THE PERSUASIVE SPEAKING CONTEST: AN ANALYSIS OF TWENTY YEARS OF CHANGE

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Although collegiate persuasive speaking competition has existed in this country for more than a century, surprisingly little research has been conducted regarding it (Schnoor, 1984). Most of what has been written regarding oratory or persuasive speaking has been from a "how to" perspective. William Schrier (1971) has published an entire text dedicated to the writing and coaching of contest oratory, but only a limited amount of data-based research has been conducted regarding persuasive speaking contests. In 1967, Purnell and Wilkes examined contest orations from the early 1960s, but their analysis was concerned only with the issue of ethos. Robert L. Frank (1983) studied the speeches of the finalists in persuasive speaking at the 1981 National Forensic Association's Individual Events national contest. Frank's research has proven insightful and influential, but it is limited to a consideration of a single compositional element, evidence, and to a single round of competition. Thus, there are no long-term, data-based studies of the broad compositional aspects of successful college orations.

Research regarding the nature of successful contest oratory is especially appropriate today. Over the past two decades, individual events has grown in popularity at a tremendous pace. Both the National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals and the American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament were founded during the 1970s. During this same period, competition in persuasive speaking at the Delta Sigma Rho - Tau Kappa Alpha and Pi Kappa Delta nationals and at the Interstate Oratory Contest has remained strong.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine major compositional aspects of successful persuasive speeches in order to better understand the nature of the event and to identify shifts in judging and teaching standards over time. Specifically, a series of contest speeches from the 1960s and the 1980s are categorically compared and contrasted. Four areas of concern are addressed: (1) unique

personal involvement, (2) logical versus evocative appeals, (3) documentation, and (4) proposed solutions. These categories were selected based on a general overview of easily identifiable features of contest orations. By comparing dominant practices over the two decades, differences in standards are established.

Procedure

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 24 speeches published in *Winning Orations* by the Interstate Oratorical Association. The two winning speeches from the six years before 1970 and the first and second place speeches for the six years after 1979 were analyzed. From 1936 to 1973, a division for both women and men existed in the Interstate Oratory Contest. The winning speeches from both divisions for the 1964-1969 period were included in the study. From 1980 to 1985, the first and second place speeches from each contest were studied in an effort to ensure symmetry between the two periods. Speeches from the 1964-69 time period represented the era just before the rapid growth in individual events contests; the speeches from 1980-85 were written after the increased popularity of individual events competition was well established.

The speeches published by the Interstate Oratorical Association were selected for reasons of representativeness and availability. Students competing in the Interstate Oratory tournament are, as Larry Schnoor (1984) states, " . . . the winners of their respective state contests; thus, in a sense, each state winner represents all of the member colleges of his state" (p. 1). Moreover, *Winning Orations* contains complete copies of the national winners from 1884 to the present. Because the Interstate Oratory Contest consists of the best orators from a variety of states, and because these speeches are published each year in their entirety, this contest serves as the best available representation of winning trends in college oratory.

Coding

The concepts to be examined were defined and examples were identified. Each of the authors then analyzed the speech texts and categorized the content according to the definitions. Differences in judgments were discussed and a single consensus judgment arrived at. Examples of how the coding system was applied are presented in the following paragraphs.

Evaluation of Unique Personal Involvement. Unique personal involvement was defined as a speaker revealing a unique personal identification with the content of the speech. For example, in a speech about the shortcomings of detention centers, speaker #7, J. Beydler (1967) states, "I have a fifteen-year-old sister whom I have not seen in five months. She is living in a certain home with eleven other girls, all are under psychiatric care. I'd like to talk to you about my sister" (p. 1). Speaker #23, T. Giles (1985) shows direct involvement with his speech's problem by stating:

> Here's a trivia question for you. What do Julius Caesar, Shakespeare's McDuff, and I, Trevor Giles, have in common? Not much, right? But we all started our lives in the same way. We were all brought into this world by cesarean section (p. 92).

Speakers stating that the problem could *possibly* affect them or their audience were not considered to have direct personal involvement with their speeches' problems.

Evocative Versus Logical Supporting Materials. Supporting materials are used to elaborate, explain, or support ideas within a speech. Evocative appeals are defined as the use of dramatic quotations, narratives or stories, slogans, refrains, vivid passages of description, or any other strategy designed to illicit an emotional reaction from the audience. Logical appeals are defined as the use of authoritative testimony, factual data, and statistical measurement used to build a logical argument to support one's claims. All supporting materials were judged to be either evocative or logical. Coders made a forced choice between the two categories.

In her speech, speaker #3, V. Welch (1965), uses the following example to support her argument:

> Or, as Pearl Buck, mother of a retarded child herself and author of the book, *The Child Who Never Grew Up,* once said, "The test of any civilization is the measure of consideration and care which it gives its weakest members." And these weakest members, so often thought of as heartaches, can bring, believe me, real joy (p. 23).

Such an example was coded as an evocative appeal. In contrast, speaker #2, J. Ngwa (1964), used the following logical appeal in his speech:

> The Union's defense spending rose from $61 million in 1960 to $168 million dollars in 1962. A more recent report for 1963 indicates a fantastic further rise to $294 million dollars; the highest peace-time rise in history (p. 69).

Each use of supporting material in all 24 speeches was judged and categorized in this fashion.

Documentation. Documentation is the process of authenticating supporting material by specific identification of the reference source. Only the logical supporting materials were evaluated for the completeness of their documentation. Three elements of documentation were considered: (1) author's name, (2) publication, and (3) date. The logical supporting material in any speech could possess references to some, all, or none of these elements.

For example, speaker #19, D. Sellnow (1983), makes reference to the date, publication, and author when stating, "According to James Traub, in a 1979 issue of the *Saturday Review,* the investigators usually work during the day, so it is sometimes difficult to locate people" (p. 59). Conversely, speaker #3, V. Welch (1965), offers no documentation when she states, "Only one in every thirty retarded children is totally dependent. Four children out of every thirty mentally retarded are 'trainable'" (p. 22). Each such logical appeal was evaluated for its degree of documentation.

Solution. The solution was defined as the means presented for solving the identified problem and the accompanying elaboration and/or explanation. The analysis of the solutions proposed in the 24 speeches focused on four areas: (1) specific plan mechanisms, (2) call to action, (3) plan visualization, and (4) plan meet need argument. The content of the solutions was coded according to these four categories.

Plan mechanism was defined as the speaker's effort to outline the types of changes in the status quo which must be undertaken in order to alleviate the problem. For example, speaker #17, B. Jacobson (1982), offers the following plan:

> The solution to employee theft is a three-fold process: To defend, to defer, and to demotivate. It is imperative that businesses implement internal security systems to defend themselves against these losses . . . . Management must open alternative channels to defer employees from expressing their frustrations through stealing. . . . Finally, as the long-range goal, employee theft must be perceived as a destructive act that puts employees out of jobs, that forces businesses to close and that causes prices to rise for everyone (p. 44).

Such statements and the more detailed explanations of them were considered part of the solution's plan.

Call to Action. A call to action is a plea to the members of the audience to follow a prescribed course of action. Simply suggesting that an audience remain informed about a problem was not considered a call to action. Rather, a specific, tangible request by the speaker to the audience was rated as a call to action. For example, speaker #16, C. Ellis (1981), calls his audience to action in the following manner:

> Some of the people in this room probably drink, and most of us have friends that drink. Sometimes we drink a little too much. Let's take care of each other. Let's play keep the keys away from Ethyl. If you need a ride home and you can't afford a cab and you can't drive yourself, call the police. They would rather spend an hour taking you home than all night trying to notify the next of kin. Keeping Ethyl's foot off the gas pedal has its beginning with us (p. 23).

Each such call to action was identified and categorized.

Visualization. Requires a vivid description of how conditions will improve with the adoption of the solutions. Visualization may also involve a vivid description of how dismal the future will be without the adoption of the solution. For example, speaker #14, A. Mungo (1980), describes the positive potential of her solution to place a warning label on alcoholic beverages:

> Now you may argue that no one will read these labels, much less pay attention to them. But if one expectant mother thinks twice about that bottle of beer, if one expectant mother says "no" to the glass of wine after glancing at the label, that's one less case of FAS, and we're on our way down (p. 51).

Speaker #6, G. Sabatino (1966), warns of the problems her audience may face if we are unwilling to get involved in times of crisis:

> But, in the back of our minds, we dread a thought which we hope will never become a reality. Suddenly, you are the girl in the parking lot, the boy on the building and the woman on the roof of the sinking car. Now you cry out for help . . . but there are only some excited stares, pointing fingers . . . a few belated phone calls . . . and you realize you're at the terrifying mercy of the silent Samaritans (pp. 91-92).

All incidents of visualization within the speeches' solutions were identified.

Plan Meet Need Argument. A plan meet need argument uses examples, factual data, or other evidence to establish the benefits of the plan. Plan meet need arguments are logical in their appeal, while visualization is more evocative in nature. For example, speaker #18, T. Nassar (1982), offers the following example to prove that the vehicle identification numbers he endorses are useful in reducing automobile theft:

Ford Motor Company, working with the FBI, already tried this on their 1980 luxury models, and by April 1980 they'd noticed a 10% reduction in the theft of those cars. Stamping them caused Ford no production problems. Thomas Harrigan, Vice President of the International As-sociaiton of Auto Theft Investigators, believes that such a plan would eventually reduce chop-shop businesses by 70% (p. 41). Such efforts to document plan effectiveness were identified.

The emphasis each speech placed upon the categories of plan, call to action, visualization, and plan meet need was measured in column inches. The amount of space given to each category was compared to the total length of the speech.

Results

Unique Personal Involvement

Far more unique personal involvement was documented in the 1960s than in the 1980s. Nine of the twelve speakers from the 1960s expressed a personal involvement with their topics. Only four speakers from the 1980s identified such a personal involvement.

The personal involvement in the pre-1970s period associated the problem with members of the family, with threats to the speaker's own well-being, or with threats to home or hometown. In the post-1970s period, however, the most popular source of personal involvement was reference to friends who were afflicted with the problem (see Table 1).

The amount of time dedicated to unique personal involvement differs greatly between the two periods. In the pre-1970s period, repeated references were made to personal involvement. Both speakers who referred to their home developed extended descriptions of the successes and failures of their communities. All three speakers who referred to their families repeatedly used parents or siblings as supportive examples. Those pre-1970s speakers citing personal exposure provided lengthy paragraphs testifying to their involvement in the problem. In contrast, none of the post-1970s

speakers dedicated more than five sentences to identifying their unique personal involvement.

TABLE 1

PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT   PRE-1970s/POST-1970s

Pre-1970s Personal Involvement

Reference	Number making reference	Speeches #'s
Home	2	#2, #5
Family	3	#3, #7, #9
Personal Exposure	4	#1, #8, #6, #11
TOTAL REFERENCES	9	

Post-1970s Personal Involvement

Reference	Number making reference	Speeches #'s
Friends	2	#13, #17
Personal Exposure	2	#16, #23
TOTAL REFERENCES	4	

Evocative Versus Logical Appeals

Both periods revealed greater use of logical appeals than evocative appeals. In the pre-1970s period, a near balance between logical and evocative appeals was noted. In the post-1970s period, however, the results indicate a tremendous preference for logical appeals. The 1980s show less than half the percentage of evocative appeals recorded in the 1960s. Moreover, 25 percent more of the total appeals were logical in the 1980s than in the 1960s. Clearly, speakers from the post-1970 period used fewer evocative appeals and more logical appeals than did the speakers from the earlier period.

TABLE 2
EVOCATIVE VERSUS LOGICAL APPEALS COMPARISON

Period	Total	Evocative Appeals	Logical Appeals
Pre-1970s	197	92 (47%)	105 (53%)
Post-1970s	202	46 (23%)	156 (77%)

Documentation

The speeches of the 1980s were documented more precisely than were the speeches from the earlier period. Nearly half of the logical appeals in the pre-1970s sample showed no signs of documentation. In contrast, only 26 percent of the logical appeals in the post-1970s displayed such an absence of documentation. The speeches from both periods relied heavily on citation of the author. A notable difference between the two periods is noted concerning the mention of a publication. Reference to publication has more than doubled since the 1960s. Finally, the date is mentioned far more often in the 1980s than in the 1960s. The date is mentioned in more than 25 percent of all logical appeals in the 1980s. In the 1960s, however, the date appears in less than ten percent of the logical appeals.

TABLE 3
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF LOGICAL APPEALS

Element of Documentation	Pre-1970s	Post-1970s
No documentation	44 (43%)	41 (26%)
Speaker only	40 (39%)	54 (35%)
Mention of date	8 (8%)	41 (26%)
Mention of publication	15 (15%)	48 (31%)
	TOTAL 103	TOTAL 156

Solution Content

On the average, a greater percentage of the speech was dedicated to the solution in the 1980s than in the 1960s. The average percentage of the speech dedicated to the solution was 21.3 percent in the pre-1970s compared to 26.7 percent in the post-1970s period. More space was dedicated to plan, call to action, and visualization in the 1980s. More space was used to develop plan meet need arguments in the 1960s. The greatest difference between the periods involved development of the plan. Speakers of the 1980s spent more time describing the various steps they endorsed for solving their speeches' problems. Another major shift involved call to action. Seven speakers called their audiences to action in the 1980s, while only three speakers made such appeals in the 1960s. Both groups of speeches contained a significant amount of visuali-

zation. The difference between the two periods is less than one pecent. More speeches contained plan meet need arguments in the 1960s than in the 1980s. Eight speakers used examples to highlight the workability of their plans in the 1960s, while only six did so in the later period. Finally, four speeches in the 1980s contained references to all four solution elements, while only two speeches from the 1960s did so.

TABLE 4
SOLUTION COMPONENT PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SPEECH LENGTH

Solution component	Pre-1970s	Post-1970s
Plan	12 (8.2%)	12 (12.4%)
Call to action	3 (.83%)	7 (3.1%)
Visualization	12 (6.16%)	12 (6.25%)
Plan meet need	8 (4.7%)	6 (3.2%)

Discussion

From the results, several conclusions can be established. First, the concept of persuasive speaking has not been static over the twenty-two-year period of this study. The nature of the event has changed. Unique personal involvement is fifty percent less likely to be used in the 1980s than it was in the 1960s. More than three-fourths of the supporting materials was logical in the 1980s; this is in contrast to the almost equal emphasis given to ewocative and logical supporting materials during the 1960s. Over the two decades, the frequency with which sources were documented increased dramatically, and the completeness of the citations incrased proportionately. While the changes in solution development were more modest, they were, nevertheless, apparent. During the 1980s, the mechanics of the solution tended to be more fully outlined, and calls for action by the immediate audiences were more common.

Second, what judges consider to be outstanding persuasive speeches has changed. Coaches serve as judges at the Interstate Oratory Contest, so it must be assumed that the documented shifts in the nature of persuasive speeches reflect changes in coaching— and therefore judging, standards. The carefully documented and reasoned approach to persuasion practiced in the 1980s is in

marked contrast to the standards suggested by William Schrier (1971), who from 1942 to 1964 coached 13 representatives in and two national champions of the Interstate Oratory contest. Given the degree of difference between the periods, it is unlikely that a winning speech from the pre-1970s period would be as successful in the 1980s.

Third, the direction of the shift in the 1980s is toward a less emotional approach to persuasion. Less personal identification with subject matter, less evocative supporting material, greater documentation of sources, more detailed descriptions of solutions—all suggest a movement away from emotional appeals.

It is interesting to speculate on the reasons for this shift. There is no new research discrediting the effectiveness of emotional appeals in persuasion, and studies by Delmar Anderson (1958), Dan Costley (1958), William Dresser (1962), James Gardner (1966), and Gerald Wagner (1958) have raised some doubt regarding the persuasive value of source documentation. Thus, the persuasive emphasis of the eighties does not appear to be a result of empirical research.

A variety of competitive and pedagogical factors can probably best explain the changed standards. As the number of individual events tournaments increased in the 1970s, the number of competitors in persuasive speaking also increased. With so many persuasive speeches being presented each year, it became more important—from a competitive point of view—to find fresh topics which had not been discussed by many other contestants. The search for different, unusual topics inevitably led away from subjects with which students had had personal experiences. The movement away from personal identification was probably reinforced by the belief that the emotional appeal of unique personal identification had, at times, been abused. Because many coaches felt that such obvious emotional appeals were ethically objectionable, they more readily accepted the loss of personal identification between speakers and topics.

Ethical and pedagogical factors also influenced the nature of the persuasive speaking event in other ways. Criteria for judging persuasive speaking were developed by both the National Forensic Association and the American Forensic Association Individual Events Committees. These criteria gave emphasis to such factors as logical support for ideas, documentation of sources, and adequate development of solutions. Thus, the shift in the nature of persuasive speaking may be more a reflection of how communication

teachers and coaches believe audiences ought *ethically to be persuaded than how they actually* are *moved to action.*

Conclusion

Many changes have accompanied the increasing popularity of contest persuasive speaking. In general, today's contest speeches place relatively more emphasis on logical criteria. This emphasis is desirable to the extent that it places greater ethical responsibility on the speaker to prove his/her analysis accurately and fairly. It would be unfortunate, however, if too much of the emotional quality of "old fashioned oratory" were lost. A persuasive speech should be something more than a well-delivered first affirmative debate speech. Persuasive speeches should not only have logical solutions, but emotional climaxes as well. Human interest materials can be abused; but if used in conjunction with other evidence, they can heighten belief. Future changes in the nature of the persuasive speaking event will undoubtedly occur, but it will remain a popular and valuable educational experience as long as forensics coaches and judges continue to be guided by both sound ethical and rhetorical principles.

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Appendix A **Orations**

Analyzed: Authors and Titles

No.	Year	Place or Sex	Author	Title
1	1964	Female	Levander, J.	Change to Progress
2	1964	Male	Ngwa, Jacob	Our Common Tradition in Peril
3	1965	Female	Welch, V.	The Weakest Members
4	1965	Male	Jamison, D.	The Scapegoaters
5	1966	Female	Rogers, J.	Little City Hall
6	1966	Male	Sabatino, G.	The Silent Samaritan
7	1967	Female	Beydler, J.	Human Storage Centers
8	1967	Male	Bryan, L.	Goodbye Suckers
9	1968	Female	Robinson, B.	Parents Without Partners
10	1968	Male	Gaetz, D.	To Cast Out Demons
11	1969	Female	Adair, S.	The Gift of Time
12	1969	Male	Robertson, R.	People Get Ready
13	1980	1st	Creasy, K.	A Time for Peace
14	1980	2nd	Mungo, A.	A Child is Born
15	1981	1st	Joeckel, K.	When the Intolerant Rule ...
16	1981	2nd	Ellis, C.	Ethyl-World's Worst Driver
17	1982	1st	Jacobson, B.	Empty Hands
18	1982	2nd	Nassar, T.	Do You Know Where Your Car Is?
19	1983	1st	Sellnow, D.	Have You Checked Lately?
20	1983	2nd	Yap, C.	Ethnocentrism
21	1984	1st	Aden, R.	The Forgotten Victims
22	1984	2nd	Moberg, B.	Betrayers of the Truth
23	1985	1st	Giles, T.	Sheathing the Silent Knife
24	1985	2nd	Byrne, J.	Dumping it in Our Laps

THE CASE OF THE MISSING TAB-SCORE: A STUDY COMPARING SCORE-EXCLUSION AND FULL-SCORE TABULATING AT THE NATIONAL FORENSIC ASSOCIATION'S NATIONAL INDIVIDUAL EVENTS TOURNAMENTS FROM 1974 TO 1987

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Judging from the dearth of literature available on the subject, it would seem that tournament management persists as one of the deep mysteries of forensics, and tab-room practices as something akin to the occult—replete with its own mystic rituals and arcane symbols. The mystery is particularly in evidence at major national tournaments, in that typically there is very little direct contact between contestants and management regarding the inner workings of tournament operation. This study may serve as a narrow crack in the tab-room door and provide a bit of insight into at least one of the tabulating rituals as practiced at the National Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament (NFA-NIET).

Much of the management of tournament competition is based largely on common sense, intuition, convention, and tradition. Very little is codified for universal application, and even less has been subjected to systematic research. A recent study (Littlefield, 1986) examines score-exclusion tabulating by comparing the results of one tournament which used it (AFA-NIET) with one which did not (Pi Kappa Delta National Tournament). Based on the comparison, Littlefield concluded: " . . . Similar goups of contestants would have emerged [into elimination rounds] without dropping the low rank and low rating at the A.F.A-N.I.E.T. Also, for the most part, similar groups of award winners would have received Superior Ratings even if low rank and rating would have been dropped at the Pi Kappa Delta Tournament" (p. 41). Because the NFA-NIET also uses score-exclusion tabulation to advance contestants into elimination round competition, it might be useful to extend the Littlefield study to determine the effect of the practice over a period of several years for a specific national tournament.

Common wisdom suggests a strong correlation between the number of individual steps in any given procedure and the probability of error. It follows, therefore, that a reduction in tabulation steps could result in a concomitant improvement in its accuracy, as well as a saving of time and energy. A review of the NFA-NIET tabulations over a period of fourteen years reveals a substantial number of errors, a few of which involved the dropping of high rank and low rate. In at least four cases, contestants were excluded from elimination round competition as a direct result of those errors. The elimination of unnecessary steps might also reduce the amount of time and fatigue involved in tabulating tournament results, and thereby increase overall efficiency. Considering the number of events and the average number of students competing in those events, the time-saving/fatigue-sparing factors could be significant.

Currently, the NFA-NIET includes four preliminary rounds of competition with twenty-four contestants advancing to quarterfinals in each of nine events. Each contestant is adjudicated by two judges in each round and accumulates a total of eight ranks and eight ratings during the preliminary rounds of the tournament. The tabulation procedures for determining quarterfinalists in each of the events can be delineated as twenty discrete steps (normally requiring four tabulation teams of two people each):

1. Round scores are read by one team member and recorded by the other.
2. The same scores are re-read and the recording checked by another team.
3. Contestant sweepstakes points are figured and recorded by one team on a round-by-round basis.
4. The same figures are re-figured and the recording checked by another tabulation team.
5. When all four preliminary rounds have been recorded and checked, a tabulation team totals all eight ranks and records that figure.
6. The same eight ranks are re-totaled and the recording checked by another tabulation team.
7. All ranks are scanned by one member of a tabulation team, and a slash is drawn through the highest rank for each contestant.
8. The other member of the team re-scans the ranks to check the work of the first team member, and the resulting seven-rank based total is recorded.
9. The first team member checks the addition from step 8.

10. All ratings are scanned by one team member, and a slash is drawn through the lowest rating for each contestant.
11. The ratings are re-scanned by the other team member, and the slash mark is checked for accuracy (ratings are not totaled at this time).
12. The seven-rank totals are scanned by one member of the tabulation team, who identifies and lists the 24 (or more) contestants who are likely to advance into quarterfinals.
13. The other team member does the same (see step 12), and the two lists are compared for consistency.
14. If more than 24 contestants emerge, based on rank totals, one tabulation team member totals the adjusted rating of those contestants tied for the highest rank total and records the total.
15. The other team member re-totals the adjusted ratings and checks the recorded total for accuracy. Those contestants with the highest ratings are included among the 24 quarterfinalists.
16. All rank-ties among the 24 emerging contestants must be broken to facilitate seeding, so one member of the team totals the seven best ratings for each contestant involved in a rank-tie.
17. The other team member re-totals the ratings and checks the accuracy of the recorded total.
18. The 24 quarterfinalists are listed in rank-order from 1 through 24, based on low rank totals and high ratings by each team member. The two lists are compared for consistency.
19. The 24 quarterfinalists are recorded on the quarterfinal tab sheet in seeded order by one member of the team.
20. The seeding is checked for accuracy by the other team member (Leiboff Interview, 1987).

The procedure is long and presumably tiresome; but it is reasonably effective in identifying elimination round contestants. Obviously, if dropping the high ranks and low ratings makes little or no difference in the outcome, steps 7 through 11 can be eliminated without compromising the integrity or fairness of the tournament. As previously noted, there is reason to suspect that a high correlation does exist between quarterfinalists determined on a seven-score basis and those determined on an eight-score basis (Littlefield, 1986). However, Littlefield is more concerned with a comparison between a score-exclusion tabulated national tournament and a full-score tabulated national tournament. His study is also limited to a single year (1985). The present authors are more

concerned with direct comparison of results from a seven-rank and rate-based tabulation (7R/7r) and an eight-rank and rate-based tabulation (8R/8r). The comparison is also drawn across fourteen consecutive years of NFA-NIET competition.

Although the first MET was held in 1971 (Ohio Northern U), it was not until 1973 (Eastern Michigan U) that the NFA was duly constituted, including a membership-approved set of by-laws governing the administration of its annual tournament (including a tabulation methodology). Therefore, the first NFA-NIET under constitutional authority was held in 1974 at SUNY-Plattsburgh. The 1974 tournament was the first to include four rounds of competition, more than one elimination round, and the first to host more than 100 schools (Fryar, 1984). This study, then, will include only those results from 1974 to 1987.

Taking the lead provided by the Littlefield article, the present study is intended to test the following hypotheses:

HO: There is no correlation between contestants emerging to elimination rounds with 7 ranks/7 ratings and those emerging with 8 ranks/8 ratings.

HI: There is a correlation between contestants emerging to elimination rounds with 7 ranks/7 ratings and those emerging with 8 ranks/8 ratings.

If a consistent pattern of high correlation is demonstrated from event to event and year to year, it would demonstrate that score-exclusion tabulation has little impact upon the outcome of four preliminary rounds of competition. Conversely, a low correlation would indicate that score-exclusion tabulation has a significant effect on that outcome.

Method of Analysis

The hypothesis was tested by compiling results from all NFA-NIETs between 1974 and 1987. The results were checked for tabulation accuracy, especially with respect to the use of score exclusion as a tabulation practice. A list of 24 quarterfinalists was generated from the preliminary round results using the score-exclusion method (7R/7r) and compared with the actual quarterfinal listing on the tournament tabulation sheets. In cases where the newly generated listing differed from the actual listing, the more accurate of the two was used as the data base for this study. A second list of 24 quarterfinalists was generated from the preliminary round results using all contestants' scores (8R/8r). The two lists (7R/7r) and (8R/8r) were compared for consistency. All dif-

ferences between the two were noted with respect to contestants excluded from the 7R/7r listing and replaced by contestants from the 8R/8r list. All ties resulting from full-score tabulating were resolved using the formula stipulated by the NFA by-laws. Inasmuch as the NFA-NIET uses a seeding formula to divide the award category group into four quarterfinal brackets, the group derived from a full-score tabulation method was rank ordered from 1 through 24 and statistically correlated to the rank-ordered listing of the group derived from score-exclusion tabulation using the Spearman Rank Correlation formula (Mendenhall, 1979). Finally, the full-score tabulated grouping was examined to determine actual contestant rank shifting, as compared to the score-exclusion grouping, and a shift percentage was determined for each of the nine events.

Results

The results of this study may be viewed from a variety of perspectives; however, the following appear to be most useful in addressing the hypothesis:

1. A comparison between the composition of award category groups derived from full-score tabulation and those derived from score-exclusion tabulation.

2. A correlation analysis of rank orders in award category groups derived from full-score tabulation and those derived from score-exclusion tabulation.

A comparison of the award category groups revealed that, indeed, the composition of those groups did change as a consequence of full-score tabulation (see Table 1). The degree of change varied from year to year, but the average number of changes per year for all events was 15 (or approximately 1.67 changes per event per year) within an actual range of 17 positions. The greatest number of changes (22) occurred in 1984; the smallest number (5) in 1974. However, a range of 11 positions is probably more reliable (22 in 1984 to 11 in 1976) in that the 1974 tournament yielded award category groups of 12 (semi-finalists) rather than 24. The percentage of change for all 14 tournaments is 6.94%.

In addition to the year-by-year analysis, we considered the degree of change (in award category group composition) for each event across the 14 years of competition. The data indicated that rhetorical criticism (later, rhetorical analysis) experienced the least number of changes (17 over 14 years, or approximately 1.2 changes per year), and prose interpretation experienced the great-

est number of changes (39 over 14 years, or approximately 2.8 per year). We found this bit of information most interesting, considering the Littlefield study identified the same events in the same context as regards the AFA-NIET in 1985. "The prose interpretation category," wrote Littlefield, "experienced the greatest percentage of contestants affected by a change in computational method. . . . In communication analysis, there was no change . . . using both methods of computation" (pp. 37-38). The average number of changes for all nine events over fourteen tournaments was 23.4, or, as previously noted, 1.67 changes per event per year.

The NFA-NIET applies a seeding formula to determine the composition of the four quarterfinal brackets, presumably to assure a more equitable distribution of talent in the elimination rounds. Therefore, a contestant's preliminary round standing might have an effect on an individual's advancement in aware category competition (assuming, of course, that preliminary round scores reflect talent level with any degree of accuracy). It seems reasonable, therefore, to examine the tendency toward rank consistency between the two subject groups and the actual rank shifting which occurs between those groups.

The Spearman Rank Correlation formula was used to arrive at a standard coefficient of rank consistency between the score-exclusion ranked grouping and the full-score ranked grouping. Longitudinally, the average coefficient (including all events) was .8629 with a range from .7937 (1974) to .9107 (1982) (see Table 2). The average coefficient for each event over the fourteen tournaments was .8639 and ranged from a low of .7486 (prose interpretation) to a high of .9169 (rhetorical criticism). Again, it is prose interpretation which skews the average correlation downward. In fact, the lowest single coefficient for all events in all years (.5315) is for the prose event. Even so, considering that the Spearman test acknowledges 1.0000 as a perfect correlation, the coefficients are sufficiently high to suggest that full-score tabulation would produce award category groups not unlike those derived through score-exclusion tabulation.

Owing to the fact that the Spearman test indicates merely the consistency of rank proximity between the two test groups rather than a position-for-position correlation, it was necessary to examine each award category group with respect to actual position shifts in order to assess more accurately their effect upon quarterfinal seeding.

Not surprisingly, based upon Littlefield's findings, the shift analysis revealed that a substantial number of contestants would,

indeed, shift ranks if a full-score tabulation rather than score-exclusion tabulation method was used (see Table 3). Across the fourteen tournaments, prose interpretation contestants experienced the greatest percentage of position shifts (86%) and, extemporaneous speaking, the smallest percentage of shifts (79%). Year by year, shift percentages ranged from a low of 33% (dramatic duo in 1974) to a high of 100% (poetry interpretation in 1977, dramatic duo in 1978 and 1982, and prose interpretation in 1983). The data suggest that, although the two award category groups correlate strongly on the basis of rank proximity shifts, the actual composition of quarterfinal brackets would differ significantly from one tabulation method to the other. The data might also suggest a significant difference in tournament outcome if seeding is considered a significant factor in determining tournament outcome. However, Littlefield points out, quoting McRoberts, that "the link between quarterfinal seed and quarterfinal finish is dubious" (p. 39). Littlefield goes on to suggest that a plethora of other "human variables" makes it impossible to conclude that seeding has a substantial impact upon contestant advancement.

Conclusions

The specific purpose of this study was to demonstrate either a high or low correlation between award category groups derived from score-exclusion and full-score tabulation systems. The intent was to assess the relative merits of one method over the other as a means of determining contestant advancement into the elimination round competition. The data suggest that similar award category groups would have emerged in similar (but not exact) positions regardless of the computational method used. The essential conclusion, therefore, is that removal of the five steps (7 through 11) which pertain to the score-exclusion process will have little impact upon the composition of the award category group.

Another conclusion which might be drawn from this study relates to the apparent rationale for adopting score exclusion as a tabulation methodology:

1. Elimination of low rank and low rating would be fairer for students who experience inconsistent or skewed judging in their rounds.
2. Every rank and rating is statistically significant for a contestant. One low rank or low rating might keep a student from advancing and/or placing. (Littlefield, 1986)

The results of this study, along with the Littlefield study, would seem to indicate that judging bias is not as significant a factor in determining award category groups as score-exclusion proponents might think, and while every rank and rating may be statistically significant, they are not so significant as to have a major impact upon the composition of award-category groups.

In defense of score-exclusion tabulation, however, Littlefield acknowledges the possibility of a psychological effect. "If contestants sense that a particular judge is not fond of their selections or compositions, knowing that the unfavorable ranking will be dropped may reduce the anxiety the student may experience in a round of competition" (p. 42). The extent—or even existence—of such anxiety is as yet unknown and suggests at least one area for future research.

Essentially, this study deals with the effect of alternative tabulation methods on tournament outcomes, but a central concern involves the enhancement of tournament efficiency. The implications for further study, therefore, are many and varied. If, for example, the application of both 7R/7r and 8R/8r tabulation yields approximately the same award category groups, then perhaps a three-round national tournament (6R/6r) is possible without sacrificing the fairness or integrity of the results.

In spite of the strong statistical relationship between the two award category groups derived from alternative tabulating methods, the correlation is not exact and, therefore, open to exceptions. As indicated in the data, changes in the two groups do occur; and while they occur among the bottom quarter of these groups where the potential for advancement is presumably slight, it cannot be assumed that they will have no effect upon the outcome of the tournament. A follow-up study of advancement patterns among quarterfinalists, therefore, might prove quite useful in determining the actual impact of a change in tabulating methods.

There is also the matter of "human variables" to be subjected to careful scrutiny. Judging preferences regarding substance, event type, and performance styles surely merit considerable exploration. It is likewise noteworthy that both this and the Littlefield study identified an apparently consistent peculiarity regarding the scoring of prose interpretation and rhetorical analysis events. Certainly, an idiosyncrasy to manifest deserves some attention from forensic scholars.

Most significantly, one bold fact seems to arise from this and other studies of forensic management: students and judges comprise a tournament, not rules and procedures. There seems to be a

basic standard of performance quality that transcends the conventions and common sense of tournament management, and apparently very little of what is done in a tab room will suppress the emergence of the best prepared and most talented contestants into a final, decisive showdown.

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Table 1
Incidents of Contestant Movement Into and Out of Elimination Competition Based on a 7R/7R to 8R/8R Tabulation

Events	1974			1975			1976			1977			1978			1979			1980		
	n	out	in	n	out	in	n	out	in	n	out	in	n	out	in	n	Out	in	n	out	in
Extemp Speaking	12	1	1	12	1	1	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	3	3	24	3	3
Prose Interpretation	12	2	2	12	1	1	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	4	4	24	6	6	24	5	5
After Dinner Speaking	12	0	0	12	1	1	24	0	0	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	3	3	24	2	2
Rhetorical Criticism	Not Run			12	0	0	24	0	0	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	1	1
Informative Speaking	12	0	0	12	0	0	24	1	1	24	3	3	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	2	2
Poetry Interpretation	12	1	1	12	0	0	24	1	1	24	0	0	24	3	3	24	3	3	24	1	1
Impromptu Speaking	12	1	1	12	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	2	2
Persuasive Speaking	12	0	0	12	2	2	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	1	1
Dramatic Duo Interpretation	12	0	0	12	2	2	24	2	2	24	0	0	24	2	2	24	0	0	24	4	4
TOTAL	96	5	5	108	8	8	216	11	11	216	14	14	216	19	19	216	20	20	216	21	21

Table 1   (continued)

Events	1981			1982			1983			1984			1985			1986			1987		
	n	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**	**n**	**out**	**in**
Extemp Speaking	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	0	0	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	1	1	24	1	1
Prose Interpretation	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	1	1	25*	3	2	24	3	3	24	3	3	25*	2	1
After Dinner Speaking	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	0	0	24	4	4	24	1	1	24	1	1	24	2	2
Rhetorical Criticism	24	0	0	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	4	4	24	2	2
Informative Speaking	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	2	2
Poetry Interpretation	24	3	3	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	2	2
Impromptu Speaking	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	3	3	24	2	2	24	2	2	24	1	1
Persuasive Speaking	24	2	2	24	1	1	25*	2	1	24	3	3	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1
Dramatic Duo Interpretation	24	0	0	24	1	1	24	2	2	24	1	1	24	3	3	24	1	1	24	1	1
TOTAL	216	15	15	216	15	15	217	13	12	217	22	21	216	18	18	216	17	17	217	14	13

*An unbreakable tie allowed a 25th contestant into quarter finals. Because no tie occurred in the 8R/8r tabulation, the 25th contestant was not replaced.

Table 2: Spearman's Bank Rate Coefficient

Event	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	Average
Extemp Speaking	.7413	.9371	.8730	.8735	.9596	.8996	.9026	.9396	.9204	.9122	.9270	.9409	.9235	.8848	**.9025**
Prose Interpretation	.5315	.6119	.8709	.7678	.6248	.7530	.6187	.7804	.9217	.7974	.7738	.7648	.8717	.7915	**.7486**
After Dinner Speaking	.9231	.9301	.9443	.8983	.8648	.8670	.9274	.9017	.9426	.9635	.9291	.9439	.7735	.9283	**.9098**
Rhetorical Criticism	Not Run	.8811	.8913	.9391	.9100	.9526	.9687	.9678	.9213	.9300	.8257	.9413	.8530	.9374	**.9169**
Informative Speaking	.6643	.8951	.7217	.8330	.9104	.8561	.9013	.9070	.9330	.9026	.9083	.8478	.9135	.9117	**.8647**
Poetry Interpretation	.9510	.9231	.8830	.6965	.7648	.8743	.8930	.8283	.8665	.8878	.6604	.8665	.7974	.8322	**.8375**
Impromptu Speaking	.7832	.7168	.8117	.8252	.8770	.9374	.8300	.8357	.8891	.8139	.6965	.8643	.9083	.8996	**.8349**
Persuasive Speaking	.7972	.6399	.8209	.9100	.8813	.8635	.9252	.9570	.9235	.8554	.8261	.8804	.9126	.8448	**.8598**
Dramatic Duo Interpretation	.9580	.8427	.8839	.9635	.8870	.8904	.8752	.9270	.8778	.9483	.9204	.8843	.8417	.9022	**.9002**
	.7937	**.8198**	**.8556**	**.8563**	**.8533**	**.8771**	**.8713**	**.8938**	**.9107**	**.8901**	**.8297**	**.8816**	**.8661**	**.8814**	**.8629** **.8639**

Table 3
Shift Analysis Percentages

Event	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	Total Shift Over Event
Extemp Speaking	75	58	79	88	71	88	88	88	79	75	71	79	83	75	**79**
Prose Interpretation	75	83	83	96	96	71	88	92	71	100	88	83	92	84	**86**
After Dinner Speaking	67	75	71	96	83	96	75	92	83	79	71	79	79	83	**81**
Rhetorical Criticism	Not Run	58	79	75	88	79	92	79	71	88	83	83	83	71	**80**
Informative Speaking	75	83	79	92	83	63	83	75	79	79	88	83	96	75	**81**
Poetry Interpretation	67	67	88	100	88	96	88	79	71	88	88	92	83	79	**85**
Impromptu Speaking	83	83	83	83	75	96	88	88	58	92	88	79	83	88	**83**
Persuasive Speaking	83	75	92	88	83	88	83	75	75	92	83	75	71	88	**82**
Dramatic Duo Interpretation	33	67	79	71	100	96	79	54	100	88	92	83	63	88	**80**
Total Shift Over Year	**70**	**72**	**81**	**88**	**85**	**86**	**85**	**80**	**76**	**87**	**83**	**82**	**81**	**81**	**82**

MAINTAINING INTEGRITY IN FORENSICS INTERPRETATION: ARGUMENTS AGAINST ORIGINAL LITERATURE

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The most recent and critical issue facing the discussion of Oral Interpretation is the issue of using original material in competition. As Green & Ford (1987) note, the issue has been debated informally for years. In the past year, the topic has received more formal attention at national organization meetings, at conventions, and in professional literature (e.g. the Editor's Forum, *National Forensic Journal,* Spring, 1988). At this time, the use of original literature in competition may be relatively rare (Green and Ford's 1987 survey reported less than 3% use in interpretation events), but it does occur. In order to offset potential harms created by the use of original literature, the issue must be fully examined at this time, rather than left unchecked and uncontrolled.

The focus of this study is to argue against student use of original literature because of the impact that it makes on the integrity of the competitor and on the forensics experience as a whole. While this author is not entirely against its usage, pitfalls outweigh the advantages. Following a brief operational definition of original literature, this impact on integrity will be discussed as it relates to the essence of interpretation, the forensics environment, and the ethical concerns that this issue raises.

While both the National Forensic Association and the American Forensic Association have deemed original literature acceptable for competition, neither organization has offered a concrete definition of such materials. In this essay, one or more of the following conditions must be present for a selection to be defined as original literature:

1) material is written by the competitor,
2) material is written by someone other than the competitor for the primary purpose of forensics competition, or
3) material has not undergone traditional literary scrutiny (i.e., has not been published or received recognition and acclaim).

Of course, more gray areas exist (e.g., viability of student publications, competitors who publish materials). These questions need to be addressed at the individual case level. The definition

provided here establishes a baseline against which to judge those cases and assess their impact on the integrity of forensics. The analysis that follows is to provide coaches with further insight to allow them to make such decisions. Primary emphasis in this study is on the student author, though the commentary throughout is relevant to all components of the definition.

ESSENCE OF INTERPRETATION

One of the primary concerns that must be addressed in the use of original student material is its potential to contradict the very core of Oral Interpretation—namely, the analysis of literature. As Yordon (1982) states, "Interpretation is an artistic process of studying literature through performance and sharing that study with an audience (p. 12)." As various oral interpretation textbooks imply, this includes an ability to study both the intrinsic factors of a selection (e.g., plotline, personae, mood, rhythm) and the extrinsic factors (e.g., historical-biographical information, culture, the writer's life). When students write a selection of prose, poetry, or drama for themselves (or have someone else write it for them), they deprive themselves of the opportunity truly to analyze the literature.

Lee and Gura (1982) define interpretation as "the art of communicating to an audience a work of literary art in its intellectual, emotional, and aesthetic entirety (p. 3)." The only way to understand that complex entirety is through an appropriate analysis of the literature in question. One might argue that, when a student writes his/her own literature, he/she analyzes and creates at the same time. These appear to be two distinct processes, and the "analysis" stage would merely be an extension of the original creation; there would be limited opportunity for true insight.

Yordon (1982) summarizes the process when she states, "The more time you spend with a piece of literature, the more you learn about it. One performance of a literary work might be completely different from both someone else's and from subsequent ones you do of the same text. It's a matter of interpretation (p. 13)!" Hence, the core of interpretation begins with the study of literature, not the creation of it. Though there is a degree of complement between writing literature and the analysis and interpretation of it, they are inherently different processes. As Lee and Gura (1982) explain:

> The writer of a literary selection is a creative artist who orders ideas, words, sounds, and rhythms into a particular form, putting them into written symbols. The interpreter,

in turn, takes these symbols printed on a page and brings personal experience and insight to bear on the clues the author has given. He or she then submits subjective experience and responses to the order imposed by the creative artist and assumes the responsibility of re-creating the literary entity (p. 3).

When the student interpreter ignores this distinction by presenting original works, the value of both the literature and its interpretation may suffer as a result.

The integrity of the process of interpretation is undermined when a student attempts to shortcut the pedagogical experience. When a student bypasses the essential "study" phase of oral interpretation, he limits his own ability to develop what Long and Hopkins (1982) call "literary competence," which is the improvement in the ability to read new texts. As they state, "Acts of performance not only help you to realize more fully whatever text you are performing, but also foster competence in dealing with other texts encountered (p. 356)." If a student does not study the intrinsic and extrinsic elements of literature from the beginning, he will not develop the skills to continue doing so in the future.

The integrity of interpretation was upheld at the Second National Developmental Conference in Forensics in 1974. Their report states that, in addition to providing effective vocal and physical expressions, the "oral performance of literature requires that students understand literary analysis, history, the emotional and intellectual aspects of literature." The report also indicates that students "must acquire knowledge of literary form and style." The end product of this rationale is for complete literary understanding, a level transcending that achievable by the student who writes or interprets original pieces.

FORENSICS ENVIRONMENT

Regardless of whether or not original literature violates the essence of interpretation (some would say literary analysis is moot; students do not do it anyway), writing one's own selections becomes problematic because it is an inappropriate genre to bring into the forensics environment. To expand on this notion, two questions must be addressed. First, what is the purpose of oral interpretation in forensics, and second, why do students write their own literature?

The answer to the first question is that oral interpretation promotes oral communication skills relative to conveying imagery and tone of literary genres. The emphasis is on the efficacy of the per-

formance. While the quality of the literature itself is a considera-tion, the primary focus is not on "what the literature is," but rather, "how well is that literature conveyed." With that in mind, let us move to why students write their own pieces. There seem to be two primary reasons.

First, students write "pieces for interpretation" as compared to writing "pieces of literature." That is, rather than writing to pro-mote an art form and/or for publication, they write for the sake of competition. In this case, the student not only confuses the writer/interpreter dichotomy stressed in the previous section, but the stu-dent is potentially engaging in unethical competitive behavior.

The second reason students write their own literature is be-cause they are trying to create literary works worthy of public dis-tribution. Perhaps they wish to become a playwright, or hope to publish a book of poems. These are definitely admirable goals, but the forensics environment is not the appropriate testing ground for their work. Since the emphasis is on performance more than on the literature, the feedback they receive will be skewed at best and irrelevant at worst. The student's judging pool may not have the competence or skills necessary to provide the type of literary cri-tique needed. Even if the judges are qualified to evaluate the merit of an original piece, they are not going to do so under tournament conditions where they are expected to critique performance. Be-yond that, the students' ulterior motive of literary critique for their work continues to impinge upon the integrity of the event as a whole. Literature is being presented for self-gain rather than self-enlightenment and growth.

Another issue relative to the forensics environment concerns norms governing the quality of literature presented. While "literary merit" is an ambiguous term, the implication is that the selections have an innate quality. Of course, as Gottlieb (1980) points out, "Just because a story or poem is printed in an anthology does not ensure that it is a 'good' piece of literature (p. 28)." He clarifies his statement, however, when he adds that "you are in a better position if your selections have been judged worthy by others in the literary world. Selections from the works of well-known authors or from anthologies where judgments other than your own were made about the selection are your best choices (Gottlieb, 1980, p. 28)." This idea is reiterated by Skinner (1986), who maintains that, "lit-erature that is not college anthology quality is inappropriate for collegiate competition (p. 56)."

This argument is not meant to indict the writing abilities of some of our college competitors. No doubt some of them have the

skills needed to become proficient authors. The catch is that their proficiency level has not been validated by the literary community. Without such rigorous testing, there is a good chance that original literature will be of substandard quality. The result is despondent students and wearied judges. And again, the student who uses the forensics audience to provide literary recognition has targeted the wrong audience.

Finally, the integrity level within the forensics community is endangered when students present original literature because of the stress it adds to the competitor/judge relationship. Already the joke is circulating about the student who had written his own literature selection and received a ballot which read, "You haven't captured the intent of the author." Depending upon the teller of the joke, the student is either viewed as a no-talent interpreter, or the judge is viewed as an incompetent. Neither of these perspectives deviates far from the potential conflict that could arise when students present original literature. If a student writes a piece for himself and a judge feels that it was not interpreted correctly, who is right? This is truly a no-win situation which can result in a decrease in respect between the judge and the competitor.

A related issue concerns whether or not the competitor should identify himself as the author. This is a Catch-22 situation. If he identifies the work as his own, the judge is placed in an uncomfortable position as he or she critiques the literature. Whether the selection is quality material or not, the judge will no doubt feel uneasy expressing much criticism about the literature, knowing that the student is ego-involved with it. This author experienced a round in which a female competitor identified the author as her father, pointing out that presenting this selection was one way of showing him praise. I felt greatly hindered in terms of what I could and could not write about this selection. How could I criticize the piece without criticizing her father? The same holds true when the student is the author. Criticism will probably be viewed as personal attack; yet it is unfair to make judges feel that they should limit their comments for the sake of the student's ego.

One response to these concerns is to tell students who write original literature to use pseudonyms. This way, the judge is not placed in that uncomfortable position. This solution is hardly a panacea. First, because the judge is not pressured to water down his or her commentary, the student (who remains ego-involved with the selection) may be truly offended by the critique. Second, the behavior itself is deceptive and contradicts the ethical standards outlined within the forensic community.

ETHICAL CONCERNS

There are a number of ethical issues that must be considered before a student can be allowed to perform originals works in oral interp. Most deal with the fact that the behaviors, or motivations behind the behaviors, are inappropriate when viewed by ethical forensics guidelines. These guidelines are identified in the brochure, "The Ethics of Forensics," produced from the Second National Developmental Conference on Forensics in 1974. If the behaviors of competitors and their coaching staffs are unethical in nature, the integrity of the forensics experience is diminished substantially.

Returning to the issue of students using pseudonyms, we can see that this simple behavior violates ethical standards on several counts. While the reasons for using a pen-name in the literary world may be varied, the intent in forensics seems to be related to the judging concerns listed above: the student wants to hide the fact that he/she is the author from the judge. "The Ethics of Forensics" handout states that, "it is the duty of each student to participate honestly, fairly, and in such a way as to avoid communication behaviors that are deceptive, misleading, or dishonest." When students consciously attempts to mask authorship, they are engaging in unethical conduct.

In addition to being deceptive at a general level, the behavior of clouding sources is specifically addressed in the ethics guidelines:

> Advocates should clearly identify, during their speeches, the sources of all evidence they use. Such identification should include information relevant to the credibility of the author, if available, the source of publication and the date. Omitting the source of evidence denies the audience the opportunity to evaluate the quality of the information.

While the definitions above apply primarily to original events, the essence of the decree is easily applied to oral interpretation. If we expect to know the sources of evidence from our public address speakers so that we can most sufficiently judge the material, should we not expect similar types of source verification from our oral interpreters?

The ethical concerns go beyond the problem of the use of pseudonyms. This returns us to the question of why students write their own literature. As mentioned previously, some may wish to use forensics as the testing ground for their literary endeavors. Others may merely be writing literature for the sake of competi-

tion. If this latter purpose is their motivation, it could be construed as unethical behavior because the focus is on success rather than education. Simply put, the students who write a selection write to the norms and conventions of the circuit in which they compete. The goal is not to produce "literature" per se, but to produce a winning piece. The student has bypassed the intellectual endeavor for the sake of the end result.

According to the Second National Developmental Conference, limiting these unethical behaviors is the responsibility of the coaching staff. As the ethics handout indicates, "Because forensics is primarily an educational activity, educators in their capacities as coaches should emphasize learning before competitive success, and should teach this view to their students." A coach would be hard-pressed to argue adequately that writing a personal selection for the sake of gathering trophies is a commendable option over literary analysis and legitimate interpretation. The ethics handout discusses further the duties of the coaching staff when it states that it "is the primary responsibility of the educator as coach, rather than as judge, to regulate the content of student speeches." If the system were operating correctly, the potential judge/competitor relational stress discussed in the previous section would not occur; the coaching staff would eliminate the problem before it began.

In addition to placing success before learning, the idea of creating "winning forensics pieces" poses an additional moral dilemma. After receiving feedback from a pool of judges regarding a selection, what does a student work on to improve the selection? Does the student merely practice the performance, or does the student rewrite the material to suit the desires of the judges? While nothing in the Conference's guidelines specifically addresses this issue, the following criterion can be used at this point in the argument:

> Student interpreters should maintain a respect for the integrity of literature. Because a piece of work represents the personal expression of an author, students should not rewrite portions of an author's work and represent those alterations as if they were the product of the author.

At face value, the statement above does not preclude the use of original literature, but it does raise several interesting points. Primarily, it implies that a piece of literature is a stable entity. Interpretations may vary, but the text was written as an end product; it was not meant to be revamped and manipulated.

When a student writes a selection for competition purposes only, and continues to rewrite it, he or she is not "adapting to the audience," as some advocates might claim. Rather, the student is not adapting to the audience as one expects an oral interpreter to do, e.g., through voice, timing, and minor phyicalizations. The student is manipulating the allegedly stable text in order to make improvements. This is particularly inappropriate and detrimental when you consider that fellow competitors who are using established and published literature are limited by their ethical constraints and their abilities as interpreters. Thus, the student author has an unfair advantage in the way he or she is able to work on and rewrite the "literature." Not only has the student been allowed to bypass true literary criticism and write selections for a specific audience, but is now allowed to "improve" those selections in a manner inconsistent with the spirit of the event.

As mentioned previously, the original literature in interpretation controversy is a two-sided coin. No doubt, several reasons exist for allowing students to write their own pieces, to promote student creativity, create intrinsic interest, to provide therapeutic self-discovery, and even to bring some fresh new pieces to the forensics scene. However, the disadvantages appear to outweigh the advantages. Not only does the concept impuhe the essence of literary analysis in interpretation, but it also places stress on the forensics environment in terms of ulterior motives and competitor/judge relationships and raises ethical questions regarding pseudonyms, success, coaching responsibilities, and rewrites. This subject will not be without its own slew of heated discussions over the next several years, but one can hardly overlook its potential detrimental consequences to the integrity of oral interpretation in forensics competition.

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A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF CEDA
SPEAKING RATES

Kent R. Colbert*

Over recent years critics of debate have expressed disenchantment with the rate of delivery used by intercollegiate debaters. Criticism aimed at the National Debate Tournament (NDT) has been especially harsh. For example, Freeley (1986) contends that, "[e]xperienced varsity NDT debaters operating in tournament situations in the national circuit are under great pressure to pack as much evidence and argument as possible into the time limits. Their delivery may often exceed 200 words per minute [wpm]" (p. 273). The speaking rate of NDT debaters is well documented (Rives, 1976; Colbert, 1981; Route & Thomas, 1984; and Colbert, 1987). Colbert (1987) found that NDT finalists ranged from 200 wpm in 1968 to 302 wpm in 1982, and the relationship between wpm and recency was statistically significant. In fact, one reason often cited for the creation of CEDA (the Cross Examination Debate Association) is that NDT had perpetuated an incomprehensible rate of delivery. Holliham, Riley, and Austin (1983) wrote CEDA:

> was created because Howe and his colleagues believed that NDT was failing in its educational mission. Debaters were speaking too quickly, reading too much evidence, and relying on jargon that could not be understood by anyone except trained debate judges" (p. 872).

Thomas (1983) concurred when he stated that, "One goal of (CEDA) was to furnish a communication-centered event, in contrast to NDT's information processing orientation. The implications of this difference were in preferred manners of style and delivery, along with the weight placed upon evidence in debates" (p. 17).

To be sure, CEDA debater speaking rates are typically faster than other formats of public speaking. Ulrich (1985) explains that, "CEDA's formation was partly out of dissatisfaction by many with the delivery of NDT debaters. In recent years, however, this distinction has been less clear, as CEDA debaters became faster and faster" (p. 58). Unfortunately, much of the literature chastising debater speaker rates is often supported by conjecture and speculation (Jones, 1978; Brooks, 1984; and Ulrich, 1985).

The literature is abundant with ranges of acceptable speaking rates for public speaking, and quantitative measurement of speaking rates are typically reported in terms of words per minute (wpm). The consensus of experts agrees that the range of normal public speaking is between 100 and 200 wpm (Fairbanks, 1940; Correll & Tiffany, 1960; Ross, 1965; Capp, 1966; Jensen, 1970; Burgoon & Ruffner, 1974; DeVito, 1981; Verderber, 1984; and Mayer, 1988).

The questions we should ask are, how fast do CEDA debaters speak compared to normal public speaking rates, and, has CEDA met its goal of providing a forum that is consistent with the rate of public speaking? Little or no data exist which measures CEDA delivery rates in terms of wpm. For those who observe CEDA debate, it is apparent that the rate of delivery exceeds the rate of normal public speaking. There are rumblings within the debate community that CEDA speaking rates have increased, and may eventually become as fast as NDT debate. The problem is that the critics seldom quantify the rate, nor do they operationalize their definitions. The current study attempts to answer the simple question, "How fast do CEDA debaters speak?" By reporting quantitative measurement, a more precise estimate of CEDA speaking rates may be established.

PROCEDURES

The transcripts of the 1986 and 1987 CEDA debate finals were obtained, as prepared by James Brey of Florida State University. After consulting with Brey about editorial insertions and changes, this author modified to include only the the text of the actual debate. Untimed introductions, recognitions, conclusions, cross examinations, and editorial insertions (such as "laughter") were purged from the transcripts prior to analysis. Then the author used "Wordcount," a computer program developed by Kernigan and Plauger (1982) to count the actual number of words presented in each constructive and rebuttal speech. Kernigan and Plauger (1982) define a word as, "[a]ny sequence of alphabetic characters surrounded by nonalphabetic characters" (p. 30). Given this definition, the procedure is extremely accurate.

The total number of words were divided by eight for constructive and five for rebuttal speeches to determine an average wpm for each speaker. The author consulted with Brey to verify the accuracy of the time limits. After reviewing the video tapes, Brey suggested the time limits were very precisely followed, and that no speaker ended before his allotted time.

A reliability measure of the program Wordcount was obtained by the following procedure: it was compared to a manual counting of the exact number of words found in sixteen randomly selected pages (one from each speech) of the transcripts. The reliability of Wordcount in this study was as follows: N = 1 6 ;   x o f a = 234.94; x of b = 234.75; SD of a = 51.03; SD of b = 50.74; and r = .9998.

Three qualifications regarding the sample are appropriate. First, the data are only representative of CEDA, not NDT debate. Second, the data may not be representative of all CEDA-style debate because transcripts were only available for the first two final rounds of the CEDA National Tournament. Some readers, however, may consider the data relevant beyond CEDA finals because of the "role model effect" that national finalists allegedly have over other students in the activity. The third qualification of this research concerns the assumption that wpm is an accurate portrayal of speaking rates. It is obvious that some people have the physical characteristics needed to articulate and enunciate at rapid rates, while others do not. Spacing, pausing, and vocal variation in word length are also important considerations. Finally, no inferential statistical procedures were conducted given the limited nature of the data available; hence, generalization to all CEDA debaters should only be made with extreme caution. While these factors limit the generalizability of the data in this study, it is still valuable to establish a baseline measurement for future research concerning CEDA speaking rates, and to provide estimates that are more accurate than subjective speculation. Since the vast majority of the literature compares speaking rates by wpm, this study may be viewed as an extension of such research.

RESULTS

The results of speaking rates for the 1986, 1987, and 1988 CEDA final debate rounds are reported in Table 1. The analysis revealed that the first affirmative constructive speaker spoke 211 wpm in 1986, 219 wpm in 1987, and 216 wpm in 1988. The first negative constructive speaker spoke 262 wpm in 1986, 230 wpm in 1987, and 179 wpm in 1988. (The second affirmative constructive speaker spoke 249 wpm in 1986, 245 wpm in 1987, and 240 wpm in 1988.) The second negative constructive speaker spoke 237 wpm in 1986, 213 wpm in 1987, and due to technical difficulties the transcript of 1988 second negative constructive speech was not available.

The first negative rebuttalist spoke at 254 wpm in 1986, 244 wpm in 1987, and 222 wpm in 1988. The first affirmative rebut-

talist spoke 230 wpm in 1986, 246 wpm in 1987, and 248 in 1988. The second negative rebuttalist spoke 230 wpm in 1986, 229 wpm in 1987, and 277 wpm in 1988. The second affirmative rebuttalist spoke 253 wpm in 1986, 244 wpm in 1987, and 222 wpm in 1988. The total average for constructive speeches was 240 wpm in 1986, 227 wpm in 1987, and 211 wpm in 1988. The total average for rebuttal speeches was 242 wpm in 1986, 241 wpm in 1987, and 242 wpm in 1988. The total average for all speeches in 1986, 1987, and 1988 was 234.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study suggest that CEDA debate speaking rates are exceeding those which are generally considered to be at the top end of "normal" public speaking rates (100 to 200 wpm) range. Any discussion of whether or not faster speaking rates are desirable should address the issue of comprehension. Do faster speaking rates lower comprehension? While intuitively it seems that faster speaking rates would decrease comprehension, some data support the contrary. Voor and Miller (1965), for example, have reviewed the literature and discovered:

> When all other variables are controlled, the rate of delivery, whether hesitant (90 to 100 wpm) or rapid fire (350 to 500 wpm, rates frequently attainable only by mechanical manipulation of prerecorded material), does not significantly affect comprehension as measured by the number of facts or statement remembered, (p. 452)

Certainly, no debaters in the 1986-87 CEDA National final rounds have spoken at the rate Voor and Miller operationalize as a "rapid fire rate." The average rate for all of the debaters in the present study was approximately 242 wpm. Orr (1968) suggests, "[t]he exact degree of acceleration at which intelligibility and/or comprehension begin to decline is . . . about 275-300 wpm . . . " (p. 289). If Orr is correct, the average CEDA national finalists have not exceeded the range of comprehension over the past two years. Another important question is, Why do debater speaking rates exceed normal public speaking rates? Given the abundance of complaints about rapid delivery, it seems logical that debaters would slow down, if for no other reason, to appease their judges. This reasoning seems especially pertinent for those who subscribe to the philosophy that debaters speak rapidly for competitive reasons. Since a substantial number of CEDA judges apparently dislike rapid delivery, it would appear those debaters who desire to win would conform. The problem may be explained by several

overlooked factors which may also encourage debaters to speak more rapidly.

One reason why debaters may speak more rapidly involves the environment in which the activity takes place. Most intercollegiate debates take place in front of an audience of one person who serves as the judge. There is no public; thus, it seems presumptuous to expect that normal public speaking behaviors would result. DeVito (1981) explains:

> The size of the audience will also influence rate. Generally, the larger the audience the more slowly a speaker is expected to speak. This is actually related to the formality of the occasion. Generally, as the size of the audience increases, so does the formality. Both seem to call for a more measured, slower rate of speech. Small audiences, which are relatively informal, seem to allow for a more rapid-fire delivery (p. 339).

Debate competition is different from traditional public address because it takes place in a different environment. Should educators be surprised when debate speaking rates exceed other forms of public speaking? Can debate educators place students into an environment that encourages rapid speaking and expect them to speak slowly? It does not seem reasonable to ask debaters to pretend as if they were speaking to a large number of people, when typically they speak to a judge, their partner, and two opponents. Although larger audiences (10 to 15) are sometimes present for CEDA elimination rounds, those are generally small because many teams travel long distances and leave before the completion of the tournament. To those who advocate adaptation in CEDA, should we not expect debaters to adapt to their environment, as well as specific judges?

Second, debaters may speak more rapidly due to the amount of reading typically involved in debate. Competitive debate involves substantially more reading during the actual presentation than other public speaking situations. Most debaters are encouraged to support their arguments with published quotations. The literature has suggested for many years that reading orally occurs at a faster rate than does speaking extemporaneously. Brigance (1926) wrote:

> The average rate of reading on nontechnical matter is, perhaps, from 300 to 400 words a minute. The rate for technical matter or heavy reading of any sort may fall as low as one-tenth of this normal rate, but this rate of 300 to

> 400 words a minute holds for reading matter of roughly
> the grade as the average speech given before a general
> audience, (p. 341)

The literature suggests reading occurs at a faster rate than extemporaneous speaking. Thus, the need to read evidence could contribute to the rapid rate of speaking during debates. It appears that NDT debaters read greater amounts of evidence and speak more rapidly than CEDA debaters. The difference in the amount of time spent reading could account for a portion of the speed differential between the two.

There is little doubt that competitive motives also contribute to faster speaking rates, but competition is an inherent part of the debate activity. Can we make debating non-competitive and still call it debate? If situational, selection, and structural reasons contribute to a rapid rate of speaking, the nature of the activity may be as responsible as the participants for faster speaking rates.

Finally, we should consider whether debaters generally speak too fast or whether some critics of fast debate are simply deficient listeners. According to Jensen (1970):

> An average listener can absorb speech at about 400 words
> per minute, with a potential of perhaps double that. Experiments have demonstrated that a listener can comprehend a message that is abnormally speeded up far beyond
> the regular rate of a speaker (p. 128).

It is clear that Jensen was not referring to listening to technical presentations like academic debates; however, debate judges should consider honing their listening skills before concluding that all rapid speech is incomprehensible. Verderber (1984) suggests, "Usually even the fastest rate is acceptable if words are well articulated and there is sufficient vocal variety and emphasis" (p. 291). Bradley (1974) says, "Although some are critical of a fast rate of speaking, so long as the speaker can articulate sounds in a comprehensible way and it is appropriate to the situation, there seems little justification for antipathy to a fast rate" (p. 239). Thus, it may be more fruitful for forensic educators to train their debaters in ways to speak rapidly rather than criticizing them on judging philosophies, tournament ballots, and journal articles. It is evident that not everyone has the mental and physiological skills to speak at or listen to rapid vocal delivery. Competitive academic debate has among the fastest speaking rates for public forums. However, if the behavioral characteristics of the activity encourage faster rates, it may be unrealistic and unfair to attempt to suppress them. The

data from this study suggest that, while CEDA debating exceeds normal public speaking rates, it appears to be within the range of comprehension, assuming proper articulation. It should be stressed that proper articulation is essential to assure comprehension even at slower rates.

Future research should investigate several factors which may help to explain why debaters insist on rapid delivery. The content of CEDA debates should be analyzed to measure the percentage of evidence being presented to determine if the reliance on reading evidence significantly contributes to rapid delivery. Transcripts of nonchampionship CEDA debates should be analyzed to determine if the CEDA National finalists are substantially different from other CEDA debaters. Through collecting quantitative data, generalization concerning CEDA speaking rates will possess greater accuracy and validity compared to the speculation often currently reported.

TABLE 1

SPEAKING RATES OF THE CROSS EXAMINATION DEBATE ASSOCIATION NATIONAL FINALS 1986-87

SPEECH	1986 Words	WPM	1987 Words	WPM	1988 Words	WPM
1AC	1,685	211	1,749	219	1,725	216
1NC	2,098	262	1,843	230	1,435	179
2AC	1,988	249	1,962	245	1,922	240
2NC	1,895	237	1,707	**213**	*	
Totals	**7,666**	**240**	**7,261**	**227**	**5,082**	**211**
1NR	1,271	254	1,220	244	1,110	222
1AR	1,150	230	1,228	246	1,238	248
2NR	1,149	230	1,146	229	1,384	277
2AR	1,263	253	1,221	244	1,110	222
Totals	**4,833**	**242**	**4,815**	**241**	**4,842**	**242**
TOTALS	**12,499**	**241**	**12,076**	**234**	**9,924**	**227**

WPM = Words Per Minute
* = transcript not available

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A SURVEY OF FORENSICS ACTIVITY AT SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1987

Pamela L. Stepp and Ralph B. Thompson *

THE 1987 CORNELL FORENSICS SOCIETY SURVEY

Each year Directors of Forensics face the task of raising funds for the next year's activities. Fundraising at our institution typically includes application to the student activities fund, appeals to the deans of the various undergraduate colleges, direct approaches to the university administration, solicitation of alumni contributions, and the seeking of matching funds. Benefactors frequently ask how our program compares with other programs in size, scope, focus, cost, and staffing. Faced with the need to answer these recurrent questions and mindful that others might confront similar needs, we sought information.

In April, 1987, the Cornell Forensics Society prepared and distributed a questionnaire (Appendix A) to the forensics programs at 300 colleges and universities in the United States (listed in Appendix B). We chose the recipients from the membership lists of the Cross Examination Debate Association (CEDA) and the National Forensics Association (NFA). We received 144 responses, including doubled responses from twelve programs, a response rate of 45.3%.

Our survey sought to determine what kinds of activity take place in various programs, why those activities have been chosen, how the programs are staffed and financed, and how active various programs are. We also wanted to know to what extent students specialize in a particular branch of forensics, and to what extent students diversify their efforts (e.g., competing in both NDT and individual events).

Our data are descriptive. We will indicate occasions on which simple inspection suggests a trend or division, but we have applied no formal statistical techniques at this point in the analysis. Careful readers will note that the number of responses to various queries rarely, if ever, totals 144. In some cases, respondents omitted questions or failed to answer in accordance with the format provided. In others, respondents could make multiple responses, each of which was counted.

Since Cornell's program is an IE/CEDA program, we are in contact with more institutions having those interests than we are with NDT programs. Thus, our data do not suggest any conclusions about the relative popularity of IE, CEDA, and NDT. We do know that, overall, CEDA programs outnumbered NDT programs by about two to one in 1987.

Our 144 responses included mention of 120 programs offering individual events, 114 offering CEDA, and 33 offering NDT. At least one respondent also mentioned the following activities: Lincoln-Douglas format debate, readers' theatre, National Discussion Contest, speakers' bureau, parliamentary debate, public debate. We also asked what each respondent's specialty was. Two hundred nine coaches responded. Eighty-eight (42.1%) claimed CEDA as a specialty, 83 (39.7%) named individual events, and 38 (18.2%) named NDT. If we assume that coaches want to coach in their areas of specialization and that some coaches specialize in more than one activity, it seems likely that coaches are indeed working in their areas of expertise. Responses from 117 institutions included replies by the Director of Forensics; 27 did not. On the basis of this information, we feel that the information collected by the survey is both representative and reliable.

The data suggest that a coach's preference might be a factor in determining the nature of activity in a particular program. We wanted to find out whether other factors also influenced program orientation. We asked respondents to rank six possible determinants: *tradition, expense, administration preference, alumni preference, coach's preference,* and *student preference.* The results for IE programs, CEDA programs, and NDT programs can be seen in Figures 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Since some respondents did not rank the factors, we have omitted their responses here.

It is interesting to note the factors respondents considered *un*important. Alumni preference had very little influence on any program, an observation which corresponds with the relative lack of financial leverage alumni have (see further discussion in table 3 below). Expense was a relatively low priority, too, although more of a factor for IE and CEDA than for NDT. It appears to be of secondary or tertiary importance. In NDT and IE, both of which have long forensics histories, tradition was a major "rank 1" response. Tradition seems to be less influential in cross examination debate. Director preference and student preference are major determinants in all three activities. Overall, one gains the impressions that forensics programs are shaped by the preferences of those involved, that the people involved have come as a result of previ-

ous patterns of activity, that the institutions' administrations generally act as silent partners in direction, and that expense does not so much dictate *what* is done as *how much* is done. As Table 2 shows, programs of all types exist at all levels of funding.
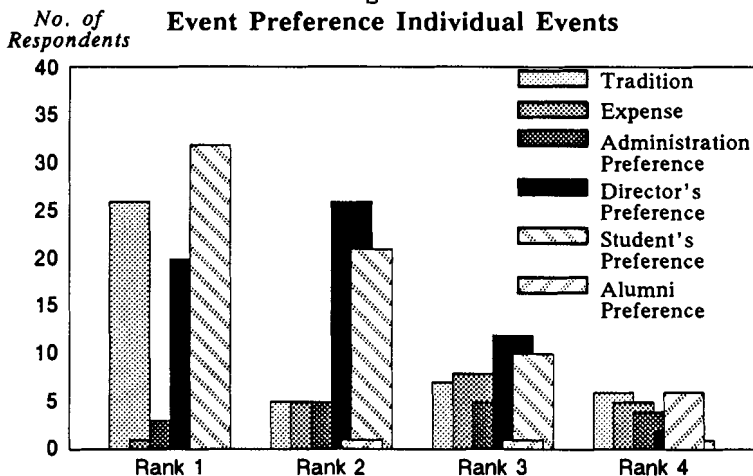
Figure 1

No. of Respondents

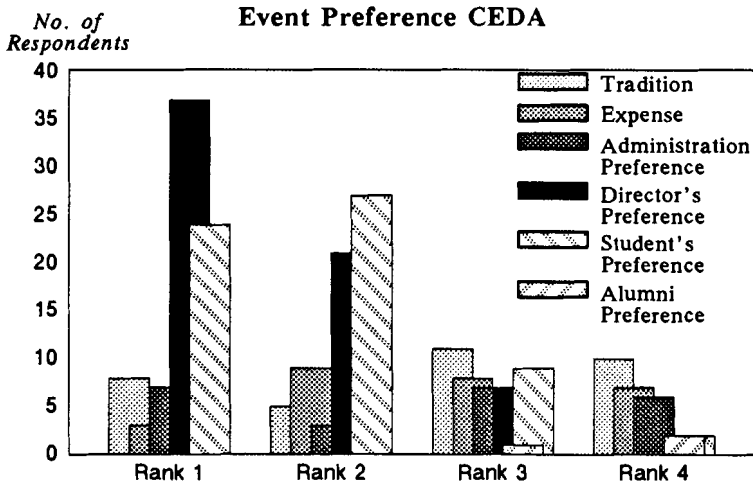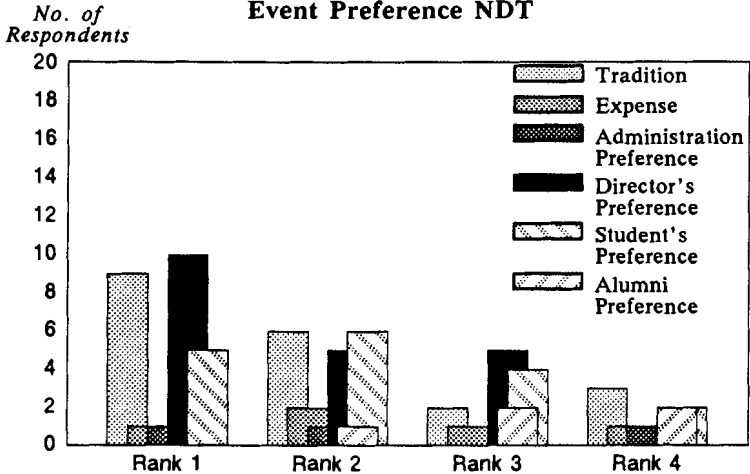**Event Preference Individual Events**

Figure 2

No. of Respondents

Event Preference CEDA

Figure 3
Event Preference NDT

Our survey next turned to the matter of staffing the programs. We distinguished among three types of staffing, based upon the staffing for our own program: faculty, graduate students who are remunerated either by salary or through tuition and fee reductions, and hired personnel who are neither departmental faculty nor graduate students. We expressed support in terms of FTE's (full time equivalents). Thus one FTE would mean one faculty member working full-time on forensics, one graduate assistantship dedicated to forensics, or one outsider hired to work full-time on the program. Figures 4, 5, and 6 show our results.
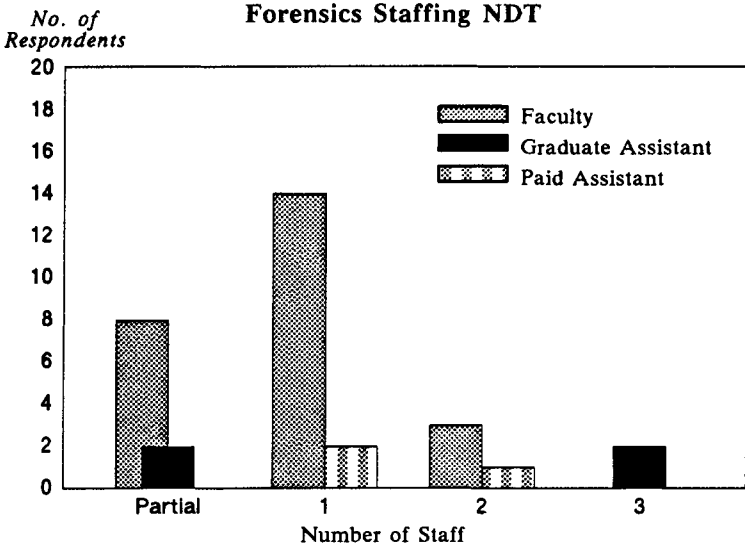
Figure 4
Forensics Staffing Individual Events
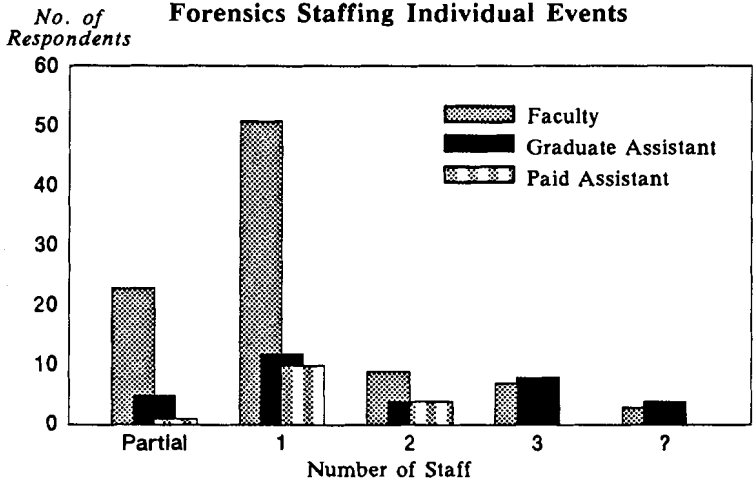
Figure 5
Forensics Staffing CEDA

No. of Respondents

Number of Staff
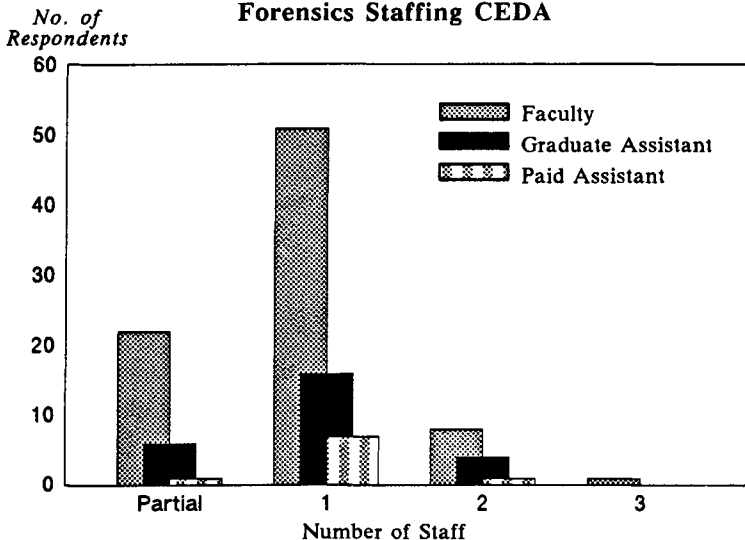
Figure 6
Forensics Staffing NDT

No. of Respondents

Number of Staff

Among individual events programs, by far the most popular pattern was one full-time faculty member. Next was a partial faculty FTE. Following that arrangement we found various combinations of graduate assistants and paid outsiders. Several IE programs reported two, three, or even more FTE's. CEDA program staffing

patterns closely resemble IE patterns, although staffs tend to be smaller. This finding makes sense when one compares the diversity of IE tasks with the relative homogeneity of tasks for CEDA speakers. NDT data also indicate staffing levels of one FTE or fewer, faculty being preferred.

In asking about annual budgets, we sought to determine levels of support exclusive of staff salaries or assistantships. Table 1 shows our results:

TABLE 1
LEVELS OF SUPPORT

LEVEL OF SUPPORT	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS (N=131)	PERCENT OF TOTAL
$ 0–2,000	3	2.3
2,000–6,000	15	11.4
6,000–10,000	26	19.8
10,000–14,000	25	19.1
14,000–18,000	20	15.3
18,000–22,000	11	8.4
22,000–26,000	9	6.9
26,000–30,000	9	6.9
30,000–40,000	7	5.3
40,000–50,000	3	2.3
50,000 and up	3	2.3

A few programs operated on very meager funds. The majority were spending between $6,000 and $18,000 in 1986–87. Above that amount lay another tier of programs with between $18,000 and $40,000 available. A few were spending $40,000 or more. This pattern resembles the pattern we will see in Table 4 below, reporting tournament activity. Since travel, lodging, and fees constitute the major line items outside of staffing, one would be surprised to find a different result.

Table 2 shows the allocation of funds to IE programs, CEDA programs, and NDT programs. Of course, many forensics programs involve more than one activity. An individual could travel to a given tournament and take part in either CEDA debate or on-topic debate, besides one or more individual events. Still, we believe that the figures shown in Table 2 are valid indications of the amounts typically spent on the three major forensics activities by the directors of various programs. In both IE and CEDA programs, one can see a structure of levels that resembles the levels of overall funding shown in Table 1. A group of programs operated with budgets of $2,000 or less; a second group worked with funds between $2,000 and $6,000; a third group used between $6,000 and

$16,000; and a fourth group had access to more than $16,000 for IE and CEDA in 1986–87. No clear trends appear in the small number of NDT reports, but programs operated throughout the scale range of Table 2.

From where does the money come? Many programs relied on two or more means of support. Of the 171 individual reports, 56 (32.7%) named the student activities fund, 94 (55%) mentioned university sources exclusive of the student activities fund, and 21 (12.3%) mentioned other sources. "Other sources" included the

TABLE 2
FORENSICS BUDGETS FOR IE, CEDA AND NDT

Level Of Support	IE Programs Reporting	CEDA Programs Reporting	NDT Programs Reporting
$ 0–2,000	7	6	3
2,000–4,000	12	10	2
4,000–6,000	18	12	0
6,000–8,000	7	8	4
8,000–10,000	8	8	1
10,000–12,000	6	7	2
12,000–14,000	7	4	0
14,000–16,000	2	5	2
16,000–18,000	1	1	1
18,000–20,000	2	2	0
20,000–22,000	0	2	0
22,000–24,000	2	0	0
24,000–26,000	0	4	2
above $26,000	2	0	0

University provost's office, alumni contributions, fees collected as tournament host, a student speakers' bureau, the Gannett News Foundation, privately endowed awards, DSR–TKA, and personal funding. A related question deals not with how *commonly* programs receive funds from a particular source, but with *what amount of* support such sources provide. Our findings concerning this question appear in Table 3. Evidently, "other sources" generally provided rather modest levels of funding for relatively few programs. Student activities fund support displayed a broad distribution, there appearing to be no typical level of support. University funding showed peaks between $4,000 and $6,000; between $14,000 and $16,000; and in excess of $20,000. Thus, university funding appears to be a driving determinant of the level of forensics activity.

TABLE 3
LEVELS OF SUPPORT FROM VARIOUS SOURCES

Level Of Support	Student Activ-ities Fund	University Funding	Other Sources
$ 0–2,000	5	5	9
2,000–4,000	3	8	4
4,000–6,000	5	16	6
6,000–8,000	6	7	0
8,000–10,000	8	8	0
10,000–12,000	4	8	1
12,000–14,000	5	7	1
14,000–16,000	4	10	0
16,000–18,000	1	6	0
18,000–20,000	4	4	0
above $20,000	11	15	0

While we solicited administrative information in the first section of our survey, we dedicated the second half to finding out the nature and scope of students' forensics experiences. Figure 7 shows the relative sizes of IE, CEDA, NDT, and "Other" forensics programs. Most NDT responses revealed small squads—typically 5 students or fewer. The typical CEDA squad was composed of 6–10 students (3–5 teams), but ten such programs reported involving up to 20 students, and five claimed to involve more than 50 students. IE squads ranged from 5 or fewer (17 responses) to more than 50 (5 responses).

Figure 7
Student Participation in Events

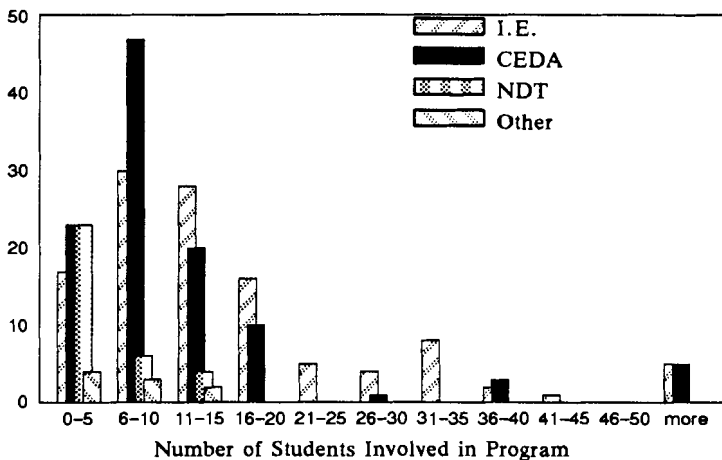*No. of Responses Received*

Number of Students Involved in Program

Table 4 provides an idea of the levels of tournament activity among the programs surveyed. As in some other items on the questionnaire, the item on which this table was based requested levels of activity in each forensics category. It does not distinguish between single-category programs and those which mount efforts in two or more categories. In Table 4 we appear to have the same four-tier structure noted in Tables 1 and 2. Among IE programs, one group attends 6 tournaments or fewer, a second group attends 8–12 tournaments, a third attends 15–18 tournaments, and the fourth 18–20. Responses from NDT programs do not show the same kind of clustering. This fact may be the result of the small number of programs reporting.

TABLE 4
NUMBER OF TOURNAMENTS ATTENDED ANNUALLY

Number of Tournaments Attended	Number of IE Programs Reporting	Number of CEDA Programs Reporting	Number of NDT Programs Reporting
1	0	0	1
2	2	4	3
3	3	6	0
4	6	3	3
5	5	3	0
6	6	3	0
7	1	1	1
8	10	9	4
9	4	2	1
10	16	8	3
11	3	3	0
12	15	17	3
13	0	3	0
14	2	6	3
15	9	11	1
16	6	5	1
17	2	1	0
18	1	7	0
19	0	0	0
20	5	8	4
more	9	0	1

Table 5 shows respondents' participation in various national tournaments. The table is self-explanatory.

TABLE 5
NATIONAL TOURNAMENT PARTICIPATION
(N = 287)

|		
CEDA	75	(26.1%)
NFA	66	(23.0%)
AFA	45	(15.7%)
Pi Kappa	41	(14.3%)
DSR/TKA	37	(12.9%)
NDT	20	(7.0%)
Phi Rho Pi	3	(1.0%)

The data for our question involving the national ranking of various respondents were unusable. Respondents based their replies on various ranking systems, leading to confusing claims.

Cornell's forensics program involves both IE and CEDA debate. Our coaches encourage members to take part in both activities in order to realize the benefits each activity offers. We wanted to know whether students in other programs competed in both IE and debate. One hundred twenty-nine programs responded. Eighty-two programs reported that crossover occurred; 47 reported that it did not. We inquired further for the basis or bases on which crossover took place. Of the 96 separate responses to this question, 9 (9.4%) required crossover, 35 (36.5%) recommended it, and 52 (54.2%) reported that crossover was voluntary.

The closing questions in the survey provide a closer analysis of crossover phenomena. There were 78 cases of crossover reported between IE and CEDA Debate; 13 cases of crossover between IE and NDT; 9 cases in which students performed all three activities, and 2 cases of crossover between NDT and CEDA. When we focused on the CEDA responses, we found 67 reports of crossover between CEDA and the public address events in IE (informative, persuasive, ADS, rhetorical criticism, extemporaneous speaking, imprompty) and 52 reports of crossover between CEDA and interpretation events. The popularity of public address events was expected; the degree of participation in interpretation was something of a surprise. Among NDT debaters the preponderance of crossover took place in the public address events. We speculate that the relatively recent growth in CEDA popularity and the greater emphasis in CEDA then in NDT on audience-focused performance may have led to adoption of CEDA by IE-centered programs or to the inclusion of IE in CEDA-based programs. The IE/NDT pairings probably reflect traditional programs. Surprisingly, nine programs report students involved in all three areas.

Figures 8 and 9 provide information about the particular individual events chosen by CEDA debaters and NDT debaters.

Figure 8
I.E. Events Chosen by
CEDA Debaters
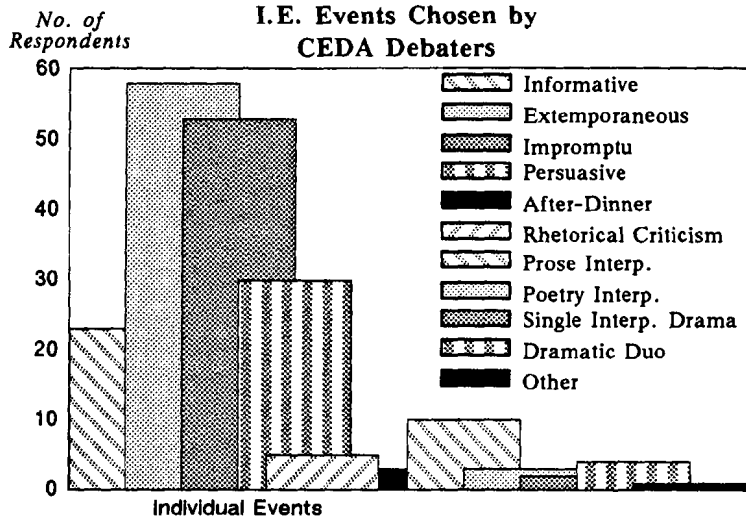
Figure 9
I.E. Events Chosen by
NDT Debaters
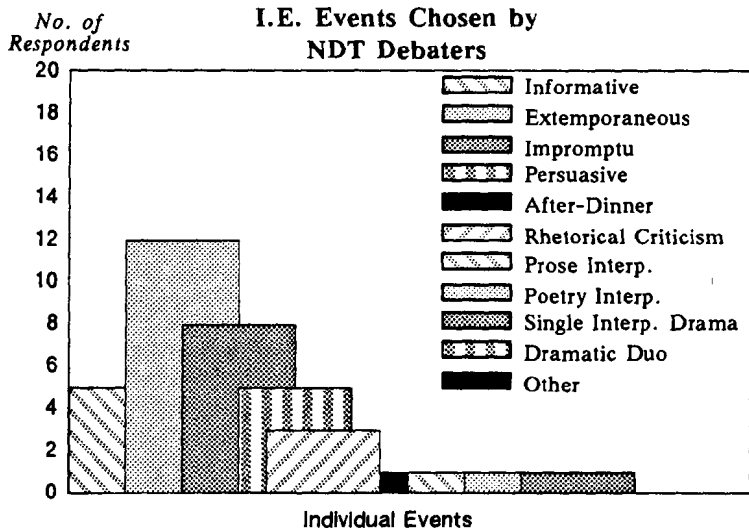
The data in figure 8 seem to contradict the data reported in the paragraph above. We believe that the disparity can be accounted for by simply examining the number of responses involved

(119 replies to the question whether CDEA debaters choose to cross to public address events or interpretation events; 192 replies to the query of which particular IE events CDEA debaters undertake.) Presumably, CEDA debaters enter two or more IE events. The data in figure 18 are unequivocal. Almost no interpretation participation is reported among NDT competitors.

Finally, our survey sought information about crossover between public address events and interpretation events among IE competitors. Ninety-seven of 107 respondents (90.7%) reported crossover in their programs. Of those 97 respondents, only 7 required their students to make the crossover. In 51 cases, coaches reported recommending the crossover, and in 52 cases students sought the experience. Since these figures total 110, we presume that some respondents indicated more than one decisive factor.

Our survey gathered information about college and university forensics programs. We inquired about types of activity, reasons for choosing those types of activity, levels of staffing characteristic of college forensics programs, levels of activity in those programs, and diversification of activity among the students participating. We found that, in general, director preference, student preference and tradition are the factors which shape forensics programs. The NDT programs responding to our survey tended to be small operations with few participants and modest staffing levels. CEDA and IE programs exist at many levels of activity. Funding for forensics programs could be divided into four tiers, and those four tiers appear to be reflected in four levels of tournament activity. For the most part, programs are funded through the institution they represent, either through student activities funds or other institutional monies. Not only are institutional funds the most common source of support, they are also the largest source. Student "crossover" in event participation is more common between CEDA and IE than between either of these types of program and NDT, and the type of crossover tends to be between the public address events in IE and the debate activity. Within IE programs, there appears to be considerable crossover between public address events and interpretation events, largely as a result of student choice.

Directors of Forensics may no longer have to seek support funds in some remote future, but for the present they are likely both to need to search out money and to justify the practices of the programs they run. The survey reported here hopes to provide some baseline information to help the forensics professional describe his/her program and compare it with others of its kind.

APPENDIX A
CORNELL UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

As the director of Cornell University's forensics program, I want to gather information on dother forensics programs in the country. Please take a few minutes to help by answering the questions below.

Thanks so much,

Pamela Stepp, Director of Forensics
Department of Communication
508 Mann Hall
Cornell University
Ithaca, NY 14853

SECTION A. GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE QUESTIONS

1. Your name _____

   College/Unversity _____

   City _____ State _____ Zip Code_____

2. Is your speciality: IE ___ ? CEDA ___ ? NDT ___ ? Other ___ ?
   Are you the Director of Forensics at your institution? Yes ___ No ___
   If not, what title do you hold? _____

3. What forensics activities does your institution conduct?
   IE ___ CEDA ___ NDT ___ Other: _____

4. Why does your institution compete in the following events? (If there are
   two or more reasons, please rank them 1, 2, 3, etc.)
   IE: tradition ___ CEDA: tradition ___ NDT: tradition ___ Other: tradition ___
       expense ___   expense ___   expense ___   expense ___
       director pref ___   director pref ___   director pref ___   director pref ___
       student pref ___   student pref ___   student pref ___   student pref ___
       alumni pref ___   alumni pref ___   alumni pref ___   alumni pref ___

5. What staffing does your institution provide for:
   a. Individual events   b. CEDA
       1. number of FTEs (faculty) ____ 1. number of FTEs (faculty) ____
       2. number of grad assistants ____ 2. number of grad assistants ____
       3. number of paid assistants ____ 3. number of paid assistants ____

   c. NDT   d. Other: _____
       1. number of FTEs (faculty) ____ 1. number of FTEs (faculty) ____
       2. number of grad assistants ____ 2. number of grad assistants ____
       3. number of paid assistants ____ 3. number of paid assistants ____

6. What is your approximate total budget? $_____
   a. $_____ allocated to IE
   b. $_____ allocated to CEDA
   b. $_____ allocated to NDT
   b. $_____ allocated to other activities

7. How is your program financed?
   a. $_____ from student activities funds
   b. $_____ from university funding
   c. $_____ from other sources
   d. Please describe other sources: _____

SECTION B PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

1. How many students participate in: IE_____ CEDA_____ NDT_____
   Other _____ ? (If IE and debate are separate at your institution, please
   indicate "separate" and estimate numbers if necessary.)

2. How many tournaments do you send students to each year in:
   a. IE___ b. CEDA___ c. NDT___ Other (specify)_____

3. Which national tournaments do you send students to? NDT_____
   CEDA _____ NFA_____ AFA_____ DSR-TKA _____
   PI KAPPA _____ OTHER_____

4. What is your institution's national ranking in:
   IE_____ CEDA_____ NDT_____

5. Do students in your program cross over between IE and debate?
   YES ___ NO ___
   (If "yes," please answer the questions below; if "no," go to ques. 6.)
   a. What is the basis for cross over?
      1. Required____
      2. Recommended____
      3. Voluntary____
   b. How many students do:
      1. IE and CEDA_____
      2. IE and NDT_____
      3. IE, NDT, and CEDA____
      4. Other combinations_____
   c. What IE areas do your CEDA debaters compete in?
      1. public address. How many compete_____
      2. oral interp. How many compete_____
   d. What individual events are most popular among your CEDA debaters?

6. Among your IE students, do students do both public address and in-
   terp?____
   If "yes," what is the basis for cross over?
   a. required_____ b. recommended_____ c. voluntary_____

7. How many students do public address only?_____ interp only?_____
   How many students do both?_____

Thanks again for your help!

APPENDIX B

TALLY SHEET - FORENSICS SURVEY

Abilene Christian Univ.
Univ. of Alabama
Arkansas Tech.
Bakersfield College
Bee County College
Bloomsburg Univ.
Bowling Green Univ.
Brevard Community College
Bringham Young Univ.
Butler Univ.
Univ. of California at Los Angeles
Cal. State Univ. at Bakersfield
Cal. State Univ. at Long Beach
Cal. State Univ. at San Bernardino
Carroll College
Central State
Clemson Univ.
Univ. of Colorado (Boulder)
Creighton Univ.
David Lipscomb College
Eastern Illinois Univ.
Eastern New Mexico Univ.
College of Eastern Utah
Elmhurst College
Emory Univ.
Findlay College
Fort Hays State College
Harding College
Hofstra Univ.
Illinois State Univ.
Indiana Univ.
Ithaca College
Lewis and Clark College
Louisiana State Univ. at Baton Rouge
Macalester College
Marist College
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Univ. of Miami
Millsaps Univ.
Univ. of Missouri at St. Louis
Murray State Univ.
Nebraska Wesleyan
Univ. of North Carolina Charlette
North Central College
Northern Missouri State Univ.
Univ. of Notre Dame
Oklahoma Christianf College
Univ. of Oregon
Parkersburg Community College
Prairie View ATM Univ.
Rice Univ.
Rio Hondo College

Air Force Academy
Appalachian State Univ.
Univ. of Arkansas
Ball State Univ.
Biola Univ.
Boston College
Bradley Univ.
Bridgewater State College
Brookdale Community College
Univ. of California at Berkeley
Cal-Poly San Luis Obispo
Cal. State Univ. at Fresno
Cal. State Univ. at Northridge
Capital Univ.
Central Missouri State College
Chadron State College
Colorado College
Columbia Bible College
Cypress College
DePaul Univ.
Eastern Michigan Univ.
East Texas State Univ.
Edison State College
Emerson College
Ferris State
Univ. of Florida
Georgetown College
Hillsdale College
Idaho State Univ.
Indiana/Purdue Univ. Fort Wayne
Indiana Univ. - East
King's College
Loras College
Luzerne College
Mankato State Univ.
Marshall Univ.
McLennan Community College
Michigan State Univ.
Univ. of Missouri at Kansas City
Missouri State College
Muskingum College
Univ. of New Mexico
Northern Arizona Univ.
North Dakota State Univ.
Univ. of Northern Iowa
Ohio University
Old Dominion Univ.
Univ. of Pacific
Pittsburg State Univ.
Plymouth College
Richmond Univ.
Rocky Mountain College

TALLY SHEET - FORENSICS SURVEY

PAGE 2

Saint Alselms College
Seattle Pacific Univ.
Southern Ill. Univ.
Univ. of Southern Louisiana
Stephen S. Austin State Univ.
Texas A & M
Townson State Univ.
Tyler Junior College
Wayne State Univ.
Washburn Univ.
West Point
Western Washington Univ.
Wichita State Univ.
Winona State Univ.
Univ. of Wisconsin at Madison

St. Olaf College
Southeast Oklahoma State College
Southwest Univ.
Southwest Missouri State Univ.
Syracuse Univ.
Univ. of Toledo
Trinity College
Vanderbilt Univ.
Wake Forest Univ.
West Chester Univ.
West Virginia Wesleyan
Wheaton College
Wilkes College
Univ. of Wisconsin at Eau-Claire
Univ. of Wisconsin at Stout

REVIEW
OF PROFESSIONAL RESOURCES
JACK KAY, EDITOR

John K. Boaz & James R. Brey, *Championship Debates and Speeches,* vol. 2, American Forensic Association, 1987. ($10.00).

The publication of *Championship Debates and Speeches* in 1986 replaced the annual publication of a transcript of the final round debate at National Debate Tournament in the *Journal of the American Forensic Association.* The new publication includes a transcript of the final round debate at the CEDA national tournament, as well as transcripts of the winning speeches in public address events at both AFA-NIET and I.E. Nationals sponsored by NFA. Publication of the best in American forensics in any given year is undoubtedly intended to serve several functions. First, it allows those unable to attend national tournaments a chance to see what takes place. Second, it provides a pedagogical tool for teachers and coaches—offering examples of winning speeches and debates. Finally, it provides a record of activities in the forensic community in any given year.

Championship Debates and Speeches provides an excellent record of what was "hot" in individual events and debate in 1987. However, as a pedagogical device, its use is limited. Several features cut against the usefulness of the volume as a teaching (or coaching) aid. First, while the debate transcripts are interesting to coaches and debaters, they are of limited use to anyone not already familiar with the concepts of debate. That is, a reader must be familiar with the terminology of debate, as well as the issues that have been argued on a particular topic, to understand fully the progression of argument in a debate. However, both debates transcribed in *Championship Debates and Speeches* do provide excellent examples of affirmative case construction. Both Baylor (NDT) and Macalester (CEDA) present clear, well-structured cases that would provide an excellent model even for beginning debaters.

A second weakness of *Championship Debates and Speeches* as a pedagogical tool stems from its limited coverage of final rounds at the individual events national tournaments. It is apparent from my personal experience and from judge comments printed in the volume that, in many instances, judge decisions are not unanimous in

final rounds. Thus, it is valuable to see the differences among speeches in a particular round. Toward this end, the Interstate Oratory Association, for example, includes *all* speeches from a given year in its publication, *Winning Orations.* With the availability of final round videotapes from I.E. Nationals, it is possible to show students the other speeches, but it would also be informative to include them in the volume.

A third weakness of the volume stems from the inclusion of judge critiques. In principle, it is an educationally useful practice to include judge comments, so that readers can see how particular arguments in debates are resolved and how particular approaches to public speaking "play" before judges. In practice, judge comments tend to presume an expertise in forensics beyond that of many students. In addition, only comments on the first place winners in individual events are included. It is difficult to understand a ranking without some understanding of the others that were ranked.

I do not mean to suggest that *Championship Debates and Speeches* is without value. It remains the only permanent record (as far as I have been able to determine) of NDT, CEDA and AFA- NIET champions. Further, it makes interesting reading for students, teachers and coaches with some experience in debate and individual events. However, broader coverage of individual events and the inclusion of pedagogically-based critiques would improve its usefulness.

Matthew Sobnosky
University of Nebraska
Lincoln, Nebraska

Winfield, Collette Mikesell, *Original Oratory,* Kansas City, MO: National Federation of State High School Association, 1988. ($1.00)

    The author of this pamphlet begins with the observation that "the most excellent oration speaks to the mind; it touches and moves the heart; it sings in the soul." Given this orientation, she proceeds to develop a brief, introductory guide for high school students of original oratory.

    The 29-page pamphlet ambitiously ranges over a broad array of topics, from the classical foundations of oratory to commonly used persuasive devices and delivery; this pamphlet offers begin-

ning students a glimpse into the rich tradition and complexities of the oration.

The strength of Winfield's essay are several. First, she offers students useful, practical advice on improving the quality of gestures and rekindling "freshness to the delivery of the oration." Further, the text is easy to read and clearly reflects Winfield's obvious enthusiasm for her subject matter. The text should also give students a sense of the classical conception of oratory—a theme too often overlooked in competitive forensics.

Still, Winfield's text is marked by several specific weaknesses and limitations. The most apparent is its breadth; that is, Winfield sacrifices depth in the interest of addressing a broad range of topics. For example, Winfield advocates "extensive research" to aid "the student in fulfilling the logos requirement of oratory," yet her discussion of research is confined to a list of possible sources for student orators. Winfield makes no mention of how to conduct a program of research on a topic, nor does Winfield provide her readers with insights into the evaluation of the evidence research procures.

Second, Winfield pays scant attention to the overall organization of the oration. She urges her readers to " . . . be patient with the development of ideas and with the development of the oration" and advocates that students "write down everything" as they are preparing their speeches, but she neglects to suggest how students then craft their thoughts into a coherent whole.

Finally, the text suffers from an absence of explanation in some key areas. For example, Winfield writes in her treatment of pathos: "Often an entire oration can be hung on a poem, a short story, a novel, a play, a character in a play, short story, or novel." Unfortunately, she does not detail how the student orator might effect such a "hanging."

Despite these weaknesses, Winfield's pamphlet might serve as an engaging supplement and/or introduction to a more fully-developed text or course in public speaking. In either case, its value would depend upon the educator's ability to provide a more thorough and balanced account of oratory.

Kate Joeckel

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EDITOR'S FORUM: A Summary of the National Developmental Conference on Individual Events

*Vicki L. Karns and Larry Schnoor**

In August, 1988, ninety-two people met in Denver, Colorado, for the first National Developmental Conference on Forensics. While no one was quite sure just what to expect, everyone seemed excited, willing to cooperate, and committed to work for the good of the field. Over the next three days, the Conference participants attended work sessions in nine different areas. They socialized together at the Conference luncheons, dinners, and social hours. In the final hours of the Conference, everyone met to provide colleagues, students, and administrators not attending suggestions for improving Individual Events. By examining the preparation for, execution of, and evaluation of the Conference, an understanding of what actually happened in Denver can be achieved.

PREPARATION

At the second National Developmental Conference on Forensics at Evanston in 1984, the group working on issues related to Individual Events recommended that a conference devoted to Individual Events be held. After several months of deliberation and exploration, we volunteered/were appointed to forge ahead to see if there were any real interest in such a Conference.

Backed with the support and approval of all of the major forensic organizations, we designed a survey to determine areas of interest, appropriate dates and times, and individual interests. This questionnaire was mailed to all schools/universities on the AFA and NFA mailing lists, as well as any other names/addresses we could obtain. The response was overwhelmingly positive. After tabulating the results, ten areas are interest/concentration were established:
   • standards for evaluation/judging of individual events;
   • role of research in individual events;
   • tournament management practices;

- high school-college connection in individual events;

- use of workshops for training judges/coaches;
- creative events/original material in individual events;
- of graduate assistants in the individual events program;
- administrative support/publicity;
- ethical questions for coaches and competitors; and
- a rationale for events to be included in IE competition.

The date was set and the location was finalized. We were on our way!

EXECUTION (THE CONFERENCE)

While a publication will be forthcoming with all of the papers and conference proceedings, an overview of the conference is appropriate. We were very encouraged when, at registration, we had copies of all but three of the papers to be presented. (In defense of the three missing papers, their authors had been told by their respective Chairs that papers were not necessary at Registration!?) People were clearly well prepared and ready for this conference.

We were also excited about the fact that there were representatives from 25 states representing 45 programs. Forensic students from high schools, junior colleges, commuter campuses and universities all were present. There was also an excellent cross-section of the "old and new." From newly-retired forensic directors to newly-degreed forensic coaches, the experienced, tried and true met with the excited to be tried and new!

Attendance was excellent at all of the sessions. Even though the weather was beautiful in Denver, and the hotel had a tempting health club complete with pool, sauna and masseur, people attended the sessions regularly. The Chairs responded promptly by submitting the summaries of the work-group's accomplishments. The undergraduate and graduate students from Mankato State University and Regis College worked long and hard to type, copy, and distribute these summaries to conference participants.

In the final gathering, everyone met to discuss the various suggestions provided by the respective groups. While most suggestions were accepted with little disagreement or dissension, there was enough conversation to keep the session lively. However, we do feel we set a record by actually ending a conference EARLY! While there were suggestions made concerning all of the areas of concentration, the prevailing attitude was that Individual Events has certainly come a long way from its humble beginnings a few short decades ago. Given the relatively young age of our field, the

concerns and problems we are experiencing are normal "teenage problems." Unfortunately, several of the issues that have confronted us from the very beginning are still troubling us today. Ethical issues, winning vs. educating, and over-burdened coaches are but three issues that will undoubtedly continue to confront us.

EVALUATION

An in-depth and complete report on the evaluation of the conference will be presented in the Conference publication; however, two areas emerged as issues for special attention for the next conference. These issues were parliamentary sessions and publicity.

The first issue concerned the last session. Since this Conference was patterned after the first two Developmental Conferences on Forensics, we included a parliamentary procedure meeting for the final sessions. However, after the pamphlets had been published and the schedule set, we started to receive a great deal of concerned feedback about that session. To avoid any negative feedback from people not attending and to accommodate the limited time available, we announced that votes would not be taken on issues; instead suggestions would be presented for discussion, and all of the discussions would be published in the Conference Proceedings. While some people disagreed with this decision and felt mere suggestions carried no weight, others liked the idea of the entire group meeting together for discussion and sharing. It is definitely an item to consider for the second Conference.

The second area of concern was publicity. People responded on the evaluations that "more people should have been notified." Over seven hundred letters/pamphlets were mailed out during our preparation period. We attempted to reach everyone involved with IE, and we were very pleased with the turn-out. The Second Developmental Conference on Forensics had 125 participants from both debate and individual events. For us to have almost as many people attending a Conference for just IE was rewarding.

We are very aware, however, of the need to reach even more people for our next conference. High school representatives, administrators, and students are all people we would like to have attend. We are also aware of the need to publicize in the newsletters and publications of the professional organizations. While many of these publications were notified, we were not listed in their calendars. All in all, however, the evaluations indicated that the Conference was a positive step forward for the field and they it should be succeeded by others.

Many of the positive aspects of the Conference cannot be addressed in the suggestions presented by the groups. The spirit of cooperation and reconciliation was very encouraging. People worked together regardless of affiliations and philosophies. Plans for a national newsletter are currently underway. Research projects and ideas are being formulated. New suggestions are being incorporated into tournament rules and regulations, and talk has already begun for the next IE conference. We are looking forward to planning the next conference, and we welcome your suggestions, ideas, and, most importantly, your attendance and participation!