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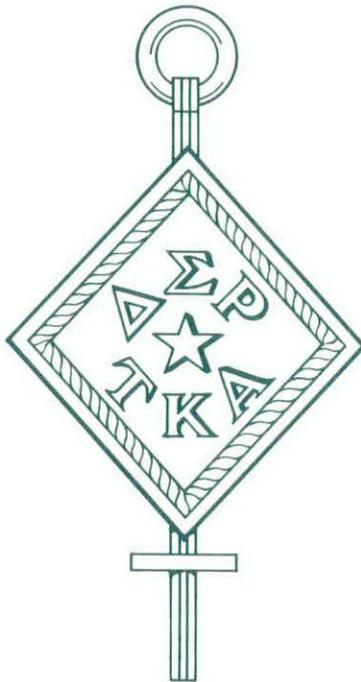
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DONALD O. OLSON

speaker and gavel



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NOVEMBER, 1970

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Indiana State University

April 7-10, 1971

THE EIGHTH ANNUAL DSR-TKR NATIONAL CONFERENCE

INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

April 7-10, 1971

Mark the dates April 7-10 on your calendar now. Ted Walwik of Indiana State University already has plans well under way for an outstanding Conference in 1971. Those who did not attend last year's Conference missed a memorable experience. Don't be left out again this year!

Important Change: Two-man debate will be power-matched in the preliminary rounds this year as a result of action taken at the annual meeting of chapter sponsors. This will provide highly competitive debate for those schools who desire it. Four-man debate will remain the same as last year at the request of the chapter sponsors. This means no power matching in four-man debate for those who prefer less emphasis on the competitive aspects of debate.

Every effort will be made to provide a more important role for the student members of the Society from recognition at the Annual Banquet to the general planning of the National Conference this year. Suggestions for achieving this goal will be welcomed.

Some of the innovations of last year will be continued this year. The opening assembly of the Conference on Wednesday evening will continue to play an important role with an address of welcome from the host school and a report on the state of the Society by National President, Jim McBath. It is necessary for everyone to attend this meeting because important announcements and business will be a part of the meeting.

The dinner party for chapter sponsors and faculty with a social hour proved to be very popular last year and will be continued this year. The sponsor meeting in conjunction with the dinner, attended by almost 100% of the sponsors and conducted by the National President, was so successful that it will be repeated this year.

The dinner party for students on Thursday evening will be continued again this year on the recommendation of the students. Entertainment will be provided for the student delegates. The Seminar on Southern Politics was highly successful last year and something of this nature will be provided again this year.

The events for the 1971 Conference will remain the same as a result of the survey of chapters last year to determine Conference events as reported in the November *Speaker and Gavel*. Every member of the society is invited to make suggestions for improving the National Conference. All must share in the responsibility for the success of the Conference.

George A. Adamson
Chairman
National Conference Committee

Your National Committee:

George A. Adamson, University of Utah
Kenneth E. Andersen, University of Michigan
George F. Henigan, George Washington University
George W. Ziegelmüller, Wayne State University

THE CHANGING FACE OF FORENSICS

JACK H. HOWE

Until the early 1960's no systematic attempt was made to preserve the records of collegiate forensic seasons. Each season seemingly existed as an entity unrelated to what had already transpired, or what was to follow. The first eighty years of intercollegiate forensics in the United States have thus slipped away from us, and any attempt now to resurrect what occurred during one of those years could only be done most painfully and frustratingly incompletely from college papers and yearbooks, speech fraternity publications, local newspapers, college trophy cases, and the failing memories of aging participants.

Dr. Donald Klopf of the University of Hawaii sought to rectify this neglect of the current forensic scene by conceiving and editing volume I of *Intercollegiate Speech Tournament Results* to chronicle the 1961-62 forensic season. He followed this with three further annual presentations. With volume V, for the 1965-66 season, the author assumed the editorship of this undertaking, and has produced a volume each year, including the current volume IX which covers the last forensic season.

It has never been the belief of the series that the mere winning of tournaments is the ultimate goal of forensics, for to devote our lives as directors of the activity to anything so evanescent would be an unrewarding existence. On the other hand, to do well in a speech tournament, whether it is large or small, is an accomplishment of which the students concerned and their forensic director can be justly proud; yet, it is an honor seldom known except to the people actually attending the tournament and usually not by all of them. How few of the tournament participants are actually present at that final awards assembly! Far from overemphasizing winning by collecting tournament results at year's end and disseminating them nationally, therefore, the author feels that perhaps a more nearly correct emphasis on success is being accorded.

Information on tournaments, however, is ephemeral. Few of us who have directed tournaments for a number of years can cast back in our memories and with any degree of accuracy remember the winners of ten or even five years ago, let alone how large the tournaments were or what events were offered. Even our files are seldom in suitable shape to recapitulate the answers to these questions. Information about tournaments, then, must be captured soon after they occur, and (as the author has discovered) one must move as rapidly as if he were catching mercury from a broken thermometer. The historian in the author maintains, however, that this is the data from which studies can be made, trends can be discerned, and on which any history of the forensics of our times must depend.

Originally, just the results of intercollegiate tournaments were listed in *Intercollegiate Speech Tournament Results*, but as the years passed and data collection processes were refined, the number of tournaments reported grew great enough to warrant further elaboration. Lists of the nation's largest tournaments in regard to number of schools and number of partici-

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pants attending, more complete data on the National Debate Tournament than could be obtained by schools not in attendance, statistical summations for the season, and finally the presentation of sweepstakes awards for overall forensic performance came to be included as features of the booklet. On the basis of material compiled in these volumes and other data that the author noted but for which no place in the volumes could be found, taken in conjunction with memories of a forensic participant and director spanning a quarter of a century, certain trends in American tournament forensics may be sketched.

Perhaps the most readily apparent change in the nature of forensics in the past two decades has been the lengthening of the forensic season. Many of us can remember during the early 1950's when our "season" began with a tournament in the middle or latter part of November and concluded with a state tournament or a speech fraternity "national" meet in mid-March or early April. The last few issues of *Intercollegiate Speech Tournament Results*, however, indicate that tournaments now commence with the first weekend in October ("workshops" occur as early as late September) and for the 1969-70 season, the last entries in the booklet are for the weekend of May 22-23. Somewhere between the early 1950's and the late 1960's, the forensic season slowly expanded at both ends until it is now coterminous with the school year. Actually, for some schools, the "season" either begins before they do or concludes after their commencements. What this means for an ambitious forensic director is that his squad must begin its debate research during August and September, considerably in advance of the beginning of the school term; what it means for student participants at the other end of the season is that they are sometimes retained in forensic competition at a time when their own academic well-being suggests an emphasis on final examinations and term papers rather than forensics. Be that as it may, for reasons which the author feels he understands but of which he does not necessarily approve, the extended forensic season has been a notable trend in forensics.

Almost as a corollary of the extended season has come more total utilization of the school year through encroachment of tournaments onto times of traditional school holidays. Thanksgiving, Christmas vacation, and the traditional Easter or spring holiday all now offer tournament opportunities for the squad that wishes to partake of them. The current issue of *ISTR* could discover only two weekends—December 19-20 and 26-27 on which no tournaments were reported. Even Sunday is no longer considered a student-faculty "holiday" and in the past few years a small but significant number of tournaments have arranged either to conclude or begin on this day of the week. The explanation for the increasing favor found by vacation and Sunday tournaments can probably be found in two reasons: 1) as our tournaments have expanded in size our institutions have also utilized more fully their facilities with the result that tournament directors find it ever more difficult to obtain the rooms necessary for tournament operation and hence have turned in desperation to times when their own schools were not in session; and 2) the growth of forensic programs have led, in some instances, to serious incursions on particular students' class time, and a tournament held on a holiday avoids this. Perhaps this shift of tournaments to times formerly not considered proper for them is necessary, but let us not forget that educational theory regards respites in the academic process as important aids to learning. Should not the same, perhaps, be true for foren-

sics? In denying themselves vacations, are directors and their squads surrendering time needed for "forensic recuperation?"

Not only has the forensic season become more lengthy, but the tournaments that comprise it have become more numerous. While no orderly attempt was made during the early 1950's to calculate the number of tournaments in existence, the author feels competent to assert that no more than half as many tournament opportunities existed then as are found now. On the basis of information supplied by eighteen regional sub-editors of the Tournament Calendar of the *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, the author, as editor of the Calendar, estimated that 477 intercollegiate speech meets (including both tournaments and workshops) were contemplated for the 1969-70 season.¹ Subsequent information revealed that twenty-nine of these for certain and possibly another twenty were subsequently cancelled. This still leaves an average of approximately twelve for each week of the school year.

Moreover, tournaments have tended to become larger. Information on the number of students participating in tournaments is usually based on estimates that perforce vary as to their reliability, so it would perhaps be a mistake to rely too heavily on information included in *ISTR* on this count. As to the number of schools attending, however, more exact information is readily available and it is believed the *ISTR* figures here can be used with confidence. Only within the last five years did a tournament sponsored by a single institution attract entries from more than 100 schools. Then, first Harvard, and subsequently Georgetown University and Tulane succeeded in passing this figure. The Pi Kappa Delta Biennial conventions have managed to do so for some time but in that case constitutional provision makes attendance virtually mandatory for member chapters.

But is it possible for tournaments to become both more numerous and universally larger at the same time? Apparently, it is not. A comparison of attendance figures (referring to the number of schools participating) of the same 202 tournaments for which usable information was given for the 1968-69 and the 1969-70 seasons revealed that while eighty-four of these increased in attendance, ninety-nine declined and nineteen remained constant. A conclusion might thus be advanced that the limit of profitable tournament expansion has been reached and that new tournaments develop only at the expense of established ones.

Within tournaments themselves, certain trends have also become apparent in recent years. While all these trends have been stimulated by a complexity of factors, and it is impossible to ascribe any trend to a single cause, it is possible to speculate as to the reasons that prompted them.

The first of these "internal" tournament trends to be noted is the increased length of tournaments in recent years. Twenty years ago, at least in the Midwest, the one-day tournament was a standard feature of the forensic scene; nowadays the one-day meet is becoming difficult to locate anywhere in the country. Within just the last five years, the percentage of tournaments reported in *ISTR* that were two days or longer revealed the rapidity with which this trend is accelerating: 1965-66, 71%; 1966-67, 73%; 1967-68, 80%; 1968-69, 81%; 1969-70, 84%. Explanation for this trend can be found in the attitudes of both the forensic directors who select tournaments

¹ Jack H. Howe, "AFA Calendar 1969-70," *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, VI (Spring 1969), 78; and Jack H. Howe, "AFA Calendar Supplement," *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, VI (Fall, 1969), 138.

for their schedules and the tournament directors themselves. It is difficult to justify for a budget a lengthy trip to attend a tournament that will last a single day. The expense of at least two nights away from campus must thus be figured against the amount of forensic competition to be gained in one day. At the same time, tournament directors are increasingly interested in having the prestige of their tournaments enhanced by distant entrants and prefer to host tournaments that will attract such entries. The interest in debate tournaments that culminate in elimination rounds after a certain number of preliminaries is also far greater than in debate meets that offer only a set number of rounds for all entrants, and it is difficult for scheduling and taxing on participants to crowd preliminaries and eliminations into a single day. As a result, it can be suggested that the day of the one-day speech meet is virtually over and will remain only for workshops and early season practice meets.

A second marked "internal" trend concerns the division of debates in tournaments. Here, the last few years have witnessed the virtual disappearance of separate divisions for women. Tournament division for debate along sexual lines was the original classification when tournaments began in the 1920's. Since that time, however, it has been undergoing a steady decline, although even as late as the 1950's, separate categories for men and women were found at a great many tournaments. During the decade of the 1960's the move to reorient debate divisions along lines of experience ("Senior-Junior," "Experienced-Inexperienced," "Varsity-Novice," etc.) overwhelmingly prevailed. Within the last three years such bastions of women's debate divisions as the venerable tournaments held by Abilene Christian College, Baylor University, and Northwestern State College of Louisiana were restructured along "experience" lines. At the present time, the only section of the country where any significant number of senior college tournaments still maintain separate divisions for women is the Pacific northwest. Four tournaments in Oregon alone have such provision. Across the country, junior colleges still prefer the sexual division, and utilize it even for their national tournament. The combination of Pacific Northwest and Junior College tourneys, however, accounted for a very minor percentage of total tournament activity. Explanation for the disappearance of women's debate divisions would have to acknowledge first the opposition of women debaters themselves to such classifications. For reasons about which the author will not speculate, women in forensics prefer to debate against men. A second explanation, however, must lie in the fact that it has become an accepted rule for "mixed" teams to debate in the men's divisions, and the "mixed" team is a fairly popular combination with forensics directors. The result of subtracting "men's" teams and "mixed" teams from the total number attending a tournament has all too often left an insufficient number of "women's" teams to maintain a profitable division. The cancellation of such divisions at the last moment or their operation with only a handful of teams participating has often left unpleasant memories that have caused "women's" debate to decline still further.

What may be a third "internal" trend attracted the author's attention while he was compiling *ISTR* data during the current year. This was the small, but percentage-wise significant, increase in the number of debate tournaments that did not use the national topic. Certainly this is not new, for various leagues and associations have elected to debate non-national topics in their single tournaments for a number of years (for instance, the

prestigious Missouri Valley League has always done so, while other groups, such as the Arizona Intercollegiate Speech League, have done so on occasion). Again, the American Issues Tournament that Jon Ericson started first at Stanford and then moved to Central Washington State has been in operation for several years. This year, however, "off-topic" debate spread to several new tournaments, notably those at the University of Oklahoma and the University of North Dakota. The latter's tournament, held in April, attracted thirty schools, and the author would assert that it was the largest "non-national topic" tournament to be held in this country for the last twenty years or more. The sponsorship of these new "off-topic" tournaments must reflect both the dissatisfaction of directors and debaters alike with the topics provided by the National Committee and a certain uneasiness on the part of some forensic directors that intensiveness into research on one topic has reached a point with many debaters where it is precluding from debate both persuasiveness of logic and persuasiveness of speech and reducing collegiate debate to a duel with evidence cards. The author has heard a number of his colleagues express the above sentiments far more forcefully than he has just done, and is merely presenting possible motivation behind what may well be a trend in forensics in the next few years—a trend toward tournaments that do not use the national topic.

In essence, the trends in forensics tournaments during the past twenty years has been toward lengthier, more numerous, and larger tournaments. The tendency has also been for schools to organize tournament schedules allowing participation at a greater number of "distant" tournaments. As an indication of this, the first ten tournaments listed in this year's *ISTR* booklet that attracted more than ten schools as entrants gave 131 awards. Of these, 68, or almost 52%, were won by schools located in states other than that in which the tournament was held. If the very small and the league tournaments that automatically restrict their attendance were excluded, it is probable this figure would have been maintained throughout the 342 tournaments in the book.

The flourishing external appearance of forensics, however, should not necessarily be taken as indicative of internal growth. In an age of rapidly expanding collegiate populations when schools now have 10,000 students that had 5,000 five years ago and 2,000 ten years before that, the number of students participating in forensics has simply not kept pace. To cite a personal example, the author taught twelve years ago at a small school where almost seven per cent of the student body were on the forensic squad; it is doubtful if today the same absolute number of students comprise the squad at that school and certainly not that high a percentage. Two of the schools that are most admired by many of us in the West because of the "broad base" for their forensics programs are Stanford University and Brigham Young University. Yet, even in these instances, squad size probably does not greatly exceed 100 students. A survey by Harry Sharp, Jr. and James J. Murphy, of the University of California at Davis, in 1968, compared answers concerning forensic programs of twenty-nine western institutions with answers from the same institutions given to an identical questionnaire ten years earlier.² The comparison revealed that the squad size for forensic

² Harry Sharp, Jr. and James J. Murphy, "Forensic Activities in the West: 1967-68," *Western Speech*, XXXII (Fall 1968), 234-245.

(Continued on page 19)

STUDENT DISSIDENTS: STRATEGIC ROLE IN NIXON'S CONSENSUS STYLE

REBECCA MOWE

Richard Nixon's administration has been characterized by a consensus style of leadership which attempts to draw maximum support from a broad range of political ideologies. In a time when the Vietnam War and racial conflict encourage polarity rather than solidarity, it is especially important for a leader who promised to "bring us together" to find some other issue for which he can arouse enthusiastic support and to use such an issue to his advantage. Hugh Dalziel Duncan suggests that a strong unifying force can be found in hatred for a mutual enemy. "Nothing keeps love or friendship alive more than a common enemy. Political bonds, too, are often forged in hatred for a common enemy; . . ."¹ The unifying influence of hatred is a recurring theme of Eric Hoffer's *The True Believer*, with Hitler's exploitation of anti-Semitic feeling being perhaps his most potent historical support. It is the opinion of this writer that Richard Nixon is employing this unifying strategy as part of his leadership style by capitalizing on the unpopularity of a small segment of American society—campus demonstrators. In supporting its thesis, this essay will examine Nixon's strategy to determine why students have become his focus, how the strategy has been implemented, and what might be its implications for future Administration policy.

Stewart Alsop suggests that to qualify for the position of public enemy, a minority must be virtually powerless in terms of voting strength, unanimously opposed to the President, and widely hated by the public.² Campus demonstrators in particular and students in general fit this description.

Students are powerless in terms of voting strength, having less than two percent of the voting population. For good measure, they are without economic power, for although they have resources sufficient to make Madison Avenue take note, they do not have the kind of concentrated resources that impress Washington.

Student opposition to Nixon has been made abundantly clear. His own staff reports "total hostility to the Administration among young people—just as strong among those who supported him during the campaign as those who opposed him."³ And given the direction of Administration policy, there is little hope of bringing the student bloc into the Nixon fold.

The extent to which student protesters are disliked by the general public has become apparent only in the last year. In recent months, Gallup polls have shown that Americans by a five to one margin hold students primarily responsible for the killings at Kent State rather than the National Guard;⁴ and Harris pollsters have found that college demonstrators are more gen-

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¹ Hugh Dalziel Duncan, *Symbols in Society* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 102.

² Stewart Alsop, "Nixon and the Anti-Kid Vote," *Newsweek*, June 15, 1970, p. 112.

³ *Newsweek*, June 8, 1970, p. 19.

⁴ *Newsweek*, May 25, 1970, p. 30.

erally detested than prostitutes, atheists, and homosexuals.⁵ The most obvious reason for this hatred is public reaction to tactics of student demonstrators. But a second explanation lies in the failure of American students to conform to the image set for them by the public. As Richard Poirier writes, ". . . youth has ceased to fulfill the 'literary' role which American society has been anxious to assign them."⁶ Students are supposed to study, and their natural habitat is the Great University, an institution which embodies all the qualities society imagines itself to possess. When students fail to play their roles, and instead attack the institution, society reacts. Philip Selznick writes,

No enemy is so dangerous as he who threatens these valued principles and structures . . . the haloed revered symbols of public weal, the last bastions which dare not be surrendered, without which life itself seems worthless . . .⁷

Demonstrators have become this enemy, and the American public has responded to the threats to its values with a powerful dislike for students.

Campus demonstrators, then, qualify quite well for duties as black sheep of the national family. They are powerless economically as well as in terms of voting power; they are completely opposed to the Nixon administration and promise to remain so; they are strongly disliked by the very people who form the bulk of Nixon's support.

Students constitute an ideal public enemy. But has the Nixon administration taken advantage of this? The extent to which Nixon has used the scapegoat strategy can be seen in the actions of his administration in dealing with youth, and in public statements to the nation and to young people.

Nixon's actions appear on the surface to be the actions of a leader who wishes to include all dissenting groups in his considerations. He has put his support behind legislation to lower the voting age, arranged meetings with student representatives, and initiated studies on problems of youth. These are conciliatory gestures, attempts to assist students in making their ideas known. But these activities are designed not to accommodate dissent, but rather to give the appearance of accommodation. Support for lowering the voting age has resulted not in a workable Constitutional amendment, but in questionable legislation which faces severe Court tests. Nixon's previous doubts as to the Constitutionality of such legislation have been conveniently ignored. His meetings with student "representatives" exclude those students who disagree strongly with Presidential policies, and these meetings and various commissions are window dressing for an administration that has failed to respond to student dissent. The hours Nixon spends with his showcase commissions do not make up for the hours spent during the post-Cambodia Washington march watching a football game. His actions give only a superficial impression of concern for dissenting student views.

Similarly, many Administration speeches give the impression that Nixon admires and welcomes dissent, while actually alienating students from the Administration and the public from students. Speeches related to student demonstrators and other youth are either conciliatory or inflammatory in nature, although even those which appear to be conciliatory are not intended

⁵ Alsop, "Anti-Kid Vote," p. 112.

⁶ Richard Poirier, "The War Against the Young," *Atlantic*, October, 1968, p. 63.

⁷ Philip Selznick, "Institutional Vulnerability in Mass Society," *The American Journal of Sociology*, LVI (1951), p. 329.

to appeal to the demonstrators themselves, but rather to the famed silent majority and the small group of students who are Administration supporters. One such speech was delivered by Nixon at commencement exercises at General Beadle State College in Madison, South Dakota. The student body at Beadle State, not surprisingly, is among the ranks of Nixon supporters. The address was advertised as an answer to campus revolutionaries, but the choice of audience is indicative of the intention of the President to avoid hostilities and serious issues. Not once in the speech did he mention the Vietnam War, the single most important cause of national student dissent, nor did he speak of other sources of dissent. Instead, he delivered a glowing tribute to America, intoning the virtues of liberty, freedom, justice, and human dignity. As he said in previewing the speech, "The challenge I speak of is deeper [than physical confrontation]: the challenge to our values, and to the moral base of authority that sustains those values."⁸ His speech was conciliatory in that it raised no issues, but it did not constitute a serious attempt to achieve consensus with American youth. It did achieve two things, however. First, it made the President appear to be a reasonable man, sympathetic to young people, yet fully committed to American values. Second, it implied that these young revolutionaries were exactly the opposite—unreasonable, unthinking, and most important, un-American. The whole speech was a comment *on* dissenters, but not *to* them.

A second "conciliatory" statement was made by the President to another gathering of typical American students in the same week, this time at a Billy Graham crusade on the University of Tennessee campus. Here the President told the students that, "I am proud to say that the great majority of America's young people do not approve of violence. The great majority do approve, as I do, of dissent."⁹ In voicing his approval of those students who do not approve of violence, the President is telling the silent majority that although their sons and daughters, the "student majority," are basically good kids, there is another group whose tactics are so undesirable as to isolate them not only from the older generation, but also from the valuable members of their own. In this way, Nixon's rhetoric appeals to the middle American parents who form his power base. One might get the impression from this statement by the President that the group he considers to be undesirable is very small and insignificant. However, he does not consistently distinguish between violent students and the non-violent. The prime example of his failure to isolate violent students from the mainstream on campus is found in his statement following the Kent State incident. Despite the fact those killed and injured were among his "great majority of America's young people" who are non-violent, the President made a sweeping indictment of all present by noting merely that, "when dissent turns to violence, it invites tragedy." It is not difficult to comprehend the harsh attitude of most Americans toward Kent State students when the President himself laid the blame for the killings on the students. The polls on Kent State show the widespread acceptance of Nixon's view and the success of his strategy.

The primary effect of this first group of statements is the enhancement of the President's ethos. He appears very reasonable, very generous, very dignified, very open-minded—in short, everything a president should be. On occasion, he takes the offensive, as at the Air Force Academy, where

⁸ Richard M. Nixon, "Campus Revolutionaries," *Vital Speeches*, July 1, 1969, p. 546.

⁹ *Time*, June 8, 1969, p. 13.

he condemned those who would have "America turn away from greatness," or as in his June 8 television address in which he decried the "mindless attacks on all the great institutions," and claimed that our "great universities are being systematically destroyed." (Note the implication of conspiracy.) The reference to student "bums" is another example.

But for the most part, the Nixon strategy delegates these unstatesmanlike attacks to the Vice President, who carries much of the President's authority with little of the responsibility. Herb Klein, Administration Director of Communications, explains that Agnew's "assignment is to explain in a missionary way what Administration policies are and to seek support for them. He fills a basic need which a President cannot do."¹⁰ Rhetorically, Agnew fills Nixon's need for an agent to deliver what amounts to a restrained hate message aimed at casting college demonstrators in a scapegoat role. And, as Nixon has said of Agnew, "He has done a great job for this administration." Whether or not Agnew is following specific directions from above is not important, for as John Osborne notes,

On things that matter, such as "the subtle dangers" posed to the nation by impudent snobs and liberals "who characterize themselves as intellectuals," the President and the Vice President don't need much direct communication. They understand each other perfectly.¹¹

This writer must conclude with Jules Witcover, among others, "either that Spiro Agnew is abiding by the wishes or the command of his boss, or that he is a fool."¹²

Giving the Vice President the benefit of the doubt, let us consider the effect of some of his much publicized rhetoric. His most famous attack sent middle America running to its dictionary to search for "masochism," "effete," and "impudent." "Snobs" they understood. And "snobs" they liked, for it reflected the widely held resentment of the young elites who form the core of student dissent. Agnew did not have to create a hatred of student dissenters; he had merely to add the official seal of approval to the intense dislike already present. That he is in great demand as a speaker attests to his ability to tell the silent majority what it wants to hear.

In the same month as his New Orleans speech, Agnew delivered an attack in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, which was even more explicit in its approval of anti-kid sentiment. Here he stated,

America cannot afford to write off a whole generation for the decadent thinking of a few. America cannot afford to divide over their demagoguery—or to be deceived by their duplicity—or to let their license destroy liberty. We can afford to separate them from our society—with no more regret than we should feel over discarding rotten apples.¹³

This is perhaps the most clear statement of the Administration's abandonment of a pure consensus style. Agnew is plainly saying that America (and the Administration) can do without such un-American types, will in fact be better off without them. The phrase "separate from our society" clearly places dissidents in the role of social enemy. He even says that they are a

¹⁰ *Newsweek*, November 17, 1969, p. 39.

¹¹ John Osborne, "Spiro Agnew's Mission," *New Republic*, November 15, 1969, p. 20.

¹² Jules Witcover, "Spiro Agnew: The Word's the Thing," *The Progressive*, July, 1970, p. 17.

¹³ *Newsweek*, November 17, 1969, p. 38.

divisive force, indicating that national unity would profit from their "separation." This single paragraph from Agnew's speech summarizes the thrust of the entire Administration approach to young dissenters; they cannot be brought into the national base of support, so they must be cut out and despised.

American youth fill the requirements for a political scapegoat, being, as a group, without voting power, totally opposed to those in power, and widely hated. The Nixon administration has taken advantage of this in its consensus style of leadership by using this hatred of a common enemy to unify its base of support. Student dissidents have become, in Burke's terms, the rhetorical agency rather than purpose. This strategy has been implemented in actions and statements by the President and his vice presidential spokesman.

The analysis is not complete, however, until implications for future strategies and policies are considered. Up to this point, the national dislike for youth has been exploited with restraint by the Nixon administration. Hopefully, this restraint will be continued. But there is every possibility that the Administration may feel forced to extend the use of the student scapegoat. Nixon has assumed the role of statesman very successfully, so successfully that his association with McCarthyism has been virtually forgotten. But there is no guarantee that Administration use of young demonstrators as a unifying force will not extend to the repressive stages, as did the anti-Communist rhetoric of twenty years ago. Such fears have been voiced by Alsop,¹⁴ McEvoy and Miller,¹⁵ and Roscoe and Geoffrey Drummond.¹⁶ Murray Chotiner, Nixon advisor in the McCarthy period, master of the smear campaign, now back in Nixon's inner circle, has commented that campus unrest is a very good issue to keep in mind for campaign purposes.¹⁷ Should the Nixon administration get into serious trouble or should the silent majority be faced with an unacceptable defeat in Southeast Asia, someone will have to pay, and if present strategy counts for anything, the most likely candidate is on the American campus. Even now, Agnew's suggestion that these undesirables be separated from society has the vaguely menacing ring of repression, as did Hitler's "ultimate solution" of the Jewish problem.

Duncan writes,

The "perfect" victim is one whose power is so great that we must summon all our energy, cunning, skill, luck, and piety, to defeat him, or one so beloved that in sacrificing him we give up something of great value.¹⁸

American youth is both beloved and despised, a combination of feelings that has made it very vulnerable to the attacks of an administration which has incorporated it into a consensus style of leadership. Hopefully, this administration will resist the temptation to transform dissenting youth from black sheep status to sacrificial lamb for the American public.

¹⁴ Alsop, "Anti-Kid Vote," p. 112.

¹⁵ James McEvoy and Abraham Miller, *Black Power and Student Rebellion* (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1969), p. 5.

¹⁶ Roscoe and Geoffrey Drummond, "Nixon Could be Tempted," *St. Paul Dispatch*, June 19, 1970.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ Duncan, *Symbols*, p. 146.

CONTEMPORARY CRITICISM: PARADOX AND PROMISE

RUTH WALLINGER

The "now" generation advises us to "do your own thing," but rhetorical critics apparently have difficulty deciding what they should do if they were to take this advice. Articles championing either contemporary public address criticism or historical rhetorical criticism as being our "thing" have frequently appeared in the national and regional speech associations' journals. Paradoxically, however, although the critics of contemporary public address criticism have been silent lately,¹ the fruits of the advocates have not been plentiful.

In 1960, for example, Anthony Hillbruner saw not only a "dearth of criticism of contemporary speakers, but also, for all practical purposes, . . . [a] complete absence . . ." of it by members of the Speech profession.² Joseph W. Wenzel, reviewing *The Great Society: A Sourcebook of Speeches*, said of this 1967 collection of contemporary speeches that "the most disappointing feature of the book is its lack of critical evaluation."³

There are exceptions of course. While only one contemporary criticism appeared in the 1967 and 1968 issues of the Speech Association of America's three journals, seven were published in *Western Speech* during that time. Five such articles appeared in the *Southern Speech Journal* during 1968 alone, and many have appeared in *Speaker and Gavel* over the years. *The Rhetoric of Black Power* by Robert L. Scott and Wayne Brockreide published in 1969 also contains critical assessments of contemporary speakers and speeches by speech scholars. However, the overwhelming output is still by those who choose the historical speaker or speech to "do their own thing."

Apparently the argument put forth by the proponents of contemporary criticism have failed to convince would-be critics. In reality, however, the arguments have seemingly produced some desirable change. Perhaps the positive results of them can best be understood by looking at these arguments as they have been proposed in the journals over the past twenty-five years.

Loren Reid's 1944 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* article dealing with the "Perils of Rhetorical Criticism" envisioned what was to come. He reminded the profession that the usual suggestions given to graduate students as critics of public address were to pick an eminent speaker and be certain that "the big man be safely dead and buried; the principal reason being the prime necessity of critical perspective."⁴ However, with tongue in cheek, Reid

Ruth Wallinger (M.A., Colorado State U.) is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Utah.

¹ For all practical purposes, the last such article was Wayne C. Thompson's "Contemporary Public Address: A Problem in Criticism," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XL (February, 1954), 24-30.

² Anthony Hillbruner, "Creativity and Contemporary Criticism," *Western Speech*, XXIV (Winter, 1960), 6.

³ Joseph W. Wenzel, Review of *The Great Society: A Sourcebook of Speeches*, edited by Glenn R. Capp, *Speech Teacher*, XVII (September, 1968), 252.

⁴ Loren Reid, "The Perils of Rhetorical Criticism," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXX (December, 1944), 419.

noted that “recently, some dwellers in the lunatic fringe have begun to question the scholarly prohibition upon contemporary speakers as a source of doctoral materials.”⁵

Since Reid’s article at least a dozen arguments have been advanced by speech scholars favoring the view that the contemporary speech and speaker are ours to mine. The most frequently heard one is that, regardless of the weight of opposing views, at least valuable data would be preserved in this manner which would otherwise surely be lost. This argument can hardly fail to please even the proponents of historical rhetorical criticism for this will at least “provide future scholars, who will have the advantage of historical perspective, with observations of speakers as they speak, of the immediate audience as they listen, and of the public reaction shortly after the speech is delivered.”⁶ Thus, even if contemporary public address criticism is not an “honorable” endeavour, it has immense potential value for the future critic who would study the speaker after he is safely dead and buried.

Perhaps the next most frequently advanced argument in favor of doing contemporary criticism is a response to the times—everyone else is doing it and they are probably doing it better, so why should we not also do it? Hillbruner suggests that we may be cowards—that we are not daring enough to try to compete with the perceptive, creative, contemporary speech criticism which he sees appearing regularly in magazines such as the *Saturday Review*, *The New Republic*, *Harper’s*, and *The Yale Review*.⁷ Lester Thonssen proposes that the would-be critic of contemporary public address is stifled by all of the warnings to be wholly objective, scientific, and precise.⁸ No matter what the reason for the absence of much contemporary speech criticism by those in our field, there are many who propose that we do it if for no other reason than to keep up with the Joneses.

Closely allied with this argument is the one that says we should be engaged in contemporary criticism because we are the only ones trained to do it. Ralph Richardson asks,

. . . why can’t we, mainly as classically trained rhetorical critics, operate as better reporters of speakers in their natural habitat, the affairs and minds of men. . . . We can report, as rhetorical critics, even better than newspapermen, the real issues upon which he [the speaker] seeks to persuade.⁹

Wayne Thompson carries this argument a step further by suggesting that contemporary speech criticism may be our distinctive role, not only in the academic world but also in society at large.¹⁰ After all, have we not long coveted the living, dynamic, *spoken* word as the unique province of our profession?

Another popular argument in favor of contemporary criticism suggests that such work can add to the fame of the Speech profession. Phillip Tompkins, for example, echoed Hillbruner’s views when he expressed the hope that

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ Wayne N. Thompson, “Contemporary Public Address as a Research Area,” *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIII (October, 1947), 278.

⁷ Hillbruner, *Western Speech*, XXIV (Winter, 1960), 9–10.

⁸ Lester Thonssen, “Random Thoughts on the Criticism of Orators and Oratory,” *Western Speech*, XXXII (Summer, 1968), 185–191.

⁹ Ralph Richardson, “A Suggestion for a Project in Contemporary Criticism,” *Western Speech*, XIX (January, 1955), 7.

¹⁰ Thompson, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXII (October, 1947), 278–279.

critics of contemporary public address would gain the power and influence of the music or drama critic.¹¹

If the case for contemporary public address criticism had to rest solely on these arguments, it would be weak at best. Fortunately, more thought-provoking and substantial arguments in favor of contemporary criticism have also appeared in the journals. Unfortunately, they have not been advanced frequently and often have been discussed in other contexts. For example, in an article dealing with a "hierarchy of research priorities," Tompkins argues that contemporary public address criticism should be carried out because it affords the unique opportunity to study the spoken word "received from the appropriate medium (sound waves) via the appropriate sensory channel (audition)."¹² "In short," he says, "speech cannot be represented adequately in writing, and *even if it could*, the perception and critical judgment of the message could be affected."¹³

Another substantial argument holds that contemporary criticism is able to benefit society. Specifically, according to Hillbruner, it is capable of: 1) calling attention to the best and castigating the poorest public speaking; 2) improving public speaking standards; 3) making public address "an art form coordinate and congenial with, perhaps even superior to, that of the previous 'Golden Ages of Oratory'"; 4) stimulating a "social climate in which public awareness of the proper role of oratory and its accompanying criticism would be as natural to the body politic as the value of other forms [such as] writing, painting, or architecture is"; and 5) bringing into "proper perspective for layman and expert alike the ideal, so often theoretically announced and so seldom practically demonstrated, that public address is one of the primary tools of a democracy and [this] should hasten the day of its ascendancy."¹⁴

Not only can society gain from contemporary speech criticism, but each public speaker stands to get some benefit also from much the same treatment which we give our students. Hopefully, he can improve when he is made cognizant of his weaknesses and strengths. This happens regularly in the fields of drama, music, and literature despite the fact that some of these artists say they pay no attention to their critics.¹⁵

Wayne Brockreide argues that contemporary criticism can lead to establishing a contemporary theory of rhetoric which, in turn, can set the standards for future criticism. He asks:

Where is a critic to get his tools for analyzing the adaptive processes of a speaker unless he understands the theory of adaptive processes? How can he learn what is unique about a speaker unless he knows the norms? How appropriately can he assess a contemporary speaker by applying classical precepts derived from classical norms?¹⁶

In other words, while performing an essential critical task, the contemporary critic is also the creator of new rhetorical theory.

¹¹ Phillip K. Tompkins, "Rhetorical Criticism: Wrong Medium?" *Central States Speech Journal*, XIII (Winter, 1962), 93. cf. Hillbruner, *Western Speech*, XXIV (Winter, 1960), 9.

¹² Tompkins, *Central States Speech Journal*, XIII (Winter, 1962), 94.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 92.

¹⁴ Hillbruner, *Western Speech*, XXIV (Winter, 1960), 9.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁶ Wayne C. Brockreide, "Toward a Contemporary Aristotelian Theory of Rhetoric," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, LII (February, 1966), 40.

Wayne Thompson alluded to three further arguments favoring contemporary criticism in his 1947 article which appear to be quite substantial. He pointed out: 1) that the materials which the rhetorical critic needs for his study are, perhaps, as readily available as they will ever be with the possible exception of the speaker's personal papers; 2) because some speakers such as lawyers and salesmen have no historical purpose and aim solely for immediate effect, it is imperative that they be studied here and now; and 3) "if the significance, even the existence, of rhetorical devices lies in the effect upon the audience, training in contemporary public address is an essential part of the work of any student specializing in rhetoric."¹⁷

It would appear that the proponents of contemporary criticism have the edge. Not only have most of the above arguments appeared frequently over the past twenty-five years in our journals, but all of them have gone unchallenged since 1954. If one measures the effect of the apparently valid arguments solely in terms of critical output, however, a paradox exists for few scholars in our field have published contemporary critiques in our journals and books. If the effectiveness of these arguments is measured in different terms, though, the paradox begins to disappear. That is, a healthy shift in the view of the role of the rhetorical critic away from his being primarily a judge of effect appears to be arising in light of the above arguments and close behind them.

The opponents of contemporary criticism ask how the critic of contemporary public address can correctly identify the historical trends and situations that will give meaning and significance to the speaker's words. What valid indicator of effect does the critic of the contemporary speaker have? Can he rely on votes? Can he rely on polls? Are any measuring devices capable of indicating lasting effect? Wayne Thompson concludes that even "the inclusion of supporting opinions and observations, although helpful, fails to solve the essential problems: the questionable assumption that comparing an address with a preconceived yardstick promises a valid measure of effectiveness."¹⁸

Therefore, a different rationale must be present for the contemporary critic to use. His role was summarized by Anthony Hillbruner in 1968:

The true role of the speech critic is to form these significant aspects [ideas, habits, and values] of the culture by engaging in the debates that develop them. He engages in the debates by criticizing the speeches of those who actively participate in the formulations: the politicians, the statesmen, the agitators, the social and intellectual reformers, the theologians and the speculators.¹⁹

The critic of contemporary public address, in other words, is not primarily concerned with effect. He can serve the speech profession and, more importantly, society in general in the ways suggested in the above arguments by critiquing his contemporaries without worshipping at the feet of the traditional rhetorical criticism standard of effect.

Not only must the contemporary public address critic view his role in this manner to "do his thing" with a clear conscience, but, as Brockreide

¹⁷ Thompson, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIII (October, 1947), 279.

¹⁸ Thompson, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XL (February, 1954), 26.

¹⁹ Anthony Hillbruner, "Speech Criticism and American Culture," *Western Speech*, XXXII (Summer, 1968), 163.

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STUDENT FORUM

TOURNAMENT DEBATING: A CASE FOR GUERRILLA WARFARE

RICHARD DEAN

After reading Wayne Brockriede's article on "College Debate and the Reality Gap," I would like to explore some potential methods of closing that gap. The problem (accurately described by Brockriede) is that tournament debating is non-communicative and de-humanizing (especially about halfway through the season when everyone has become an automaton) and that tournament debating has no carry-over value to the public dialogue of the day.

My basic position is that a change will be brought about in tournament debating only after a long, intense period of rhetorical "guerrilla warfare" is engaged in by a courageous few. Mr. Brockriede bemoans the use of jargon, cliches, trick efficiency devices and artificial somberness. I share his chagrin with these things. Those who wish to change this state of affairs must be willing to pay the "high" price of defeat. The change must come from within and it will come from those who refuse to conform.

The biggest deviation necessary to achieve a "relevant rhetoric" may be in the attitude toward evidence. Evidence is necessary, but when it dominates all other reasoning forces educational value is lost. It is far easier to read a new piece of evidence to dismiss or re-establish an argument than it is to reason from already introduced evidence. The mind is rendered into nothing more than a reading machine. After debating for four years in college, I do not know how anyone could effectively use over five hundred pieces of evidence, yet we all know that many teams carry several times this number of cards with them. This volume can be potentially helpful if one runs into a trick affirmative case. But maybe that case might better be met with analytical questioning at the heart of the case than by sniping at the periphery with evidence that may relate only tangentially.

Certain structural changes and innovations could re-orient the role of evidence. Tournaments on non-national topics with identical evidence provided every unit would be a better test of real debating skill than the traditional tournament. Indeed, some schools have sponsored this type of activity. This is one step that faculty might take. But in the last analysis, the debater himself must make his own stand for a "relevant rhetoric." He can refuse to conform. He can do his research but still place himself in a dominant position over his evidence. As long as judging remains static, such a course of action will result in fewer victories and trophies. But at least the non-conformist debater will have the satisfaction of doing something relevant: he will be learning to communicate his ideas and personality to others. He will not be communicating to another only what falls within the quotation marks of his evidence.

Undue evidence reliance also creates an enforced somberness. I think this is where "guerrilla warfare" must be waged at its harshest level. An occasional joke will loosen up a particular round, but for a more far-reaching

Richard Dean (DePauw '70) debated for four years at DePauw University and currently attends the Indiana University Law School.

effect on collegiate debate it will be necessary for teams to approach specific tournaments with the intended purpose of having a semi-comedy session within their rounds. One Fordham team has done this in recent days. At the New Orleans tournament this year, a particular Fordham team completely refused to conform. Their negative disadvantages, which never changed, included such foibles as how the affirmative plan failed to aid the Indians (state gov'ts don't meet this need), the plan did nothing to cure Vietnam which is America's greatest problem, and the plan provided no necessary comic relief. These are both humorous and substantive disadvantages, yet it was too much for everyone to handle and few would clash with the disadvantages after they had re-established their plans and advantages. This may sound like going too far, but I would think that the teams Fordham met went to their later rounds with their minds a little more attuned to the humorous objection and argument. If they got over their shock, Fordham's opponents learned that debating could actually be fun if they would let it.

The journey toward a "relevant rhetoric" is not only dependent upon re-orienting the use of evidence. Other measures may be employed to achieve this end. I think debaters should take part in the present day discussion of issues facing college students. I think the time is at hand to re-emphasize the audience debate and here the students can act on their own if they run into faculty pressure to concentrate on tournament debating. They can set up debates on their own. At DePauw, with faculty support, experienced debaters and regular "lay students" debated the topic: "Resolved, women should be kept barefoot, pregnant, and in the kitchen." Issues relating to the women's liberation movement were argued in both a serious and humorous manner, hopefully combining the best of both possible worlds.

A number of audience debates on different topics will force the debater away from his evidence dependency complex. This proposal gives the opportunity to close the "reality gap." When soldiers are invading Cambodia, that should be what college students and college debaters argue about, not revenue sharing or wage and price controls. The national topic provides built-in inflexibility and the only way to close the "reality gap" is to opt out of it at times.

Audience debates on non-national topics do not provide the only way to achieve a "relevant rhetoric." It is possible to approach a "relevant rhetoric" from within the confines of the national topic. First, the nature of the topics could be changed. One can make the feeble plea that debate coaches should choose topics more oriented to value judgments rather than facts. This might force people to think for themselves a bit more. In the voting for the 1969-70 and 1970-71 topics, topics about greater freedom of speech received the fewest number of votes. Obviously with things like revenue sharing and wage and price controls to vote for, a topic like greater freedom of speech was not empirical enough. The rhetoric of artificiality calls for lots of facts and figures. Debaters might have to become more philosophical if the nature of the topics were changed. But even though the topic be apparently empirical, debaters can still wage their struggle. They can take empirically oriented topics like the guaranteed income and argue them from philosophical principles. For instance, one could argue for the guaranteed income because all men had a right to live free from want. This could not be documented with *U.S. News* or the Brookings Institute,

but Marx and Arendt have thought on these problems. Such approaches have been laughed out of rounds and will continue to receive this treatment, but they prick the inflated bubble of hot empirical air.

In achieving a "relevant rhetoric," the debater must not lock himself into the formal debate structure. Group discussion, parliamentary debate, and extemporaneous speaking are but a few of the options to be examined by those interested in escaping from an artificial speaking mold.

It will be far easier for the non-professionalized debate schools to wage the campaign for the "relevant rhetoric." A varsity debater in one of the schools that emphasizes winning could ill afford to subvert the old rhetoric. His scholarship money might be put in jeopardy. So here the generalists of the non-professional schools who debate for the experience and enjoyment can render a useful service to their colleagues whose professionalization precludes change. The generalist can save the professional, or at least make his lot a better one.

Those who follow this plan will undoubtedly lose rounds they would normally win. And for what? This plan has no guarantee of successfully changing the current debate format. But those who follow this course of action will at least not have the experience of feeling like sellouts to themselves and wasting four years on a format that is becoming irrelevant and useless. I realize the reward of inner satisfaction will win few converts for this plan. But when college debaters again learn to communicate as persons to other persons, a large step will have been taken in closing the "reality gap." And the joy of this is (laymen's language for the advantage that accrues) that debaters will discover that shedding their one-dimensionality will not only re-unite them with the rhetoric of their fellow man; they will also discover that this re-unification can be enjoyable.

FORENSICS (*Continued from page 7*)

participants ranged from 8 to 60 in the earlier study and from 4 to 75 in the later one. This is scarcely an appreciable change, especially when it is considered that the same survey revealed the number of tournaments the schools attended to have increased from a high of 15 to a high of 40, and forensic budgets to have grown from a high of \$3,400 to a high of \$13,000. Our finances quadruple, our tournament schedules triple, but our squads expand by 25%. Unless serious attempts are made to attract more students to forensic activities the current trends toward "bigger" and "better" tournaments may dramatically reverse.

INTRODUCING DR. E. C. BUEHLER

Prof. E. C. Buehler, University of Kansas, is now Dr. E. C. Buehler. He was awarded an Honorary Doctor of Humane Letters by the University of Nebraska, at their midyear Commencement, January 31, 1970.

"Bill" has been a member of the staff in the Department of Speech and Drama at the University of Kansas since 1925, serving as Director of Forensics for 39 years. He was National President of Delta Sigma Rho from 1942–1953, and until this year National Trustee of Delta Sigma Rho–Tau Kappa Alpha. He is the author or co-author of 22 books on debate and speech communication as well as numerous articles in speech journals.

The recognition printed in the program read as follows:



E. Christian Buehler, a native of Sterling, Nebraska, an effective college teacher for almost half a century, is one of the distinguished pioneers who developed forensics in higher education.

At the close of his military service in World War I his division selected him as a representative of the American Expeditionary Forces to study at Kings College, University of London, in the spring and summer of 1919. He received a Bachelor of Arts degree from Central Wesleyan College, Warrenton, Mo., in 1920, and a Bachelor of Oratory from Northwestern University the following year. In 1923 he became the first student to earn a Master's degree from Northwestern's School of Speech.

He began his teaching at Hamline University in 1921, continued at Washburn College in Topeka, and in 1925 joined the faculty of the University of Kansas where as Director of Forensics and Head of the Speech Division he earned a national reputation for effectiveness as a teacher, for his writing, and for his leadership in his field.

Three generations of students at Kansas remember Professor Buehler as an innovator, one who kept in the vanguard of his profession. He was one of the early advocates of teaching films and won wide acclaim for his work in adult education especially in the area of business. Since his retirement from the University of Kansas, Professor Buehler has accepted several visiting professorships, including one at the University of Nebraska in 1968. He has also continued his writing and the latest of his several textbooks was published a year ago.

Professor Buehler served extensively with the leading professional and honorary societies in the forensic field and in 1964 received major awards, one from the forensic honorary, Delta Sigma Rho–Tau Kappa Alpha, and the other for distinguished teaching, from the University of Kansas.

The above was prepared for *Speaker and Gavel* by Leroy T. Laase, former president of Delta Sigma Rho–Tau Kappa Alpha. The editor affectionately joins in the sentiment expressed.

(Continued on page 22)

SCHEDULE OF EVENTS

1971 NATIONAL CONFERENCE

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7, 1971

- 6:00- 8:00 p.m. REGISTRATION
9:00-10:00 p.m. OPENING ASSEMBLY

THURSDAY, APRIL 8, 1971

- 7:45 a.m. Breakfast for participants in Two-Man Debate and in the Student Congress
8:15 a.m. Breakfast for participants in Four-Man Debate
8:30 a.m. ROUND I—TWO-MAN DEBATE
8:30-10:00 a.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Party Caucuses
9:00 a.m. ROUND I—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
10:00 a.m. ROUND II—TWO-MAN DEBATE
10:30 a.m. ROUND II—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
10:30-11:30 a.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Opening Legislative Assembly
11:30 a.m. ROUND III—TWO-MAN DEBATE
11:45-12:45 p.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Main Committee Meetings
12:00 Noon ROUND III—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
1:15- 2:30 p.m. Lunch
2:30- 4:00 p.m. ROUND 1—EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING
2:30- 4:00 p.m. ROUND I—PERSUASIVE SPEAKING
2:00- 4:30 p.m. NATIONAL COUNCIL MEETING
2:30- 4:30 p.m. STUDENT COUNCIL MEETING
3:00- 5:00 p.m. Seminar (Topic to be determined)
4:00- 5:15 p.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Main Committee Meetings
5:30- 6:30 p.m. MODEL INITIATION
7:00 p.m. DINNER PARTY FOR FACULTY
7:30 p.m. DINNER PARTY FOR STUDENTS

FRIDAY APRIL 9, 1971

- 7:45 a.m. Breakfast, participants in Two-Man Debate and in the Student Congress
8:15 a.m. Breakfast, participants in Four-Man Debate
8:30 a.m. ROUND IV—TWO-MAN DEBATE
9:00 a.m. ROUND IV—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
8:30-10:00 a.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Main Committee Meetings
10:00 a.m. ROUND V—TWO-MAN DEBATE
10:30 a.m. ROUND V—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
10:15-11:15 a.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Joint Committee Meetings
11:15-12:00 Noon STUDENT CONGRESS, Steering Committee
11:30 a.m. ROUND VI—TWO-MAN DEBATE
12:00 Noon ROUND VI—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
12:30- 2:00 p.m. Lunch
1:15- 2:15 p.m. STUDENT CONGRESS, Legislative Session
2:30- 4:00 p.m. ROUND II—EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING
2:30- 4:00 p.m. ROUND II—PERSUASIVE SPEAKING
2:30- 4:00 p.m. STUDENT COUNCIL MEETING
2:00- 4:30 p.m. NATIONAL COUNCIL MEETING
4:30 p.m. ELECTION OF STUDENT OFFICERS
7:00 p.m. CONFERENCE BANQUET
9:30 p.m. FACULTY SOCIAL HOUR

SATURDAY, APRIL 10, 1971

7:45 a.m.	Breakfast, participants in Two-Man Debate and in the Student Congress
8:15 a.m.	Breakfast, participants in Four-Man Debate
8:20 a.m.	GENERAL ASSEMBLY, TWO-MAN DEBATE
8:30 a.m.	OCTO-FINAL ROUND, TWO-MAN DEBATE
8:30-12:00 Noon	STUDENT CONGRESS, Legislative Assembly
9:00 a.m.	ROUND VII—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
10:00 a.m.	QUARTER-FINAL ROUND, TWO-MAN DEBATE
10:30 a.m.	ROUND VIII—FOUR-MAN DEBATE
11:30 a.m.	SEMI-FINAL ROUND, TWO-MAN DEBATE
11:45- 1:30 p.m.	Lunch
1:00- 2:30 p.m.	FINALS, EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING
1:00- 2:30 p.m.	FINALS, PERSUASIVE SPEAKING
2:00- 4:00 p.m.	FINALS, TWO-MAN DEBATE
4:00- 4:45 p.m.	AWARDS ASSEMBLY

BUEHLER (*Continued from page 20*)

The Citation:

In recognition of the leadership he has contributed to the development of forensics in higher education, with respect for his outstanding service as a teacher and writer, and with pride in his accomplishments as a native of Nebraska, the University of Nebraska is pleased to confer upon E. Christian Buehler the Honorary Degree, Doctor of Humane Letters.

Dr. E. C. Buehler, your many friends and professional associates salute you as one who by his achievements in teaching, writing and professional activities has appropriately earned the honor bestowed upon you; but to your close friends and professional associates you will continue to be affectionately called "Bill."

CRITICISM (*Continued from page 16*)

and Scott point out, "man must struggle to understand and to influence. To do less than struggle with the issues of one's own lifetime is to be less than fully human."²⁰ Perhaps the adoption of this view of the rhetorical critic's role will increase the number of criticisms of contemporary speakers and speeches done by people in our field. For those who prefer to "do their thing" by studying the safely dead speaker, there is still the respected view of the rhetorical critic's role as being to objectively assess effect and the wisdom of the speech to give them a clear conscience.

²⁰ Robert L. Scott and Wayne Brockreide, *The Rhetoric of Black Power* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., 1969), p. vii.

DELTA SIGMA RHO-TAU KAPPA ALPHA

Treasurer's Report—July 1, 1969–June 30, 1970

INCOME

Initiations	\$2380.00	(Budgeted: \$3800.00)
Investment Income (Cash)	4022.10	(" 4000.00)
Charters	200.00	(" 100.00)
Special Gifts	—	(" —)
Miscellaneous	434.21	(" 200.00)
Members-at-Large	20.00	(" 50.00)
	\$7056.31	(" \$8150.00)

DISBURSEMENTS

Speaker and Gavel:

Issues	\$4013.86	(Budgeted: \$4000.00)
Editor's Office	300.00	(" 300.00)
Printing and Postage	96.94	(" 200.00)
President's Office	200.00	(" 200.00)
Secretary's Office	1041.09	(" 1000.00)
Treasurer's Office	200.00	(" 200.00)
Historian's Office	200.00	(" 200.00)
Maintenance of Records by Allen Press	711.28	(" 700.00)
Dues and Expenses re. Assn. of College Honor Societies	290.31	(" 150.00)
Expenses re. SAA Committee on Debate-Discussion	174.75	(" 150.00)
Membership Certificates	372.87	(" 450.00)

Awards:

Speaker-of-the-Year	—	(" 100.00)
Distinguished Alumni	26.37	(" 25.00)
Trophy for NFL	—	(" 125.00)
SAA Life Membership Payment	200.00	(" 200.00)
Student Council	—	(" 250.00)
National Conference	685.35	(" 800.00)
Miscellaneous	124.62	(" 100.00)
	\$8637.44	(" \$9150.00)

Deficit: \$1581.13 (Budgeted Deficit: \$1000.00)

Kenneth G. Hance, *Treasurer*

FINANCIAL REPORT OF DSR-TKA NATIONAL CONFERENCE, 1970

The following Financial Report is in response to some requests from chapter sponsors. Hopefully it will help all members to understand some of the financial problems of the society. It should be noted that the University of Alabama contributed \$1,500 to cover conference expenses and that the National Council contributed \$430.35.

The following expenditures, not included in the report, help to give a more accurate perspective of Conference costs. Total contribution of the University of Alabama \$2,600.00.

1. Approximately \$1,100 of additional costs were absorbed by the University of Alabama as follows:
 - \$500.00 cost of maintaining buildings used for Conference events during the University's spring vacation.
 - \$100.00 cost of postage provided by the Speech Department (Debate Squad).
 - \$500.00 extra clerical time and administrative overhead, Office of Conference Activities.

2. To reduce the cost of the Conference, only three judges were hired at the usual fee of \$50.00. The Department of Speech provided personnel for the usual judging and administrative tasks as follows: 5 faculty members, 6 graduate assistants, 7 undergraduate students, 4 former debaters. Those twenty-two persons were provided with meal tickets but received no cash payment.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

Submitted by Annabel D. Hagood, Conference Director, University of Alabama

RECEIPTS

276 Student registration fees @ \$ 5.00	\$1,380.00
93 Faculty meal tickets @ 11.50	1,069.50
276 Student meal tickets @ 14.50	4,002.00
Miscellaneous meal tickets	22.00
Cash subsidy from University of Alabama	1,500.00
National Council	430.35
	\$8,403.85

EXPENDITURES

AWARDS (L. G. Balfour Co.)	
58 Certificates	\$ 103.53
20 Trophies	499.78
	\$ 603.31

SPEAKER AND GAVEL

25

ENTERTAINMENT (Student Dinner)	150.00
GUEST JUDGES 3 @ \$50.00	150.00

MEALS*

Br.—lu. Th., Fri., Sat.	2,685.75	
Student dinner	868.38	
Faculty dinner	618.00	
Conference banquet	1,990.00	
		6,162.13
SECRETARIAL HELP (during conference)		150.00
SEMINAR ON SOUTHERN POLITICS		220.00
(honoraria for 3 speakers)		
PUBLICITY PICTURES		50.00

LOCAL TRANSPORTATION

Chartered buses	160.00	
Personal cars	79.80	
University cars	16.10	
		255.90

MATERIALS AND SUPPLIES

Address labels	7.00	
Duplicated materials	89.14	
Time cards	19.47	
Ballots	60.00	
Office supplies	93.44	
Covers for Conference booklet	132.65	
Signs	19.00	
		420.70
POSTAGE		100.22
LONG DISTANCE CALLS		82.20
FLOWERS (banquet and dinners)		47.92
PLANNING LUNCHEON		11.47
TOTAL		\$8,403.85

* Cost of faculty social hours included in cost of meals.

The National Conference as revealed in this report turns out to be a genuine bargain for participating members, but a heavy responsibility for the host school.

Your Conference Committee
George A. Adamson, Chairman

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