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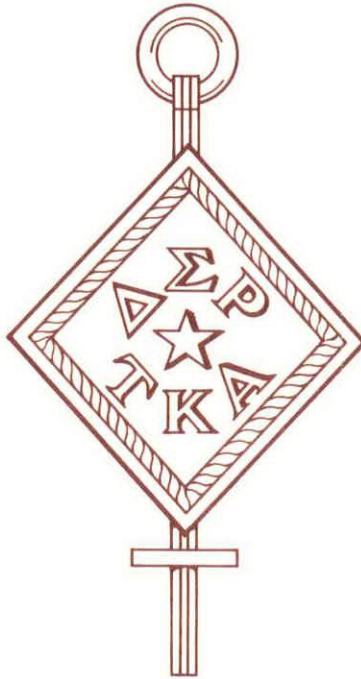
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DSR-TKA NATIONAL CONFERENCE

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UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

March 27–30, 1974

1974 NATIONAL CONFERENCE

TO ALL CHAPTERS:

Plans for the 1974 National Conference are now well under way. Conference Director Ronald Matlon assures us of a hearty welcome at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst March 27-30, 1974.

Depending upon the vagaries of United States mail and printing deadlines you may have received the complete packet of tournament materials from Dr. Matlon by the time these words appear in print. Thus, to save space in our journal we are not going to print the schedule of events. Although there will be some minor changes in the schedule of events, the *Speaker and Gavel* Volume 10, Number 1 (November, 1972) contains a tentative schedule and the complete "Rules for National Conference Events."

Several things about the arrangements for the upcoming conference are noteworthy: Perhaps most importantly, this is the first time in many years the National Conference will be held at a time other than the Easter weekend. With the change in academic calendars in late years it seems appropriate that our conference should both be earlier and at a time other than the Easter weekend. Fortunately, Massachusetts is one of the many schools that have their Spring break other than the Easter vacation and thus can host the event with availability of all their resources. Further, it appears that we will be able to have housing on the University campus itself and at more moderate rates than has been true in the past. Secondly, it appears as if this will solve our typical problem of busing and the tight time schedule.

As always the conference will feature many activities important to the society other than the competitive events themselves. There will be national council meetings, student election of officers, initiation of new members, announcement of the Speaker of the Year and other awards. Tournament activities will include persuasive speaking, extemporaneous speaking, student congress, two-man debate and either or both of four-man debate and contemporary issues debate.

We look forward to seeing a large proportion of our chapters represented at the 1974 National Conference.

Kenneth E. Andersen

THE CONCESSION SPEECH: THE MACARTHUR-AGNEW ANALOG

JAMES W. CHESEBRO AND CAROLINE D. HAMSHER

The concession speech constitutes a formal conceding or yielding in a conflict after the issues have been resolved in fact. The concession speech is frequently employed to resolve symbolically a bitter and prolonged conflict. Strategically, a concession speech is made to reduce the result of the conflict to a more tolerable level of tension while attempting to preserve the integrity of the losing side in the conflict.

Concession speeches are common and pervasive within the American culture. The concession speech is an established convention in American politics. Following a political campaign, the final election returns often produce a statement of concession by the losing candidate. A political figure might also offer a formal concession following forced or voluntary resignation, recall, or impeachment. Likewise, the concession speech is a formal dimension of American entertainment. The concession speech is likely to emerge in postgame interviews with losing athletic coaches and players. Any situation involving a conflict in which one side wins and the other loses is the preliminary for a speech of concession, whether the issue be decided by the vote, by the scoreboard, by military supremacy, by economic pressure. The loser is the one who may concede.

Such concessions can be treated as essentially *rhetorical* concepts. Regardless of the diverse contexts in which they occur or the various types of speakers who employ them, both the verbal and nonverbal aspects of concessions reveal common principles and stylistic characteristics which would allow us to treat all concessions as examples of a single and discrete rhetorical genre.¹ We shall indicate why it is beneficial for the rhetorician to view concessions as a rhetorical genre, indicate why analog criticism has been used to extract the enduring characteristics of rhetorical concessions, apply analog criticism (as a method) to two speeches in order to identify some of the major characteristics of rhetorical concessions, and finally offer theoretical speculations regarding the role of rhetorical concessions in contemporary transactions.

I

While concession speeches may seem ephemeral, the concession speech is, nonetheless, an especially intriguing rhetorical genre to examine because of the enduring rhetorical issues generated by the form. Concession speeches are an extremely useful form to explore and assess because of the self-contained and self-generated *dialectic* conflicts found within these symbolic acts. While such speeches are ostensibly an effort to respond to the outcome of a conflict situation, they generally seek to shift the clash of interests between two groups to a different but more acceptable

James W. Chesebro is an assistant professor and Caroline D. Hamsher is an instructor in the Department of Speech, Temple University.

¹ For a more extended treatment of a rhetorical genre in this regard, see: Karlyn Kohrs Campbell, *Critiques of Contemporary Rhetoric* (Belmont, California: Wadsworth, 1972), p. 37; and "The Rhetoric of Women's Liberation: An Oxymoron," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 59 (February, 1973), 74-86.

level of conflict. For the losing politician, for instance, the concession speech generally requires that he or she admit that a campaign has been lost, while claiming simultaneously that the campaign organization has efficiently and productively exerted meaningful time and energy; grant that the opposition's policies were more acceptable to the electorate, while continuing to retain a commitment to his or her policies; and endorse and abide by the decision of the electoral process, while admitting that the decision-making process has denied the popularity and validity of the candidate, the program, and the organizational efforts of the campaign. The nature of the rhetorical situation requires that the politician retain this dialectic within the concession speech—the politician must sustain the power base provided by those who worked within the campaign while also ensuring that he or she, the “loser,” can work with the winner.

In addition, the concession speech is an excellent vehicle for examining *image* conflicts. Those who concede attempt to retain an image of righteousness, honesty, and expertise while admitting that the opposition's position has prevailed.²

Moreover, the concession speech reveals the *dramatic* nature of conflict situations. Conflicts are inherently dramatic, and drama requires resolution—the pollution and guilt generated by a conflict must be removed if a social order is to function effectively.³ The concession speech is the vehicle used to secure a new social relationship—it is intended to purify and redeem both sides involved in the conflict, and especially the weaker or losing side.

Finally, the concession speech is an intriguing form for examining the *relationship between rhetoric, power, and ritual*. The concession speech, while retaining its rhetorical function, also functions as a convention which allows power realignments to occur in a socially acceptable way within the society⁴; the concession speech is a social ritual used to signify power shifts.

II

While the characteristics of the concession speech might be examined from any number of perspectives, we have found it especially useful to examine this rhetorical form by way of *analog criticism*. For the rhetorical critic, the theoretical and methodological characteristics of analog criticism

² For a more carefully stated description of the variables affecting an image, see: Theodore J. Marr, “Q and R Analyses of Panel Data on Political Candidate Image and Voter Communication,” *Speech Monographs*, 40 (March, 1973), 56–65. Marr argues that trustfulness, straightforwardness, trustworthiness, realness, reliability, sincerity, competence, and goodness are primary factors related to image manipulation.

³ We have found Kenneth Burke's perspective of rhetorical dramas especially useful; see: *A Grammar of Motives and A Rhetoric of Motives* (Cleveland: World Publishing, 1962). Others may wish to examine attempts to recast Burke's conception of dramatism solely from a rhetorical view; see: Bernard L. Brock, “Rhetorical Criticism: A Burkeian Approach,” in *Methods of Rhetorical Criticism: A Twentieth Century Perspective* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972), pp. 315–327.

⁴ The relationship between rhetoric and ritual is examined in greater detail by Paul Newell Campbell, *Rhetoric/Ritual: A Study of the Communicative and Aesthetic Dimensions of Language* (Belmont, California: Dickenson, 1972), especially Chapter 5.

were described by Lawrence Rosenfield in 1968.⁵ While Rosenfield was especially intrigued by the benefits analog criticism could yield about single speakers, he observed that rhetorical criticism which compares speeches removed from each other in time and space yields "an element of objectivity" in criticism because "speeches are played off each other in the critic's analysis," provides a foundation for identifying "certain constants operating in an otherwise undefined form," "allows a critic to attribute similarities found in messages to the situation or the genre than to the individual speaker," and provides a comparative basis for assessing the effectiveness and artistry of individual speakers.⁶ Rosenfield illustrated the power, implications, and method of analog criticism by way of his Richard Nixon-Harry Truman and George Wallace-Patrick Henry analogs.⁷

We have used analog criticism to reveal the essential characteristics of the concession speech. In our view, the concession speech is exemplified in two speeches, both national and significant statements in their respective eras. The first speech was given by Douglas MacArthur on April 19, 1951, before a joint session of the Congress.⁸ Eight days before, President Truman had removed MacArthur from his command in the Far East because of policy differences between MacArthur and the administration. MacArthur had repeatedly and publicly advocated a military solution in Korea, in opposition to the political solution being sought by the President. The speech offered a defense of that military solution, couched in historical terms as a response to the growing and global threat of Communism. MacArthur responded to charges that he was a warmonger and stressed his own career as a devoted soldier with over 50 years of service to his nation.

The second speech to be examined was given by Vice-President Spiro T. Agnew.⁹ On October 15, 1973, five days after his resignation from the Vice-Presidency of the United States, Spiro T. Agnew spoke to the nation in a televised address, seeking to justify that resignation and to deny that he was guilty of wrongdoing. His task was complicated by the fact that the Nixon Administration had been persistently challenged for seven months on both ethical and legal grounds due to the Watergate Affair and related issues of campaign spending; the nation generally was dubious about the integrity of politicians.¹⁰ After attacking the news media for having been "prejudicial to my civil rights," Agnew then sought to explain the charges which had been leveled against him. In the final portions of

⁵ Lawrence W. Rosenfield, "Case Study in Speech Criticism: The Nixon-Truman Analog," in *Methods of Rhetorical Criticism: A Twentieth Century Perspective*, ed. by Robert L. Scott and Bernard L. Brock (New York: Harper and Row, 1972), pp. 157-179.

⁶ Rosenfield, p. 158.

⁷ *Ibid.*, and Lawrence W. Rosenfield, "George Wallace Plays Rosemary's Baby," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 55 (February, 1969), 36-44.

⁸ All subsequent quotations from General MacArthur's speech are found in Glenn R. Capp, ed., *Famous Speeches in American History* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1963), pp. 210-218.

⁹ All subsequent quotations from former Vice-President Agnew's speech are found in the *New York Times*, October 16, 1973, p. 34.

¹⁰ For a convenient summary of these events, see: "Week of Shocks," *Time*, October 22, 1973, pp. 14-15; and Anthony Ripley, "The Evidence Was Dammning: After the Defiance, Guilt and Resignation," *New York Times*, October 14, 1973, section 4, p. 2.

the address, Agnew defended the Nixon Administration, offered proposals for legislation which could better control campaign financing, and praised the continuing strength of the American system.

Differences certainly exist in the nature of the speakers and their situations. On April 11, 1951, Truman's announcement that General of the Army MacArthur had been relieved of his command in the Far East caused astonishment throughout the nation and outrage from many of the members of the Republican-dominated Congress. The order was issued with the unanimous agreement of the Joint Chiefs of Staff as a reaction to MacArthur's continuing support of the military extension of the conflict in any way that would almost certainly have brought the People's Republic of China directly into the fighting. The Truman Administration policy was a politically oriented one of limited warfare, seeking to contain the conflict, to retain the support of our allies, and to avoid extending our commitment to troops and supplies in a manner which might endanger U.S. control in the Middle East and Europe. Public opinion was strongly in MacArthur's favor, with the Gallup poll showing 69% supporting him and only 29% agreeing with the President's action. Truman was burned in effigy throughout the nation, and the House Republican leader, Joseph Martin, openly discussed impeachment. MacArthur's arrival in the country, his reception in New York City, and his appearance in Washington were all scenes of tumultuous and enthusiastic support. Speaking at the invitation of Congress, the General was interrupted over thirty times with applause, and on concluding strode from the House chamber amidst a resonating din of cheers. He was, after all, the hero of the Philippines, the leader who had "returned" as he had promised, the signer of the peace treaty with Japan, the military governor of Japan, a soldier with over 50 years in the service of the nation—almost a Messianic figure in the eyes of many. His charisma was virtually overwhelming.¹¹

Spiro T. Agnew, on the other hand, came to the speaking situation a sorrowful, diminished figure. After more than four years in the Vice-Presidency presenting himself as the exponent of morality and law, the bulwark of decency, and after months of insisting that he was innocent of any of the charges for which he was being investigated, he stood as a convicted felon. Having engaged in plea bargaining, he had not been imprisoned but had been significantly fined and placed on probation. Whether or not he was to be disbarred in Maryland, his home state, was yet to be decided at the time of the speech. He could not be tried on additional federal criminal charges, but civil suits could still be brought. In light of all these events, Spiro T. Agnew had chosen to resign from the Vice-Presidency, an act unprecedented under such circumstances. Agnew had requested and had been granted television time to speak to the nation on his own behalf. His public image was tarnished irreparably, if not destroyed. To the kindest of the public, he was a pitiful figure; to the unkindest, a villain.¹²

While the differences between these two rhetorical situations are certainly easy to detect, perhaps more revealing are the rhetorical similarities.

¹¹ For a convenient summary of these events, see: Capp, *op. cit.*, pp. 206-210; and Eric F. Goldman, *The Crucial Decade—And After: America, 1945-1960* (New York: Random House, 1960), pp. 202-212.

¹² See: Christopher Lydon, "Agnew's Farewell: Not Quite Ready to Go Quietly," *New York Times*, October 21, 1973, section 4, p. 2.

Seven shared characteristics exist between the two speakers and situations which suggest that a rhetorician may want to determine if the two speeches are, indeed, examples of one rhetorical genre:

(1) Both speakers occupied similarly significant positions of power and prestige within the established hierarchy—MacArthur was commander of U.S. and U.N. forces in Asia during a major military epoch; Agnew was the second ranking official in the Executive Branch during the major political upheaval generated by the Watergate Affair. We assume that their relatively high positions in the military and political hierarchies constitute a powerful commitment to these institutions.

(2) Both speakers challenged the controlling political standards of their respective periods—MacArthur advocated increased military activity when administration commitments were directed toward political negotiations; Agnew admitted political collusion during a period when the nation was seeking to establish a new level of political morality.

(3) Both speakers spoke at a time when national security and prestige were conceived and invoked as important and dominant issues. MacArthur had challenged the military lines of authority during a period of war; Agnew had challenged the importance of political morality as Executive power declined because of an increasing public distrust of the ethics of the Executive and his associates.

(4) Both speakers were removed from their positions or offices by Presidential action or pressure. When President Truman removed General MacArthur, he directly and publicly assumed responsibility for the dismissal.¹³ President Nixon's efforts to remove Vice-President Agnew from his office were conducted indirectly and secretly. Agnew entered into prolonged negotiations with Nixon to "guarantee that he would not go to prison."¹⁴

(5) Both speakers believed or at least both asserted that they were innocent of any wrongdoing.

(6) Both speakers found it necessary to indicate or admit that their positions were unacceptable to superior powers outside their control.

(7) Both speakers sought to retain their individual dignity as well as urge respect for the institutions which had challenged their positions and dignity.

An analogical analysis of the two speeches would clearly reveal both the similarities and differences in the two speakers and their situations. Moreover, and more significantly from a theoretical perspective, such an analysis of the internal structures of the speeches justifies treating them as examples of one rhetorical genre, the concession. An analogical analysis offers evidence, then, to support generic uniqueness as well as to reveal the constants which appear to define the concession speech.

III

Four unique rhetorical features of the concession speech are examined here by way of four theoretical perspectives. In our view, a concession

¹³ Capp, p. 209.

¹⁴ For a detailed discussion of these secret negotiations, see: James M. Naughton with John M. Crewdson, Ben A. Franklin, Christopher Lydon, and Agis Salpukas, "How Agnew Bartered His Office To Keep From Going To Prison," *New York Times*, October 23, 1973, p. 1ff.

is a specific response to a dialectic or conflict situation requiring a selective use of image manipulation enacted through dramatic and ritualistic modalities. While various perspectives might be used to identify the nature of the concession speech, the *dialectic*, *image*, *dramatic*, and *ritualistic* frames constitute the theoretical foundation for this analysis. In addition, the substantive and formal parameters of the concession speech are contrasted to consensus, confrontation, and apologia (as rhetorical forms) in order to distinguish among the four forms and to offer a rationale for viewing a concession as a unique rhetorical form.

Of the rhetorical strategies for dealing with dialectic or conflict situations, *the concession speech alone retains some of the issues but seeks to reduce the level of tension produced by the outcome of the immediate situation*. It may be reasoned during concessions that yielding on issues is necessary because a particular conflict cannot be eliminated, or that a prolonged and bitter conflict cannot be resolved favorably or without overwhelming losses on other issues, or that it is strategically desirable to signify the end of intense, active involvement in a conflict. Yet, concessions are generally made with the full realization that one believes in or may want (in other contexts) to reassert oneself and one's programs. Such intention would require that one possess the credibility and power base to reinitiate, at least in part, the programs, actions, or issues involved in the original conflict.

In contrast, the consensus strategy is the most common rhetorical form controlling conventional views of how conflicts should be eliminated in speech-communication.¹⁵ Through use of this strategy, conflict resolution is sought by creating an identification or merger of common and shared interests and identities between/among opponents. The consensus strategy, as a rhetorical prescription, assumes that conflicts are essentially differences of opinion rather than profound moral or ideological challenges,¹⁶ and that compromises are possible which allow both sides of a conflict to secure policy control and benefits which exceed their disadvantages. In rhetorical confrontations, on the other hand, opponents attempt to eliminate conflict by symbolically or actually destroying the institutions, agents, sources, or symbols of power of the adversaries.¹⁷ Confrontations occur because of the lack of a common decision-making structure and ideological base which would allow consensus to occur. By yet another strategy, the

¹⁵ While a host of references might be provided which deal directly with the consensus strategy, we have found it convenient to refer to Howard H. Martin and C. William Colburn, *Communication and Consensus: An Introduction to Rhetorical Discourse* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972).

¹⁶ Herbert W. Simons makes this argument in "Persuasion in Social Conflicts: A Critique of Prevailing Conceptions and a Framework for Future Research," *Speech Monographs*, 39 (November, 1972), 227-247.

¹⁷ We have found it convenient to employ Robert L. Scott and Donald K. Smith's description of the confrontation strategy throughout this analysis; see: "The Rhetoric of Confrontation," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 55 (February, 1969), 1-8. In arguing, as we do later, that the confrontation strategy predominantly deals with image manipulation indirectly and nonverbally, we have in mind the analysis offered by Edward P. J. Corbett, "The Rhetoric of the Open Hand and the Rhetoric of the Closed Fist," in *Dissent: Symbolic Behavior and Rhetorical Strategies*, ed. by Haig A. Bosmajian (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972), pp. 71-83.

apologia,¹⁸ an advocate attempts to justify what others have perceived as wrongdoing and thereby deny the validity of the conflict; techniques involve shifting responsibility for an act or policy, denying accusations of opponents, and attacking the opponents. The goal of the apologia is to achieve a judgment of innocence. Consensus, confrontation, and apologia, then, are common rhetorical modes in that all three are designed to end a conflict by eliminating opposition; a concession, alternatively, retains the dialectic relationship but attempts to diminish the anxiety associated with having lost to the opposition.

In the speeches under consideration here, both MacArthur and Agnew, while yielding to the situation, retain the dialectic positions and seek to reduce the tensions resulting from their loss in the conflict. Both speakers describe the historical background for their acts or policy positions. MacArthur examines the changes which have taken place in Asia and considers the relationship of Asia to the global threat of Communism. Agnew places his acts in the context of the traditional relationship between government contractors and campaign fund raising. History is brought up to date with respect to the immediate situation. Agnew's argument is developed thus: "Public officials who do not possess large personal fortunes face the unpleasant but unavoidable necessity of raising substantial sums of money to pay their campaign and election expenses. In the forefront of those eager to contribute always have been the contractors seeking non-bid state awards." Describing the structure of U.S. control of the Pacific, which "properly maintained would be an invincible defense against aggression," MacArthur stresses that "the President's decision to intervene in the support of the Republic of Korea . . . from a military standpoint proved a sound one. . . ." However, the intervention of Red China with ground forces created a new situation which demanded "a drastic revision of strategic planning if our political aim was to defeat this new enemy as

¹⁸ The concept of the apology strategy may initially appear confusing. By its connotative associations, a reader may assume that an apology is an admission of wrongdoing and request for forgiveness. The term is not used in this fashion by most rhetoricians. The apology strategy is generally used more precisely and uniquely to refer to the classical conception of an *apologia* or attempt to deny accusations that certain acts were wrongdoing. However, a precise definition of the apologia does not really exist within the discipline. Rosenfield, *op. cit.*, has offered the most significant and concise theoretical and applied definitions of the term, but there remains some difficulty with the term even with his analysis. He notes, for example, that the apologia is an attempt by a speaker to "clear himself of accusation" and offer a "defense relating primarily to the interpretation of past facts" (p. 161). At another point, he argues that during an apologia, an "audience" is asked "to decide the guilt or innocence of . . . spokesmen" (p. 163). But, we distort contexts in order to extract these statements as definitions of the contemporary apologia. Rosenfield's tendency is to define the genre by listing some particular characteristics of the genre ("a part of a short, intense, decisive clash of views"; "defensive remarks"; "invective"; "lumping of facts in the middle third of" the speech; and a "tendency to reassemble previously used arguments") (pp. 177-178). Other rhetoricians have tended to adopt Rosenfield's method of defining the genre; see: Sherry Devereaux Butler, "The Apologia, 1971 Genre," *Southern Speech Communication Journal*, 37 (Spring, 1972), 281-289. So, lacking a precise definition of the apologia as a rhetorical strategy, we have tended to employ all of these characteristics at given points throughout this analysis remaining, as much as possible, faithful to the generic conception of the apologia offered by other rhetoricians.

we had defeated the old. . . . War's very object is victory—not prolonged indecision.” Neither speaker identifies the opponent(s) responsible for their present position, but both suggest the existence of a conspiracy which has succeeded in obtaining their removal from office.¹⁹ Both appeal to the purity of American institutions, to God, to the stability of the nation which has endured (and implicitly will continue to endure) such conflicts, and both seek to retain their link to the system by the prior commitment to the office which each had held.

Concomitant with the way concessions deal with dialectics and an equally significant interacting dimension is the inherent and unique method of dealing with image manipulation within the concession speech. *The concession speech, overtly and directly within the speech itself, deals with the credibility of the conceiver, in an attempt to recast the image of a loser to that of an honest, altruistic, and noble person.* In contrast, consensus and confrontation efforts typically deal with the image of the speaker indirectly, frequently by use of nonverbal tactics; consensus and confrontation speeches are decidedly program- or issue-centered rather than image-centered. Although the speech of apology deals directly with the image of the speaker, its primary effort is to suggest that the speaker is correct or a “winner” on the issues involved; the apologia is designed to secure approval for a program, policy, or act of the speaker, or to offer a justification for the speaker's policies or actions. Thus, consensus, confrontation, and apology speeches are designed to preclude the speaker's acquiring the status of a loser; the concession speech assumes the speaker has lost in the encounter but seeks to reverse the negative responses associated with being a loser. Ultimately, no one loves a loser; the concession speech is an opportunity for the loser to regain or reinforce love.

Both MacArthur and Agnew address their respective audiences as losers, but both attempt to counter that image by arguing that they are credible, respectable, and benevolent men. Listen to Agnew:

Up until a few days ago I was determined to fight for my integrity and my office whatever the cost However, after hard deliberation and much prayer, I concluded . . . that the public interest and the interest of those who mean the most to me would best be served by my stepping down To put his country through the ordeal of division and uncertainty . . . would be a selfish and unpatriotic act for any man in the best of times. But at this especially crucial time . . . it would have been intolerable I have never . . . enriched myself in betrayal of my public trust In the Government's recitals against me there are no claims of unexplained personal enrichment I repeat and I emphasize that denial of wrongdoing . . .

And now MacArthur:

Efforts have been made to distort my position. It has been said in effect that I was a warmonger. Nothing could be further from the truth. I know war as few other men now living know it, and nothing to me is more revolting I have just left your fighting sons in Korea They are splendid in every way. It was my constant effort to preserve them and end this savage conflict honorably and with the

¹⁹ Goldman (p. 213) identifies the way in which MacArthur employs the conspiracy. In our view, Agnew's conception of the grand jury and press at the outset of his speech allows him to conceive and perhaps perceive a conspiracy as a relevant force in his rhetorical environment.

least loss of time and a minimum sacrifice of life . . . I am closing my fifty-two years of military service . . . an old soldier, who tried to do his duty as God gave him the light to see that duty.

Thus both argue that they have not been motivated by self interests, both deny wrongdoing, and both claim that they are and have been guided by noble purposes.

Concession speeches also offer a unique dramatization of the rhetorical environment. *The concession speech tends to minimize the immediate conflict and transfer attention to a higher principle governing all similar conflicts.* Questions of immediate fact are transformed into broader questions of value or ideology. In contrast, consensus, confrontation, and apology speeches tend to deal directly with the immediate conflict as a question of past and present fact. Indeed, the apologia (as the form most similar to the concession speech) has been described by Rosenfield as containing assertions of fact directly related to the issues at hand.²⁰ The concession speech minimizes the immediate drama, making ideological claims and counterclaims the central base for the human drama, conflict, and resolution involved in the dialectic.²¹

By recasting the conflict as a philosophic clash, both MacArthur and Agnew seek to minimize the immediate drama and its factual implications. MacArthur's argument within this dimension focuses on an external control system to eliminate war: "The problem basically is theological and involves a spiritual recrudescence and improvement of human character . . . It must be of the spirit if we are to save the flesh."²² Agnew, on the other hand, seeks more internal controls for the improvement of the politico-judicial process: an environment in which the character of politicians is not controlled by campaign necessities, abuse in letting contracts cannot exist, and reforms in grand jury and prosecuting procedures insure protection to all under indictment. "America has always thrived on adversity and so I can foresee only good ahead for this country . . ."

The concession speech utilizes specific methods for dealing with dialectic relationships, image manipulation, and the dramatization of conflicts; moreover, it generates a nonpareil ritualization of a rhetorical environment as well. *The concession speech, as a rhetorical ritual, is a response to an outcome unfavorable to the speaker and thereby is designed to control an audience's perception of a fait accompli rather than to influence the determination of a specific controlling policy or act.* The concession speech is thus an epideictic rather than a deliberative or forensic form. In contrast, consensus, confrontation, and apologia are executed to determine or influence the policy designed to control or resolve an outcome or conflict. Consensus is therefore primarily a deliberative rhetorical form, while the confrontation and the apologia (as Rosenfield argues) are predominantly forensic forms.²³ While we posit no absolute argument for pure distinctions

²⁰ Rosenfield, p. 177.

²¹ For a classic description of how such shifts may occur, see: Richard Weaver, *The Ethics of Rhetoric* (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1953), pp. 85-114.

²² While at this point MacArthur is quoting himself from a previous speech, his address before the joint session of Congress is not a culmination of previous speeches and thus cannot be equated to the apologia in this regard (see: Rosenfield, p. 177).

²³ Rosenfield, p. 177.

or categories, it does seem to us that consensus, confrontation, and apologia speeches tend to influence the outcome of policy disputes, while the concession is instead a method of characterizing a predetermined course of action which is contrary to the speaker's position on the issue. While the concession speech is thus a selective use of the rhetorical ritual, a rhetorical ritual itself may be commonly defined as the attempt to mobilize conventional and significant responses prior to, during, or at the completion of a conflict.

Both the MacArthur and Agnew speeches establish rhetorical rituals designed to control the perception of decisions. Timing, staging, and the control of intervening variables are central to such concession rituals. With varying degrees of success, each speaker attempts to control the temporal and sequential ordering of events leading to the concession speech (timing); the customs, situational, and nonverbal factors associated with a concession (staging); and the types of communicative variables influencing audience perceptions (control of intervening variables).

Events both within and outside of MacArthur's control operated in most respects to his advantage from the time of his return to the U.S. following Truman's announcement until after the presentation of the speech. Public opinion reacted against the decision of Truman and the joint chiefs.

More than 125,000 telegrams flooded Washington in the two days following MacArthur's dismissal. Over 500,000 people greeted him as he arrived in San Francisco and more than 7,500,000 turned out for his ticker-tape parade in New York City the day before his speech in Washington At 12:31 p.m. on April 19, 1951, MacArthur entered the House chambers escorted by a courtesy committee of Senators and Representatives. Dozens of floodlights were turned on as he entered; radio and television broadcasters were ready for their largest combined audience in history. After an enthusiastic ovation, Speaker Sam Rayburn quieted the audience and presented the General.²⁴

He had been invited by the Congress to address them; he was speaking to an enthusiastically responsive live audience as well as to microphones and cameras. "He walked down the aisle in a short army jacket, his chest bare of ribbons, the back rigid and the face stony."²⁵ The effectiveness of his delivery has been compared to that of Winston Churchill. On completing the speech, "MacArthur handed his manuscript to the clerk, waved to his wife in the gallery, and strode toward the exit."²⁶ It seems reasonable to conclude that MacArthur was aware of the importance of ritual and made effective use of its aspects.²⁷

Agnew, conversely, had to contend with the fact that he had been upstaged the previous night by President Nixon's announcement of Gerald Ford as his nominee for the Vice-Presidency, presented in a gala East Room ceremony televised from the White House to the nation. His speech was presented in a quiet and empty television studio without the

²⁴ Capp. p. 209.

²⁵ Goldman, p. 205.

²⁶ Goldman, pp. 205-206.

²⁷ Our purpose, at this point, is not to argue that MacArthur's use of the rhetorical ritual was necessarily intentional. Yet, we cannot help but believe that MacArthur was overtly aware of the significance of rhetorical rituals. When MacArthur returned to the Philippines fulfilling a prior promise, he spent virtually a full day staging and filming the "return."

use of nonverbal symbols of popular or even familial support. The delivery was at times uncertain and stumbling. He had not been invited to speak, but instead had himself requested the television time. The time itself (7:30 p.m. EDT) was not one conducive to securing a large listening audience, except on the East Coast. There is little evidence to suggest the speaker's recognition of and responsiveness to the ritualistic nature of the situation.

IV

Having posited the intrinsic constants controlling concessions as a rhetorical genre, we present several theoretical speculations regarding the role of concessions in contemporary transactions. In offering these "theoretical speculations," we suggest for further research specific hypotheses stemming from our conception of the concession speech: we posit detailed suppositions regarding those likely to employ the concession speech, variables affecting the saliency and potency of the form, and the range of potential and subsequent ends which a concession might be designed to achieve. Finally we will assess the relative significance and role of rhetorical concessions in speech-communication conflict theory.

The concession speech seems to be a conservative-reactionary strategy. It does not appear accidental to us that those predominantly associated with the form are traditionally perceived as spokespersons of the political right, or that the substance of their speeches is essentially a defense of the status quo, perhaps with slight modifications, both institutionally and in terms of existing policies.²⁸ While we can certainly conceive of a liberal or radical employing the concession speech as we describe it, both liberals and radicals would find the form a powerful commitment to the status quo. It is not surprising, therefore, that George McGovern did not offer a "traditional" concession following his unsuccessful bid for the Presidency in 1972.²⁹

If the nation continues to shift to a more conservative-reactionary position, as Lawrence O'Brien³⁰ and some social scientists³¹ claim has been occurring for the last two decades, we anticipate that use of the concession as a rhetorical form will continue, if not increase. We assume further that integrity will gain increasing significance in American politics in the 1970s, and that politicians will continue to face a tension between ex-

²⁸ Beyond the type of political posture exemplified by Agnew and MacArthur, Richard Nixon (generally viewed as a traditional conservative, see: Andrew Hacker, "On Original Sin and Conservative," *New York Times Magazine*, February 25, 1973, pp. 13 ff.) has also employed the concession speech at moments he felt it appropriate. In his April 30, 1973, speech, for example, under the overwhelming pressure generated by the Watergate Affair, Nixon formally accepted the resignation of two men appointed by him. Yet, in the speech, Nixon's concession was countered by his own claims that Ehrlichmann and Haldeman were men innocent of wrongdoing and that he, Nixon, was to be trusted and respected.

²⁹ Theodore H. White, *The Making of the President 1972* (New York: Atheneum, 1973), p. 13.

³⁰ Lawrence F. O'Brien, "Electorate Is Up for Grabs," the *Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, November 29, 1972, p. 41.

³¹ A convenient summary of the conservative backlash is provided by Dorothy Brown, "Backlash Against Liberal Lifestyles Is Seen By Noted Social Scientist," the *Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, October 4, 1972, p. 9. Brown summarizes the research of Daniel Yankelovitch.

pediency and morality. If these events materialize, we expect that the concession speech will be used more frequently and more successfully.

Beyond speculating about who is likely to employ the concession speech, we have also identified those factors which are likely to increase the effectiveness of the form when it is used. As hypotheses, we suggest that the concession speech is more likely to be favorably perceived if the following conditions exist:

(1) The speaker maintains high credibility, trustworthiness, and prestige prior to and during the concession speech. General MacArthur was especially successful in this regard, while Agnew was associated with political corruption prior to and during the speech.

(2) The speaker's concession appears to be associated with an altruistic rather than an egotistic end on the part of the speaker. MacArthur appeared concerned with national defense and American security, while Agnew conceded his office and did not contest his guilt to preclude further prosecution at the federal level.

(3) The concession does not identify an explicit opponent or enemy. Both MacArthur and Agnew referred to their opposition vaguely, employing or suggesting a conspiracy as a reference point.

(4) The concession speech is intrinsically ordered by the classical dramatic frames of *exposition*, *rising action/conflict*, *climax*, *resolution*, and *denouement*, and the speech itself functions as the culminating response to the extrinsic rhetorical environment. MacArthur's speech employed the classical dramatic pattern and his speech essentially concluded the Truman-MacArthur clash. Agnew reversed the classical organizational pattern within his speech; his speech followed the Federal Court's verdict and his own resignation by almost a week, so it became anti-climactic, perhaps even irrelevant.

(5) The concession speech mobilizes a significant number of conventional forms of support. MacArthur was able to employ toward his own end the series of consequential events (timing) and utilize a set of nonverbal symbols which reinforced his own integrity (staging). He did not have to contend with any distracting or negative intervening variables prior to addressing the Congress. Agnew's timing was ineffectual. Little if any attention seemed to have been given to staging of the speech situation in order to enhance the speaker's impact. Finally, he was in no position to control any intervening variables and was in fact placed in a weakened position by factors outside his control.

Such variables are likely to control the saliency and potency of the concession speech. Correspondingly, we suggest that a speaker employ the concession speech only if he or she is able to control these variables. MacArthur seems to have made a carefully scripted choice in this regard, but we do not believe that former Vice-President Agnew was wise to attempt this strategy under the circumstances.³²

Besides specifying the conditions under which a concession speech is

³² Quite pointedly, we believe Agnew ought to have avoided any public statement of this type, although we can see some benefit to the use of informal and apparently spontaneous interviews. Correspondingly, we do not believe that President Nixon was in a position to employ a concession speech effectively on April 30, 1973.

most likely to generate favorable responses, we have also speculated about the ways a concession may function in subsequent communicative interactions. Not surprisingly, a concession may influence further interactions. One can envision a set of circumstances in which a speaker concedes an issue as a prelude to future inaction or to a significant withdrawal from public life. Yet, concessions may also function to consolidate a power base allowing a speaker to engage in later encounters (consensuses, confrontations, and/or apologies) with greater impact than she or he had in the earlier concession situation. In 1962, for example, Richard Nixon conceded his loss in the California Gubernatorial race, observing to the press that they would no longer have Richard Nixon "to kick around." Even such a blunt and pointed concession did not result in reducing the number of conflicts which Nixon later entered; it appears, in this case, to have been a strategy which allowed Nixon to build an extremely powerful base within the Republican Party.

The discipline of speech-communication has only recently begun the search to determine ways in which symbols function in conflict situations. In light of our analysis and the hypotheses which this analysis has generated, we contend that the concession speech may appropriately be viewed as a distinct and significant rhetorical strategy to deal with conflict, coordinate in importance with speeches of consensus, confrontation, and apology. Table I provides a summary of our conclusions.

TABLE I
Major Rhetorical Forms in Conflict Situations

Rhetorical Form	Critically Defining Frames			
	Use of Dialectic	Use of Image Manipulation	Dramatic Enactment	Ritualistic Enactment
Consensus	Seeks to dissolve conflict cooperatively	Indirect, often nonverbal	Effort to control resolution of the immediate conflict	Attempts to control outcome
Confrontation	Seeks to destroy opposition	Indirect, often nonverbal	Effort to control resolution of the immediate conflict	Attempts to control outcome
Apologia	Seeks to destroy opponent	Direct verbal attempt to create image of being a "winner"	Effort to control resolution of the immediate conflict	Attempts to control outcome
Concession	Retains conflict but seeks to reduce tensions to socially acceptable level	Direct verbal attempt to recast the image of being a "loser"	Effort to shift focus from the immediate drama to a higher principle	Attempts to characterize a previously determined outcome

RECOMMENDED DEBATE TEXTS AND HANDBOOKS: A SURVEY

RALPH TOWNE, ROBERT M. SMITH AND THOMAS E. HARRIS

Although journal reviews provide one valuable evaluation of debate textbooks and debate analysis handbooks, few reviewers consider attitudes of any sample of the users of these texts or handbooks. This survey sought to discover from users of debate textbooks and handbooks what ones they have found most useful.

As part of a mailed questionnaire to 214 high school debate coaches predominantly in Pennsylvania and 274 college debate coaches throughout the United States, we asked for an indication of what textbook they found most useful. Eighty-five high school coaches and one hundred and fifty-three college debate coaches responded to the questionnaire.

A wide range of debate textbooks were recommended. High school debate coaches named fifteen textbooks and college debate coaches recommended twenty-three textbooks, discounting different editions by the same author. Table I shows the list of recommended texts arranged according to the frequency of response. Those texts named only once are not included in the table.

A large percentage of the high school coaches (47.1%) and college coaches (34%) indicated no preference for a text by writing "none," drawing a line through the space left for the response, or otherwise giving indication of not holding a text preference. Another group (one high school coach and seven college coaches) made multiple selections recommending a combination of texts.

We originally expected that the question asking for the preference of the most useful debate handbook would elicit preferences for annually produced handbooks used by coaches and debaters to supplement analysis on national debate topics. Instead, we received a preponderance of indifference or criticism of the use of handbooks.

This indifference was less apparent with high school coaches. Forty-nine high school coaches representing fifty-seven and six-tenths per cent of the total respondents listed a commercial handbook. Only thirty-three high school coaches (38.8%) gave no choice.

College debate coaches were less likely to recommend a debate textbook with eighty-nine college respondents (58.2%) expressing no preference for a handbook. Thirty-seven and nine-tenths per cent of all college respondents rejected the use of handbooks outright. Only thirty-one and one-tenth per cent of the total college respondents chose an annual commercial handbook. The rest of the respondents (7.7%) making a choice of a handbook named either a textbook or a personally produced handbook. Table II displays the responses according to the frequency of recommendations by high school and college debate coaches. Handbooks receiving only one response and textbooks which were recommended are not

Ralph Towne is Director of Forensics at Temple University. Robert Smith is Director of the Basic Courses in Communication at Wichita State University. Thomas Harris is Debate Coach at Rutgers University. This study was sponsored by the Debate Data Research Center, Temple University.

TABLE I
Recommended Debate Textbooks by High School
and College Debate Coaches*

High School Responses	College Responses
R. Wood, <i>Strategic Debate</i> (15)	Austin J. Freeley, <i>Argumentation and Debate</i> (38)
Austin J. Freeley, <i>Argumentation and Debate</i> (5)	Ehninger & Brockriede, <i>Decision by Debate</i> (17)
Musgrave, <i>Competitive Debate: Rules & Technique</i> (5)	R. Wood, <i>Strategic Debate</i> (10)
G. Walsch, <i>Guide to Debate</i> (3)	W. Thompson, <i>Modern Argumentation & Debate</i> (5)
A. Kruger, <i>Modern Debate</i> (2)	Bauer, <i>Fundamentals of Debate</i> (4)
McBurney & Mills, <i>Argumentation & Debate</i> (2)	Capp & Capp, <i>Principles of Argumentation & Debate</i> (3)
Murphy & Ericksen, <i>The Debater's Guide</i> (2)	J. McBath, <i>Argumentation & Debate</i> (3)
No preference stated (40)	A. Kruger, <i>Modern Debate</i> (2)
	McBurney & Mills, <i>Argumentation & Debate</i> (2)
	G. Mills, <i>Reason in Controversy</i> (2)
	Newman & Newman, <i>Evidence</i> (2)
	Windes & Hastings, <i>Argumentation & Advocacy</i> (2)
	No preference stated (43)

* Numbers following responses are the frequency of recommendation.

listed. Of the three textbooks recommended, none received over three responses. High school debate coaches listed a total of thirteen and college coaches listed a total of eighteen different handbooks.

Caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions from this survey. The quality of materials is a subjective determination made by each respondent in his own way. There is also the possibility that not all respon-

TABLE II
Recommended Debate Handbooks by High School and College
Debate Coaches listed by Publisher*

High School Responses	College Responses
National Textbook Corporation (15)	American Enterprise Institute (27)
J. Weston Walch (9)	J. Weston Walch (15)
Springboards (6)	Mid-West Debate Bureau (5)
Dale Cards & Analysis (3)	National Textbook Corporation (3)
University of Houston (3)	Rejection of the use of handbooks (54)
American Enterprise Institute (2)	
N.T.C. Second Thoughts (2)	
Rejection of the use of handbooks (33)	

* Numbers following responses are the frequency of recommendation.

dents were exposed to the same material from which to make a recommendation. The results recorded here make comparisons on the basis of all the responses and they should not be interpreted as a hierarchy of comparative recommendations. The choices given are only frequencies. Furthermore, this survey asked about those books that were recommended to the debater for his use. We do not assume that those texts used for the enrichment of the debater would necessarily be the same texts used for academic course work.

Given these qualifications, a few observations are worthy of comment. High school coaches selected most frequently Roy Wood's *Strategic Debate*, accounting for thirty-four and eight-tenths per cent of all responses by high school coaches recommending a textbook. One text recommended by college coaches, Austin Freeley's *Argumentation and Debate*, accounted for thirty-seven and seven-tenths per cent of all the college respondents indicating a text preference. The Freeley text drew twice as many responses as the next most frequently recommended text by college coaches. Apparently, the Wood text was chosen more often than the Freeley text by high school coaches because of its competitive debate orientation.

In spite of the high percentage of coaches from both college and high school programs indicating no preference for handbooks, for those selecting a book an interesting distinction did occur. National Textbook Corporation's handbook was significantly more popular for high school coaches than other prepared handbooks. The American Enterprise Institute handbook was singularly recommended by college coaches at a rate of two to one over the second choice. We note that there is an apparent philosophical difference in the preparation of these two handbooks. The National Textbook Corporation handbook has traditionally devoted a great deal of attention to selected pieces of evidence organized around an outline of the issues of the debate topic. By contrast, the American Enterprise Institute handbook concentrates on an analysis of the topic by dealing with the issues and giving little attention to providing a catalog of pieces of evidence. Both handbooks provide a service to the debater. High school and college coaches, however, apparently discriminate between the two rather than select both for high recommendation.

The intent of this survey was to provide an indication of which debate textbooks and handbooks were recommended by college and high school debate coaches for use by debaters. The results tend to indicate that choices vary and, in many cases, the choice is to not make a choice.

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO DEBATE

WAYNE SILVER

Two recent developments are of considerable importance to the debate community. The first is a far-ranging attack on debate, both as an intellectual pursuit and as a form of intercollegiate competition. The second is the ascendancy of behavioral, quantitatively oriented programs in many departments of speech and communication.

These two developments are more related than many realize. Often, department chairmen with behavioral perspectives view debate as a threat to the total progress of their departments. Debate consumes money, professional manpower and enormous amounts of time. It is, therefore, deemed antithetical to departmental growth and inconsistent with current priorities.

Additionally, debate is seen as an academic incongruity in the behaviorally oriented department. The argument goes that modern intercollegiate debate stresses excessive competition and builds a separate subculture, whereas the department attempts to enhance group-centeredness, cooperative strengths and socially universal skills.

So far, the debate community has responded with a defense of its traditional values. While this is understandable and makes most of us feel exceedingly righteous, it is not enough. The standard defense of debate, while valid, fails to ameliorate the dispute with the behaviorists and even intensifies it.

What is needed is a strategy which preserves the integrity of debate but, at the same time, strengthens and builds bridges to other areas of the department. Such a strategy requires careful planning, but there are no insurmountable barriers to its implementation. As an ancillary benefit, debate will take on new dimensions and become even more valuable to its participants. The strategy suggested involves three parts.

The first is utilization of the intercollegiate debate team as an experimental and developmental group for departmental researchers. When one thinks about it, an intercollegiate debate team is a veritable gold mine for a communication researcher. Where else on campus would the theorist find students who are bright, verbal, reflective, highly motivated and organized for a common purpose? Where else would he find a student group which remains a group for four-year time periods, embodies constant, internal co-operation and competition, possesses an informal, dynamic system of leadership and has a fairly stable membership of manageable size?

Quite often, the behaviorists just haven't thought about the opportunities which present themselves in an intercollegiate debate program. It is incumbent upon us in the debate community to make them aware of the possibilities and to provide every avenue for joint exploration and research.

The accompanying benefits to the debate team are great. Participation in an ongoing experimental and/or developmental program is an unquestionably valuable experience for students. In addition, debate coaches may find an unexpected source of excellent advice on how to build team harmony, efficiency, and productivity.

Wayne Silver has been Director of Forensics at the University of Miami and is now a graduate student at the University of Utah.

The second part of the strategy involves articulation and institutionalization of multi-faceted curricular programs which include debate and behavioral aspects of communication. The assumption of the current dispute is that debate and behaviorism are intellectually antagonistic. This assumption is logically unfounded and ignores the fact that there is an unlimited number of valid ways to view the phenomenon of communication. Even more importantly, it ignores the complementary relationship that exists between the two in almost every area of endeavor.

To make the relationship clear, one need only perceive departmental course offerings as parts of goal-directed sequences rather than traditional majors. For example, the aspiring organizational man may wish a solid background in behavioral communication but, at the same time, the ability to present, evaluate, criticize and defend proposals for change. Essentially, he requires a carefully conceived, cross-departmental selection of courses which lead to an identifiable goal. It is up to the department to advise students of the many purposeful and directed options available to them.

One consequence of this scheme is the elimination of rigid lines between different departmental areas and the substitution of relevant and personally meaningful arrangements of courses. Another likely consequence is a diminution of the tension between debate and behaviorism as people come to realize that both belong in sequences for teachers, administrators and virtually anyone who works in a bureaucratic setting.

The third part of the strategy to strengthen debate programs would be reformation of traditional debate courses to satisfy the needs of behavioral communication students. With more flexibility, the traditional debate course could be of great service to the behavioral student. As one example, a student may wish to advocate an organizational proposal for change in front of a simulated critical and questioning board of superiors. The student still must internalize the classic debate issues and use the standard skills, but the context is one which he readily understands and accepts. There are a myriad of individualized procedures and formats which can be employed. The debate instructor who is flexible and creative enough to use them is in an excellent position to satisfy the needs of many behavioral communication students.

In closing, the positions taken in this paper are not meant to be defensive. All of them are consistent with the growth and continued vitality of debate as an intellectual pursuit and as a form of intercollegiate competition. None of them compromises the integrity of debate or alters its fundamental value. Rather, the thoughts expressed are designed to lessen needless departmental tension and open the door to inevitable and healthy areas of intradepartmental cooperation.

DSR-TKA CHAPTER NEWS

Twenty-seven chapters responded to our call for news with an abundance of lively information about their chapter activities, their forensic programs, student members, alumni, and personal opinions. We herewith share it with you.



At *Alabama*, John David Saxon, former president of the Alabama chapter of DSR-TKA and past student editor of *Speaker and Gavel*, was recently chosen by the SCA Committee on International Discussion and Debate as a member of the 1974 United States International Debate Team. John is now serving as a member of the faculty at Alabama and will tour the British Isles in January and February.

Brooklyn sponsor Charles E. Parkhurst reports, perhaps as a kind of warning, that funding of forensic activities, which has depended exclusively on student governments, has been wildly inconsistent, with the result that Brooklyn has few debaters with much experience. When funding problems are overcome, the chapter will "produce" more members once again.

Butler chapter members this year are involved in putting on a high school debate clinic in September, an individual events meet in November, a novice debate tournament in December, a varsity tournament in March, and a debate with the touring Australians in March. John Swanson, now a graduate student in African history at Indiana University, spent the summer in Tunis studying Arabic.

Clemson is expanding their individual events participation, and they sponsored a campus-wide "Speak Out" program in January and a "Speech Night" oratory contest in November. Among student members, W. David Ayers is student body treasurer, David Rowe is justice on High Court, and Bill Findley is president of Student Senate. Alumnus Sammy Williams is studying at the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary. (Also, see picture on adjoining page.)

Father Harold McAuliffe reports from *Creighton* that Mrs. Virgil Whitehill (formerly Miss Evelyn Hade), long active on the forensic circuit, has retired from active coaching and teaching to "quiet family life." Succeeding her as assistant to Fr. McAuliffe in coaching forensics is Father Marion Sitzmann, O.S.B., who moderated forensics and directed drama a few years ago at the then St. John's Seminary.

Davidson College sends news releases demonstrating how they have used the "sweepstakes" standings compiled by Dr. Jack Howe effectively for publicity purposes. Davidson finished in the top twenty among small colleges in these ratings.

The Intercollegiate Legislative Assembly was sponsored by the *DePauw* debate team for the third year and a college tournament will be held in February. Alumnus Philip Heyde has earned his master's degree at Northwestern and is teaching speech at Iowa State.

Emerson College sponsored, with *Reader's Digest*, the regional tournament for the Boy Scouts of America in September. Former president of the Emerson College Forensic Society Peter G. Meade has been appointed as the Director of Community Schools for the City of Boston. Assistant coach Frank Napal has been named as Director of Communication for



Clemson delegation to the Harvard Model United Nations with Luis Cuervo (center), First Secretary to the Spanish Ambassador, on the steps of the Spanish embassy in Washington, D.C.

Congressman Joseph Moakley's election campaign. Sponsor John Zacharis is President of the Eastern Forensic Association.

The University of *Illinois* has embarked on an expanded program of campus debates. The first debate was on the issue, "Should Nixon Resign?", and included political figures from off-campus as well as student debaters. It was followed by a heated forum period with the widest range of views being expressed. Kurt Ritter has joined the staff as Director of Forensics. Thomas Costello and Steve Johnson are assisting in directing the on-campus and competitive forensics program.

The *Indiana State* chapter of DSR-TKA initiated 15 new members in April. The ceremonies were conducted by Prof. Karen M. Olson with Prof. Otis Aggertt assisting. A picnic supper followed the initiation, which was held at the home of Prof. Sherry Pattison. Bob Jerry is heading up the new ISU Student Speakers Bureau, which is sponsored by the DSR-TKA chapter and the ISU CoCurricular Activities Program. Mike Wills received the 1973 Jardine Medal for debate on Honors Day and is now a law student at Indiana University. Mike Roloff has a Ph.D. assistantship in Communication at Michigan State University. Steve Turner, who received his master's degree from ISU in August, is a law student at Creighton University. Paula Hannum is teaching at North Putnam Jr.-Sr. High School in Roachdale, Ind. Linda Sparks is the Director of Audio-Visual Services for the public schools of Cortez, Colo.

More than 500 high school students from five states attended the Fall Forensic Institute sponsored by the *John Carroll* University Debating teams in September. The day-long event included programs in debate, original oratory, oral interpretation, and readers' theatre.

Jim Flegle, *Kentucky's* chapter president, is also serving as president of the student body, member of the University of Kentucky Board of Trustees, and member of the University Senate Council. Alumnus Deno Curris has been named president of Murray State University.

Madison College will participate in 28 tournaments and sponsor eight campus events, including a high school workshop, college and high school tournaments, a qualifying event for the National Bicentennial Debate Tourney, and a visit from the New Zealand debaters.

Massachusetts is also sponsoring a panoply of events during the year, climaxed by hosting the Delta Sigma Rho-Tau Kappa Alpha National Conference March 27-30. "Exciting plans are under way for this year's national conference, and we look forward to seeing many of you in beautiful New England in the spring," declares chapter sponsor Ronald J. Matlon.

Twenty-two high school students participated in *Mercer* University's first Debate Workshop in July. It was directed by Director of Debate Gerri Price, with the assistance of Dr. Chester Gibson and Mary Bauer. John B. Tracy has been added to the Speech and Dramatic Arts staff and will serve as assistant director of forensics.

At Nevada, new speech department member Mrs. Kathryn Landreth will serve as debate coach. DSR-TKA members co-directed the Nevada Great Western Forensic Tournament last April, and Nevada hopes to have many DSR-TKA schools from the West coast attending that tournament this year.

Newly initiated *North Carolina* member H. Brent McKnight worked this summer with the Senate Select Committee on Watergate.

Oberlin plans for the year included a workshop to allow college debaters a chance to teach their skills and to help high school debaters prepare for the topic, as well as a national invitational debate tournament for high school teams in January and the annual Grove Patterson speaking contest in the spring.

Rutgers is holding a high school tournament for the New Jersey State Department to select two schools who will debate in Williamsburg, Va., as part of the U.S. Bicentennial celebration. Rutgers will have another high school workshop in June and is preparing for a possible TV debate series.

South Dakota will initiate 21 new members in January. Chapter officers include Steve Heer, Judy Nassar, Nancy Fees, and Rick Mathis. In addition to the annual high school and college tournaments, South Dakota will be holding a college off-topic tournament in April.

Southern California has established a Center for Forensics Research, with some monographs already available for distribution. Tom Hozduk is the DSR-TKA chapter president at USC.

At *Susquehanna*, the 10th Annual Dutchman Forensic Classic Tournament in November again incorporated the official Region II DSR-TKA meet, with special awards for DSR-TKA participants.

At *Tennessee*, Bill Haltom is president of the student senate, David Burkhalter is attorney general of student senate, and Mae Jean Go is a representative to the Dean's Student Advisory Council in the College of Liberal Arts.

Utah notes the retirement from the faculty of George Adamson, long-time director of forensics at that university (from World War II to 1970) and frequent director of the DSR-TKA National Conference.

Craig R. Smith has become the new Director of Forensics and sponsor of the DSR-TKA chapter at *Virginia*. Dr. John Graham has been appointed Dean of the University.

A limited-participation forensic tournament for high school squads was sponsored for the first time by *Willamette* speech students in 1973.

The new head debate coach at *Wichita State* is Donald Swender, who was for three years director of the debate program at Mt. Union College. Robert Smith, a former coach, has returned to the WSU speech department as director of basic courses.

A welcome note from Dr. Rollin G. Osterweis, chapter sponsor and Professor of History and Oratory at *Yale*, describes the "unorthodox" but flourishing forensics program there. The emphasis in varsity debating is on the use of a large number of different men (and now women) speaking on a wide variety of subjects. In the Inter-College Debate League, nearly 150 students take part as members of 12 clubs which engage in a year-long tournament. The Yale Political Union, numbering several hundred students, is modeled on the Oxford Union.



P. MERVILLE LARSON RETIRES

Dr. P. Merville Larson retired at Texas Tech University in July after almost 50 years of classroom teaching. He had begun teaching in a one-room school in Eastern Colorado, and had taught at Eastern Illinois, Southwest Texas, Texas A & I, Southern Illinois, and Denver before coming to Texas Tech in 1950.

Dr. Larson served as professor and chairman of the Department of Speech and Theatre Arts for 19 years. He was instrumental in bringing a chapter of Delta Sigma Rho to Texas Tech and was a member of the National Council of the organization. Having taught in all areas of speech, he says he most enjoyed his work in forensics and speech education.

OTIS J. AGGERTT 1916-1973

On October 1, 1973, Delta Sigma Rho-Tau Kappa Alpha lost a long time member, supporter and friend: Dr. Otis J. Aggertt passed away after a long illness.

Those DSR-TKA members who attended the National Conference in 1971 when it was held on the Indiana State University campus will recall that at that time, Dr. Aggertt received the first Distinguished Service Award.

Indeed, the personal and professional life of Otis J. Aggertt is a catalog of distinguished service, to his family and friends, to his colleagues and students.

Dr. Aggertt received his baccalaureate degree from Western Illinois in 1938, his masters from the University of Illinois in 1949, and his doctorate from Michigan State University in 1960. He taught in high school for eight years in Kewaunee and Springfield, Illinois before entering college teaching at Albion College. In 1956, after seven years at Albion, Dr. Aggertt moved to Indiana State where he served for seventeen years. As the Director of Forensics at Indiana State, he broadened the co-curricular speech communication activities program to include oral interpretation and individual events as well as debate. Even though Dr. Aggertt "retired" from active coaching and traveling, he never lost interest in the forensic activities and his support never waned.

Those who knew Otis Aggertt realized that beneath his sometimes gruff exterior was a warm and compassionate human being whose concern was always for others. He was a devoted and thoughtful husband and father, a colleague whose advice and counsel was as valuable as his criticism was objective and just; and above all, Otis Aggertt was a teacher who cared about his students and who inspired them to excellence.

John Donne wrote: "Any man's death diminishes me,
Because I am involved in mankind."

We are diminished by the passing of Otis Aggertt, because he was involved in mankind. Yet we are enriched by the many ways in which he touched our lives.

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