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Editor's Note

The Interstate Oratorical Contest (IOC) was first held in 1874. Charles E. Prather, editor of the inaugural collection of orations composed for the contest, labelled that competition "one of the greatest events in college history, the result of which is to-day an honor to our educational institutions" (1891, p. 10). Subsequent years have seen no reason to change that assessment. The IOC has survived almost 150 years of national and international turmoil and cultural shift. Much has changed in that time. The topics, organizational patterns, language styles, delivery traits, forms of support relied on, types of appeals employed, and many other elements of the speeches have evolved over the years. The administrative processes which govern the IOC, and the sites where it is held, have been rethought as needed. What began as a regional contest has expanded to become a truly national event. And while not all states are represented in any given year, a great many are. Each year, a maximum of two student speakers are chosen as "the best orators" in their state. Winning Orations, an annual publication, publishes the texts of the speeches, providing an invaluable resource for historians and scholars to examine in order to understand who we were, how we have evolved, and what we have become. It provides us with what is without question the most complete and concrete available record of the "actual speech content" of any forensics event.

Unfortunately, we have seldom taken advantage of this resource to explore scholarly questions. Fortunately, the essays written for this double issue take a significant step forward on this quest. Each of the first five essays began its life as a paper presented as part of a panel offered at the 2017 National Communication Association Convention. From the beginning, these essays have been designed to work together as a unit. Each focuses on a particular slice of time (usually but not always a single decade) excerpted from the life of the IOC. Each seeks to (a) demonstrate the typical oratorical practices and patterns of a given slice of time, (b) identify ways in which these issues evolved, (c) connect these issues to larger social/cultural events and themes, and (d) note (when applicable) some logistical shifts occurring in the Interstate Oratorical Association itself. These first five essays frequently provide excerpts from the original student speeches in order to demonstrate their arguments and provide the reader with a much richer "feel" for the students' work. While each essay takes an approach that is unique in some ways, they work together as a unit to "carry across time" the investigation of several core issues.

The final essay in this issue, authored by Carson S. Kay and Eric W. Mishne, is a superb extension of and addition to the mission of the original panel. They focus on the most recent "slice" of history (1996-2016) and examine these two decades of student speeches specifically in terms of the values these speakers chose to appeal to. Their essay continues to develop several of the themes considered in the first five essays, but it takes us deeply and directly into a topic touched on much more lightly in the earlier essays. It asks us to consider the philosophical values which judges are responding to and which students are encouraged to appeal to. Their work is an outstanding example of how the speech texts found in Winning Orations can be used to ask new and profound questions by future researchers.

It is our profound hope that you will find this issue to be both informative and inspiring. It is rooted in the conviction that the past matters and must be remembered and

examined. It is rooted in the conviction that we need to think about what we're doing and why we're doing it as we move forward.

We would be remiss in our consideration of the IOA if we did not take this opportunity to recognize the students, coaches, judges, and administrators who have been the backbone of the organization across time. The organization has survived because so many people have committed their time, their efforts, and their hearts to it. In particular, we recognize the long-term service of Professor Larry Schnoor, for many years the organization's Executive Secretary. He has done yeoman's work in forwarding the best interests of the IOC, the programs who attend it, and the students who express their voices through it. His impact on collegiate forensics, in and beyond the IOA, reverberates across time.

This issue will be the last issue of this journal guided by the current editorial team. Retirement, job relocation, and graduation have taken each of us in new directions. We have truly enjoyed the opportunity to serve the membership of the National Forensic Association and look forward to following and profiting from the work of the authors and editors of future issues. Thank you all!

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The Inter-State Oratorical Contest in the 1800s: The Beginning of Organized Collegiate Competitive Speaking

Lisa Roth
University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee

The purpose of this article is to explore the beginnings of the Inter-State Oratorical Contest (IOC) and the Inter-State Oratorical Association (IOA) and to examine the characteristics of the Inter-State Oratorical speeches from 1874 to 1899. Through an analysis of the top two speeches from each of these years in regard to topic, evidence, organization, style, and delivery, I identify trends and strategies which appeared in competitive collegiate persuasive speaking in the late 1800s.

The invitation to the first Inter-State Oratorical Contest,[1] or IOC, hosted by Knox College at the City Opera House of Galesburg in Galesburg, Illinois, on February 27, 1874, begins this way:

> To the Honorable and Students: SIRS – The Adelphi Literary Society, of Knox College, feeling that it would be for the mutual benefit of 'Western colleges' to engage in friendly rivalry, and preferring the culture of the rostrum to the oar, desires to submit for your consideration the following proposition. (Prather, 1891, p. 7)

Invitations were sent to Illinois State Industrial University, Chicago University, Iowa State University, Iowa College, Wisconsin State University, and Beloit College. Wisconsin State University refused the invitation; thus, a supplemental invitation was sent to Monmouth College, who accepted. The founders of the IOC wanted to ensure that collegiate public speaking contests continued after the first event. Therefore, in the invitation, they asked delegates from each of the institutions to attend a planning meeting in order to create a public speaking organization. Prather (1891) explains, "[a]fter some discussion and mature deliberation, it was decided to make the association an Inter-State Oratorical Association" with the purpose of continuing collegiate oratory contests (p. 8). Thus, the Inter-State Oratorical Association (IOA) was created, and the 1874 IOC was the first event held by what is currently the oldest competitive intercollegiate speech organization in the United States (White & Messer, 2003).

The roots of competitive intercollegiate speaking in the United States reach back to the birth of academic departments of "speech" in this country. In 1884, at the University of Michigan, Thomas Trueblood offered the first classes in "speech and oratory" ever taught at any U.S. college or university ("Historical and Descriptive Notes," 1943). He subsequently founded and became the first chair (in 1892) of the university's Department of Elocution and Oratory, which was the first department in the speech/communication discipline to be established at any major college or university in the U.S. (Nesbit, 1998). Among his many contributions to the forensics activity, he "organized and coached the competitive debate and oratory contests at Michigan" (Walker, 1995, p. 2), and mentored the Northern Oratorical League and the Century Debating League. It was "due to his zeal

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[1] In this paper, the name of the contest, Inter-State Oratorical Contest, and the name of the organization, Inter-State Oratorical Association, will have the first word of each title, i.e. Inter-State, hyphenated. Though a hyphen is not currently used in reference to the organization and contest, the hyphen was used in the Constitution, tournament invitation, and *Winning Orations* book published in the 1800s.

in organization, his success in arousing interest in the contests, and his skill in drilling the representatives of the University of Michigan, that that institution…[took] first rank among the large universities of America in competitive contests" (Prather and Groves, 1907, p. 18). The depth of our forensics roots is also evident in the printed record of our larger discipline. The very first edition of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* included an article by Gunnison (1915) which examined the use of creativity and imagination in the art of oratorical speaking. Yet, while it has been a rich part of the history of intercollegiate competitive speaking in the United States, there has been relatively little published about the IOC contest and the foundation of competitive intercollegiate public speaking. Important exceptions to this general rule do exist. Reynolds (1983) conducted a generic criticism of the contest between 1974 and 1981. Sellnow and Ziegelmueller (1988) completed a content analysis comparing strategies deployed in IOC speeches during the period ranging from the late 1960s to the early 1980s. White and Messer (2003) explored the evolution of persuasive speeches from the beginning of the contest to the present, and Olson (2010) outlined strategies for successfully coaching students to qualify to compete at the contest. In this paper, I use these essays as a foundation for writing from a historical-critical perspective about the early days of the IOC and the IOA in the late 1800s. By critically examining the IOC and IOA from 1874 to 1899, I hope to expand general awareness of the foundation of the academic activity we know today as forensics, specifically the collegiate category of persuasive speaking.

To offer this perspective, I will analyze both the speeches and the accompanying materials found in the first two editions of *Winning Orations of the Inter-State Oratorical Contests, and Biographies of Contestants*, later known simply as *Winning Orations,* which became the official publication of the IOA (Reynolds, 1983). The first edition of the book, published in 1891, includes the original invitation to the IOC, the original Constitution of the IOA, a "Historical Perspective" on the contest and the organization, all of the first-place and second-place speeches delivered between 1874 and 1890, biographies of each of the winning competitors, a position statement on "Orators and Oratory," and an article on "Plagiarism" (Prather, 1891). The second edition of *Winning Orations*, published in 1907, includes an introductory article on the "Qualities of a Winning Oration" by the afore-mentioned Professor Thomas C. Trueblood (Trueblood, 1907), all of the first-place and second-place speeches presented at the IOC from 1891 to 1907, and the biographies of most of the winning competitors (Prather & Groves, 1907).

This paper begins with an overview of the beginning of the IOC and the IOA in order to lay a foundation for understanding the association and the contest. This historical foundation is followed by an analysis of the Inter-State speeches of the 1800s, developed by critically analyzing the fifty-two first-place and second-place speeches delivered at the IOC between 1874 and 1899, reading "Qualities of a Winning Oration" (Trueblood, 1907), and reviewing past forensic research. Trends and competitive strategies emerged from my exploration in the areas of topics, structure, evidence, and stylistic features. I will also briefly review the period's preferred approach to delivery. This analysis will lead to some final observations.

The Creation of Competitive Intercollegiate Oratory

Charles E. Prather, of Topeka, Kansas, editor of the first two editions of *Winning Orations*, justifies oratorical speaking as a venue for collegiate competition in its first edition by stating, "[t]here always exists in ambitious natures an inborn desire to excel, and never does this desire become more prominent than during the years spent in college" (Prather, 1891, p. 7). He explained that intercollegiate "contests in boating, ball games and similar sports" exist to test college students on their "physical power and endurance" (Prather, 1891, p. 7). However, these sports do not allow for a competitive *intellectual* outlet for students. Prather stated, "[i]t remained for the Adelphi Society, of Knox College-Galesburg, Illinois, to crown all former efforts in conceiving another outlet for this restless and impetuous spirit of rivalry, by testing intellectual merit through the eloquence of oratory" (Prather, 1891, p. 7).

Along with the original tournament invitation, each institution was asked to send a delegation to Galesburg to attend a meeting before the competition. The goal of the gathering was to create an organization "for the purpose of continuing contests in oratory" (Prather, 1891, p. 8). The meeting was held "in the handsome parlors of the Union Hotel," and at the meeting they created the IOA (Prather, 1891, p. 8). The membership elected Mr. Geo Sutherland of Chicago University to be the first president and Mr. F. I. Moulton of Knox College to be the secretary (Prather, 1891, p. 8). During the convention, the newly created IOA decided to host an inter-state speaking contest every year. Each state was charged with creating its own state association that would annually host a contest to select that state's IOC representative.

After the convention, the delegates and the competitors came together for the first Inter-State Oratorical Contest on February 27, 1874. The contest commenced with a stately overture by the Grand Orchestra (Prather, 1891, p. 9). Next came the first two speakers. H.C. Adams from Iowa College delivered his speech, entitled "The Student and the Mysterious," followed by A.G. McCoy of Monmouth College, whose speech was entitled "Conservatism" (Prather, 1891, p. 9). The popular Mrs. Chas G. Hurd followed these presentations with the performance of an operatic solo, after which two more speakers delivered their orations: T. Edward Egbert from Chicago University spoke on "The Heart, the Source of Power," and Frank E. Brush from Iowa State University considered "Ideas; their Power and Permanence" (Prather, 1891, p. 9). Then, the Grand Orchestra played the "Blue Danube Waltzes" to introduce the last two speakers. Geo T. Foster from Beloit College spoke on the subject of "The British Rule in India," and W.W. Wharry from Illinois State Industrial University delivered "Labor and Liberty; or, the Mission of America" (Prather, 1891, p. 10).

The judging and tabulation processes at the first IOC were explicitly structured. The governors of the three states represented—Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin—each selected "a man of prominence" to serve as a judge on the awarding committee (Prather, 1891, p. 8). The judges evaluated the contestants in three areas—excellence of thought, style of composition, and delivery—by ranking each student on a scale of one to ten in each category. After each contestant took their turn speaking, the competitors were given the privilege of choosing three audience members to add up the judging committee's scores. The tabulators were selected this way to make sure there was no collusion tainting the score tabulation. While the results were being calculated by the chosen audience

members, Mrs. Hurd sang a ballad. At the end, the ranks and placements were announced. Geo T. Foster placed second, and the tournament champion was T. Edward Egbert. As Charles E. Prather stated, "Thus closed one of the greatest events in college history, the result of which is to-day an honor to our educational institutions" (Prather, 1891, p. 10).

On June 9, 1874, a meeting was convened in Chicago to discuss and draft a constitution which would enable the Inter-State Oratorical Association to become a permanent organization. Once the organizational structure was finalized, the contest flourished and grew in size and popularity. By 1891, the IOA was made up of sixty–three member colleges from the states of Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, and Wisconsin (Prather, 1891, p. 10). For the remainder of the 1800s, the IOC was hosted in cities in each of these states, with the sole exception of Colorado.[2] The popularity of competitive collegiate public speaking grew, and other competitions not hosted by the IOA were created. However, the IOC remained a prestigious competition through the end of the 1800s.

A complete record of everyone who competed in these contests in those final years of the 1800s does not exist. After the first year, only a history of the first and second place competitors is available.[3] For the most part, the competitors known to have participated in the contest were white men. However, exceptions included two notable women: Laura A. Kent from Antioch College earned Second Place at the 1876 IOC with her speech entitled "Beatrice and Margaret" (Kent, 1876, pp. 48-52), and E. Jean Nelson from DePauw University won the 1892 IOC with a speech entitled "Industrial Freedom" (Nelson, 1892, pp. 39-53). The other noteworthy exception to the predominance of white men was Charles W. Wood from Beloit College. Wood was an African American man who earned Second Place at the 1895 IOC with a speech titled "The Better Personality" (Wood, 1895, pp. 118-128). The different personal perspectives the speakers brought to their oratories were apparent in many speeches. Just as with oratories today, the students' personal experiences and passions showed through in much of their argumentation.

Analyzing the Oratory Speeches, 1874-99

My historical-critical analysis of the earliest IOC speeches is influenced by two main scholarly sources: recent research conducted about the IOC by White and Messer (2003), and an article written directly about oratory in the 1800s by a prominent forensic coach who was active at the time (Trueblood, 1907).

First, White and Messer (2003) report on an analysis that traced common characteristics found in IOC speeches from 1875 to 2000. Through their content analysis, they developed a coding system incorporating five major categories: topic, organizational pattern/structure, evidence usage, stylistic features, and documentation. As these categories are consistently found in persuasive speeches regardless of era, they would seem appropriate to use when coding a sample of oratories from the 1800s. However, I diverge somewhat from the categories White and Messer highlighted because most of the speeches and research materials they reviewed to identify their categories were written after 1900. Thus, I have modified their categorization system in order to adapt it to speeches composed at an earlier time and in a distinct historical/cultural context.

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[2] For a complete list of the dates and locations of the Inter-State Oratorical Contests in the 1800s see Appendix A.

[3] For a full list of the speakers who placed first or second at the Inter-State Oratorical Contests in the 1800s see Appendix B.

My modifications are guided by the historically relevant comments of disciplinary pioneer Thomas Clarkson Trueblood, who coached Inter-State oratory speakers during the late 1800s and early 1900s. In the second edition of *Winning Orations*, he wrote an article entitled "Qualities of a Winning Oration" (Trueblood, 1907). In this article, he listed five elements or processes that typify a winning oration: (1) "a good subject" (p. 9), (2) "gathering material" (p. 11), (3) "constructing the oration" (p. 12), (4) language "style" (p. 14), and (5) "delivery" (p. 15). These elements are similar to the categories White and Messer (2003) highlighted, except that the "documentation" category was identified only by White and Messer (2003), while the "delivery" category was included only by Trueblood (1907). In the present analysis, White and Messer's "documentation" category will be folded into Trueblood's (1907) "gathering materials" category, since he includes in it both a concern for gathering materials and a charge to avoid plagiarism. Finally, while delivery is an important part of oratory, the speeches analyzed for the present essay were delivered long before the advent of widely-used video recording, which means that we have no access to viewing how they were delivered. Thus, the focus of this paper is on the actual texts of the speeches. We will be able to examine the delivery techniques popular in the late 1800s only indirectly, relying on comments made by speech professionals of the time. Ultimately, then, taking into consideration both White and Messer's (2003) research and Trueblood's (1907) perspective led to my use of five categories of analysis: (1) topic and subject, (2) gathering and documentation of research, (3) organization of speeches, (4) stylistic features, and (5) delivery.

Topics and Subjects of Oratories in the 1800s

For Trueblood (1907), the question of what makes a topic successful focuses on the actual subject of the speech. However, more recent forensic research has considered the types of appeals used to persuade the audience in relation to the topic (Friedley, 1992; Smith, 1996; Sellnow, 1992; White and Messer, 2003). Both of these approaches (Trueblood's concept of "the subject" and the contemporary interest in "types of persuasive appeals") were considered in the analysis in this essay. Before considering specific sub-issues, however, it is valuable to pause and look at the big picture of how the topics chosen by the orators evolved during the late 1800s. Appendix B at the end of this essay provides a chronological list of the titles the students gave to their speeches. Looking at this list reveals that the topics chosen by the students reflected key ways in which the United States was changing. Roughly grouped and partitioned, we can observe the following chronological flow of topics: (a) religion and religious advocacy, (b) biographical sketches, (d) science/change/progress, (e) linking religious subjects to cultural/national profiles, (f) seeking the rapprochement of science and religion, and finally (g) political issues (particularly concerning citizenship and the United States' role in the world). While the chain is certainly not a simple or absolute progression, a look at the titles of the orations immediately makes it clear that the students of the last quarter of the 1800s were speaking in a world whose dominant concerns were changing around them.

Subjects of the speeches. Trueblood (1907) argued that the "first element of a winning oration is a good subject" (p. 9). He meant several things by this, including: (1) the speaker must choose a topic that fits his [sic] own level of maturity and capability, (2) the speaker must choose a topic that fits "the nature of his [sic] audience ... especially the character and bent of the average judge in contests" (p. 9), (3) the subject must be "a live

one" with "human interest," which means that the philosophical "principles involved ... may be applied vigorously to present-day problems" (pp. 9-10), (4) the speaker must have a genuinely deep personal interest in the theme—"[t]here must be a careful searching of the heart to see if there is not some wrong to be righted, some high thought to be pressed home as a direct message, something that must be spoken ... something that wells up from the heart for expression" (p. 10), and (5) the speaker should possess personal authority on the subject – for example, a speech about life in Japan is best presented by a speaker who has actually lived there.

The IOC speeches of the late 1800s certainly demonstrated the use of "live" topics which the speakers had personal connections to. The orations of the 1800s reflected the events and discourse of the time period in which they were delivered, a period that witnessed many social changes involving substantial economic, philosophical, moral, and scientific questions. The first IOC was hosted a little more than nine years after the Civil War ended, while the country was navigating its way through the Reconstruction Era. The speeches that addressed conditions in the South, the Civil War, and/or slavery included both a speech J.H. Finley delivered about the abolitionist John Brown (Finley, 1887) and Guy Everett Maxwell's speech about an anti-slavery Senator named Charles Sumner (Maxwell, 1891).

While still in the throes of Reconstruction, the United States entered the Long Depression that lasted from 1877 to 1896. The depression devastated the country economically as tens of thousands of businesses closed and unemployment jumped to fourteen percent (Klitgaard & Narron, 2016). This economic crisis inspired discourse about employment and labor practices, including Albert J. Beveridge's oration in 1885. Titling his speech "The Conflict of Labor and Capital," Beveridge argued for the rights of laborers in a system focused on profits (Beveridge, 1885). Similarly, E. Jean Nelson's 1892 speech "Industrial Freedom" focused on the role of the factories in economic progress (Nelson, 1892). Continuing to explore this general topic, L. F. Dimmitt in 1894 presented a speech entitled "The Humane Spirit in Modern Civilization." It dissected the internal conflict that he believed Americans were feeling in response to the poor working conditions that prevailed in "modern" factories and cities (Dimmit, 1894).

The depression and economic downturn were not unique to the United States. The impact of economic struggles was felt globally and had multiple causes, including Ireland's potato famine. In 1841, the number of immigrants flowing to the United States from Northern Europe spiked as a result of the potato famine (Library of Congress, 2018). Between 1845 and 1855, around one million or more Irish adults and children emigrated from Ireland to start new lives in the U.S. Thomas W. Graydon, who according to his published bibliography was himself one of those Irish immigrants, talked about the political debates then occurring in Ireland in his speech, titled "The Two Races in Ireland" (Graydon, 1875, pp. 37-41). Immigration from Eastern Europe also drastically increased during this period, and it reached an all-time high during the late 1800s (Klitgaard & Narron, 2016). Many student speakers talked about their own experiences as either immigrants or first-generation citizens of the United States. For example, Chauncey Frederick Bell—who was born in Canada and then moved to the U.S.—examined the place of immigrants in the U.S. after the Civil War in his speech, titled "Statesman and Nation" (Bell, 1897). Meanwhile, Victor E. Bender, whose parents were German immigrants, delivered the speech "Schiller and Germany" to advise United States citizens to learn from

Friedrich Schiller's theories about intellectual freedom. He argued that the attention being paid to Schiller by Germans was a main reason for the positive political reforms taking place in Germany, and he asserted that the United States could experience similar reforms if it also embraced Schiller's philosophies (Bender, 1885). Whether examining their own experiences or those of their parents, student speakers frequently chose immigration as their focus at the IOC's of the late 1800s. Personal connections to the "live" topics of the time period were thus apparent in the topic choices of the students.

Persuasive appeals used in the speeches. Smith (1996) categorizes the types of appeals found in IOC persuasive speeches as either fact, value, or policy-based. Both Smith (1996) and Friedley (1992) argue that prior to the 1970s, appeals tended to be value-oriented, while starting in the 1970s the speeches shifted to a policy orientation. Digging more specifically into this division, White and Messer (2003) found that most of the topics explored prior to 1930 were grounded in rather broad value appeals, a trait which I agree typifies the IOC speeches of the late 1800s. Many of the speeches used value appeals to make arguments about government structure, the different roles government played, and the responsibility government has to its citizens. In some speeches, these themes appeared in the form of examples used as support, but many speeches centered around such subjects. The speeches that focused on the operation of government, for example, questioned the meaning of American citizenship and argued about what role citizens should play in the government and how the government should work for the country. Yates (1880) delivered a speech on the topic of "The Evolution of Government," Ritsher (1886) on "Conservatism, an Essential Element of Progress," Daniels (1887) on "The Man and the State," Bell (1897) on "Statesman and Nation," and Barnett (1898) on "The Second Duty of the Citizen."

Another cluster of topics that used values to persuade related to religion. Specifically, many of the speeches addressed the role of Christianity in government, civilization, and everyday lives. The orators spoke on topics such as "Satan and Mephistopheles" (Curtis, 1877), "Faith and Doubt as Motors of Action" (Prouty, 1877), "The Philosophy of Scepticism" (Coffin, 1881), "The Political Mission of Puritanism" (Ross, 1883), "The Unity of Science and Religion" (Mackintosh, 1884), "The Puritan and the Cavalier in Our National Life" (Naylor, 1890), and "The Coming King" (Farrar, 1899). While focusing on values they felt were needed in politics and religious practices, the orators used value appeals to persuade their audiences.

Gathering Materials and Using Evidence

In order to best analyze how materials were gathered and evidence was used in the speeches of the late 1800s, we need to anchor our analysis in the time period. Trueblood (1907) explains that, once a student chose a topic, they were expected to find good sources written by well-known authorities on the subject. The student was to look for as many facts as possible about the topic in order to acquire "full information in regard to the conditions and the principles involved" (p. 11). Students were expected to gather data approaching the subject from many different angles, typically recording the information in their own words, though they might sometimes choose to "quote directly" (Trueblood, 1907, p. 11). However, Trueblood (1907) stresses that the student gathers this material in order to harvest "food for his [sic] own best thought" (p. 11). The student must "remember that an oration is not a mosaic of stolen gems, but original thinking founded on critical reading" (p. 11). Thus, the student must scrupulously avoid plagiarism (Trueblood, 1907). As

Trueblood explains, in order for the speaker to "grow in mentality (he) must not only gather thought from other sources but must compare that thought with his [sic] own conception of the fitness of things" (p. 11). In other words, "[o]bservation, intelligent use of the eyes and ears, the attitude of interrogation, mental alertness and open-mindedness are essential to power of thought, the basis of all good speaking" (p. 11). Ultimately, the orator's central goal during this stage is to "master the underlying principles, and to develop a spirit that is willing to deal fairly and squarely with facts and opinions" (p. 12). Only if the speaker develops a "clear insight into the fitness of things" will he/she develop "purpose in the oration, without which nothing can be accomplished" (p. 12). However, as a side note to the issue of plagiarism, it is important to point out that Trueblood did not discuss a specific procedure (or set of prescriptive guidelines) for how to document the sources drawn from, paraphrased, or even directly quoted.

Sellnow and Ziegelmueller (1988) provide a modern expansion of this approach to using evidence when they explain that evidence used in persuasive speeches can consist of either evocative appeals or logical proofs. They define evocative appeals "as the use of dramatic quotations, narratives or stories, slogans, refrains, vivid passages of description, or any other strategy designed to elicit emotional reaction from the audience" (Sellnow & Ziegelmueller, 1988, p. 77). On the other hand, these researchers define logical appeals as "the use of authoritative testimony, factual data, and statistical measures" (Sellnow & Ziegelmueller, 1988, p. 77). White and Sellnow (2003) also use these categories in their research. In the rest of this section, I demonstrate how evocative appeals, logical appeals, and documentation were used in the IOC speeches of the 1800s.

Evocative appeals. Evocative appeals were found in every speech examined. Examples (a type of narrative) were the most common form of evocative appeal employed. In 1878, J. Gerry Eberhart's oration was entitled "Dante," and he was judged by Benjamin Harrison eleven years before Harrison became the U.S. President. Eberhart's opening passage employs an admiring tone, an inspirational atmosphere, a lilting texture, and poetic nuance to make us "feel" Dante's importance. It relies on creating a sense of the man, rather than providing detailed logical facts about him, to provoke an evocative response in the listener, stating:

> The history of a nation is the history of her great men. Dante was the prophetic exponent of the heart of the Middle Ages, the embodiment of the character, and the realization of the science of his day. A character original, pathetic, and angelic, whose inspired soul led the intellect in its train. Tasso, Spenser, Goethe, Byron, and Milton bathed themselves in the light of his resplendent genius. (p. 73)

Another example of an evocative appeal is evident in a passage from Laura A. Kent's speech "Beatrice and Margaret (1876)." By using (among other things) adjectives that act as evocative labels ("exquisite delineations," "fair divinities," "irreverent hands," etc.), allusions to religious icons (Beatrice and Jesus), and assertions of experienced emotions ("most pleasing"), she builds an evocative appeal. She states,

> Beatrice and Margaret are, perhaps, the most exquisite delineations of womanhood to be found in the literature of the Christian centuries; and while so many fair divinities of elder days are fading into myths, it is most pleasing to find that the critical method which has dared to lay irreverent hands upon the person of Jesus himself, concedes, almost without an exception, that these two characters are real flesh and blood. (pp. 48-49)

Both of these quotations show how language was used to make evocative appeals in the IOC speeches of the 1800s. The examples were used to support arguments and make pathos-based appeals advancing the speaker's larger purpose.

Logical appeals. Authoritative testimony was a commonly used form of logical appeal. Occasionally present, but far less common, were logical appeals in the form of numerical data and statistical measures. Authoritative testimony was employed in almost every speech in the form of statements from famous people such as philosophers, writers, religious figures, and poets. In his speech, "Satan and Mephistopheles," Olin A. Curtis sought to describe how Satan's body looks. Rather than coming up with the words himself, he added authority to his argument by citing Milton, though he does not specifically state John Milton's full name nor the title of his work. He simply says, "but, touched by Milton's remarkable genius rendered formless and indistinct as well as vast" (Curtis, 1877, p. 54). He continued by citing George Elliot, saying, "…[this] serves to increase what George Elliot calls 'the grandeur of the wild beast'" (p. 54). Using Milton and Elliot as authorities on the visual image of Satan, Curtis asked the audience to combine the two viewpoints and logically deduce how the body of Satan would appear. Another example of this approach to citations was found in "Charles Sumner as a Philanthropist," delivered by Guy Everett Maxwell. Sumner, a U.S. Senator representing Massachusetts, died in 1874 while fighting in support of important civil rights legislation. In order to demonstrate that his own audience should support civil rights in 1891, Maxwell notes that Sumner's "last words were, 'Don't let my Civil Rights Bill fail' " (Maxwell, 1891, p. 37). These examples are logical appeals to the extent that the speakers are citing authorities to provide philosophical, legal, or moral support to extend their own claims.

Second, while the speeches of the late 1800s did not rely heavily on numbers and statistics, they were sometimes employed in speeches like Albert J. Beveridge's "The Conflict of Labor and Capitalism," in which he made a point about the growing likelihood of union proliferation. He stated, "[i]ncreasing population brings it each day nearer. Already we have 1,000,000 unemployed men; already 2,000,000 laborers secretly organized; already fifty newspapers spreading sedition and excess; and our population is doubling every twenty-five years!" (Beveridge, 1885, p. 152). Beveridge's example used numbers to show that in the status quo there was already support for unions, thus demonstrating to his audience that many others agreed with his position. Another example can be drawn from Lyman (1899). In his speech, "The Altruism of American Expansion," he stated that "[o]n America rests the obligation to determine the future of eleven millions [sic] of nature's disadvantaged children" (p. 193). In using this number to demonstrate the severity of the problem, he asked his audience to logically understand the magnitude of America's problem relative to children living in poverty. While the speeches of the 1800s incorporated very few statistics, numbers were used by these particular rhetors to provide logical perspectives on specific problems.

Third, following the lines laid down by Trueblood (1907), while expectations about the documentation of sources were loose, clear attempts were made to avoid plagiarism. However, the content of the source citations provided by students tended to be very "incomplete" by today's standards. As demonstrated in the previous examples, the original author was usually mentioned before the statement referenced. Most of the authors named tended to be famous figures of the past or present – contemporary "journalists" went essentially unmentioned. Meanwhile, the actual publication – the precise book or article –

was not usually cited, nor were publication dates provided. Additionally, when numbers or statistics were mentioned, a source was not usually given. One notable exception to the absence of named sources was the Bible, which was sometimes referenced by name. Overall, the speeches did not employ a consistent style of citation.

Construction of the Oration and the Organizational Pattern or Structure

The construction guidelines and organizational patterns used in the 1800s were not rigidly prescribed, but as oratory contests became more popular, a typical organizational pattern emerged. Trueblood (2007) goes into quite a bit of detail on the issue of organization, considering both the identity and nature of the elements which should be used to structure the oration. He suggests that the speaker begins by looking at the notes he/she has collected during the previous "gathering" phase, and then arrange them into "the order that seems most logical" (p. 12). The basic structure of the speech is built around three main parts: (1) the introduction, (2) the "development" (p. 12), and (3) the conclusion.

In nature, the introduction "should aim to get possession of the audience, and direct them into favor and cooperation" (p. 12). Its goal is to "conciliate and arouse interest" in the audience (p. 13). Ideally simple and concise in style, it "should be neither argumentative nor persuasive, but rather narrative, historical, or expository" (p. 12). For example, Coffin (1881) in his speech, "The Philosophy of Scepticism," asks, referring to faith and skepticism, "[h]ow does it occur, and what does it mean, that these two great intellectual forces are so often found together? Does it mean that they are related as cause and effect? Does it mean that faith can be purchased only by paying the fearful price of scepticism?" (p. 105). Coffin (1881) did not create an argument, but rather set up a dilemma by pointing to historical connections. The parts suggested by the question became the main points of division in the speech.

Another organizational component considered by Trueblood (1907) in relation to the introductory part of the speech is the element we currently call the organizational preview. He notes that "not infrequently the last part of the introduction takes the form of a partition of the speech" (p. 12). However, as described by Trueblood, this sentence takes a more subtle form than contemporary practice assumes – it may come in the form of a question, and it does not attach numbers to the main ideas. Furthermore, Trueblood's comment that this statement is "not infrequent" implies that it is also not automatically expected. Certainly such previews were not *de rigeur* in the late 1800s.

The second part of the speech, the "development," is what we would now refer to as the "body." Trueblood (1907) explains that the development of the speech "usually hinges about two or three divisions," and he argues that their basic nature should be as follows: "the first ... historical in character; the second, a setting forth of the present conditions; the third, the outlook, in which it is always pleasing to the audience to have one take a hopeful view of things" (p. 13). However, the number three is not sacrosanct. Rather, the actual number of main points used in the body of any given speech was determined by convenience, as different topics lent themselves better to a greater or fewer number.

The conclusion, according to Trueblood (1907), "should be the most persuasive part of the speech." It should include a summary that "bring[s] into hurried review the main points set forth in the oration." It also "gives opportunity for appeal to the loftiest sentiments, and to reach the highest moral level of the address" (p. 15).

Trueblood also pulls back from this detailed look at the specific parts of the speech to offer some general guidance about over-riding principles which should guide organizational choices. To begin with, each idea should rise out of what comes before it and lead into what comes next, so that "each idea will gain additional strength from those that precede it" (p. 13). Next, as the speech proceeds, "the purpose of the speech should be kept steadily in view, and every step taken should aid in accomplishing that purpose" (pp. 13-14). A third general principle is that the speaker should constantly keep the audience in mind as they write, striving "to impress his [sic] thought as though he [sic] were actually before the people" (p. 14). Next, the overall structure of the speech should demonstrate "clearness, force, variety, and rhythm." Fifth, the basic building block of the speech is the individual paragraph, "each adding a block to the structure, and bearing directly on the end sought." These paragraphs should be tied together through "the use of proper transitional phrases" which clearly show "their relation to each other" (p. 14). In a similar way, "link-words" should be used "to bind sentences together within the paragraphs" (p. 14). Finally, the structure of the individual sentence (as well as each larger unit of the speech) must be considered. According to Trueblood (1907, pp. 14-15), "[i]f properly written, a sentence grows in strength toward the end. The same may be said of the paragraph, of the division, and of the speech."

In seeking to connect Trueblood's (1907) ideas to the observable structure of the IOC speeches of the late 1800s, I discovered that expectations about the organization of the introduction, development, and conclusion took firmer shape and became more popularly accepted as the years passed. The earlier speeches seem to be more "free-flowing" in form, while the later speeches are moving toward the guidelines identified by Trueblood. A few of the student orators provided their speech outlines as part of the texts they submitted to the contest, and thus some of the printed texts include not only the words of any given speech but also the student's outline of it. The following three outlines (all published in *Winning Orations*) were variously used in speeches presented in 1885, 1888, and 1899. Thus, we are looking at how the students themselves envisioned the structure of their speeches. Viewed as a progression, they suggest a possible evolution.

Some of the oratories delivered in the early years of the contest used introduction-development-conclusion patterns overall but did not closely follow the three-point pattern Trueblood (1907) suggested be used in the development section. For example, in his speech titled "The Conflict of Labor and Capital" (1885), Albert J. Beveridge submitted the following outline to be published alongside his speech text in *Winning Orations*:

Introduction

- I. Principle originating most conflicts
- II. Principle solving such conflicts
- III. Application of above to conflict of labor and capital

Discussion

- I. Importance of the labor problem
- II. Social extremists already moving
- III. Positions of these social extremists
- IV. Positions of social extremists refuted
- V. Our present society equal to problem
- VI. True causes of conflict
- VII. True remedy the removal of these causes
- VIII. Forces preventing removal of these causes
- IX. These forces must therefore be overcome

X. Methods of overcoming them

Close

I. Summary (p. 151)

This speech outline does not follow contemporary rules regarding the use of co-ordinate ideas, nor does it keep the development ("discussion") section concise. However, it does foreshadow Trueblood's (1907) suggestions in that it helps the audience understand the history of the problem, explains the problem, and gives the audience hope for the future.

A second cluster of speeches, as illustrated by the speech, "Principles of Political Parties," likewise did not follow the Introduction-Development-Conclusion expectation articulated by Trueblood (1907). The author of this oration, R. G. Johnson, provided the following outline. Note that while it does not overtly employ the Introduction-Development-Conclusion format, it does roughly employ the trajectory from the historical to the present to optimistic reform:

I. Logical ground for existence of parties
II. Necessity of two parties
III. Derivation of principles underlying political parties
IV. The principles traced in political history
V. Outcome of attempts of independent parties, based upon narrow issues, to subvert dominant parties, e.g., Abolition, Free-soil, etc., Labor, Socialistic, and Prohibition parties considered.
VI. Errors of third partyism.
VII. Power of public sentiment to secure reform through existing parties.
VIII. Conclusion (1888, p. 191)

An organizational pattern such as Johnson's demonstrates the independent thinking some speakers used when organizing their speeches. Here, even the basic organizational "building blocks" of the speech are determined by what the speaker feels the particular topic and argument call for.

Trueblood's (1907) suggestions for how to organize a speech seem to have been followed more closely toward the very end of the 19th century. For example, to accompany his speech titled "Macbeth and Iago," William Samuel Wescott (1899) provided an organizational pattern that closely adhered to the pattern subsequently advocated by Trueblood (1907):

Introduction

Discussion

Conduct is only an outward expression of an inner condition. The philosophy of evil must be based upon the desires and purposes of the heart and mind.

The villain is necessary to the highest literary art. Shakespeare's philosophy of evil is found in his dramas. Macbeth and Iago are ethical types.

Macbeth is controlled by feeling. Iago is controlled by intellect.

Macbeth represents heart without mind. Iago represents mind without heart.

Conclusion

These two characters exhibit Shakespeare's philosophy of evil.

Humanity has much in common with Macbeth.

Iago is the consummate fiend; he champions the cause of heaven, but ruins the soul (p. 212).

The speech has an introduction, a discussion that is concise and to the point, and an ending that leaves the audience with a pointed conclusion.

The different organizational patterns we have reviewed show that, although a variety of organizational patterns was used during the last quarter of the 1800s, there was a clear difference between the earlier speeches and the later speeches. It seems the method of organization became more uniform as the years passed, moving toward the format soon after advocated by Trueblood (1907) as an optimal approach to persuasive speaking.

Stylistic Devices

Style has long been recognized as one of the basic "canons" of rhetoric. Given that both Trueblood (1907) and White and Messer (2003) highlight style as an important element of an oration, I analyzed the language strategies frequently used in the speeches of the IOC during the late 1800s in order to better understand the stylistic devices employed to persuade audiences. It is also important to examine the issue of style because this essay is centrally interested in the impact of cultural shifts on changes in the practice of oratory, and according to Okabe (1983) "the rhetorical canon of style is subject to the influence of cultural values and assumptions" (p. 492).

Definitionally, the term *style* refers to "the words and rhetorical devices the speaker uses to clothe his ideas" (Golden et. al., 2007, p. 41). According to Cicero, any given communicator's style can be pitched at three basic levels, two of which are relevant here. The first (and lowest) of these is the *plain* style, which is used to "prove" an idea . It embodies propriety, and is typified by being "clean," "proper," "adroit," and "neat." The speaker who uses it has their attention "directed to thought rather than language" and thus "disregard[s] rhythm and smoothness and avoid[s] ornamentation. . . [it] might employ mild metaphors and maxims, but only when they enhance ... understanding, never for effect." In other words, the *plain* style is "direct, expeditious and ordinary" (Golden et. al., 2007, p. 91). Elevated above the *plain* style is the *middle* style. According to Golden et. al., in this style "vigor [is] sacrificed for charm. Any and every form of ornamentation [is] appropriate, including the use of wit and humor. . . Harsh sounds [are] avoided. Euphony and imagery [are] cultivated" (p. 91).

We might argue that the typical oratory of 2020 tends to rely primarily on the *plain* style, while the IOC oratories of the late 1800s manifest a language style that tends toward the *middle* style. Thus, when reading the essays, it immediately becomes apparent that the overall tone and texture of these texts is more elevated and poetic than we are generally used to hearing modern speakers employ. Both Trueblood (1907) and White and Messer (2003) help guide my analysis of the specific stylistic elements which contribute to this overall impression.

Trueblood (1907) notes that there is a significant difference between the written style which is appropriate to essays and the oral style that best suits orations. He asserts that the orator "should strive to clothe his thought simply, in direct and pointed language, without pyrotechnics in thought or style" (p. 14). This is important because, while the written essay "is directed primarily to the understanding, the oration [is directed] to both the understanding and the will. The object of the speech is to secure action, and everything must bend to that end" (p. 14). Even so, what seemed "direct and pointed" to the audiences of a century or more ago seems quite elevated and poetic to the average audience member of today. Thus, when following Trueblood's 1907 guidelines, the speaker needs to be

sensitive to stylistic issues that are significantly more advanced than those we tend to talk about in 2020. Trueblood (1907, p. 15) urges the use of "variety in sentence structure," "force of expression," "an intermingling of light and heavy syllables in due proportion," and "rhythm" (though this last must not "be carried to excess so as to destroy the directness of the address, and make it sound too much like a poem").

Trueblood (1907) argues that the speaker's use of style should shift as the speech progresses. While the introduction should be "simple, concise, [and] without figure or ornament" (p. 13), the speaker should escalate their style in the conclusion in order to "urge" their ideas "with great force of expression and appeal" (p 15). To aid with this, "[t]he last sentence may be longer than the usual sentence and may contain special beauty of thought and rhythm of expression (p. 15)." The employment of this longer sentence at the end of a speech was demonstrated in many IOC oratories. For example, in his speech, "The Political Mission of Puritanism," John M. Ross (1883) ended by saying:

> … the soul of Puritanism 'is marching on.' As once it wrested Liberty from the tyrant's grasp, so to-day in the face of maddened mobs it asserts the majesty of Law. Nor will its works be complete till universal right prevails, and men are freed from every chain, save those by which 'this whole round earth is bound about the feet of God. (p. 133)

Beautifully worded and powerful sentiments, such as shown in this example, were affirmed at the end of many speeches. Furthermore, according to Trueblood (1907, p. 13), the conclusion should adopt an optimistic tone, since "it is always pleasing to the audience to have one take a hopeful view of things. Pessimism is poison to an audience or a judge." For example, Charles Noland (who earned Second Place in 1876), concludes his speech (which examines the struggle between science and religion) by saying,

> Let us harmonize all sectional differences and disputes, forget the dark cloud of fratricidal war which once hung loweringly o'er our fair land, and strike hands around our country's common altar of thanksgiving. Our nation *can* purge itself from its weaknesses, its follies, and its corruptions; so let it do, and with renewed youth and vigor spring forward to make the future as the past, and ever yet more glorious. Let the mighty conquerors of the first century go forth to yet grander triumphs; let Science and Invention subdue and subsidize to their purposes our forests and rivers, our mountains and prairies, and lakes; while Religion, untrammeled by civil laws or ecclesiastical bigotries, but bathed anew in the sunlight of its own pure heaven, and baptized with the spirit of the one Universal Father of us all, sheds its purifying and ennobling radiance over hill and valley, over mansion and cottage—then shall each successive year and age and century but mark the progress and prefect the triumphs so well begun. (pp. 46-47)

A more specific listing of the stylistic elements that can be sought in the IOC speeches of the late 1800s is provided by White and Messer (2003, p. 5), who looked "for cases of language strategies such as metaphor, simile, alliteration, personification, repetition, and allusions to literature, religious texts and mythology" in the speeches they studied. Such devices can be important to the speech, for as Olson (2010) argued, "metaphors and clever language choices serve to highlight the intentionality of writing the oration" (p. 201). My analysis of the IOC speeches of the late 1800s revealed that they made significant use of all of these devices.

Metaphors and similes were used frequently in these speeches. For example, metaphors appeared when T. Edward Egbert drew a parallel between the "breeze against

the sails [which] propels a ship" and "the emotions acting upon the will [to] beget action in the direction in which they impel" (1874, p. 19), and when he equated the orator's voice to a "trumpet" (p. 18). LaFollette (1879) made frequent use of these devices, connecting such pairs as suspicion/poison, jealousy/consuming fires, virtue/pitch (tar), goodness/ensnaring net, and Iago/a magnet with only one pole (pp. 80-86). Douglass (1890) used a metaphor at the very start of his introduction to establish his basic argument, equating the English language with a bubbling "silver stream" whose "rippling waters flash diamonds from their sunlit surface" as they flow across the earth (p. 222). And near the end of the century, A. M. Cloud argued that "democracy had become a grand fact, a living, transforming power ... as resistless as the surging ocean-tides" (Cloud, 1896, p. 134). Overall, the frequent use of metaphors and similes is easily found in the IOC speeches of the period.

While alliteration did not appear to me to be heavily used in these speeches, it is easy to find some or several examples of it in most of the orations. For example, Foster (1874, p. 23) included such phrases as "the fleets of the world will flock," while Coultas (1875) employed alliteration in a more complex and layered way when he talked about "wild, warring, struggling, surging humanity" (p. 32), as well as when he deplored "the impress of evil; popes, prelates, and priests, led on by the powers of hell" (p. 33). Also making use of alliteration, Noland (1876, p. 43) described "a darkened and depressed land," and men who have "delved into the deep mysteries." Meanwhile, Bancroft (1878) made heavy use of the device in passages such as: "swallows consort in myriads; the condor dwells companionless in the awful solitudes of the Cordilleras. Weakness wars with thousands. . ." (p. 67).

Personification was also regularly used by the orators in the late 1800s. For example, Coultas (1875) made frequent use of this literary device, apparent in such passages from his speech as: (1) "Culture – her garments yet wet with the dew of dawning day, her face luminous" (p. 33), (2) "Profound and metaphysical Germany, artistic and imaginative France, practical and energetic America, bluff and sturdy old England" (p. 35), and (3) "we grasp with firmer friendship the electric hand of Europe" (p. 35). Likewise, Prouty (1877) attributed human qualities to the concept of science-inspired doubt, stating that "the spirit of doubt has been bold and aggressive. It has questioned the wisdom and perfection of nature" (p. 59). Fifteen years later, the device continues to be used by such orators as Douglass (1890), who describes right and wrong "crowned on a common throne, while despotism and oppression crouch at the feet of liberty" (p. 223). In all of these cases, the use of personification vivifies the theoretical concepts the speakers are exploring and makes it easier to envision and grasp them.

Repetition was also used in the IOC speeches. Sometimes it appeared in the form of asking multiple questions in a row and then making a persuasive argument based on how the audience was assumed to have answered them. At other times, repetition appeared in the opening lines of sequential paragraphs. For example, E. Jean Nelson repeated the word "freedom" at the beginning of three consecutive paragraphs to argue that freedom cannot exist if people do not have the will to advocate for it (Nelson, 1892, pp. 41-43). In still other cases, repetition was used within a single sentence to create rhythmic builds. For example, Noland (1876) pointed out to his audience within the confines of a single sentence that "I have said nothing of the science of navigation ... nothing of the advancement of the

science of government ... nothing of the great discoveries in chemistry ... nothing of the laws of acoustics" (p. 43).

During the 1800s, it was also common for speakers to incorporate allusions to stories drawn from literature, the lives of famous figures, religion, and mythology. Many examples of this are available.

Some orators made allusions to famous literature. For example, in his speech on British rule in India, Foster (1874, p. 23) illustrates an idea by alluding to a poem by Byron, though he does not cite Byron as the author ("know ye the land of the cedar and vine, where the flowers ever blossom, the beams every shine"). Wescott (1900) mentions Shakespeare, Richter, and Matthew Arnold in his opening paragraph, as well as quoting Hugo saying, "[t]here is something grander than the ocean, and that is conscience; something sublimer than the sky, and that is the interior of the soul (p. 212)."

Meanwhile, many speeches alluded to the lives of famous figures. Thus, Foster (1874) referenced "antiquity's greatest woman – Semiramis," Alexander the Great, and the knights of the Middle Ages – all within his introductory section (p. 22). In a single sentence, Prouty (1877) invokes the presence of "Milton, Dante, Virgil, Homer, [and] Horace" (p. 63). And in another speech, R. G. Johnson explained, "[o]ur Lincolns, our Sumners, our Grants, met the Davises, the Stephenses, the Lees, not on the moral issue of slavery only – they fought for the broader idea, a political principle. They fought for the integrity of the nation" (Johnson, 1888, p. 193).

The use of religious allusions was even more popular. Highlighting just a few of the large number of examples available, Foster (1874, p. 22) alludes to the tower of Babel, Coultas (1875) references the killing of Abel in the Garden of Eden by Cain and then goes on to reference many other Biblical figures (among them Moses, Miriam, Jeremiah, and David's harp), Noland (1876, p. 42) alludes to "the Capucin friar," and Bancroft (1878) asks his audience to "think of the Prophet at Horeb; the royal Buddha in the caves of India; the divine Dante wandering like the shade of an unburied Greek" (p. 68). Of course, this last passage also illustrates the use of mythological allusions (which often intersect with Christian references). For example, Kent (1876) references "horrid Minos, judge of Hades" (p. 49). As the examination of religious topics continued throughout the late 1800s, so too did the use of religious and mythological references. Late in the century, Olin A. Curtis referenced Mephistopheles as a character in the work of John Milton by saying, "Mephistopheles would shatter every blessed hope and every cherished opinion; would blast whatever of zeal, whatever of trust, whatever of affection ennobles our toil and hallows our homes" (Curtis, 1891, pp. 55-56).

Yet other allusions commonly referenced historical locations, periods, or events. For example, A. M. Cloud referenced the different nations who had liberated themselves from Napoleon, saying that "Italy and Spain had blazed forth in democratic revolution and were sweeping on to grander freedom" (Cloud, 1896, p. 133). Yet another form of allusion involved referencing the emotions of people in a particular time period. As one case in point, R. G. Johnson stated, "An era of good feeling, as during Monroe's administration, may prevail, hiding, temporarily, these differentiating principles from public view; nevertheless, they exist" (Johnson, 1888, p. 193). The frequent use of vivid allusions seemed to be a very common trend in the speeches.

Delivery

The passage of years and the absence of video recording in the later 1800s means that we are unable to independently observe or assess the delivery techniques used at the time. However, two sources of information are available to us in *Winning Orations* that can crack the door open on what traits typified the delivery of these orators.

The first source of information is the collection of biographies which accompany the printed texts of the orations. Most (but not all) of the oratory texts are preceded by biographies of the student speakers. Some of these biographies are fairly detailed, others are quite brief. It is hard to be sure of who wrote them – some or all may be a mixture of information provided by the orators with the observations and research of the general editor – but we will here attribute them to Charles Edgar Prather, who edited the first volume of orations and co-edited the second volume. Some of these biographies praise specific aspects of a student's delivery. Thus, I will cite some of these comments since they seem to both reflect what the students did and reveal what the judges were looking for in regard to delivery.

The second source of information we have about the delivery ideals of the day (at least as they applied directly to the IOC) is an essay by Professor George W. Hoss, which Charles Edgar Prather (the editor of the 1891 edition of *Winning Orations*) describes as a "brilliant" essay by a "prominent educator of the day" that is "highly appropriate and instructive" and deserves "the popular praise of the public as well as the student" (p. 5). Titled "Orators and Oratory," this essay describes four key "divisions" of oratory: the oratory of reason, the oratory of the imagination, the oratory of feeling and passion, and the oratory of delivery. This last section of Hoss' essay (1891) begins by asserting that the importance of delivery has declined since the classical age. It quotes Cicero as saying that "delivery has the supreme power in oratory," and references Quintilian's claim that "it is not of so much importance what are ones [sic] thoughts, as it is in what manner they are delivered" (p. 235). However, according to Hoss, these views of delivery are "too strong for our age" since "a more intellectual age puts a lower price on delivery" (p. 235).

Even so, Hoss says, delivery is still important, and he makes "a strong plea for delivery" (p. 235). Hoss' essay, as well as the comments made in Prather's biographies, discuss aspects of both vocal and physical delivery.

The first aspect of vocal delivery noted by Hoss (1891) is having a rich, full voice that can assert itself strongly. This includes but is not limited to the ability to employ volume and project one's voice. He praises George Whitefield (a preacher well known at the time) as having "powers [that were] simply marvelous. His voice. . . could be heard distinctly by thirty thousand people" (p. 235). In the same vein, he praises Henry Clay for his "clarion voice" (p. 235), and admires Lord Brougham for being "the gladiator of Parliament" who was "[f]ierce, vengeful, [and] irresistible, you ... heard his roar. . . He seemed a mixture of man and lion—the lion often in front (p. 235)." Applying the call for full-throated delivery to the student speakers, Prather (1891) describes George T. Foster (an 1874 orator) as "a popular and eloquent speaker" whose "voice is full and remarkably flexible" (p. 21), depicts Thomas I. Coultas (an 1875 orator) as a speaker who is "impassioned and earnest" (p. 32), praises R.M. LaFollette (an 1879 orator) for having "a voice musical and magnetic" (p. 79), and honors R.G. Johnson (an 1888 orator) for having a "voice of remarkable richness and strength" (p. 183). Furthermore, voices like that of R.M. LaFollette demonstrate "faultless elocution" (Prather, 1891, p. 79).

Many of these comments also incorporate references to a second vocal delivery standard highlighted by Hoss (1891): excellence in the use of pitch and inflection. Hoss again praises the preacher George Whitefield, noting that "he could pronounce a single word with such pathos as to throw an audience into tears. Garrick said he would give a hundred guineas if he could pronounce the single letter O as Whitefield could" (p. 235). Accordingly, Prather (1891, pp. 15-16) notes the "full-toned melodious voice" of T. Edward Egbert, the first winner of the Inter-State contest in 1874. Prather refers to the voices of other student orators as "remarkably flexible" (Foster in 1874, p. 21), "musical" (LaFollette in 1879, p. 79), and in more than one case "rich" (pp. 190 and 197).

In relation to the standards of physical delivery, Hoss (1891) sets up several public figures as ideals to look to. These include Henry Clay for his "flashing eye and dilating figure" (p. 235). As already noted, Lord Brougham is depicted as a "lion," for "you more than saw his glare and heard his roar – you felt them (p. 235)." Overall, Hoss (p. 235) praises speakers who can physically *take charge* of the speaking situation. He notes that, "[t]his is the victory of physical courage and physical force. These have won with many; as Fox, Chatham, Mirabeau, Luther, and others. These were the men to contend with popes and kings, men who, as Luther says of himself, were born to 'fight whirlwinds and devils' (p. 235)." Prather (1891, p. 15) says little to link the theme of physical delivery to the student orators in their published biographies, but he obliquely suggests this idea when he asserts that T. Edward Egbert, the first IOC champion in 1874, "possesses by nature the elements of an orator" including "an imposing figure."

Comments by Prather (1891) also highlight the idea that delivery should demonstrate the speaker's sincerity. In line with Quintilian's "Good Man" theory, the ideal orator should be a true believer in the cause which they advocate. Accordingly, Prather notes that Thomas Coultas (an 1875 orator) "advocates what he believes" (p. 32), while R.G. Johnson (an 1888 orator) has "an earnest and direct style of speaking" (p. 190).

Finally, Prather indicates that the delivery of successful orators is typified by self-possession and the ability to think on one's feet. The delivery of an effective orator should never reveal that something has happened to "shake" them. Accordingly, Prather (1891) praises Egbert in 1874 for demonstrating "a ready utterance" (p. 15), honors Ed. H. Hughes (an 1889 orator) for his "self-possession before the audience" (p. 202), and notes that J.A. Blaisdell had proven earlier in his career that he had "the ability to think on one's feet" (p. 208).

Overall, Hoss (1891) concludes that the oratory of the ideal speaker "is powerful in passion and action, hence powerful in delivery (p. 236)."

Conclusion

After reviewing the creation of the IOC and the IOA and analyzing the top two speeches delivered at the contests in the late 1800s, there are some clear trends that can be seen throughout these 25 years. The topics that were written about, the evidence that was used, the organizational patterns of the different speeches, the stylistic devices employed, and the delivery praised, were clearly impacted by the time period. This historical critical analysis can help the forensics community understand the foundation of our craft. This is important because, as Messer and White (2003) argue, "so often in forensics we focus too much on what is cutting edge, and not enough on the traditions upon which our activity is

grounded" (p. 16). Knowing more about how competitive speaking came about and why the first national organization was founded can provide us with a historical foundation for an activity that is ever-changing.

However, this paper is only a starting point to understand the IOC and the speeches delivered at the contest. Further papers could explore other aspects of the speeches delivered in the 1800s and look at the speeches during the early 1900s. Delving into these speeches and the early history of forensics organizations reminds us of where our activity and its traditions comes from, and reflecting on our roots creates an appreciation for our own history, motivating us to consider the potential need for change as we move into our future.

It seems appropriate to end this essay with a final look back at the Inter-State orators of the late 1800s, who sought to emulate the ideal orator described by Hoss (1891). In his words,

> … it is obvious that the problem of oratory becomes in a good degree the problem of metaphysics. He who would control mind must know mind. He must know how to address the understanding to the exclusion of the imagination and feelings, and *vice versa.* He must know how to build a solid masonry of argument strong as a military fortress, and if need be, as rough and cold; and when built, he must know whether to leave it thus, or to soften its rugged outline by flinging over it a drapery of sunshine and flowers. He must know whether reason rules alone, or whether reason blended with the imagination, or feeling, or both. At other times he may wish the imagination to rule, weaving a web as light as gossamer or gorgeous as the Orient. At another time it is passion, when the soul becomes a furnace, and speech a mixture of whirlwind and fire. In a word, he must know, and that clearly, whether his aim is to *please*, to *instruct, to convince, to move*, or *to storm*. His aim known, he will know his instruments, whether logic, rhetoric, delivery, singly or combined. Here as everywhere aim or end must determine means. (p. 236)

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Appendix A
Dates and Locations of the Inter-State Oratorical Contests

Date	Location
February 27, 1874	Galesburg, Illinois
May 1875	Indianapolis, Indiana
May 1876	Chicago, Illinois
May 1877	Madison, Wisconsin
May 1878	St. Louis, Missouri
May 1879	Iowa City, Iowa
May 1880	Oberlin, Ohio
May 1881	Jacksonville, Illinois
May 1882	Indianapolis, Indiana
May 1883	Minneapolis, Minnesota
May 1884	Iowa City, Iowa
May 1885	Columbus, Ohio
May 1886	Lawrence, Kansas
May 1887	Bloomington, Illinois
May 1888	Greencastle, Indiana
May 1889	Grinnell, Iowa
May 1890	Lincoln, Nebraska
May 1891	Des Moines, Iowa
May 1892	Minneapolis, Minnesota
May 4, 1893	Columbus, Ohio
May 10, 1894	Indianapolis, Indiana
May 2, 1895	Galesburg, Illinois
May 6 (or 7), 1896	Topeka, Kansas
May 5, 1897	Columbia, Missouri
May 5, 1898	Beloit, Wisconsin
May 5, 1899	Lincoln, Nebraska

Appendix B
Inter-State Oratorical Contest Speech Topics and Speakers

Year	Speaker	School	Topic	Award
1874	T. Edward Egbert	Chicago University	The Heart, the Source of Power	1st
1874	George T. Foster	Beloit College	British Rule in India	2nd
1875	Thomas I. Coultas	Illinois Wesleyan University	Culture, a Basis for Brotherhood	1st
1875	Thomas W. Graydon	Iowa State University	The Two Races in Ireland	2nd
1876	Charles T. Noland	Central College	The World's Conquerors	1st
1876	Laura A. Kent*	Antioch College	Beatrice and Margaret	2nd
1877	Olin A. Curtis	Lawrence University	Satan and Mephistopheles	1st
1877	S. Frank Prouty	Central College	Faith and Doubt as Motors of Action	2nd
1878	E.A. Bancroft	Knox College	The Loneliness of Genius	1st
1878	J. Gerry Eberhart	Cornell College	Dante	2nd
1879	R.M LaFollette	Wisconsin State University	Iago	1st
1879	J.A. Barber	Oberlin College	Mahometanism and its Enemies	2nd
1880	L.C. Harris	Iowa College	Poe	1st
1880	Richard Yates	Illinois College	The Evolution of Government	2nd
1881	Charles F. Coffin	DePauw University	The Philosophy of Scepticism	1st
1881	Owen Morris	Carleton College	Progress, its Sources and its Laws	2nd
1882	Frank G. Hanchett	Chicago University	The Old and the New Civilizations	1st
1882	Arthur J. Craven	Iowa State University	The Cause of the Gracchi	2nd
1883	John M. Ross	Monmouth College	The Political Mission of Puritanism	1st
1883	Daniel M. Kellogg	Beloit College	The Saxon Element in Civilization	2nd
1884	Charles T. Wyckoff	Knox College	Judas Iscariot	1st
1884	George L. Mackintosh	Wabash College	The Unity of Science and Religion	2nd
1885	Albert J. Beveridge	DePauw University	The Conflict of Labor and Capital	1st
1885	Victor E. Bender	Knox College	Schiller and Germany	2nd
1886	E. C. Ritsher	Beloit College	Conservatism, an Essential Element of Progr	1st
1886	H. H. Russell	Oberlin College	Mob and Law	2nd
1887	J. H. Finley	Knox College	John Brown	1st
1887	Parke Daniels	Wabash College	The Man and the State	2nd
1888	R. G. Johnson	DePauw University	Principles of Political Parties	1st
1888	Harry M. Hyde	Beloit College	The Defender of the Constitution	2nd
1889	Ed H. Hughes	Wesleyan University	The Philosophy of Inequality	1st
1889	J. A. Blaisdell	Beloit College	Riot and Revolution	2nd
1890	S. W. Naylor	Washburn College	The Puritan and the Cavalier in Our National	1st
1890	A.C. Douglass	Monmouth College	Our English Language	2nd
1891	Frank Albert Fetter	Indiana University	The Heir Apparent	1st
1891	Guy Everett Maxwell	Hamline University	Charles Sumner as a Philanthropist	2nd
1892	E. Jean Nelson*	DePauw University	Industrial Freedom	1st
1892	George Hiram Geyer	Ohio Wesleyan University	The Optimism of History	2nd
1893	John Hovey Kimball	Beloit College	The Judgments of History	1st
1893	Myron J. Jones	Wooster University	The Greatness of Personality	2nd
1894	C. F. Wishart	Monmouth College	The Policy of Richelieu	1st
1894	L. F. Dimmitt	DePauw University	The Humane Spirit in Modern Civilization	2nd
1895	Otto A. Hauerbach	Knox College	The Hero of Compromise	1st
1895	Charles W. Wood**	Beloit College	The Better Personality	2nd
1896	A.M. Cloud	Lenox College	The Policy of Metternich	1st
1896	Fred Elliott	Monmouth College	Mob and the Law	2nd
1897	Perl D. Decker	Park College	The Basic Law of Progress	1st
1897	Chauncey Frederick Bell	Colorado University	Statesman and Nation	2nd
1898	William Pierce Gorsuch	Knox College	John Randolph of Roanoke	1st
1898	Jacob Allan Barnett	Wooster University	The Second Duty of the Citizen	2nd
1899	Rollo Lu Verne Lyman	Beloit College	The Altruism of American Expansion	1st
1899	George E. Farrar	DePauw University	The Coming King	2nd

**Signifies a woman who competed and placed in the contest*
***Signifies an African American who competed and placed in the contest.*

1940 – 1949: Understanding the Interstate Oratorical Contest During and After World War II

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The 1940s began shortly after the first salvos of World War II were fired. That war dominated the decade—for millions of lives touched or ended by the war, for those faced with the task of rebuilding when it ended, and even for the Interstate Oratorical Association. This paper examines the impact of the decade on the speeches presented at IOC and looks at patterns which appeared in the topics chosen, structures used, styles employed, and choice of supporting materials on which speakers relied. Attention is also paid to such logistical aspects of the contest as the tournament's continuing use of gender-separate competition, the awards given, the locations and dates selected, publication practices, and schools attending. An extensive appendix to this paper provides quotations from the most successful speeches of the decade in order to let the orations "speak for themselves" in their own words.

Introduction: The Relationship Between Culture and Public Speaking

It is a well-established truism in the field of public discourse that the choices which speakers make must be responsive to overarching cultural norms and expectations. As a consequence of this, Jaffe (1998) observes that "[s]ome cultural influences on public speaking are easy to identify" while "culture also influences our speaking in less visible ways." Some sources of cultural influence on public speaking include "our core resources, our democratic government, and our communication style. These factors vary from culture to culture and also within individual cultures" (p. 40). Jaffe expands on this theme by noting that "cultures vary not only in the value they place on public speaking but also in the *who, how*, and *what* they consider normal in public speaking" (p. 45).

But what constitutes a "culture?" While literally hundreds of nuanced definitions try to encapsulate this concept, it is widely understood to be a rule book (rather than a group of people) which accumulates over time in relation to a wide array of issues (values, attitudes, beliefs, World View, experiences, language, timing, religion, hierarchies, spatial relations, and much more). It is learned rather than innate and endures over time. But while the basic building blocks of any given culture persist over a wide span of generations, it is also true that culture is dynamic. As explained by McDaniel and Samovar (2015), "[d]espite its historical nature, culture is never static. Within a culture, new ideas, inventions, and exposure to other cultures create change" (p. 11). Public speakers participate in these dynamic shifts. As cultural expectations change, speakers are pressured to compose and deliver their speeches in different ways. Bailey (2018, pp. 31-42) sets the stage for some of the major shifts in public speaking expectations which were occurring in the years leading up to the 1940s. She draws from the work of Boorstin (1973) and observes that technological advances like home telephones and radio "revolutionized communication in the twentieth century." Before these technologies appeared, speakers attempting to reach large audiences spoke from platforms used a "formal oratorical mode" in which "the speaker had to stand up, shout loudly, and make broad gestures in order to be understood in the far corners." But the advent of mass broadcasting pushed "public

speaking" to morph into "just talking." United States politicians adopted a "more informal mode of public address" which "spread beyond the radio and beyond politicians into daily commerce and education." Providing further impetus to this shift was the career of Dale Carnegie, who began to teach a course in public speaking in New York City in 1912 (Bailey, 2018). His very popular book *How to Win Friends and Influence People* was published in 1936, and his teaching system was later franchised nationally. Bailey (2018, pp. 31-42) cites Boorstin (1973) to explain that "[t]he transformation in public speaking between [William Jennings] Bryan's 'Cross of Gold' speech in 1896 and the methods Carnegie shared was dramatic, moving from "the models and standards of 'eloquence' and 'oratory' to the person and his problems, from 'elocution' and 'declamation' to self-improvement and personal success." Speeches moved from being largely speaker-centered to being much more audience-centered, "a shift from a stirring solo performance to a persuasive conversation" and "more contemporary styles of public speaking" (Bailey, 2018, pp. 32-45). Bailey (2018) draws on Boorstin (1973) to note that "[c]olleges now had practical public speaking classes in the early and mid-twentieth century" and "extracurricular speaking opportunities also continued to increase for young Americans, black and white. Intercollegiate debating societies existed in most colleges, complete with coaches and frequent tournaments" (pp. 32-45).

As cultural expectations for speakers change, speakers likewise impact the cultural norms they respond to. According to Jaffe (1998), cultures "change and evolve over time as we continue to shape and mold our way of life, often through public speaking. History demonstrates this. Our views of slavery, women's roles, and homosexual partnerships have been modified as activists insisted on reforms in speech after speech (pp. 47-48)."

As reflected by all of the essays included in this issue, it is important to examine the links between cultural expectations and public speaking performances. Our particular interest here is in the relationship between the U.S. culture of the 1940s and the speeches composed by the orators whose voices were heard at the Interstate Oratory Contest. Thus, it is important that we narrow our focus to the events of the 1940s specifically.

The Frame of History: A Historical Context and the Response of the IOC

The 1940s were a pivotal time in the history of both the United States and the world. The period was dominated by the Second World War, which overflowed the first half of the decade. Following Adolf Hitler's rise to power in Germany in the 1930s, his armies began to march into other nations in 1939. In 1940, using the strategy of "blitzkrieg," German forces invaded Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and then France. Meanwhile, the USSR "annexed" Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. The bombing of London began, and Winston Churchill vowed that England would never surrender. Throughout 1940 and 1941, U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt refused to send American troops into the war (although the Lend-Lease Act did give him the power to lend or sell war supplies to nations engaged in the conflict). Ultimately, U.S. isolation ended when the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 and soon U.S. soldiers were deployed all over the world. Meanwhile back at home, Japanese Americans were sent to internment camps. On "the morning of June 6, 1944 (known as D-Day), 3,000 warships carr[ied] 200,000 American and British soldiers cross the stormy English Channel," and they landed "on the heavily fortified beaches of Normandy, France ... The

Battle of the Bulge [began] in December as Hitler muster[ed] 500,000 troops along the Allied front ... by the end of January 1945, more than 76,000 Americans [had] been killed, wounded, or captured" (The 1940s Decade Timeline, n.d.). Germany surrendered on May 7, 1945 – and Japan followed suit in September.

Once the World War was over, the Cold War between the United States and the USSR began. While they had been reluctant allies against the Axis during the war, the post-war period found the two newly minted world superpowers jockeying for position. Conceptualized in 1945, the United Nations held the first meeting of its general assembly in 1946. The Marshall Plan, designed to support the rebuilding of Europe, was enacted in 1947 and the U.S. continued the process of waking up to the reality of a shrinking global village. Tension between the U.S. and Russia skyrocketed in 1948 when the Soviet Union imposed a blockade on Berlin in a failed attempt to force the Allies out of West Berlin. Elsewhere in the world, India was pushing out British colonial rule and the State of Israel was established. Back in the U.S., President Harry Truman issued an executive order which put an end to racial segregation in the U.S. military. On the other hand, fear of the "communist (Red) menace" was rising and the House Un-American Activities Committee demanded testimony from and then jailed many prominent members of the entertainment industry. In 1949, the NATO Alliance was formed. Meanwhile, Stalin signed an alliance with the People's Republic of China (newly formed as a communist nation in 1949).

The IOC Response: The Sample of Orations Examined

The orators of the IOC were deeply affected by the aforementioned events. During the 1940s, the vast majority of the topics surveyed for this research were drawn directly from the world events just noted. This was not a period when orators tried to locate new and unusual topics that nobody had heard of before. Rather, the events examined in the IOC speeches were the events that filled the daily newspapers.

Starting in 1941, the IOC was hosted annually throughout the 1940's at Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois. Since it was not possible to access the speeches of the period 1940-1942, the perspective expressed here is the result of a review of 46 speeches presented at the IOC between 1943 and 1949. During this seven year time span, a total of 67 schools hailing from 13 different states (mainly in the Midwest) were represented at the contest. For the purposes of this essay, at least six speeches were examined from each of these years. Since the IOC was divided into separate divisions for men vs. women at this time, this research examines both the three highest-ranked speeches composed and delivered by women and the three highest-ranked speeches composed and delivered by men. Due to the unavailability of a complete set of speech manuscripts from each year of the 1940s, the decision to examine 6 speeches in each of 7 years available produced a starting set of 42 speeches. Four additional speeches were added to this group – three others from 1943 (since I was unable to obtain transcripts from the 1940-1942 years) and one more from 1946. While this speech did not place in the top 3 in its division, it was delivered by George S. McGovern, later Senator from South Dakota, the Democratic Party's Presidential nominee of 1972, and one of the most famous alumni of the IOC.

Patterns Observed in the IOC Speeches of the 1940s: Topic Choices in the 1940s

Subject Matter Choices

In order to be successful in competitive forensics, it is crucial to begin the process by choosing an optimal speech topic. As noted by Olson (2010) in his review of IOC speeches, "topic choice is key for the successful orator. . . no small amount of debate has occurred on what makes a 'winning topic'" (p. 198). Whatever else may be required, Olson asserts that "the topic/problem must be one the speaker feels strongly about" (p. 199). White and Messer (2003), in reviewing sample speeches across the lifespan of the IOC, concluded that "prior to 1970 the majority of Interstate Oratorical speeches used value-oriented topics ... After 1930, although the topics remained value oriented, the issues they addressed were a bit more direct" (p. 6). Even so, "the lack of topics [over the whole history of IOC] based on questions of fact implies that Interstate oratorical speakers tend to prefer topics with inherent value arguments. Even the more recent speeches that are policy oriented utilize topics that maintain some element of value-based argumentation" (p. 7).

Throughout the 1940s, IOC orators did indeed view major world events in terms of their value-centered dimensions. The most frequently discussed of these events was the war itself. Of the 46 speeches reviewed here, more than half of them (25) were either directly about the war (events either abroad or on the home front) or referenced the war as part of their argumentation. While not all of these speeches made the war their primary focus, they nevertheless considered the war in major and/or minor ways as part of their analysis. Fourteen of these orations considered how to build a post-war world, while individual issues such as international isolation, "Victory Girls," the internment of Japanese-Americans, valuing our "four freedoms," and war profiteering were among the concerns considered.

The second-most frequently addressed topic area in this set or orations concerned the treatment/rights of various minority groups in the U.S. Various speeches called for change relative to racial injustice (7 orations), the mentally ill (3 orations), and the physically disabled (1 oration). One other speech (Dillon, 1947) examined the question of equal rights for women, but concluded that "We don't want [equality]. We never did want it" (p. 60).

One major issue which emerged in the second half of the decade as a national concern – the Cold War with the USSR – also received significant attention. One orator argued that we must do more to fight communism, another warned us that we needed to be strong in order to keep the respect of a strong USSR, and a third deplored the "Red Scare" and the work of the House Un-American Activities Committee.

A few speeches focused on media issues. One lauded traditional newspapers and reminded us of the need for a healthy free press. Two others derided the media – one asserted the dangers of radio soap operas, while another descried modern fiction as a threat to our morality.

Others were concerned with moral decay among their own generation, presenting speeches on juvenile delinquency, sexual promiscuity, the misery of illegitimate children, and the need for sex education programs in schools.

Relative to other major events happening around the world, one orator focused on the struggle for India's independence. Domestically, single speakers discussed the

difficulty of being part of the teaching profession, the limits of technology, soil conservation, and bad doctors.

Another cluster of speeches looked at "big questions" regarding over-riding philosophies of life (rather than primarily at specific issues those philosophies might inform). Here, orators defended the importance of becoming humanistic (as opposed to strictly "practical") thinkers, advocated the libertarian philosophy, defended free enterprise and capitalism, and avowed that Beauty is real and survives.

Taken as a group, these topics differ in several ways from those which have dominated competitive forensics at large in recent years. First, they tend to be about major world events rather than narrowly confined niche issues. Coach H.L. Ahrendts of Nebraska State Teachers College testified to the community's preference for this approach during the 1940s in an introductory essay found in *Winning Orations*, stating that "oratory to be great must deal with ideas which make a difference in the affairs of men and nations" (1949, p. 11).

Second, the IOC speeches of the 1940s dealt with topics that virtually all listeners were highly likely to have thought about, read about, and talked about many times before. There was essentially no attempt made to find "new" or "fresh" topics which people were previously unfamiliar with. Indeed, at least some prominent members of the IOC in the 1940s disparaged the hunt for "new topics." Coach Ray DeBoer of Dakota Wesleyan University (1948, p. 3) asked (in an introductory essay placed at the front of the 1948 issue of *Winning Orations*), "[w]hat shall the orator write about? Any problems which exists [sic] on a state, national, or international basis. Orators sometimes tell us a suggested subject is 'trite.' It would be more correct to say that there are 'trite' ways of handling an old subject."

Third, the topics tended toward the broad rather than the narrow. For example, they discussed *all* types of mental illness (not just one or two), they considered the "equality of women" in general terms and not in a narrow context, and so on.

Fourth, the topics tended to be genuinely controversial. The orators frequently ran the risk of offending sensitive members of the audience. They did not feed their audiences the comfortable judge-affirming food that many speakers today seem to prefer. Rather, they bravely challenged their audiences to question their own beliefs and practices. As Ahrendts (1949) asserts, "The oration itself must be something more than a speech not too distinctly remembered by the audience, and one leaving only a pleasant effect or impression. The orator himself must be 'inwardly drunk with a certain belief'" (p. 11).

Fifth, the topics often tended to be far more philosophical than they were pragmatic. They tended toward "the big picture" and "the philosophy behind the practice" rather than focusing on many concrete and statistical details showing how those philosophies were manifested. As a group, they generally sought to "inspire" the audience rather than advocate specific action steps. They sought to change life perspectives more than they sought to promote exact behaviors.

Clearly, the topics orators chose in the 1940s contrast with the topics popular today. Because they may be of interest to the reader, attached to the end of this paper (as a part of Appendix A) is a year-by-year listing of the topics explored by the most successful IOC orators between 1943 and 1949. The competitive placement of each speaker in each year's contest is also indicated in Appendix A.

Topic Choice Range: Enabling Diverse Approaches

Currently, we constantly discuss the nature and impact of a wide range of "unwritten rules" which profoundly affect the choices made and actions performed by both competitors and judges (Paine, 2005). And while every era accepts its own particular set of rules and guidelines, the unwritten rules of the 1940s (to the extent they existed) contrasted vividly with some of today's normative expectations.

In the 1940s, orators were given a great deal of freedom in deciding what to talk about and how to talk about it. For example, there was a fascinating face-off in the 1945 women's competition. Mary Fujii's speech on the domestic internment of Japanese Americans was a deeply felt and richly emotional oration. It dealt with an important world issue (albeit a somewhat "narrowed" one) in a very personal way. She recounted the experiences of her family, herself, and her boyfriend during the time they were housed in the U.S.-built internment camps. Meanwhile, Charlotte Erickson's speech was about the global need for people to give up their own privileges and put worldwide human rights first. It was a "bigger issue" in the sense that it involved more people and called for a more profound change in attitude and perspective. The oration had a personal story, and it was engaging, but it was far less emotional. In a sense, the judges were confronted with a face-off between large and small, logical and emotional, philosophical and behavioral. These two women competed against each other in the Eastern Division, and there the judges placed Erickson first and Fujii second. But when they met again at IOC nationals, the rankings were reversed and Fujii was first while Erickson took second. This story illustrates that students analyzing topics at very different levels and approaching them from very different angles could find success at the IOC in the 1940s.

But the speakers were not the only ones who embraced a wide array of options. Apparently the judges also were ready and willing to see the world from varied (and sometimes contradictory) angles. For example, in 1945 Charles J. Smith placed third at IOC while arguing that his audience needed to <u>reject</u> the popular claim that the 20th century was to be the "century of the common man," asserting that people needed to respect *uncommon* men instead. The very next year, Thomas L. Hughes took second at IOC while arguing that his listeners needed to <u>embrace</u> the "century of the common man" claim.

Topic Choice and Honoring Convictions: Personal Bravery

The IOC in the 1940s clearly expected students to connect to the topics they chose. Thus, Kenneth L. Berger, coach at Luther College, wrote in an introductory essay at the start of the 1948 *Winning Orations* that "if there is one step in the preparation that is stressed above all others, it is that [the student] find a subject which stimulates him. Preferably, one where he feels an injustice is being done, or where a threat exists to principles he holds dear" (p. 5). Likewise, William C. Lang, coach at Yankton College, wrote at the start of *Winning Orations 1949* that "the choice of subject should run deeper than simply that it is a 'good' subject. The element of sincerity and earnestness, so necessary in effective oratory, can best be aroused in speaker and audience by the firm conviction that what is being said is significant, deeply significant to the speaker" (p. 10). This demand rings true in 2020 as well. The belief that speakers should demonstrate a deep personal commitment to and investment in the topics of their speeches has resurged in contemporary forensics and is an important judging criterion for many critics today.

Furthermore, in the 1940s many IOC orators demonstrated not only strong personal convictions but also true personal bravery in their choice of topic. A notable example of this is "Witch Hunt," delivered by Karlton J. Rosholt of Luther College in 1948. At a time when the country was terrified of the career-destroying power of the Un-American Activities Committee, this college student dared to call them out. How brave must he have been to stand up in public and say: "I am opposed to the manner in which the un-American activities investigations and the loyalty checks are handled and to the lack of safe-guards surrounding them. …Friends, security of personal freedom and individual liberty basic to our way of life is rapidly being reduced by post-war hysteria and prejudice." Meanwhile, how brave must have been the judges of the IOC championship, who made Rosholt the IOC Men's Champion for 1948?

A different kind of bravery was displayed by Joe B. Laine in 1949 (the period certainly did not breed cowards). He won the Men's competition that year with a speech entitled "Return from Wasteland." In it, Laine uses a very interesting and rather complex technique that violates one of our basic "generally-accepted speech principles" of today. Rather than connecting himself to his audience as one of "us," he deliberately separated himself from his audience and attacked them as the causes of the problem he was indicting (mistreatment of the mentally ill). The speech was framed as an "apology" to them for his "unfair judgment" of them – but as it went on, the apology slipped away and the attack on the audience returned and grew in intensity. Finally, when he had perhaps alienated them, he said that he saw his mentally ill friends in their faces – thus transforming his audience into those he had accused them of attacking, framing the audience again as the victims of attacks rather than as the perpetrators of them. Only in this permutation, the audience had been aligned with the mentally ill patients, and the speaker had been aligned with the attacking public. Thus, the final appeal of the speech was, in essence, "beware of how you treat others, for this could happen to you next." There was even a strong suggestion at the end (though it was not absolutely established) that many of the patients he had been talking about were in fact veterans returned from the war, a suggestion which increased the intensity of the guilt he had made the audience feel by pushing them to realize that in rejecting the mentally ill they were (in reality, or in spirit) rejecting the very soldiers who won the war.

Speeches like Laine's convince me that one basic difference between the audiences of 1940 and the audiences of 2020 is <u>when</u> they decide on their reaction to a speech. Today, my reading of many tournament ballots suggests to me that judges have a very clear and absolute template in their heads of what a speech is supposed to look like – it's form, components, style, etc. (Paine, 2005). If a speaker violates those expectations at the start of the speech, the judge starts to score up the violations and – early on in the speech – may make up his or her mind to reject it. But the orations of the 1940s more typically required audiences to delay their reactions – to listen to the <u>whole</u> speech before they made up their minds about how to react to them. Topic announcements were not infrequently delayed until the speech was more than half over. And (as already noted) those topics tended to be truly controversial and presumably directly challenged the basic beliefs and attitudes of many audience members.

Speech Structure in the 1940s

The issue of speech structure is one often discussed in contemporary research panels and private coaching sessions. However, while contemporary Persuasion speakers tend to tightly adhere to a single widely accepted speech structure, that was not true in the 1940s. As Olson (2010, p. 200) observes:

> The content of the successful Interstate speech rests not only with a winning topic, but also in how the speech is developed. …However, while some level of structure is no doubt helpful, the successful Interstate contestant needs to balance this expectation for explicit structure, [sic] with the expectations from the final round panel of judges being for merely 'some' structure … where less is often more.

White and Messer (2003) concur. They looked for the possible use of problem-solution, problem-cause-solution, cause-effect-solution, and/or a basic topical pattern in the speeches they examined, and concluded that "the vast majority of the [recent] speeches utilize[d] some form of a problem/solution organizational pattern. . . [whereas before] 1975, most of the [IOC] speeches did not cover a cause-related point, and focused only on the problem and its solutions" (p. 7). Also in relation to the use of organizational elements, White and Messer (2003) examined the use of connnectives (preview statements, internal transitions, internal previews, and internal summaries). Concurring with results previously found by Friedley (1992), they "found that few speeches prior to 1980 used any connectives. Unlike current speeches that tend to be overly organized with previews, transitions, internal previews and internal summaries, most of the speeches we analyzed did not use connectives at all. Before 1980 even the basic introductory preview and main point transitions were rare" (p. 7).

The 46 speeches I reviewed generally demonstrated the pre-1975 organization-related patterns noted by White and Messer. The speeches of the 1940s tended to omit both causes and connectives. However, it is important to note that there is quite a bit of variety in what the speakers did. These speeches very seldom look at the causes of the problems, but a few do so to a minor degree and in vague terms. Solution points tend to be quite short, and vary somewhat in terms of how concrete/specific the actions are that they call for. After all, Yankton's coach William Lang (1949) explains, "if it is a problem oration, the exactness of the solution ought not to be over-emphasized since complex problems of life are not solved in five hundred words or less" (p. 10). A few orators here and there summarize their main ideas near the end of their speeches, but this was not the norm. Some do have preview statements – but more do not. A few even number their main points – though they are definitely in the minority.

These results appear to be in keeping with the pedagogy of the time. DeBoer (1948, p. 3) states in *Winning Orations* that, "so far as the organization of the speech is concerned, we have found Alan H. Monroe's motivated sequence – attention, need, satisfaction, visualization, and action steps – particularly useful, natural, and effective." Meanwhile, Lang (1949, p. 10) coaches a style in which, "as the speech progresses, its organization should work toward a climax which will call from the speaker his best efforts of communication and result in the audience's deepest response. From the climax, the oration descends rather rapidly to its close." Thus, these coaches writing in the 1940s advocated structural choices that were (compared to today) comparatively flexible rather than tightly formulaic.

Stylistic Devices in the 1940s

DeBoer (1948, p. 3) highlights the importance of stylistic features to the IOC in the 1940s. In his introductory essay for the volume, he states, "the writer ought to pay particular attention to such rhetorical devices as loose, balance [sic], and periodic sentences, antithesis, the anthem device, the rhetorical question, slogans, restatements, factual illustrations, etc. The oration should have a title which is short, relevant, and thought provocative." The issues of length and word economy are likewise raised by DeBoer (p. 3), who asserts, "between 1200 and 1500 words is sufficient length. Don't run the risk of boring your audience with 2000 words! ... An oration is hardly time for idle chatter. Every word which does not help to convey the message to the auditor should be deleted. Go over the speech with a fine-tooth comb. Human attention will not focus on inert thought for long; the talk must move steadily toward – your *goal.*"

White and Messer's excellent review (2003) highlights the enduring importance of the canon of style in IOC speeches. Based on a sampling of speeches presented between 1875 and 2000 (one speech every five years), they assert that "[w]ithout a doubt, Interstate Oratorical speeches are highly concerned with elements of style" (p. 12). In fact, they conclude that "the use of highly stylized language in IOA speeches is the most notable consistent characteristic throughout the history of the competition" (p. 2). These stylistic elements include the use of appeals based on guilt and altruism, personification, alliteration, repetition, metaphor, rhetorical questions, and so on. The establishment of the speaker's personal involvement in the topic is also an important stylistic device (White and Messer, 2003; Dean, 1992; Sellnow and Ziegelmueller, 1988; Reynolds, 1983). In their study, White and Messer found that "personal involvement first appeared in our analysis in Steensma's 1945 speech about disabled veterans. He spoke of his own experience visiting a large army hospital ... Personal involvement appears in almost all of the speeches we analyzed representing the years from 1945-1985" (p. 10). Overall, White and Messer note that, while the "sophistication of [the] language used varies ... all of the speeches depend on vivid language strategies at some point in their construction" (p. 12).

Even so, it appears that there was a bit of a "brake" being applied to stylistic choices in the 1940s. In an introductory essay placed at the start of the 1948 *Winning Orations*, Luther College coach Kenneth Berger states:

> The student orator is encouraged to … couch … his thoughts in simple language, and to remember that there is a good deal of persuasion to be found in the presentation of life facts. Considerable time is spent weeding out so-called oratorical flights and broad generalizations that characterized some oratory years ago … there is merit in searching for the most suitable progression, the most adequate word to use, the most satisfying illustration. (p. 5)

This emphasis on painstakingly careful writing is repeated in *Winning Orations* by coach William Lang, who holds that "an oration must give careful attention to literary style – the construction of its sentences and paragraphs. The vocabulary ought to be exact in connotation and meaning and used with an artistry" (p. 10). His perspective is echoed by coach H.L. Arendts (1949), who holds that the style must be "clear, correct, concise, and appropriate. His [sic] style, that indivisible element of the process of persuasion, should be simple and direct" (p. 11).

Of the stylistic devices considered by White and Messer, profound personal involvement was especially typical of many of the IOC speeches of the 1940s. For example, in 1943 (a year not sampled by White and Messer), Grace Douma started and ended her speech "Until They Come Back" as follows:

> Thirty-six hours ago, I stood on the platform of the railway station and watched the beautiful streamlined Rocket pull slowly away, carrying to the Army Air Corps two boys who are very close to me. …I watched the gleaming observation car slip into the darkness of the night. …On the day when the rocket pulls into Union Station on its way north after the armistice, if God permits both boys to step from the train, I pray that I may walk up to them with my head held high, and say to them, proudly, 'Here are the freedoms for which you fought so valiantly and for which so many gave their lives. We have preserved them well. (pp. 13-15)

A similar connection is made by Thea Jane Bouma in "The Peace Road," which she opens as follows:

> At two minutes to eleven o'clock on Armistice Day, a bell always rang in our elementary school. Then, until the factory whistles blew at eleven, the whole school was quiet. During those two minutes of silence we children were told to think – about the armistice that had been signed six years before we were born; to be sad about the men who had died in that war. …Today the boys who were in our class are eighteen and nineteen. The government says to them, 'Pick your branch of service. Get in there and fight! Otherwise the draft will pick it for you.' Hubert, the blonde boy who sat across from me in third grade, is already dead, killed in naval action near Alaska. He never thought of peace when he was in the third grade with us, but he died in a fight for it. This is 1943. There is no peace. (p. 20)

Other speeches during the 1940s rely on the speaker's personal experience as their primary (or even solitary) form of proof. For example, Fujii (1945) talks about her incarceration in a Japanese American internment camp, Bob Underhill (1946) talks about what happened when his troop's plane was forced to land behind the Russian line, John W. Low (1947) talks about being a pilot in the war, and Joe B. Laine (1949) relies heavily on his experiences as a gardener at a mental care facility.

The stylistic issue of language choice is also significant to these speeches. They regularly employ vivid and elevated language. Their tone is erudite and evocative.

Use of Supporting Materials in the 1940s

Types of Supporting Materials

Another speech component considered by scholars studying IOC speeches is their use of evidence. Olson (2010, p. 204) opines that "the title of the event the final round judges have come to hear is the Interstate Oratory Contest, and for many, the word 'oratory' conjures up great meanings of high emoting and great conviction." Thus, oratory at the IOC incorporates appeals to all three members of Aristotle's triad: ethos, pathos, and logos. White and Messer (2003) focused on the use of both evocative appeals to pathos (narratives, examples, vivid illustrations, and descriptions) and logical appeals to logos (statistical evidence and expert testimony). They concluded that evocative appeals have been used regularly ever since the earliest days of the contest, noting that "of the speeches we analyzed ... every speech used at least one piece of this form of evidence. Examples were without question the most common type of evocative support used ... [and]

[n]arratives were a popular form of support after 1930" (pp. 8-9). Overall, the "commitment to evocative appeals" by IOA speakers was one of the most consistent speech characteristics identified by White and Messer. Meanwhile, the use of logical appeals became "more common" after 1930, and the speeches of 1980-2000 demonstrated "a much more noticeable dependence on logical supporting materials than earlier speeches" (p. 8). The push for an increased use of logical support after 1930 is reflected in an introductory essay penned by Yankton College coach William Lang in *Winning Orations*. He argues that "oratory is not just an opportunity to be emotional. The material used should have been secured through genuine research efforts" (p. 10). Even so, in the speeches I examined, the use of evocative appeals strongly outweighed the use of logical support – both in terms of number and (at least for this reader) in terms of effectiveness. At times numbers were used, but they seem to support (rather than take precedence over) the emotional appeals. Logical support was not expected to carry the brunt of the argument. Ultimately, it may not be a question of whether to use emotional *or* logical supports, but rather a question of how to balance them. Today, speakers tend to use statistics and objective testimony to establish "the big claim," then they may back it up now and then with an emotional example or evocative language. In the 1940s, this equation was reversed. "Truth" was found in evocative appeals, and (perhaps) then impacted or "documented" through the use of statistics or quotations from "experts."

Use of Documentation

White and Messer (2003) also examined the use of documentation in IOC speeches. They "simply counted the number of times the speakers referred to outside sources …[and] coded not only complete citations, but also instances of historical references, quotations by key historical figures, and excerpts from literary works as forms of documentation" (p. 6). They found that:

> Only two speeches prior to 1955 use print sources as documentation. …Although most speeches prior to 1955 did not utilize clearly cited print sources as forms of documentation, many speakers did include quotations from historical figures or noted philosophers. These quotations, however, were not accompanied by a citation for where the speaker read them. …Several other speakers included excerpts from literary works, but these were more used for stylistic reasons than for documentation purposes. (pp. 12-13)

Of the 46 speeches reviewed for this paper, several included quotations from historical figures (or noted philosophers), several referred to news stories found in the popular press, and only one or two provided relatively "full source citations" for referenced material. This suggests that the judges accepted to a significant degree the ethos of the speakers "as they stood" rather than expecting them to "borrow" ethos from authoritative external sources. Perhaps, since the significant issues considered, the erudite language employed, the powerful personal experiences referred to, and the advanced educational status of the students (collegiates) all indicated that they were both reflective and well-informed, the judges of the 1940s "took the students' word for it" more than judges today are willing to. This trust in ethos is, in fact, highlighted in *Winning Orations* itself. DeBoer's essay in the 1948 issue states:

> In an attempt to crystallize thinking on what constitutes effective oratory, we shall begin with the orator. Who make a good orator? Who makes a good speaker, generally? The great

> Roman speech teacher, Quintilian, is reported to have said, 'An orator is a good man speaking well.' Somehow as we listen to an orator, we seem to be able to sense whether or not what he says is 'from heart.' The speech 'authorities' spend page after page in telling us how to write a speech; but before they finish, they usually say something like this – all these resources help, but there is one force which has even more persuasive power and that is the *character* of the speaker. The college four-flusher, quack, or charlatan, will not, generally, make an effective orator. The young man or lady with a high degree of 'personal' proof will do a better job. (p. 3)

This same stance is asserted the following year in an essay by H.L. Ahrendts in *Winning Orations*, who argues that "in the selection and training of the orator the character of the speaker is all-important. Emerson defined eloquence as 'the art of speaking what you mean and are.' The modern college orator may well consider that his personality and character are instrumental in facilitating the acceptance of belief" (p. 11). The connection of ethos to pathos is integral to this position. As Ahrendts goes on to avow, "sincerity and belief in the cause being advocated are fundamental. Mind is moved by mind. Feelings are stirred by feelings, and the orator must never forget the poet's truth, 'that we have all of us one human heart'" (p. 11).

Logistics: Some Details Concerning the Management of the Competition

Gender Separation

As noted by Schnoor (1984), between 1936 and 1973 men and women competed in separate divisions at the IOC. This split is reflected in the type of topics used in each division, which often appear to be markedly gendered in line with traditional cultural stereotypes. For example, in 1944 the top three speeches authored by women examine female sexual behavior, citizen selfishness on the home front, and the eternal presence of Beauty. Meanwhile, the top three speeches authored by men examine the role of independent colleges, U.S. isolationism, and the "century of the common man." While many topic choices during the decade do not seem gender-linked, quite a few do.

Awards

Schnoor (1984, p. 3) further notes that cash prizes were awarded from the beginning of the contest in 1874 through 1953 ". . . when it was decided to discontinue them." An awards-bubble occurred during the 1940s, in that "[t]he monetary awards were supplemented for a time during the late 1930s and early 1940s by a cash gift donated by Dr. Frederic Bancroft of the Metropolitan Club, Washington, D.C. His gift was contributed in memory of his brother, E.A. Bancroft, who won the Interstate contest in 1878 as a representative of Knox College and later was the United States Ambassador to Japan" (p. 3).

Locations and Dates

Schnoor (1984, p. 3) also explains that "the site of the annual contest rotated among cities in the states belonging to the Association. In 1941 it settled at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. It remained at Northwestern until 1957." In the time span explored in this paper, the earliest IOC took place on April 22-23 (both 1943 and 1948), while the latest one took place on April 27-28 (1944).

Publication Details

As explained by Schnoor (1984, p. 4), "In 1934 the Association took over the publication of the winning speeches and has continued publishing all of the orations presented at its annual contests in *Winning Orations*." During the years 1943-1949, *Winning Orations* was under the oversight of Kenneth G. Hance, the organization's Executive Secretary. In 1943, Hance was a member of the Department of Speech at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor. The 1946 edition identifies Hance as a member of the School of Speech at Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois. The size of the book during this time was approximately 5 3/4" x 9."

Participating Schools

Table 1 features attendees of IOC between 1943 and 1949. Award winners are noted by placement and either W (Women's Division) or M (Men's Division). When a year is listed twice for the same school, that means that the school sent both a men's representative and a woman's representative to the contest that year (for example, this is true of Augustana College of Illinois in 1945).

Conclusion

In the 1940s, life in the United States was changing in major ways. The orations which were successful at the IOC during the decade were clearly written and delivered by students who were very much in touch with the "big issues" which were dominating life in the United States at the time. In a decade ravaged by war and subsequently challenged to build a new world order, these students were deeply invested in what was happening. Many of them served in the war. Many of them wondered how to move forward into a safer and better future. Many of them spoke out for social justice for those who were denied it. They confronted big questions and wrote eloquent, thoughtful, and deeply reflective orations. They invested their hearts and their minds in the questions they addressed. Many of the issues they talked about we continue to talk about today. Their voices, then and now, were relevant to the cultural struggles of America and deserve to be heard.

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Table 1
Interstate Oratory Competition Attendees and Awardees, 1943 – 1949

School	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Albion College (Albion, MI)				X			
Allegheny College (Meadville, PA)						X	
Augustana College (Rock Island, IL)	W 2nd, M 1st	W 3rd	W 2nd, X		X		X
Berea College (Berea, KY)	X				X	X	X
Calvin College (Grand Rapids, MI)	X, X		M 1st				
Carleton College (Northfield, MN)			M 2nd				
Central College (Pella, IA)					X		
Coe College (Cedar Rapids, IA)	X		X				
College of Wooster (Wooster, OH)	X	X	X	X		X	
Dakota Wesleyan U. (Mitchell, SD)				X		W 1st	
Denison U. (Granville, OH)				M 2nd		X	
Drury College (Springfield, MO)					X		
Duquesne U. (Pittsburgh, PA)							X
Earlham College (Richmond, IN)					X		
Eastern State Normal College (Madison, SD)				X			
Eau Claire State Teachers College (Eau Claire, WI)						M 3rd	
Evansville College (Evansville, IN)						X	
Franklin College (Franklin, IN)	W 3rd						X
Georgetown College (Georgetown, KY)	X						
Goshen College (Goshen, IN)					X		
Gustavus Adolphus College (St. Paul, MN)					X		X
Hamline U. (St. Paul, MN)	X	X, X		W 2nd		X, X	
Hastings College (Hastings, NE)	X						
Hillsdale College (Hillsdale, MI)						X	
Hope College (Holland, MI)		X					
Illinois Wesleyan U. (Bloomington, IL)				W 1st			
Indiana State Teachers College (Terre Haute, IN)		X					
Iowa State Teachers College (Cedar Falls, IA)						X	
Iowa Wesleyan College (Mt. Pleasant, IA)				X X			
Kalamazoo College (Kalamazoo, MI)				X			
Lake Forest College (Lake Forest, IL)						M 2nd, X	
Luther College (Decorah, IA)						M 1st	
Macalester College (St. Paul, MN)			X	X			
Manchester College (North Manchester, IN)			W 1st, M 3rd	M 1st X		X	M 2nd
Manchester College (North Manchester, IN)			W 1st, M 3rd	M 1st X		X	M 2nd
Michigan State College (East Lansing, MI)		X			W 3rd		
Michigan State Normal College (Ypsilanti, MI)			X				
Midland College (Fremont, NE)						X	

School	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Monmouth College (Monmouth, IL)					X		M 3rd
Murray State College (Murray, KY)						X	
Nebraska State Teachers College (Kearney, NE) – later named Kearney State Teachers College			X	W 3rd M 3rd		W 3rd	W 1st X
Nebraska Wesleyan U. (Lincoln, NE)	X	W 2nd, M 1st	W 3rd		W 2nd, M 1st		
Northern Illinois State Teachers College (DeKalb, IL)		X		X			
Northern State Teachers College (Aberdeen, ND)	X						
Ohio University (Athens, OH)					X		X
Ohio Wesleyan U. (Delaware, OH)	X		X				W 2nd
Oshkosh State Teachers College (Oshkosh, WI)						X	X
Park College (Parkville, MO)	W 1st, X	X					
Ripon College (Ripon, WI)					X		X
Sioux Falls College (Sioux Falls, SD)			X				
South Dakota State College (Brookings, SD)		W 1st					
Southern State Teachers College (Springfield, SD)						X	
St. Olaf College (Northfield, MN)	X				X		X
Temple U. (Philadelphia, PA)						W 2nd	
Upper Iowa U. (Fayette, IA)			X				X, X
University of Kentucky (Lexington, KY)							X
University of South Dakota (Vermilion, SD)							X
Wabash College (Crawfordsville, IN)	M 2nd	M 2nd					
Washington U. (St. Louis, MO)							X
Wayne U. (Detroit, MI)					M 3rd	X	W 3rd, X
Westminster College (Fulton, MO)						X	
Westminster College (New Wilmington, PA)							X
Whitewater State Teachers College (Whitewater, WI)					X		
William Jewell College (Liberty, MO)		M 3rd	X	X, X			X
William Penn College (Oskaloosa, IA)	X						
Wittenberg College (Springfield, OH)		X			M 2nd		
Yankton College (Yankton, SD)	M 3rd	X			W 1st, X		M 1st

Appendix A: Sample Quotations from the Orations

I am convinced that the best way to begin to comprehend these speeches is to let them speak for themselves. While scholarly dissection is helpful, the true essence of the orations of the 1940s only comes through when we listen to the students speak in their own words. Thus, the following section of this paper simply "steps back" and allows us to hear fragments of these orations as they were originally presented. In all cases, I have attempted to replicate speech fragments which – within a limited space – suggest both the argument and the tone of each speech. In order to provide a context for the quotations, the placements, divisions, titles, authors, and topics of each speech are also noted. The author expresses his deep gratitude to Dr. Larry Schnoor, who has served with distinction for many years as Executive Secretary of the Interstate Oratorical Association, for his support of the inclusion of these quotations in this article.

1943

(1st Place – Women) "Let's Grow Up" - Lois Spier, pp. 27-30

Topic: We cannot put blind faith in technology and new inventions to make our lives wonderful. We must "grow up," recognize the potential for both good and evil in new inventions, and deliberately work to make them do good rather than spiral into injuring the human race. (Note that this speech begins with a reference to WW2.)

Quotation: "This is indeed a serious indictment of the American people ... For a generation we have behaved like children. We have created for ourselves a world of make-believe to shut out harsh realities. We have shunned economic and political responsibility ... childishly evading the social issues of our times ... So now we look hopefully to electronics, to strato-liners – to undreamed of travel and communication to bring us peace ... Can't we see that machines themselves may become the very instrument of our destruction. It is childish to go on dreaming that marvelous inventions will bring us peace and prosperity ... We shall either trust to bigger and better airplanes, larger and more productive plants to bring us security as we did before – with the same calamitous results. Or we shall apply our inventive skill, the great spiritual power of a free people to controlling and directing these material things to the betterment of all mankind."

(2nd Place – Women) "Tomorrow's Crime" - Eloise Schmitz, pp. 5-8

Topic: Rising juvenile delinquency and moral decay among youth on the home front.

Quotation: "British bombers converge on Berlin ... Two youth terrorize farm family ... The former picture I recalled for you is an account of the hideous slaughter on the war front; the other is the realistic account of the casualties on the home front. One seems to condition the other; one augments the other. Total was is so absorbing that local and personal conditions are frequently battered aside. While we are tempted to idealize the character of war, 'personal morality' emerges anew as a difficult problem."

(3rd Place – Women) "We Regret to Inform You" - Helen White, pp. 9-12

Topic: Racial injustice for African-Americans in the U.S. as the world watches us as a moral example in a time of war.

Quotation: "Democracy is today fighting for its existence – for its very survival. If we should lose this war, all the rights and privileges handed down to us by such men as Washington and Lincoln would be lost to us and to mankind forever ... Oh, America, what does the world see when it looks at you? ... Heedlessly, blindly, and stupidly we have allowed an evil to spring up, live on, flourish ... I am speaking of our treatment of the Negro."

(Participant – Women) "Until They Come Back" – Grace Douma, pp. 13-15

Topic: On the home front, truly valuing the "four freedoms" (speech religion, freedom from want, freedom from fear) that U.S. soldiers are fighting for.

(Participant – Women) "Just Dreaming" – Helen Proodian, pp. 16-19

Topic: Preparing for a post-war world of peace where the world can truly come together (the role of women is key to building this).

(Participant – Women) "The Peace Road" – Thea Jane Bouma, pp. 20-23

Topic: We must fight this War, and build the world peace afterwards, with the right motive and spirit (avoiding the temptation to hate).

(1st Place – Men) "Only One Alma Mater – War!" - Hugo Pearson, pp. 42-45

Topic: We cannot allow our determination to win the war consume and destroy the very things we are fighting for. We must continue to value the study of liberal arts in our colleges.

Quotation: ". . . the American educational system, long cherished as a bulwark of democratic ideals, has abandoned for the duration [of the war] its education of the whole individual. Almost everything, we are told, has been abandoned for the duration. That is, the normalcy of pre-war life has been drastically affected – no business, politics, or education as usual. Make this a total war! ... we are in danger of trampling under foot and stifling the very institutions of freedom for which we are fighting ... As grim as the task of winning the war may be, our colleges and universities should not be allowed to disintegrate ... We do not want to shirk our responsibility to the democracy that has given us the birthright of freedom and opportunity ... But if we return from the battlefronts of this war, we want something more than a hand that can operate the death-spitting weapons of war."

(2nd Place – Men) "And What About 1953?" - Dan F. Evans, pp. 46-49

Topic: Young men going off to war will bear the burden of saving our Democracy – but they expect to come home to a country that values free enterprise and capitalism.

Quotation: "I'm going to walk from the campus to a Naval training station, and from there nobody knows where. My generation has had its plan of life uprooted for a future that's very uncertain. Of course, we're all fighting to help win this war ... But it's my generation that's going to do most of the dying to save this Democracy. When it's over, those of us who are left want to feel that the country we've saved has been worth saving ... just what is this American way of life, and who's going to define it after the war's over? The American business man, said Lippman, holds his fate in his own hands. . . Eric Johnston, the new president of the Chamber of Commerce, has summed up what I want to say in a few well chosen words. 'There are to unpopular words,' he says. 'One is capitalism, which is hated in certain quarters. I am nevertheless for it. The other is planning, which is hated in certain other quarters. I am nevertheless for it.' ... We can't win peace, we can't win economic security, we can't achieve daring enterprise if America loses faith. . . "

(3rd Place – Men) "We Want Our Dreams" - Leo Borin, pp. 76-78

Topic: Young men going off to war need to know that the future will bring jobs, racial equality, and international cooperation between people. All people need and deserve equality and a nation who fulfills its promises.

Quotation: "When I come back! The dream that lives in the brain of every young man who ever dons a uniform, takes an oath, and trudges off to the hideosities of war; the last heavy words that linger on as he kisses his mother and shakes his father's hand; the sole, cherished hope that makes a stumbling soldier take just one more step. When I come back! ... every one of us can see nothing worth dying for in the absence of a dream worth living for. We're not living in the present. . . we're looking ahead to the far horizon wondering about our dreams and the dreams of our children ... If we come back to see the embers of international struggle again be fanned into a

leaping flame of war by trade barriers and cut-throat competition, if we come back to walk the streets in search of promised jobs that don't exist, if we come back only to watch our black brother again sink to the depths of insignificance and inferiority after being used to further our cause ... we'll be hurt, because that's not what we want to go for or come back to ... If we're going to fight for freedom, that must e for all men, regardless of race, or color or previous condition of imperialistic exploitation ... We cannot escape history. We shall be remembered in spite of ourselves. The fiery trial through which we pass will light us down to honor or dishonor to the latest generation ... We can nobly save or meanly lose 'the last best hope of earth.' You see, we must have our dreams."

1944

(1st Place – Women) "Assignment on Main Street" - Marjorie Wheeler, pp. 32-35

Topic: "Victory Girls" on the home front are falling into moral degradation in a misled attempt to contribute to the war effort.

Quotation: "'Victory Girls' are coming to be a common sight on the streets of thousands of American cities – wherever there are men in uniform. The name not only applies but appeals to many of them in their foolish and distorted effort to be patriotic and join, in some way, the excitement of war-time ... Yes, Americans, we have time to win the war, but we tend to ignore these problems that to most of us don't seem so immediate. We overlook the importance that they play in our lives today ... Aren't we enough concerned about a fellow citizen who has fallen in this moral battle to try to prevent others from following? Or is it that there just isn't any glamor in this battle."

(2nd Place – Women) "Foxhole Pillows" - Clara Jo Hopkins, pp. 24-27

Topic: We are letting down the war effort on the home front. Businesses are profiteering, citizens are selfishly indulging their own pleasures, and the government is spending money on unimportant things.

Quotation: ". . . today in certain phases of our democratic living the [Liberty] bell is silent. Turn to business relationships, personal relationships, and political relationships, and see how there are faults that impair our democratic process. Consider, first, the field of business. Business is violating the basic integrity of democracy by using the war as an excuse to exploit the people [to make money] ... Consider, second, the field of personal relationships – our attitudes and actions toward our fellow men. The first thing we notice is our attempt to keep life as much as it was as possible, in spite of the war. . . the mobs of mid-war vacationers at Miami. They spend half a million dollars at the race tracks daily and over-populate the night clubs ... Turn, third, to the field of politics. Here our government is inefficient in protecting the rights of its citizens ... [spending money on] bureaucracy for Indians and fish ... If we will work, and laugh, and love enough for freedom, for ourselves and for humanity, perhaps someday we shall again hear the ringing of that old Liberty Bell."

(3rd Place – Women) "There'll Always Be Beauty" - Ruth Harriett Koch, pp. 5-8

Topic: In the midst of war, we must remember that Beauty is real, and outlasts all else, and gives us a reason to live and believe.

Quotation: "Everywhere people were rejoicing. Horns blared, whistles blew, church bells rang, confetti filled the air. The war was over ... Yes, it was beautiful, but where is that beauty today, that spirit of love, of justice, or tolerance? ... Ask the people of the world, 'Is there beauty anywhere today?' And some will look at the black smoke belching from huge war plants, at the weary, grimy workers dragging themselves to and from work. . . Can war do this to the entire world? ... Can it kill love and hope and beauty with a single stroke? No! It is not true, and we must not believe it even for a moment. There are some values, some institutions, some beliefs that war

has never been able to touch; they will live forever ... If beauty does exist in the world today, where can we find it? How does it express itself? We'll find it where it has always been – in the hearts of men; and it expresses itself as it always has, in loyalty, love, devotion, tolerance, in the desire for freedom ... It's not a dream; it's a reality, as long as men can believe in men, and men in God, there's a chance for all of us."

(1st Place – Men) "Green Boys" – Everett Moles, pp. 55-58

Topic: We need to save small independent colleges from shutting down or being swallowed up by government control.

Quotation: "In 1944, the independent liberal arts college is confronted with an ugly dilemma: On one hand, the small college faces the danger of extinction, or, on the other, the equally serious threat of submitting to government control ... Thomas Wolfe says, 'To every man his chance, to every man regardless of his birth, his shining golden opportunity ... this is the promise of America.' Let the independent college fail, and America will have broken that promise ... So tonight, speaking on behalf of the green boys, I want to say let's keep the heat pouring from the smoke stacks, the lights burning under their green guarded shades, the bells ringing from the towers of Old Main from Boston to the College of the Pacific."

(2nd Place – Men) "On the Art of Insulting Other Nations" – Samuel J. Newman, pp. 40-42

Topic: America can never again be isolated from the rest of the world. Moving forward, we must work with other leading nations (Russia, China, England) to build a free world.

Quotation: "We're going to win this war. But after we win it, what are we going to do with it? ... The most important political question that will face the world tomorrow will be what attitude the four nations – Russia, England, United States, and China – are going to take toward one another ... We don't have to approve of Communism to get along with Russia any more than we approved of the French Monarchy when we sent Benjamin Franklin to Paris in 1777 to win French friendship. But if we expect peace, we've got to understand Russia in order to live with her in one world. Next, consider China. John Hay, I believe, said that whoever understood China held the key to the world's politics for the next five centuries. Twenty per cent of the people in the world live in China. They're not white – they're yellow, and proud of it. And we don't have a good record of liberal treatment towards colored people ... Finally, there's England: We don't like England ... America is a young nation. We still have some of the roughness that goes with youth. We've lived across the waters from the other world powers – we thought we could live alone. I think we know now, as Edna St. Vincent Millay said, 'there are no islands, anymore.' ... To retain world leadership we can no longer rely solely on sheer material wealth. We've got to learn, perhaps for the first time in world affairs, to use those other and greater resources within us – our courage, our stamina, our sincerity, and our sense of humor. Within this country they have helped to; build a free America; we must now use them to help build a free world."

(3rd Place – Men) "4F Speaks" – Charles J. Smith, pp. 51-54

Topic: After the war, we must reject the currently popular claim that this is the century of the "common man," and embrace being led by *uncommon* men.

Quotation: "Yes, the subject you just heard announced is, '4F Speaks.' It has been no easy task to learn to endure the imperceptible shrug of the shoulder when it is discovered that I am 4F. Five times in two states I have tried to get in this war. After each one of those 'physicals' I have returned to the campus a rejected and a dejected 4F ... 4F speaks today against any blind acceptance of what has come to be called the philosophy of the common man, a philosophy which assumes that the achievement of the four freedoms for the postwar world is to be found in the common man ... It is the common man who has clung tenaciously to outmoded traditions and thus has impeded the way of progress ... Or in music. If this were the century of the common man in music, 'Pistol0packin' Mamma' and Sinatra would be our gifts to musical posterity. Or in government. If

this war has proved nothing else, it has proved that. . . seventy million German common men can be wrong ... Psychologists have proved that Hitler is the German people to 'the extent that he exemplifies their terrific urge to compensate for their past defeats.' And the war has proved that 130,000,000 Americans can be wrong too. It was the common man who was unprepared for Pearl Harbor, for it was the common man who hindered adequate self-defense with cries of 'war-monger!' ... That, in part, is the record of the common man ... The common man has no conception of the issues involved in this war. He cannot even list for you the four freedoms. His only comprehension of a postwar world is that he will be able to buy a new Oldsmobile or a thick, juicy steak ... So the forced conclusion is that this century will be, as all centuries have been, the century of the uncommon man ... a future of the best will be dreamed and achieved not by the common, but by the uncommon man **for** the common man ... . Those of us who are 4F know some one else is fighting our war. Beggars that we are, let us not be even poorer in our thanks."

1945

(1st Place – Women) "Home Without a Fence" – Mary Fujii, pp. 9-11

Topic: A woman of Japanese descent, who was put in an internment camp during the war, asks the audience how they will treat her Japanese-American boyfriend when he returns home from serving in the war.

Quotation: "I can't help being a little proud of my soldier, just as you are proud of yours, whether he is your son, brother, husband, or sweetheart. My G.I Joe is fighting with the 442nd Combat Team in Italy ... we and 110,000 others went into internment ... Today, my G. I. Joe wears on his shoulder the flaming torch of liberty which symbolizes, 'Liberty for all, regardless of race, color, or ancestry; liberty from persecution, from discrimination, from unjustified doubts; liberty to live and to be considered American.' Joe ... wrote ... 'In 365 days, I expect to see the Statue of Liberty, and you standing beside her to welcome me home to the good ole U.S.A. Today my buddies and I received news that the West Coast is once again open to the Japanese Americans. We celebrated over that. But what we fellows really want to know is: have we earned the right to come back and build our homes, whether they are in California or Maine, which will not be surrounded by a fence of barbed-wire prejudice.' What CAN I tell this Nisei hero – this American? What would YOU have me tell him?"

(2nd Place – Women) "Angels Only" – Charlotte Erickson, pp. 5-8

Topic: In a post-war world, we must learn to sacrifice the idea of total sovereignty (self-autonomy) as both a nation and as individuals. We have to learn to work together with others and put human rights above national rights in order to elevate humankind worldwide.

Quotation: ". . . [There is] another interpretation of sovereignty, one which is not so familiar to us perhaps because it is too close to us, because we are a part of it ... This is the right to irresponsibility toward other nations: the right to sit by as Hitler occupied the Rhineland and carved up Czechoslovakia, the right to send only regrets to China as Japan marched into Manchuria, the right to sell oil to Mussolini as he bombed Ethiopia. . . It comes to this: if we are to make these plans, which are now only paper plans, vital and useful instruments for creating a better world, you and I must do our part. This means that we must limit our own sovereignty as individuals. We must abandon our continual recital of our rights for a consideration of our duties ... We must begin to think of the world as made up of people, not of nations ... Surrendering sovereignty will require sacrifice, but the kind of sacrifice which E. Stanley Jones has called losing ourselves in order to find ourselves. Let us forget our illusions about being angels and behave like men."

(3rd Place – Women) "Hell and 40 Acres" – Dolores Coulter, pp. 24-27

Topic: The free press (newspaper) is essential to a free democracy, yet those newspapers are at great risk due to pressure from advertisers, government censorship, and public indifference.

Quotation: (Opens with a war reference) "The constitution guarantees a free press. But paradoxically, aggressive, free newspapers guarantee the constitution. Yet today a dwindling press is warped by financial pressure, curbed by government control, and weakened by flaccid public opinion ... If editorial ears are sensitive to advertiser silver, by complementary virtue they are sensitive to circulation gold. To hold and multiply subscribers, news is slanted illegitimately. . . .While the newspaper's left ear is preoccupied by profit, its right is monopolized by government control. For the first time in history, the freest, most informative press in the world has allowed itself to be muzzled ... Finally, it's a recognized truth that American people are losing faith in the papers ... Some never read what the papers have to say ... The reader doesn't want to think ... a strong press will retrogress to a weak sheet unless American citizens demand and appreciate essential news."

(1st Place – Men) "Does It Matter" – John Steensma, pp. 46-48

Topic: Handicapped people need to be treated as people. If they want help, they'll ask for it. Remember this when you interact with disabled veterans returning from the war.

Quotation: "The scene was a battlefield in Germany ... it was my privilege to visit one of these large army hospitals ... I saw men of all sorts with handicaps of all kinds, but all of them had one thing in common. All these boys are determined to face a handicapped life with the same courage that has carried them through the fight ... Maybe you can offer him by offering to carry his bag. That slow flush which covers his face doesn't mean anything to you. Show this poor boy that you really do feel sorry for him and you are thankful that you're not in his shoes. I remember five years ago when, as the result of an electrical accident, I lost my hands. I remember that people treated me this way and I remember how I resented these stares and these well0meant efforts to help. . . I think Mr. McGonigal sums up the whole key to the treatment of disabled veterans in this one sentence. 'The fact is that if a man needs help, he'll ask for it.' My own experience has taught me that all a handicapped person desires is to take his place in life as a normal individual. This war has proved to us that handicapped people are not abnormal and that the men who have lost limbs are not basically changed as regards their relation to fellow men and to God ... People mean to be kind but they express their sympathy in such curious and tactless ways."

(2nd Place – Men) "The Century of Henry Wallace" – Thomas L. Hughes, pp. 49-53

Topic: We need to embrace "the Century of the Common Man," where everybody (and not just the privileged few) can experience the "good life."

Quotation: (Starts with an indirect war reference) ". . . tonight I'd like to talk about ... Henry A. Wallace ... because ... perhaps unknowingly, Henry Wallace himself has become the symbol of what he means by the 'common man' and the key to the principles which Wallace hopes will characterize the century which that man represents ... If we speak of the common man as a fair representative of the mass of American citizens, he fails to measure up to Wallace's common man of tomorrow ... Our twentieth century social order is one dominated by intolerance, because it is an order founded on fear ... we must repudiate that deadening fear of change, which underlies intolerance ... The one vibrant theme of all that Wallace says is that whatever is done must be done for the general welfare ... He understands that America cannot survive half-prosperous, half-poverty stricken. He represents the demand for full employment ... He insists that our industrial system is made for the individual, not the individual for the system ... This does not mean communism. L It does mean that we no longer want our economic destinies decided by men for whom profits come first, and the welfare of the people a long way behind ... he is making the most challenging appeal that our generation has been given when he says: 'Some have spoken of the 'American Century.' I say that the century which we are entering – the century which will come out of this war – can be, and must be, the Century of the Common Man ... We welcome – yes, we shall fight for something we have never had – the normalcy of the good life for everybody.' And I

say to you, friends, this man alone cannot win this fight. We, the people of America, must join him and make the Century of Henry Wallace our own."

(3rd Place – Men) "Who Fear Not the King" – Joseph Mow, pp. 39-42

Topic: The U.S. needs to think about and work to resolve the unjust domination of India by the British.

Quotation: "My friend Chaud is an intelligent, twenty year old Brahman girl with whom I attended the Woodstock School in India. When Chaud came to Wellesley college in 1943, her quiet Eastern charm plus her American coed zest for living brought her more attention than she feels she deserves ... she is a niece of the Indian statesman, Jawaharlal Nehru ... she has been held seven months in one of India's filthy jails as a political 'guest' of the British ... Chand accepts her own prison life philosophically. After all, weren't there eighty thousand other Indians imprisoned for political reasons the same months as she? And aren't three-thousand key Indian leaders still being held in silence behind prison walls? ... England is a curious paradox of an enlightened present and a dominating past ... Chand will tell you that there is a Moslem problem, but she believes that problems of minorities, or of ignorance, or poverty cannot disguise the problem of imperialism or deny India's basic right to self-determination ... Yes, for each question I ask, Chand explains with an answer focused on our own country. Mr. Nehru put the whole conversation in one idea when he said, 'In the desolation that grips the world, the great and free Republic of America has a special responsibility to bear, for countless eyes are looking to her for leadership in the paths of peace and freedom.' ... In spite of her persecutions and misunderstandings, India has great dreams for the future. Perhaps Chaud's own life is symbolic of the life of that new India."

1946

(1st Place – Women) "A Symphony of Hate" - Lou Ann Lloyd, pp. 7-10

Topic: Now that the war is over, America needs to understand and respect other nations – not hate them.

Quotation: "American money, American resources, and American blood have won the greatest war in the history of the world ... I submit the thesis that cooperative relations between nations depend not only upon the actions of their statesmen, but also upon the mutual understanding of their peoples. We think of great powers in terms of Washington, London, and Moscow; but the real power is people! Indeed, the record of our statesmen is one of working for understanding and cooperation; but their work is being hampered by certain factions in our country whose religion seems to be hatred. A large section of our people have learned to hate the Russians, the British, the French – in fact everyone who isn't an American. They are playing a discordant symphony of hate by ear, completely ignoring the harmonics of understanding and cooperation. Now, I hold no brief for the Soviet system of government or economy; nor do I believe we must accept British or French socialism. But I do say we must try to understand them ... We must understand that they have the same right to preach their doctrines as we have."

(2nd Place – Women) "The Noble Profession" – Annis Korpi, pp. 22-25

Topic: Teachers are underpaid, lack intellectual academic freedom, and have their personal lives monitored by the communities they work for. We need to start paying teachers the respect they are due.

Quotation: "Since I first started school some fifteen years ago, I have wanted to teach – to be a member of the truly noble profession. Last spring, however, that ambition was seriously threatened by an incident which occurred in my own home town. Twenty-one local teachers resigned their positions ... I began to study the situation of the American teacher ... we offer our teachers a financial compensation which is a shameful evidence of America's short-sightedness ... Of greater significance are the binding restrictions we impose upon the academic and intellectual

activities of this educated group ... Most communities hand their teachers an ultimatum: 'This is what we want our children to learn. Teach it to them.' ... The teacher is underpaid and intellectually chained; but the most humiliating treatment of all lies in the attempted control of his personal life. Would you like to be told where to buy your groceries or your winter supply of fuel? Would you enjoy having your social engagements watched and censored? Would you submit to such orders as 'Vote for Smith, or else', made by the politicians who sign your pay check? Teachers must and do ... we seem to do our utmost to dehumanize the teacher and hold him up to contempt."

(3rd Place – Women) "That God Forgot to Wind" – Ella Mae Sizer, pp. 30-32

Topic: Now that our soldiers have won the war, we who remain must win the peace. We have made lots of advances in science, now it's tie to make advances in human relations.

Quotation: "We who make up the youth of America are the products of two decades of national and international strife ... American youth has experienced War, and War's Results. In that way, we may have gained some insight into the problems of war and peace. I would set our conclusions down in the following manner: War means death, demolition of homes, destruction of security and economic stability, destruction of art, culture, beauty, and love. War creates artificial situations which are not conducive to wholesome living. Therefore, peace is the most desired goal of the world today ... it is obvious to the keen observer that the Progress of Science is extending farther and farther away from the Progress of Human Relations, until ultimately we have the discovery of the Atomic Bomb – for which our world is not ready. If we are to survive, Science must mark time while Human Relations catches up ... One day last June I was in the home of a friend whose husband was killed in the Battle of the Bulge. I picked up an open book on the divan and found in it a tiny scrap of paper bearing these words, 'Since you have gone so far away, A curious thing I find. The world is like a little clock, That God forgot to wind'. The men who died that we might have peace can't come back. They won the victory. It is our task to win the peace."

(1st Place – Men) "On Getting Along With Russians" – Bob Underhill, pp. 45-48

Topic: In the post-war world, we must get along with the Russians – and the only way to do that is to respect their strength, and to be strong ourselves. Demonstrating strength is essential.

Quotation: "Life would be simpler if we didn't have to deal with Russia. But it still takes only one nation to start war. And peace is still our business. So, like Russia or not, we've got to get along with the Soviets. That's all I'm saying tonight: we simply must learn how to get along, for the fact of Russia is tremendous ... [During the war, the B17 Flying Fortress I served on was forced to land in Russia.] We had come down about twenty kilometers from the front lines. We were nine Americans – alone on Soviet soil – and surrounded by what seemed to be an army of Russians. We had to make friends! Today a strong Russia faces our nation, a Russia which is as strong as the men who confronted us a year and a half ago. Now as then, we've got to get along. These were strong men – men who were not content with their own strength. They were determined to be still stronger. You've simply got to get along with such men ... me and my fellow crewmen ... saw with our own eyes Russia's strength and determination; we saw her confuse the biggest with the best; we observed her scorn for weakness. These were the facts of Russia – and we had to get along ... It seemed clear to us, if we have the strength which the Russians can respect, then it is our first duty to keep it. Keep it and understand it. Understand it and use it wisely."

(2nd Place – Men) "How Would We Have Them?" – James B. Ashbrook, pp. 66-70

Topic: Americans have a race problem relative to other nations, other cultures, and minority groups here at home We need to change our attitude and get past irrational hate.

Quotation: "First, what is the situation facing us? It is simply this 0- we have a race problem ... The Negro, the Japanese, the Chinese, the Indian, the Jew, and members of other groups are not problems to be solved, but human beings to be understood. In a world whose people are all essentially the same, we stand or fall together. Democracy will live only if it is practiced by us, and

each of us has a vital part to play ... The true greatness of our country is to be found in an idea – an unshakeable belief in the essential goodness of man, in the basic God-given equality of all men, in man's right to personal liberty and to the respect of his neighbors ... In our day irrational hatred has again reared its head, aided by the stain of war and abetted by those trained in the ways of the Nazis. Now is the time to stamp out all the traces of this Nazi-inspired bigotry, before it has a chance to get out of hand ... Race hatred is not a viewpoint; it is a disease ... Minority groups, being visible, near at hand, and a bit different, provide the outlet for our half-stifled feelings and profound anxieties ... What we need is a change of attitude."

(3rd Place – Men) "Weep No More, My Lady" – Bob Parkins, pp. 62-65

Topic: Radio soap operas are a very bad thing. We need to support higher quality media programming. Don't let ratings drive what the media airs.

Quotation: "I am a radio announcer ... It is with pride that I think of the important part that radio played in bringing ... stories to a news-hungry people during the war ... Unfortunately, however, as in the case of all instrumentalities operated by human beings, the good which radio has brought has not been unmixed with bad. I refer to the type of program given the dignified title of serial drama – or more commonly and fittingly termed 'Soap Opera'! ... I would like to cite a few specific examples of the sham and unreality of 'Soap Operas' ... whether a program has an intrinsic merit of its own is no longer the prime question. Ratings are the all important things to the sponsors ... Finally, we must tell the radio sponsors that we are ready to listen to more worth-while programs. Let them know that we listeners resent having programs forced on us designed for the average mentality of 12 years ... I may be criticized for raising this discussion in a world so recently liberated from the oppression of war, and facing the momentous problems of world readjustment, but I believe that the evil of soap operas is a great one. I believe that my cause is just."

(Participant – Men) "From Cave to Cave" – George S. McGovern, pp. 71-73

Topic: We need to be idealists rather than "realists." We need to follow Christian values to "be our brother's keeper."

Quotation: "On December 9, 1945, an American soldier was killed by a Chinese hoodlum. In retaliation a high-ranking American officer pronounced the death sentence of an entire Chinese village harboring the offender. Heavy American shells smashed at every vestige of life in the village. Men, women, and helpless children died together. Why did they die? Because American values insisted that even in this minor instance American military pride was of more value than the human life of a foreign village ... American values insist that maximum financial return is of greater concern than human welfare ... as Americans, we place such a high value on our daintily pampered appetites and pleasures that we sometimes lose sight of people dying from starvation the world over ... many of us place a higher value on American military expediency than we do on international cooperation ... man's spiritual development has lagged far behind his material progress ... [We must examine] our false set of values. A set of values that advances the material to the exclusion of the spiritual ... It is thus with no apologies that I submit that the applied idealism of the Sermon on the Mount must be our pattern away from the caves. I propose no specific machinery for control of such threats as the much talked of atomic bomb, for I feel that atomic warfare is only one expression of the larger over all threat to man. The threat of false values. As long as men continue to scoff at idealism, at spirituality, at such ideas as international cooperation through United World Government, and continue to advance the notion of expediency and material gain, just so long will we continue to reap the tragic harvest of the so-called practical men ... Cain of Biblical times never received an answer to his outraged question, 'Am I my brother's keeper?' But ladies and gentlemen, we all know the answer. We are our brother's keeper."

1947

(1st Place – Women) "Education for Hate" – Gale Prentice Graffe, pp. 65-67

Topic: Racial and cultural hatred is infecting America. We must look inside ourselves and root it out.

Quotation: "Once upon a time, long long ago there lived in the country called Germany a so-called one-armed paperhanger. His name was Adolf Hitler ... soon Hitler began to talk about ... the Perfect Man, the Aryan Man, the Master Man, the Superior Man ... Behind the [German] armies was the terrifying ideology of education for hate, and behind the ideology was one of the most terrifying haters of all history, Adolf Hitler ... But the shocking thing, to me, is the fact that here – yes, right here at home, parallels as bad and often worse have existed with little opposition from the average man. We have had our Ku Klux Klan for years ... The leading newspapers have constantly played up organized labor as ruthless, brutal, and crude. The propaganda of the labor unions has referred to management as being vicious and hateful ... The brand of 'Communist' has been thrown at any**one**, suspected of any**thing**, for almost any **reason**. We have transferred the title of 'enemy,' symbolic today of everything we do not understand, to the nation of Russia on an international scale ... Today prejudice and intolerance seem to be openly increasing ... Bilbo, Hitler, the Columbians, ruthless and cruel, all of them, yet they are only outward, more open signs of the spirit of hate in so many of us today. They are dangerous, yes, bugt so are the dozens of little people throughout the nation – people like you ... Have **You** become a victim of this system of organized, efficient hatred? Answer for yourself! ... THE ONLY THING WE HAVE TO **HATE** is **HATE** ITSELF!"

(2nd Place – Women) "Your Three Husbands" – Jeannette Dillon, pp. 58-60

Topic: Women don't want "equality." The war's liberation of women has gone sour, and women need to figure out what they really do want and be ready to pay the price for it.

Quotation: "According to Ilka Chase, every woman needs three husbands – not three separate ones, perhaps, but three men in one suit of clothes. First, a breadwinner – and butter's nice, too; second, a handy man – a combination cupboard-builder and a furnace-fixer; and third, the Duke of Windsor no less – ready to give up his kingdom ... Now here come the wars – World War I, World War II, and with them what looked like professional equality ... Now the war's over. Our purpose is gone. The bills are coming in. Betty's Marine came back and took over the gas pumps, but he didn't want Betty. And she was the girl who had found her independence, her equality. Oh – Betty will probably marry. She's still pretty, still dumb, though not quite so hard to get. Many have turned back to their 'blue nesties' to find them empty. While the American woman was out looking for equality, her home became a household, a dull, empty place where one went only when necessary. L And now she isn't even sure of having that household ... The license of the victory girl has taken a post-war turn ... our fight for equality hasn't made us happy ... We sold our home and our children, our most prized possessions. And what did we gain in return? We went out to guy something we didn't want, and we paid for it with everything we had. We shirked our responsibility in citizenship. We did a little better in profession. But in the home, woman's own prerogative, we have failed miserably ... First, then, let's decide what we want. Whatever it is, it isn't equality. We don't want it, we never did want it. We wanted to keep the reverence, the protection, the privilege we got out of being women. And to that we wanted to add independence and the ego0satisfaction we got out of meeting and beating men in competition. Once and for all, let's stop worrying about the word equality. We don't want it ... Let's decide what we want, make our choices, look at the price tag, and go out prepared to pay."

(3rd Place – Women) "Unto the Least of These, My Brethren" – Gloria Patton, pp. 51-54

Topic: The living conditions and treatment programs for mentally ill patients in American hospitals are deplorable and must be improved.

Quotation: "Human beings treated like beasts! Brutally beaten! Poorly fed! Living in filth and in terror! Praying for death! Where? No, not in Germany under the merciless hands of a Nazi

regime, not in India under a cruel caste system, but ... the United States of America is the guilty nation! ... Who are these mistreated, ill0used individuals? They are that great percentage of our own people who have been admitted to our state mental hospitals! ... If you have the idea that the problem of insanity is insignificant, that it involves only a few, that you and your relatives are safe from its lashing tentacles, then you had better stop and reconsider! ... patients are eating in an atmosphere of filth, gulping what to you and to me is nothing more than garbage! ... The deplorable shortage of doctors, nurses, and attendants ... We find these overworked attendants beating patients, kicking them in the head and genitals to make them behave, using restraints such as prolonged baths and wet packs as punishment rather than for their intended beneficial effect. We see patients with legs and hands bound with sheets, towels, leather straps, or cuffs, bodies anchored by camisoles and canvas sheets, maniacs abusing themselves and one another, harmful sedatives being administered without the direction of a doctor – all because the attendants are too few in number to be able to police all of their charges; any that they can make helpless means that many less to watch. The list of shortcomings is long and horrible ... Let us resolve here and now that we will not cease pleading our case until we are assured that never again shall our mental institution slump into a state of deterioration. Let us firmly determine, that our insane brethren be given the chance to regain the right which God gives every man – the right to live a wholesome, happy life!"

(1st Place – Men) "My Paper Doll" – John W. Low, pp. 29-31

Topic: The Interstate Oratory Contest has a long tradition of helping to develop the voices of many people who have become important to our world. They learned the tools of Aristotle. The recent war has taught us the tools of Hannibal. We must choose which set of tools to live by.

Quotation: The first two-thirds of the speech are devoted to a detailed historical summary of the IOC. "On a tonight long ago young Bob Lafollette won for Wisconsin – a Senator was in the making. On another tonight Ed Hughes represented Ohio; and as he stepped from the platform, it came a step nearer to his manhood and the bishopric of the Methodist Church. On a later tonight the younger of the Maurer brothers, Irving, won for Beloit. And I suppose no one guessed that the future president of that famous institution was sharpening his tools ... Two years ago I was trying to settle things with a B-25 called the 'Paper Doll.' She carried 4000 lbs. of Rdx persuasion in her bomb bay. With that persuasion I was flying low over the aged wall of old Ft. Dufferin around Kipling's Mandalay. And when the smoke cleared away, we could see that the wall had been breached. The issue was temporarily settled. The British moved in. But I for one do not believe very much in the finality of that method of settling issues. At best it only gives us a chance to talk it out later. I'd rather try to settle things the Interstate way, the debate way, in the very beginning. Let's line them up. Hannibal's weapons on one side. Aristotle's on the other. Remember, there are no others."

(2nd Place – Men) "The Great American Myth" – Charles A. Endter, pp. 32-35

Topic: Anglo-Saxon Protestants are too often seen as "the only true Americans" – and that has to end.

Quotation: ". . . we have helped to perpetuate the dangerous American myth that I wish to attack today. It is the myth that the only true American is white, Anglo-Saxon, and Protestant, and all others are inferior, ignorant, and common. It is the myth that threatens America and therefore threatens you and me. Let us look for a moment at some of the fields in which intolerance flourishes, the means by which the flames of hatred are fanned, and the educational processes by which this myth can be eliminated from our social, educational, religious, and economic thought ... While negroes, foreign-born, Catholics, Jews, and other minority groups are not white, Anglo-Saxon, and Protestant, yet they make up 55.3% of our population. To most of us they are stereotyped with the prejudice of inferiority, excluded from our clubs and churches, often denied admission to our schools, lied about and taken advantage of in our business relationships, and kicked out of the back door of our restaurants. Over the doors of American industry, education, and commerce we have

hung the stereotype, 'Let only the respectable enter here' ... From the lowliest to the highest, brains free from rancor have produced America. From them we inherit a great heritage – the heritage of keeping America free, free from prejudice, class hatred, and religious bigotry. May this opportunity give intensified meaning to the phrase, 'This is America, the land of the free and the home of the brave'."

(3rd Place – Men) "The People Make History" – Seymour Tuchow, pp. 19-22

Topic: Humans have the potential to solve the great post-war problems we face. We must not be worried by our "littleness" as people, because we have the capacity for greatness.

Quotation: "My first important stop on the trip West was at the Grand Canyon ... Standing on the rim of that vast Canyon, a human being can feel very small and insignificant. I was one of a small group one morning gathered at a lookout to hear a lecture on the history and background of the Canyon. The speaker ... pointed to us and told us how unimportant we were in the over-all picture of nature and history – how meaningless our short lives. Time, he said, meant nothing to the Canyon ... As I looked more closely into some of those facts and theories I had learned in two years of college, as I probed my own thinking, and as I looked back into history – I suddenly realized that the lecturer at the Grand Canyon was wrong ... the Grand Canyon of overwhelming world problems is not too deep for **little** man – through his combined thinking and action – to overcome. Dr. Herman Finer, renowned economics professor from the University of London, and a member of the United Nations Economic and Social Council – in itself a tremendous step forward in man's thinking and planning on an international level, points out that no century has ever come near our own so abounding in the potentialities for material and normal progress. But he warns that if we are to come near attaining the actuality of this promise for our time, man must be not appalled by his littleness but inspired by his capacity for greatness ... Yes, here we sit two years after the war, pondering these world problems and mankind seems to be huddling in awe in the shadow of the overwhelming and frightening power of an atomic age – failing too often to realize that the very power of this age comes from its smallest, most infinitesimal part – the little atom. So, too, must the power for this, or any age of human progress, come from its smallest part – little infinitesimal man. Infinitesimal, perhaps, but infinitely important."

1948

(1st Place – Women) "Those Not So Fortunate" – Donna Comstock, pp. 83-85

Topic: Illegitimate children ("bastards") are legally and attitudinally ill-treated by U.S. society.

Quotation: ". . . one out of every 23 births is a [illegitimate] child just like that little dark-eyed, curly headed bastard. You're shocked because I use that word! According to the law books of the land, a child born out of wedlock is a bastard. And so it must be a perfectly good word. But it isn't a good word, because it shows that we haven't changed our attitude toward illegitimates since high top shoe days. Certainly, I'm aware of the fact that this is not a new problem, and I'm also aware of the fact that my discussing illegitimates will not wipe out their existence. What I do want to do is show you how every year we are failing 100,000 children who through no fault of their own were born into this world because of a couple of irresponsible adults. . . "

(2nd Place – Women) "Are We Asking Too Much?" – Mary Beth Lee, pp. 79-82

Topic: In a nation poisoned by racial hatred, whites and blacks need to try to understand each other. In particular, whites need to learn about blacks.

Quotation: "Years ago humble hearts plaintively moaned, 'Nobody knows the trouble I've seen.' Nobody knows: The words of the old spiritual are exactly descriptive of conditions in the United States today as far as the American Negro is concerned. Nobody knows – and yet this knowledge is so very necessary for true understanding – for complete harmonious living. The

moment I entered this room I was categorized. 'She's a Negro,' you thought, and what do you know about me other than the fact that my skin is darker than yours – what do you know of my cultural background – of factors in my economic and social life? A few of you may know a little – many of you know absolutely nothing. Multiply my situation by several millions and you will see the extensiveness of this problem – nine0tenths of the population almost totally ignorant of the other one-tenth. Perhaps you wonder about the necessity of knowing us – of understanding us. Why is understanding necessary? Because with complete understanding it is practically impossible for friction to exist. That friction does exist today is painfully obvious ... you were never taught of our great generals, Hannibal or Touissant L'Overture. Few of you know that a Negro, Charles Drew, discovered the use of blood plasma which saved the life of your brother or friend during the last war. Nor could many of you give me the names of Negroes outstanding in art, literature, drama, music, medicine, business, and education, because you do not know. Many of you probably do not even know that Negroes have served in every war of the United States and that never has a Negro been accused of treason."

(3rd Place – Women) "All Men Are Grass" – Lily Ann Hansen, pp. 74-76

Topic: We are misusing and destroying our farmland. Unless we really work at soil conservation, we will have no food and thus no future.

Quotation: "Have you ever noticed a field of wheat in the wind? Or better still, have you ever stood in the midst of that wheat, and just listened? Or have you ever noticed how lovely a field of newly-planted corn looks in the spring with the bright green shoots against the dark brown earth stretching in almost never-ending rows? Have you ever felt pride and hope in that field of corn and then bitter disappointment when the leaves turn brown under a hot July wind? Or have you ever experienced a storm of dust, of the type that raged over the Great Plains for so many years? Many of you may remember those days, those quiet, still days that always seemed to herald their coming ... Most of the land which produces has something like seven inches of topsoil left. That is all the soil that is suitable for cultivation. Seven inches of dirt is all that stands between you and starvation. The catch is this. In too many places there are only two inches left and in much of the land, no topsoil ... Many of you may ask, 'Why write about Soil Conservation? We all know about saving our national resources. We haven't time to worry about that; we have the peace of the world to think about.' You are worrying about another war simply because you do not want your children and grandchildren to go through the same things you went through. Yet, what is more important than that every person has enough to eat? There are few things more important than that one single fact."

(1st Place – Men) "Witch Hunt" – Karlton J. Rosholt, pp. 16-19

Topic: The anti-Communist witch hunt in America is a terrible threat. The House Un-American Activities Committee must be opposed.

Quotation: ". . . in 1948 when freedom of the individual rests so precariously in the balance of destiny; and when phrases such as 'right to speak' and 'right to worship' are pushed off the pages of our morning newspapers by words like 'disloyal', 'communist', and 'Un-American'; and when the official attitude of one free man toward another is that of suspicion and doubt. Individual liberty has been the battle-cry of every American war and the watchword of every Act of State. Our greatest desire is preservation of that liberty. Certain communist elements within our bounds seek to destroy it. The problem we face is to unmask these subversive elements without jeopardizing our precious personal freedom. The methods we use to solve this problem deserve our careful and critical attention ... ineffectual have been the recent un-American activity investigations ... I am opposed to the manner in which the un-American activities investigations and the loyalty checks are handled and to the lack of safe-guards surrounding them ... Friends, security of personal freedom and individual liberty basic to our way of life is rapidly being reduced by post-war hysteria and prejudice."

(2nd Place – Men) "Were You There?" – Ralph Edson Osborne, Jr., pp. 8-11

Topic: The world needs to come together as one. The answer is to follow the teachings of Jessu Christ.

Quotation: "The world and all of its peoples are surrounded by confusion and problems seemingly beyond man's ability to straighten out. The answer to these world problems is not to be found in the gold and silver of today's materialism. Rather, it is to be found in the principles taught by a poor, uneducated Jew who lived some nineteen hundred years ago ... The atomic bomb is one of these monsters; bacteriological warfare is the other ... Hunger and starvation are rampant throughout Europe and the Orient ... The solutions we have offered to the various problems confronting us have relieved no suffering, dispelled no fears, nor have they reestablished any man's faith in the future. America's every project related to settling a world problem has been based on a materialistic premise – and that attempt at solution dissolves into vapors of hell-fire from which it has taken its original roots ... Let us examine once again our fundamental and more pressing problems. Atomic power and the economic conditions of the people of the world are the paramount ones. Christianity has an answer for both of them."

(3rd Place – Men) "Learn or Lose" – Robert J. Couture, pp. 48-50

Topic: Our educational institutions need to rededicate themselves to the task of teaching students to be humanistic thinkers (and overcome current tendencies towards arrogant nationalism, careerism and economic advancement).

Quotation: "... the history of mankind for the last half century has been a history of deepening horror. Ours is a sick age ... our civilization must re-educate itself or perish ... one big question: What must be done to revamp American education to meet the needs of these times? One thing we must do is to re-educate against the arrogantly self-assertive nationalism which is alienating other peoples and jeopardizing our chances for better international relations ... American education must strive to develop in the student a high tolerance for values and attitudes that differ from his own, a quick sensitivity to the hollowness of clichés, mischievously designed to trap the unwary, an attitude of revolt against denial of basic civil liberties no matter who denies them ... I have tried to put in words the necessity to make in education opportunities for men to become humanitarian thinkers, not egocentric knowers. Eleven million of us have already paid our share of the price of miseducation, and now we, you, all of us, must learn – or lose all."

1949

(1st Place – Women) "My Brother and I" – Jeanette Harrison, pp. 37-40

Topic: Doctors need to treat the whole patient, not the disease. In particular, they need to look at personality disorders which may be the real problem behind the symptoms.

Quotation: "Maynard Austin, M.D., F.A.C.S., says, 'Our doctors get a training which increases their knowledge of disease. But they are not taught the art of practicing medicine. Medical schools and hospitals training students ... emphasize assembly line methods of diagnosis. They all but ignore the social background of the patients. To ignore the patient entirely and think of him only as a case is poor medical practice.' Our doctors today have forgotten that patients are people, and should be treated as such. One-third to one-half of the patients treated for physical ailments suffer from psychological ailments which the average doctor fails to recognize. Ninety per cent of our patients need the feeling that the doctor is taking a personal interest in them, just as much as they need medical attention ... The improvement of this situation can be attained in two ways. First, our students when learning to be doctors must be taught the importance of Mrs. Jones as a patient, rather than as the cancer in bed 13 ... they must also be taught the underlying causes of personality difficulty, which is prevalent in ninety per cent of a doctor's cases."

(2nd Place – Women) "People in Disguise Speak Freely" – Joyce Bohyer, pp. 41-44

Topic: Contemporary fiction is of terrible quality. The fiction being written today is superficial and morally degrading.

Quotation: ". . . the reading public is not getting enough fiction of the quality it wants and deserves. In the field of fiction, there is a growing tendency to misinterpret the tastes and interests of those assumed to have intelligent and discerning literary backgrounds. Modern American fiction is marked by slipshod, superficial writing and thinking, and shock techniques affirmed to be necessary to hold interest and to build sales. All this indicates a trend toward lower standards of tastes, and perhaps, of morals."

(3rd Place – Women) "So Youth May Know" – Frances Taormina, pp. 28-30

Topic: In the wake of *The Kinsey Report*, the rising tide of sexual activity among teenagers must be acknowledged. It's time to put sex education classes into our schools.

Quotation: "I saw Marie the other day. We hadn't seen each other since commencement at high school, and when we accidentally met on the bus we had so much news to exchange that I nearly missed my stop. Marie is a pretty girl, a little fast maybe, but like a lot of girls you know. As moths flock to a bright light, that's the way the fellows flocked to Marie. And why not? She had a face and figure that would have graced any pin-up magazine. Sophisticated? Worldly wise? I remember the way she used to dazzle my rather naïve mind with her talk about her dates ... the lush and goof ball sprees and petting parties. Well, it seems she wasn't so wise after all. This was the way she put it? 'You remember him, Fran. Well, he got me in trouble and I made him marry me. Now he claims the kid isn't his, so I'm supporting it.' A child behind a barn, learning the deep, dark secrets of sex from her playmates. A teenager, who spends her allowance on love story magazines and hides paper-covered, passion-filled novels in her room. And later ... a parked car on a lonely, little-used road. This is the history of Marie ... the Kinsey Report ... 'Facts on Sex Education' ... Look back in history. It was this kind of behavior that characterized German society preceding its dissolution in the brown flood of Nazism and war ... We shall not travel Marie's dark path if we light the way with understanding and provide the facts so youth may know."

(1st Place – Men) "Return From Wasteland" – Joe B. Laine, pp. 89-92

Topic: Patients released from mental institutions must be embraced, not rejected, by the communities they return to. (The speech hints that some of these patients may be veterans of WW2.)

Quotation: "Ladies and gentlemen, I believe I have judged you without understanding all the evidence. I have condemned you without hearing your side of the case. I feel that I may owe you an apology. Let me tell you what I mean. It all started several years ago while I was working at a hospital for the treatment and care of the mentally ill. In the course of my work as gardener, I became acquainted with several of the inmates of the institution. Now these men, in the terms of the outside world, were insane. But, nevertheless, they became my friends. I found in each of them an interesting and distinctive personality; in them I found intelligence, inquisitiveness, and the desire to please. And you know, I even found the type of ironic humor which one might expect from a Mark Twain or a George Bernard Shaw ... John has spent three years in the sanitarium recovering from an emotional breakdown. Now he was ready for the final stage of his treatment – the readjustment to the social environment of the outside world. For after he has been treated for his illness and has shown a satisfactory response, the patient is returned to the community, to you, where the final decision as to his stability and usefulness as a citizen is handed down. I recall very well the day John told me of his fear of returning to his home community ... Yes, John expected to find derision and backbiting and the dreadful feeling of his friends shying away from him, and he found it. ... When I knew that John had been forced to return to the hospital because of the nervous agitation brought on by his inability to readjust, my anger toward you returned ... there is a fifth to be added to the four freedoms—that men like John shall have the right to come home without derision and the lifting of eyebrows. In our twentieth century society we have replaced the Bedlam

of chains with modern hospitals, and we have exchanged the burnings at the stake and the drownings in the witches' chair for the latest in psychiatric medicine. It remains for you and me to establish a new therapy on the home front. Lest we see you own hands drawing the razor across Pop's throat, let us join together in helping these, our neighbors, in their return from Wasteland."

(2nd Place – Men) "Can We Win the Future?" – Erich Hofmann, pp. 58-61

Topic: America needs to win the loyalty of German youth before Russia's highly active propaganda machine convinces them all to buy into the Communist cause.

Quotation: "When I was a German prisoner of war in England, I read Wendell Willkie's *One World*. And I shared his optimism. But when I returned to Germany, I found not one world, but two worlds, separated by an 'Iron Curtain.' In this 'hot spot of the cold war' there is going on at this moment a gigantic struggle to win German youth either to Communism or democracy. Both Russia and the Western democracies know that whoever wins the youth of Germany may win the future of Europe and perhaps of the world. I am naturally deeply concerned about what is happening to the young people in my homeland. After my American education I intend to return to do my share in fortifying German young people to resist the poison of Communism. And I am sure that what happens in Germany must concern you as well, because your future is being shaped there, too ... the Communists are ahead in the struggle to win the loyalty of German youth. So, tonight, my plea is simply this: We must find a way of convincing them that Western Democracy offers the better solution to their problems ... the Russians have already succeeded in converting National Socialism to National Bolshevism: In convincing German young people that it is through Communism that Germany can realize her Nationalistic aims. They are directing the desire for revenge against the West and are making the youth believe that Germany, with Russian help, can become an important power again."

(3rd Place – Men) "Skeletons All?" – Roger J. Fritz, pp. 54-57

Topic: As citizens and people, we need to take responsibility for our lives and dare to think creatively and originally. We must vote, we must not turn over power to labor unions, we must not depend on government subsidies, we must eschew the path of least resistance. We need to do things for ourselves and not let others do them for us. (Note: Of all the speeches reviewed here, this speech seemed most vaguely focused and loose in its reasoning.)

Quotation: "In too many phases of our lives we are yielding our individual freedoms and forgetting our obligations until we shall soon find that inertia has taken over completely and we shall be as inactive as the people whom the prophet Ezekiel describes 'in the valley of dry bones.' Quite simply, I should like to ask you a few questions. 'How much responsibility will you take either for yourself or for others?' 'If you do, how original are you in your thoughts and acts?' 'How do you express your professed originality?' ... Many housewives allow their daily living and that of their families to be patterned after frivolous soap operas and the utopian dreams of their magazines. We as a nation have become addicted to the 'easy way' ... the path of least resistance. . . Today, we ask ourselves not: How will my actions better myself, my school or my community; but: What is the style? What is the party line? What are others doing? We are like ditto marks on every other line of a sheet of paper, and no one has bothered to read the line above ... The solution is essentially an individual matter. Ask yourself ... what am I doing to develop myself as an individual, mentally, spiritually, and emotionally; or do I continually delegate most of my responsibility to someone else? Then, ask yourself: What am I doing to benefit mankind, my school, my community, my country, and the world?"

The Times, They Were A-Changin': Exploring The Interstate Oratorical Contests of the 1960s

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The social change emerging in the 1960s can be witnessed from a variety of perspectives, but perhaps none more enlightening than the view from the college classroom. The professor-led "teach-ins" of 1962 and 1963 gave way to sit-ins that shut down some campuses in the middle and latter years of the decade. Anti-war protests spilled out on to the lawns and sidewalks of places like Berkeley and, later, Kent State. In 1968, presidential candidate Richard Nixon called for law and order in city streets and on college campuses, proclaiming we would win the war in Vietnam. By 1972, President Nixon campaigned on the idea of bringing the troops home from Vietnam. It seems the radical message espoused by the students of the Sixties was co-opted by Nixon's silent majority in the early '70s. College classrooms hatched ideas and actions that transformed a nation.

Ideas themselves were being transformed, especially in the communication classrooms of the 1960s. Aristotelian explanations that dominated rhetorical theory for more than 2,300 years were called into question by "new rhetorics." Black's (1965) genre-based criticism and Bitzer's (1968) rhetorical situation challenged the sufficiency of Aristotle's foundational concepts. Scott and Smith's (1969) rhetoric of confrontation attempted to explain radical rhetoric and social movement protest unaccounted for in Aristotelian terms. Burke added two new works to his canon in the decade, *The Rhetoric of Religion* in 1961 and *Language as Symbolic Action* in 1966. No scholar offered a more comprehensive alternative to classical notions of rhetoric than did Burke. As persuasion in the public forum changed, so did the methods and means for analyzing it.

Since 1874, a handful of American college classrooms have hosted generations of students practicing the art of oratory. Throughout the intervening decades, students involved in the Interstate Oratory Contest have, to varying degrees, addressed the compelling social, political, economic and educational issues of their time. When one considers the shifting socio-political landscape of the 1960s, this decade seems a far cry from the rhetorical contexts that gave rise to speeches for the previous nine decades. Did stock issues give way to Woodstock issues? An analysis of the Interstate Oratory winning orations from the 1960s raises numerous questions. To what extent do the speeches reflect the emerging notion of student empowerment? How are the compelling social movements of the day, such as the Civil Rights Movement, the Women's Movement, and the Anti-War Movement, reflected in the discourse of the decade? Do the 1960s' orations signal the generic properties observed by previous researchers?

Literature Review

The Interstate Oratory Contest is the nation's oldest continuously held intercollegiate speech competition. The initial contest was held on February 22, 1874, in Galesburg, Illinois. Beginning in 1887, each state was represented by its best orator. This practice held until 1937, when the contest divided into men's and women's divisions,

allowing one representative from each sex to represent the state. This segregation lasted until 1973, when the division disappeared, and each state was granted two representatives.

The first two volumes of *Winning Orations (1891, 1907)* published the first- and second- place Interstate Oratory speeches from the years 1874 – 1908. They included updated biographies and even a few pictures of the winners from Interstate's first four decades. In the years between 1908 and 1933, publication was left up to individual states and colleges. Then the Interstate Oratorical Association assumed responsibility for the publication of *Winning Orations* from 1934 to the present.

Despite this well-preserved historical archive, few researchers have taken notice of these speeches (Schnoor, 1984). It should be noted that the contest itself predates even the formation of the first professional speech organization, the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking (now NCA) by over four decades. The association's second president, James Winans, made the oft-quoted observation that helped to launch a discipline: "A speech is not an essay on its hind legs." In the years before the rise of any professional speech organizations, the Interstate speeches certainly resemble essays, hind legs notwithstanding. While it is probably safe to assume that the delivery of these early orations reflected the dominant elocutionary influences of the day (see William Jennings Bryan), few specific descriptions of delivery details survive. Early essays in the newly formed *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* (1917) generally hail oratory competitions as worthwhile and educative, but they lack any sense of a specific research agenda.

However, several convention panels and papers have focused on Interstate orations through the years. Reynolds (1983) focused specifically on Interstate orations from 1974 through 1981 that demonstrated a particular subject type categorized as "The Dread Disease Speech." Reynolds observed a certain dread among judges assigned to persuasive speaking events, postulating that perhaps the lack of variety among the speeches resulted in the less than enthusiastic reaction. Beyond the topical redundancy that led to her descriptive label, Reynolds noted the following content similarities: a problem/solution structure; the use of expert testimony; reference to personal involvement; the establishment of significance; and the most dominant type of evidence, examples and illustrations. She concluded that students were learning valuable lessons about persuasive speaking, and perhaps the problem of the "Dread Disease Speech" resulted more from the repetitive nature of judges' exposure to the content than the orations themselves.

Sellnow and Ziegelmueller (1988) offered a comparative analysis of first- and second-place Interstate orations from 1964 – 1969 and 1980 – 1985. They found speeches from the mid- to late 1960s reflected more personal involvement, employed more evocative evidence and less logic, devoted less time to solutions, and included fewer specific source citations and less specific detailing of sources. The researchers hypothesized that perhaps the search for fresh topics ushered in by national speech tournaments and circuits moved students away from the personal experience-related speeches of the earlier decade. They also lamented a certain loss of aesthetic, remarking, "It would be unfortunate, however, if too much of the emotional quality of 'old fashioned oratory' were lost" (p. 85).

Olson's (2010) more recent study represents more of an attempt to identify successful strategies than a comprehensive analysis of Interstate orations. However, he references numerous orations and moves toward generic analysis by observing similarities among winning speeches. Olson described trends in topic choice, asserting that successful

speeches often called on subjects that: were unfamiliar, derived from contemporary solutions to larger problems, and were felt strongly about by the orator. The structural outline reflected in nearly all the successful speeches included some variation of problem-cause-solution. He noted that unlike typical competitive speeches, Interstate orations were developed with a final round panel of local, professional judges in mind. Therefore, students were more likely to use metaphor, clever uses of language, and references to the occasion. Regarding speech delivery, Olson claimed that speakers should be encouraged to "speak with all the conviction they can muster" (p. 204).

Method

To better understand the topics and development of the winning orations of the 1960s, the first-, second- and third-place award-winning speeches by men and women were systematically analyzed. All but one of the speech texts were published in annual editions of *Winning Orations* by The Interstate Oratorical Association, resulting in a census of 59 speeches.

The speeches were coded by state, institution and general topic. They were then content analyzed to investigate speech development and support, using categories largely drawn from prior research. Each text was investigated to determine if a problem/cause/solution organization was employed, defined by Reynolds (1983, p. 124) as occurring when the speaker's "goal is assumed to be to persuade the audience to accept the existence of a problem, and then to take some sort of action to remedy the problem."

Means of support within the speeches were analyzed by coding presence or absence of the following types of development:

a) Expert Testimony, the practice of citing those with recognized expertise related to the topic (Reynolds, 1983);
b) Personal Involvement, as declared or explained by the speaker within the text (Sellnow and Ziegelmueller, 1988);
c) Call to Action, explicitly asking audience members to pursue specific actions (Sellnow and Ziegelmueller, 1988);
d) Examples, the practice of citing case studies, facts or incidences related to the topic (Reynolds, 1983);
e) Visualization, the use of hypothetical occurrences or outcomes through deep or evocative description (Sellnow and Ziegelmueller, 1988);
f) Metaphor, the development of comparison through figurative language (Olson, 2010);
g) Quotation, citing the words of others;
h) Reference to the Occasion, employing specific mention of the location or events relevant to the location within the text (Olson, 2010); and
i) Documentation, specific citation of the source of information used within the speech (Sellnow and Ziegelmueller, 1988).

Results

The speakers represented 15 states, with nine speakers from Minnesota institutions, seven from Michigan, six from Missouri, five from Colorado, Indiana, Ohio and

Wisconsin, and three from Illinois, Indiana, Iowa and Oklahoma. Two speakers represented Pennsylvania and South Dakota, and one speaker came from Montana and one from Nebraska.

Certain institutions had strong representation throughout the decade of competition. Southeast Missouri State had six award winners, one first-place winner, two second-place winners and three third-place winners. Gustavus Adolphus had four winners, two first-place and two second-place recipients. DePauw, Wayne State, Oklahoma State and Muskingum each had three award winners.

Thirteen of the 59 coded speeches, or 22%, employed a recognizable problem/cause/solution format. For example, the 1969 third-place speech by Lynn Gruentzel, of Wisconsin State University-Eau Claire, first presented a series of examples and testimony to demonstrate the discrepancies found in the cost of specific prescription medications (pp. 51-53). The variation in cost was attributed to the fact that "the drug manufacturer can set his own price for each customer to whom he sells" (p. 52), with specific examples of such practice offered. A three-prong solution was then presented, with calls for the FDA to publish a compendium of prices, manufacturers to resist duplication of drugs, and action against the Pharmaceutical Manufacturers of America's control of drug sales. However, there was no apparent increase in the use of this format across the decade. While 16, or 27%, of the speeches contained specific public or personal calls to action, they were not all framed within the problem/cause/solution format.

Support Types

None of the speeches coded made specific references to the occasion by citing the locations or events associated with locations. It should be noted that such references could have been added in the final round as an impromptu adaption and then not included in the formal speech text, but the publications have no indication of such.

However, each speech analyzed used examples as a support device. Some speeches relied on case studies; others used statistics, laws, court rulings or historical events.

The second most common device for support noted within 53 of the 59, or 89.8% of the speeches, was the inclusion of quotations, some from prose or poetry, the Christian Bible, public speeches, or newspaper or magazine articles. Almost all quotations were from males.

Perhaps not surprisingly in light of his influence on the decade, quotations from President John F. Kennedy were the most frequent common source, with seven speeches quoting the President. His brother, Robert Kennedy, was quoted in one speech. Other Presidents were also quoted, including Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Franklin Roosevelt, Dwight Eisenhower, and Lyndon Johnson. Academics, priests, and an assortment of governmental figures were also quoted. National and state judicial figures, including Supreme Court Justices Vinson, Frankfurter, Cardozo and Douglas, were also quoted, often from their written Court opinions. The Rev. Martin Luther King Jr. was quoted in two speeches, an indication of the influence of the Civil Rights Movement.

Literature quotations were also common. From *Antigone* to *Oedipus Rex* and from Shakespeare to Shaw, speakers chose selections from works or from the authors themselves. In several of the speeches, many quotes are included. For example, the 1963 first-place speech by Diane Baker from the State University of South Dakota (pp. 46-49) included quotations from a court transcript and an address by U.S. Supreme Court Justice

Cardozo. The 1960 speech (pp. 11-14) by Lynda Bayliff of DePauw, "The One Less Traveled By," contained quotations from Charles Van Doren from testimony before a Congressional subcommittee, theologian Dr. Elton Trueblood, then Sen. John Kennedy, the *Indianapolis News,* Whittaker Chambers, *Antigone,* Albert Einstein, professor Charles Frankel of Columbia University, and William Roberts, before concluding with a stanza from the Robert Frost poem from which the speech title was drawn.

Some 27 speeches, about 46%, included expert testimony from a variety of sources, from jurists to physicians to politicians. More than half of the speeches (52.5%) drew on the personal involvement of the speaker. For example, speakers explained their perspectives as a veteran, a journalist, an international student or from having family members who had been incarcerated or who had illnesses or disabilities. Several spoke as members of racial minorities. Others used first-person voice to characterize issues faced by college students, such as being too busy or having friends who were suicidal.

Illustrative language in the forms of metaphors was found in 15, or about 25%, of the speeches, and through visualization in 10, or about 17%, of the speeches coded. In her 1961 second-place speech, Chloe Beard of the University of Kentucky (pp. 20-23) used the metaphor of diamonds drawn from a Russell Conwell story to represent the value of getting to know the international students who had come to the United States. The speech concluded: "Stop! Stop! Seize that diamond—while there is yet time—hold fast to it!" Through visualization, Roger Robertson, in his 1969 first-place speech "People Get Ready," repeatedly asked the audience, "Can you remember where you were, and what you were doing, on that …. tragic day of Friday, November 23, 1963; April 4, 1968, and June 4, 1968" to encourage them to evoke the feelings of shock and sadness that accompanied the assassinations of John Kennedy, Martin Luther King Jr. and Robert Kennedy (pp. 54-56).

Discussion

The degree to which "the times were a-changin'" depends on one's perspective. While the topical shift from the beginning to the end of the decade reflects a significant change in college oratory, the fact that the decade perpetuated the gender segregation initiated in the 1930s suggests that at least in this area, the times weren't a-changin' much. A consideration of speech topics from the decade reflects a social change narrative. The inspirational, almost seemingly naïve speeches of the 1960-1962 period gave way to a vigilant, socially active strain in 1967-1969. Topics from the early years included making moral choices, staying mentally active, and the busyness of students (1960); getting to know international students, a lack of shame for crime, and a lack of personal responsibility (1961); and the need to love one another, the importance of virtue, and how to live a good life (1962). The list of subjects sounds almost like sermon titles, and indeed a number of the speeches included biblical references. By the end of the decade, those references had for the most part disappeared among the winning orations. The latter-day orations included a veteran's post-war adjustment and two speeches on college suicide (1967), anti-gay prejudice and pride in Vietnam (1968), and press coverage of trials and two speeches warning of the coming violent revolution (1969). And while exceptions to this trend exist, the general tenor of the orations had clearly shifted.

A constant throughout the decade was the topic of civil rights and race relations. It was the most represented among the winners, claiming nine of the 59 spots. A speech on prejudice was present among the 1960 winners, while two orations on racial injustice made it through in 1968. In between, all three of the female top prizes in 1964 and one of the male prizes went to civil rights-related speeches. Racial injustice was truly the topic of the decade.

One might assume that the emergence of civil rights speeches and students' rights-related speeches among the winners should naturally be joined by women's rights speeches in the years immediately before the Roe v. Wade decision. However, this assumption proves to be totally false in the decade that continued the practice of separate divisions for women and men. One speech in 1966 called for the need for abortion legislation. This was the only speech among the 59 winners to address women's rights directly.

The decade did provide one final opportunity to compare the oratorical styles of women to men head-to-head. While few significant differences emerge, women did tend to rely on personal involvement at nearly twice the rate of men, as 20 out of 31 references to personal involvement came from women. This finding tends to support the generic observations of Campbell (1973) in her ground-breaking identification of feminine oratorical style. Indeed, as Campbell's article, "The Rhetoric of Women's Liberation" was going to press in 1973, the Interstate Oratorical Association was voting to end the practice of separate divisions.

The decade of the 1960s provides the last opportunity to observe intercollegiate oratory before the influence of major national forensic tournaments, organizations and circuits. Before Reynold's (1983) lament, "The repetitive nature of the event, our evaluation of the same student—giving the same speech—from tournament to tournament…" (p. 134), or Sellnow and Ziegelmueller's 1988 conclusion, "It would be unfortunate, however, if too much of the emotional quality of 'old fashioned oratory' were lost" (p. 85), the orations of the 1960s reflected a freedom of style and literary components lost in the subsequent decades. When one considers that only 16 of the 1960s' winners featured a call to action and only 13 speeches reflected a problem-cause-solution structure, it is clear that the unwritten rules that would dominate the following decades had yet to force prescription on the rhetorical choices of the student voices of the Sixties.

Dylan's proclamation of "changin' times" was echoed in a 1964 Interstate oration from a young, idealistic sophomore, Edward Harris from Purdue University, whose introduction began with a humility not often seen in competition today:

> I am a college student. I speak to you with no real authority, no assumption of rank or age; I hold no outstanding position…My criterion for speaking out now is that I am a sophomore at Purdue University, a member of the controversial college generation" (Esch, 1965, p. 52).

The controversial college generation found its voice in college classrooms across the nation in teach-ins, in sit-ins and protests of many varieties, and in the voices of competitors in the Interstate Oratorical Association. And these voices echoed throughout the world and for many decades to follow. Three years prior to Harris' Dylan riff, another competitor from Macalester College in Minnesota offered a similar introduction in the final round of the 1961 contest: "I speak with no authority, no assumption of rank or age; I hold no position, I have no wealth. One thing alone I own, and that is my soul." This speech

concluded with a phrase that the orator would embody the rest of his life—"all men are brothers, indeed" (Nelson, 1961, p. 80). The words belonged to Koffi Annan, future United Nations Secretary General. The 1960's Interstate Oratory Contests launched great speeches and great speakers, suitable for changin' times and changin' the world.

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1970-1979: Investigating the Interstate Oratorical Contest during the "Me Decade"

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The decade of the 1970s further entrenched the socially progressive values that came to the U.S. cultural forefront in the 1960s. Investing in such activities as the Women's Movement and Vietnam War protests, college students became increasingly vocal about social issues. Those speaking up on such topics included the interstate orators who crafted the IOC speeches of the 1970s. In order to analyze the speeches presented at the Interstate Oratorical Contest between 1970 and 1979, the first part of this paper will explore how this socially important historical time period influenced the speeches themselves. The second section will address the language style and organizational patterns the students employed in their oratories. Finally, the third section will focus on logistical issues, including the locations, demographics, and changing administrative details of the tournament.

The Context of History

The University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire recently celebrated its centennial. Although few buildings, academic majors or organizations remain the same as they were during the inaugural year of 1916-1917, the school's administration extended a university-wide call seeking to identify and celebrate any programs on campus which shared the University's centennial birthday. UWEC forensics answered that call after discovering an article in the school's 1917 yearbook which touted the first year the Eau Claire Normal School's forensic program ventured into Oratory. The article stated:

> The first year of oratory and debating at Eau Claire has shown that our school is going to make a strong record in these activities. In Oratory, we entered into competition with other normal schools of the state in the State Inter-Normal Oratorical League. Milton C. Towner with his oration on "A People Despoiled" had the honor of serving as Eau Claire's first representative in this league. Snowdrifts prevented him and a body of supporters from breaking their way through the gulches into River Falls on the day of the contest, so our first gun in the battle for supremacy in this league is yet to be fired … While we have not won oratory and debate this year, we have done something much more important and fundamental. We have measured our prowess against older schools who are to be worthy foes, and we have looked forward to the next year with confidence and determination. We have established ourselves as competitors worthy of consideration in Inter-Normal school oratory and debating. (Periscope, 1917, p. 46)

One hundred years and many snowdrifts later, the University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire continues to actively uphold this tradition, frequently qualifying orators to compete at the nation's oldest forensics competition, the Interstate Oratorical Contest (IOC). It is a point of great pride for both our program and our school. It is a local example of a widespread and enduring fact: all of our forensics programs are grounded in history, and much of who we are today is a product of who we have been and what we have done in the past.

The IOC significantly predates the arrival of the first competitor from UWEC. In fact, for virtually all of the schools who participate in this annual event, the organization was launched well before our own particular institutions became part of it. The IOC began

in 1874 when representatives from five schools convened to compete against each other: Beloit College of Wisconsin, Iowa College (presently Grinnell), Iowa State University, Chicago University, and Monmouth College in Illinois (Schnoor, 1984). Needless to say, over the course of time both the organization and the speeches it rewards have changed in ways both sizeable and small. And while each of the fifteen decades that have passed can be profitably examined, the changing profile of the IOC in the 1970s is of particular interest here. Taking a snapshot of IOC in this decade helps to explain how the contest was in the process of evolving to a form more aligned with its profile today. This snapshot can be seen by reviewing key cultural events of the 1970s, examining how the IOC speeches reflected the cultural and political landscape of the time, identifying the most successful schools and topics recognized at the national tournament, discussing the compositional conventions and organizational devices evident in the speeches, and finally detailing the administrative and procedural changes which paved the way for the organization's current form.

The Interconnection of Historical Context and the IOC Speeches of the 1970s

The political landscape of the United States in the 1970s came alive in the topics and informational allusions made in the IOC speeches spanning the decade. It was a tumultuous time. Many marginalized groups, including women, African Americans, Native Americans, Latinx people, and the LGBTQ community continued their distinct yet interconnected fights to make their voices heard—and the decade found many Americans taking on the role of ally for these marginalized groups. Americans also found their voices of dissension while protesting such targets as the Vietnam War, the Kent State Massacre, Watergate, the Roe v. Wade deliberations, the Arab Oil Embargo, the Three Mile Island nuclear accident, federal government spending, and the Iran Hostage Crisis. By the end of the decade, these societal fracture lines and disappointments had set a tone for advocates (both young and old) across the nation. Within the more specific context of college academia, faculty at colleges and universities were widely discussing the topics of the time, as evidenced by articles published in special issues of *Today's Speech*. Articles in the journal's Fall 1973 issue were devoted to discussing women and politics. Articles in the Spring 1974 issue talked about black rhetoric, black English, black theater and black literature. Soon after, the journal's Fall 1975 issue contained articles about Richard Nixon and Joseph McCarthy. College students in general—and forensics students in particular—were also very much engaged in these discussions, and the Interstate Oratorical speeches presented during the time span of 1970-1979 demonstrated this awareness. Grace Walsh, one of the period's most prolific IOC coaches, summarized the decade within a larger context in a foreword to the special edition of *Winning Orations* which included all twenty-four of the speeches she coached (many but not all during the 1970s). Her comments highlight prominent traits of IOC orations that cut across the years:

> Many of the Interstate winners I remember most had … identification with their subject—the coal miner's daughter who eulogized John L. Lewis, the Oriental [sic] who spoke of the discrimination against his people, the black speaker from Southern Illinois who talked about the real cost of racial discrimination. The six orators who were Interstate winners consisted of three men and three women. The subjects they wrote about grew out of the times when they were in college … [for example] [t]he war veteran looking at educational problems. The speech on Joe McCarthy was written before the Senate investigation when

> Joe was at the height of his powers. The speech on problems of drug abuse and the one on needs of the elderly, the need of fiber in diet—what a variety of problems and styles of delivery! (Walsh, 1984)

The 1970s specifically were definitely years filled with social conflict and social change. The political landscape of the era was reflected in the topics chosen by IOC speakers, in the references to the larger world that they made, and even by the emergence of "politically correct" language in their writing.

A concern with the abusive exercise of power (both by the government and beyond) shines through in the IOC speeches of this period. In 1970, various speeches alluded to the death count in Vietnam, Apollo 11's journey to the moon, and the voting rights of eighteen-year-olds. The following year, IOC speeches referenced Kent State, Nixon, and the fact that members of the middle class were making an average income of $15,000 a year. Speeches presented in 1972 placed a heavy emphasis on the Vietnam War, looking at such topics as troop removal, prisoners of war, inequality of genders in the military, forgiving dissenters, and post-traumatic stress disorder. The speeches of 1973 examined a variety of issues ranging from the shamanism of the government to foreign policy to the support of Black Colleges. Displeasure with the actions of the federal government continued to arise in 1974, when finalist James Ringenberg spoke quite angrily about the government and its waste of resources. Two years later, the IOC speeches of 1976 showed a nation tired of being taken advantage of by people in various positions of influence. Final round competitors that year talked about the over-use of tranquilizers, the harms of second-hand smoke, poor treatment of the elderly, and overpricing by auto mechanics. One of these themes was explored again in 1977, when Chuck Green continued the campaign to protect the interests of nonsmokers. Even so, the IOC speeches of this decade did not dig into some of the most prominent issues of the day which they might have explored. For example, except for a speech in 1971 that spoke about Nixon, the history of Watergate and Nixon's impeachment are not notably present in the IOC speeches of this decade. However, the impact of the Vietnam War and a general sense of disillusionment with the government and governing policies were clearly in evidence and reverberated with the larger culture Americans were experiencing at the time.

Meanwhile, as Americans turned away from their government, they turned toward each other. The decade of speeches began as the 1970s did, with individuals taking up the mantle of social battle on behalf of others. Although the 1970s is often known as the "me" decade, the 1970s as represented at IOC was more of a "we" decade. As a continuation of civil rights battles fought in the 1960s, the speeches of the 1970s were frequently delivered by speakers who were fighting for the causes of others. Of the twenty speeches that were presented at the 1970 Interstate Oratorical Contest, seven of them were about civil rights, an additional seven dealt with government and policy reform, two spoke about mental health issues, and the remaining four addressed quality-of-life issues like leisure and loneliness. Perhaps surprisingly, however, the winner in 1970 gave a speech not about civil rights, but about pesticide poisoning. A year later in 1971, out of the 26 speeches at the IOC, 11 defended the rights of others. Four addressed the rights of students in our education system, two dealt with the right to privacy, and two spoke of essentially just being better citizens of the world.

This theme of defending the rights of others continued to be evident in IOC speeches throughout the decade. However, the allies who spoke typically didn't belong to

the groups whose rights they advocated. Fenderson (1971), in her speech entitled *Man and Man* (defending gay rights), linked herself to homosexuals by saying that she had "a friend who admits to being one" (p. 22). In 1972, it was a male representative from the Air Force Academy who spoke in favor of women's liberation. The 1972 Women's IOC Champion, Candy Winston, told the stories of others to defend the non-standard dialect of Black Americans. Samuel Davis picked up this same mantle in 1977. Daniel Vice in 1974 defended the rights of Native Americans, and Janice Hammil did the same in 1976. Placing these speeches within their historical context, it is clear that the Civil Rights movement which became prominent in the 1960s was continuing to exert an influence not only across the United States but also at the Interstate Oratorical Contest every May between 1970 and 1979.

In order to defend and promote the rights of others, many IOC speakers in the 1970s emphasized the importance of breaking down racial barriers. Examining these speeches also draws our attention to the birth (as expressed in language) of the political correctness movement. Although IOC speakers across many decades have spoken on behalf of "people of color," the language used to reference various groups has changed over time. In 1970, Beatrice Valdez's speech, "Chicanos Help Themselves," refers linguistically to "Chicanos" and "Mexican Americans." Additionally, both a speech from 1973 (Stearns, p. 42) and an oration from 1979 (Brenner, p. 107) refer to the intellectually disabled as the "mentally retarded." Native Americans are referred to as "Indians" in 1970, "Redmen" and "Indians" in 1973 (Livingston, 1973, p. 5), and as "American Indians" and "Native Americans" in both 1974 (Vice, 1974, pp. 32-34) and 1976 (Hammil, 1976. p. 16). African-Americans are referred to as "Blacks" in two 1970 speeches on black power, as "Negroes" in Winston's 1972 winning oration (p. 28), and as "Blacks" in both a 1973 speech speaking about "Blacks being viewed as human beings" (LaMarr, p. 18) and a 1977 speech on Black English (Davis, p. 55). However, in 1973, children who came from interracial homes were referred to as "Children of Mixed Blood." Interestingly enough, the IOC speeches from the 1970s document American's progression not only toward a shared heart for equality but also toward an understanding of politically correct language.

The Results: Award Details for the Years 1970-1979

Between 1970 and 1979, 14 individual champions represented a total of eight different states (Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri and Wisconsin) and 12 different institutions. Two programs achieved unique distinctions. In 1973, Eastern Michigan University was the home of both the Men's Champion and the Women's Champion (the only school ever to earn both titles in a single year). The only other school to receive two titles was the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, which was the home of the Champion in both 1976 and 1979. Meanwhile, the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire also became the only school in the history of the IOC to be represented by two family members in the same final round when Mike Rindo took second place to his brother John Rindo in the 1976 final. Table 1 provides fuller details on the results of the decade.

Compositional Elements in the 1970s: Opening Devices, Theses, and Previews

In the manuscripts of speeches delivered at the IOC between 1970 and 1979, some interesting patterns arise in attention-getting opening devices, thesis statements, and organizational previews. The observations made here take into consideration speeches by participants, finalists, and champions alike.

Three types of attention-getting devices were especially popular at some point or another during the decade. In the early 1970s the attention-getters mostly consisted of one or the other of two basic kinds: simple personal testimonies, or literary quotations. Personal testimonies were very popular. For example, in 1971 a student with epilepsy recounted the narrative of her own experience of staying "addicted to drugs in order to lessen the symptoms of [her] disease" (Shaw, p. 79). In 1972, another student announced early in his speech on women's rights that "there's a chauvinist in the room" (Peppers, p. 39). In the middle of the decade, Deadra Longworth (1976) shared her woes as a woman who had been overcharged by several mechanics, including one who told her "don't worry, little lady" (p. 32). And as the decade ended, Tim Friedrichsen outed himself as a "fat" man in the 1979 final round in his speech titled "Great American Fat Race" (p. 21). Other speeches alternatively relied on the use of literary quotations. These included excerpts from the works of Shakespeare, John Donne, Langston Hughes, T.S. Elliot, and John Keats (among many others). In the 1976 final round, both Mike Rindo and John Rindo quoted lines from books in their introductions. Meanwhile, a third type of opening device (which became very popular in later years) emerged in the latter part of the decade. More specifically, speakers began to employ narratives as their attention-getters. Chip Letzgus told the story of a child's death in his 1976 finalist speech – and for what may well have been the first time, audiences heard an IOC finalist use the words, "this is not an isolated case" (p. 44). Building on this approach to the opening device, two years later, in 1978, Ruth Brenner opened her championship speech with a story of a boy who shot his sister while they were "playing a game" with a gun (p. 106).

The structures of the IOC speeches from 1970-1979 were incredibly loose (at least by today's standards). This conclusion takes into account the use of thesis statements, initial organizational previews placed in the introductory section, and internal transitions. A distinct thesis was not evident in speeches until around 1976. John Rindo's 1976 championship speech clearly stated in the introduction, "Americans have become too reliant on the minor tranquilizers to solve the problems of everyday life" (p. 62). John's brother, Mike Rindo, followed suit with a likewise obvious thesis in his 1976 second place speech, asserting that "from the quick cures for the quick aches that come from old age to easy money through part-time work, gypsters and con men offer dreams that all too easily trap the elderly" (p. 64). Chip Letzgus (1976) also provided a clearly stated thesis in his fourth-place speech, stating that **"**[t]he lack of effective federal laws has created a critical need for better laboratory equipment and facilities" (p. 44). However, while these speeches included obvious thesis statements, it wasn't until the next year that a semblance of what we know today as the "organizational preview" was seen. At the start of the 1970s, the typical structure used in IOC speeches did not seem to call for an introductory listing of "main points" which were going to arise in the body of the speech. Speeches presented early in the decade (1970-1973) relied mostly on questions as transitional devices, given that the speeches flowed from section to section as a narrative on the ideas of the time. But this approach to organizational structure changed as the decade moved on. It is noteworthy that, at the end of her introductory section, before moving into the body of her speech, Ruth

Brenner (1977, p. 71) claimed "I believe Americans must learn what fiber is, the potential health hazards resulting from a lack of it, and the fact that its addition to our diets could alleviate more anguish than all the health food fads and vitamin E gimmicks put together." Brenner continued the practice of previewing her major points when she returned to the IOC in 1978 (p. 107) and said, "[w]e must recognize that a serious problem does exist, that there are three main causes or our failures in strategy, and that a new game plan could result in victory." The inclusion of distinct organizational previews which identified the speech's main points took off as a trend in 1979, when all of the top three finalists included a distinct preview listing three major points. Thus, Don Parker (1979) explained in his championship speech:

> In the next few minutes, I'd like to talk about this problem of document fraud and about the men and women who do their paperwork every day and bill innocent Americans billions of dollars a year. I'll give some case histories and show how paper fraud can affect individuals, business and government. Finally, I'll suggest some solutions and ways you can avoid these paper pushers." (p. 54)

Mary Beth Kirchner (1979, p. 79) also included an obvious organizational preview in her second-place speech. She told her audience, "[t]oday I hope to make you conscious of the history of the Farm Labor Organizing Committee, the needs being voiced by its members, the solution that they offer to their problem and the role that each of us play in accomplishing that solution." Third-place winner Elighie Wilson (1979) likewise made use of an obvious organizational preview in his speech on electromagnetic radiation. In fact, not only did he list all three of his main points in his preview, but he also introduced the now-common convention of stating a source as part of the preview. He said, "I will do this by describing significant harms caused by this type of radiation, two problems relating to the radiation, and finally I will suggest some solutions which might help end what Paul Brodeur calls the "Zapping of America" (p. 18).

The Interstate Oratorical Association: Evolution and Stability in the 1970s

The decade of the 1970s brought both change and stability to the Interstate Oratory Contest. The purpose of the contest was established in 1873, when the organization declared that its mission was to "conduct annual contests in the branch of forensics known as oratory, in which a participant prepares a manuscript speech and presents the speech largely from memory" (Schnoor, 1984). One-hundred years later, the IOC was still doing that (albeit perhaps in leisure suits), but the guidelines under which the organization was operating were facing both enduring and time-specific challenges. Issues faced by the association in the 1970s related to such diverse topics as the location of the tournament, ballot and tabulation practices, judge assignment guidelines, the use of quoted material, plagiarism, and fees and services.

Relative to the location of tournament sites, Schnoor (1984) tells us that "[i]n 1970 a rotation system was again adopted by the Association and the yearly contest was held in odd numbered years in a Central location and alternates in the even years between East and West locations." However, this system did not long survive this decade. Schnoor goes on to note that "[a]t the annual meeting in 1984, the Association voted to end the rotation system" (p. 5). Table 2 shows this rotation clearly, as the sites for 1971, 1973, 1975, and

1977 were in the Midwestern states of Nebraska, Minnesota, Illinois and Wisconsin respectively, while the 1970 and 1974 contests were held in comparatively western states and the 1972 and 1976 contests were held in relatively eastern states. The 1977 contest in Missouri and the 1979 contest in Colorado do not follow the location guidelines established in 1970. Although the organization didn't officially end the rotation system until 1984, it is possible to guess that a difficulty in finding sites to fit the regional guidelines began as early as 1978. The ruling to lift the site restrictions eventually made its way to the 1983 business meeting.

In regard to ballot design and tabulation practices, the contest seems to have been run in largely the same manner throughout most of the 1970s. Those changes that did occur were comparatively minor. For example, although the ballots from the 1978 contest were printed on full 8 ½" by 11" sheets while the 1979 ballots were reduced in size to half-sheets, they employed the same scoring guidelines: they used a 1-5 ranking system (no ties allowed) and employed the 70-100 rating system (no score lower than a 70 allowed). The notes from the 1977 meeting report that the 70-100 scale was officially adopted by the organization in that year. In addition, 1977 legislation enacted the policy of dropping both the low rank and the low rating when tabulating the results.

Judge assignment guidelines in the 1970s were different from what they are today. Thus, ballots from 1978 reflect the fact that contestants that year performed their speech in three preliminary rounds for three judges – but unlike in today's contests, a contestant could be seen by the same judge twice. For example, in 1978, Ruth Brenner was judged by George Armstrong, Dennis Beagan, and Larry Weis in the first round. Then she was judged again by Larry Weis in the third round. That same year, Tom Christy was judged by Jack Kay, Joel Hefling and Ray Quiel in one round – and then again by Ray Quiel in another.

Some rules relating to the composition of speeches were reviewed and/or modified during this decade. One rule change related to the limits placed on incorporating direct quotations made by people other than the students themselves. In 1977, the amount of quoted material students were allowed to include in their speeches went from 10% to the 20% allowed today (1977 Business Meeting Minutes). Meanwhile, the word count limit was set at 1800 per speech.

The perennial problem of plagiarism surfaced at least once in the 1970s. The 1977 business meeting minutes reflect a plagiarism call and the removal of an award. A plagiarism claim was made against Ron Ford's 1973 second-place speech, and the organization ruled that Ford's placing should be withdrawn from public record and that third-place finisher Doug Steinkruger should be moved up to second-place. However, the 1973 *Winning Orations* (previously printed and circulated of course) still shows Ford as the second-place winner. As a side note, Ron Ford came back to IOC in 1974 and won the championship title that year.

Finally, the fees charged and services offered by the association changed a bit in the 1970s. As of 1977 (1977 Business Meeting minutes), the price for obtaining copies of *Winning Orations* became fifty cents each. That same business meeting approved the expenditure of $25 to help with the copying of the publication. A year later, the Business Meeting minutes for 1979 reflect the adoption of a new policy proposed by C.T. Hanson and George Armstrong which allowed for the videotaping and audiotaping of the speeches. The cost levied on a school for attending IOC in 1979 was still $50 if the institution was represented by two speakers or $40 if the school brought a single speaker.

Conclusion

During the 1970s, as in all the other periods of the IOC's life, the speeches written by the students who competed at it reflected key events which were shaping their worlds, and thus their daily lives. It is also a decade in which significant evolution is apparent, and the examination of it allows us to glimpse some of the historical roots which feed various competitive practices today. A significant link in the chain of IOC's history, the 1970s deserve continuing study.

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Table 1
Interstate Oratorical Contest Results: 1970 – 1979

Year	Division	Student	School	Title	Topic
1970	Women's	Diane Klemme	Wayne State U. (Michigan)	"The Age of Gerontion"	Aging
1970	Men's	Art Campbell	William Jewell College (Missouri)	"Is it Really Good News?"	Leisure time
1971	Women's	Pat Warren	U. of Akron (Ohio)	"Bring Forth the Children"	Inner city schools
1971	Men's	Jay Sullivan	U. of Northern Colorado (Colorado)	"The Ecological Rape of the Human Guinea Pig"	Pesticides
1972	Women's	Candy Winston	Defiance College (Ohio)	(untitled)	The failure of urban education to educate Negro children
1972	Men's	John Danner	Loras College (Iowa)	"Pandora's Second Chance"	Legalization of marijuana
1973	Women's	Judy Ann Sturgis	Eastern Michigan U. (Michigan)	(untitled)	Heroin babies
1973	Men's	Tony Vehar	Eastern Michigan U. (Michigan)	"No Head"	Handicap accessibility
1974	Open*	Ron Ford	Gustavus Adolphus College (Minnesota)	"Out of Touch"	Lack of connection with our past, present, and future
1975	Open	Roger Woodruff	Illinois State U. (Illinois)	(untitled)	(not known)
1976	Open	John Rindo	University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire	"Life, Librium, and the Pursuit of Happiness"	Tranquilizers
1977	Open	Tim Gambe	Illinois Central College (Illinois)	(untitled)	Decline in reading and writing skills in schools
1978	Open	Ruth Brenner	University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire	"The Juvenile Justice Game"	Juvenile justice
1979	Open	Don Parker	Mankato State University (Minnesota)	"The Paper Pushers"	Document fraud

**The two divisions were reunified as of 1974.*

Table 2
Interstate Oratorical Contest Locations: 1970 – 1979

Year	Site / School	Region
1970	West Yellowstone	West
1971	Omaha, Nebraska	Central
1972	Bowling Green, Kentucky (Western Kentucky U.)	East
1973	Mankato, Minnesota (Mankato State University)	Central
1974	Pueblo, Colorado	West
1975	Peoria, Illinois (Bradley University)*	Central
1976	Gatlinburg, Tennessee	East
1977	Eau Claire, Wisconsin (University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire)	Central
1978	Liberty, Missouri (William Jewell College)	Central
1979	Denver, Colorado	West

* *Notes from the 1974 Business Meeting show that bids for the 1975 contest also came from North Dakota State University, St. Olaf College and the University of Wisconsin – Stout, but Bradley University won the bid to host in 1975.*

1990 – 1999: Examining how the Interstate Oratorical Contest Closed Out the 1900s

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The 1990s signaled not only the end of a century but the end of a millennium. Decades of Cold War finally culminated with the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, and the approach of a new millennium carried hopes of innovation and progress rarely before seen. Beginning the decade under the conservative leadership of Republican George H. W. Bush and ending it under the more liberal guidance of Democrat Bill Clinton, the United States experienced strong economic growth and even a budget surplus. Socially, there was a rise in environmentalism and third-wave feminism; however, the U.S. also unfortunately bore witness to what *New York Times* columnist Frank Rich called the "homophobic epidemic of 1998" (Rich, 1999) as the nation continued to struggle with the AIDS crisis. Furthermore, in a decade that began with the Gulf War, the 1993 World Trade Center bombing and 1995 Oklahoma City bombing emphasized the growing threat of terrorism both foreign and domestic.

The 1990s gave birth to massive scientific and technological innovations that would irrevocably alter the foundations of education, industry, and communication well before the year 2000 arrived. Certainly, one of the most significant moments came on August 6, 1991, when the World Wide Web went live; and by 1997, 35% of all individuals in the US reported owning a personal computer (U.S. Department of Labor, 1999). The 1990s was a decade in which our world expanded beyond our wildest imaginations, offering technological advancements that would impact every aspect of our lives.

Amidst this background of discovery and controversy, the communication discipline continued its constant evolution. Many organizations changed their names to reflect a shifting focus—most notably, the Speech Communication Association became the National Communication Association in 1997 (Goulden, 2002). The advent of the Internet engendered the study of online communication and allowed scholars much expanded access to research and resources (Gunn & Dance, 2014).

Beyond name changes and the introduction of a powerful online toolbox, the study and practice of public speaking did not experience any truly paradigm-altering shifts in this decade. As Goulden (2002) notes in her study of the discipline's evolution across the 1990s, "we will not get up some morning next year and discover that public speaking as we have known it has disappeared forever. Hopefully, though, the discussion will continue" (p. 33). Changes in the study and practice of public address are gradual. The 1990s did not revolutionize the practice taught in the 1980s and render it unrecognizable in the new millennium. Rather, the major theoretical and pedagogical discussion of the 1990s continues today— the tension between rigid and time-tested approaches to public speaking and innovative approaches emphasizing more flexible standards and the increased integration of technology (Goulden, 2002).

This paper examines the top six speeches presented each year during the 1990s at the Interstate Oratorical Contest. Our purpose is to explore how these speeches reflected the political, social, economic and cultural climate of the time as well as the changes our discipline was experiencing in the final decade of the millennium.

Methods

The genesis for this article was a presentation at the 2017 NCA Convention. The method used there was highly qualitative and unstructured, based on a comprehensive reading of all of the Interstate Oratorical speeches from the decade which could be accessed. No formal content analysis was conducted, though the first author chose to organize the presentation using the five canons of rhetoric. The research was observational in nature and included additional personal commentary.

For this article, two additional authors supplemented the original presentation, using a quantitative approach employing structured content analysis. However, in contrast to the original presentation, this analysis examined only the top six speeches presented each year. The findings produced by both of these methods were then combined. By triangulating initial qualitative observations with quantitative content analysis, we could layer the observations of an experienced forensics specialist with numerical frequencies calculated by two coders.

The goal of combining these two styles of methodology was to counterbalance the limitations of each type of research and thus create a more well-rounded investigation. To do this, both approaches applied three of the five canons of rhetoric in distinct ways. Ultimately, some parts of the two approaches intersected while others focused on unique aspects revealed through the separate methodologies. For example, the qualitative reading tended to focus more particularly on topic selection, source types, and literary devices, while the quantitative approach focused on those sections of the speeches which addressed solutions and levels of implementation.

In order to examine trends in the winning speeches of the 1990s, our quantitative analysis coded speeches that placed among the top six Finalists each year, using three categories derived from Cicero's canons of rhetoric. Because the 1994 speeches and the third-place speech from 1992 were not available, a total of 53 speeches were coded. There was an 84% level of intercoder reliability, meaning both coders had similar definitions for coding. Thus, analysis focused on three canonical categories:

I. Invention
   A. Topic Choice, coding for the presence of seven major topic areas. If more than one topic area was present within the speech, the speech was coded based on the area that was most in focus.
      1. Health
      2. Personal finance
      3. Government (local to national level)
      4. International
      5. Legal
      6. Personal safety
      7. Other
   B. Level of Solution Implementation, coding the speech's solution section for the presence of seven types of implementation:
      1. Solely individual action or behavior
      2. Solely organizational action or behavior
      3. Solely governmental action or behavior

        4. Governmental and individual action or behavior
        5. Organizational and individual action or behavior
        6. Organizational and governmental action or behavior
        7. Other

II. Organization
    A. Organizational pattern, coding for the presence of five patterns:
        1. Problem-cause-solution
        2. Cause-effect-solution
        3. Categorical
        4. Chronological
        5. other
    B. Number of Main Points

III. Style, coding each speech's attention-getting device (AGD) for the employment of four possible strategies:
    A. Hypothetical situation
    B. Narrative
    C. Rhetorical question
    D. Statistic

Results

Invention

Topic choice.

Qualitative observations. In the initial qualitative review, which included all of the accessible speeches presented at IOC during the 1990s, the speech topics were divided into very broad topic areas: personal safety, the environment, health care, legal issues, social justice, education, international issues, governmental policies, and laws. As the decade progressed, the list of topics expanded, and many of them appeared to overlap.

Throughout the decade, the preponderance of the speeches dealt with some kind of personal safety issue. Some examples of topics included medicine/healthcare (various diseases, healthcare workers, pharmaceuticals, unsafe hospitals and equipment, 9-1-1 emergency calls, germs, and antibiotics), economic/financial concerns (identity theft, money scams, check laundering, financial planning, tax regulation, credit card debt, and retirement planning), food safety (FDA regulations, additives, food handling, vitamins, and additives), infrastructure/environment (roads, asbestos, transportation, pollution, radon, Styrofoam, and clean water), and technology (cell phones, stun guns, electromagnetic fields, cybercrimes, and personal stereos).

Students were encouraged to approach topics in ways that (as much as possible) made the subjects seem at least "fresh"—or ideally, "entirely original." For example, early in the decade, there were multiple speeches dealing with environmental issues, usually making use of an interesting twist. Students sought to discover new angles on or surprising dimensions to their subjects. There were three different speeches in the early 1990s which revisited the topic of recycling and the new problems surrounding recycling. The number of speeches dealing with environmental issues tapered off as the decade went on.

While the 1990s opened against the backdrop of the Gulf War, there were not many speeches pertaining to the military or foreign policy. Likewise, there were few speeches

that dealt with international human rights issues. There sadly appears to be a pervasive ethnocentrism along with a personal egocentrism on display in the speeches of the 1990s.The personal well-being of the immediate audience seemed to take precedence over the broad well-being of the national or international community. Furthermore, “safe” topics that audiences were likely to find easy to agree with arguably took center stage, while truly controversial topics that might offend some judges were pushed to the background.

Additionally, in comparison to the high number of personal safety speeches, there were far fewer speeches regarding inequality and discrimination against women, minorities, and the LGBT community. This is especially perplexing in the light of some key events of the decade: the Clarence Thomas hearings, riots in Los Angeles, Matthew Shephard’s death, and others.

Many of the speeches specific to the experiences of women were often about health: unnecessary hysterectomies, C-sections, gender bias in drug testing, and effective mammography. As the decade progressed, there were more speeches on domestic violence and, in particular, sexual assault on college campuses. However, few of these speeches made it to out-rounds. While there were numerous speeches on the AIDS epidemic, most were not framed in the context of LGBT issues. Speeches on the subjects of race or gay rights were limited to six within the decade. Compared to speeches after 2000, there were relatively few speeches on the mentally ill, the homeless, and prison reform. There were not many speeches over the decade examining human rights, social injustice, or the criminal justice system.

While there was a smattering of speeches on education topics presented throughout the decade, the middle and the end of the decade concentrated specifically on the experiences of college students. Topics included teaching critical thinking, grade inflation, cheating, and credit card promotion on campus.

Every year of the 1990s, there was at least one speech presented on some aspect of HIV-AIDS. Early in the decade, topics included the potential danger of exposure from healthcare workers, as well as the dangers posed to healthcare workers. The years that followed explored the need for vaccines, considered the problems with AZT, and culminated in 1999 when the IOC champion discussed compassion fatigue and the danger of forgetting about the AIDS crisis.

Additionally, in the mid-1990s, there were a number of speeches exploring very narrow and specific topics (cigar smoke, astro-turf lobbying, security bars on windows) which included clear-cut personalized solutions. In 1995, the first speeches dealing with “the information superhighway” and “cyberspace” were introduced. In these speeches, the first main point usually was spent explaining terms like “email,” “IP address,” “internet provider,” “AOL,” and “Prodigy.”

In addition to the question of what topics were chosen for examination, a pattern appeared relative to how topics (once they were selected) were approached. One interesting phenomenon with regard to topics began to appear in this decade. Ideas that were once framed as “strong solutions” were now being analyzed as “problems.” For example, previous decades had speeches that called for “recycling” or “organ donation” as their call to action or solutions .Now those same topics were being framed as “problems.”

Content analysis. Once again, initial observations about the entire corpus of speeches held true in the content analysis of the top six speeches each year, with 47% of the 53 speeches having topics related to health. The next most common topic was a tie

between governmental policy and personal finance, with each individually accounting for 13% of the total. Topics on personal safety accounted for 6%, international issues 4%, and solely legal issues 2%. The remaining 15% of the speeches could not easily be coded into any of the existing categories.

Solution implementation.

Qualitative observations. Upon initial review, nearly 90% of the entire corpus of speeches appeared to end with some kind of call for action or change of attitude. The 1990s also reflected a strong trend toward personalized solutions, solution steps that an audience member could easily implement through everyday lifestyle changes or simple actions. These very simple personal topics, suggesting simple solutions like "hand washing" (Sisk, 1998) or the need to get more sleep, remained pervasive throughout the decade. Meanwhile, the subsequently ubiquitous "give away" (a brochure, a card, a water bottle, etc.) was not evident in any of the speeches.

Content analysis. Concerning the level(s) of solution implementation suggested (particularly in each speech's solutions section), 53% of the "top six" annual speeches which were coded called for combined implementation at both the governmental and individual behavior levels. The next most frequent choice (28% of all speeches) was implementation at the combined governmental, individual, and organizational levels. Thus, these two approaches accounted for a total of 81% of the speeches coded. The remaining percentage is accounted for by three speeches showing combined organizational and individual implementation and two speeches solely advocating individual implementation. No obvious difference appeared between speeches presented earlier vs. later in the decade. This data suggests that the initial observations regarding the prevalence of personal solutions were indeed valid, albeit incomplete. Every speech featured a personal solution, but personal action steps were almost always paired with some form of governmental or organizational solution.

Organization

Organizational pattern and number of main points.

Qualitative observations. Initial qualitative observation of Interstate Oratorical finalists across the decade revealed a high level of consistency regarding organizational patterns. One criticism often heard of the forensics community over the past few decades is that students' speeches sound very formulaic. This complaint certainly bears validity in relation to the speeches of the 1990s, a decade in which the "unwritten rules" seemed to greatly influence the shape speeches took. The typical IOC speech during this decade evidenced a reticence to move away from the "problem-cause-solution" organizational pattern. While some speakers attempted to present an innovative approach within the preview by reframing terms—problems were sometimes labelled "harms" or "disadvantages," while solutions were occasionally labelled "policy changes" or "action steps"—these efforts ultimately still reflected the familiar organizational trope.

While few speeches deviated from this organizational template, some speakers experimented with different structure and organization. One school in particular (Berry College, with speakers coached by Dr. Randy Richardson) was willing to shift some of the traditional organizational patterns and employ a "statement of reasons" or modified "comparative advantages structure," or at the very least not fall into using the labels "problem," "cause," and "solution" (Lindrum, 1996; Alban, 1999). In 1999, one speaker

went so far as to explain that, "in forensics we have been conditioned to a certain formula of persuasion. But you're not going to find solutions at the end of this speech. To me, offering 3 [sic] easy solutions trivializes all those who suffer from AIDS" (Wedlock, 1999). Even so, the speech does indeed advocate for a vaccine, and that is itself a form of solution step.

Content analysis. These initial observations were largely confirmed in our content analysis. Seventy percent of the speeches followed a problem-cause-solution format in which speakers first outlined the problem in detail, then explained why the problem existed, and finally discussed their proposed solution(s) to the problem. The next most frequent speech pattern was the cause-effect-solution format, which was used 25% of the time. The cause-effect-solution style starts with an explanation of why the problem exists, then considers the consequences of the problem, and lastly outlines solutions. Together, these organizational patterns accounted for the choices made in 95% of all speeches. Of the remaining speeches, two utilized a categorical pattern while another fell into the "other" category.

The difference in the frequency of using certain organizational patterns in the first half of the decade vs. the latter half was negligible, with only two more cause-effect-solution approaches being used in the first half than the second. Overall, 98% of all the speeches coded for this research used three main points in their bodies. There was no difference in this pattern between the first and second halves of the decade.

Style

Attention-getting device.

Qualitative observation. Initial observation noted that a clear majority of the speeches began with a real or hypothetical narrative. Used not nearly as often, but still present in many introductions, was the personal "ethos statement." These kinds of statements were sprinkled throughout the speeches of the 1990s, but they became even more prominent at the end of the decade. They included personal references by a Desert Storm Vet, a domestic violence survivor, an adoptee, the mother of a child who was suffering from a specified disease, and a speaker whose brother was discriminated against because of his disability.

Content analysis. As revealed by our content analysis, 70% of the final round speeches used narrative style attention-getting devices. These stories, generally true and related to the topic, led into the speeches' larger discussions. Fifteen percent of the speeches began with a fact or statistic, and 9% began with a related hypothetical situation. Additionally, 6% of the speeches used a rhetorical question as their opening device. Rhetorical questions were more popular in the earlier part of the decade. They were used three times in speeches delivered during the first five years, but not used at all in the latter half of the 1990s.

Source type.

Qualitative observation. Throughout the first five years of the decade, the most consistently used sources appeared to be magazines (*TIME, Newsweek, US News & World Report*), newspapers (*New York Times, Washington Post, Chicago Tribune, Wall Street Journal*), and news broadcasts like *60 Minutes*. What was most striking was that very little original research was personally conducted by the speakers themselves. Few, if any, of the speeches throughout this time period included much in the way of personal interviews.

As the topics became more specific, the use of journals like *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association, The Lancet, The Chronicle of Higher Education, ABA Journal,* and *The New England Journal of Medicine* became more prominent. As the decade progressed, so did the variety of the source material. In the later years of the decade, *TIME* and *Newsweek* continued to be cited along with the major newspapers. However, we began to see the use of more magazines like *Mother Jones*, *UTNE reader*, and *The Atlantic Monthly* – periodicals that were doing more investigative journalism. In 1995, there was an influx of speeches regarding technology, and we were introduced to *PC Weekly, Computer Weekly,* and *Mac WORLD*. It is not until 1999 that we saw the first website citation.

Use of literary devices.

Qualitative observation. Based exclusively on qualitative observations, we found that the IOC speeches of the 1990s generally lacked traditional stylistic devices like repetition, parallel structure, active voice, analogy, metaphor, and alliteration. It appears rhetorical style elements were reduced largely to the "punny" preview.

Discussion

Combining both the qualitative reading and the quantitative content analysis achieved a more comprehensive examination of the 1990s Interstate speeches. Qualitatively, observational notes framed the decade in comparison to both the preceding and subsequent decades, providing the analysis with a more nuanced lens. The observations also provided a more detailed analysis of specific speeches, including observations regarding topic choices and references used in individual speeches. Overall, this approach enhanced the comprehensive analysis by positioning the decade's speeches as a segment in the larger continuum of all Interstate speeches.

Meanwhile, the quantitative content analysis generally provided objective support for the initial observations. The quantitative approach also allowed us to examine the decade solely in terms of the statistical frequencies appearing during just those ten years. Among other findings, our coding revealed that almost all of the categories coded contained one option that appeared with a frequency of over 50%. This would suggest that speech trends, formulas and tropes (such as recurring organizational patterns, the use of narrative attention getting devices and "trendy" topics) dominated the 1990s Interstate speeches just as unwritten rules do today.

Interestingly, the qualitative observations also drew special notice to a few speeches which resonated strongly with the authors because of their seemingly prophetic nature. These speeches seemed to be ahead of their time, and this paper highlights them in order to provide additional insight into the importance of studying the Interstate competition as a cultural artifact. Some of these speeches focused on airport security and the need to invest in stronger screening and security (Anderson, 1990), same-sex marriage (Walton, 1992), the electoral college (Volesky, 1993), the need for sexual assault policies and reporting on campus (Anton, 1994), and sexual harassment of teenage girls (Erickson, 1997).

Conclusion

The 1990s were a decade which signaled the end of an era while heralding the dawn of a new millennium full of change and innovation. The authors are emblematic of that decade; one is steeped in tradition and moving into the twilight of her career, while the others are just beginning the journey, full of energy, excitement and new ideas. We collectively agreed on the following conclusions.

The precious records that *Winning Orations* provides are invaluable resources for research by the forensics community, providing unique opportunities for study. We cannot think of another collection of artifacts that is so comprehensive and specific to a competitive forensics event. While we now have high-quality video and digital recordings of final rounds from some national tournaments, there is something profound and pure about exploring the printed text in the absence of delivery elements— and only the IOC records give us almost a century and a half of competitive speech manuscripts to explore. As textual records of performed speeches, these artifacts enable us to develop a critical approach somewhere between traditional literary criticism and traditional oral criticism. Traditional literary criticism is concerned with words on the page. Oral criticism traditionally considers all five classical canons, including delivery (and thus powerful and diverse nonverbal elements). In this study of IOC manuscripts, we stand in the middle ground. Like literary critics we are looking at words on paper—but unlike literary critics (and like oral critics), we are examining words composed for listeners rather than readers.

However, unlike oral critics, the words we are examining are void of the delivery dimension. This provides an intriguing research opportunity, given that some today believe that forensics competition places too much emphasis on delivery. Having access only to the written texts puts our research focus on the comprehensive evaluation of specific phrases, word choice, literary devices and other structural components in a way that shifting live performances of texts—in their passing and variable nature—render challenging if not virtually impossible. This approach, of course, is limited in what it can reveal about how an audience reacts. As scholars of communication, we also understand that a written speech is not a "complete" product until it is spoken. We cannot see through the text to determine how delivery factors (or audience reception) may have enhanced, supported, contradicted, or contextualized the words on paper. Yet, a focus on the written text composed specifically for oral delivery in the absence of those delivery elements can let us look at issues that our traditional concern for delivery distracts us from, concentrating attention on written elements which were composed with anticipated live audiences in mind.

We have seen the value of studying the history of our activity for forensics coaches and students. As author Michael Crichton notes, "If you don't know history, then you don't know anything. You are a leaf that doesn't know it is part of a tree" (Le Baron, 2012). It seems that too few of us take the time to understand the roots of collegiate forensics – its origins, its artifacts, and its evolution. Understanding the historical relevance and scope of the forensics tradition will be a crucial tool in the fight for its future. In fact, as Reynolds (2016) explains, programs that can boast a deep knowledge and a link to a longer, stable history may be less likely to face budget cuts. As the forensics community struggles to justify funding from administrators, recruit new students, and sustain program growth, a

greater reverence for the activity's rich history among coaches and competitors may be more valuable than ever before.

In order to ensure that we are using the best methodologies and avoiding the mistakes of those who came before us, it is vital for us as teachers and students to look back and reflect, to assess what we are doing now, and to use all of what we discover to move forward. This research provides the authors and the forensics community with new insight into our teaching and coaching pedagogy, leading us to take more time with the entire process of coaching oratory, particularly in relation to the first step of invention. Our work also tells us that we should promote more primary research and encourage students to take more risks, experimenting with different topics and organizational styles.

Since the 1990s, the number of available resources and the amount of information easily accessible to students has grown exponentially. Students need not pour through microfiche or transcribe entire episodes of *60 Minutes* taped on their VCRs. At the same time, while the enormous amount of information at our fingertips is amazing, sorting through it presents huge obstacles that students in the past did not face, and the search for "truth" becomes more elusive.

One of the speeches from this decade ("Traditional Oratory: The Thoroughbred of Persuasive Speaking," Willich, 1992) provided a unique perspective on oratory. Here the speaker advocated for the "revivification of traditional oratory," and explained that oratory or persuasive speaking had been reduced to simply a first affirmative debate argument. The speech is critical of the status of persuasive speaking in forensics competition and serves as a critique of our practices both then and now. Speeches like this are especially important to study, as past critical reflections on the activity serve to ignite exploration and experimentation among current coaches and speakers outside of the current oratory template.

Finally, at its best, our research reinforced a lot of hope. It is difficult to label one decade more "golden" than another. From decade to decade, speeches may look different and sound different as trends come and go. But what is most important and remains constant is the fundamental purpose of teaching students to advocate, to argue, to celebrate the beauty of language, and to present their messages with passion. This is invaluable. As we struggle for ethical standards and search for the truth (or at least "truths"), we need to hold tight to this goal today more than ever.

The study of speechmaking reaches back to a time even before the classic canons that outlined our study. In the same sense that speechmaking never had a formal beginning, it will never have an end so long as there are those that raise their voices in response to the world's perceived injustices. Even while topics, strategies, and research tools continue to evolve, what remains timeless is the need to responsibly and ethically bring problems to the forefront, advocate positions, and bring about positive change through the art of persuasion.

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Appendix

Year	Tournament Site	Host School	Number of Contestants	Number of States Represented
1990	Menomonie, Wisconsin	University of Wisconsin, Stout	39	22
1991	St. Petersburg, Florida	St. Petersburg Community College	44	26
1992	Austin, Texas	University of Texas at Austin	48	26
1993	Boston, Massachusetts		43	25
1994	Anchorage, Alaska	University of Alaska	61	28
1995	Tempe, Arizona	University of Arizona	55	29
1996	Lincoln, Nebraska	University of Nebraska	49	27
1997	Colonial Williamsburg, Virginia		53	27
1998	Springfield, Illinois	Lincoln Land Community College	53	28
1999	Lexington, Kentucky	Georgetown College	50	26

What We Value: Trends in Value Appeals of Interstate Oratory Contest Final Round Speeches

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Value appeals are crucial to persuasion. However, we wonder if forensic educators prioritize certain values. This content analysis examines the value appeals in the introductions of the three highest-placing persuasive speeches (*N* = 56) from the 1996-2016 Interstate Oratory Contests. Our two-decade comparison reveals that the diversity of values to which the finalists appealed decreased in the last decade. Drawing upon the Interstate Oratorical Association's historical context, Rokeach's (1973) value appeals, and Social Judgment Theory, we explain this trend and explore practical implications regarding exclusivity and judge bias, as well as methodological implications for future content analyses of value appeals

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Student representatives from 25 states walked into classrooms at the University of Nebraska-Omaha on April 22, 2016. One day later, 45 of the nation's best persuasive speakers filed into a banquet hall, sat at circular tables over a light lunch, coffee, and desserts, and waited to hear their final fate. Forty-five would soon become 12. Twelve would soon become six. One would earn the right to chisel their name into a long legacy of exceptional public communicators. Welcome to the 142nd Interstate Oratory Contest.

Since 1874, the Interstate Oratorical Association (IOA) has provided talented persuasive speakers a platform to advocate for change and an opportunity to compete for the most prestigious public speaking title in the country: Interstate Oratory Champion. Indeed, IOA's hall of champions includes former *New York Time*s Associate Editor John H. Finley, Bishop Edwin Holt Hughes, author and playwright Otto A. Hauerbach, and former Missouri Congressman Perl D. Decker (Schnoor, 1984). To be selected as the Interstate Oratory Champion is to be associated with diverse professionals held in the highest esteem.

As forensic alumni, assistant coaches, and judges, we witness many a final round in the persuasive speaking event. In casually reflecting upon those outcomes, we have noticed a number of speech topics sailing through to finals, while others screech to a halt at the preliminary round wall. Although certain topics deserve reward due to their significance and impact on society, we wonder if we, as a selective forensic community, applaud speeches which advocate too narrow a range of values and abandon all others.

Rokeach (1973) argues that the values to which individuals appeal in persuasive messages have the power to influence human behavior. However, these values can compete with each other in a contest for social power with just as much rigor as those who appeal to those values compete with each other to persuade audiences. For example, freedom and equality co-exist in a state of tension. Despite both being highly valued in American life, these values are often at odds with each other in contemporary discourse. In other words, value appeals within one speech compete with those in other presentations. These appeals, like the people utilizing them, are in contention with one another to win over the audience.

Indeed, Tocqueville spoke the utmost truth when he noted that "core values are often in conflict" (as noted in Gordon & Miller, 2004).

Nevertheless, this innate contention between values would not account for trends regarding value preferences among forensic educators. We suspect that the number of values present in high-ranking speeches (i.e., those placing first, second, and third in the final round) has decreased at the Interstate Oratorical Contest in recent years. However, no scholarship has examined the value appeals made in Interstate speeches. As such, we seek to identify what value appeals are present in the most successful Interstate Oratory Contest speeches and if—and how—those appeals have shifted over the last 20 years. In addition to identifying the three most strongly advocated values to which speakers appealed in each persuasive speech introduction, we will determine the most *dominant value* within each persuasive speech introduction and provide both practical and methodological implications for future value inquiry and forensic ideology.

Literature Review

To clarify this research endeavor, we delve into four areas of literature to establish our contextual and theoretical grounding. Specifically, we present the logic of examining introductions alone, review the history of the Interstate Oratorical Association (IOA), contemplate foundational research on value appeals, and examine Social Judgment Theory and its relevance to our current inquiry.

The Function of an Introduction

Our decision to limit our inquiry to speech introductions alone is based in exordial functionality. Good introductions capture the audience's attention, establish rapport, present the thesis, and motivate the audience to listen to the speech (Hamilton, 2011). Moreover, the introduction portion of a speech serves as the starting point for the argument. In this section, a speaker previews their argument and prepares the audience to follow the speech's logical progression of claims (Van De Mieroop, De Jong, & Andeweg, 2008). By introducing the topic and thesis of the speech, the introduction inevitably tips the speaker's hand, revealing the strategies they intend to employ. Essentially, through anecdotes and other attention-getting strategies, speakers can "encapsulate the essence of the whole speech" in the introduction (Andeweg, Jong, & Hoeken, 1998, p. 273). At its core, the introduction indicates what is to come, what is intended, and what is meant. As such, we deem the introduction an appropriate laboratory to examine value appeals in persuasive speeches.

Interstate Oratorical Association

More narrowly, we are most interested in examining the persuasive speeches of a specific organization known as the Interstate Oratorical Association (IOA). Schnoor (1984) describes the Interstate Oratorical Association (IOA) as "an organization of state collegiate oratorical associations" (p. 3). Essentially, it is a competitive speech organization with the purpose of providing a platform for undergraduate students to participate in oratory, a form of public address in which students memorize and present a prepared manuscript (Schnoor, 1984). The annual contest allows the top persuasive speakers of each state to compete for

the coveted national title, a title held by authors, editors, politicians, and public relations professionals (Schnoor, 1984).

Out of all of the existing forensic organizations, IOA boasts one of the richest histories. Understanding its dynamic past is important for the appreciation of its present role in the speech and debate community. The origination of IOA and the creation of IOA and its *Winning Orations* publication provides a rich foundation for understanding both the contemporary Interstate Oratorical Contest and our logic in focusing our study on its competitors' speech manuscripts.

Origin. If not for Knox College of Galesburg, Illinois, IOA might have never become a pillar of the speech and debate community. In 1873, three students from the Aldophi Society of Knox College sought an intercollegiate opportunity for competition, community, and communication (Schnoor, 1984; Trueblood, 1941). What started as a competition between three Illinois colleges quickly expanded to universities outside of the state (Schnoor, 1984). The overall concept was simple. Colleges would compete within their own states, then the top speaker in each would become the state's representative at a national contest in April (Trueblood, 1941). Originally, only four states—Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, and Wisconsin—participated in the association's contests (Trueblood, 1941). However, by the early 1940s, 11 states engaged in IOA's contests (Trueblood, 1941). By the 1980s, that number spiked to 19 (Schnoor, 1984; see Table 1).

The first national contest took place in the Illinois Opera House and hosted both an orchestra and a banquet for all participants (Schnoor, 1984), setting the tone early for its future status as an exceptionally well-planned social event. Furthermore, this contest was quite likely the first intercollegiate oratory competition in the United States (Schnoor, 1984). By June 9, 1874, the participating universities secured a plan for a permanent organization to ensure the contest would continue every year (Schnoor, 1984). Following the organization's establishment, the location of the Interstate Oratory Contest shifted between Northwestern University, Michigan State University, and Wayne State University (Schnoor, 1984). In the 1970s, IOA set an official rotation system into place to provide western, central, and eastern states balanced opportunities to attend (Schnoor, 1984).

While the basic communication course and speech and debate activity tend to exist as separate entities today, early proponents of IOA also played crucial roles in advocating for public speaking to be offered for credit at the university level (Trueblood, 1941). Rather than existing as an independent activity, early competitive speech held hands with college coursework. Indeed, the development of IOA paralleled the development of speech communication programs in academia. To study IOA's history, then, is to simultaneously study the rise of the communication field itself.

Introduction of *Winning Orations*. Just as reflecting upon the IOA's history is pertinent to understanding the basic course's very development, considering the organization's publication is pertinent to recognizing the IOA's prevalence in the speech and debate community. During the early days of IOA, successful orators received both monetary prizes and the prestige of a national title (Schnoor, 1984). However, a new chapter of reward came to fruition in 1891, when Charles Prather and J. E. Groves published a book entitled *Winning Orations*. The first collection contained the champions' and reserve champions' speech manuscripts from 1874-1890, while the second included scripts from 1891-1907 (Schnoor, 1984). Although an external publisher initially held the rights to the texts, IOA reclaimed ownership in 1934 (Schnoor, 1984). Since IOA's

reacquisition of the publication, each competitor and coach receives a copy of the annual *Winning Orations* publication, which contains the manuscripts of all participants' speeches, regardless of final placements (Schnoor, 1984). Although other forensic organizations, like the National Forensic Association (NFA), have begun filming final round speeches, IOA is the only speech and debate organization to historically preserve manuscripts of its participants' speeches. They are the most accessible resource of forensic manuscripts in the speech and debate community.

The Interstate Oratory Contest today. Overall, the present-day contest holds many similarities to the past competitions. However, there have been some specific modifications. For starters, each state may now send two representatives to the Interstate Oratory Contest. These are typically the top two persuasive speakers from each state tournament. This contemporary trend of sending two representatives per state did not begin until 1973, when IOA reversed its 1936 decision to host separate national tournaments for each biological sex (Schnoor, 1984). But while diversity of gender identity has increased at the Interstate Oratory contest in recent years, the kind of speech one may present has sharply narrowed. Today, only persuasive speeches may be presented at IOA's annual contest. Although the early years did not specify the purpose of the public address, the organization now requires participants to adhere to the intention to persuade. In addition to being the only forensic competition dedicated to persuasive speaking, the Interstate Oratory Contest boasts another unique feature. Unlike other national competitions, the Interstate Oratory Contest speakers are not bound by a time limit. Instead, the speakers must submit a manuscript (currently in an electronic format) of no more than 1800 words upon their registration (Schnoor, 2016). The rate at which they speak, however, is their own rhetorical choice.

As forensic educators, through our observations of the Interstate Oratory Contest and other national forensic competitions, we have often noticed that specific kinds of topics, speech organization patterns, and rhetorical choices tend to earn places in final rounds, while other alternative approaches are brushed to the preliminary rounds' wayside. Specific research attention to this idea has been given to events such as after-dinner speaking (Lawless, 2011). Additionally, "since forensic practices are generally a response to what contestants and coaches believe will win" (VerLinden, 1987, p. 57), those techniques which have won before will continue to be lauded as the preferred form of speaking. We seek to evaluate those concerns and explore related issues.

Value Appeals

In order to satisfy our curiosity and contribute to the conversations about what we as forensic educators value in forensic competition, we turned to the construct of value appeals, a concept found throughout human communication. A *value* is "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). In other words, to hold a specific value is to prefer it over another. However, not all values exist in contention. Individuals may hold multiple values at once, a phenomenon known as a *value system* (Rokeach, 1973). This system "is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Individuals favor specific values, which together comprise their value system. Those preferred values vary based on cultural,

societal, and personal differences (Rokeach, 1973). These value systems "are conceived to maintain and enhance the master-sentiment of self-regard – by helping a person adjust to his society, defend his ego against threat, and test reality" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 15). As such, value systems do not only shape an individual's ideology about the world. They influence attitudes and behaviors as well, suggesting a persuasive outcome (e.g., Ball-Rokeach, Rokeach, & Grube, 1984; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973, 1979; Schwartz & Inbar-Saban, 1988; Tetlock, 1986). As Gordon and Miller (2004) note, "[a]ppealing to core values is an effective form of argumentation. Values become fundamental when framing particular issues" (p. 88). Nevertheless, the rhetorician must take the audience into consideration as well, because value "effectiveness is contingent on the issue context and the predisposition of the audience. Thus, merely constructing an appeal to values does not guarantee persuasiveness" (Gordon & Miller, 2004, p. 88). The rhetorician must appeal to the appropriate values for his or her rhetorical situation. Appealing to values with which the audience will identify is a natural component of the persuasive speech-writing and presenting process. This is why we deem an examination of value appeals appropriate for studying persuasive speaking in forensics. Value appeals shed light on the motivation and persuasive strategies speakers employ.

However, in the Interstate Oratorical Contest, the audience does not identify the winner. A handful of judges determine who will continue on to the semi-final rounds and who will remain behind. At other tournaments, this decision may be made by only two or three judges. Because forensic educators dictate which practices succeed, we wonder if specific values are rewarded more frequently than others in the persuasive speaking event. More specifically, we wonder which values have been most prevalent in the last two decades of forensic persuasive speeches and whether the forensic community has become increasingly limiting about which values it rewards. While past literature has examined ethics (e.g., Frank, 1983; Mendes, 2014), topic selection (e.g., Leiboff, 1991), coaching suggestions (e.g., Olson, 2010), and the genre of forensic orations (Reynolds, 1983), no forensic scholars have examined the values to which students appeal in their persuasive speeches, especially those competitors placing first, second, or third overall. We seek to begin this scholarly conversation by asking the following question.

RQ1: To what values do successful Interstate Oratory Contest speeches appeal?

Social Judgment Theory

One way in which scholars examine persuasive messages and value appeals is through the lens of Social Judgment Theory (SJT). This theory explains both when persuasive messages will likely succeed in shifting attitudes and behaviors and how individuals make judgments and reshape their own opinions (Sherif & Hovland, 1961; Sherif & Sherif, 1968; Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965). Essentially, individuals make choices by comparing suggested arguments to their own positionalities. People gauge the alternative beliefs laced in the argument, then decide whether to accept the messages, reject them, or merely maintain a neutral position on the matter (Sherif et al., 1965). These three possible choices exist on a spectrum and are known as latitudes of acceptance, non-commitment, and rejection (Sherif et al., 1965; Smith et al., 2006). Although message recipients individually possess differently positioned latitudes, when multiple individuals make similar judgments about a message, it may be said that they "reflect the consensus, defined by social norms, prevailing among given people" (Sherif et al., 1965, p. 10). As

such, SJT can reveal group norms by suggesting the existence of consistent attitudes among populations of individual judgments, like those within the speech and debate community.

Contemporary scholarship incorporates SJT to evaluate social norm campaigns (Smith et al., 2006) and help students in the classroom understand why some messages gain acceptance while others fail (e.g., Mallard, 2010; Salazar, 2017). Because the theory explains the difference between message success and failure, SJT offers insight into judge bias in the speech and debate community (Richardson, 2017). However, forensic scholars have not utilized SJT beyond the critiquing of judge bias and thus have yet to use SJT to dissect organization preferences relative to value appeals. We seek to take this theoretical step and join Richardson's (2017) conversation, incorporating SJT to delve into the norms valued in the Interstate Oratory Contest. Ultimately, we anticipate that SJT will elucidate why speeches appealing to certain values tend to be rewarded at this prominent national competition. From an SJT perspective, judges identify values in a speech and either accept them, reject them, or maintain a neutral position toward them. In this study, we seek to discover whether forensic judges tend to accept certain values more than others and thus inadvertently reward only the students who appeal to a limited set of values. As we do not know what specific norms exist, nor how they may have changed in recent years, we pose our second research question.

RQ2: How have values in successful Interstate Oratory Contest speeches changed over the past 20 years?

Methods

To answer our research questions, we employed content analysis to evaluate the values found in the introductions of the first-place, second-place, and third-place speeches of Interstate Oratory Contests held between 1996 and 2016. Content analysis provides a systematic approach for identifying recurring themes or topic frequencies in a series of texts, including the frequency of values (e.g., Gordon & Miller, 2004; Cheng, 1994). Given that content analysis is "a means to [conclusively] render inferences from texts to the contexts of their use" (Krippendorff & Bock, 2009, p. 3), to consider what texts reveal about the context in which they are situated, we believe that content analysis is an appropriate method for contemplating what speech texts reveal about the broader forensic activity. The methodology's past utilization and objective coupled with our intention to identify value appeals present in IOA speech introductions made content analysis a logical method for our line of inquiry. The next section of this paper describes the processes by which we selected our sample, created a codebook, and coded the texts.

Sample

Selecting the forensic organization. This study sought to examine competitively successful Interstate Oratory Contest speeches in order to identify value appeals rewarded in forensic competition. We focused our inquiry on speeches presented at IOA's annual contest due to their accessibility and representativeness. IOA is the only forensic organization with a historical archive of past competition manuscripts. This accessible resource allowed us to evaluate value trends over time within a specific context (i.e., an organization's ongoing expectations, rules, and qualification process). Furthermore, we examined IOA's contest speeches because competitors at this tournament represent other

collegiate forensic leagues. Competitors who also attend tournaments sponsored by the National Forensic Association (NFA), the American Forensic Association (AFA), Pi Kappa Delta (PKD), and the Public Communication Speech and Debate League (PCSDL) frequent the annual IOA tournament. Since IOA's contest draws competitors also influenced by each of the aforementioned national leagues and competitions, it is an appropriate tournament to examine to gain insight into the broader forensic community.

Selecting the speeches. Prior to the initiation of our coding process, we received permission from IOA to create electronic copies of relevant *Winning Orations* speeches.[4] Our sample consisted of the first-place, second-place, and third-place persuasive speeches from two decades (1996-2016) of Interstate Oratory Contests. We selected this time frame to examine the most recent value trends in contemporary forensics. Additionally, we desired to examine texts created by students with comparable accessibility to online information. Personal computers entered households in the 1980s, so we determined 15 years past this introduction had allowed time for such technology to distribute across college campuses. In sum, we determined that comparing pre-computer speech manuscripts to those of 2016 might make some trends appear inordinately dramatic. By limiting our sample to an era of similar research accessibility, we hoped to somewhat account for the external factor of technology.

We further narrowed our sample in two steps. First, we selected the top three speeches as annual representations because we wished to identify the values in the most successful speeches at the Interstate Oratory Contest. Second, we analyzed the introductions alone because they preview the argument frame, contain the topic, and suggest the arguments' most salient values. During our preliminary coding process and extensive literature review, we noticed that speakers used introductions to preview their argument. In clearly introducing the topic and claim(s), the speakers hinted at the value appeals they would incorporate most in their argument. We noticed this trend repeatedly as we finessed the coding process, developed the codebook, and discussed the speeches themselves with the coders. It is certainly possible that other values exist in speeches beyond those found in their introductions, values we did not identify. Nevertheless, based on these observations and past research indicating the previewing function of introductions, we decided that the introductions would likely hold the prevalent value appeals we sought to identify.

Colleagues at a peer institution provided PDF copies of these speeches from the years 1996-2013. We made copies of years 2015 and 2016. Once we obtained the manuscripts, we took screenshots of each speech's introduction and stored all screen shots in a designated file (see **Coding Process** for additional explanation).

We anticipated examining three speeches per year over a two-decade period, accumulating to a sample of 60 speeches in total. However, our sample size decreased due to manuscript inaccessibility. We were unable to access the three manuscripts from the year 2000, the third-place speech from 1999, and the 2014 edition of *Winning Orations.* We included the 1996 manuscripts to partially compensate for the text gap, but our final sample (1996-2016) consisted of 56 speeches rather than 60.

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[4] IOA granted us permission to create electronic copies of *Winning Orations* speeches under the condition that we submit the final manuscript to IOA so that it may be filed in the Interstate Oratory Contest archive of the Minnesota State University Mankato. For more information, see http://lib.mnsu.edu/archives/fa/msu/msu213.html

Development of a Codebook

Upon gathering our sample, we began developing a codebook for our study. This proved to be more challenging than we had anticipated. Contemporary scholarship has examined values from rhetorical and quantitative perspectives (e.g., Billig & Cochrane, 1979; Kristiansen & Zanna, 1994). However, scholars utilizing middle-ground methodologies, like content analysis (e.g., Gordon & Miller, 2004), face particular challenges. Because values are culturally specific and not mutually exhaustive, establishing agreement between coders can be quite difficult. Thus, in addition to contributing to a much-needed theoretical conversation, our study provides a multi-step coding process to help scholars achieve agreement when conducting value-based content analyses.

Step one. Our codebook was a living and ever-changing document, undergoing multiple iterations throughout our preliminary preparation. Initially, we planned to use Rokeach's (1973) complete list of 36 terminal and instrumental values (see Appendix A, Table 2.1) and referred our assistants to his brief definitions for further explanation during coder training. However, it quickly became clear that these brief definitions were simply not providing the clarity we desired to achieve at least moderate intercoder reliability.

Step two. Therefore, we intensively reviewed Rokeach's original values. Keeping in mind the cultural and lexicon shifts that have occurred since 1973, we observed that some values seemed to be redundant, given modern connotative use(s) of the words. Yet, we also noticed that certain 21st-century, American values—like health—were not clearly represented in Rokeach's list. After making this observation, we began modifying Rokeach's values by omitting some of the original values, collapsing overlapping values into one, and adding several additional values based on our expectation of what values might appear in forensic persuasive speeches. Furthermore, some of the original values we retained received updated names for added clarity. For example, we changed "A World at Peace" to "World Peace" and combined "A Comfortable Life" and "Pleasure" into a single value called "Pleasure" (see Appendix A, Table 2.2). The adaptation addressed the outdated vocabulary of Rokeach's list and incorporated the social justice emphases largely absent from the original list, resulting in a more expansive set of values reflective of the contemporary era.

Step three. Upon updating Rokeach's value set, we began placing values into a table of quadrants (e.g., Tuulik, Õunapuu, Kuimet, & Titov, 2016). The quadrants separated the values into the following smaller categories: Social/Other Focused, Personal/Self Focused, Moral, and Competence. We attempted to use these quadrants to provide a more user-friendly codebook for our coders-in-training, to improve the ease of identifying values by narrowing down the possible options. Coders would select 1-3 quadrants that they felt might apply, then selected 1-3 top values from the narrower list. However, as the quadrants still did not effectively lead coders to a consensus, we discarded them as we progressed toward our final coding process.

Step four. In our final step of codebook development, we added our own explanation of each value into the corresponding definition in order to mitigate coder confusion about ambiguous values (i.e., "justice") and about obscure lines between similar codes. In each definition, we added more synonyms and a short paragraph to clarify the nuances of both Rokeach's (1973) original definitions and our newly constructed terms. This expanded codebook granted our coders a deeper understanding of each value and

helped them distinguish the nuances between commonly confused values (i.e., "equality" and "justice"; see Tables 2.1 and 2.2). At the end of this development process, we had narrowed our codebook from Rokeach's 36 original values to 29 condensed and updated values. Based on our experience as forensic competitors, coaches, and scholars, we found this shorter list to (a) be more reflective of the values present in forensic speeches and (b) provide a clearer vocabulary for coding and interpreting values.

The Coding Process

In our coding process, we categorized values under two labels. *Top values* referred to the three values to which each speech introduction most appealed. After we identified top values, we identified the single most salient value in the introduction, which we referred to as the *dominant value*. While top values refer to a set of values found in each introduction, the dominant value is the ultimate appeal in each speech introduction.

Phase one. In this project, two Ph.D. students served as coders in exchange for course credit offered by their instructor in a doctoral-level content analysis course. One coder hailed from the School of Communication Studies and the other came from the E.W. Scripps School of Journalism. Neither coder possessed prior forensic experience. They participated by both critiquing our codebook and coding our sample, the introductions of selected speeches. As previously addressed, we narrowed our sample to introductions alone based on the functionality of this speech section. However, we also made this decision after attempting to analyze the entire text during the developmental stages of this study. During our coder training process, we discovered that due to the subjectivity of value appeals and the sheer number identified in the entirety of the texts, coders struggled to identify the dominant value which tops the forest from among the many trees of possibilities. In an effort to optimize the coding process while maintaining the integrity of our objective, we began investigating the introductions of the speeches. We determined from this closer textual inspection that the introductions tended to contain appeals to the most dominant value of each speech. It became evident through both the preliminary coder training and our extensive review of the speeches that the Interstate Oratorical Contest speakers tended to use their introductions to preview their topics and arguments in a way that revealed prominent values. Once we limited the sample to the introductions alone, providing coders with screenshots of the relevant sections, we noticed our coders identified the dominant value with greater consistency and agreement. None of the full speeches and introductions that our coders analyzed during codebook development placed in the top three of the contest in any given year. We used preliminary round speeches in the developmental phases of our work to avoid contamination of the final sample.

Phase two. Upon completion of the training, we assigned coders files containing larger sets of introductions. Coder One received the introductions of the top three placing speeches from 1996-2006, while Coder Two received introductions from the top three placing speeches from 2007-2016. We asked them to first identify the *top values*—the three most prevalent values in the introduction—by completing an online Qualtrics survey. For instance, in a speech about prison education programs, the first coder selected equality, enlightenment, and capability as the *top values*. After one week of coding, coders identified and recorded up to three *top values* they felt each speaker appealed to most in each introduction of their assigned speeches.

In the second phase of coding, coders identified the most dominant value from the three top values they selected, then traded their assigned sets of introductions (i.e., Coder One now possessed the 2007-2016 introductions, while Coder Two received the set from 1996-2006). In this second step, we asked our coders to select from the first coder's top values the single most dominant value to which the introduction appealed. Note that in some cases the original coder identified only one or two values appearing in any given introduction, rather than three. In other words, when examining the speech introduction on prison education programs, Coder Two could select, in this particular case, either equality, enlightenment, or capability as the dominant value. By carefully evaluating the speaker's language in this second coding (see Table 2.3), the coders determined the speakers dominantly appealed to the value of capability as the speech focused on inmates' lack of opportunity to receive an education behind bars. By the end of this process, our coders had associated each speech introduction with up to three *top values* and identified one of these as the *dominant value*.

Based on our coders' identification of the dominant values (i.e., the second phase of coding), we calculated intercoder reliability using Scott's pi. When a project employs two coders, Scott's pi satisfies the expectations for agreement for content analyses as it takes into consideration coding by chance (Krippendorff, 2004). Although our two coders evaluated speeches individually to identify the top three prevalent values, they both identified the most dominant values in both sets of introductions. We calculated intercoder reliability from the dominant value selection process. From this test, we established moderate reliability (π = 58). Given the difficulty of coding value appeals in content analyses, we deemed moderate reliability satisfactory.

Results

This study's analysis focuses on the introductions of the first-place, second-place, and third-place speeches presented at the Interstate Oratory Contest from 1996-2016. Results reveal that over the 19 years we examined, appeals to 19 values appeared in the introductions of the top three Interstate Oratory Contest speeches (n = 56). Some of the most frequently observed values were equality, justice, and integrity. Ten of the values from the complete value list did not appear in our sample (see Appendix B, Table 3.1).

To identify trends in the value appeals present, we divided the results into two temporal groups: Decade 1 (1996-2006) and Decade 2 (2007-2016). The values appearing with the highest frequency in both decades *combined* were health/safety/protection (n = 22), justice (n = 19), enlightenment (n = 17), and equality (n = 14). However, the values appearing most frequently across the two decades were justice (n^1 = 9; n^2 = 10) and health/safety/protection (n^1 = 9; n^2 = 13). These two values appeared *most* frequently in the introductions across both the first and second decades of speech manuscripts. However, while trends like these spanned both decades, each era contained distinct trends, as well.

Decade 1 (1996 – 2006)

The first decade's speech introductions contained appeals to 19 values total. Most prevalent were enlightenment (n = 13), capability (n = 11), justice (n = 9), health/safety/protection (n = 9), and freedom (n = 8). Although appearing less frequently,

values such as reason, world peace, and courage were also present in the texts (see Appendix B, Table 3.2 and Appendix C, figure 3.1).

Top values. Of the 19 values cited, four values manifested most frequently in the *top values* of the introductions: enlightenment (*n* = 13), capability (*n* = 11), health/safety/protection (*n* = 9), and justice (*n* = 9). Enlightenment appeared through statements like "People who don't happen to study history should also be seeking out interviews and bottom-up history" (Moorehead, 2004) and "The censorship of information in public libraries is on the rise, and revealing itself (or not revealing itself as the case may be) in new forms" (Loden, 2008). Capability arose in declarations like "But what you may not know is that virtually no one has begun studying these stem cells. Why not? Because the University of Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation owns all of them" (Monaghan, 2002). We identified the value of justice in excerpts such as "While frivolous lawsuits have become this decades [sic] thorn in America's side, the right to present a legitimate claim in court is more crucial than ever" (Orr, 1998). Health/safety/protection appeared in statements like "Breast cancer awareness campaigns have completely ignored the most deadly form of breast cancer: Inflammatory Breast Cancer" (Simons, 2008).

Dominant value. Of the 19 values cited in the first decade, nine values were identified as a *dominant value* in one or more speech introductions (see Table 3.3). These include health/safety/protection (*n* = 8), enlightenment (*n* = 7), justice (*n* = 3), capability (*n* = 2), world peace (*n* = 3), equality (*n* = 2), freedom (*n* = 2), integrity (*n* = 1), and national security (*n* = 1). Coders identified enlightenment and health/safety/protection most frequently as the *dominant value* to which introductions appealed (see Appendix C, figure 3.3).

Decade 2 (2007 – 2016)

The second decade's speech introductions highlighted nine values total. Most prevalent were health/safety/protection (*n* = 13), equality (*n* = 11), and justice (*n* = 10). Although coded less frequently, values such as open-mindedness, freedom, environmental protection, and enlightenment also appeared as *top values* (see Appendix B, Table 3.4 and Appendix C, figure 3.4).

Top values. Of the nine values identified in the texts, three appeared most frequently as top values in introductions: health/safety/protection (*n* = 13), equality (*n* = 11), and justice (*n* = 10). Coders identified equality in excerpts such as, "More and more employers are saying that in order to have a job, you must already be employed somewhere else . . .Welcome to the newest Catch-22: jobless discrimination" (Kelley, 2012). Six additional values appeared, but did not reflect the same level of frequency as did the aforementioned values (see Appendix C, figure 3.4). Figure 3.5 illustrates the frequency with which these three values appeared as *top values* in introductions (see Appendix C).

Dominant value. Of the nine values cited in the second decade, five appeared at least twice as the *dominant value* present in the speech introductions (see Appendix B, Table 3.5). Coders identified health/safety/protection (*n* = 9), equality (*n* = 8), justice (*n* = 6), enlightenment (*n* = 2), and environmental protection (*n* = 2) as the *dominant value* in the respective introductions. Equality and health/safety/protection were most often identified as the *dominant value* to which introductions appealed (see Appendix C, Figure 3.6).

Discussion and Implications

The purpose of our study was to clarify what specific values forensic judges tend to reward at the Interstate Oratory Contest and how those values have shifted in recent years. After examining the introductions employed by the top three finalists of two decades of IOA contests (1996-2016), we identified the *top values* to which successful speakers most frequently appealed and the most *dominant value* present in each first-place, second-place, and third-place presentations. Simultaneously, we compared the two decades to identify shifts in rewarded values. Our findings reveal that from the mid-1990s to the early 2000s, top-three finalists at the Interstate Oratory Contest appealed to 19 values. In contrast, the 2007-2016 successful speakers appealed to only nine (see Appendix D, Table 4.1). Furthermore, we determined that from the mid-1990s to the early 2000s, introductions of successful speeches at the Interstate Oratory Contest most commonly contained one of nine *dominant values*, while the 2007-2016 speech introductions predominantly appealed to one of five (see Appendix D, Table 4.2). From these findings, we draw several conclusions.

Some Values are Reoccurring

In both decades, we identified frequent appeals to justice, as well as health/safety/protection. For example, the 2009 champion appealed to justice relative to the topic of banks evading fraud charges through deferred prosecution agreements, while a 1998 finalist appealed to justice with a topic addressing some employees' legal inability to sue their employers for unfair treatment or sexual harassment. Health/safety/protection is the only value identified as a dominant value in both decades, suggesting that the value of health/safety/protection continues to be a significant concern within forensic judges' own value systems. For example, the champion in 1997, while speaking on identity theft and credit card fraud, appealed to the personal privacy and financial protection aspects of health/safety/protection. Fourteen years later, the 2011 runner-up appealed to health/safety/protection, but in an address about struggles suicide survivors face. Multiple topics lend themselves to these popular values, but it is the value itself that transcends time.

The Values We Reward Have Changed

Although some values—like health/safety/protection—continue to appear in the final round of the IOA contest, others have fallen in and out of favor over the last 21 years. While appeals to capability and enlightenment appeared as some of the most popular *top values* in the first decade (1996-2006), enlightenment only appeared as a *dominant value* in two introductions during the second decade (2007-2016), one in 2007 on the topic of privatized Internet and one in 2008 on the topic of public library censorship. Capability did not manifest at all in the second decade. In contrast, other values have risen to recognition. The value of equality, for example, increased in popularity, rising from being a dominant value in 6.9% of the top speeches in the first decade to 29.6% in the second decade's speech introductions. In 2008, 2012, and 2015 respectively, equality appeared in speeches about drug courts, employment inequalities, and anti-homeless laws. Topics were diverse, but the underlying value remained the same, reflecting equality's rising popularity.

The Number of Values Rewarded Has Changed

The diversity of values in Interstate Oratory Contest speech introductions has dwindled since 1996. Between 1996 and 2006, IOA's competitors appealed to 19 values in total, nine of which we found to be the most dominant value in their respective introductions. However, in the second decade only nine top values were identified, and we only found five dominant values.

The potential meaning of these outcomes is three-fold. First, IOA judges appear to cherish some values regardless of the era, suggesting that these values—justice and health/safety/protection—transcend time, and thus may be core commitments of the organization itself. Second, the popularity shift in values may be a reflection of a shift in contemporary issues, a decreased interest in certain values, or both. A glance at one Pew Research Center report on patterns in the years between the late 1980's and 2007 reveals such value trends. By 2007, Americans exhibited more support of government social programs (i.e., support for citizens) and less interest in social conservatism (i.e., traditional marriage and family values) and religious intensity (Pew Research Center, 2007). Furthermore, in the 2017 American Values Survey, most Americans reported a desire for universal healthcare, support for deferred action for childhood arrivals (DACA), and a belief that current stories of workplace sexual harassment indicate a broader trend (PRRI, 2017; Vandermaas-Peeler et al., 2017). Based on these findings, it could be stated that equality, for example, has become more popular an appeal in recent years due to current national conversations about the rights of women, immigrants, the LGBTQ+ community, and individuals unable to afford private health insurance. Finally, the decreased number of values to which the top three finalists of the Interstate Oratory Contest appeal could indicate that we, as forensic educators, limit our students to subjects that are more likely to win. Perhaps we are, in essence, "teaching to the test" in order to ensure our students have the best chance of success at this prestigious tournament. These results lead us to several implications on both practical forensic and methodological levels.

Forensic Implications

First and foremost, our findings spur us to consider how our own latitudes of acceptance and rejection (e.g., Sherif & Hovland, 1961; Sherif & Sherif, 1968; Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965) impact our students' abilities to create and succeed. As judges, we are not without biases. Forensic scholars have examined how *relationships* with students impact their ranking during competitions (Littlefield, 1987; Richardson, 1994), but no scholarship has examined how *value-biases* of judges influence rankings. As the number of values rewarded in final rounds has dwindled within the last decade, we are left questioning whether this indicates that we, as coaches, equip our students with the values we anticipate will win. Consequently, we wonder if we, as judges, hold such uniform ideologies that alternative perspectives are unable to succeed, or if we, as judges and coaches, adhere to what we perceive to be the organizational norms (Paine, 2005).

One might argue that our judge-bias argument is invalid, as the final round of the Interstate Oratory Contest is judged by distinguished laypersons of the host's community. Nevertheless, forensic coaches serve as preliminary round judges and are responsible for selecting who competes in the semi-final and final rounds. Even though the final round placements are not determined by current members of the forensic community, forensic coaches determine who deserves a spot in the final round (Reid, 2015). Because of this,

and because most national tournaments are predominantly judged by forensic educators within the forensic community, we wonder if the activity—not just the IOA—could be suffering from insular ideology.

We believe it is possible that competitive mimicry is contributing to this narrowing set of values in top-placing Interstate Oratory Contest speeches. The last decade of IOA contests has rewarded a very narrow set of values in comparison to those applauded in the late 1990s and early 2000s. This could be due, in part, to students and coaches mimicking successful appeals of the past to hopefully benefit them competitively in the present (Hatfield-Edstrom, 2011; Paine, 2005; Reid, 2015; Ribarsky, 2005). For example, if a speech makes strong appeals to equality and wins, future competitors may also begin appealing to equality in their speeches in the hope of reaping the benefits of success. It is no secret that students and coaches analyze successful speeches and use them as inspiration for their own material. It is part of the educational process. However, this mimicry can result in students appealing only to the values which tend to win (Olson, 2010; Reid, 2015; Ribarsky, 2005). After all, only six speakers make the final round each year and each can only appeal to just so many values in their presentations. Indeed, it is quite possible that desire for competitive success has steered students away from exercising creativity in appealing to less common values. The established power of previously successful appeals, then, may be stifling the persuasive expression of issues that do not align with the popular trends (Gaer, 2002).

Methodological Implications

Rokeach's (1973) values. In addition to highlighting some intriguing implications regarding forensic value systems, this study suggests methodological implications for researchers seeking to evaluate value appeals through content analysis. First, while valid, beneficial, and full of potential for communication research, Rokeach's (1973) values seem slightly outdated. Because of the year in which Rokeach constructed his values, the value definitions fail to reference certain contemporary concepts (e.g., social media). Furthermore, the original set of values does not mention either justice or health/safety/protection. An updated set of values is critically needed not just for the sake of forensic scholarship, but to reflect America's changing political and social climate. Scholars who have previously expressed concerns about Rokeach's value survey (i.e., Braithewaite, 1985) share our sentiment, reiterating the need to reconstruct the list of values. Within the past decade, others have adapted Rokeach's values in their own scholarship (e.g., Fujioka & Neuendorf, 2014; Yang & Arant, 2016), combining them with other value inventories and adding new values, as we did in this study. Rokeach's (1973) list offers a broad perspective on values (Braithewaite, 1985), but it is not always applicable to contemporary contexts in which more specificity is needed for a nuanced analysis to proceed. As such, we suggest that scholars begin to contemplate a formal update of Rokeach's (1973) values to create a set that holds greater relevance for current inquiry.

Achieving reliability. However, the relative datedness of Rokeach's (1973) value appeals was not the only challenge we faced. One unexpected hurdle we encountered was the difficulty of achieving intercoder reliability. Values are extremely subjective. Thus, it is difficult to generate definitions that possess adequate objectivity and provide clear direction so multiple individuals with differing perspectives will all interpret the value appeals identically. One reason for our struggle pertained to the cultural diversity of our

coders. Both held different cultural and ethnic backgrounds, which we suspect contributed to a discrepancy in the decisions they made during the selection of *top* and *dominant values*. Coders invariably intertwine their own personal perspectives into their coding, even as they strive for objectivity. For example, coders who are passionate about equality may see appeals to equality more often in the messages they encounter. Therefore, it is possible that coders' own value systems may influence which values they perceive as present within texts.

To mitigate this influence and increase validity, we pose two suggestions. First, because subjectivity so easily influences the process, it may be beneficial to avoid selecting a single dominant value and, instead, include multiple values present in the text. We identified top values to, in part, respect the complexity of value appeals in arguments, for few arguments appeal to a single value alone. However, we also identified top values to better identify the dominant value in Interstate Oratorical Contest introductions. Although we sought to see if there was a prominent value within each speech, we retrospectively wonder if simply identifying the top three values would be just as meaningful.

Second, if researchers do desire to identify the single most dominant value in a text, we suggest that researchers incorporate a two-step coding process to best identify values within a text. In this process, the researcher would first ask coders to identify several values that they see in the assigned text. A second coder would then identify the dominant value from that narrower list of two or three values provided by the first coder. The roles of identifying the top values and dominant value would rotate back and forth between coders to ensure both individuals participated in both capacities. Furthermore, a third coder could be added to provide another layer of dominant value selection. Two coders could identify the top values in the same set of texts, and a third could identify the dominant value from that list. In essence, a multi-step layering process would help ensure several coders participate in evaluating each text, thus reducing the influence of each coder's value system on their evaluation.

Future Actions

Future Research

Looking forward, we see three areas in which future research would be valuable. As a start, examining the full manuscripts of the award-winning speeches would provide a more robust list of values that would include even minor appeals. This could demonstrate which values are used in subordinate points of argument to support the dominant value of the speech. Second, this study could be replicated to examine IOA's contest speeches over a longer period of time. Examining, for instance, the values to which competitors appealed since the first edition of *Winning Orations* could illuminate trends unidentified within the scope of our present study. Identifying how values have shifted in forensic competition would further strengthen historical knowledge of the IOA. In addition to expanding the timeline of this study, scholars might consider conducting a comparative analysis of the values found in the final rounds of the Interstate Oratory Contest and values appearing in major news media outlets within the same year. A side-by-side content analysis of news stories and IOA speeches could identify current issues that are not acknowledged in forensic speeches. However, this kind of study could also support the argument that forensic competitors are actively engaged in social issues of the era. Were findings to

reflect the expected high level of attentiveness forensic students devote to the news, this potential study could promote forensics' relevancy as a creator of engaged citizens and a cornerstone of the higher education experience.

Future of Forensics

These future directions for forensic research contribute to discussions about current forensic practices as well. This study supports our suspicion that forensic competition prioritizes certain values over others. Far fewer types of value appeals appear in the recent final rounds of the Interstate Oratory Contest than did in the mid-1990s and early 2000s. This trend creates a potential for an exclusive competitive environment, an atmosphere which disadvantages speakers who appeal to less popular values. As forensic educators and tournament administrators, we must recognize that there are more than nine values that are vital to American society. Previous research in forensics argues that when speakers rely on "cookie cutter" (Bingham & Goodner, 2012, p. 49) structures and organizational norms to dictate their rhetorical choices, the meaning, importance, and potential of the event is lost (Billings, 2011). By encouraging our students to create persuasive speaking "formulas," we, as coaches, participate in creating the nuanced expectations we so often criticize (Lawless, 2011). Just like organizational expectations, the narrow latitude of acceptance for value appeals and related topics has the potential to simply reinforce those unstated rules. As judges, we must reject the expectation that speeches appealing to values that are popular in the community are inherently better than other speeches. We must reward speeches for their quality in reasoning and argumentation, not just for the values to which they appeal. Finally, we, as coaches, must give our students the opportunity to take competitive risks, to write high-quality speeches that appeal to values outside of the normative expectations. We must step outside of our comfort zone and explore the potential of topics that appeal to different values. Ethical, well-written, well-argued, and well-delivered speeches deserve a chance at competitive success, regardless of the values to which they appeal.

Additionally, given that forensics presents itself as an activity that embraces diversity, speech organizations, like IOA, might consider recruiting final round judges with a non-forensic public-address background to judge elimination rounds. Professionals in local politics, public relations, and journalism, for example, would introduce a new perspective — and new sets of values — into the contest. Perhaps over time the inclusion of true lay judges would introduce new value systems, reward different values, and thus encourage students and coaches to appeal to more than the values they think will win.

Limitations

The limitations of this study predominantly arise from our sample selection and coding process. The analysis of the introduction alone inherently excludes some value appeals. If the entire manuscripts had been used in the coding process, values that were not present in the introductions may have surfaced later in the speeches. Second, although we wished to examine the three most successful speeches of each year over the past two decades, a larger sample size would have provided a more complete picture of the values present in Interstate Oratory Contest speeches. For example, doubling the sample size to include all six finalists' speeches might reveal additional values and thus provide richer

data and even stronger generalizability. Additionally, we were unable to access either the third-place speech from 1996 or any of the speeches from 2000 and 2014. The values within these seven missing speeches could have slightly impacted our results, especially the frequencies of values. Finally, the way in which we distributed the introductions to our coders could have influenced the values reported in each decade. During the first stage of coding, one coder examined introductions from the first decade, while the second coder evaluated introductions from the second decade. Because each individual largely dictated their decade's top values by identifying a tightly narrowed list from which the other coder could only select a dominant value, it is possible that the coders' value systems influenced their selections, despite completing intense training. Future scholars might avoid this potential problem by asking coders to examine texts drawn from alternating years. Coder One, for instance, would evaluate even years while Coder Two would evaluate odd years in order to ensure both coders contribute to the identification of top values in each decade.

Conclusion

This study sought to identify the values to which students appeal in the final round of the Interstate Oratory Contest and how value appeals have shifted over time. Our results are unsurprising, yet troubling. We appear to reward—or encourage our students to incorporate—fewer values in the Interstate Oratory Contest today than we did 15-24 years ago. While health/safety/protection, justice, equality, and world peace are valuable causes to address, our dedication to these values may be preventing us from examining other important values, such as the arts, cultural tradition, and open-mindedness. The forensic community promotes itself as a cornucopia of inclusivity and diversity and it certainly has created a vital space for students to be their authentic selves in deeply transformative ways. Yet, to fully embody such a community identity, the activity must continuously reflect upon how a reliance on fewer dominant value appeals might discourage different voices and perspectives from entering the conversation. It is time that we critically evaluate any "microcosm" (Reid, 2015, p. 26) tendencies and instead explore the horizon of pedagogical opportunities.

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Table 1
State Participation in the Interstate Oratorical Association

1873	**1941**
Illinois	Illinois
Indiana	Indiana
Iowa	Iowa
Wisconsin	Kentucky
	Michigan
	Minnesota
	Missouri
	Nebraska
	North Dakota
	Ohio
	South Dakota

Appendix A

Table 2.1
Rokeach's (1973) Instrumental and Terminal Values

Instrumental Values	Terminal Values
Cheerfulness	True Friendship
Ambition	Mature Love
Love	Self-Respect
Cleanliness	Happiness
Self-Control	Inner Harmony
Capability	Equality
Courage	Freedom
Politeness	Pleasure
Honesty	Social Recognition
Imagination	Wisdom
Independence	Salvation
Intellect	Family Security
Broad-Mindedness	National Security
Logic	A Sense of Accomplishment
Obedience	A World of Beauty
Helpfulness	A World at Peace
Responsibility	A Comfortable Life
Forgiveness	An Exciting Life

Table 2.2
Condensed Value Set

Adventure	Forgiveness	Pleasure
Ambition	Freedom	Positive Attitude
The Arts	Health/Safety/Protection	Reason
Capability	Inner Peace	Religious Beliefs
Civility	Integrity	Self-Discipline
Courage	Justice	Selflessness
Cultural Tradition	Love	Self-Respect
Enlightenment	National Security	Social Recognition
Environmental Protection	Open-mindedness	True Friendship
Equality		World Peace

Appendix B

Table 3.1
Values Present and Absent in Interstate Oratory Contest Speech Introductions

Present	Absent
Ambition	Adventure
Capability	The Arts
Civility	Cultural Tradition
Courage	Inner Peace
Enlightenment	Pleasure
Environmental Protection	Positive Attitude
Equality	Religious Beliefs
Forgiveness	Self-Respect
Freedom	Social Recognition
Health/Safety/Protection	True Friendship
Integrity	
Justice	
Love	
National Security	
Open-mindedness	
Reason	
Self-Discipline	
Selflessness	
World Peace	

Table 3.2
Frequency of Values Present (1996 – 2006)

Values Present	Frequency (%)*
Ambition	1.4
Capability	15.5
Civility	2.8
Courage	5.6
Enlightenment	18.3
Environmental Protection	1.4
Equality	4.2
Forgiveness	1.4
Freedom	11.3
Health/Safety/Protection	12.7
Integrity	4.2
Justice	12.7
Love	1.4
National Security	2.8
Open-mindedness	5.6
Reason	5.6
Self-Discipline	2.8
Selflessness	1.4
World Peace	5.6

**Frequency percentages were calculated by n/(71), in which n = the sum of the frequencies of each coded value.*

Table 3.3
Frequency of Dominant Values (1996 – 2006)

Values Present	Frequency (%)
Capability	6.9
Enlightenment	24.1
Equality	6.9
Freedom	6.9
Health/Safety/Protection	27.6
Integrity	3.4
Justice	10.3
National Security	3.4
World Peace	10.3

**Frequency percentages were calculated by n/(29), in which n = the sum of the frequencies of each coded value.*

Table 3.4
Frequency of Values Present (2007 – 2016)

Values Present	Frequency (%)
Civility	2.1
Courage	2.1
Enlightenment	8.5
Environmental Protection	6.4
Equality	23.4
Freedom	6.4
Health/Safety/Protection	28.0
Justice	21.3
Open-mindedness	2.1

**Frequency percentages were calculated by n/(47), in which n = the sum of the frequencies of each coded value.*

Table 3.5
Frequency of Dominant Values (2007 – 2016)

Values Present	Frequency (%)
Enlightenment	7.4
Environmental Protection	7.4
Equality	29.6
Health/Safety/Protection	33.3
Justice	22.2

**Frequency percentages were calculated by n/(27), in which n = the sum of the frequencies of each coded value.*

Appendix C

Figure 3.1
Values Present 1996 – 2006

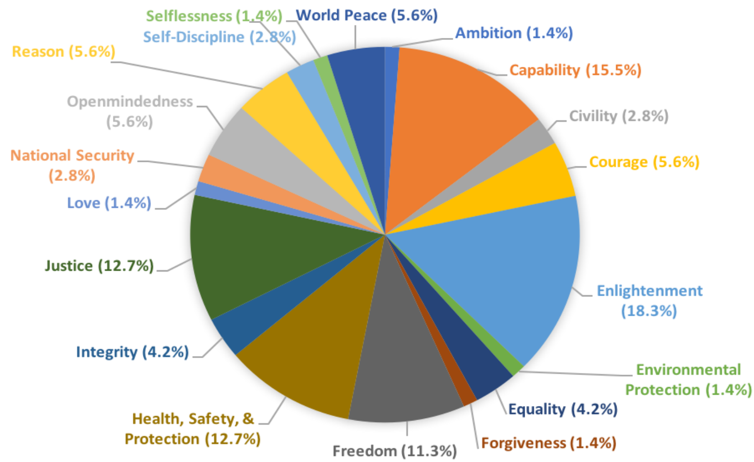


Figure 3.2
Most Frequently Identified Top Values 1996 – 2006

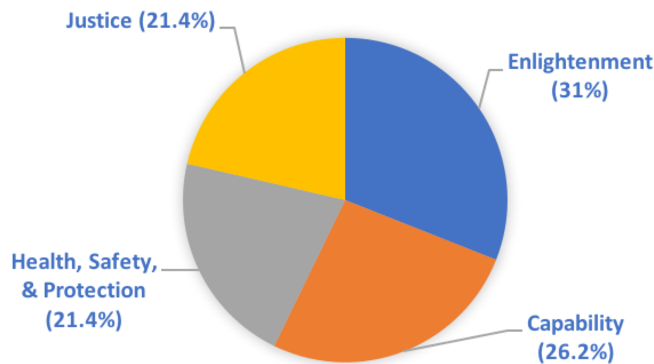


Figure 3.3
Dominant Values 1996 – 2006

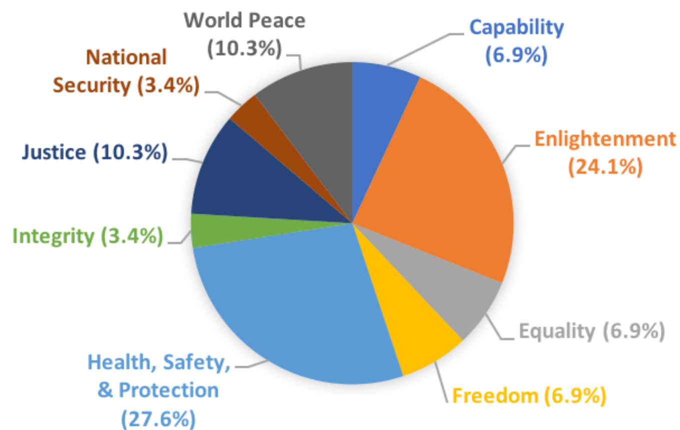


Figure 3.4
Values Present 2007 – 2016

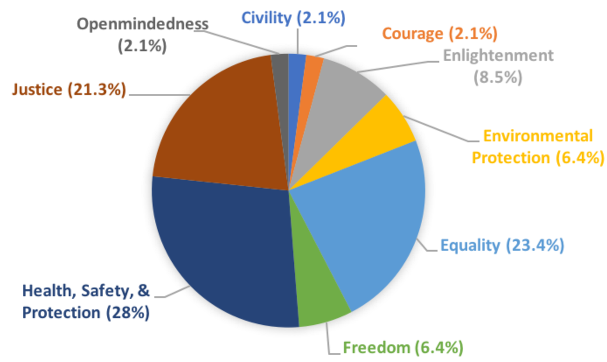


Figure 3.5
Most Frequently Identified Top Values 2007 – 2016

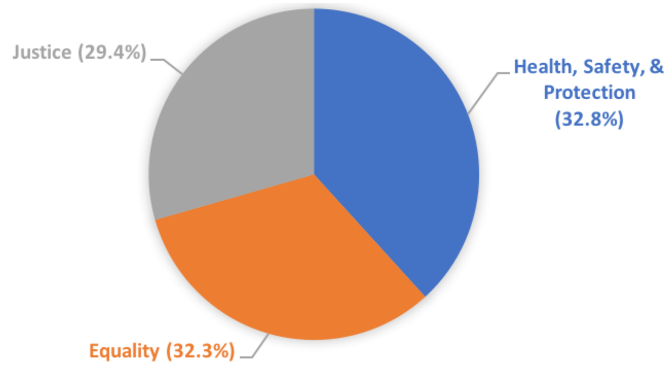
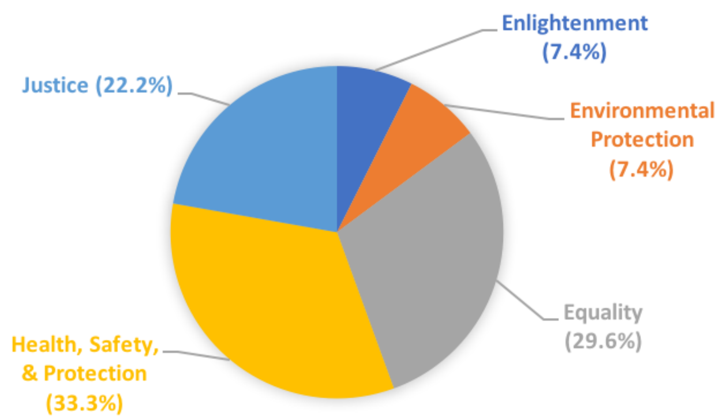


Figure 3.6
Dominant Values 2007 – 2016



Appendix D

Table 4.1
Values Present in Interstate Oratory Contest Introductions (1996 – 2016)

Decade 1 (1996-2006)	Decade 2 (2007-2016)
Ambition	Civility
Capability	Courage
Civility	Enlightenment
Courage	Environmental
Enlightenment	Protection
Environmental	Equality
Protection	Freedom
Equality	Health/Safety/Protection
Forgiveness	Justice
Freedom	Open-mindedness
Health/Safety/Protection	
Integrity	
Justice	
Love	
National Security	
Open-mindedness	
Reason	
Self-Discipline	
Selflessness	
World Peace	

Table 4.2
Dominant Values Present in Interstate Oratory Contest Introductions (1996 – 2016)

Decade 1 (1996 – 2006)	Decade 2 (2007 – 2016)
Capability	Enlightenment
Enlightenment	Environmental
Equality	Protection
Freedom	Equality
Health/Safety/Protection	Health/Safety/Protection
Integrity	Justice
Justice	
National Security	
World Peace	