Debating & Judging Manual

A note about the authorship of this Manual

The World Universities Debating Championships ('WUDC' or 'Worlds') Debating and Judging Manual was initially compiled in advance of the 35th World Championships in Malaysia. Before that, in the three and a half decade history of Worlds, there had not been a single authoritative document, beyond the WUDC Constitution, which specified how debating and judging takes place at the World Championships.

This Manual is the product of the time, work, wisdom and effort of many adjudication cores and debating intellectuals and academics. The Dutch WUDC 2017 Adjudication Core (Karin Merckens, Syed Saddiq, Hyewon Rho, Michael Dunn Goekjian, Omer Nevo, Veenu Goswami, Yashodhan Nair, Jodie O'Neill and Ingrid Rodriguez) have made a small number of changes to this document, in addition to the changes made by the Thessaloniki WUDC 2016 Adjudication Core.

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1. Introduction: Rules and Guidance

This manual is divided into three chapters. Chapter One explains the fundamental format and operation of debates in the British Parliamentary (BP) format used at Worlds. The main chapter, Chapter Two, explains how judges should evaluate debaters and, consequently, how debaters ought to debate. Chapter Three offers some additional notes for judges, covering issues like how the deliberation process works, speaker marks, giving feedback, some pitfalls to avoid, and so on.

Ultimately, everything in Chapters One and Two of this manual can be divided into two sorts of statement: Rules and Guidance. **Rules** are obligatory requirements of BP debating, most of which are found in the WUDC Constitution – breaching these rules is impermissible, though in many cases the infraction might be small, not especially reprehensible, and easily remedied. Many rules strictly prohibit certain practices: for instance, it is not permitted to offer a point of information (POI) later than six minutes into a speaker's speech. A very small number of such breaches of the rules – offering a POI after six minutes, speaking for longer than 7 minutes and 30 second, or bringing props into a speech, may require intervention by the Chair of the debate (though ideally swift and minimal intervention) to stop the speaker breaching the rules (the chair may, for example, instruct the maker of a POI or the current speaker to sit down and stop talking). We call these 'breaches of order'.

Other rules handle how a Chair should assess features of speeches in determining the relative persuasiveness of teams. Many of these are found in seed form as Constitutional rules, but have been developed by longstanding practice and common acceptance into complexes that have elements of both rules and guidance. Examples include appropriate handling of failures to take POIs, consideration of off-putting stylistic features, and assessment of whether an argument has actually been logically persuasive. Breaches of these rules will rarely if ever require any intervention by a Chair, instead they are considered in the judge's assessment of how persuasive a speaker was when it comes to adjudicating the debate. In other words, the rules specify what can and cannot be done in debaters' efforts to win debates. They are not optional, though in the vast majority of cases violations of them are small mistakes and should be treated as such, rather than being deemed an outrageous attempt to cheat.

At several points this manual makes statements which are not rules but **guidance** – we have tried to always be explicit it stating that something is guidance rather than a rule. Guidance is general advice on how to succeed in debating. For example, it is sensible, if you want to be persuasive, to structure your speech in certain ways: to explicitly label your points, and to use examples from a range of different cases, for instance. But one doesn't <u>need</u> to do any of these things to be persuasive or win a debate, and there is no reason why someone who labels their points should *necessarily* be deemed any more persuasive than someone who doesn't. Explicitly labelling points will usually help a speaker convey their argument to the judges – but there may be other ways to do this or circumstances in which explicit labelling is unnecessary. Guidance thus constitutes general advice from the authors of this manual to debaters or judges – much like the tips or advice a coach would give – which they are free to follow or abandon as they wish. Crucially, <u>a team should never be penalised, in the judging of a debate, for failing to follow any guidance offered in this manual simply "because it's the guidance offered in the manual".</u> Put another way: judges have to judge how persuasive teams are according to the *rules*, not how well the teams follow our *guidance*.

1: The Core Rules of BP Debating at WUDC

1.1 The Basic Format of BP Debating: Four Teams, Eight Speakers

Each debate will contain four teams, each team consisting of eight speakers.

There are two teams on each side of the debate. On one side are Opening Government (OG) and Closing Government (CG), on the other side are Opening Opposition (OO) and Closing Opposition (CO). The two sides of the debate are sometimes called 'benches' – as in, 'the Government bench' and 'the Opposition bench'. The first two teams in the debate (OG and OO) are sometimes collectively called the 'opening half', whilst the third and fourth teams in the debate (CG and CO) are sometimes collectively called the 'closing half'.

	Government (Proposition) Bench	*Opposition Bench*
Opening Half	**Opening Government (OG)** ● Prime Minister (PM) ● Deputy Prime-Minister (DPM)	**Opening Opposition (OO)** ● Opposition Leader (LO) ● Deputy Opposition Leader (DLO)
Closing Half	**Closing Government (CG)** ● Government Member (GM) ● Government Whip (GW)	**Closing Opposition (CO)** ● Opposition Member (OM) ● Opposition Whip (OW)

In the order specified below, speakers from the four teams give their speeches, with each speaker giving one speech:

1. First speaker (the 'Prime Minister') from the OG team,
2. First speaker (the 'Leader of Opposition') from the OO team,
3. Second speaker (the 'Deputy Prime Minister') from the OG team,
4. Second speaker (the 'Deputy Leader of Opposition') from the OO team,
5. First speaker (the 'Government Member') from the CG team,
6. First speaker (the 'Opposition Member') from the CO team,
7. Second speaker (the 'Government Whip') from the CG,
8. Second speaker (the 'Opposition Whip') of the CO Team.

The debate is presided over by a 'Chair', a designated individual who oversees the proceedings of the debate, calling on speakers to speak and enforcing the rules. At Worlds, the Chair will usually be one of the judges – the individuals who will ultimately decide the result of the debate. In the Grand Final of the tournament, the Chair might be a designated Master of Ceremonies or another designated individual not judging. Each debate will also usually have a timekeeper, who could be the Chair, another judge, or another individual entirely, who times speakers' speeches.

1.2 Length of Speeches

Speeches last for 7 minutes. Time signals (usually a bang on the table, ring of a bell, or clap of the hands) will be given by the timekeeper to indicate when 1 minute, 6 minutes and 7 minutes (often indicated by a double clap/bang) have elapsed. Though speakers should ideally finish their speech by 7 minutes, they may legitimately continue to speak in order to finish their sentence or wrap up a conclusion. As a general rule, this shouldn't take more than a further 15 seconds. If a speaker tries to use this leeway to make any additional points, judges are no longer permitted to take this into account. Beyond 7 minutes and 15 seconds, judges are no longer permitted to take *anything* the speaker says into account. The Chair or timekeeper of the debate should bang the table or clap three times at 10 second intervals after 7 minutes 15 seconds to remind the speaker that they are now well beyond

their time limit. If the speaker continues speaking past 8 minutes (which should never happen), the Chair of the debate should 'call order', and instruct the speaker to sit down.

1.3 Roles of the Four Teams

Each team has a role to play in the debate, and the speakers from that team should attempt to fulfil that role effectively:

(i)   OG should define the motion, advance arguments in favour of their side, and rebut arguments made by teams on the Opposition side of the table.

(ii)   OO should rebut OG's case (i.e. the general set of arguments they have offered) and advance constructive arguments as to why their side of the table should win the debate.

(iii)   CG must provide further arguments and analysis in favour of the motion, which are consistent with, but distinct from, the substantive material advanced by OG, as well as refuting the analysis of the Opposition teams. The Government Whip must summarise the debate as a whole on behalf of the Government bench, and should not add new arguments.

(iv)   CO must provide further arguments against the motion, which are consistent with, but different from, the arguments advanced by OO, as well as rebutting arguments made by the Government teams. The Opposition Whip must summarise the debate as a whole on behalf of the Opposition bench, and must not add new arguments.

More details on these roles can be found in Chapter 2.

1.4 Points of Information

The first and last minute of each speech is known as 'protected time', during which no Points of Information (POIs) may be offered to the speaker who is making their speech. During the intervening 5 minutes (i.e. between 01:00 and 06:00) points of information may be offered.

A POI is a formalised interjection from any speaker on the opposite side of the table to the speaker who has the floor. A POI must be in the form of a short comment or question. It should not take any longer than 15 seconds. A POI should be limited to one question or comment, multi-part questions should not be used

It is up to the speaker who has the floor to decide which POIs to accept (i.e. allow to be made) or reject (i.e. not allowed to be made). If a speaker offers a POI which contains multiple comments or statements, the speaker who has the floor has the choice to answer the POI as if only the first question or comment has been made. Judges should not punish speakers for failing to answer more than one part of a multi-part POI.

A POI may last up to 15 seconds. It can take the form of a comment or a question to the speaker who has the floor. It is up to the speaker who has the floor to decide which POIs to accept (i.e. allow to be made) or reject (i.e. not allowed to be made). Each speaker should accept at least one POI, and ideally accept two (they may accept more if they wish, though this is not generally advisable). To offer a POI a speaker should, if they are able to, stand and say "point of information," "on that point" or "point". They should not offer a POI by uttering anything which reveals the content of the POI before it has been accepted (by saying, for example "on the law" or "not at all!"). If the POI offered is refused, the speaker who offered it should sit down immediately.

POIs may not be underlined offered after the 6 minute mark in a speaker's speech, and at 6 minutes all speakers currently standing (to indicate that they have offered a POI) should sit down. It is acceptable for a POI which was offered and accepted before the 6 minute mark to continue to be made past the 6 minute mark – it should continue until the POI is concluded, the 15 second time allotment has passed or the POI wat cut off . It is also acceptable for a POI offered before 6 minutes to be accepted by a speaker dead on the 6 minute mark and then be made. Once all speakers are sitting after the 6 minute mark, no more POIs may be offered.

The choice of which team(s) the speaker chooses to take a POI from should be integrated into the judge's consideration of whether or not a speaker has engaged well with other teams. This judgement is also likely to be affected by how active teams were in offering POIs. If, for example, the OG team offers a CO speaker plenty of

POIs, which are continuously refused, and then CG, who have not offered any POIs, offer one some minutes into the CO speaker's speech, and it is accepted, this may be symptomatic of CO trying to ignore or 'shut out' OG. This does not suggest a confident willingness to engage with their arguments.

Speakers may demand that certain speakers or teams stop offering POIs, but it should be of no effect in the mind of the judge or other debaters – all debaters have the right, throughout the times the rules allow in the debate, to offer POIs to speakers from the other side. Just as a speaker calling for a POI to be offered does not create any special obligation for a team or speaker to offer a point.

If a speaker does not take a POI but was <u>not</u> offered more than one or two POIs, particularly later in their speech, this will not usually reflect negatively on their engagement with other teams and as such should not normally be penalised. A speaker in such circumstances may explicitly ask for a POI, and doing so will demonstrate a willingness to engage with arguments even if no POI is subsequently offered.

Cutting off a POI
Interrupting a debater who is giving a POI is known as 'cutting off'. A speaker may legitimately cut off a POI after 15 seconds and resume their own speech. Speakers may, but should not cut off a debater who is giving a POI before 15 seconds has elapsed. Whenever a debater delivering a POI is cut off or their time elapses they must stop speaking, and sit down. When a speaker interrupts a POIs before 15 seconds elapses the judge should assess this by determining the impact it has had on their responsiveness to the team asking the POI. If the offeror has been unable to ask a question in a meaningful way, it may be appropriate to treat the speaker as though they had not taken the POI. A speaker should not be able to comply with their obligation to engage through answering points of information if they do not, in substance, allow their opponents to ask a question in their allotted time. We would not consider it appropriate to interrupt the preceding speaker in the debate at 6:45 to begin the next speech, merely because the next speaker felt they already sufficiently understood the point being made.

Barracking/Badgering
After a POI has been offered to a speaker and rejected by them, another POI should not be offered within the next ten seconds by <u>any</u> debater. Persistently breaching this rule, i.e. continuously offering points of information to a speaker in quick succession, is known as barracking or badgering. This is not permitted, as it is disruptive to the debate and unfair to the speaker.

POIs do not initiate a dialogue. Once the POI has been made/cut off, the debater making it sits down. They must wait the required time and offer a new POI if they wish to interrupt the current speaker again.

Points of 'Clarification'
Debaters sometimes offer points of information with the phrase "point of clarification", usually to the Prime Minister's speech, to indicate that they wish to ask a question about how the Prime Minister is setting up the debate, rather than make an argument. This is permitted – but points of clarification otherwise function entirely as any other point of information. Speakers are not obliged to take a POI just because it was labelled as a point of clarification. Taking a point of clarification does 'count' as taking a POI – because it is a POI. Points of clarification have no special status in the rules whatsoever, speakers offering a POI are simply allowed a special exception to use the label "point of clarification" when offering these types of POI.

1.5 Before the Debate

The Motion
Each round has a specific topic, known as the 'motion'. The motions are set by a team of senior judges at the tournament known as the 'Adjudication Core' (or sometimes 'AdjCore' for short or the CA Team). The Adjudication Core will announce the motion for each round of debates, along with the 'draw' (showing all the rooms in the tournament and the positions in which each team in the competition will be debating in each room) to all participants 15 minutes before the debates begin. If debaters are uncertain about the *literal meaning* of a word in the motion, they may ask a member of the Adjudication Core to define it for them. They <u>may not ask anyone other</u>

than a member of the Adjudication Core to explain any words in the motion. They may also not ask for any further assistance from the Adjudication Core beyond a simple definition of the word they are unfamiliar with.

Preparation Time

Judges should call debaters into the debate room 15 minutes after the motion is announced. During these 15 minutes teams should prepare their speeches. Teams may only prepare in their teams – i.e. the two speakers in a team must confer solely with each other while preparing. Receiving assistance from anyone else during prep time, such as coaches, other members from their institutions, or anyone else, is strictly prohibited – teams spotted doing this should be reported, and may be penalised by disqualification from the tournament. Teams may not use any electronic devices to aid them in their preparation, with the exception of stopwatches (the use of mobile phones is allowed only insofar as the phone is used as a stopwatch) and electronic (off-line) dictionaries – unless they receive authorisation in advance from the Adjudication Core due to special circumstances.[1]

Teams must be ready to enter the debate room once the 15 minutes has elapsed. Late teams risk being replaced by a 'swing team' (a special *ad hoc* team created to replace them, which is not a fully participating team at the tournament), which will be summoned if they are not ready to enter the debate room after 15 minutes of preparation time. If the summoned swing team has reached the debate room, and the debate has begun, before the actual team has arrived, then the actual team will not be allowed to participate in the round, and will score zero points for that round.

Gender Pronoun introduction

Before the debate begins each of the participants in the room will be invited to introduce themselves and their preferred gender pronoun, starting with the chair.

There is no required format for gender pronoun introductions but for clarification an example could be:

"Hello, my name is ….. my preferred gender pronoun is ….."

The chair should then invite each member of the panel and any trainees to introduce themselves and then invite the teams to do so.

It is not a requirement to express a preference for a particular pronoun. If you do not feel comfortable disclosing your preferred pronoun or do not have a preferred pronoun you may simply state your name as your introduction.

As the chair introduces each speaker, the chair should remind the room of the speaker's preferred pronoun. For example, the chair would say "I now invite forward the government member x, preferred pronoun they."

All participants should take note of the preferred pronoun of each speaker and use that pronoun to refer to them. **You should not assume anyone's gender pronoun.** If you mistakenly use the wrong pronoun, please apologise. Disregard for a person's preferred gender pronoun may be treated as an equity violation.

Iron-personing

Occasionally, a speaker may fall ill or otherwise be unable to speak in a debate even though their partner is able to debate. In such circumstances, at the discretion of the Adjudication Core, the available speaker may still be allowed to participate in the debate on their own, giving both their team's speeches – this minimises the disruption to the tournament (and the available speaker) caused by one speaker being unavailable. This is known as

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[1] We hope that no team at Worlds breaches these strict prohibitions. However, if you are a debater, and you witness another debater preparing with someone other than their partner or illegitimately using electronic devices, you should report this to a member of the Adjudication Core, or if they are not available, to any Chair judge or, if no Chair judges can be found, to any other judge. A judge informed about this should try to visually confirm that the team in question is indeed illegitimately preparing with outside assistance/illegitimately using electronic devices (ideally, they should also get another judge to witness this). They should then ask the team to provide their team name, and explain that preparing with someone other than your partner/using electronic devices for purposes other than timing or as an electronic dictionary is strictly prohibited. They should then (either immediately or after that round of debates is completed) inform a member of the Adjudication Core about the issue.

'iron-personing'. From the perspective of other teams in the debate, and the judging panel, this team of one speaker giving both speeches functions just like a normal team – they may receive any rank in the debate from first to fourth, and will receive two speaker marks, one for each speech, and other teams in the debate will be awarded the other ranks as normal. In the 'tab' (the tabulated results for the tournament, maintained round on round and used to determine the break), however, the iron-personing team will receive zero team points, the absent speaker will receive zero speaker points, and the iron-personing speaker will receive a single speaker score, the higher of the two speeches they gave.

1.6 Breaches of Order

For the debate to be able to proceed properly, and for all speakers to have a fair chance to deliver their speeches, all debaters (and anyone else in the debate room) are required to refrain from disrupting the debate. Any of the following activities are considered to be disrupting the debate:

- talking beyond eight minutes
- barracking/badgering
- when not delivering a speech or a POI, talking in an audible volume or otherwise generating distracting noise
- engaging in other highly distracting behaviour
- offering POIs in any way other than those described in section 1.4
- using props (any physical object, diagram, etc.)
- continuing to offer a POI after being cut off by the speaker speaking or by the Chair.

These are not only breaches of the rules and/or appropriate debate conduct as it is commonly understood but are also breaches of *order*. Unlike other breaches of the rules (which simply damage a team's chance of getting a good result in the debate), breaches of order should be enforced by the Chair of the debate by *calling order*.

Calling Order

When the Chair of a debate utters "order", it is a demand that all speakers immediately cease any of the breaches of order listed above. This should not happen often. Provided debaters adhere to the call to order, no further action is taken. A Chair should never call order for a breach of the rules which is not a breach of order.
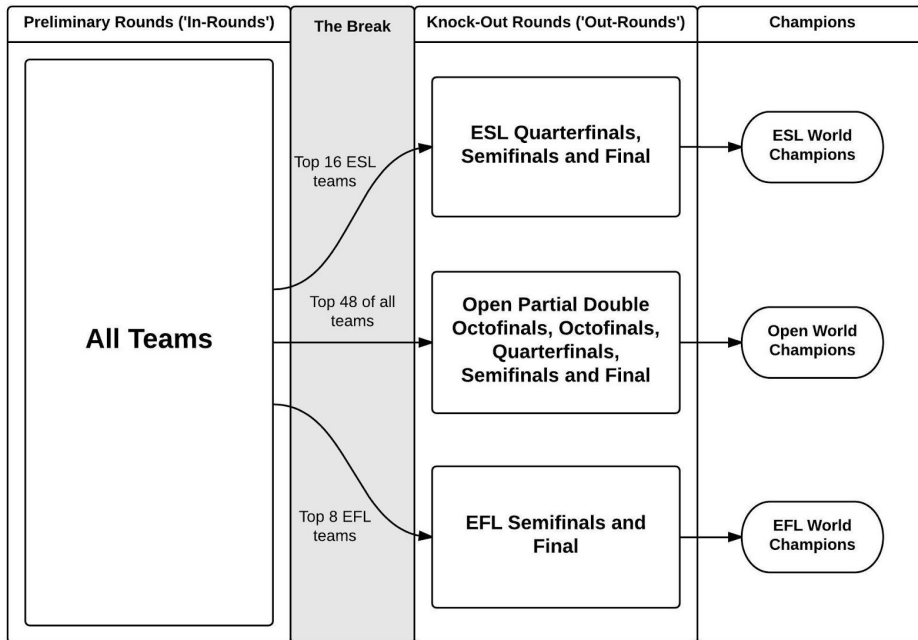
Stopping the Clock

In exceptional circumstances, the Chair is entitled to clearly say "stop the clock"; in which case the current speaker should immediately halt their speech, and the timekeeper of the debate should pause the stopwatch being used to time speeches. This measure should only be used in response to severe obstacles to the debate proceeding which need to be addressed urgently and cannot wait for the current speaker to finish their speech – for example, one of the debaters or judges fainting or suffering a medical emergency; or a severe and persistent disruption to the debate, such as a constantly heckling audience member, a technical failure in sound equipment that might be being used in the debate, and so forth. In any such instance, the key objective of stopping the clock is to protect the welfare of all those involved in the debate, and to allow the obstacle to the debate proceeding to be dealt with as swiftly as possible (this may involve abandoning the use of any sound or recording equipment, having someone take an ill debater for medical attention, removing an unruly audience member from the room, and so forth). This will only very rarely be necessary in response to a breach of order, and is more commonly required due to an external interruption to the debate. Once this has been done, the Chair should check that the speaker is ready to resume the speech, call for the clock to be restarted, and allow the speaker to continue their speech from the point at which the clock was stopped.

1.7 Tournament Structure

The World Universities Debating Championship is structured in two halves (see the diagram below). The larger bulk of the tournament, usually taking place over the tournament's first three days, consists of a number of preliminary rounds (often termed 'in-rounds') in which all debaters at the tournament take part – historically there have been nine such in-rounds. Most of these rounds are 'open', meaning that teams find out the results of the debate, and

receive feedback from judges, at the end of each round. The final few rounds, however, are 'closed' – results and feedback are not immediately given to speakers, but can be obtained from judges once the 'break' (see below) has been announced.[2]

Preliminary Rounds ('In-Rounds')	The Break	Knock-Out Rounds ('Out-Rounds')	Champions
All Teams	Top 16 ESL teams	**ESL Quarterfinals, Semifinals and Final**	ESL World Champions
	Top 48 of all teams	**Open Partial Double Octofinals, Octofinals, Quarterfinals, Semifinals and Final**	Open World Champions
	Top 8 EFL teams	**EFL Semifinals and Final**	EFL World Champions

After the in-rounds, the best performing teams in the tournament advance to a final set of knock-out rounds (often termed 'out-rounds') whilst the remaining teams do not – this process is known as 'the break'. Teams are ranked in order according to the total 'team points' they have accumulated over the in-rounds (3 points for each first placed finish in a debate, 2 points for a second placed finish, 1 point for a third, and 0 points for a fourth), with teams tied on total team points ranked according to their total 'speaker points' (a mark out of 100 each speaker on the team receives for their speech in each room). At current Worlds, 48 teams progress through to the 'Open Break' (for which any team at the tournament is eligible), usually 16 teams progress through to the 'ESL Break' (for which only teams with two ESL or EFL speakers are eligible) and usually eight teams progress through to the 'EFL Break' (for which only teams with two EFL speakers are eligible).[3] Currently a team that makes the Open Break may not also participate in the ESL or EFL Breaks, and a team in the ESL Break may not also participate in the EFL Break. Those teams that make it into the three breaks then participate in three separate knock-out draws, progressing towards an Open Final, ESL Final and EFL Final, the winner of which becomes the World Champion in that category.

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[2] This postponement in giving the results ensures that teams do not arrive at the break with sure knowledge of whether they will advance to the knock-out stages or not.

[3] This is assuming that the constitutional requirements for these breaks are met – the WUDC Constitution requires a minimum number of ESL and EFL eligible teams participate in the tournament for each stage of ESL or EFL finals to be included. If, for example, a smaller number of ESL teams are present, the ESL break may only be to Semifinals (eight teams); if a larger number are present, the break may be expanded to include Octofinals (32 teams).

2. Debating and Judging at WUDC

2.1 Winning a Debate

Teams in a debate are all aiming to win the debate. For both debaters and judges, the central statement on how teams win debates is as follows:

Teams win debates by being *persuasive* with respect to the *burdens* their side of the debate is attempting to prove, within the *constraints* set by the rules of BP Debating.

There are two important comments to make about this central statement:

(i) One could stand up in a debate and be persuasive about anything, but this will not help to win a debate unless it is relevant to the burdens teams are seeking to prove.

(ii) The rules of debating constrain legitimate ways to be persuasive. For example, in the absence of rules, the Opposition Whip could often be very persuasive by introducing entirely new arguments, but the rules prohibit this. As such, elements of a speech can only help a team win a round if they are both persuasive and within the rules.

Judging who wins as the 'ordinary intelligent voter'

In most walks of life, persuasiveness is highly subjective – the degree to which we are persuaded by something reflects our existing beliefs, our personal aesthetic or stylistic preferences, our particular interests, and so forth. It would be problematic if debating was judged so subjectively – outcomes would hinge as much on whom the judges were as on the debaters' performance, with one side of the debate becoming much harder to win from because the judges were predisposed to disagree with it.

Consequently, as far as is humanly possible, judges assess the persuasiveness of speeches according to a set of shared judging criteria, rather than according to their own views about the subject matter. In particular, judges are asked to conceive of themselves as if they were a hypothetical 'ordinary intelligent voter' (sometimes also termed 'average reasonable person' or 'informed global citizen'). This hypothetical ordinary intelligent voter doesn't have pre-formed views on the topic of the debate and isn't convinced by sophistry, deception or logical fallacies. They are open-minded and concerned to decide how to vote – they are thus willing to be convinced by the debaters who provide the most compelling case for or against a certain policy.

They are well informed about political and social affairs but lack specialist knowledge. They are intelligent to the point of being able to understand and assess contrasting arguments (including sophisticated arguments), that are presented to them; but they keep themselves constrained to the material presented unless it patently contradicts common knowledge or is otherwise wildly implausible.

As can perhaps already be intuited from the above paragraphs, the ordinary intelligent voter is quite unlike most, or perhaps any, real world people. But the concept of the 'ordinary intelligent voter' is a useful way of revealing a set of important characteristics that judges should aspire to in order to ensure that all teams receive a fair hearing in any debate. As such, the term ordinary intelligent voter will be used as a shorthand in this manual, to describe the expectation that judges should:

- avoid utilising personal knowledge that they have of the topic, unless it could reasonably be assumed to be held by someone of decent intellect and active news-media consumption (e.g.: "Syria is in the Middle East" or "Russia is a major oil producer" is clearly acceptable knowledge, but the details of Iraqi government troop movements is unlikely to be);
- give little credit to appeals merely to emotion or authority, except where these have rational influence on an argument;

- avoid presuming a geographic, cultural, national, ethnic or other background when assessing arguments;
- avoid preferencing arguments or styles of speaking that match personal preferences;
- assess the merits of a proposed policy, solution or problem separate from any personal perspectives in relation to it.

Thinking as the ordinary intelligent voter does not absolve us from our responsibilities to actually judge the debate – to evaluate the logical flow of arguments, determine the extent to which teams have seemed to win them, and ensure that they have done so within the rules. We should not say "while that was clearly irrational rabble-rousing, the ordinary intelligent voter would have fallen for it". This not only leads to irrational conclusions, but also, generally, overestimates how much cleverer we are than an ordinary intelligent voter.

We emphasise that a key reason for judges to imagine themselves as the ordinary intelligent voter is to avoid relying on their subjective *tastes* as well as their subjective *beliefs*. Many of us debate a lot, and we develop aesthetic preferences about speaking as well as in-jokes and references which we find terribly funny. This is natural, but distracts somewhat from debating. As voters we are much less likely to credit policies for being advocated in a "sophisticated" or "funny" way. Judges should remember that they are not aiming to evaluate who was cleverest, neatest or funniest, but who best used their cleverness, neatness and funniness to <u>persuade us that the policy was a good or a bad idea</u>. The best way to do that is for judges to simply address themselves towards debates as if there are real policies or controversies at stake and then see who best persuades them that the motion should or shouldn't be supported.

2.2 What is persuasiveness?

Judges judge debates by assessing, without prejudice, which team in the debate was most persuasive. The persuasiveness of an argument, in BP debating, is rooted in the number of plausible reasons that are offered to show that it is true and important (which we term 'analysis' or 'matter'), and the clarity and rhetorical power with which these reasons are explained (which we term 'style' or 'manner').

It is crucial to understand that in BP debating, <u>analysis and style are not separate criteria on which an argument is assessed</u>. In particular, BP debating does not consider it possible for an argument to be persuasive *merely* because it was stylish. There is nothing persuasive in speaking a sentence clearly and powerfully if that sentence is not in fact a reason for an argument. And equally, reasons for an argument that cannot be understood by a judge cannot persuade them. Good style is about <u>conveying</u> a speaker's analysis of arguments effectively to the judges. Style and analysis thus do not independently generate persuasiveness, but describe the necessary collective elements that make an argument persuasive. The fact that we discuss them, below, in separate sections should not detract from this.

Analysis

The analysis behind an argument consists of the reasons offered in support of it. Reasons can support arguments in a number of different ways, none of which is, in itself, "better" or "more important". Reasons might:

- logically explain why an argument is true
- present empirical evidence for an argument
- describe causally why a certain outcome will come about
- identify widely shared moral intuitions in favour of an argument
- expose a damaging logical implication of a contrasting argument
- identify an emotive response that encourages us to care about a certain outcome

<u>…or do various other things</u> that encourage the ordinary intelligent voter to believe that an argument is true and important to the debate. Reasons themselves may be stronger or weaker according to a number of important criteria, <u>including</u>:

- the precision of what the speaker says and
- the detail with which relevant logical claims, empirical evidence, causal processes, moral intuitions, logical implications or other elements are explained.

Beyond these ways of identifying reasons within a speech that support arguments the speaker is making, judges deploy very minimal standards in assessing the degree of support a reason gives, whether the reason itself is plausible, and whether it therefore makes the speaker's argument persuasive. Seriously implausible claims (such that any ordinary intelligent voter would not believe its logic and/or premises) provide weak, if any, support for an argument.

Inconsistency is always considered relevant and problematic: teams should not contradict other speakers on their bench. Internally inconsistent teams cannot simultaneously get credit for two areas of mutually exclusive argument. Judges may, depending on the circumstances, disregard both arguments as being rendered unpersuasive by the conflicting analysis, or disregard only one, or consider both to be weakened/restricted in their scope.

Certain things do not matter (in themselves) in evaluating how good a speaker's analysis was:

- the number of arguments the speaker makes,
- how clever/innovative the argument was,
- how interesting the argument was.

What matters, once an argument is made, is how important its conclusion seems to be in the debate with respect to the burdens that each side is trying to prove, and the extent to which it seems to be analysed and responded to (and how well it withstood or was defended against such responses). Judges do not consider how important they thought a particular argument was, in the abstract, but rather how central it was to the overall contribution of any team or teams in this particular debate, and how strong the reasons speakers offered to support the claim that it was important/unimportant were.

Style

Arguments can be stylistically impressive in a range of ways – crucially, "good style" should not be equated to "the sort of style admired in my debating circuit/culture". Speakers do not have "bad style" because they don't speak with the particular idioms, mannerisms, coded references or established phrases used in the country their judge is from.

Above all else, a "strong accent" is not bad style. Everyone in the world has their own particular accent, and they all have their own accent strongly! When people talk about mild or strong accents, they mean how strong or mild the accent is compared to the accents with which they are familiar. This sort of subjective measuring is not a valid basis for judging certain styles as superior. There is only one legitimate way "accent" can be a problem for a speaker at Worlds, and that is if judges genuinely cannot understand what the speaker is saying despite their *very best efforts to do so*. This is a problem in the same way that speaking too fast to be understood is a problem – judges have to understand the words a speaker says in order to evaluate them. This is a problem that could afflict *any* accent in principle – it is not just a problem for an "ESL" or "EFL" accent. Worlds is an international tournament, and speakers may find themselves judged by people from any nation. There is thus an obligation on all speakers to make themselves comprehensible to all judges and a burden on judges to do everything they can to understand a speaker's words and meaning. The tournament aims to be as inclusive as possible to speakers of all languages, but Worlds is inescapably an English-language-based competition.[4] If judges cannot, despite their very best efforts, understand an argument, they cannot find it persuasive.

So, as suggested, one basic point underpins the judging of style at Worlds: there is wide global variation in what makes for an aesthetically pleasing style, and subjective judgements of good style should not carry any weight in judging BP debating at an international tournament. But this does not mean style is irrelevant. Worlds sets down a minimal number of principles to guide effective style that we take to be of fundamental and international applicability. As already noted, good style is about *conveying reasons effectively*. Reasons are thus more compellingly delivered to the degree that:

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[4] WUDC welcomes the establishment of partner World Championships in other languages, of which the Campeonato Mundial Universitario de Debate en Español (World Universities Debating Championship in Spanish) is a pioneering example.

- They are comprehensible. As noted, speaker's claims must be comprehensible to the judges to be evaluated. Technical jargon, speaking too fast, speaking too quietly, slurring words, or jumbling sentences could all make an argument impossible to understand, and therefore unpersuasive.
- They clearly and precisely convey the speaker's meaning. Vagueness, ambiguity and confusing expressions necessarily make judges uncertain over the nature of the reasons the speaker is offering and how they support the speaker's argument. The more clearly and precisely speakers can convey their reasoning, the more persuasive it is. Intelligent use of language may make a speaker more able to communicate their precise point, and as such may have a persuasive effect, though it should not be rewarded just because it "sounded intelligent."
- They effectively convey the emotional, moral, practical or other significance of the speaker's claim. Blandly informing an ordinary intelligent voter that a certain policy will cause "a rise in subsistence level deprivation amongst lower decile groups" does not communicate a real world effect, and doesn't make as many normative appeals explicit, as a statement that "this policy will push some of the most impoverished and neglected individuals into society into life-threatening poverty". It is beguiling but erroneous to think that arguments in debating can be assessed through pure, cold, emotionless logic unaffected by language or tone. Making and assessing arguments is impossible unless one attaches a certain significance to outcomes, principles or claims, and appropriate use of language and tone of delivery can efficiently convey such significance.

Facts, Knowledge and Special Language

The ordinary intelligent voter has the sort of knowledge you'd expect from someone who reads newspapers frequently and in depth, but who does not read technical journals, specialist literature, or the like. They are, in short, a smart person who has a good deal of knowledge that is broad rather than deep. Imagine a bright and reasonably well-read university student who is studying a subject completely alien to any topic that would help them understand the debate in question. Debaters may certainly make reference to examples, facts and details the ordinary intelligent voter is not aware of, but they should explain rather than cite these examples, facts and details. While they may not know much on a specific topic by some debaters' standards, the ordinary intelligent voter is genuinely intelligent, and understands complex concepts, facts or arguments once they're explained. Where such examples are not explained beyond name-checking a country, judges should discount material they do understand that the ordinary intelligent voter would not. Judges should be bold in applying this rule: it is unfair on other teams in the room not to.

Importantly, the ordinary intelligent voter comes from nowhere, not where a particular judge comes from. So there are no 'domestic examples' requiring less explanation for the ordinary intelligent voter, even where everyone in the room comes from that country. Wherever you are from, assume your judges are from somewhere else.

This is an English-language competition, so our voter understands English. There are, however, multiple Englishes, and one should not use terms one does not expect international English-speakers to understand. This does not mean you must pitch your speech to someone who has only some English, but rather that you should recognise that an Australian English speaker has a different vocabulary to a British English speaker, who has a still different English to a Chinese English speaker. It is a good thing to make your English accessible. It is also part of the rules of this tournament that domestic slang does not count as comprehensible, unless our ordinary intelligent voter would be able to work out its meaning without trouble from the context.

Following on from the above, the ordinary intelligent voter does not know technical terms that one would require a particular university degree to understand. They can be assumed to possess the sort of generalist vocabulary that comes from a university education of some sort, but probably not from your specific degree. They do not have the sort of halfway-there economic or legal jargon that we as debaters have become familiar with either. Saying "Laffer curve" to most people is equivalent to making some clever sounding noises. Similarly, using terms like 'economic efficiency' will lead to their being understood only as a layperson would grasp them, losing any technical specificity. Judges should judge accordingly and speakers who wish to make use of the extra specificity that technical terms convey should take the time to explain the connotations of the terms they wish to use.

2.3 Rebuttal, Engagement, and Comparisons

If speakers make arguments and supporting reasons that are not wildly implausible or contradictory, they are at least somewhat persuasive and should be credited by judges unless they are successfully rebutted by other teams in the debate. If arguments are seriously implausible and fairly marginal to the speech of the speaker making the claim, then it is reasonable for a team to decide to focus their time elsewhere, particularly where there is other stronger material in the round.

Rebuttal consists of any material offered by a speaker which demonstrates why arguments offered by teams on the other side of the debate are wrong, irrelevant, comparatively unimportant, insufficient, inadequate, or otherwise inferior to the contributions of the speaker's own side of the debate. Rebuttal need not be explicitly labelled 'rebuttal' (though it may be sensible for speakers to do so), and it may occur at the beginning, end, middle or through the entirety of a speech. Material labelled as rebuttal can be constructive as well as rebuttal, and material labelled as constructive can also function as rebuttal. Rebuttal does not, therefore, denote some special sort of argument or analysis – it simply refers to any material that engages directly with arguments raised by the other side.

Being persuasive is therefore not just about making arguments that are, considered entirely on their own, persuasive. Persuasion in debating also rests on detailed engagement with other teams, comparatively demonstrating why one's own arguments are better than, defeat, and should be preferred over other arguments.

Judges have to assess, comparatively, which teams did this best, and do so in part by tracking important arguments in the debate to see whether they were adequately responded to by teams on the other side. If not, these arguments provide considerable reasons to be persuaded by the team that made them – but of course, they need to be assessed comparatively with arguments made by other teams, that also may not have received adequate responses. So if, for example, OG make arguments whose conclusion is "we should do the policy" which everyone ignores, they don't lose because "the debate moved on from them". Rather, their unrebutted arguments are still as true in the context of the debate as they were when presented, and should be weighed as such. In fact, teams like this very often should beat the teams on the opposite bench. Ignoring or failing to hear key arguments made by other teams is often an explanation for why teams who think they have done well in a debate actually receive a much lower ranking that they were expecting.

Where teams have a chance to rebut each other, assessing relative contributions in this way is easy. Judges should track the argument and assess, given their responses to each other, which team's contribution was more significant in furthering their cause to logically persuade us that we should do the policy, or that we should not.

But where teams don't get a chance to rebut others, determining who was more persuasive is trickier. This happens fairly often, for example:

- between teams on diagonals
- when the Opposition Whip explains something in a new way
- when opening teams are shut out of POIs

In these circumstances judges are forced to perform some more independent assessment of the 'robustness' of the arguments teams made. In other words, the judges are forced to assess how well the arguments *would* have stood up to engagement, had engagement been possible. More robust material is, all other things being equal, a greater contribution than less robust material. Ideally, assessing robustness will involve a comparison with material on the table, or very minor extensions thereof. For instance, when judges compare two teams on a diagonal (for example, OG and CO), they should first ask whether anything in the earlier-speaking team's case is inherently responsive. Did the later-speaking team being assessed deal with this material? Check whether they allowed the diagonal team in on POIs, to give them an opportunity to engage. Deliberately shutting out engagement from a team whose material is relevant is often obvious and very unpersuasive.

It should be emphasised that such consideration of robustness is a last resort. Judges are, ideally, expected to assess only the comparative reasoning put forward by teams in the debate; and if teams have provided that analysis, it is problematic for judges to substitute their own.

2.4 What determines the burdens?

As stated earlier, there is no value in being persuasive about an argument that is irrelevant to the debate. In assessing what contributions are relevant, it is helpful to consider the 'burdens' a team has to meet in the debate. Burdens are often misunderstood and misattributed by teams within a debate, attempting to push unrequired burdens onto their opponents – judges should be cautious of falling into the same trap. Burdens cannot be created simply by a team asserting that they exist. However, there are two key ways that a burden can legitimately be attributed to a team (and speakers may legitimately point out such burdens, and explain why they or other teams need to meet them).

First, a burden may be implied by the motion itself. If, for example, the motion is "This House would prioritise the vaccination of law-abiding citizens in the case of major epidemics", government teams need to demonstrate that *in major epidemics* the vaccination of *law-abiding citizens* should be *prioritised*. Government teams do not need to demonstrate that vaccinations of law-abiding citizens should be prioritised in general (outside of major epidemics), or that *only* law-abiding citizens should be vaccinated (law-abiding citizens should simply be prioritised). The way OG defines the motion (see below) may affect these burdens, however. Opposition teams need to demonstrate that Government are wrong: that the policy of prioritising law-abiding citizens for vaccination in major epidemics should be opposed. They do not necessarily need to show that law-abiding citizens should not be prioritised in any way under any conditions (though the fact that we do prioritise law-abiding citizens in other cases might be used as evidence of a principle that supports prioritising law-abiding citizens in this case).

Second, burdens can also be set by specific arguments teams take up. For example, if the motion is "This House believes that assassination is a legitimate tool of foreign policy", the Opposition Leader may initially argue that assassination is a severe breach of international law. For this to be relevant to the debate, OO have a burden to show that illegality matters for illegitimacy. This burden is especially strong if the Deputy Prime Minister then states that they accept that assassination is illegal, but argues that illegality is a poor basis for believing an act illegitimate. Unless Opposition teams now provide superior reasons to think that the illegality of an act under international law *is* a reason to deem it illegitimate, it is not relevant to the burdens they need to prove to merely keep pointing out that assassination is illegal, or provide more detail on how it is illegal. Both sides now agree that assassination is illegal, and continuing to agree with this achieves nothing. What the sides now disagree on is the implications this has for assassination's legitimacy, and it is this which they have a burden to prove.

Criteria for Good or Bad Policy

As this all implies, what constitutes a good/bad policy is itself debatable, and the claims teams make on this issue can also shape their burdens. Teams are allowed to debate what criteria should be used to assess whether a policy is good as part of arguing that it is, in fact, good. Judges should adjudicate this debate about criteria – they should not just apply their own preferred criteria. One common form of this mistake is to assume a utilitarian ("what leads to the best consequences") framework. This should not be assumed without a team without a team presenting supporting arguments for doing so. It is also wrong to disregard principled argumentation explaining that particular effects are more important than others for reasons unconnected with utility maximisation. Sometimes, of course, all teams in a debate agree on the framework to use, perhaps implicitly. In these cases, the judge should accept these consensus assumptions.

So, judges should listen to teams' arguments about what our aims and principles should be, and evaluate the claims of harms or benefits in that context. This can make the claims about *how* we should determine the right policy particularly vital, and they may fundamentally reshape team's burdens in the debate. For example, if in the debate "This House would invade North Korea" Opposition successfully proves that "war is always wrong, regardless of the

practical benefits" (they must do more than assert it), Government will likely now need to offer reasons to believe that a practical calculus is relevant if they want to advance purely practical reasons in favour of the invasion.

<u>Judges should generally be wary of considering an argument completely irrelevant because of a principled framework advocated by their opponents</u>. It is very unlikely that any team will ever prove their view of the appropriate criteria to be completely and undeniably true and that, consequently, arguments which do not fit those criteria should be dismissed out of hand. It is thus often more appropriate to treat arguments as less persuasive when they rest on criteria which another team have suggested are not relevant, rather than ruling them out completely.

Types of Motion

Motions can come in a few different guises, often hinted at by the words used to introduce the motion ("This House would…", "This House believes that…" "This House supports…") and again, this can affect the burdens teams face. Adjudication Cores do not use these openings so consistently that we can set hard and fast rules on what they tell us about the motion, but here are some general guidelines:

Motions of the form **"This House would [do X]"** almost always involve Government enacting some sort of policy, X – a concrete course of action that they wish to convince the judges should be implemented. Such motions are about whether the House *should* do X – with Government teams arguing that they should and Opposition teams arguing that they *should not*. These debates are <u>not</u> about whether the entity the House represents (usually but not always state governments) *will do* the policy in question in the real world, or whether they *are doing* the policy at present. As such, it is never a valid line of opposition to such motions to state that "but the government would never do this" or, more subtly, "but politicians would never pass this law". For the purposes of the debate, the Government teams *are* that government and the politicians that make it up, and the debate is about whether they should or should not do a policy, not whether their real world counterparts will or will not.

Motions that open **"This House would, as [A], do [X]"** are somewhat special. These motions are more specific about the entity (A) doing (X) and so invite a closer examination of *the perspective of the entity about what they should do,* with all teams arguing from actor A's perspective. So if, for example, the motion is "This House would, as Turkey, intervene in the Syrian Civil War", this debate should take place from the perspective of Turkey, as both the proposed agent to intervene in the Syrian Civil War and the proposed target of argumentative appeals. By contrast, if the motion is "This House believes that Turkey should intervene in the Syrian Civil War", the motion does not take place solely from the perspective of Turkey – instead, the debaters are simply trying to convince the judges of the truth of the statement. The latter debate takes place from an outside perspective as opposed to an actor perspective. In this latter debate arguments that proceed on the basis a prioritisation of Turkey's interests over others need to justify that prioritisation. To put it in the language of the ordinary intelligent voter, in the former type of motions, the ordinary intelligent voter takes up the position of Turkey in deciding what to do. This doesn't strictly rule in or out certain arguments or appeals to the debate – the ordinary intelligent voter imagining themselves as Turkey is still an ordinary intelligent voter, and can, as Turkey, be persuaded by various moral appeals, predicted consequences, claims about Turkey's key interests, and so forth. But the arguments of the sides in the debate, and the burdens they need to prove, are orientated around actor A – and a team cannot plausibly stand up and say "Turkey should intervene in the Syrian Civil War, because it will be very good for American businesses", without explaining why what is good for American businesses ought to be a reason for Turkey to do something.

Motions that open **"This House believes that [X]"** generally do not involve Government enacting a policy, but instead require Government teams to argue for the truth of the statement represented by X, whilst Opposition teams argue that X is false. Governments could still offer a policy as a manifestation of their belief in X – for example, if the motion is "This House believes that all individuals are entitled to a minimum standard of living", Government could productively specify a policy they would enact to provide for this entitlement. Some "believes that" motions are more explicitly about policies, including motions of the formulation "This House believes that [actor A] should [do action X]".

Motions that open **"This House supports/regrets [Z]"** also usually need not involve Government proposing a policy (though again, they may choose to do so). Instead, the Government teams need to argue that they would either symbolically, politically, materially or in some other manner support the person, group, institution, cause, idea, value, or statement expressed by Z. Opposition need to argue that Z should not be supported in that way.

2.5 Role Fulfilment

Different debating traditions have different understandings of 'role fulfilment' in BP debating. Role fulfilment, in brief, is the name given to the particular duties given to each team on the table, arising because of their particular position, beyond the general duty to "make persuasive arguments". Some such duties exist to ensure fairness by specifying additional constraints on the debaters to reflect the idiosyncrasies of BP debating as a method of persuading an ordinary intelligent voter.

In football ('soccer') a team wins the game by scoring the most goals – but they must do so within the constraints of the rules. A football team doesn't win the game by keeping the ball inbounds more frequently or by exemplary conduct, but the rules of the game will define which attempts to score and prevent goals 'count'. For example, a footballer who picks the ball up and carries it into the opposing team's goal will not be credited with a goal (because it is against the rules for most players to use their hands). Similarly, a debater who gives an excellent fifteen-minute speech, or submits a persuasive essay or a set of visual aids, will not be entitled to credit for doing so, regardless of how persuasive these would have been in conveying their reasons for affirming or rejecting the motion. Doing so involves breaking the rules, and cannot entitle them to credit. Role fulfilment is the necessary but not sufficient condition for a team to make persuasive arguments.

The duties associated with role fulfilment are as follows:

1. For the Prime Minister, to ensure the debate is adequately defined (see below).

2. For the Member speakers (Government and Opposition Members), to extend the debate (explained in section 2.8).

3. For all speakers, to ensure that their arguments are consistent with all other arguments made by themselves, their teammates, and the other team on their side of the debate (contradiction is often referred to as 'knifing').

4. For all speakers, to take at least one point of information during their speeches and to offer points of information on a regular basis (see above).

5. For all speakers, to speak within the time frame allotted (see above).

We emphasise here that **there is no such thing as an 'automatic fourth' or any automatic penalty for a failure to comply with the rules in this document**. A team that breaches an element of role fulfilment may still be sufficiently persuasive to beat other teams in the debate; particularly, but not exclusively, when multiple teams in the debate have role fulfilment issues.

It is not a role-fulfilment requirement for the Deputy Prime Minister or Deputy Opposition Leader to add new material (whether arguments, analysis, rebuttal, etc.) to the debate. OG and OO teams are within their rights to concentrate all their constructive arguments within their opening speeches and leave the Deputy Prime Minister and Deputy Opposition Leader to reiterate, reconstruct, reword or summarise the Prime Minister or Opposition Leader's contributions – this is not breaking the rules, and judges should not punish teams for doing this in and of itself. But such a strategy may be inadvisable. Since BP debating involves four teams, judges are centrally tasked with comparatively assessing the extent and importance of the persuasive contributions made by each team. Merely repeating or reconstructing a partner's material, whilst of some value, is rarely if ever more valuable than actually adding new arguments or analysis. In addition, it makes the closing half team's job much easier, by potentially leaving them more material to use to extend the debate.

2.6 Defining the Debate

The Prime Minister should ensure the debate is adequately defined. This means they may tell the rest of the people in the room exactly what will be debated. They may need to say whether there is a policy (i.e. whether someone is doing something) and what that policy is, if there is. The detailed description of a policy is often called the 'model'.

Debates are about the motion as defined by OG, not about what other debaters or judges in the room thought the words in the motion meant. The definition forms the subject matter of the debate. If the motion "This House would privatise education" is defined as "making all universities independent companies", (a fair definition) then that is what the debate is about for the remainder of the eight speeches. Teams would still be entitled to make general arguments against privatisation (e.g. "privatisation of all public services is bad") provided that those are still relevant to the model. General arguments, like any arguments, must give the judge reasons to support or oppose the policy. To the extent to which they do so, they are successful. In many cases, the motion itself is sufficient to "define the debate". On the other hand, other motions may be usefully defined in a number of ways, producing different legitimate debates

Debaters should debate at the level of generality implied in the motion. It is legitimate for OG to *exclude anomalous examples* ("we're banning cosmetic surgery like the motion says, but not for burns victims"). It is not legitimate to *include only anomalous examples* ("we're banning cosmetic surgery like the motion says, but only for children"). If adjudication cores wish a debate to be narrowed down in some specific and radical way, they will state this in the motion.

Given the purpose of OG's duty to define the debate, a definition can be flawed in two ways: it could be 'vague' or it could be 'a squirrel'.

Information, Context or Definitions accompanying motions

On some occasions, the adjudication core may include additional information or statements beyond the motion for the debate. They usually consist of a short explanatory paragraph about the motion. They can serve several purposes, from simple clarifications of words in the motion to giving context and relevant information about potential issues in the debate.

The extra information does not alter the motion. Think of it as an additional page of information in the resources (or matter file) of all teams at the tournament. Just like any other facts or claims a team may want to rely on, they must be proved and justified and may be disputed. Adjudication cores tend to avoid including anything that may be seriously contestable within topic slides to avoid confusion.

Where the extra information comes in the form of a definition of a word or term in the motion, it should be read only as if it were an agreed dictionary definition of that term. Its inclusion does not change the usual roles, rules and responsibilities with respect to defining the motion.

Vague definitions

A vague definition does not clearly answer certain vital questions about what is meant by the motion or what will happen under the policy OG are defending. A definition cannot specify everything and OG are not expected to be exhaustive. But common points of vagueness include, where the debate requires it to function fairly, failing to specify: exactly what groups of people a policy applies to, the circumstances where it will be implemented, the agent who will implement the policy, or the consequences for those who resist or defy it.

A definition can be vague to different degrees. Crucially, a vague definition is not an invalid definition – it just undermines the persuasiveness of OG to the degree that it is unclear exactly what they are proposing to do. The proper response from Opposition teams is to identify this vagueness and its impact on the debate, via POIs or in their speeches. Later government speakers can then provide more detail on what government plans to do (though this does not eliminate the fact that it would have been better had the Prime Minister done so). Beyond prompting requests for clarification from the opposition, or criticism from them for the policy being vague and unclear, there

is nothing more that should arise from a vague definition. Opposition might choose to argue that, given that the motion has been vaguely specified, a certain reasonable consequence or interpretation might be inferred from it. But they are not permitted to ignore the definition that was made, replace it with a preferred definition of their own choice, or claim that since they haven't defined the motion clearly, OG are committed to defending very unreasonable applications of their policy.

To the extent that a government team gains an advantage over another team because a previously vague policy has been later clarified or refined in a way that impairs their opponents ability to respond, that advantage should not be taken into account by the judges.

Worked Example: "This House would allow prisoners to vote."

Example 1:

Prime Minister: "We define this motion as allowing prisoners the right to take part in elections."

Opposition Leader: "The Prime Minister has failed to confine this motion to adults in prison. Thus we must assume that children who are imprisoned will be allowed to vote, which is wrong as children are unfit to vote."

Deputy Prime Minister: "That's clearly silly. Obviously child prisoners won't be allowed to vote."

The judge should conclude: The Deputy Prime Minister is correct. The assumption made by the Opposition Leader is unreasonable and must be rejected. The OO team may be penalised for making a frivolous challenge. They certainly receive no credit for their challenge.

Example 2:

Prime Minister: "We define this motion as allowing prisoners the right to take part in elections."

Opposition Leader: "The Prime Minister has failed to tell us which sorts of prisoners are allowed to vote. This definition is illegitimate because it doesn't tell us which - and that might include murderers."

Deputy Prime Minister: "That's silly! Of course our model doesn't extend to murderers and the like, that would be completely unreasonable!"

The judge should conclude: Neither the Deputy Prime Minister nor the Opposition Leader are correct. There was nothing wrong with the Prime Minister's definition, it merely left the opportunity for the Opposition teams to make arguments about why allowing murderers to vote would be a bad idea. It is not obvious that murderers were excluded from Prime Minister's definition, nor is it clear that they should be.

Squirrelling

A 'squirrel' is an <u>invalid</u> definition of a motion. A definition is only invalid in one of two circumstances.

The first is if it is literally inconsistent with the words of the actual motion that was set. If, for example, the motion is "This House would place tolls on all roads" and OG suggest they would place tolls only on major motorways, this is clearly invalid, since the motion specifically says "all roads". Such blatant deviations from the motion are uncommon.

The second circumstance that leads to a definition being invalid is where it excludes a large number of cases to which the literal reading of the motion would appear to apply, whether by caveating them out, or narrowly setting the policy to catch only a small number or certain type of those cases. Such definitions may seriously unbalance the debate to the advantage of Government. For example, if the motion is "This House would use community service as a punishment in place of prisons", and the Government bench states that it will only do this for young non-violent offenders, this is a severe restriction of the motion, excluding the considerable majority of cases to which a literal reading of the motion (which mentioned no limits to specific categories of prisoner) would seem to apply.

A common form of squirrelling is called 'placesetting' – where the motion is restricted to one particular location (such as the United States of America, or European capital cities). Worlds is an international tournament, and such narrow placesetting is prohibited – motions should be assumed to apply to at least the bulk of the world's states unless the motion specifies otherwise. However, many motions may be considerably more relevant in some states than others: for example, if the motion is "This House would allow citizens to sell their votes to others", this is only going to have application in states that are minimally democratic, and OG may specify this without being accused of placesetting.

A much less common form of squirrelling is 'timesetting' – setting a motion in some particular time. For example, if the motion is "This House would allow abortion", OG cannot define the debate as being about whether the judges in the key US case of *Roe v Wade* should have reached the decision they did at the time of that case. Unless directly implied by the motion, timesetting is also an invalid definition of a motion, and motions should be set in the present day. However, proposing a specific time scale for a motion does not constitute time-setting provided it keeps implementation reasonably close to the present day. So saying "we will allow a two year transition period for businesses to adapt to the proposed changes our policy creates before we proceed to full implementation" is legitimate, whereas saying "we believe this policy should eventually be implemented, perhaps in one or two decades, once all countries will have fully harmonised to its requirements" is not.

Challenging the Definition

If the definition provided by the OG is invalid then it can be challenged. This must be done during the Opposition Leader's speech, or in a POI to the Prime Minister's speech. As stated, the only grounds for claiming that a definition is invalid is if it meets one of the two squirrelling circumstances outlined above. It is not enough for a definition to not seem "in the spirit of the motion", or for a definition to have not been expected by other teams in the debate.

If a team challenges the definition, they must argue that the definition is illegitimate and explain why. In challenging the definition, the Opposition Leader has two choices:

(1) Firstly, they can complain about the motion having been defined in an invalid way but proceed to debate it anyway. This is preferable if the motion proposed is not a fair reading of the motion but is still debateable.
(2) Secondly, they can challenge the definition and redefine it. They should tell the judge and the other debaters what a proper definition would be and should then proceed to argue against that case. Where a team takes this option, it is advisable (though not required) for them to present 'even-if' analysis engaging with the OG's definition of the motion and the material that stems from that definition, as well as their own.

Judges do not punish teams just for having a 'definitional debate'. This might be boring, but being boring doesn't automatically imply that a team loses. However, teams that unnecessarily quibble about reasonable definitions may be effectively penalised by virtue of wasting time on unpersuasive material at the cost of relevant arguments. Only if a position is tautologically true or untrue, or unconscionable or impossible to argue, should anyone else change the debate *after* the Opposition Leader's speech (and in such cases, one would hope that the Opposition Leader would have challenged the definition!). Such cases are *exceedingly* rare. If the definition is thus challenged, judges must weigh the contributions teams made to the debate as they found it at the time they gave their speeches. That is, if OO won very strongly the debate OG ran, having made a hugely significant contribution to it, but CG successfully challenges the definition based on the fact that it is tautologically untrue and make a significant contribution to this "new" debate, judges must compare OO's contribution to the debate they were involved in with CO's contribution to the one they were. Judges do not disregard OO because "the debate became about something else" – this is not their fault. Of course, it may be that moments where OO and CG engage directly (say, on POIs) may be particularly important to the comparison.

Please bear in mind that definitional challenges are incredibly rare and more a 'last resort' than a first-line of defence against a Government case. Where a definition falls within one of the circumstances outlined above, it is

often still advisable for a team to debate the motion as it has been defined, and avoid the procedural complexity of a definitional challenge taking away from their time to present substantive arguments.

The need to avoid vague definitions and squirrelling should never be taken to restrict OG's legitimate right to define the scope and application of the debate in ways which do not render it unclear, inconsistent with the motion, or unfair. OG has the right to exclude marginal or especially extreme cases from the debate if they can provide clear criteria on which cases are excluded and a compelling justification for doing so, and if such exclusions do not unfairly disadvantage other teams in the debate. This is intelligently defining the debate, not squirrelling. Common forms of legitimate restriction include explicitly limiting or focusing the debate onto broad sets of cases where the motion seems particularly applicable or would most plausibly be implemented. For example, restricting a debate to "Western Liberal Democracies", to the "developed" or "developing" worlds, or to "elected officials" might be appropriate given a certain motion. Again, the question in all cases is one of fairness and consistency with the original motion. This is ascertained by asking whether the definition excludes a large number of cases to which the motion seems to apply, and in doing so unbalances the debate. If not, the definition is likely to be legitimate. Still, as a general rule, it is sensible for OG teams to avoid restricting and limiting motions too much.

Note that a definition cannot be attacked merely for being "the status quo". Most motions will ask Government to defend the implementation of some sort of policy, which is likely to involve changing the world from the way it is at present. As such, if OG actually propose something which is identical to the status quo, this *might be symptomatic* of them failing to define the motion properly. But as Worlds is an international tournament, with motions presumed to apply to many different countries which each have different existing policies, the mere fact that a definition is "status quo" in some context is not a problem with the definition. For example, if the motion is "This House would only have unicameral (single-chamber) legislatures", and OG propose that all democracies should have a single chamber parliament elected through a mix of constituency representatives and proportionate party-list members, they have proposed a policy which is the status quo in New Zealand. However, this would be a radical change for many democracies. Defining a debate in a way that happens to be status quo somewhere is not in and of itself a problem.

Whether a definition is valid or not, it is not the job of the judge to attack the definition, and judges should only worry about the definition if teams in the debate do. If the definition is successfully attacked as being vague, OG should be penalised only to the extent to which a lack of detail prevents teams from making arguments. Judges should give other teams the benefit of the doubt relative to OG where such a deficiency poses a problem and allow other teams to 'read-in' any fair and reasonable assumption about the definition that OG hasn't fully spelled out.

Worked Example: "This House would allow prisoners to vote."

Example One:

Prime Minister: "We will allow all prisoners to vote in elections who have less than one week remaining in their prison sentence."

Opposition Leader: "This is clearly unfair as a definition of the motion as it unduly narrows the scope of the debate, but we'll oppose it anyway."

The judge should conclude: The Opposition Leader has made a correct challenge to the motion and the Prime Minister should be penalised.

Example Two:

Prime Minister: "We would allow all wrongfully-accused prisoners to vote, having released them from prison."

Opposition Leader: "This is a completely unacceptable narrowing and twisting of the definition to the point where government have not argued that real prisoners should be allowed to vote. Since what they need to prove is that actual prisoners should be allowed to vote, that is what we will be arguing against. We oppose such a policy for the following reasons…"

The judge should conclude: The Opposition Leader has done the right thing by replacing the unworkable definition with a workable one. Teams should follow the Opposition Leader's lead and debate the motion as they have set forth.

2.7 Opposing the Debate

So, Government argues in favour of what the motion requires them to do or say is true. What about Opposition? In a debate about a policy, the Opposition must say that we shouldn't do it; that is, that something is better than doing this policy. So, as with definitions of the debate by OG, the position Opposition choose to defend can be the status quo in some countries, it can be something which is currently done nowhere, or it may be described as "doing nothing" rather than "doing the policy" (though naturally, teams doing this don't necessarily recommend wholesale government inaction, but are running the comparative line that "whatever other broadly sensible relevant policies one is carrying out, the addition of this one makes things worse").

Counterpropping

So long as Opposition provide reasons not to do the policy, this is fine. It is not Opposition's burden to commit themselves to a particular or specific alternative course of action to the Government policy. However, they may commit to defend an alternative policy or course of action if they wish – this is often referred to as a 'counterproposition', or 'counterprop'. Just as only the OG has the right to set out a model for the Government side and must do in the Prime Minister's speech, only the Opposition Leader may set out an alternative model for the Opposition side. A counterprop which is not mutually exclusive with the Government model/case is not in itself invalid, but is likely to be unhelpful in explaining why the Government policy should not be adopted – as intuitively, both could be done side-by-side. An OO that elects to present an alternative model should explain not only why their model is preferable to that of the OG, but also why it would be preferable to adopt their model to the exclusion of that of the OG.

If OO do not counterprop, it is not legitimate for Government teams to demand that they do commit themselves to a specific alternative – Opposition's role is simply to defeat the policy proposed by Government, not solve the problem Government have identified (Opposition may even argue that there isn't a real problem that needs a solution here). However, if the Opposition accepts that a problem exists, it will be difficult for them to do well in the debate without either showing that the OG's action will make the problem so much worse that inactivity is preferable; or demonstrating that some alternative and preferable solution(s) exists. Opposition has the right to point to a variety of possible superior alternatives without committing to one alone, but it may in practice be difficult to prove that the OG's policy is inferior without directly comparing it to at least one of those alternatives.

Worked Example: "This House would invade Syria".

Example One:

Prime Minister: "We believe that the United States should invade Syria at once and install a new government."

Opposition Leader: "We believe that the United States should invade Syria at once, but they should also give economic assistance to a new Syrian regime."

The judge should conclude: OO's counterprop is not mutually exclusive with OG's, and indeed accepts the premise of the OG's case. OO is not actually opposing the motion.

Example Two:

Prime Minister: "We believe that the United States should invade Syria at once and install a new government."

Opposition Leader: "Rather than invading, the US should give military aid to rebel groups within Syria."

The judge should conclude: OO's counterprop is not strictly mutually exclusive with the OG's case, but they have set it up as an alternative (in effect saying that "we suggest the policy of a) not invading and b) giving military

aid"). Depending on the arguments that follow, they may be able to successfully show that their policy is preferable to OG's.

2.8 Extending the Debate – Member Speeches

The Government Member and Opposition Member are each responsible 'extending' the debate. An extension is defined as anything that hasn't yet been said by that side of the debate. An extension can take a number of forms including:

(1) new arguments which have not yet been made in the debate, whether additive to their own case or responsive to material raised by the other side,

(2) new examples,

(3) new analysis or explanation of existing arguments,

(4) new applications of existing argumentation (e.g. if the Member points out that one of their opening half's arguments is able to defeat a new argument from the other side).

In short, saying almost anything other than a word-for-word repetition of first-half's material <u>will in some sense constitute an extension</u>. In that sense, role fulfilment here is fairly easy and most extension speakers will succeed in fulfilling the bare minimum requirements of their role.

However, a closing team can only get credit for their contributions to the debate that go beyond what has already been contributed by their opening half. A closing team that contributes only the most minimal of extensions is unlikely to have contributed more persuasive material than their opening. As a result, closing teams do not defeat their opening half team merely by "having an extension" (any more than OG teams win the debate for "having a model"). A winning extension will bring out material that is most able to persuade the judge that the motion should be affirmed or rejected.

If certain arguments have already been convincingly won by the analysis of an opening half team, a team which merely adds new analysis to those arguments may be able to, on the basis of that analysis, defeat the teams on the opposing side, but is unlikely to have provided good grounds on which to beat the team ahead of them.

Knifing

Speakers need to be consistent with earlier speeches made on their side of the debate – indirectly contradicting other teams/speakers on one's own side of the debate or flatly stating that their arguments were false is termed 'knifing'.[5] Teams should receive no credit for arguments that contradict the claims of earlier speakers.

<u>Making an 'even if' argument (along the lines of "even if OO were wrong about this, we're going to show that this motion should still be defeated") does not constitute knifing.</u> However, such 'even if' arguments are unlikely to provide good grounds for a closing team to beat their opening unless they actually improve the bench's persuasive position. A closing team that substitutes a strong opening half line for an inferior alternative to believe their side of the debate, or who advances an even-if argument when the probability of the 'if' is very low, is unlikely to beat their opening half team on the basis of that material.

2.9 Whip Speeches

A good Whip speech will note the major disagreements in the debate (points of clash) between the two sides and will make use of the best arguments from each team on their side to make their case that the motion ought to be affirmed or rejected. A Whip who adds to the debate in their use of arguments that were introduced in the first half should receive credit for doing so, if those arguments are employed successfully. A whip speaker may, in line with their team's need to contribute more persuasive material to the debate than their opening, aim to explain

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[5] It is also possible, but obviously rarer, for the Deputy Prime Minister or Deputy Opposition Leader to knife their own partner – the Prime Minister or Opposition Leader. This is no less illegitimate than had a Government or Opposition Member or Whip knifed.

why their own team's contributions are the most persuasive or important on their side, though they should do so without rejecting their opening half's arguments.

It is strongly prohibited for either whip speakers to add new arguments to their team's cases. New material is officially permitted in Government Whip speeches, but new arguments raised there should be discounted if the delay in raising them gave the Closing Government an unfair advantage in denying or limiting the capacity of their opponents to respond.

What counts as a 'new argument'? Debates are about doing things, or arguing that things are true. Therefore, entirely new reasons to do things, claims that new things will happen, or claims of new moral truths constitute new arguments. The following things do not count as new arguments in this sense, and are permissible for Whips to engage in:

• new defences of arguments already made.
• new explanations of previously-made arguments.
• rebuttal
• new examples to support existing arguments
• anything the other side can reasonably be expected to understand that team intended from their Member speech.

At times, it's difficult to assess the difference between new rebuttal and analysis (which is permitted) and new arguments (which are not). Judges should consider whether or not the making of the claim raises a new issue or approach to winning the debate on an existing issue, to which the other side has little if any ability to respond. If a team does make a new argument in the Whip speech, judges should simply ignore it (or attach limited importance to it, if in the Government Whip speech), and not afford it any credit. Adding new arguments shouldn't be penalised beyond this.

2.10 POIs, Timing and Equity

As with other role-fulfilment duties, keeping to time limits and other rules of the tournament do not generate persuasiveness – a team is not more persuasive because they had better timing, or offered lots of POIs.

Points of Information

The nature of POIs and how they are offered is discussed in section 1.4. It is important for teams to both offer and accept POIs. As mentioned in section 1.4, each speaker is expected to take two POIs – accepting one is a minimum requirement. Judges should **not** force debaters to take POIs by intervening in the debate if they do not, but failing to take any POIs (provided a reasonable number were offered during their speech) constitutes a severe failure to engage with other teams and should be viewed by judges as undermining their confidence that the speaker's arguments could successfully survive attacks by the other side. In assessing the failure to take POIs, a judge should also consider whether other engagement done by the team – through rebuttal, for example – has been sufficient to restore that confidence. A speaker who has both failed to take POIs, and has engaged in only minimal rebuttal – or avoided particular arguments from the other side – is likely to be viewed very negatively by the judge.

Failing to take a POI has sometimes been suggested to be equivalent to taking a very damaging POI – this is not an appropriate way to assess this failure. A judge should never give teams credit for arguments that they have not made, even where other teams in the debate have role fulfilment issues. However, it is appropriate for the judge to consider failing to take a POI as being indicative of poor engagement with the best material on the other side, especially where the speaker has not otherwise addressed that material.

Time Limits

As stated in Chapter 1, at Worlds the official time limit for speeches is 7 minutes, although speakers are traditionally allowed around fifteen seconds of leeway beyond 7 minutes where material can still be considered by judges to finish their speeches. Speeches need not be penalised for being 'over-time', material past the time limit

should simply be disregarded – the speaker is wasting everyone's time by delivering it. Should any speaker continue to speak past 8 minutes, the Chair judge should instruct them to sit down, in order to keep debates to schedule.

Equity

As well as following the rules of BP debating, Worlds also requires that all participants adhere to the tournament 'Equity Policy'. Judges have no authority to enforce the equity policy (but must obviously themselves follow it). Judges may not cut off a speaker for a perceived breach of equity except in the most extreme of situations, where an equity violation is severe enough to already have disrupted the round and intervention is required to restore order. Judges should not take the fact that they believe an equity violation has occurred into account when assessing who won a debate, or what speaker points to award. Judges are there to judge the debate, and should only penalise equity violations to the extent to which they make a speaker unpersuasive and/or are unfair on other teams or speakers. Judges cannot award a speaker zero speaker marks, or give their team an 'automatic fourth' on the basis of a breach of equity.

To resolve equity violations formally, debaters and/or judges should report them to the equity team who, in consultation with the Adjudication Core and the person making the complaint, will decide what course of action, if any, needs to be taken. However, being an objectionable speaker is generally not persuasive to the ordinary intelligent voter. A speaker who engages in, for example, racist behaviour is likely to be rendered less persuasive overall as a result of that material.

Equity violations are not a standard part of debating that should be expected from time to time. On the contrary, they should never occur at a tournament. Debating is here for the enjoyment of participants, and not really worth people falling out with each other over.

3. Additional Notes for Judges

Most of the information on how to judge debates and determine results was provided in Chapter 2 – as such all judges must read Chapter 2 of this manual for guidance on judging. This section simply focuses on a few additional issues of a largely administrative nature for judges: such as how to actually engage in the judging deliberation, fill in the ballot, deliver feedback to the debaters, and so forth.

3.1 Deciding the results

Once the debate has finished, the debaters should leave the debate room, and the judges should collectively rank the four teams in order: first, second, third and fourth. Judges do this through a discussion (or 'deliberation') aimed at consensus – they do not simply each make up their minds and then vote, or engage in a battle with each other to 'win' the discussion. Judging panels are a team, and all members of the panel should view themselves as such – their job is to cooperatively decide on the best way to rank the four teams in the debate. Debates cannot result in a draw: one team must take the 'first', one team the 'second', one team the 'third', and one team the 'fourth'.

To repeat the core BP debating criterion on winning debates: judges assess which teams were most *persuasive* with respect to the *burdens* their side of the debate is attempting to prove, within the *constraints* set by the rules of BP debating. Judges should determine which team did the best to persuade them, by reasoned argument, that the motion ought to be adopted or rejected. The judges do so as the ordinary intelligent voter within the meaning outlined in section 2.1, and their assessments are always *holistic* and *comparative*: considering all the contributions each team made to the debate in aggregate, and comparing these to other teams. Teams cannot win or lose debates for isolated things they did, like setting up the debate well or contradicting another team on their side. Crucially, there are no such things as 'automatic fourths' or 'automatic firsts'. This is a matter of logical necessity: however good or bad something a team does is, another team could always do exactly the same good or bad thing *and* do something else that made them even better or even worse.

Judges can and must assess how well-substantiated arguments are. This will inevitably involve some assessment of the quality of the supporting reasons offered for arguments; and, as noted in section 2, seriously implausible claims may constitute weak support for an argument in the eyes of the judges. But judges must exercise the minimum of personal evaluation in making such claims, and even seriously implausible arguments cannot be disregarded entirely by the judge if they haven't been rebutted – though they may have little persuasive value. In an ideal world, teams will engage in extensive responses to each other's well-detailed points. In most of the debates that occur in the actual world, teams will often talk past each other and leave each other's points unchallenged. Under those circumstances, the judge will have to assess not only which arguments are most important, but equally which are most clearly proven. Unrebutted points that require the judge to make some logical leaps are often more persuasive than thoroughly-rebutted points and are always more persuasive than no points at all, but are not preferable to a well-reasoned argument which rests on fewer unsubstantiated assumptions. What is and is not rebutted is therefore of vital importance to judging debates. Note that speakers don't have to use the word "rebuttal" to respond to an argument. It may be tidier if they do, but judges should not ignore material that adequately deals with an argument just because the speaker doesn't point out that it does.

Equally, this doesn't mean speakers should be "punished" for not refuting everything: some claims do not do any harm at all to the opposite side. For example, in a debate about the legalisation of drugs, if the government say "pink elephants are cute because they have those nice ears and are a pleasant colour", this flawed argument can be safely left unrebutted as it isn't a reason to legalise drugs. There is, therefore, no need to point out that blue elephants are obviously more tasteful. So too, if they said "some drugs are less harmful than others", this could also be ignored. While it is clearly more related to the debate than the cute pink elephants argument, it is pre-argumentative – that is, it has not yet been given sufficient surrounding words to actually provide a reason to do or not do the policy. The other side can quite happily say "yes, some drugs are more harmful than others" and

move on, or just ignore this argumentative non sequitur. Often as a judge, it can be tempting to complete arguments for teams that are interesting but pre-argumentative. Don't.

Each judging panel will comprise a single 'Chair' and a number of additional judges termed 'Wings' (or 'Panellists'). It is the responsibility of the Chair to manage the deliberation between the judges in a manner that allows all judges to participate fully in the discussion, and produces a consensus decision and completed results sheet (known as a 'ballot') within the deliberation time limit: 15 minutes at this Worlds. Chairs of panels must manage their time accordingly, and recognise that the rules require a vote if no consensus has been reached early enough for the adjudication to complete in 15 minutes. Taking into account the time taken to decide on individual speaker points, this means you should consider a vote around 12 minutes into a discussion.

Wing Judges

The opinions of Wings count just as much as the opinion of the Chair: the main difference is simply that Wings are just not tasked with chairing (i.e. managing) the discussion. Wings should treat the Chair with respect, and not interrupt/speak over them unless they feel they are not being allowed to meaningfully participate in the discussion. In return, Chairs should respect the opinions of Wings and give them sufficient opportunity to contribute to the discussion. If the panel cannot reach a consensus after 15 minutes they may (depending on the degree to which the tournament is on schedule!) be granted another 5-10 minutes of time to discuss by the Adjudication Core (or, more likely, the Adjudication Core's representatives near to the debate room – these representatives, whose key task is to deliver ballots back to the Adjudication Core, are often called 'runners'). After any additional time has elapsed, the judges <u>must vote on the rankings they disagree over</u>, with the majority, in each disagreement, determining the result. If a panel has an even number of judges, and the result of a vote is tied, the Chair's 'casting' vote breaks the tie (i.e. whichever side of the tie the Chair was on is the final result).

Trainee Judges

Some judges in the tournament may be designated as 'trainees'. Trainee judges function exactly like Wing judges in every respect *except* that they do not get a vote in the eventual determination of the round's results. Trainee judges do still get to participate in the deliberation, and should follow, make notes on, and declare their views/rankings of the debate. Chair judges should give them equal opportunity to voice their views and other judges should engage with them in discussion directly. But the trainee does not get a say in deciding on the ultimate results of the debate. Being designated a 'trainee' should not be read as indicating that the Adjudication Core thinks a judge is bad. More usually it reflects that either the judge has limited judging experience, or that the Adjudication Core lacks information on the judge.

3.2 Managing the deliberation

In close rounds, it is to be expected that the judges on the panel may have different views on the debate. Therefore, achieving consensus and filling in the results ballot in 15 minutes is a difficult task, requiring careful management by the Chair. Here we sketch some suggestions for how this could be managed. These are not strict requirements – it is up to the Chair to manage the discussion in an effective way.

The Chair should begin by asking each Wing to give either a full ranking of the four teams or, at least, some indication of which teams they considered better or worse than each other. This is not binding, it is a working hypothesis which will evolve as the discussion progresses. *Wings should not feel any pressure to agree with one another or the Chair in their initial call, as there is no negative consequence or inference for changing your call.* Judges should have some opinion of the debate as soon as it is done, and should share their leanings along with their uncertainties. Having no idea whatsoever until five minutes of note-reading has passed does not bespeak an active following of the debate, although it may be reasonable to take a couple of minutes to organise notes and confirm opinions individually prior to starting discussion. The Chair should then assess the level of consensus which exists. There are thousands of possible combinations, but thankfully a few scenarios crop up fairly often.

1. Everyone has exactly the same rankings – celebrate (but briefly). Even though there is agreement, the panel should still have a short discussion to ensure rankings are the same for similar reasons, and

accurately take into account the full contributions of all four teams. They should then move on to filling in the ballot.

2. Everyone has the same rankings except one person. The Chair should ask them to defend their position. The discussion should be specific, tailored to the difference between the minority and majority opinion. If it is a difference over one team, the discussion should focus on that team, etc. Judges should not assume that someone is wrong because they are in the minority.

3. There is similarity in rankings (the judges agree on where one team is ranked or on some relative rankings – for example, everyone agrees OG is better than CG) but also some crucial differences. The judges should begin by establishing which discussions need to be given the most time (i.e. there is disagreement about whether OO beat OG). Consolidate the consensus that exists, and use this as a platform to break deadlocks.

4. Chaos. There is no similarity between the rankings. The Chair should guide a discussion of each team's arguments, or, depending on what makes sense to the panel in context, of the clashes between particular pairs of teams.

   ○ These debates often hinge on how one argument was evaluated, so your aim is to detect such differences in interpretation. The initial discussion is intended for the panel to inform each other of their perspectives and find some level of common understanding.

   ○ If two judges believe different arguments are central, the Chair should frame a discussion about their relative priority. The Chair should get each judge to explain their position, and attempt to establish a metric for the importance of arguments in the debate.

   ○ After this brief discussion, the members of the panel should each rank the teams and compare again. If the panel has achieved some overlap, they should move on to the suggestions under (3) above. It may eventually prove necessary to vote.

In all deliberations, *judges should not feel under any obligation to stick to their original call just because it was their initial view* – flexibility and open-mindedness in the discussion is crucial, and deliberations should always aim at consensus. Such consensus is not, however, an ideal that is to be placed above the right result. As such, judges should not 'trade' results in order to each get their own views somewhat represented in the final ranking – this is likely to produce a result that is impossible to coherently justify. If a judge believes that a team placed first and the other judges disagree, the former judge should try to advance their reasons. All judges must be flexible and willing to be persuaded, but if they are not persuaded, they should stick with what they believe to be right.

3.3 Filling in the ballot

Once a ranking has been decided upon, the Chair should lead the panel in filling in the ballot. This involves recording the rankings and assigning 'speaker scores' – a score, from 50-100, for each speaker in the debate. The speaker point scale, with guidelines on how to award speakers, is attached as an appendix to the end of this manual. There are a few important rules about awarding speaker scores:

- Speaker scores should reflect the majority decision of the judges, not be a compromise between various opinions. i.e. don't say "we think OG wins, but we can make sure the speaks reflect your different view". If the majority doesn't think a relative ranking is close, there is no reason that the speaker scores suggest otherwise.

- The combined speaker scores for the two speakers' on each team must be compatible with the ranking they received. i.e. the team that placed first must have a higher combined speaker score than the team that placed second, the team that placed second must have a higher combined speaker score than the team that placed third, and so on. Teams cannot be given the same total speaker score – there must be at least a one point difference in the total speaker score of each team.

- Speaker points are important. They are used to determine where teams with the same total team points rank after the in-rounds. As such, many teams may break, or fail to break, on the basis of the speaker points they have been awarded. There are also various speaker prizes. Therefore, judges should consider the awarding of speaker points carefully, and endeavour to stick as closely as possible to the speaker point scale. *Chair judges must ensure that sufficient time is left to award the speaker points with care.*

- Speaker points only successfully distinguish in the final rankings if the overall pool of judges uses them with some consistency. There is no metaphysical truth about what an 82-scoring speech, for example, looks like – judges must stick to the standards of the overall judging pool, as represented in the speaker scale, rather than to their own personal standards.
- At Worlds, we would generally expect to see some marks awarded in every bracket of the speaker scale. The average standard of speech at the tournament is meant to receive a 75, and the majority of marks will fall in the 70s, high 60s and low 80s. But at most Worlds we would expect there to be a number of marks in the high 80s and low 60s, and a very small number of marks in the 50s or 90s. Judges should not be afraid to use the full range of the scale where it is warranted – but speeches should be exceptionally good, or exceptionally weak, to achieve markets in the very top and bottom brackets.
- Judges should assess all speakers in a fair manner and must take note of the fact that neither language proficiency nor accent influence a speaker's speaker score. Bias on the basis an individual's language status and/or (cultural) background will not be tolerated by the adjudication core and will negatively impact one's judge ranking.

3.4 Announcing the Result

The Chair delivers the adjudication, sometimes called the 'oral adjudication' or 'reasons for decision'. In the case that the Chair loses a vote in deciding the result, they should ask one of the Wings who voted in the majority to deliver the adjudication, at least as far as the teams on which they differ from the majority are concerned. If their decision differs sufficiently from that of the majority, it may be advisable to have one of the Wings give the entire adjudication.

The adjudication should distinguish between the reasons for the decision and advice for teams: judges may give both. The reasons should be about what did happen; while advice is about what didn't happen, but perhaps should have. The latter cannot be a basis for the former. The primary aim of an adjudication is to convey to the teams the reasoning of the panel in ranking the teams as they did.

The adjudication should therefore present a reasoned argument for the ranking, using as evidence the arguments made in the debate and how they influenced the judges. While there are many theories about how to approach debates – from problem-solution discussions to deconstructions of persuasiveness into sub-concepts – these should not determine or explain a result, although judges may wish to use such concepts in offering advice. The extent to which a team conforms to the way a particular judge would train or coach them to debate has no relevance in judges' decisions; although it is, of course, possible that whatever it is that the team has done or failed to do has, in its own right, had an impact on the persuasiveness of their arguments.

The adjudication should, in general, be structured as followed:

1. announce the ranking of the teams,
2. go through the teams in an order that makes sense, comparing pairs of teams and explaining why one beat the other,
3. summarise and invite teams for more detailed feedback.

Comparing teams involves more than making isolated statements about Team X and Team Y, and saying "so X clearly beat Y". It requires that the judge explain the interaction between the teams to establish who had the better arguments. The judge should be specific and be detailed – the vague application of adjectives is not sufficient judging. Identify arguments, whether and how they were responded to, and what the impact of the remainder was. Identify which teams get credit for what, and how this influenced the decision about whether or not we should do the policy.

One way to give feedback is to discuss the teams and their contributions in chronological order – discussing first the OG, then the OO, and so on. Another approach is to begin with the team who has come first and work down, or the team who came fourth and work up. In some debates, it may be appropriate to discuss the benches, or the halves.

Whichever approach the judge giving the adjudication adopts, they are required to be comparative and specific. Advice should be separated from the reasons for their decision, lest they confuse teams about which is which.

There are a number of broad areas of advice you may want to give as a judge, including:

- general advice on how to improve
- suggestions of reasons why things identified in the adjudication happened
- what might have been run (although it is often advisable to minimise this unless asked, to avoid confusing teams about why they lost the debate).

3.5 Feedback on Adjudicators

Adjudication Cores want to know how judges are doing, for two reasons: first, to ensure they provide the fairest possible competition by allocating the best judges to Chair panels; second, because judges care about their success in the tournament and feedback is key to fairly assessing their performance.

There are three types of feedback:

- teams' feedback on the judge who delivered the adjudication,
- chairs' feedback on wings,
- wings' feedback on chairs.

Each type is important. The only way Adjudication Cores can effectively assess and allocate judges is if everyone participates in providing feedback.

3.6 Some Pitfalls to Avoid in Decision-Making and Feedback

What follows is a common set of mistakes that judges may make in determining results and giving feedback. We emphasise that many of the examples we give on such pitfalls aren't in and of themselves 'bad feedback' – they could be given much further explanation so as to be an appropriate introductory comment. But judges should not rest satisfied with such statements without further clarification and explanation to the debaters that makes clear the specific, comparative reasons why one team beat another team.

Dealing in generalities rather than specifics

"We thought that Closing Opposition really brought the case home for us, so they won the debate."

"Opening Opposition had some interesting things to say, but the analysis didn't get better until Closing Opposition."

It's perfectly fine for adjudicators to use general language to introduce their reasons, provided that each general statement is supported by examples of what actually happened. No statement of the sorts that we've listed above should ever go unsupported by specific examples of the claim being made, either during the deliberation or during feedback.

Granting certain 'classes' of arguments undue priority

"Only Opening Government knew the names of major Brazilian cities."

"Closing Government won because their arguments were moral rather than practical."

This judging pitfall takes a number of forms, one of which is the fetishisation of the use of specific knowledge in the making of arguments. Teams which make strong arguments buttressed by good knowledge should be rewarded, but not because of the total amount of facts they named, but because of the strength of the arguments which those facts were marshalled in support of. A clever use of facts makes an argument stronger and better, it does not make an argument.

A second form of this pitfall is according improper priority to arguments that are of various types (moral/philosophical/economic/practical). A 'principled' argument, for example, is not necessarily better or worse than a 'practical' one – it depends what each argument seeks to prove and how well it does so.

'Penalty judging'

"You didn't take any Points of Information, so there was no way you could come first."

"We had questions about the mechanism, so we put you last."

A good referee is not one who incessantly blows their whistle and stops play. Similarly, a good judge isn't one who tries to find as many reasons as possible to exclude consideration of a team's arguments and speak instead about the form rather than the content of their contributions. If a team violates the requirements of role fulfilment, they should be penalised only up to the point of removing any harm they caused to the debate through failure to fulfil their role.

Some Examples:

- Not taking any POIs means that a speaker has not engaged fully with the other side – their material may be rendered less persuasive, but should not be excluded from consideration.
- Lack of clarity in a mechanism should be resolved by allowing the Opposition teams to make any reasonable assumptions of their own and letting the debate carry on from there, not disregarding other contributions of the team setting out the mechanism.
- If a speaker introduces new arguments in an Opposition Whip speech, these are to be discounted, as though the speaker had said nothing on those points – but other material should still be considered.

Judging on Format Rather than Content

"You should have put your argument about rights first."

"Your team was unbalanced - all the good points came from the first speaker."

"You only spoke for five minutes."

Speaking for a certain length of time or placing arguments in a certain order is irrelevant (in and of itself) to which team won the debate. Naturally, speakers and teams who spend all their time on good arguments and spend more time explaining more important and more complex arguments will do better at being persuasive, but they succeed because they have made good arguments and have explained those arguments well, not because they "spent time on them". A speaker can win a debate with a one minute speech (but it's very, very hard to do so). Many of the examples listed here may well be useful feedback, but they do not reduce how persuasive a team was in-and-of-themselves.

Swiftly reaching a decision and then finding a justification for it

"We all saw the debate the same way, so just come to us each individually for feedback."

"The closing half teams were just much more persuasive, and their arguments really stuck with us at the end of the debate, so opening government took third and opening opposition fourth."

Either as an individual or as a panel, it can be tempting to feel at the end of the debate that the result is really clear, and not carefully scrutinise the contributions of the four teams to ensure a clear justification for that ranking – instead rather artificially constructing a justification to 'fit' initial hunches about the call. This is especially likely when all the judges end up with the same ranking, and thereby conclude that they must be correct since they all agreed. Judges should always, at the end of the debate, carefully review the content delivered by all four teams and ensure that a result emerges from a logical, reasoned justification, rather than vice versa.

Appendix A: The WUDC Speaker Scale

The mark bands below are rough and general descriptions; **speeches need not have every feature described to fit in a particular band.** Many speakers will range across multiple bands depending on the feature assessed – for example, their style might appear of the 73-75 range, while their engagement might be closer to the 67-69 bracket, and their argumentation closest to the 70-72 range. Judges should not treat any individual feature as decisive in and of itself, but should rather aim to balance all features of the speech to come to the speaker score that seems most appropriate. Throughout this scale, **'arguments' refers both to constructive material and responses**. Judges should assess all speakers in a fair manner and must take note of the fact that **neither language proficiency nor accent influence a speaker's speakerscore.** Please use the **full** range of the scale.[6]

95-100	• Plausibly one of the best debating speeches ever given; • It is incredibly difficult to think up satisfactory responses to any of the arguments made; • Flawless and compelling arguments.
92-94	• An incredible speech, undoubtedly one of the best at the competition; • Successfully engaging with the core issues of the debate, arguments exceptionally well made and it would take a brilliant set of responses to defeat the arguments; • There are no flaws of any significance.
89 – 91	• Brilliant arguments successfully engage with the main issues in the round; • Arguments are well-explained and illustrated and demand extremely sophisticated responses in order to be defeated. • Only very minor problems, if any, but they do not affect the strength of the claims being made.
86 - 88	• Arguments engage with core issues of the debate and are highly compelling; • No logical gaps, and sophisticated responses required to defeat the arguments; • Only minor flaws in arguments.
83 – 85	• Arguments address the core issues of the debate; • Arguments have strong explanations, which demand a strong response from other speakers in order to defeat the arguments; • May occasionally fail to fully respond to very well-made arguments, but flaws in the speech are limited.
79 – 82	• Arguments are relevant, and address the core issues in the debate; • Arguments well made without obvious logical gaps and are all well explained; • May be vulnerable to good responses.
76 – 78	• Arguments are almost exclusively relevant, and address most of the core issues; • Occasionally, but not often, arguments may slip into: i) deficits in explanation, ii) simplistic argumentation vulnerable to competent responses or iii) peripheral or irrelevant arguments; • Clear to follow, and thus credit.
73 – 75	• Arguments are almost exclusively relevant, although may fail to address one or more core issues sufficiently; • Arguments are logical, but tend to be simplistic and vulnerable to competent responses; • Clear to follow and thus credit.
70 – 72	• Arguments are frequently relevant; • Arguments have some explanation, but there are regular significant logical gaps; • Sometimes difficult to follow, and thus credit fully.
67 – 69	• Arguments are generally relevant; • Arguments almost all have explanations, but almost all have significant logical gaps; • Sometimes clear, but generally difficult to follow and thus credit the speaker for their material.
64 – 66	• Some arguments made that are relevant; • Arguments generally have explanations, but have significant logical gaps; • Often unclear, which makes it hard to give the speech much credit.
61 – 63	• Some relevant claims, and most will be formulated as arguments; • Arguments have occasional explanations, but these have significant logical gaps; • Frequently unclear and confusing, which makes it hard to give the speech much credit.
58 – 60	• Claims are occasionally relevant; • Claims are not formulated as arguments, but there may be some suggestion towards an explanation; • Hard to follow, which makes it hard to give the speech much credit.
55 – 57	• One or two marginally relevant claims; • Claims are not formulated as arguments, and are instead just comments; • Hard to follow almost in its entirety, which makes it hard to give the speech much credit.
50 – 55	• Content is not relevant; • Content does not go beyond claims, and is both confusing and confused. • Very hard to follow in its entirety, which makes it hard to give the speech any credit.

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[6] Speaker scale initially created by Sam Block, Jonathan Leader Maynard and Alex Worsnip and updated by the Warsaw EUDC Adjudication Core.