his presentation of this state seems to paint it as an undesirable but not atrocious place. However, due in part to the problem of partiality, Locke claims that governments ought to exist.

But what should that government look like? Hobbes argues that because the state of nature is so chaotic, a large government is needed to restrain the evil of man. Locke advocates for a smaller government because, it seems, he believes man is not so evil as to warrant a large one. Even if men were so evil, Locke points out that absolute monarchs are men too, and thus just as prone to evil.

This is all fairly simple, but how does it impact the right to privacy over national security?

# Limiting Rights

Let’s approach the resolution generally. We are presented with a conflict between governmental action and rights. How much should a government infringe on rights? The state of nature can help us answer this question. If man is basically evil, he will likely harm others using rights like liberty. In order to stop the harming of others there must be extensive governmental restraint of the rights of those wanting to do harm to others.

If man is basically good, as Locke argues, then we should be more worried about the government than the citizens. The citizens are unlikely to harm others, and so there should be relatively little governmental intervention in people’s lives.

What’s obvious is that the state of nature is important in understanding how much a government can limit rights. But how does this apply to privacy? Let’s first take a look at what privacy is, so that we can understand how it relates to governments. What does privacy do? What is it?

Take a look at countries where there is relatively little freedom of religion. In some of those countries people have no privacy, and so are unable to use their liberty to practice their religion. If they did they could punished or even killed. This is more than a mere possibility—this actually happened. Nathaniel Mullins, another writer in *Red Book* this year, explains in detail later in the book about an application called the Danka System. Allow me to introduce the short version.

The Japanese government in the 1600s began to suspect Christianity. They viewed it as a foreign threat to national security and a danger to their culture. After Christians led a revolt between 1637 and 1638, the Japanese government cracked down on Christianity. They forced everyone to register their religion at a local temple and those who registered as Christian were caught and killed. This nearly led to the extermination of Christianity in Japan.[[15]](#footnote-15)

Examples like this provide an interesting perspective on privacy. Privacy isn’t a right, but it is a shield to other rights. When that shield was taken away with the Danka system, freedom of religion was seriously harmed.

A less tragic, but still important, example concerns the voting process here in America. This process operates by the same principle of privacy. If I had to publicly disclose my ballot, I could be blackmailed into voting for certain candidates. Once more, there goes liberty. Because I can keep my ballot private, I’m able to exercise my liberty to vote for whomever I want.

The point is this: we can’t totally separate privacy from other rights. We can distinguish privacy from other rights, but we must understand it in relation to other rights.

Thus, the state of nature applies to privacy the same way it applies to rights. How much someone can keep private depends on the nature of man. Are people likely to use their privacy to harm?

This is absolutely crucial to understand. Here, however, I must mention a caveat. The resolution doesn’t talk about privacy.

# The Problem With the Right to Privacy

That may sound ridiculous, but bear with me. The resolution talks about the “right to privacy.” Is that the same thing as privacy? Not quite. According to most definitions, privacy is a state, not an action. This complicates things quite a bit. What exactly is a “right” to privacy? Where does that come from? Does national security interact with the “right” to privacy the same way it would interact with privacy?

The state of nature might help us clarify this. Without government, is there a right to privacy? If we only look at Locke and Hobbes, it doesn’t seem like there is. Hobbes believes that the only right someone has in the state of nature is the right to preserve himself however he sees fit. Locke understands human rights to be life, liberty, and property.

Even our Constitution doesn’t specifically call out the right to privacy. The Supreme Court inferred that right from the 14th amendment.[[16]](#footnote-16)

It’s not entirely clear where the “right to privacy” came from, or even what it is. It appears the resolution is asking us to debate whether an action (national security) is more valuable than the ability to access a state (the right to privacy). It’s not within the scope of this article to examine the solution to that, but it has to be kept in mind. Reading the resolution technically, it doesn’t seem like there’s any way the state of nature applies.

Leaving aside that caveat, and treating the resolution as if it merely speaks of “privacy,” the state of nature is fairly easy to apply.

# The State of Nature In the Round

But how could you bring the state of nature into a round? With such a complex idea, in addition to the unclear phrasing of the resolution, it seems to be an unhelpful concept. In reality, the state of nature is relatively easy to introduce.

I would recommend looking first at what state of nature (Locke’s or Hobbes’) best supports your side. If you’re the affirmative, you may want to argue for Locke’s. If you’re the negative, Hobbes may be the route to go. Once you decide on which idea you’ll defend, a carefully crafted Resolutional Analysis should do the trick.

The key is to explain the state of nature in a manner that’s as intuitive as possible. Maybe say something like this: “Without a government, what does the world look like? Do people get along, or are they constantly fighting each other? Is it fairly peaceful, or is it a chaotic mess?” From there, showcase several examples that support your side.

If you’re arguing that men are naturally peaceful, perhaps talk about how the various countries in the world generally get along. America and England aren’t at each other’s throats—in fact, barring a few exceptions, America is at relative peace with most of the world.

That seems to support Locke. But that isn’t really the state of nature, is it? Couldn’t someone argue that such peace exists because there are governments? In an interesting twist, Hobbes actually argued that countries are in the state of nature in relation to each other. Ironically, you could use Hobbes’ argument to prove Locke right.

If you want to prove Hobbes right, however, look at a place like Iraq. Iraq’s government is extremely unstable right now. They’re having a hard time fighting ISIS, and as a result there’s a lot of chaos. Granted, Iraq isn’t technically in a state of nature because there is a government, but they’re probably closer than, say, America.

Examples like these take the state of nature out of the abstract and ground it in reality. They’re not perfect, but they’re a helpful way of explaining and proving your side.

Once you’ve established your view of the state of nature, you can continue with your case. Every now and then, bring the idea back up as justification for your side. And if people argue an extreme example against yours (“terrorists are going to use their privacy to bomb us!” “The government is going to know everything about us!”) use the state of nature to get out of it. If people are as good as Locke says they are, there won’t be much need for privacy infringement. If people are as bad as Hobbes says, the government just might need to know everything about us to keep us safe.

In summary, understand the state of nature: it’s important. These ideas—privacy and security, rights and states—are often impacted by the state of nature. As you go through the year debating government infringement on privacy, understanding the state of nature will allow you to deepen the arguments in the round, disarm your opponent’s objections, and support your side. This isn’t just a thought experiment; it’s a crucial idea for this year.

Japanese Danka System  
—  
by Nathaniel Mullins

“A Non-American Application”

In the early 1600’s, the Japanese saw Christianity as a threat to their security. Those in power worried that Christians emphasized God over country. They also feared Christianity’s European roots. Due to the perceived national security threat, the Tokugawa Shogunate demanded that each family register at a local Buddhist temple, forcing everyone to reveal their religion.

With no privacy, Christians were found and killed. Within decades, Japan stamped out Christianity.

# Historical Background:

In 1549, Roman Catholic missionary Francis Xavier brought Christianity to Japan. Initially, Christian missionaries found great success in Japan with the support of the authorities. However, this time of peaceful growth was short lived. It was cut short when Japan unified. During the Sengoku/Warring State’s Period (1467-1568), Japan existed with only nominal unity. Regional powers fought for control. Oda Nobunaga ended this period when he unified much of Japan under his power. Nobunaga smiled upon Christianity, and it grew rapidly, achieving perhaps 300,000 converts at its height in 1610. Toyotomi Hideyoshi, a follower of Nobunaga, continued his predecessor’s work. Hideyoshi was not so kind to Christians. He wanted Japan to remain united, so he wanted a monolithic culture. In the interests of preserving Japan from what he perceived to be a foreign threat, he outlawed Christianity in 1597 and executed twenty-six Christians by crucifixion. Just like most other state-ordained Christian persecutions in history, this inspired further Christian growth. Tokugawa Ieyasu succeeded Toyotomi Hideyoshi.

Tokugawa Ieyasu, founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate (1600-1868), feared the impact of Christians upon Japanese security even more than his predecessor. Christians appeared to be subversive, a danger to Japanese society. In fact, Christians *did* lead a revolt during this period (1637-1638). Thus the regime imposed the Danka System in 1614. This system forced every family to register at a local Buddhist temple. This system forced its way into the private lives of individual families, gathering information about them.

Japan used the Danka system to identify and suppress Christianity. However, the Danka system wasn’t used to its full extent until after the aforementioned rebellion in the late 1630s. After some Christians clearly threatened Japanese national security, the Danka system allowed for the extermination of Christianity in Japan. Christianity essentially vanished in Japan, one of few persecutions in all of human history to actually succeed.

To this day, Christianity is scarce in Japan.

# Use in Debate

The Danka system’s infringement on privacy managed to destroy Christianity in Japan so that it could never recover. In this example, national security was valued above privacy with dire consequences. This application is especially powerful because it will be new to judges and debaters alike. Most other applications used in this resolution will lean toward an American application.

This example leans strongly affirmative. It requires a lengthy explanation, but could serve as the core application of an affirmative case. Unfortunately, it is probably too long to use in introductions.

# Affirmative Argument

If National Security is held above privacy, lives are lost.

According to multiple sources, Christianity was viewed as a threat to Japan’s national security. In fact, it did threaten Japan’s uniform culture and likely was a source of division and conflict. Thus there was a real national security threat. Being forced to register one’s religion is a clear violation of one’s privacy. Japan decided that those who were more loyal to God than to man were a threat, and used privacy infringements to support their security, leading to countless deaths.

**Negative Response:** This is an example of national security being held above freedom of religion, not above privacy.

**Affirmative Rebuttal:** The Danka system, with its privacy limitations, made it possible for infringements upon the lives and liberties of the Japanese people. The Danka system was employed for the sake of national security. Therefore it is a case in which national security and privacy are coming into conflict.

# Further Research

To research this topic further, the following keywords may be helpful:

* Christianity in Japan
* Danka System
* Warring States Period
* Oda Nobunaga
* Toyotomi Hideyoshi
* Tokugawa Ieyasu
* Tokugawa Period
* Sengoku Period
* 26 Martyrs.

One can find scholarly papers on the matter, but even simple travel guides to Japan can provide reliable historical information.

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A Delicate Balance  
—  
by Nathaniel Mullins

“The Modern Balance Between Privacy and National Security”

The first time you hear any debate resolution, you probably feel an immediate pull to one side or the other. This initial bias skews everyone’s first cases each year and makes them shallower than they could be. At first it’s easy to demonize the other side or to look at arguments simplistically. In the case of this resolution (When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security), it’s especially easy to gloss over the complexity of the issue.

It’s easy to forget that in every civilized society privacy is already limited for the sake of national security, and simultaneously national security is weakened for the sake of privacy. The current consensus in the United States is a situational approach to the resolution, sometimes choosing privacy when in conflict, sometimes choosing national security when in conflict.

The key to debating this resolution is finding arguments for a general rule despite the modern situational consensus.

# Definitions

Before we examine the modern situational consensus, three definitions are important. According to Macmillan Dictionary, national security is “the protection or the safety of a country’s secrets and its citizens.”[[17]](#footnote-17) The protection of a country’s citizens is a broad term—it includes defending them from cyber threats, terror, biological warfare, etc.

According to Black’s Law Dictionary, privacy is “the right that determines the nonintervention of secret surveillance and the protection of an individual's information.”[[18]](#footnote-18) Notice that this is also a broad term. Any secret surveillance, anything that takes an individual’s information without their consent, is in fact infringing upon the right to privacy.

The phrase “when in conflict” denotes cases where you have to make a choice between national security and privacy. Either you will decide to have a weaker national security and maintain stronger privacy rights, or you will decide to have less privacy but a stronger national security. The difficulty of the resolution is that even in conflict situations, we tend to approach this question situation by situation.

# A Situational Approach

In this section I want to show you that you already think about this resolution situation by situation, even if you believe that you fully uphold one side or the other. I want to show you how sometimes you think that national security should be limited for the sake of privacy, and sometimes privacy should be limited for the sake of national security.

## Privacy Valued above National Security

The Secret Ballot: Every four years, the citizens of the United States come together to vote for president. Voters from all over the country go into polling stations, then into private voting machines and cast their ballot. No one can make you say who you voted for; your ballot is secret. The secret ballot is a key to democracy. Without the secret ballot, people fear to vote against those in power. People succumb to social pressure. People don’t vote for the candidate they truly want. Removal of the secret ballot is one of the greatest steps towards tyranny. Yet the secret ballot makes it harder to keep track of who has voted. It makes it more difficult to stop voter fraud. Fraudulent votes steal a nation’s freedom to choose who it wants in power. Fraudulent votes exploit holes in our nation’s security to help place the wrong men in power. Still, none of us believe that we should get rid of the secret ballot, even if it would reduce the danger of voting fraud.

Maximum Measures: We could employ maximum security measures, like internal home surveillance. We could force all people to let an officer of the government search through their house weekly. These measures would increase our national security—it would be nearly impossible for home grown terrorists to work in an environment with so little privacy. Yet none of us believe that we should pursue maximum safety measures. None of us want a police state, or Orwellian thought police. Therefore nearly everyone concedes that privacy rights must sometimes take precedence over national security. There’s always a limit to how far we believe our freedoms should be infringed upon. That, of course, doesn’t mean we are opposed to national security ever infringing upon our rights.

## National Security Valued above Privacy

Income Tax: We all understand the importance of taxes. Taxes support our firemen, our policemen, our military. Tax revenue is vital to our national security. Yet whenever the government taxes individual income, it demands your financial details. This infringes upon your privacy, but is necessary if government is to receive sufficient revenue. Understanding this, few believe that government shouldn’t have the right to infringe upon certain details of your financial privacy for the sake of national security.

Border Protection: Whenever you fly in from a foreign country, the government asks you personal questions. Where have you been? What were you doing? Did you come in contact with sick individuals? They pry into your privacy, but by doing so they stop the entrance of foreign diseases or individuals who would harm our country. Although going through border protection is never fun, we all understand the importance of securing our nation, and we understand that sometimes privacy must be limited.

Warranted Searches: If someone has purchased chemicals that could make a bomb, would you protest if the government issued a warrant and searched their house? Even with a warrant, searching an individual’s house technically violates their privacy. It is unlikely, however, that you believe there should be no searches.

Thus it is pretty clear you already choose sometimes to value national security, and sometimes you choose to value privacy. “Well,” you might say, “overvaluing my opponent’s side will cause more harm.” Let’s examine that claim really fast. How bad can overvaluing privacy get, and how bad can overvaluing national security get?

# Overvaluing Either Side Leads to Death

Privacy: How bad can overvaluing privacy get? The answer lies in *Roe v. Wade*. Over 55 million unborn babies have been aborted[[19]](#footnote-19) in the 42 years since the Supreme Court’s ruling on *Roe v. Wade*. At the time of the ruling, most states had strict rules limiting abortions. *Roe v. Wade* forbade states from limiting the right to abortion for a surprising reason: privacy. The court decided in a 7-2 decision that rules limiting abortions infringed upon the mother’s right to privacy.[[20]](#footnote-20) Over 55 million unborn children have died for privacy.

National Security: One of the saddest chapters in the history of the Christian religion occurred in Japan four centuries ago. It occurred because national security was overvalued. Christianity enjoyed widespread success in Japan during the 1500’s, but when Japan united under a shogunate in the late 1500’s and early 1600’s, the rulers began to fear Christian influence. Christian influence created cracks in Japanese unity, spread European ways, and appeared to undermine the country. Christianity became perceived as a national security threat and was banned. The Japanese enforced the Danka System in 1614—a system by which every family would register at a local Buddhist temple (see the previous chapter). This allowed the government to keep track of all Christians. After a Christian-led rebellion in the late 1630’s, the government used the Danka system to destroy Christianity for the sake of national security. Their measures were effective, and Christianity essentially disappeared in Japan for the remainder of the Tokugawa Period (1603-1868). National security was overvalued, and thousands died. [[21]](#footnote-21)[[22]](#footnote-22)[[23]](#footnote-23)

# Impacts

The argument thus far can be boiled down into two points: First, overvaluing either side its catastrophic. Second, both sides must be chosen sometimes when in conflict. These two facts mean that the resolution is a lot less straightforward than it initially seems.

One impact of these facts is that a universal burden of proof—requiring that the resolution be true in every single case—won’t hold up this year. You can’t prove the resolution in all situations because clearly there are times you need to value privacy, and other times you need to value national security. This year try to uphold a general burden of proof. In essence, try to prove the resolution as a general, rather than universal, rule.

This essay also demonstrated that both privacy and national security are wonderful—even in some of the cases where they infringe on or weaken each other. This means that you can’t simply debate that one will be good when in conflict and the other will be bad. You have to take a more nuanced, philosophical approach to demonstrate a general principle. Additionally, you can’t just take individual cases to prove a general rule, because as already apparent in this essay, there is a lot of evidence for each side. Step beyond arguing individual cases, study deeply, and develop your case. I assure you, studying the resolution deeply will be worth it.

Current Applications  
—  
by Chris Jeub, with Vance Trefethen and Rob Parks

“Considering Today’s Policies in Your Value Debates”

It may seem strange to see our names in the *Red Book.* We’re policy debate old guys who write the *Blue Book* every year. I (Mr. Jeub) am the publisher of all the sourcebooks at Monument Publishing, and when the NCFCA announced the 2015 Lincoln-Douglas debate resolution, it seemed like the perfect opportunity to tie policy and value together. Why? Because…

The conflict between privacy and national security is a value conflict that is extremely prevalent in some of today’s most contentious policies.

In the value debate world, we call policies “applications.” In a totally separate league for a *Blue Book* we prepared for them, the resolution for team-policy debaters carried with it a very value-ish conflict: “Resolved: The United States federal government should substantially reform its electronic surveillance law.” You can imagine that the policy debaters talked values all year long. Our favorite cases in *Blue Book* were set to solve value conflicts between *privacy and national security.*

For this article, I took elements from the 2014 Blue Book, chock full of applications of which you need to become experts, and re-edited them for NCFCA Lincoln-Douglas debaters. That’s you! I am most certain that you will find this chapter of *Red Book* most valuable for your debate preparation.

And kudos to the good work of Vance Trefethen and Rob Parks, co-contributors to last year’s *Blue Book* on surveillance policy. They are policy debate partners from the 1980s who get together and teach team-policy debate camps. The two of them contributed to much of this article with their advice last year to team-policy debaters.

# Security vs. Privacy

This is the epic battle, is it not? It’s a battle that plays out in real life. In the aftermath of 9/11, many argued that federal agencies could have done more to prevent it if they had been able to gather and share more information. Given the enormous impact in terms of lost life and property, it is arguably reasonable to expect that government would take a fair number of steps to prevent such from happening again. Maintaining peace and freedom from crime is, after all, one of the legitimate purposes of government.[[24]](#footnote-24)

To some extent, every measure of security, even the most reasonable, takes away some percentage of our privacy. We give up our name and address and insurance information in order to register our cars and get drivers licenses, in exchange for some assurance that drivers on the road have been tested and are carrying adequate insurance in case they crash into us. And you probably don’t want to go back to the 1960s when airports had no security procedures (and thus, lots of privacy), but a total of 71 planes were hijacked worldwide in a single year (1969).[[25]](#footnote-25)

On the other hand, fundamental human rights are often judged to be worth risking human life for. The Founding Fathers said they were willing to risk their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor to secure such rights. If another 9/11 happened every year (let’s say, 3000 deaths each time), would protection of privacy outweigh higher surveillance measures that could stop it from happening? It might be an acceptable risk for some individuals, but in a democracy such as ours, it is likely the majority would quickly vote for increased security. We don’t know the threshold of how many deaths or potential deaths justify losing some privacy rights. How much privacy would you sacrifice to save, not 3000, but, say, 100 lives per year?

# Constitutional Considerations

What does the Constitution say about privacy? The Fourth Amendment never mentions the word, and there are even at least a few who argue that it doesn’t necessarily intend to protect it:

With this decision the Court has completed, I hope, its rewriting of the Fourth Amendment, which started only recently when the Court began referring incessantly to the Fourth Amendment not so much as a law against unreasonable searches and seizures as one to protect an individual's privacy. By clever word juggling, the Court finds it plausible to argue that language aimed specifically at searches and seizures of things that can be searched and seized may, to protect privacy, be applied to eavesdropped evidence of conversations that can neither be searched nor seized. Few things happen to an individual that do not affect his privacy in one way or another. Thus, by arbitrarily substituting the Court's language, designed to protect privacy, for the Constitution's language, designed to protect against unreasonable searches and seizures, the Court has made the Fourth Amendment its vehicle for holding all laws violative of the Constitution which offend the Court's broadest concept of privacy. As I said in Griswold v. Connecticut, [381 U. S. 479](https://supreme.justia.com/cases/federal/us/381/479/case.html), "The Court talks about a constitutional 'right of privacy' as though there is some constitutional provision or provisions forbidding any law ever to be passed which might abridge the 'privacy' of individuals. But there is not." … The Fourth Amendment protects privacy only to the extent that it prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures of "persons, houses, papers, and effects." No general right is created by the Amendment so as to give this Court the unlimited power to hold unconstitutional everything which affects privacy. Certainly the Framers, well acquainted as they were with the excesses of governmental power, did not intend to grant this Court such omnipotent lawmaking authority as that. The history of governments proves that it is dangerous to freedom to repose such powers in courts.”[[26]](#footnote-26) (Supreme Court Justice Hugo Black, dissent in Katz v. U.S. 1967)

Black’s views are in the minority and not in the mainstream today. But there are probably a lot of good Negative debate quotes in Black’s “strict constructionist” dissent about why using the Fourth Amendment to create privacy rights is a bad idea.

Let’s examine the Fourth Amendment a little more closely. It will likely be cited all year long as you debate:

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

The Fourth Amendment originally applied only to the Federal government, but was applied to the States (by application of the Fourteenth Amendment) by the Supreme Court in the case of *Mapp v. Ohio* in 1961[[27]](#footnote-27). Parse the words of this Amendment carefully and notice some words and concepts that are (or are not) there:

## 1. “Unreasonable searches.”

Does this Amendment say that all government searches require a warrant? If you think so, read it again. The Fourth Amendment limits “unreasonable” searches, not “all” searches. If a search is reasonable, it doesn’t require a warrant. A huge amount of court litigation centers around what is “reasonable” and what is so unreasonable that it would require a warrant.

Legal scholars sometimes refer to this debate in part as the “expectation of privacy.” Would a reasonable person expect that some activity is private? If so, it should arguably require a warrant. If not, it might be reasonable to expect that if anyone else can see it, the government can too. Also, exceptional circumstances can turn unreasonable searches into reasonable ones. Courts have ruled that opening luggage and doing body searches at airports is “reasonable” because of the risk of terrorism.

## 2. “Persons, houses, papers, and effects.”

Where do bytes, sound waves, and web pages fit in to this? The Founders could not have imagined that someday people would communicate by sending electronic messages through the air. How does this apply in the wired communication age (1844-1995) or the internet/cell-phone age (1995-present)?

## 3. “Their.”

This little word “their” makes a big difference in actual practice. What is the difference between a letter you write on a piece of paper and mail in an envelope to your friend and an email you write on your computer and send electronically to your friend? In many cases, the difference is that your email letter sits on a computer server somewhere. If a copy of your letter is sitting on Google’s server machine, that copy of the letter might arguably be “theirs” and not “yours.” Your letters are secure from search, but the one sitting at Google isn’t yours and you have no claim to privacy over it.

You see this “expectation of privacy” is just as important as privacy itself. It is a key criterion used by the courts to evaluate the limitations of searches. In an age when people report their romantic status, political views, and toilet visits on Facebook for the world to see, is it possible that we have reached an age where privacy is no longer valued as it once was and hardly anyone has any expectation of privacy at all? Why do people profess to be shocked that the government is looking at information that we voluntarily put out for the world to see?

Another debate common to this topic is: If you have nothing to hide, you have nothing to fear. While this gives comfort to some, it would appear problematic in practical application. First, you may not know if you have nothing to hide. You may think of yourself as a law-abiding citizen, but there are so many federal and state criminal statutes on the books that it is quite likely you have violated some of them without even knowing it. Given that something as obscure as improper transportation of dentures is a federal crime[[28]](#footnote-28), how do you know you have nothing to hide?

Second, the Fourth Amendment (and all the rest of the Bill of Rights, for that matter) was written to protect all citizens, not just “guilty” ones. Innocent people have a constitutional right to have their papers free of warrantless search, just as much as criminals do.

And finally, wouldn’t it be a better use of scarce police resources to focus investigations only on those with probable cause to suspect a crime, rather than investigating and conducting surveillance on *everyone*? Refusing to be searched when you are innocent can arguably aid law enforcement by speeding up their investigation, since it stops them from wasting time and motivates them to go look for those more likely to be guilty.

# Current Applications

Like it or not, you will need to pull in current political applications into your value debates. Judges will be hungry for it. I believe debaters who embrace an understanding of the popular policies concerning the conflict between privacy and national security will be extremely successful in NCFCA LD debate this year. Come to think of it, that’s what made for successful debaters last year when arguing about electronic surveillance.

What will help is keeping these real-life examples in mind and knowing much about them.

## Law Enforcement

Governments do electronic surveillance to investigate crime by collecting information about who is talking to whom and what they are saying. That evidence can point out who the bad guys are and provide the incriminating words they said that can put them behind bars.

Many Affirmative cases will propose better safeguards to increase requirements for warrants on electronic communication. But it is also possible that someone could find a scenario where security is compromised and we need to increase wiretapping or surveillance. Sharp debaters will be prepared for both sides of this argument when going Negative.

## Intelligence Agencies

Numerous bills have been passed in the past couple of years meant to rein in the intelligence agencies who reacted (or over-reacted) to the national fear of terrorism after 9/11. (Will Martin mentions some of these in his article earlier in *Red Book*). This debate will likely take place around two axes: “Privacy v. National Security” and “How bad is the harm?” We discussed the security/privacy tradeoff above.

How bad is the harm? The agencies themselves would argue that even if they collect trillions of bytes of information about US citizens, it all just gets filed on a computer disk somewhere and most of it is never used nor even looked at. The only ones who have anything to fear are those involved with terrorists or criminals, so there’s no harm to the general public.

We’ve been through all this before. Adults my age remember the Church Committee (also mentioned by Mr. Martin earlier) and how the federal government tried to rein in the intelligence agencies from spying on Americans in the 1970s. But 9/11 opened the floodgates and unloosed the agencies to spy on us again. Debaters are likely to argue that we need to move the pendulum back in the direction of privacy.

## Airport Security

Federal “electronic surveillance” occurs at airports in the United States every day as humans and bags are run through scanning devices searching for guns, nail clippers, canned soda and other dangerous threats to our national security. (Yes, I’m mixing facetious with fatal sarcasm here.) A series of hijackings in the 1960s and early 1970s brought about the first awareness of the need for pre-boarding security to reduce the risk of weapons being brought on board airplanes. Just how much security is worth the hassle is what you will be debating.

The 9/11 hijackings dramatically raised the stakes. Over the last decade the federal government has implemented numerous upgrades and more intrusive scans in an effort to outwit terrorists with explosives in their shoes or their underwear. Are these scans effective? Are they putting naked human images on display? In this case there is a 3-way tradeoff: substantial extra cost, privacy violation, and security improvement. Are the tradeoffs worth it?

# Policy Cases

Allow me to summarize popular cases from last year’s policy debates. Chances are you will want to use these as example applications in your value debate this year.

## Airport Body Scanners

If you’ve gotten onto a commercial airplane at any airport recently, you know that there are intensive security screening procedures required before you can get to the boarding gate. One of those procedures involves stepping into a box and allowing a full scan of your entire body to search for any concealed items. You can argue that these searches are not only a violation of privacy, but unnecessary and counterproductive to real airport security.

Back in the early 1970s, when hijacking airplanes was a new fad that the government was scrambling to respond to, they installed metal detectors that could find a gun or a bomb concealed on your body. These devices, crude by today’s standards, simply rang an alarm if metallic sensors were triggered. But terrorists have gotten smarter. In the last 10 years, we’ve seen plots involving explosives concealed in shoes and underwear, and there’s no telling what the bad guys will think of next. Full body scanning is the Transportation Safety Administration’s (TSA) solution for trying to find any possible contraband on US flights. The official term for full body scanners is “Advanced Imaging Technology” (AIT).

There are two major types of AIT today: backscatter and millimeter wave. Backscatter imaging takes what looks like a black and white image of a nude body and projects it onto a screen viewed by the TSA inspector. Millimeter wave images are not as explicit, but still show any anomalies, which can include private medical devices, prostheses, etc. Backscatter devices have been phased out as of 2013, and replaced by millimeter wave. Some argue that even this is too much.

So, you get the idea. Anyone can scan our bodies without our consent or without probable cause, all for the sake of national security. Shouldn’t this gnaw at our sense of freedom? It also ought to offend our sense of morality, the fundamental problem of conscience with viewing the naked body of another person in public, outside the intimate context of marriage. And all to what benefit? TSA has never claimed that AIT has ever caught a single terrorist. Some experts even believe that the number of false alerts generated by AIT reduces security rather than enhances it, by wasting time and distracting TSA agents away from real threats. AIT should only be used when there is some probable cause to believe a passenger is concealing something or is a threat to airplane security.

Of course, there are the naysayers. They will argue that the new scanners are nothing but a cartoon image, not a naked body, so there’s no embarrassing privacy violation. And the alternative is worse: In many cases, without AIT, the TSA has to resort to physical pat-downs, involving grabbing and groping the passenger. That’s much worse than a three-second scan and looking at a black outline of a cartoon image of a body. Ultimately, reducing airport security will open doors to terrorists, putting us all at higher risk.

## Domestic Drone Use

Drones have become well known in the last few years as a weapon of foreign warfare. But they are breaking out into a new market. Domestic drone surveillance is on the rise, and with it comes the potential for government abuse of its power. Without the proper restrictions, state surveillance via this expanding area of technology threatens both individual privacy and civil liberty. Regulatory reform is imperative to prevent the government from gaining further control in the name of security.

The FAA is on track to expand the integration of drones in to domestic US airspace in 2015. The result will be a dramatic increase in the use of drones for lots of things, most notably law enforcement and surveillance. Courts have ruled that US citizens have no expectation of privacy in things that are publically visible. Since the airspace above your house is open to the public, under current law drones will have open season on viewing everyone and everything they can. The results will be massive privacy violations and government abuse of power.

There are many who propose to solve this emerging threat by passing a federal version of a bill in the Florida state legislature that requires search warrants for drone surveillance except in cases of immediate danger to public safety, or to apprehend a fleeing suspect.

The argument against such respect to privacy is that the drone threat to privacy is exaggerated. Most domestic drones coming to our future will be used for agriculture and other benign purposes. Scaring the public by spreading fear of drones will block all the good benefits they could bring.

## The Electronic Communications Privacy Act of 1986

The Electronic Communications Privacy Act of 1986 contains a lot of outdated regulations on government collection of our Internet data. There are over 30,000 electronic surveillance events per year where the government gets hold of our electronic communications, and the court records are almost always sealed. There’s no judicial accountability, no chance to appeal, and most of the time you might never even know your materials were searched. But that’s not how our system is supposed to work: Secret court decisions and secret searches are like something out of Kafka’s “THE TRIAL,” or the old Soviet system.

Some advocate not to raise standards for searching nor block searches (that’s an argument in the next application about email privacy). Instead, we should open the window and let in some sunshine and transparency on government ECPA search orders. Open up ECPA searches to appellate court review and restore our constitutional rights to information about government activities. While we’re at it, ensure that ECPA searches take place with adequate oversight, and not behind closed doors as they do now. Do this by ending the automatic sealing of ECPA search orders that is routinely done by federal judges in the status quo.

The opposition argues that the real solution is to work out privacy arrangements in the marketplace between consumers and providers of internet communications. Companies can already encrypt or protect the data given to them by customers, if they choose to, so it’s up to consumers to choose companies who do so, to reward them in the marketplace. In addition, consumers have misplaced expectations of privacy if they think the data they hand over to someone else (like on an email server or cloud storage) still remains private. It has been long settled law that anything you hand over to someone else stops being private, and everyone should know that by now. In addition, it could be dangerous to unseal certain court documents about electronic surveillance, since individuals named in those documents could use that information for nefarious purposes.

## Email Privacy

Current laws regulating the federal government’s access to the content of email date to 1986, when almost nobody had email. That year, Congress passed the Electronic Communications Privacy Act (ECPA), with all good intentions, in a world that had never heard of the Internet. Emails, what few there were, were not stored on machines at any central location after being sent to their recipients, because disk space was expensive. Any emails left on servers unread were assumed to be abandoned, and so no one saw any privacy violation in allowing the government to read emails on outside servers (i.e., not on your own computer) over six months old.

How times change. Today many email systems routinely store all emails on big servers. The government would need a warrant to come into your home and get onto your computer to look at an email or a file on your laptop. But if you have the same file or email stored on an Internet service or email provider’s system, they can simply get it from them. Contrast this open viewing of your private messages with the level of protection the same message would have if it were on paper and stored in your home. Our “papers” are protected by the Fourth Amendment from unreasonable search without warrants. But now that our “papers” are digital and online, it’s time to update the law so that 21st century “papers” get the Fourth Amendment protections they deserve.

One federal appeals court (the 6th Circuit Court of Appeals) has already ruled exactly that: that the government needs a search warrant to look at emails on a third party server. But that ruling doesn’t apply throughout the United States (it only applies within the region of the country under the 6th Circuit’s jurisdiction) and has never been tested at the Supreme Court. Many experts say we need to pass the Email Privacy Act, a bill currently pending in Congress, which would extend the same requirement for a search warrant to email as we currently have with our paper letters and mail.

Of course, some argue against this. They say that the Email Privacy Act unnecessarily slows down investigations of terrorism, hence a threat to national security. The public should know, they argue, that emails stored on other people’s computers are not private, and they shouldn’t have any expectation of privacy in them.

## Geolocation Privacy and Surveillance Act

In 2012, the Supreme Court ruled in the case of Jones v. U.S. that it was unconstitutional for law enforcement to attach without a search warrant a GPS tracking device to the underside of a suspect’s car in order to track him and obtain evidence in their criminal investigation. But law enforcement has learned that they can “use phones to get around Jones.” Since almost everyone has a cell phone, and since cell phones constantly emit signals that connect to nearby cell phone towers, you can get almost the same result by simply getting a list of cell towers pinged by the suspect’s cell phone, or track him in real time by monitoring the cell tower information from the phone company.

Many experts argue that this circumvention is a loophole that should be closed for the same reasons as cited in the Jones decision. A bill currently pending in Congress, the Geolocation Privacy and Surveillance Act, would require warrants for the government to get geolocation information on suspects, except for certain emergency situations or with consent (e.g., if you are calling from the wilderness in need of rescue).

Many of the standard arguments applicable to many naysayers explained already apply here as well. They argue that you have no privacy right to data you turn over to third parties, like the phone company, since every cell phone user knows his location data is necessarily revealed in order to complete his call. And they will argue as well that anything slowing down data collection will impede law enforcement and therefore increase crime. And finally, since everyone can see you walking or driving down a street, how can your location be a secret in which you have any privacy right at all?

## Immigration Surveillance

Immigration law is sometimes referred to as a national security issue. A friend of mine, James O’Keefe, casted an embarrassing video of him crossing the border of Mexico dressed in an Osama bin Laden outfit. The video went viral and led to congressional hearings on safety issues of our arguably unsecure borders. The point for you as a value debater is this: immigration laws matter when debating national security, and the government doesn’t mind violating your privacy to do so.

Here’s the link: the two systems of electronic surveillance used by the government to try to improve enforcement of the nation’s immigration laws. The first is the NCIC, an FBI database of criminal records that recently has been receiving additional data on immigration status. Local police officers often run a suspect or detainee’s name (for example, during a traffic stop) through the NCIC database to find out if they are wanted for anything. The second is the Secure Communities program, a federal initiative that collects data on the immigration status of all inmates in every jail in the country.

Some argue that federal “outsourcing” of immigration enforcement to local agencies is a big mistake. The NCIC database has lots of errors in it, so local police using it to detain people on immigration issues end up making a lot of false arrests and harassing many innocent people. In addition, local cops are not trained in federal immigration law, so they don’t understand how to use the information properly. The database ends up being a distraction that slows down local police work, and some of the best advocates for avoiding its use for immigration are members of local law enforcement. Besides, throwing all this private information around is hardly treating it sensitively.

The Secure Communities program is likewise criticized by many in law enforcement. Making local cops enforcers of immigration law makes people in immigrant communities afraid to come forward when they are witnesses or victims of crime. Many crimes could go unsolved or unreported if the victims are afraid their spouse or relatives or neighbors will be deported during the investigation.

The opposition will argue that both programs are highly successful at catching potential terrorists who, like O’Keefe, could walk right across the border at any time. I suppose if that’s worth it to some who aren’t concerned about private information getting thrown around law enforcement agencies.

## Roving Wiretaps

Wiretapping can be a necessary and effective part of law enforcement’s investigation of foreign intelligence or terrorism activity. Federal laws for wiretap investigation of ordinary crime come with careful safeguards to protect uninvolved members of the public from privacy violations. However, some argue that wiretapping surveillance of foreign activity in the United States is sadly lacking these necessary safeguards.

A “Roving Wiretap” is a surveillance technique that normally consists of monitoring all the phones that a criminal suspect might be apt to use during the times he is likely to be using them. It’s a step forward from the old wiretaps that only monitored one phone based on the fact that these days it’s easy to switch between cell phones, “burn” phones, etc., and criminals can easily do this to avoid surveillance.

When agents monitor a criminal suspect in this fashion, the surveillance is known as a “Title III” wiretap, and they have to get a warrant authorized by a court in which they name the suspect they are investigating. But when the investigation involves foreign agents or suspected terrorists, a different set of rules applies. In that case, federal agents will use FISA (the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act) to get a court to authorize roving wiretap surveillance. The standards for obtaining a warrant and conducting roving wiretap surveillance under FISA are lower than under Title III. With FISA, they don’t have to name the individual they are monitoring. And agents don’t have to use safeguards to only listen in when the suspect(s) are likely to be there. It means they are far more likely under a FISA roving wiretap to pick up many unintended conversations from many innocent people, without the Title III safeguards, opening the door to widespread privacy violations. So, the argument goes, Congress should make the Title III safeguards apply to FISA roving wiretaps.

Of course, there are those who oppose such a solution. They argue that FISA already has plenty of safeguards and that the risks of bystanders being victimized by privacy invasion is quite low. And slowing down federal investigations of foreign spying or terrorism could have big impacts if some nefarious plot goes undetected.

## The USA FREEDOM Act

Here’s a bit of really cool NCFCA history for you. At the exact time affiliates were voting for this resolution on the conflict between privacy and national security, Congress passed the USA FREEDOM Act, passed June 2, 2015. For the most part, it sided with privacy. While it restored some of the original PATRIOT Act (which had expired during the voting of your resolution, too), it imposed new limits on the bulk collection of metadata on US citizens. It also clarified roving wiretaps explained earlier to better focus on suspected terrorists alone—not average, everyday Americans. The act even played off the use of the PATRIOT acronym, making a “backronym” for USA FREEDOM: United and Strengthening America by Fulfilling Rights and Ending Eavesdropping, Dragnet-collection and Online Monitoring Act.

Ain’t Congress getting clever?

While policy debaters would have then lost on inherency (their plan is now law), value debaters can keep on debating the issue. Keep arguing the predicted problems of the USA FREEDOM Act. It arguably contains provisions that will interfere with the functioning of FISA courts and endanger national security.

Do you see a pattern here? I bet you do. Current policies either take our privacy for the sake of national security, or they risk our national security for the sake of privacy. This is a worthy debate to have — both for policy and for value. Let loose in your debates this year and have fun!

Part III:   
Affirmative Cases

Affirmative Case: Presumption of Innocence  
—   
by Will Martin

“You Took My Privacy…for What?”

Impact is the most important aspect of the debate. Without it, all your argumentation is pointless. The key to crafting a good case is to provide yourself with relatable impacts. The key to crafting a great case? Attack the base of your opponent’s impact. Rob him of the ability to motivate your judge to action, and convert this dangerous threat into a close ally. This is how I believe a great case can be made.

This case endeavors to do just that. Like a normal affirmative, it will provide standard impacts that anyone can relate to. Appealing to illegal surveillance methods, uncomfortable screening practices, and the general distrust of government, this case has clear impacts for the affirmative side. I strongly suspect that this sort of approach will be quite common.

To try to strengthen this basic approach, attacks on the very basis of the negative’s position are added. Think for a moment as the negative. Your impacts to the judge are entirely dependent upon being able to offer additional security. Whether you’re addressing the people, things, or beliefs they hold dear, it only works because a vote for you *should* protect them. To break this illusion this case will rely on concrete facts.

By disproving that privacy violation is a method of creating more security, the affirmative debater not only provides the traditional impacts in his favor, but he or she spikes the opposition’s impacts simultaneously. The combination of those two factors will often be enough to defeat all but the very best of your fellow competitors.

“You Took My Privacy…for What?”

Affirmative Case: Presumption of Innocence

# Introduction

If you travel by air, you probably have the drill memorized. As you approach the security checkpoint, you remove your shoes, belt, and jacket. You put all of your personal items into a scanner and step forward to be examined. You probably don’t mind; after all, this prevents terrorists from killing you and hundreds more. Right?

If this has been you, you aren’t going to like what I have to say next. In June of 2015 it was announced that the TSA had failed to detect fake bombs and weapons in 67 of 70 tests. CNN reported on an internal investigation of the Department of Homeland Security's Office of the Inspector General: quote, “[investigators] were able to get banned items through the screening process in 67 out of 70 tests it conducted across the nation.”[[29]](#footnote-29)

Make no mistake: you are not trading your privacy for security; you are being robbed of privacy for no benefit. That is why I stand resolved that, “When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security.”

# Definitions

Let’s begin by addressing the definitions of today’s terms:

* Privacy: “the state of being free from unwanted or undue intrusion or disturbance in one's private life or affairs.”
* National Security: “a collective term for the defense and foreign relations of a country.”
* Conflict: “incompatibility or interference, as of one idea, desire, event, or activity with another.”[[30]](#footnote-30)

# Resolutional Analysis: Philosophies of Approach

This resolution presents a comparison between two underlying philosophies of our national approach to public policy. One approach favors the privacy of individuals, advocating strong protections and restricting government power. The other favors our national security, even to the detriment of individual rights and freedoms. The core conflict in this debate is between the legitimacy of these governmental approaches.

# Value: The Presumption of Innocence

My value is the **Presumption of Innocence**, defined as, “Treating people as if they are innocent until proven guilty.” Presumption of innocence was at the core of the original American experiment. Any government official was bound to strong probable cause, had tough requirements for warrants, and by law had to give you the benefit of the doubt.

But that American tradition has died out. Instead the American public is treated as if they are guilty until proven innocent, a perversion of our rights. I believe that the government must treat you as though *you* are innocent until *they* prove you guilty.

## Criterion: Fourth Amendment Standard

My criterion, to demonstrate when the presumption of innocence is being upheld is the Fourth Amendment Standard. The founding fathers carefully balanced our right to privacy with our need for security. They established guidelines for when searches of private property and persons can be legitimate. The Fourth Amendment establishes these three criteria:

1. The search must be reasonable.

2. There must be probable cause.

3. The search must be accompanied by a warrant for a specific place.

This is really important! Only when all three of these standards are being upheld are you being presumed innocent. Let’s explore how the misguided cause of national security has trampled these standards in:

# Contention 1: Fourth Amendment Standard is violated

When we uphold the negative position and allow government to put security over privacy, it is inevitable that our Fourth Amendment rights will be unconstitutionally violated.

An example of this is NSA surveillance. The NSA maintained a massive telecommunications metadata program. So, what on earth is that? It is a giant system designed to keep track of whom you call, when you called them, and how long you talked. Never heard of it? That’s because it started after a secret ruling in 2006 by the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Court. It was hidden from nearly all of America until it was leaked in 2013.

For many Americans, that information is highly sensitive. Family members, therapists, doctors, banking calls—all tracked by the NSA. This was a massive breach of the Fourth Amendment, clearly outside of the legal limitations on government. When the government believes they can search you—not only without warrant, but in secret—they treat you as guilty from the beginning. This program was unreasonable, it was not based on any probable cause, and no warrants were issued. National Security leads to a breakdown in our constitutional rights.

# Contention 2: Fourth Amendment violation bears no fruits

Just like at the airport, we may be tempted to accept these transgressions as necessary: a measure of national security. However, this temptation is false.

New America, a think tank for public policy, did a study of the 225 individuals charged with terrorism in the United States and found that, “The controversial bulk collection of American telephone metadata, which includes the telephone numbers that originate and receive calls, as well as the time and date of those calls but not their content, under Section 215 of the USA PATRIOT Act, appears to have played an identifiable role in initiating, at most, 1.8 percent of these cases.”[[31]](#footnote-31)

This proves that your government abused your rights, misused your trust, and invaded your privacy, all for a program that has, at the absolute best, a 98.2% failure rate at detecting terrorists! It is clear to see that no true security will come from handing over privacy to the cause of national security.

# Contention 3: Privacy must be more important

We have identified that the government violates our right to privacy and that this violation doesn’t protect us. This leads us to the obvious conclusion: our right to privacy must take priority or we lose rights for no reason.

Fortunately, we have recently seen several steps in the right direction. On June 2, 2015, the Senate passed the USA-FREEDOM act. It revokes the NSA’s ability to obtain mass warrants, instead requiring them to obtain a specific targeted warrant for a reasonable search. This new bill upholds the Fourth Amendment standards for our privacy, and treats you like a normal innocent civilian, not a terrorist waiting to be found.

Now if only they could fix my trip to the airport!

Negative Brief: Safety

The goal of this case is to insight anger toward common surveillance practices, then make them the summary of the negative position of national security. There are two key strategies that can be employed to break this case:

1. Separate the execution from the ideal

This case critiques specific government programs and practices. Affirmatives can easily point out that their burden is to support national security as defined, not the failures of the TSA or NSA. The support for this argument is found in the resolution’s “in conflict.” If the individual’s right to privacy is being harmed in a way that doesn’t contribute to security, then no resolutional conflict can exist.

However, a word of caution is necessary. The Resolutional Analysis point, “Philosophies of approach,” was intended to counter this argument by shifting the focus of the debate towards how these concepts are put into practice. To utilize this strategy, the resolutional analysis needs to be contested. Don’t forget and drop it!

2. Change the tone

This case heavily depends upon selling the government’s actions as wrong and pointless. Point out that metadata is generally regarded as public information, like the address you place on an envelope in the mail. Also, make note that the NSA is supposed to be spying on foreign agents, so the information accidently collected on Americans is legally supposed to be erased.

You will have to make an effort to change the rhetoric in the debate round. Affirmative says the NSA spied on the judge, you say it spied on communications suspected of confirming terrorist activities. Affirmative says 98.2% failure rate, you point out that 1.8% of 225 is 4 terrorists. That alone is enough to spark a 9/11 attack all over again.

Affirmative Case: Intrinsic Worth  
—  
by Travis Herche

“Privacy Is Precious”

This is a classic framework-centric case argues that privacy is intrinsically valuable. It gives you the option of pulling several cool strategic maneuvers on your opponent.

Fight tooth-and-nail for your framework. Don’t accept, accommodate, or even tolerate an opposing value or criterion. If you lose either component of your framework, you lose the round; if you don’t, you win. It will almost always be that simple.

To that end, think about what values the negative might run and practice taking them down in the constrained time format of a 1AR. Spend as much time as you need to on it.

Don’t engage the negative contentions/applications directly. Instead, run a group response of No Impact. You don’t want the judge to entertain any way to make a decision other than the Bin Laden test.

Again, if your framework sells, the rest of the round will take care of itself. Commit to it, fight, win.

Final note: play around with the Bin Laden test before you run this case. Test out concepts like Democracy or Patriotism. Make sure you’re comfortable with how it works so you can handle anything you’re asked in cross-examination.

“Privacy Is Precious”

Affirmative Case: Intrinsic Worth

“I personally know about fifteen people who died of hunger. In the case of an acquaintance of mine, her entire family died. There were so many deaths; we got used to seeing dead bodies everywhere—at train stations, on the streets.”

These are the words of Ms. Kim, a survivor and escapee of the great North Korean famine. [[32]](#footnote-32)

There were many factors contributing to the famine. Perhaps most alarming about it was that, even as their people starved, government officials took food from their mouths and invested it in the military. They were wholly committed to national security, but at a tragic cost. That lesson is one of the reasons I am resolved: When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security.

Let’s start with a

# Definition

Privacy is defined by Macmillan Dictionary as: “the freedom to do things without other people watching you or knowing what you are doing"[[33]](#footnote-33)

Now to the most important point in this debate.

# Value: Intrinsic Worth

Intrinsic worth is operationally defined as: “Value drawn from essential nature.” That’s in contrast with extrinsic worth, which is value drawn from effects.

Here’s the simplest way to understand intrinsic worth. If you can take away an aspect of something, but that something is still fundamentally the same, the thing you took away is not essential. If it has fundamentally changed, that thing you took away is part of its essential nature.

For example, warfare sometimes features tanks. But if you take away the tanks, it’s still warfare. If you take away the killing, it has fundamentally changed from war to an international wrestling match.

Here’s why you should use intrinsic worth to measure this resolution:

## Value Link: Primary Consideration

By definition, intrinsic worth is the only thing that truly matters. We uphold concepts like human life, freedom, and family because they are sacred. If one of the elements of the resolution has intrinsic worth and the other doesn’t, that’s all you need to know to cast a ballot.

But how do you know if something has intrinsic worth? Let’s turn to the

# Criterion: Bin Laden Test

The Bin Laden Test says: “If the worst possible expression of something still has some value, that thing is intrinsically good.”

For example, terrorist leader Osama Bin Laden was a profoundly evil man. He is responsible for founding Al-Qaeda and orchestrating attacks that killed thousands of people. When he died in 2011, the world rejoiced – and rightly so.

But even though bin Laden’s death had made the world safer, some of the celebration went beyond what was appropriate. As evil as bin Laden was, he was still a human being with a soul that had been catapulted into an eternity for which he was probably not ready. That is tragic. If the death of Bin Laden can contain even a note of tragedy, that tells us that human life has intrinsic worth.

## Criterion Link: Robust Measure

The Bin Laden Test works for everything, from liberty to friendship to bacon. Because it is so robust, you can use it with confidence to evaluate national security and privacy.

So let’s go to it.

# Contention 1: National Security Fails the Test

National security has no intrinsic worth because, at its worst, there is nothing good about it. To be clear, that doesn’t mean national security shouldn’t be upheld – just that it’s not as important as intrinsically good things.

## Application: North Korea

In the 1990s, the people of North Korea starved to death in droves. The government took everything the farmers produced and redistributed it, prioritizing national security. So while the population withered away and millions of new graves were dug, North Korea pumped up to 40 percent of its gross domestic product into the military.[[34]](#footnote-34)

North Korea is the worst possible expression of valuing national security. So is there anything good left? Could we sit down with parents who watched their four-year-old son’s body shrivel away in front of them, who wonder if they will be the next to go, and say: “At least your country is secure”? Of course not.

National security is a handy tool, but it has zero intrinsic value.

# Contention 2: Privacy Passes the Test

There’s a reason privacy is protected by the UN Declaration of Human Rights.[[35]](#footnote-35) Privacy is a God-given, intrinsically sacred right. Let’s look at a worst-case test.

## Application: Alexander Selkirk

Alexander Selkirk was the inspiration for the classic novel *Robinson Crusoe*. The real-life sailor was stranded on a remote South American island for six years with nothing but his clothes, a few tools, tobacco, and a Bible. He survived by hunting goats and slept near feral cats so the rats wouldn’t attack him at night.[[36]](#footnote-36)

Selkirk’s life on that island was the worst possible version of privacy. Nothing that he did was observed by other people. In fact, the rest of the world assumed that he was dead. The isolation and loneliness must have tested his sanity. When he was finally found, he had to relearn how to make facial expressions to communicate.

Yet even on that island, there was a bright note to the privacy.

William Cowper’s poem “The Solitude of Alexander Selkirk” begins with these four lines:

I am monarch of all I survey;

My right there is none to dispute;

From the centre all round to the sea

I am lord of the fowl and the brute[[37]](#footnote-37)

Selkirk’s life on the island was in alignment with the basic moral principle that all men are created equal. No one has the moral right to command another adult without that other adult’s permission. Of course, the demands of society mean that we accept some coercion. But on that island, Selkirk was completely free, and everything he saw was his.

That certainly doesn’t make being marooned on an island worthwhile, but it does teach us a valuable lesson: even at its worst, privacy has worth, just as life has worth even at its worst.

The decision I’ll ask you to make at the end of this round is simple. Privacy has intrinsic worth. National security doesn’t. Choose privacy. Thank you.

Negative Brief: Intrinsic Worth

Depending on how your own case is structured, you have a few ways to take this case down.

If you’re also running a framework-centric case, roll up your sleeves and have yourself a good old-fashioned value clash. Use the strategic advantage of a longer speech and run plenty of reasons to prefer your value over intrinsic worth. Three is a good number.

While you shouldn’t deny the existence of intrinsic worth as a concept, you should deny that it is a good way to measure this resolution. Tell the judge to take other factors into account. Think about scenarios when one might choose an extrinsic good over an intrinsic one—like a soldier dying for his country (Country > Life), or working a job you don’t enjoy (Money > Time).

If you’re not running a framework-centric case, you need to shut down the value debate quickly and carefully. One way to do that would be to run a broad counter-value like General Welfare with reasons to prefer claiming that your value is more usable and/or applicable.

Regardless of your case, you could always argue that the affirmative contentions are wrong. For example, you could argue that both elements are intrinsically good, or that neither are. If you disagree with the contentions, the round is almost guaranteed to get messy. That’s better than letting the judge ponder the reality of the affirmative’s Bin Laden Test.

Part IV:   
Negative Cases

Negative Case: Life  
—   
by Nathaniel Mullins

“Limitations for Life”

Debaters who are entering their third year of competition or above will find this year’s resolution similar to that in 2013-2014: National security ought to be valued above the freedom of the press. Both resolutions ask a similar question: is national security worth limitations on rights?

This case argues that privacy and national security only have a narrow range of conflict, and choosing privacy will cause loss of life. Although not the first thing which comes to mind when reading the resolution, traditional surveillance and spying techniques do in fact infringe upon privacy. Even warranted searches, by the definition of privacy, infringe upon it. Therefore, if the government is to stop terror attacks from happening, privacy cannot be held above national security.

Having demonstrated that a negative ballot will uphold life, the case also answers the question, “What would happen to privacy?” Examining other rights that have been limited in the past, the second contention demonstrates that privacy will be virtually unscathed despite occasional infringements on national security.

The affirmative will likely challenge the case’s value: *life*. If the affirmative argues that privacy ought to be held above life, a useful defense would be to use Roe v. Wade. In Roe v. Wade, which essentially legalized abortion in America, privacy was chosen above life. If affirmative speakers disagree with the Roe v. Wade decision, they have to explain an inconsistency in their position. Why, in the case of Roe v. Wade, do they hold life above privacy, but in the instance of the debate round are they arguing for privacy above life?

The case sidelines Edward Snowden’s leaks concerning NSA surveillance, viewing these leaks as irrelevant. This is because evidence demonstrates that NSA mass surveillance was ineffective, which means that privacy was infringed on, but not for the sake of National Security.

“Limitations for Life”

Negative Case: Life

# Introduction

In 2009, Nidal Hasan opened fire at Fort Hood, killing thirteen people.[[38]](#footnote-38) In 2015, a lone gunman killed 39 tourists in Tunisia.[[39]](#footnote-39) In 2008, ten Pakistani men killed 164 people in India.[[40]](#footnote-40)

It doesn’t take many terrorists to kill a lot of people; it doesn’t take many terrorists to pose a significant national security threat. It is because nations need the ability to investigate terrorists *before* they kill in order to save lives that I stand resolved, when in conflict the right to individual privacy is *not* more important than national security.

[Accept the affirmative definitions, unless they are drastically different from the following]

[Otherwise] Before I go any further, I’d like to clarify two definitions.

# Definitions

**Privacy** is “the right that determines the nonintervention of secret surveillance and the protection of an individual's information.”[[41]](#footnote-41)

**National Security** is “the protection or the safety of a country’s secrets and its citizens.”[[42]](#footnote-42)

# Value: Life

My value today is life. Without life, no other rights would be possible—not freedom of religion, not freedom of assembly, not privacy. Indeed, life is necessary to even value anything else. Even those things that are necessary for preserving life—air, food, and water—are valueless unless you are first alive! Among all human rights, life is the most important, and thus the highest value today.

# Resolutional Analysis

Now before we dive into the meat of my arguments, I’d like to examine what the resolution means by “when in conflict.” This means we are looking at cases when choosing national security will infringe on the right to privacy, or when choosing to uphold privacy will weaken national security. So, in those rare cases where you can choose only one, which is more important? Now, of course there will be exceptions- neither side has to prove or disprove the resolution in all cases. It is the task of the debaters today to prove as a general rule which side ought to be viewed as more important.

Now that we understand the resolution, let’s dive into the meat of my arguments, the contentions.

# Contention 1: Limitations Lead to Life.

When privacy *clearly*stands in the way of national security, upholding national security will preserve lives. The reasoning is simple:

**Subpoint 1**: Spies, informants, and surveillance save lives. Since 9/11, the US government has stopped 54 terrorist strikes.[[43]](#footnote-43) How did we stop them? Standard surveillance, searches, informants, and the like.[[44]](#footnote-44) Indeed, how are you going to stop a terror strike from happening unless you have the tools to gather information before the fact?

**Subpoint 2:** Standard surveillance infringes on privacy. I’m not talking about the NSA’s mass collection of data here- I’m only talking about the cases where surveillance has been proven to defend national security. Remember, privacy is *by definition* someone’s right to protect their information. Warranted searches and surveillance infringe on that right.

It is evident, then, that in order to preserve lives, national security must sometimes infringe on privacy. But if privacy can be violated, won’t that destroy it? Far from it!

# Contention 2: Rights Remain.

Think about what happens when government limits other rights. Government limits on freedom of religion- you aren’t allowed to kill in the name of your religion. But we still have religious freedom. You aren’t allowed to speed down highways, but you are still free to move. You aren’t allowed to join a violent mob, but you still have the freedom of assembly. Felons aren’t allowed to carry guns, yet we still have the right to bear arms.

Why should privacy be some special right? If all of these other freedoms were limited when they could harm human life, and the rights survived that limitation, why should we give the right to privacy a special loophole? All this leads to my concluding contention.

# Contention 3: Privacy ought to be limited for the sake of national security.

If National Security can implement a procedure that will save lives but will limit privacy, we have two options. We could choose to uphold privacy. Thus we decide that hiding information is more important than the lives of our neighbors. Or we could uphold national security, stop death, stop terror, and still have privacy. Would you rather have life and privacy, or just privacy? If you choose life and privacy, then choose a negative ballot today. Thank you.

Affirmative Brief: Life

by Nathaniel Mullins

Always be cautious when attacking negative cases. As the affirmative, you only have 7 minutes in which to respond to the negative arguments. Just for the sake of comparison, the negative speaker has up to 13 minutes to respond to your arguments. This means you need to focus on only key weaknesses in the negative case.

If you have a value other than life, then this is the first place you need to attack. The reason for valuing life in this case is that nothing else can have value without it. Here you probably want to point out that we are talking about the lives of a few citizens as compared to the liberties of an entire nation. The negative isn’t in fact defending everyone’s lives with its privacy limitations, only the lives of those who would be harmed in the occasion of a terror strike. Should the lives of a few take precedence over the liberties of many, especially after so many thousands have given their lives to gain us that liberty? Be cautious with this argument, however, as it can come off callous.

The next place to attack is the first contention. The negative is arguing that search warrants and standard surveillance violate privacy. You may want to challenge this argument and try to frame the debate round in terms of mass surveillance. In the case of search warrants, the judges will side with your opponent. However, in the cases of the NSA and mass surveillance, the judge’s bias will probably side with you.

The final place to attack is the second contention, which argues that even with limitations, rights will survive. Here you may want to point out the unique attributes of privacy—once your information has been taken, the right has been thoroughly violated, not just violated in part. Your information cannot be taken and given back to you. When it’s violated, it’s violated for good.

The third contention is merely a summary of the arguments, and doesn’t require a specific response.

Negative Case: Preservation of Rights  
—   
by Christopher Larson

“Life, Liberty, and Fourth of July Fireworks”

The NCFCA Resolution (“When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security”) conjures images of mass data collection, shady government agents, and random government employees glancing at your average day, just for fun. The strength of this case lies in one simple thing: it entirely reframes the debate, getting rid of that negative image. If the case is effective, the judge should finish your speech and think the debate is about whether terrorists should be allowed to bomb us.

But this case isn’t just about framing, there’s plenty of philosophical basis for the arguments presented. At its core, this is just an elaborate presentation of Social Contract theory. If you plan on running this, I’d highly recommend reading up on that. The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy is helpful here. Look into John Locke and Thomas Hobbes, two classic Social Contract theorists. If you really want to understand your argument, you might want to look into more recent developments of Social Contract theory with people like John Rawls.

This case also uses one example: the government’s Fourth of July spying in 2015. The idea here is that the judge can latch onto that as the main idea, providing a concrete embodiment of these philosophical ideas. I would recommend repeating that illustration throughout the round so that the judge views the entire debate in light of that example.

Don’t forget that the core of this case is a reframing of the resolution. If you need to know one thing before running this, here it is: you’ve done your job if the judge walks out of the room thinking the round is all about being attacked during their Independence Day BBQ.

“Life, Liberty, and Fourth of July Fireworks”

Negative Case: Preservation of Rights

# Introduction

If you’re like me, I’m guessing you had a fairly normal Fourth of July. You shot fireworks, you grilled, maybe you watched the DC fireworks show on TV. Your list of worries that day probably went something like this: Do we have enough food? Do we have enough fireworks? Is the dog going to freak out once we start shooting them off?

You probably weren’t worrying about being attacked by ISIS. And I’ll tell you why. Because this Fourth of July, the United States Federal Government infringed on the privacy of hundreds of individuals so that you, and the entire nation, would be secure. It is because I believe that is just and necessary that I negate the resolution: *When in conflict, the right to individual privacy is more important than national security.*

Before going any further, I want to make two general observations relating to the resolution.

# Observation 1: Social Protection Precedes Individual Protection

That’s a mouthful, but it’s actually a simple concept. The idea is this: governments aren’t created to protect one person. They’re created to protect a group of people—in other words, society. That’s what our government was created for, according to our constitution. The government is supposed to, “provide for the *common* defense, [and] promote the *general* welfare.”[[45]](#footnote-45) If an individual threatens society the government must stop them, even if that means infringing on the individual’s rights. If someone posted an ultimatum online, and then was spotted carrying a gun down the street, would you want the police to follow them? I think everyone would. That’s the simple idea behind this point.

# Observation 2: Government is the Actor

This simply means that in this debate round we’re pretending to be the government. We have to look at this like the government would, which means we have to put social protection before individual protection.

# Definitions

Let’s define the key terms in the resolution. It’s important.

* **National Security:** “relates only to those activities which are directly concerned with the nation's safety.”[[46]](#footnote-46)
* **Privacy:** “freedom from unauthorized intrusion.”[[47]](#footnote-47)

# Value: Preservation of Rights

Two of the biggest political philosophers—John Locke and Thomas Hobbes—agree on this point. Governments are created to secure the rights of society. From this, it logically follows that governments may violate the rights of individuals if those individuals pose a threat to society. This is what National Security is for: it’s an action that governments take to preserve our rights. Now this value does need to be further clarified, so let’s look at my Criterion.

# Criterion: The Social Contract

The Social Contract is a significant idea in political philosophy. Philosophers like Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau all have varying interpretations of this idea, but the idea itself is rather simple. Without a government, people are threatened by other people. Because they realize that a government can protect them better than they can protect themselves, individuals come together to form governments. To do this they give up certain rights, like certain liberties and some privacy, in order to allow the government to protect them as a whole.

Under the Social Contract, governments are allowed to infringe on the rights of individuals if it is necessary to defend society as a whole. That’s the key idea in today’s round: *when necessary, governments are allowed to infringe on certain rights to protect others.* This happens every day, and we’re fine with it. My car can go 100 miles per hour. But there’s no way I can use my liberty to drive that fast—speed limit laws infringe on this liberty to protect society as a whole. We have laws that limit rights all the time for the purpose of social protection.

# Contention 1: Necessity Justifies Infringement on Privacy

The proof for this contention has actually already been presented. See, we know that, for governments, social protection precedes individual protection, due to the Social Contract. We also know that we’re looking at this as if we were the government. That means we have to figure out what best preserves the rights of society as a whole. Does prioritizing national security or privacy do that? The answer is obvious: national security.

Go back to this Fourth of July. ISIS called for an attack on America during the American holiday, causing the FBI to go on overdrive to keep us safe. Here’s the problem: ISIS isn’t an army. They’re relying on individual people to carry out jihad. As one security official put it, “This isn’t like Al Qaeda, where there were networks and large-scale plots and well-trained guys. ISIS is telling these guys: ‘Do anything you can. Go to an Army-Navy store and buy a knife and stab someone. Just do something.’”[[48]](#footnote-48)

That’s the threat you faced this Independence Day. Just days later, FBI Director James Comey confirmed that several terrorist plots had been foiled.[[49]](#footnote-49) And so, because the Government infringed on the privacy of hundreds of individuals this Independence Day, the only danger you were in was from faulty fireworks.[[50]](#footnote-50)

At the end of the day, this debate round comes down to a simple question. Should the government have risked your Fourth of July party getting attacked so that the privacy of terrorists could be preserved? I think we all know the answer to that question, and that is no. That’s why I negate the Resolution.

Affirmative Brief: Preservation of Rights

The strength (and weakness) of this case lies in something never stated: the framing. This case reframes the debate. Initially, the debate is about this: should we allow the government to infringe on our privacy because they see a national security threat? After this case, the debate is about this: should we allow terrorists to bomb us? Any good strategy should focus on taking down this framing. Here’s a line-by-line analysis.

## Observation 1: Social Protection Precedes Individual Protection

This is the logical heart of the case. Take this down and you won’t even need to address the rest. Point out all the questions this raises. What exactly does it mean to harm society? Proponents of euthanasia often argue that the elderly are harming society by draining resources. Does that constitute a harm? Here’s where you can counter the emotion of the case. “Look at all these horrible things this idea justifies,” you might say. “Forget national security and privacy for a second, just think about how this plays out in everyday life!”

## Observation 2: Government is the Actor

I would recommend accepting this argument, especially if you dismantle the first observation. It’s really unnecessary apart from it.

## Value: Preservation of Rights

Human Rights values are relatively easy to take down, in my opinion. Human Rights are generally defined as, “life, liberty, and property.” Just point out that all three of those violate each other. Liberty can harm life through murder. Liberty can harm property through theft. I’ve found that simply arguing that the value is contradictory works quite well.

## Criterion: The Social Contract

Two words: no support. This argument works entirely off of common sense in its presentation here. Point that out. Mention that common sense just doesn’t fly in a debate round–you have to have clear, logical reasons to support or deny a particular proposition. Be wary though–there is good logical support for the Social Contract, so be ready to debate that.

## Contention 1: Necessity Justifies Infringement on Privacy

If you’ve taken down the rest of the case this contention crumbles without another thought.

Just remember this key: you have to get away from the framing. By all means, come up with some emotional appeal for your side and point out the logical flaws in the case. But whatever you do, don’t let the Negative get away with making the debate about ISIS’s threats on the Fourth of July.

Red Book Digital Addenda

Don’t forget to register your *Red Book* for access to additional resources. Go to www.monumentpublishing.com/downloads and enter the code affixed to the title page of this book (first-time users will need to set up an account). Study helps, additional lessons, an October 1 Preseason release, and other resources are at your disposal, all meant to prepare you for a most successful apologetics season.

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