

Debatious September Package: Domestic Policy and Government

September: Domestic Policy and Government

October: Foreign Policy and International Affairs

November: Science and Environment

January: Ethics and Philosophy

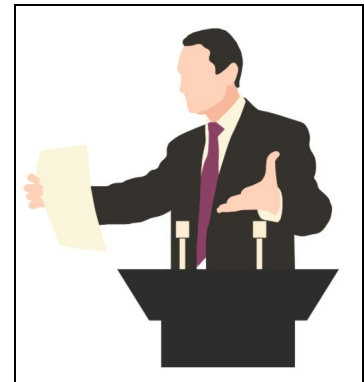
February: Fiscal Policy and Economics

March: Health and Medicine

April: Media and Technology

May: Culture and Society

Open: THBT questionable candidates should be barred from running for public office.



Game: Rapid Fire Speech
Debate Strategy: Intro to Debate, Speech Structure
Topic Theory: Government Function and Structure and Philosophy of Government
Topic Contextualization: Types of Government and Advantages and Political Change
Articles and Case Studies
Resolution + Directions

Game: Rapid Fire Speech

This is one of the most commonly used and simple games available to practice your speech, whether you are with a group or are alone. Prepare any random assortment of words to use during this game. The less related these words are, the better, as it will really force to be able to change direction in any situation. Decide the amount of time you want to spend on each word, typically 10-15 seconds is a good place to start. Pick any one of the words and begin speaking on it, once 10-15 seconds have passed, move onto another word, while trying to make as seamless a transition as possible. In the beginning, just try to avoid stuttering, stopping, and hesitating. Say whatever you can to transition between the two words, even if it does not make that much sense. As you get better and better at this game, you can try to see if you can weave a logical story or speech out of the given words!

DEBATE STRATEGY: INTRO TO DEBATE AND SPEECH STRUCTURE

The most important thing to realize about debate is the fact that is just structured argument between two conflicting views. However, this structure is incredibly to debate and must be known and well understood in order for a debater to be successful. In this section, we will look at the basic rules everyone needs to know for the Canadian National Debating Style, which is the style used across the whole of Canada. As with most arguments, there are two sides. In debate, these are known as the proposition and opposition teams, the proposition supports the given resolution while the opposition argues against it. The resolution is the topic around which the debate is centered.

Let's start by talking about the teams and roles within these teams. Each team consists of two debaters, one is the 'first speaker' and the other is predictably the 'second speaker'. It must be noted that being first or second speaker has nothing to do with the level at which a debater is able to speak, the first speaker is not always the "best" debater in the team, instead it comes down to the roles which each speaker plays. The first speaker is more heavily responsible for introducing the debate as well establishing the main idea and argumentation for the side. They will also be responsible for the rebuttal speech as the end of the rounds, which are essentially summary speeches. These will be gone over later in the package. The second speaker will be responsible for the majority of clash against the other team's points while supplementing the argumentation introduced in the first speech. With that said, it really comes down to an individual's strengths and personal preference in determining what role they should adopt. It is not uncommon to

have a people new to debate try both roles to better determine which one they feel more comfortable in.

Having discussed the general responsibilities of either role, we can now go more in-depth into the speaking order and the actual speeches which are typically delivered within a round. The speaking order within the round is pretty simple, it begins with the first speaker for the proposition side. As mentioned before, this first speech will establish the basis on which the rest of the debate will occur. This includes defining any terms in the resolution to clarify the grounds of debate and making clear what burdens each team carries. In addition to this, the first proposition speaker will also introduce side proposition's main ideas (these are called pillars and will be addressed during the argument construction segment) and talk more in depth about some of those ideas. After they has spoken, the first speaker for the opposition will be called to give their speech. This speech will aim to accomplish similar goals to the first proposition speaker in establishing side opposition's main pillars and elaborating on some of these pillars. However, instead of setting up terms and parameters for the debate, side opposition will spend some time in clashing the arguments of proposition instead.

Once the first opposition speaker is done, the second proposition speaker will speak. This speaker will cover the remaining content left for side proposition, while also clashing with the arguments brought forth by the first opposition. In this proposition speech, there is typically more emphasis on clashing the opponent instead of adding new pillars to side proposition's argument. However, there are cases in which people choose to focus on additional content more, depending on how the round has progressed and what kind of preparation the team did for the debate. After second proposition, the second opposition speaker will present their speech. This speech will play a role very similar to the second proposition speech in that it typically focuses on clash with proposition's points as opposed to a heavier emphasis on actual content. These are the four main speeches within any round, the time limit placed on each will be the same for all four. The next two speeches are called the rebuttal speeches, these speeches have a time limit half as long as the main speeches.

The opposition gives their rebuttal first, followed by the proposition. These speeches are given by the first speaker on either team and act as a 'biased summary' of the round. Essentially, these speeches should look to summarize what has happened within the entire round on both sides, while explaining why your team has done a more effective job at asserting their position throughout the round on all fronts.

1st Speech: Proposition First Speaker - Set-up debate, introduce proposition pillars and expand on some of them
2nd Speech: Opposition First Speaker - Clash proposition points, introduce opposition pillars and expand on some of them
3rd Speech: Proposition Second Speaker - Clash opposition points, supplement proposition pillars
4th Speech: Opposition Second Speaker - Clash proposition points, supplement opposition pillars
5th Speech: Opposition First Speaker - Rebuttal, biased summary
6th Speech: Proposition First Speaker - Rebuttal biased summary

The final major portion of debate to be covered is the point of information, or POI. POIs allow a team to pose a challenge to a speaker from the opposite team while they are speaking. A speaker wishing to give a POI stands up and waits for acknowledgement from the current speaker. The current speaker has three options: accept the POI, turn the POI down, or ask for a moment before accepting the POI. Depending on the situation and part of speech being presented, any of the three options can be viable and effective.

DEBATE STRATEGY: SPEECH CONSTRUCTION

The next important thing is for us to look at how we will construct our speeches in order to fit each role and properly cohere with our partner's. We'll go through each speech chronologically beginning with the first proposition speech. If you remember from the previous section, this speech will begin with an introduction of the premise of the debate and clarification of terms. You will want to ensure you define the terms given to you within the resolution to prevent any ambiguity. By no means do these have to be exact, dictionary definitions, simply explain them in a way that makes sense to the judges. However, be sure your definitions are fair to both teams within the debate. For example, if we are debating the benefits of taking Vitamin C supplements, you would refrain from defining Vitamin C as the universal cure to every known and unknown disease, that would make the debate much too unfair to the opposing team. Following definitions, the first proposition speaker will look to set up their team and its arguments. This is typically done in the form of pillars, which are just your main arguments. In a typical Canadian National round, each team will introduce three pillars to support their team's position. Make sure these pillars are clearly named and outline within your speech to help the judges follow

your arguments more effectively. In certain debates, a model may be required, however, the use and design of a model will be discussed in a later package, for now we will focus on non-model speeches. Once you have defined the terms and introduced the proposition pillars, the first speaker on the proposition team will typically look to expand on the first two of their three pillars. Make sure that when you begin to speak one of your pillars, you make it very evident which pillar it is, do not hesitate to name the pillar before talking about it as this will help the overall cohesiveness of your speech. While you should always ensure to explain the theory and logic behind your pillars, do not forget to support your ideas with real-world examples when you can. It is always helpful to provide reason as to why your statements hold weight. Once you have discussed your two pillars, end the speech through a summary of what your speech brought to the table in terms of argumentation and content.

The first opposition speaker's speech is similar to the first proposition's except in one major aspect. Instead of definitions, the opposition will almost always devote that time to clashing the arguments brought forward by the first proposition speaker. Make sure to focus on the general idea of the argumentation brought forth and why it makes no sense in the context of the debate. Try to avoid nitpicking at smaller mistakes before you have addressed their major ideas. You will want to use this clash as an opportunity to weaken their position while strengthening yours. In Alberta, the clash will typically come after the introduction of opposition's pillars, but before expansion on those pillars. In other parts of Canada, it is not uncommon to see clash come after the pillars have been expanded on. The format you choose really depends on again personal preference, but may also depend on how strong your time management is. Leaving the clash until the end means you will ensure you cover all of your constructive (pillar-related) content, whereas clash in the beginning will have a more immediate impact as it directly relates to the previous speech still fresh in the judge's minds, but may leave you short on time to finish your planned speech. In any case, ensure both this clash and the constructive are included and finish your speech off with a summary, just like the first proposition speaker.

The following two speeches are nearly identical in construction. They both include the clash and constructive components as the previous speech did. However, there is usually more time devoted to clash within the second speeches as they only have one additional pillar to add on to their partner's speech. With this extra time to clash, it is expected that you will do two things, the first is to deconstruct the arguments of the other team. However, the second role this clash must play is the reconstruction of your partner's pillars which have been clashed with, ensuring that they remain strong, even after attacks from the opposing team. After presenting your constructive, again make sure

to end with a summary, which encompasses ALL arguments from both you and your partner in the round.

The two rebuttal speeches are, in my opinion, the speeches which have the potential for the greatest impact on the round. Giving a good rebuttal speech can drastically alter the outcome of a round, while a weak speech might open the door for the opposing team to sneak in a win in a round they did not deserve to. The rebuttal speech is a summary of the entire round and the points and arguments brought up by both sides. However, it is your job to present these in a way such that your team's points are made to seem significantly more logical and better supported than those brought forth by the other team. Include the general clash of ideas from both sides, but also point out specific areas of intense contention and prove that your team came out on top in those areas. Prove that your team won the debate on all fronts, and your rebuttal speech will have been an effective one.

TOPIC THEORY: WHAT IS A GOVERNMENT AND WHAT DOES IT DO?

Government is the system by which nations or communities of individuals are controlled and moderated. The particular burdens of governmental institutions depend on which form of government is in question, but are typically in charge of making rules that are fair and to ensure that these rules are followed by society. In other words, they dictate the policies that a nation chooses to follow. In different forms of government, these policies are decided in different ways and they are enforced to different levels, but as history dictates, the controlled development of society depends on government. As such, conventional governments typically revolve around three groups of people: legislators, administrators and arbitrators. The following description of the basic functional components of government refers mostly to democratic systems.

Legislators, who compose the legislation, are those with the authority to make rules or laws for a political community, whether it be a town or a nation. Typically, these



legislators are elected officials (democracies require legislators to be elected or chosen by elected officials), and they are separated into different stages of the legislative process. Members of a legislature typically represent different political parties with varying views, allowing newly presented legislation to pass through consideration, with perspectives from

a diverse group. On left, is an image of the Western Australian Legislative Assembly Building, established in 1890, making it the first elected legislature in Western Australia.

Administrators, who compose the executive wing of government, are those who are responsible to govern the state, and execute the laws defined by the legislative branch. Often, members of the executive wing are elected officials who are also members of the legislative branch.

As seen below, the executive branch in these conventional systems is essentially composed of the leading member of the legislature along with the ministers controlling the various facets of the state. In order for the executive branch and all other branches to protect the society and provide services, they collect taxes from both individuals and businesses.

Role Title:	Function:
Head of State (President)	Symbol of National Unity
Head of Government (Prime Minister)	Administrative Affairs
Defence Minister	Armed Forces and External Safety
Interior Minister	Police Forces and Internal Safety
Foreign Minister	Diplomatic Affairs and Foreign Relations
Finance Minister	Fiscal Policy and Budget
Justice Minister	Prosecution/Corrections and Courts

Finally, Arbitrators compose the judicial branch, which is responsible for the review of laws, and interpretation of legislation, including constitution and regulations.

The powers of the judicial authority in nations is perhaps the one branch that varies most between states, but it is important to recognize that the judicial system does not monitor the development of laws, only their interpretation or application, including criminal prosecution and the court system, which runs on local, and national stages. On right is the New York Court of Appeals, the highest court in the American State of New York.



Ultimately, the separation of power among these branches of government ensures that power cannot be concentrated in the hands of a small group, and remains balanced. It must be noted, however, that conventional government relies on these branches and their various functions, but not all governments follow this conventional model, considering dictatorships and autocracies, where power often rests in the hands of the few. However, political scientists throughout the years have continued to support the idea that the democracy ensures a power balance, and legitimacy as an institution meant to represent the ideas of the people.

“It has been said that democracy is the worst form of government, except for all the others that have been tried.”

- Sir Winston Churchill

Questions to Consider:

- How are the different functions and powers spread among the various branches of a national government?
- Why does government have to be controlled? What would happen if government was not controlled and its power was left unrestricted?
- Why do we need government? Does existence of government comment on human nature?

TOPIC CONTEXT: WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF GOVERNMENT?

Any particular system of government varies from another in the way that it spreads power among different parts and levels of the state. There are two major ways to look at these different systems of government, the first being a separation based on the level of centralization and a second based on the distribution of power. It is important to remember when examining these different styles of governance that they do much more than simply keep order through the legislation, administration and arbitration; they empower nations to promote general welfare - health, safe transportation and effective communication systems.

In the first classification system of governments, there are three main system of government: unitary systems, federal systems, and confederate systems. These various systems differ based on the level of centralization, including that of government funding, decision-making and autonomy.

Below, there is a consolidation of much of the information presented above, with methods of analyzing particular government scenarios based on centralization of power:

System	Level of Centralization	Strength	Weakness
Unitary (China, France, Japan, United Kingdom)	HIGH	Uniform Policies, ensuring equality and union.	Disregards local division and differences
Federal (United States, Germany, Australia, Canada)	MEDIUM	Powerful local governments and policies	Sacrifices national union
Confederate (Belgium)	LOW	Complete control to individual communities	Sacrifices national union to a great extent

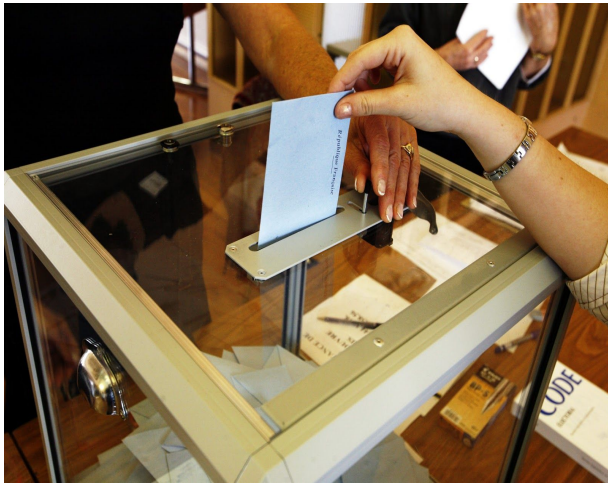
The first of these are unitary systems, with the highest degree of centralization. In other words, unitary systems ensure that the central government holds all of the power, while lower-scope governments (provincial/state/local) merely implement policies of the central administration. When extended, these systems actually impose nationally consistent policies that apply uniformly to all regions and communities. As a result, there are advantages with there being equality across internal borders, while there is gross disrespect for local differences.

The second of these systems are federal systems, with the mix of national and state centralization. Although these two autonomous governments cannot make joint decisions as a unitary system, they do have specific domains that they each are responsible for. A typical separation would be foreign policy/national defense vs. local policy. However, it must be noted that this boundary is often blurred and national policy often fails to meld.

The third of these systems are confederate systems, which sit on the opposite end of the spectrum when compared with unitary systems. A confederacy is a relationship among several independent political actors. Often, these alliances do not add up to much more than agreements, rather than a cohesive national policy. Local government act freely, but fail to ensure cooperation, with very little central coordination power.

The second system of dividing government types would be based on power division, specifically focusing on the ideologies of a regime. To further elaborate, regimes endure beyond individual governments and leaders, and are analyzed based on power separation.

The two main groups in question would be those of democracies and those of authoritarian systems.



Democracies are based on the will of the people, mandating either an indirect or a direct form of government. In indirect systems, there are elected officials who represent the views of their respective constituencies, while direct democracies involve systems where individuals have immediate say over the decisions made by a government. Democracies are most typically organized according to the three separate branches elaborated on earlier: executive, legislative and judicial.

Some democracies are organized in the parliamentary system, where citizens vote for legislative representatives, which in turn select for the leaders of the executive branch. In this form of democracy, legislature makes laws, controls finances, appoints and dismisses members of the executive branch. The parliamentary system ensures that there is a separation between the head of state (typically representing power and nature of the regime), and the head of government (a role that is concerned with daily function of a regime).

Other democracies are organized in the presidential system. In this type of democracy, the roles of head of state and head of government are given to one person - the president. This central figure is directly elected by the people and serves as chief executive within a system of checks and balances between the two branches in question. Essentially running both the legislative and executive branches, there are important public opinion aspects that are essential to the running of a presidential system as compared to parliamentary systems.

The second group of political systems are authoritarian regimes. These systems are those where decisions are made by political elites: those who hold political power, without much input from citizens. These regimes are ruled by a single dictator, a hereditary monarch, a small group of powerful aristocrats or a single political party. The economy is generally tightly controlled by the political power. There are several types of these groups, essentially composed of aspects from totalitarian systems, military regimes or non-parliamentary systems of communism.

“The Government is us You and I, We are the Government”

- Theodore Roosevelt

Questions to Consider:

- How do countries make decisions about which form of government they are going to pursue, and who is involved in this decision-making?
- What happens when a country chooses to change their decision on their government structure? Who makes these decisions?
- When the Arab Spring occurred, what were people fighting for and against?

TOPIC CONTEXTUALIZATION: POLITICAL CHANGE

Although it is important to study the idealized standards of government structures, it is also important to engage in understanding the changes and inconsistencies that are present with the realistic world. When the world or particular regions go through particular changes, in facets of economy, or society, it is important to consider the impacts these have on the policy-making process. For example, the rapid economic changes in China associated with an economic boom fuelled by outsourcing have pressured the government into instituting political changes. So far, the government has resisted some changes, but continued to move policies in the direction of welcoming this massive influx of investment and sourcing opportunities that have boosted the Chinese economic stage.

Change can present itself in many ways, typically caused by changes in the political ideologies of a group of people. The three main sections of political change that will be analyzed are reform, revolution and coup d'états.

Firstly, reform is a type of change that does not advocate the overthrow of basic institution. Reformation involves change the methods that political and economic leaders use to reach goals that the society does generally accepts. Ultimately, rather than changing the fundamental direction that a country looks to take, reform changes the method of pursuing these directions. Often reforms are supported by the institution itself, by sponsoring and mandating reform avenues.

Secondly, revolution contrasts with reform, where there is reform at a much more fundamental level, with a major revision and overthrow of existing institutions. A

revolution impacts multiple areas of life. Taking the example of the Industrial Revolution, there were massive changes in the economic systems of feudalism into those capitalism, but eventually the political systems, transportations, communication and social structures completely transformed.

Finally, coup d'états generally represent the most limited of the change forms. Essentially without goals for transformation, these changes replace the leadership of a country with new leaders, and are typically done so when incumbent leaders are weak and have taken control by force. The leaders are challenged by others who use force to depose them.

However, when analyzing political change in debate, the most important aspect to understand are the political attitudes towards change. In debates about political change it is important to be able to support statements with the beliefs of the actors themselves. In the case of the Arab Spring, it is crucial to recognize what attitude the people are fueling their revolution with. The main groups of attitudes include radicalism, liberalism, and conservatism.

Taking the case of radicalism, individuals believe that rapid, dramatic changes need to be made to the existing society, often including the political system. Radicals usually think the current system cannot be saved and must be overturned to be replaced by something better. For example, radicalism was present in 1917 Russia, when the tsarist leadership was replaced by the USSR, as symbolized.



Taking the case of liberalism, typically associated with supporting reform rather than revolution. Do not confuse a liberal attitude toward change as a political ideology. Liberals generally believe that there can be development of the political systems to allow greater freedom and equality, but that gradual change is necessary.

Conservatism is much less supportive of change than radical or liberal attitudes. Conservatives tend to view change as disruptive and emphasize that it bring unforeseen consequences. Conservative ideals may or may not be inclusive of new identities.

*“To anger a conservative, lie to him.
To anger a liberal, tell him the truth.”*

- Theodore Roosevelt

Questions to Consider:

- How do different political attitudes fuel changes in democracies?
- How do these different views on status quo play a role in authoritarian states?
- What effects can political change have on other aspects of a society, including economics, society and innovation?

ARTICLES AND CASE STUDIES

1) Sanders and the Theory of Change: Radical Politics for Grown-Ups (The Huffington Post)

Paul Krugman has joined the self-appointed political grownups closing ranks around Hillary Clinton against Bernie Sanders. In a piece titled [“How Change Happens,”](#) the liberal economist and *New York Times* columnist insists, “The question Sanders supporters should ask is, When has their theory of change ever worked?”

That must be right. It’s an excellent, sober, adult question. The answer, of course, depends what you think the Sanders campaign’s theory of change is. Krugman argues, “On the left there is always a contingent of idealistic voters eager to believe that a sufficiently high-minded leader can conjure up the better angels of America’s nature and persuade the broad public to support a radical overhaul of our institutions.” This, he says, was what drove the Obama campaign in 2008. By implication, he seems to mean other quixotic campaigns, such as George McGovern’s in 1972, when McGovern lost forty-nine states to Richard Nixon.

Krugman compares unrealistic, high-minded idealism with “politically pragmatic” governance, like Franklin Roosevelt’s during the New Deal. Roosevelt, he reminds us, cut deals with Southern segregationists and introduced programs like Social Security incrementally. Krugman argues that this dirty-hands commitment to halfway measures, not purity, is what it takes to get things done. Versions of this contrast have become a common refrain: Sanders sounds great, but governing, is messy, complicated, grown-up.

Krugman’s mistake is very basic. He’s wrong about the Sanders campaign’s theory of change. It isn’t that a high-minded leader can draw out our best selves and translate those into more humane and egalitarian lawmaking. It is that a campaign for a more equal and secure economy and a stronger democracy can build power, in networks of activists and alliances across constituencies. The movement that the campaign helps to create can develop and give voice to a program that the same people will keep working for, in and out of election cycles. In other words, this is a campaign about political ideas and programs that happens to have a person named Bernie at its head, not a campaign that mistakes its candidate for a prophet or a wizard (or the second coming of Abraham Lincoln, who gave us the now-cliché phrase about better angels, but had no delusion that words could substitute for power).

The campaign whose loyalists made this idealistic mistake was, of course, Obama’s 2008 run. The candidate spoke so charismatically, and seemed so much to embody a vision of realigned, common-sense, fresh-feeling progressivism, that some of us did imagine he could recast American political loyalties. [Back then, Krugman](#) was accusing Obama’s supporters of spewing “bitterness” and “venom” and coming “dangerously close to a cult of personality.” Now he’s pleased that President Obama, unlike Candidate Obama, has governed rather like a Clinton: pragmatically, with the hand he was dealt. He seems to think that supporting Sanders’s “purist” positions means

“prefer[ing] happy dreams to hard thinking about means and ends.” And so, he wants us to think, if we are going to be political grownups, we had better put away childish things. Like talk of truly universal health care (his only example of Sanders’s alleged extremism) or, probably, the term “socialism,” whose revival is baffling pundits everywhere.

Adulthood is charismatic and daunting. It always seems to have the drop on you. But sometimes it just doesn’t understand.

Yes, F.D.R. governed “pragmatically,” in the sense that he counted votes and cut deals. Everyone does this, with the occasional exception of Daenyra, Mother of Dragons. But what made it possible for him to pass sweeping changes in economic regulation and social support, changes so radical that his enemies accused of socialism, of being un-American, of destroying the country and becoming an American Mussolini? The answer is in two parts: ideas and power. His administration stood at the confluence of two great movements. The first was the labor unions, which had been building power, often in bloody and terrible struggles, since the late nineteenth century. The second was made up of the Progressives, generations of reformers who worked in state, cities, and universities — and occasionally in national government - to achieve economic security and update political democracy in an industrial economy that had transformed the country in the decades after the Civil War. Ideas, programs, and power swirled around Roosevelt, gave his agenda shape, and pressed it forward.

These movements were sources of ideas, and also of power. Why did all those enemies and reluctant allies end up meeting Roosevelt halfway? The answer was not not his pragmatic attitude. The reason that even some who hated him had to compromise with Roosevelt or give way was the political force he could marshal. His theory of change was no more about compromise than it was about high-minded words: It was about power. Compromise was a side-effect, a tactic at most.

But the central place of power does not mean idealism had no place in the New Deal. Roosevelt explained what he was doing, and why, in language that was more Sanders than Clinton, more vision than wonkery. He famously called for a Second Bill of Rights, an economic program of security, good work, and material dignity. Going back to the Founders to ground the welfare state is, let’s say, idealistic. And, while F.D.R. was willing to compromise, he was also willing to draw hard lines, calling out “economic royalists” and saying of his enemies, “They are unanimous in their hate for me — and I welcome their hatred.”

Wow. You might hear that from Ted Cruz or possibly Donald Trump this year, but not from any of the Democrats. Roosevelt used the highest idealistic language and the toughest words of conflict. They conveyed the vision behind his program and forced other politicians to form battle lines on the landscape he defined. Then, and only then, he compromised, on his terms.

The banal response to Krugman would be that most politicians campaign in poetry and govern in prose — with the exception of some recent Democrats, notably Hillary, who ease his admirably wonkish heart by never leaving prose mode. Don’t fear the poetry! one might say: it is not a theory of change, just a normal way of talking in a democracy.

But the real answer is deeper. Obama ran in poetry and has governed in prose, in quite a literal sense that one could diagram in the sentences of his speeches and press conferences. But in the stronger, older tradition of campaigns based on ideas and programs rather than personalities, candidates run to build power, and use idealistic language to explain why that power matters. Then, if they get to govern, they use it.

That is a theory of change. To answer Krugman’s question: yes, it has worked. In fact, it may be the only theory of change that has ever made democracy real. It is politics for adults.

2) Shifting Liberal and Conservative Attitudes Using Moral Foundations Theory (Day and Fiske) - At Home

3) Political Attitudes and Ideology of Equality (Sibley and Wilson) - At Home

RESOLUTION AND DIRECTIONS

THBT questionable candidates should be barred from running for public office.

In preparing for this debate, make sure to use examples from the real world, especially considering we live in an elected representative system. Remember to research both sides of the debate so you better understand the topic and are able to prepare for potential clash points the other team may bring forward. Here are some example pillars to help you get started:

Proposition	Opposition
Candidates who do not have experience in public administration or political process do not provide contributions as valuable as experienced candidates.	All individuals have the right to run for public office, and can provide valuable contributions from varying perspectives in society, that administration may not be able to empathize with.
Candidates who are radically different in style and views tend to reduce the quality of political analysis and investigation, where voters spend very little time on quality of issues of importance.	It is a constitutional right for all individuals to run for office, and sets a precedent for the restriction of democratic access to certain groups and communities.