THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCOLLEGIATE FORENSIC ACTIVITIES, 1915-1956

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

D. J. NABORS, JR.

Norman, Oklahoma

1957

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/242

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCOLLEGIATE FORENSIC ACTIVITIES, 1915-1956

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

To Dr. Gail Shannon, gratitude is expressed for his advice and generous help in the planning and preparation of this dissertation. As chairman of the committee, his knowledge in the fields of education and research, and years of experience have enabled him to be of invaluable assistance to the writer.

To Dr. A. J. Croft, co-chairman of the dissertation committee, the author is especially grateful for his advice, untiring efforts, and patience. His experience in the field of research in speech has been used to direct the study from the viewpoint of locating and evaluating sources of materials.

To Dr. Jack Douglas, Dr. Chester S. Williams, and Dr. Henry Angelino, sincere thanks are due for their reading and evaluating of the manuscript and their helpful suggestions and criticisms.

D. J. N.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	vii
Chapter	
I. THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY	1
Introduction	1
Related Studies	2
Purpose of the Study	4
Plan of the Study	5
Sources of Data	7
Preview of Remaining Chapters	7
II. THE PATTERN OF FORENSIC DEVELOPMENT, 1915-1956	9
Introduction	9
Activities during World War I	12
Early Development	14
Re-evaluation	22
Forensics Today	26
III. THE FORENSIC FRATERNITIES	32
Introduction	32
Delta Sigma Rho	33
Tau Kappa Alpha	38
Pi Kappa Delta	43
IV. INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATE	57
Introduction	57
The Origin and Development of Intercollegiate Debate	58
The Debate Tournament	62
Selecting the Debate Question	65
International Debating	70

Chapter Page

Innovations in Debate 73
Summary 83

V. INDIVIDUAL FORENSIC EVENTS 85

Introduction 85
Oratory 86
Extemporaneous Speaking 95
Student Congress 102
Intramural 109
Summary 114

VI. THE HISTORY OF CONTEST JUDGING 117

Introduction 117
The Plan of Contest Judging 118
Types of Debate Judging 120
Criteria of Debate Judging 131
Summary 146

VII. THE CONTEMPORARY FORENSIC PROGRAM 148

Objectives and Principles 148
Contemporary Evaluation of the Fraternities . 153
Contemporary Evaluation of the Tournament and Contests 155
Contemporary Evaluation of Debate 159
Contemporary Evaluation of Individual Events 163
Future Trends in Forensic Development 170
Summary 179

BIBLIOGRAPHY 182

APPENDIX

A. A LIST OF OFFICIAL DEBATE QUESTIONS, 1920-1956 204

B. A LIST OF QUESTIONS USED DURING THE DEBATE SEASON OF 1921-22 210

C. QUESTIONS USED BY THE BRITISH TEAMS IN 1930-31 214

D. A FOLLOW UP STUDY OF WINNING COLLEGE ORATORS FOR 28 YEARS 217

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Men's Debates	16
2.	Women's Debates	17
3.	Men's Oratory	18
4.	Women's Oratory	18

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure Page

1. Membership Growth of Pi Kappa Delta 54

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCOLLEGIATE FORENSIC ACTIVITIES, 1915-1956

CHAPTER I

THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The term "speech" is a generic term that includes a number of subdivisions such as: public address, dramatics, interpretation, radio, and speech correction. One of the most significant members of the speech family is forensics which includes the original speech activities--debate, oratory, and extemporaneous speaking--which are the foundation of the intercollegiate speech contest program.

During 1956, almost two hundred intercollegiate debate tournaments, or speech festivals, were held in the United States, with over fifty colleges sending representatives to some of them. Several tournaments attracted teams from an area of fifteen to twenty states; in some instances teams participating numbered almost two hundred. Three forensic fraternities held national tournaments or legislative assemblies for students. The forensic fraternities maintained

chapters on four hundred college campuses and increased their membership substantially. One forensic fraternity added more than eight hundred new members for the year and reached a grand total of 30,000 members who had qualified for membership through their forensic activity.

Related Studies

An examination of related studies revealed that few studies had been made in the field of intercollegiate forensics. Included were several which were limited to specific schools or states. Sillars,[1] Tewell,[2] Cowperthwaite,[3] and Davis[4] made regional studies in the history of debate or forensics. A case study of former intercollegiate debaters was made by Murphy[5] while an analysis of intercollegiate oratory

---

[1]Malcolm S. Sillars, "A History of Intercollegiate Debate at the University of Redlands" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Redlands, 1949).

[2]Fred Tewell, "A History of Intercollegiate Debate in the State Collegiate Institutions of Louisiana" (unpublished Master's thesis, Louisiana State University, 1949).

[3]Lowery L. Cowperthwaite, "Forensics at the State University" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1943).

[4]Frank B. Davis, "The Literary Societies of Selected Universities of the Lower South" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1949).

[5]John W. Murphy, "A Follow-up Study of Former Intercollegiate Debaters" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1953).

was prepared by Laase.[1] Barber[2] made a survey on the secondary school level by sending a questionnaire to the secondary schools of the North Central Association.

Conklin[3] examined the status of debate tournaments in the United States by sending a questionnaire to tournament directors. Murrish[4] made a comparison of debate judging procedures used in tournaments at the University of Denver. The results were primarily a comparison of debates in which the critic judge was used and debates in which opponents ratings were used. Level[5] did research on the objectives of debate using a questionnaire sent to the sponsors of the chapters of Pi Kappa Delta.

The most comprehensive investigation was that made

---

[1]Leroy Laase, "The History of Intercollegiate Oratory in the United States" (unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University, 1929).

[2]G. Bradford Barber, "An Analysis and Evaluation of Forensic Contests as Conducted in the Secondary Schools within the Area of the North Central Association" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1953).

[3]Royal F. Conklin, Jr., "A History and Analysis of Debate Tournaments in the United States" (unpublished Master's thesis, Baylor University, 1950).

[4]Walter N. Murrish, "An Analysis of Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Debate Tournament Procedures" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Denver, 1954).

[5]David A. Level, Jr., "The Objectives and Effects of Debate as Reported by Sponsors of Pi Kappa Delta" (unpublished Master's thesis, Purdue University, 1956).

by Potter,[1] which was a historical survey of debating in the colonial chartered colleges for the period 1642-1900. Potter's study was limited to debate in the ten colonial colleges and did not include any of the developments since 1900.

An investigation has been made of these studies through correspondence with their authors and through review of abstracts and monographs.

An examination of the studies made in intercollegiate activities revealed a lack of comprehensive research in this area. The rapid growth of forensic activities made it a fertile field for organized investigation and the American Forensic Association had pointed to the need for compilation of the history and development of forensics. These were determining factors in the selection of the subject for study.

Purpose of the Study

The primary function of this study is to provide an understanding of the current status of the forensics program of American colleges and universities, and to examine its present relationship to the programs of higher education, in order that its future development may be properly guided. In order to provide this understanding of forensics, it will be necessary to present a history of the development of

---

[1]David Potter, "Debating in the Colonial Chartered College: A Historical Survey, 1642-1900" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1954).

intercollegiate forensic activities from approximately the time of World War I until the present.

The college forensic program actually consists, however, of a related group of activities. Each of these major activities has developed during this period in unique ways. The best understanding of the total development of forensics, therefore, can be provided by examining the pattern of development of each of these activities separately. Along with the growth of these activities, and inescapably correlated with their growth, has been the development of systems of and criteria for judging.

This study, consequently, has as its purpose to provide an understanding of modern forensics both by examining its over-all development since about 1915, and by examining the development of its constituent activities and of judging practices.

The study was limited to five events or activities, namely: debate, oratory, extemporaneous speaking, the student congress, and intramural activities. Special attention was given to the debate tournament and the speech meet. The interpretative events were disregarded as well as the minor events sometimes included in the speech meet.

Plan of the Study

In the study, the aim was not to present a year by year factual history of all forensic activities, but rather

to take from the literature and historical records in forensics, information describing the development of the basic intercollegiate forensic activities. These were traced from their point of origin, through periods of growth, to their present status.

The logical plan for the study called for a preliminary chapter that presented the pattern of development from the re-awakening following World War I, through the period of steady growth of the 1920's, rapid expansion in the 1930's, a period of maturity and re-evaluation in the 1940's, to their present status. The organization, development of policies, and activities sponsored by the forensic fraternities were emphasized because of the effect that the fraternities had on the development of forensics. More attention was given to debate as the central activity of the program. Individual events that provided the balance necessary in a well rounded program were considered as they developed. Special attention was given to the organization of the forensic program on the regional and national level as well as on the campus. Because of the critical position of the judge in the speech contest, a special chapter considering the purposes, criteria, and methods of judging was included. Present objectives and status of forensics were summarized in a final chapter which could serve as a basis for an evaluation of the contemporary forensic program.

Sources of Data

In selecting materials for the study, an examination was made of books and articles in the field of speech with special emphasis on the area of forensics. Articles were used from the various publications in the field of speech and forensics. Reports and records of the three forensic fraternities were examined; regulations of one hundred intercollegiate tournaments and festivals were used for reference and analysis, as well as the membership records of thirty thousand members of Pi Kappa Delta, the largest of the forensic fraternities. The calendar of events compiled by the American Forensic Association was used as a basis of tabulating a summary of the tournaments and festivals held during the year.

The author was fortunate in having available the historical records of Pi Kappa Delta including its correspondence files as well as the only complete record of its publication, The Forensic. Early issues of this magazine were not placed on file in libraries such as the Library of Congress, and have not been accessible to other students of forensic history.

Preview of Remaining Chapters

The material for the study falls logically into seven chapters. Following the introduction, a general survey of the growth and development of forensic activities for the

period 1915-1956 is presented in Chapter II. Because of the important contributions of forensic fraternities, their activities over a period of time are reviewed in Chapter III, with emphasis on policies evolved and activities sponsored.

Debate being the most important of the forensic events, Chapter IV gives special consideration to that activity. From time to time many events have been tried as contests; however, the basic individual forensic events are oratory, extemporaneous speaking, and the student congress. The status of these activities is examined in Chapter V. As the foundation of a good forensic program is a sound intramural program, intramural forensics was included with the individual forensic events.

More criticism has been directed to the method of judging than any other phase of the speech contest program. Because of the importance of judging, Chapter VI gives a review of the special problems of judging methods and criteria that have been developed for the judge. Chapter VII presents a review of the contemporary forensic program, including goals that have been established and the current status of debate, oratory, extemporaneous speaking, the student congress, intramural activities, and the tournament. Such a summary of present day forensic activities may provide the foundation for a follow-up study to evaluate the forensic program.

CHAPTER II

THE PATTERN OF FORENSIC DEVELOPMENT, 1915-1956

Introduction

Following a brief glance at forensics in history, consideration will be given to those activities during World War I. The 1920's saw a steady growth in forensic activities with the development of the debate tournament and experiments with new contests. The period of the 1930's was one of rapid growth and expansion in which the tournament became the center of forensics. During the years of World War II, interest in forensics shifted from tournament activities to extemporaneous speaking contests, designed to strengthen our war effort and create good will with our neighbors in the hemisphere. The realities of the war effort helped to inaugurate a period of re-evaluation of forensic practices. Following World War II, the major tournaments were revived and the West Point Invitational Tournament was created to serve as an unofficial National Tournament. Experiments with different methods of judging, new contests, and variations in the older events were resumed in the late 1940's. Finally, a picture

of the typical forensic program today, based on two surveys made in the early 1950's, is presented.

Reference to debate and persuasive speaking are found in the earliest records in existence. Forensic activity flourished during the period of Grecian history when democracy first came into prominence and declined when the institutions of democracy crumbled, with several centuries passing before it was revived. During the middle ages, debating activities began in the church institutions and were carried on by theological students. Scholastic debate concerned with theological problems became the bulwark of education and the individual's education consisted of little more than a series of debates.

The syllogistic disputation was developed in the European universities as a means of testing students in the classroom, and the American colonial colleges adopted the technique. It was used not only as a teaching and testing device but as a means of displaying the accomplishments of the students at commencement. Later the forensic disputation displaced the syllogistic providing a more balanced rhetoric with the addition of ethical and emotional appeals to the foundation of logic on which the early form was based. The use of English rather than Latin added to the popularity of the forensic disputation.

The rise of the literary society in the colleges saw

a decline in the use of the forensic disputation and the gradual deletion of rhetoric from the curriculum in many colleges. Only the programs of the literary societies provided training in forensic speaking. For a time the literary society was responsible for the training that was to be given later through the speech department and the extracurricular program in forensic activities.

The societies featured student directed opportunities for practice in oratory, declamation, debate, dramatic production, and other literary activities, free from faculty censorship. They sponsored magazines, imported prominent speakers, and conducted exhibitions for the entertainment of college students, faculty, and townsfolk. From the beginning until their decline, the societies' main activity was debating; by the end of the eighteenth century, many of the societies had adopted the extempore method of debate.

Intramural contests sponsored by the literary societies led to contests between societies in different schools and paved the way for intercollegiate contests which developed later in the nineteenth century. Home-and-home debates, the formation of leagues, and tours that extended from coast to coast brought a demand for courses and facilities in debate.

The formation of leagues such as the Interstate Oratorical League in 1874 and the Northern Oratorical Association

in 1890 and early experiments in intercollegiate debate followed by the formation of the forensic fraternities laid the groundwork for the use of forensic activities as an educational tool to be widely used in the growing colleges and universities of the United States.

Activities during World War I

With the entrance of the United States into World War I many men were inducted into the armed forces with the result that some colleges dropped debate or curtailed the activity to a great extent. In many colleges the admission of girls to debate kept the activity alive. To the surprise of many who thought the budding forensic program would pass out of existence during the war years, it proved to have the stamina that was to characterize it in later years. Much of the credit for the continuity of the program was attributed to the three forensic fraternities which continued their established policies of holding national conventions. Every chapter of Pi Kappa Delta remained active during the war.

With fewer debates being scheduled, individual speakers offered their services to the governmental agencies responsible for the promotion of the Red Cross drive, bond drives, and other programs that provided opportunities for the four-minute speaker. The transcontinental tours that were to become an important phase in the growth of forensics were continued in spite of the war.

With debates being held over the nation, teams began to travel distances. Columbia University sent a team to the Pacific Coast debating many colleges en route, among them the Southern California Law School at Los Angeles.[1] In 1916, the University of Redlands, Redlands, California, entered the interstate field of activity and sent a team as far east as Topeka, Kansas.[2] Princeton University made a tour to the West Coast and met Occidental College and the University of California at Berkeley.[3] Morningside College from Sioux City, Iowa, traveled to Redlands and met two other colleges on the coast. Middle western colleges toured the east, debating as many as eight or nine colleges en route and taking an entire month for the trip. During this period debate was still largely an extracurricular activity with some schools providing little faculty assistance for the young student activity. In many cases, students had to resort to money-raising schemes as a means of financing debate and oratory.

In 1916, a questionnaire survey was developed by the national secretary of Pi Kappa Delta to gather statistics on debating. Among other things, it was found that a majority of the institutions reporting did not have a special teacher

---

[1]Egbert R. Nichols, "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 5-8.

[2]"History of Pi Kappa Delta," The Forensic, VIII (1923), p. 9.

[3]Nichols, op. cit.

for debate or public speaking. The departmental affiliations of the coaches of debate were as follows: English, twenty-six; public speaking, twenty-nine; history, nine; economics, seven; sociology, four; debate and parliamentary law, four; not listed, four; ancient languages, three; law, three, politics, one; public discussion, one; extension, one; no coach, two; English and public speaking, eight; history and English, one; and history and public speaking, one.

Fifty-two institutions did not give credit for debate. Eight institutions gave one hour of credit; thirty-four gave two hours credit;nine gave three hours; and two gave four hours, making a total of fifty-three which gave college credit for debate. Eighty-one institutions reported courses in argument. One college was found requiring a one-hour course in debate each term for three years.[1]

In spite of the difficulties imposed by the war, intercollegiate forensics came through this period in good condition. With a substantial background, it was ready to advance from the extracurricular to a well earned place in the regular curriculum.

Early Development

The decade of the 1920's was characterized by a number of new developments including the first debate tournament

---

[1]Egbert R. Nichols, "Statistical Summary of the Forensic Year, 1916-17," The Forensic, III (1917), p. 1.

and the first national contest in extemporaneous speaking. It saw the first of the international debates that were to have a definite influence on debating in the United States. The policy of selecting the official debate question started during this period. The number of institutions offering men's debate increased one hundred per cent, and the number offering debate for women grew at an even greater rate. Experiments were started with non-decision debating, the use of the audience decision, and the Oregon Plan, or cross-examination debate. In time, the use of the single-critic judge became widely adopted because of the difficulty of securing judges for tournament use.

Developments that resulted in a rebirth of debate activities just at the time when some leaders thought that debate was in a dying stage were: the formation of the three forensic fraternities; the birth of the debate and forensic tournament.

Other factors accounted for the progress of debating, among which were intercollegiate rivalry, improvement in the methods of debating, debating leagues, the two team or triangular system, the increase in the number of college students, the debating honor societies, and the debate trip.

A later survey indicated that the average college was more likely to have from six to ten debates annually, with one college engaging in sixteen in one year. Of the

five hundred colleges and universities in the United States as of 1922, fully three-fourths engaged in debate, with at least two-fifths of the institutions participating on a major scale.[1]

The steady increase in forensic activities was revealed in a study reported in The Forensic in May, 1925, and which serves as the source for Tables 1 through 4. Based on reports received from 104 of the 108 institutions having chapters of Pi Kappa Delta, it indicated substantial increase in the number of schools participating in debate.[2]

TABLE 1

MEN'S DEBATES

Year	Number of institutions reporting	Number of debates reported	Average number of debates per institution
1915	48	136	2.83
1916	59	174	2.94
1917	62	183	2.95
1918	55	160	2.90
1919	57	182	3.19
1920	67	229	3.41
1921	81	323	3.98
1922	90	458	5.08
1923	92	545	5.16
1924	99	621	6.27
1925	102	749	7.33

[1]Egbert R. Nichols, "Some Remarks upon Intercollegiate Debating," The Forensic, VIII (1922), p. 7.

[2]"The Business Side of Forensics," The Forensic, XI (May, 1925), pp. 1-9.

Table 1 revealed an increase in the institutions engaged in debate from 48 to 102 in the ten-year period covered by the survey. The average number of debates per institution more than doubled in the five-year period from 1920 to 1925, increasing from 3.41 in 1920 to 7.33 in 1925.

Table 2 shows an even greater increase in debates for women with an increase from nine institutions using women in debate in 1915 as compared to a total of 79 in 1925.

TABLE 2

WOMEN'S DEBATES

Year	Number of institutions reporting	Number of debates reported	Average number of debates per institution
1915	9	18	2.0
1916	13	22	1.69
1917	18	38	2.11
1918	9	20	2.22
1919	14	28	2.0
1920	23	49	2.13
1921	31	73	2.35
1922	44	115	2.61
1923	52	134	2.57
1924	54	184	3.40
1925	79	325	4.12

Tables 3 and 4 which include data of a ten-year study on participation in oratory revealed an increase from 44 institutions participating in men's oratory in 1915, to 84, or almost twice as many, in 1925. The number of oratorical

TABLE 3

MEN'S ORATORY

Year	Number of institutions reporting	Number of contests reported	Average number of contests per institution
1915	44	65	1.47
1916	46	85	1.84
1917	52	80	1.53
1918	45	62	1.37
1919	46	61	1.32
1920	54	77	1.42
1921	57	84	1.41
1922	65	101	1.55
1923	75	122	1.62
1924	80	145	1.81
1925	84	155	1.84

TABLE 4

WOMEN'S ORATORY

Year	Number of institutions reporting	Number of contests reported	Average number of contests per institution
1915	9	14	1.55
1916	9	12	1.25
1917	9	15	1.66
1918	10	13	1.30
1919	8	11	1.37
1920	14	16	1.14
1921	11	17	1.54
1922	22	28	1.27
1923	28	38	1.35
1924	31	49	1.57
1925	34	55	1.62

contests reported more than doubled, increasing from 65 to 155. During this period, similar reports have indicated that the average number of contests per institution remained almost constant. A full program of forensics included debate, oratory, and extemporaneous speaking for both men and women. Only 19 schools included in the survey scheduled contests in all six activities.

Rapid Expansion

The decade of the 1930's saw the rapid expansion of the debate tournament concurrent with the depression. In 1931 a list of tournaments included less than a dozen while a roster made at the end of the decade would have included ten times as many. Tournaments of all types were attempted. Many were started that did not last more than one or two years; some were for novice debaters; others included separate divisions for men and women or classified teams according to college rank. Most of the tournaments included only debate, but in time, oratory and extemporaneous speaking were added. The forensic meet with a myriad pattern of events was developed to include as many as fifty different individual contests. In a few exceptional cases, a festival of individual events was held. Even the non-decision tournament had its advocates; in some instances this feature was combined with the orthodox tournament with two or more non-decision rounds being used preliminary to the decision rounds.

A popular feature of the tournament was the use of preliminary rounds in which each team was assured of a definite number of debates, regardless of the number won or lost. The traditional format was the use of an elimination bracket using all teams that had won a prescribed number of debates. Sometimes a team was placed on the bracket, regardless of loss record--if its rating had been high.

This period saw the development of direct-clash debate, and a continuation of international debating, although the excitement generated by the early tours of the British teams had subsided.

In 1930 an investigation on the cost of oratory and debate was sponsored by the Missouri and Kansas Association of Debate Coaches. A summary of the results follows:

1. The average number of debates a year for these colleges was 23 intercollegiate contests.
2. The number of debates on a local campus averaged 8 a year; the number of off-campus debates averaged 15 intercollegiate contests.
3. The average budget for forensics was $432.00 a year.
4. The average budget for oratory was $127.00 a year.
5. The average for all debates was $28.00.
6. Fourteen of the 25 schools did not purchase keys for Pi Kappa Delta members; nine schools did so.
7. In only 4 of the 25 schools did the school itself, through its administration, contribute to forensics. In only one school did the administration give more than the students to forensics; in only one school were the amounts equal.
8. The average salary of the 24 debate coaches replying

was $2583.00 a year. The highest salary paid to a public speaking teacher was $4,000.00 a year; the lowest, $200.00 a year.

9. A total of $17,000.00 in these 25 schools was collected from activity fees for forensics.

10. The amount of the activity fee apportioned for forensics varied from $0.24 to $3.60 per student, with an approximate average of $1.00.[1]

In spite of the increase in participation in forensic activities during this decade, the program was subjected to severe criticism from several sources. Objections were directed to the tendency in some schools for debaters to debate both sides of the question. The emphasis on logic with the resulting technical case often went over the heads of the audience and in many areas audiences diminished in size until they were almost non-existent.

In an attempt to meet the criticisms, many variations were tried--the direct clash and the cross examination types of debate; the use of the extemporaneous style; and experiments with different types of judging, such as the non-decision debate, the use of a critic judge, and the shift of opinion ballot.

The popularity of the tournament resulted in many being established. This activity brought together a large number of students and teachers with a common interest. To a large extent it answered the problem of judging and lack

---

[1] "Cost of Oratory and Debate," The Forensic, XV (1930), p. 384.

of audience.

Re-evaluation

As the period of the 1940's arrived, the intercollegiate forensic program had reached a period of maturity in which directors began to re-examine their programs. Many schools had concentrated on a tournament program to the neglect of other phases of forensics. The continuation of experiments with new forms of contests and methods of judging indicated a desirable state of self-examination and a desire for improvement in the methods that had been developed.

New methods of co-ordinating forensic activities in the form of the pentathlon and the forensic progression made their appearance. Judging by opponents was tried.

World War II contributed to re-evaluation of forensics with a decrease in contest activity and the added realism of speaking for various phases of the war effort.

In 1940, Irvin made a survey by sending a questionnaire to a selected number of schools to determine what constituted a well-rounded forensic program. Replies were received from 91 institutions representing 30 states. His report revealed that the Middle West preferred the critic judge and three-judge decisions while the South and East favored non-decision debates.[1]

---

[1]Tucker Irvin,"Current Forensic Practices," The Forensic, XXV (1940), p. 76.

The questionnaire revealed that the orthodox form of debate was by far the most popular. The results which follow indicated that over four-fifths of the schools preferred this form.

Orthodox	80.5%
Direct clash	9.3%
Oregon cross question	5.8%
Other forms	4.6%

Several experiments were being carried on with a number of forensic contests in the various tournaments. Debate remained the most popular event followed by oratory and extemporaneous speaking. The results of the survey revealed the following participation in twelve events with only two schools having had participators in all of the contests.[1]

Debate	95.9%
Oratory	85.7%
Extempore	80.5%
After dinner	61.5%
Group or public discussion	48.4%
Poetry reading	46.3%
Radio announcing	38.5%
Impromptu	29.8%
Problem solving	20.8%
Harangue	12.1%
Situation oratory	9.9%
Response to the occasion	8.8%

World War II caused the raising of the question of the place of forensics on a college campus during war years. In some schools debating and forensic events were canceled and in others the contest phase of the program was curtailed. Many colleges looked for ways and means of correlating the

---

[1] Ibid.

forensic program with the war effort.

An editorial in The Forensic announced:

> Forensics may be used as a direct means towards carrying out our military program, whether or not we enter the war. It is necessary that our citizenry be made to see and understand the issues involved. The discussion by thousands of high school and college students of defense, preparation, alliances, and public expenditures will bring to the people of the United States information which they would not receive in any other way. The result is the feeling of mutual responsibility characteristic of the family relationship.
>
> The days ahead are going to be serious ones fraught with tragic consequences. It is the responsibility of each of us to make forensics worthy of a place in our democratic life. We must train those qualities which will help to make America safe and secure in war or peace, the land of the free and the home of the brave.[1]

A National Extempore-Discussion Contest on Inter-American Affairs was conducted to further the study of Pan-American unity and understanding. Those who survived the district and regional contests participated in a final contest in Washington, D. C., with the award for the delegates who participated in the National Finals being a tour of South America during the summer of 1942. This contest was endorsed by President Roosevelt in the following words:

> I have long been keenly interested in public forums and round table discussion groups as democratic means of developing popular understanding of pressing public issues. Now under the impact of the defense emergency, I am convinced that it is more important than ever that the people, and particularly the students in our colleges and universities be encouraged to assemble freely to discuss our common problems. Indeed, this is one of the freedoms that we are determined to defend. I am happy

---

[1] "Forensics in a Warring World," The Forensic, XXVI (1941), p. 139.

> to endorse participation in the National Extempore-Discussion Contest as a program peculiarly adapted to the exercise of this liberty.[1]

Another contest of the war period was conducted by the American Economic Foundation through a series of radio debates on the question: "Does youth have a fair opportunity under our American system of competitive enterprise?" This project sought to bring before the American public the essential facts in the field of economic and social relationships. The final debate was broadcast over the "Wake Up, America" program of N. B. C. Blue Network, May 10, 1942, and cash prizes of $1,000 and $500 were given to the winners.[2]

It was predicted that the forensic world would not return to its pre-war status; that more forensic activities could be expected although radical changes would be made in the execution of the forensic program. One change that was anticipated was the attitude toward winning contests. With a war in progress, the mere winning for its own sake seemed less important. It was suggested that the post-war world would be more realistic; that there would be more speaking for a cause rather than for a decision.

The end of the war saw the resumption of the major tournaments and an increase in the number of new tournaments

---

[1]"Franklin D. Roosevelt," The Forensic, XXVII (1942), p. 85.

[2]"News from the Chapters," The Forensic, XXIX (1943), p. 24.

until after ten years of peace the number of tournaments had doubled.

One of the outstanding post-war events was the establishment of the National Invitational Tournament at West Point Military Academy. This tournament has been marked by such skillful and well-planned management that it has been rated as the best tournament in the nation.

In order to select teams for the West Point Tournament, in 1947 the United States was divided into eight districts. A committee for each district was designated to choose the teams which were to represent the district at West Point. Thirty-two teams were selected from the eight districts, with the winner of the preceding year and the West Point team being added to make a total of thirty-four teams selected to meet at the Academy in April. The winner of the West Point Tournament was recognized as the unofficial national champion.

Another significant advance in forensics has been the development of the American Forensic Association (1949) which has made an attempt to unify the forensic program by issuing an annual forensic calendar and developing standardized ballots for contest use.

Forensics Today

The present decade has witnessed a continued expansion of forensics. New tournaments have been established

and the number of tournaments has increased almost 100 per cent since the close of World War II. During the past two years Pi Kappa Delta issued charters to 15 new chapters and the other fraternities have expanded also. Forensic squads have increased in size until several staff members are needed to direct the activity.

A representative picture of the typical intercollegiate forensic program of today can be obtained from the results of a recent study in forensics. In a normal post war year, 1953, the average forensic program operated on a budget of $1312 and provided experience for 27 debaters in 143 debates. Eleven debaters participated in 10 audience debates and 23 debaters took part in 107 tournament debates. Less than half of the debaters appeared before audiences. There was an average of seven home-and-home debates during the year; however, the average in this category was affected by the heavy occurrence in the East where one school had 101 home-and-home debates on its schedule. Outside of the East, this type of debating almost reached the vanishing point.

Thirteen students participated in three discussion events. Ten took part in four extemporaneous speaking events. Five students engaged in three original oratory events and fifteen students in nineteen speakers' bureau events. Activity through the speakers' bureau was concentrated in the Middle West.

This study found a definite correlation between the size of the forensic budget and the quality of the program. This type of forensic activity comprised only a small part of the total program. The average cost per debate was only $9.17, or $4.59 per student. The typical forensic group ranges in size from 25 to 50 students. Nearly 40 per cent of the programs included some sort of speakers' bureau and the occasional use of radio and television was in evidence.[1]

In 1953 a special committee was appointed by the executive committee of Delta Sigma Rho to study standards and objectives in forensics in colleges and universities in the United States. The report of this group revealed that of the schools responding, 80 per cent had departments of speech while most of the remainder operated their forensic programs as a part of the Department of English. Most schools had one full-time forensic director; many had two; 10 per cent of the colleges utilized the services of three forensic men; and a few had four or five on the forensic staff.

Forensic directors reporting indicated that debate, discussion, extemporaneous speaking, and oratory were of great importance to the forensic program; nearly 40 per cent of the forensic programs included some sort of speakers' bureau as one of their activities. Coaches and administrators

---

[1]Austin J. Freeley, "An Examination of the Status Quo," The Gavel, XXXVI (1953), pp. 8-12.

did not condemn oratory but actually showed more interest in oratory than in discussion.

Only three schools included in the survey did not attend tournaments. The remainder attended from one to over eleven tournaments per year, although 30 per cent of the schools did not sponsor tournaments of their own. More than one-half of the forensic directors believed that student interest had increased during the last ten years (1945-1955).

College administrators included in the poll were strongly in favor of having the forensic program open to all who desired to participate, although some modified this opinion by advocating try-outs. There were three areas in which administrators felt that the forensic program did not live up to the objectives that it should have: (1) providing worthwhile forensic programs for the general student body, (2) increasing the knowledge of the participants in current affairs, and (3) increasing the knowledge of the student body in current affairs.

It was in the realm of the objectives of the forensic program, also, that much of the criticism expressed in the literature has come. These criticisms may be summarized in this way: (1) the objectives of forensic programs have not kept pace with the changing needs of college students; (2) too much attention is paid to winning debates and tournaments, not enough to adequate training of good speakers; (3) forensic

programs no longer perform a useful service to the community (evidenced by the lack of audiences at forensic events).

At the same time, there was some indication from the survey that the present program was not completely satisfactory. The great amount of criticism in the literature, the expressed attitudes of administrators, the feelings of many directors of these programs--all would indicate some revitalization was in order to achieve more desirable results. Specifically, improvement would be indicated in the following areas: (1) a broader forensic program of activities, (2) a broader participation base in the forensic program, and (3) a continuing evaluation of desirable objectives of a forensic program and a careful thinking through of methods of achieving these objectives.[1]

A positive sign of the continued growth and vitality of forensics is that resulting from the tabulation of the events sponsored in intercollegiate tournaments and festivals. The directory of the American Forensics Association revealed that for the year 1956-57, 150 tournaments or speech meets were held including debate as an event. Oratory was included in 53 meets or tournaments, followed closely by extemporaneous speaking in 52 events. Discussion ranked fourth being used 37 times, and the student congress was included

---

[1]J. Garber Drushall, David C. Ralph, Clayton S. Schug, and N. Edd Miller, "Report of the Special Committee on Standards and Objectives," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 73-80.

in seven meets. Another wholesome sign was the number of tournaments and meets that included direct clash, cross examination, the pentathlon, the forensic progression, and other variations from traditional debate. No adequate record is available for the total participation in the 150 intercollegiate events that were sponsored. With attendance running into the hundreds at some of these meets and with from 100 to 200 debate teams participating, total attendance and participation would reach into the thousands.

The picture for the year would not be complete without including the many intramural activities and the off-campus events sponsored through speakers' bureaus. For each speaker competing in off-campus activities, several probably took part in intramural or on-campus events which would increase the total number of students receiving benefits from participation in forensic activities during the year.

CHAPTER III

THE FORENSIC FRATERNITIES

Introduction

Three forensic fraternities have been responsible for the development of many forensic activities and their contributions to the field have established practices now accepted as standard procedures. Because of the important role these organizations have had in the history of intercollegiate forensics, a review of their history is presented.

For Delta Sigma Rho and Tau Kappa Alpha, a three-fold arrangement was used with sections including the establishment of the fraternity, development of its policies, and the contemporary organization. Five division were used for Pi Kappa Delta, including the establishment of the fraternity, the national conventions, the development of policies, the period of national tournaments, and the contemporary organization.

As the official policies were determined at the business sessions of the national conventions, the history was directed primarily toward the actions resulting from these

sessions. More attention was given to Pi Kappa Delta as it has become the largest of the three with more chapters than both of the other fraternities in the field. Also, Pi Kappa Delta developed its program of national contests earlier and on a more extensive basis.

Delta Sigma Rho[1]

The Establishment of the Fraternity

Origin.--The Delta Sigma Rho Fraternity was established in 1906 as an outgrowth of several activities such as that of the Northern Oratorical Association and the local honor societies for orators and debaters in a number of universities. Although such groups as the Forensic Honor League of Minnesota, The Debating Club of Chicago, and The Think Shop of Nebraska had been organized, there was no national society to co-ordinate the work of the local clubs.

The idea of an intercollegiate national society occurred almost simultaneously to Eugene A. McDermott of the University of Minnesota and Henry E. Gorden of the University of Iowa. During the next year and a half, investigations made among other universities and colleges revealed interest in such a movement. Persons called into consultation were Thomas C. Trueblood, University of Michigan; Olin C. Kellogg, Northwestern University; and Soloman H. Clark, University of

---

[1]"History, Constitution, and General Regulations of Delta Sigma Rho," The National Society of Delta Sigma Rho (Manhattan, Kansas: Kansas State College, 1949), pp. 2-18.

Chicago.

First General Council.--As a result of the consultation, delegates from seven universities met at the Victoria Hotel in Chicago, Friday, April 13, 1906, to participate in the organization of the first forensic fraternity. The nine delegates present established the ideals of the society and planned not only a professional organization but a distinctly high type honor fraternity to be controlled by alumni and faculty. The first question considered was whether the society should be Greek or English in name; a Greek name was chosen. The next question advanced related to whether or not the society should be secret in nature. In the early years the secret features were stressed, but in time these disappeared; Delta Sigma Rho became a non-secret society. Committees were appointed to adopt appropriate emblems, insignia, and to prepare a constitution. Further action included the decision to organize a council composed of one member from each of the institutions represented, with the council member from the mother chapter, Minnesota, as general secretary.

Development of Policies, 1908-1936

During its early years the organization was held together only by the persistence and faithfulness of the sponsors with no definite provisions having been made for financing. It was decided to seek to attract the larger univer-

versities and those having well established local forensic organizations, to expand slowly, to maintain high standards of speaking, and to admit only those well qualified for the honor of membership. The basic principle was that the member himself, by faithful and excellent work in forensics, earned an honor and the society recognized that honor by making him a member.

The policy of not admitting "honorary" members was adopted. Only persons who had spoken in an intercollegiate forensic contest were eligible for membership. The first information brochure of Delta Sigma Rho ended with the statement: "The society will stand for sincere and effective public speaking, for pure and effective citizenship, for discipline and useful scholarship."

1911 General Council.--The General Council of 1911 dropped the annual chapter fee of $5.00 and replaced it by an individual initiation fee of $3.00. It decided also to establish an official magazine, The Gavel.

1913 General Council.--The 1913 Council adopted a budget system for expenditures of the national officers, and the creation of a permanent fund out of part of the revenues of the society.

1915 General Council.--A smaller key was adopted, one jeweler authorized to supply it, and all orders authorized by the national secretary. The Council also opposed the use

of a coat of arms and the placing of the insignia on banners, pennants, or objects other than the regular key. The Council authorized the national officers to elect ten members a year from institutions that did not have chapters, to be known as members-at-large.

1920 General Council.--Regulations were adopted to strengthen each chapter and to provide continuity by appointing alumni to act in place of the chapter officers in times of emergency. The national initiation fee was raised to $5.00 a member.

1922 General Council.--The power to organize local chapters was taken away from the General Council and invested in the Executive Committee. The initiation fee for individuals was raised to $10.00 and the charter fee to $100.00. Fees from the charters and alumni memberships were to be placed in a trust fund. The president was empowered to limit in any given year the number which a chapter could elect to membership.

1926 General Council.--It was voted to create a special fund to pay the expenses of delegates to the General Council meetings by designating $2.50 of each initiation fee for this purpose. Each chapter was required to bring its local history of forensics up-to-date, and the establishment of alumni chapters was encouraged.

1931 General Council.--Action was taken to safeguard the standards already in force as to installation of chapters

and initiation of members; to provide for safe filing and keeping of chapter records in loose-leaf notebooks; to allow initiation of candidates when they had reached the junior year; to control, manage, and invest moneys of the society; and to audit and print annual reports of the Treasurer in The Gavel.

The Contemporary Organization, 1936-56

1936 General Council.--The General Council meeting at St. Louis, recommended the study of plans for a Student Congress to be held bienially, and the first Student Congress sponsored by Delta Sigma Rho was held in Washington, D. C. in April, 1939, with nearly 150 delegates present. The second Student Congress was held in 1941 with 250 delegates from 44 chapters in attendance for the three-day session. The Congresses were interrupted by World War II, and the third one was not held until 1947. The fourth and fifth meetings of the Congress were held in Chicago in 1949 and 1951.

An important change made at the 1953 convention was to limit membership to students ranking in the upper 35 per cent of their classes. Following the sixth Congress in 1953, no meetings were planned for 1954 or 1955 in order to allow more time in preparation for the 1956 Golden Jubilee Convention and Congress. The seventh National Student Congress was one of the features of the Golden Jubilee Convention. A travel subsidy was made available to all chapters in order

to increase attendance. One of the special features of the convention was the recognition of outstanding alumni.

Chapter Activities.--While Delta Sigma Rho is primarily an honor organization, many of the local chapters have sponsored activities to give their members social recognition on the campus. They have also sponsored intramural forensics, provided speakers for off-campus gatherings, engaged in discussions of current questions with audience participation, and have tried in other ways to raise the standards of good speech. Alumni have offered prizes and awards for intramural contests. Graduates in several cities have organized alumni chapters. As Delta Sigma Rho entered its second fifty years, it maintained chapters in schools that reached two-thirds of the college students of the United States and was in a good position to take the lead in promoting intercollegiate forensic activities.

Tau Kappa Alpha[1]

The Establishment of the Fraternity

Tau Kappa Alpha, the second of the forensic fraternities, was organized in the State Capitol of Indiana, May 13, 1908, in the office of Hugh Th. Miller, the Lieutenant Governor of the state. At first, membership was limited to

---

[1]Charles R. Layton, "History of Tau Kappa Alpha," in Argumentation and Debate, ed. David Potter (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954), pp. 475-490.

college men who had represented their institution in intercollegiate contests. The organization was planned as an honorary fraternity similar to Phi Beta Kappa and Tau Beta Pi, honorary literary and engineering fraternities.

Tau Kappa Alpha was originally organized with the state as the chapter unit, and each state was to be governed by a council which was to select for membership the outstanding debaters and orators from the colleges of the state, with the elections being approved by the national council. The state chapter unit proved to be unfeasible and limited the appeal and growth of the society to the extent that the constitution was amended to provide for separate college chapters.

Development of Policies, 1913-1939

Tau Kappa Alpha Conventions.--Early in its history Tau Kappa Alpha adopted the policy of holding national and regional conventions and conferences. These conventions were primarily business sessions and many of them were arranged to coincide with the meetings of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, which later became the American Speech Association. Although Tau Kappa Alpha considered adopting a contest program for its national conventions similar to Pi Kappa Delta, definite action was not taken until after the depression when its first Forensic Progression was held in 1939. Among the more important national conventions were

those held at Indianapolis--1913, 1914, 1916, and 1926; and Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, 1929. During the depression the national conventions were dropped for economic reasons, and the business of the fraternity was carried on by the National Council.

1916 Convention.--The 1916 National Convention voted to admit women intercollegiate debaters to membership. The constitution and ritual were revised; eligibility requirements were increased, and a policy of expansion was planned.

1926 Convention.--At that time the policy of establishing regional organizations within the fraternity was inaugurated, and the National Council designated ten areas as districts with the eastern chapters holding the first district meeting at Williamstown, Massachusetts. Later the districts were reduced to seven and became essential parts of the society with each being represented on the National Council by its regional governor.

To extend the prestige of the organization into different areas, Tau Kappa Alpha adopted the policy of selecting for its prominent officials, nationally known leaders in governmental, educational, and professional circles. Their national presidents have included: Albert J. Beveridge, United States Senator from Indiana; Dr. Guy Potter Benton, President, University of Vermont; Charles Brough, Governor-elect of Arkansas; and Dr. John Quincy Adams, head of the Department of Speech, Louisiana State University, who served for ten years.

In the middle 1930's, Lowell Thomas was elected president. He was one of the best known speakers of the day, and stimulated new interest in the organization because of his outstanding reputation as a radio commentator.

The Contemporary Organization, 1939-56

First Forensic Progression.--From time to time, interest had been expressed in the establishment of a national forensic program for members of Tau Kappa Alpha, and the first attempt to meet this demand was called a "Forensic Experience Progression in Contest Form Sponsored by Tau Kappa Alpha." It was held at the national convention of Teachers of Speech at Chicago, December 27-29, 1939, and was directed by Hale Arne, then chairman of the Department of Speech, University of South Dakota. This activity was continued for several years in connection with the program of the National Association. The time of the meeting was changed to the spring in 1946, with Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, as host.

Student Congress Added.--In 1947, a Student Congress was added to the national convention at Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, May 8-10. The University of Indiana staged a similar meet for Tau Kappa Alpha in April, 1948; Purdue University again served as host in 1949. Debate and an extempore speaking contest were added to the schedule. Later, contests and conferences using the same

pattern were held at the University of Kentucky in 1950; the Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee, in 1951; Case Institute of Technology, Cleveland, Ohio, in 1952; and Denver University, 1953.

Special Activities.--Tau Kappa Alpha has engaged in a number of special activities that have been of value in the field of forensics. In 1936 it began the practice of presenting a trophy to the member of the National Forensic League who had accumulated the highest number of points. Special awards, called Wachtel Awards (named for W. W. Wachtel of New York), were made for superior achievement in forensic activities sponsored by the local chapters and the national organization.

The National Student Council was started in 1950 for the purpose of giving the program of Tau Kappa Alpha the benefit of the experience and ideals of its undergraduate members.

In 1949 Tau Kappa Alpha inaugurated a special project called the Speaker-of-the-Year Awards. A national committee composed of fifteen members engaged in a screening process to find the superior public speaker "distinguished for effective, responsible, and intelligent speaking on significant public questions" in each of five classifications: national affairs, business and commerce, labor, religion, education, science, and cultural activities.

Since 1942 Tau Kappa Alpha has co-operated with Delta Sigma Rho, Pi Kappa Delta, the American Forensic Association, and the Speech Association of America in forming a national committee for the selection of a debate question and a discussion subject to be used during the year.

A special contribution was that of sponsoring the preparation and publication of the book, Argumentation and Debate[1] to which contributions were made by twenty-five leaders in the field of forensics.

Pi Kappa Delta[2]

The Establishment of the Fraternity

The third forensic fraternity established was Pi Kappa Delta. The concept which resulted in the creation of this organization was the realization of the need for a means of providing recognition for orators and debaters in the smaller colleges. The idea came to two of the founders of the fraternity, John A. Shields and Egbert R. Nichols, almost simultaneously.

In the autumn of 1911, Shields was a junior at Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kansas, and Nichols, who had been a

---

[1]David Potter (ed.), Argumentation and Debate (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954).

[2]Information on the history of Pi Kappa Delta was based on the official records of the fraternity in the office of the national secretary, and the reports of official business meetings published in The Forensic.

professor of English for two years (1909-1911) at Ottawa, began his work at Ripon College, Wisconsin, as head of the Department of Composition and Public Speaking. The two were friends and kept in touch with each other by occasional letters.

Nichols related how his debaters on a trip to Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin, discovered the debaters there wearing a forensic key. Lawrence College had just been admitted to Tau Kappa Alpha, which at the time established only one chapter in a state. This suggested to the Ripon debaters the need of establishing a new organization.

In Kansas, Shields had likewise discovered the need for such a society. When the delegates to the Kansas State Prohibition Oratorical Association assembled in Manhattan, Kansas, Shields found another person, Edgar A. Vaughn, who was also interested in a means of giving recognition to orators and debaters.

The Ripon constitution was adopted locally and sent to Shields at Ottawa, with suggestions for the design of the key. After some modification, a pear-shaped key with two jewels was accepted, and the first key was ordered by Vaughn in January, 1913.

The name for the organization was supplied by Miss Grace Goodrich, a student in Greek at Ripon College. Pi Kappa Delta was chosen because it was composed of the initial

letters of the phrase Peitho Kale Dikaia, the art of persuasion, beautiful and just.

The Kansas group proposed the idea of including degrees as well as orders in the new society, which showed the Masonic influence--both Shields and Vaughn were Masons. Vaughn had the imagination to see the essential purpose of the organization, which was to bestow an honorary key on orators, debaters, and coaches; he wishes to show by jeweling the key the distinction of each individual.

Shields received credit for taking the action that officially launched the organization. He selected the officers from the founders and as secretary, cast the ballot which put them into office. According to Shields' selection, Nichols became the first president; Vaughn, vice-president and chairman of the charter committee; Shields himself acted as secretary-treasurer; and J. H. Krenmyre, Iowa Wesleyan, the historian. A. L. Crookham, Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas, and P. C. Sommerville, Illinois Wesleyan, were appointed on the charter committee.

The National Conventions, 1916-22

The first national convention of Pi Kappa Delta was held in the spring of 1916, with Washburn University, Topeka, Kansas, serving as the host chapter. The constitution was put in more complete form, the insignia and the ritual were designed, and plans for inter-fraternity relations were

developed.

The first contest was held at the second national convention at Ottawa University, 1918, and was a debate between Redlands and Ottawa. Later the contests became the chief feature of the national conventions. It was announced that plans were being made to establish an arrangement with Delta Sigma Rho for co-operative forensic endeavors.

The third national convention was held at Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa, in 1920. An oratorical contest was included in the program. No debate tournament was held but teams arranged debates to be held en route to and from the convention, and during free periods of the convention. To facilitate debate plans, Secretary Marsh suggested that the colleges adopt the same debate question, which was the first step toward the policy of selecting an official question.

The Development of Policy, 1922-26

The Fourth Biennial Convention was held at Simpson College, Iowa, in 1922. To facilitate scheduling debates, an official question had been adopted by chapter vote for the first time in 1922. The question was: "Resolved that the principles of closed shop are justifiable." This was a period of rapid growth for Pi Kappa Delta as the society added forty-one chapters during a two-year period.

Provincial Organizations.--In 1923, the chapters in

some of the provinces initiated provincial conventions. These regional meetings were of historical importance since from them developed the debate tournament, the first being held at Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas. At the close of the first tournament the prediction was made that it was not beyond reason to expect that within the next biennium other provinces would hold like meets, resulting ultimately in intra-provincial contests.

Extempore Speaking.--Experiments were made in extempore debate in which the question was not revealed until twenty-four hours before the debate. Also the extempore speaking contest was developed and was added to the program of the 1924 national convention at Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois.

International debating brought the British system of debating before the American colleges. This tended to free debating in the United States from its rigid system of memorized speeches and increased the popularity of the audience decision. But the development of the tournament plan with its crowded program of many simultaneous debates and contest after contest on the same question forced the American schools more and more to the single expert judge, usually a debate coach, a method of judging which was gradually adopted for general use.

During Marsh's term of office, a number of Pi Kappa

Delta members were interested in formulating a code of ethics. The National Council suggested that such a code covering "every phase of debate" should be undertaken.

During the early years of the 1920's there was a great deal of interest in the problem of judging. As debates multiplied in number, it became difficult to provide disinterested judges. In an effort to improve the judging, H. B. Summers of Kansas State College compiled and published a directory of judges, listing men in all parts of the country who had served as judges and giving a summary of the estimates of their ability made by the institutions they had judged.

The fifth national convention of Pi Kappa Delta was held at the Bradley Polytechnic Institute in Illinois, April 1-3, 1924. The addition to the program of the extempore speaking contests and the scheduling of separate contests for men and women in both extempore and oratory attracted more delegates. Plans were made at this meeting for the inauguration of a national debate tournament at the next convention.

The Period of National Tournaments, 1926-42

The sixth national convention was held in 1926 at Fort Collins and Greeley, Colorado. For the first time national debate tournaments for men and women were undertaken and the double elimination plan was used. At this convention the plan was adopted of holding provincial meetings in the

years in which the national conventions were not held. The official debate question for 1925-1926 was the proposal to control child labor by an amendment to the constitution. "The Crime Situation in America" was the topic selected for the men's extempore contest and the women's topic was "Marriage and Divorce." Pi Kappa Delta planned a certificate for proficiency in debate coaching to be awarded upon graduation to students who had been active in forensics. It was voted to publish the winning speeches of the national conventions; Volume One of Winning Intercollegiate Debates and Orations appeared in 1926.[1]

Chapter Activities.--The year 1929 marked the use of the airplane for debate travel. G. R. McCarty, South Dakota State College, and his debaters travelled by air from Oklahoma City to Chickasha to maintain their schedule. The College of St. Thomas debaters flew from St. Paul to Chicago for one of their forensic engagements.

Wichita, Kansas, was selected for the location of the eighth national convention which was held March 31 to April 4, 1930. The tournaments had developed gradually with no definite plan; however, in 1930, an organization was planned for their administration, with carefully selected officers and committees in charge of each contest. At previous conven-

---

[1]Alfred Westfall (ed.), Winning Intercollegiate Debates and Orations, Vol. I (Fort Collins, Colorado: Express Courier Publishing Company, 1926).

tions, a chapter could enter more than one team. At Wichita, for the first time, each chapter was limited to a single team.

Changes in Contest Procedure.--The addition of contests in debate, oratory, and extemporaneous speaking resulted in a great increase of interest in the Pi Kappa Delta national conventions. Business sessions, side trips, banquets, and other special features were included in the convention programs; however, the contests were the outstanding features of the conventions. During the early years of the national contest, the National Council did most of the work of planning and conducting the events. In time, special committees were appointed to take charge of the contests with a different committee being responsible for each event. In the first contest in oratory and extemporaneous speaking, the contestants were divided into several divisions for a preliminary round with the best two or three in each division competing in a final round.

In the early tournaments the double elimination plan was used with a team being dropped after its second loss. The number of preliminary rounds in debate was increased to five at the 1932 convention held at Tulsa, Oklahoma, with an elimination bracket set up for those teams that were undefeated at the end of five rounds. This plan was used through the national conventions of 1934 and 1936.

The next major change in contest procedure was made

in 1938 at the Topeka, Kansas, convention. In debate, the preliminary rounds were dropped and each team was scheduled to debate eight rounds with the teams given a rating based on the number of debates won. The committee in charge of debate asked tournament directors to recommend outstanding teams that were to be "ceded" teams. These teams were placed on the bracket at regular intervals in an attempt to provide equalized competition for all teams. In the individual events, four preliminary rounds were held and the six best speakers selected for a final round in which they were ranked from first to sixth.

Another new feature of the 1938 convention was the addition of a student congress. State and regional congresses had been held for several years resulting in a demand for such activities at the national level. The Pi Kappa Delta Congress was held in the Kansas Capitol as a two-house legislature. Each chapter was invited to send one delegate to the lower house, and each province elected two senators to comprise the upper house. Interest in the Congress resulted in a new attendance record for Pi Kappa Delta conventions with more than 800 delegates and visitors being registered.

At the Knoxville Convention in 1940, the plan used in debate was a combination of that used at Topeka and the earlier tournaments. Each team was scheduled to debate eight rounds and was given a rating based on the number of

debates won. Teams winning seven or eight debates were rated superior; those winning six were rated excellent; and those winning five were rated good. At the end of eight rounds, eight teams were selected for a quarter final bracket with first and second place winners being selected after three additional rounds of debate.

Because of the popularity of the Student Congress at the Topeka convention, another Congress was held at Knoxville. Several changes in the rules were made as a result of the previous Congress; however, without the atmosphere of the State Capitol, the Congress received less attention than the one held at Topeka.

In 1942 in the convention at Minneapolis, dissatisfaction with the combination plan resulted in a return to the 1938 pattern in which teams debated eight rounds and were rated on the number of wins and losses. The plans for the convention had already been made before the start of the war and an attempt was made to conduct the convention with as little deviation as possible. The Student Congress was retained as one of the features of the convention but was modified to an unicameral house.

The Contemporary Organization, 1947-56

Post-war Conventions.--Following a five-year interim of war years, Pi Kappa Delta resumed its national tournaments in 1947. In the individual events four preliminary rounds

were held and eighteen speakers selected for the fifth round. In oratory and extemporaneous speaking, the 10 per cent of the speakers ranking highest were given the rating of "superior"; the next highest 20 per cent were rated "excellent"; and the next highest 20 per cent were rated "good." The major change at the 1947 convention was the substitution of Discussion for the Student Congress. An interesting experiment in the Discussion was the use of ratings by opponents. Ratings were given in Discussion on the same basis as in extemporaneous speaking and oratory, with the rating based entirely on scores given by the opponents from round to round.

The 1949 convention was held at Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois. Discussion was continued with a combination plan of coach judging and judging by opponents, with final ratings based on the combination scores of the two groups.

In 1951, the Pi Kappa Delta national convention was held at Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma; this proved to be a popular place for a convention site as delegates from 135 chapters, the largest number on record, assembled for a four-day convention. The plan for the contests had become standardized from the previous conventions. The major change at Stillwater was that of doing away with all judging and ratings in the Discussion event.

Figure 1 gives a graphic description of the membership record of Pi Kappa Delta since 1920. The average number

X = Pi Kappa Delta Membership Growth
in National Convention Year
S = Pi Kappa Delta Membership Growth
in Non-Convention Years

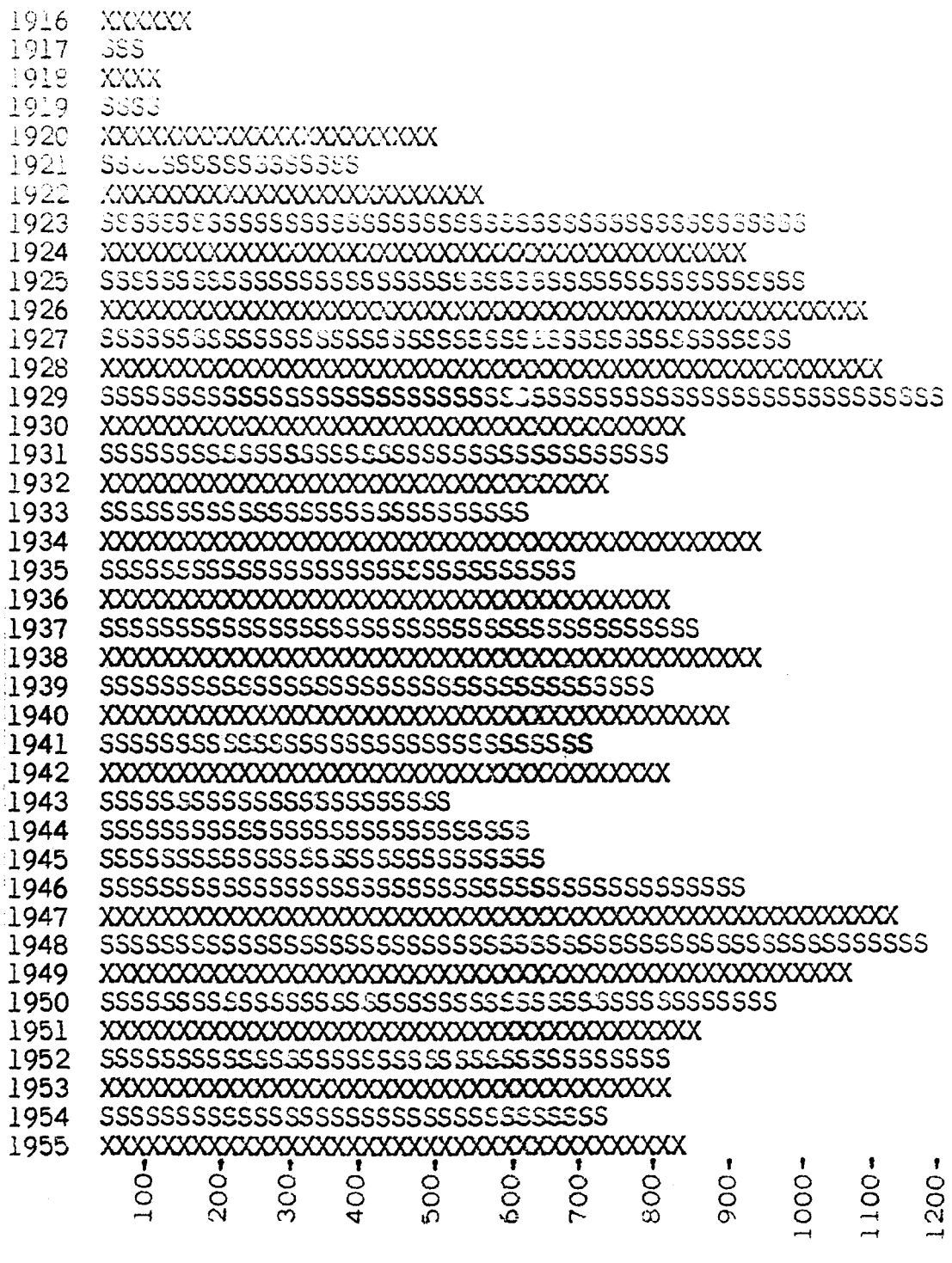


Fig. 1.--Membership Growth of Pi Kappa Delta.

of memberships granted per year was 793; however, the memberships added during the years in which the national conventions were held increased to 850 and the non-convention years dropped to 751, making a difference of 99. The increased membership in the convention years is indicative of the motivating force of the national convention and tournament in the forensic program. Chapter sponsors report that usually there is a substantial increase in interest in the convention years.

Summary

The forensic fraternities have made a number of significant contributions to intercollegiate forensics. They have filled in the gap between the decline of the literary society and the development of the speech department as a major phase of higher education. Organizations on a national basis were established to co-ordinate the work of the local clubs, and to give recognition to orators and debaters according to uniform criteria. Experiments were carried on with new types of speech activities, and policies were developed to guide forensics on the local, regional, and national levels.

High ethical standards have been maintained and requirements for membership increased from time to time to make affiliation of greater value. All of the fraternities have provided service magazines to members as a means of unifying the work of the local chapters and providing other

information on speech and forensics.

At the regional and national level, conventions, tournaments, and congresses have been provided that have brought students together from all parts of the country. These young people, otherwise, would never have had the opportunity to attend a national meeting with the many personal benefits to be gained from participation in forensic activities on such an extensive basis.

Although Pi Kappa Delta was the third of the fraternities to be organized, it became the largest in terms of the number of chapters and total membership. This may be attributed to its more liberal policy of granting charters to smaller institutions, and its more vigorous policy of sponsoring regional and national conventions and tournaments. With stricter attendance requirements, as many as 145 chapters have sent more than 800 members to participate in some of its national assemblies.

Pi Kappa Delta also has provided several orders in which membership may be earned and a series of degrees through which the member may progress from year to year. After three years of forensic activity one may qualify for the highest degree and the distinction of wearing a diamond in his key.

CHAPTER IV

INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATE

Introduction

Debate has become the most popular of the forensic activities and this chapter has been devoted to some of debate's more important aspects. The origin and development of intercollegiate debate was followed by consideration of the most significant development in debate in recent years--the tournament. An important phase of the program has been the policy of selecting an official debate question for national use, the history and development of which policy has been presented.

International debate developed in the early 1920's and since that time, tours by British, American, and Australian teams have been an influential factor in the intercollegiate program. An account was given of the development of that phase of forensics.

Many experiments have been tried with new forms of debate. The deviations from the orthodox form most frequently mentioned were reviewed under six sub-divisions as follows: type of clash, arrangement of teams, audience participation,

form of judging, special media, and miscellaneous.

The Origin and Development of Intercollegiate Debate

Debate as a teaching technique had been used in the colleges and universities of the United States since their founding. Both formal and extempore debate had been used extensively as the foundation of the programs of the literary societies that dominated the college social activities for many years. However, intercollegiate debate did not develop until late in the nineteenth century. It became a part of the new scene on the college campus that included the rise of the Greek letter fraternities, specialized clubs, the more liberal curriculum, and intercollegiate athletics.

Opinions differ as to where the first intercollegiate debate was held. Potter referred to a series of contests between the Phi Alpha Society of Illinois College and the Adelphi Society of Knox College. The contests, which included debate, essay, declamation, and oratory, were held in the opera house on the evening of May 5, 1881, with President Charles Henry Rammelkamp of Illinois College presiding.[1] One day later, another debate was recorded when members of the Peithessophian Society of Rutgers University met and defeated the Philomathean debaters from New York University in Rutgers'

---

[1]Potter, Argumentation and Debate, p. 12.

Kirkpatric Chapel.[1]

Alan Nichols claimed that the first record of an intercollegiate debate in America was that of one held in 1883 between Knox College and Rockford College in the Chapel at the latter school.[2] Egbert R. Nichols referred to the first intercollegiate debate as the one described by Ringwalt in the Forum Magazine and which was held between Yale and Harvard at Cambridge on January 14, 1892.[3] The first two debates mentioned were sponsored by literary societies although they were intercollegiate in nature.

The news of the embryo intercollegiate activity spread to other institutions, and within a few years, intercollegiate debating had spread from coast to coast. Techniques of the new activity were changed from those used previously by the college literary societies. For example, the number of debaters on a team was changed from two to three, and all speakers were given a constructive speech and a rebuttal speech with the negative presenting the first rebuttal.

The type of debating changed from the old topics as "the pen is mightier than the sword" to resolutions concerned

---

[1]Ibid., p. 13.

[2]Alan Nichols, Discussion and Debate (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1941), p. 205.

[3]Egbert R. Nichols, "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating; I," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXII (1936), pp. 213-220.

with political, social, economic, and educational policies and problems. A board of judges was used composed of three or five people to make the decision. Finding impartial and unbiased judges was difficult as the judge was often influenced by his opinion on the question or his attitude toward the host school. At first, the pattern of debate was simple, as one college merely sent a challenge to another; if it was accepted, an agreement was made on the question for debate, choice of sides, time and place, and choice of judges.

The debaters generated a great deal of enthusiasm often working for months gathering information, writing their speeches, compiling rebuttal files, practicing the delivery, and holding conferences with the coach and other faculty members on the question. The rivalry created by debate made it one of the highlights of the college year. Large audiences were present to support the home team; many from the student body accompanied them to the train to cheer them on their way when they departed for an invasion of a rival school, and met them at the station on their return. A victory was sometimes celebrated by a parade through the city led by the college band.

Intercollegiate debating enthusiasts worked to find better ways to conduct debate and one of the first was the invention of the triangular league in which three colleges prepared an affirmative and a negative team. A debate was

held at each of the three colleges on the same evening on the same subject. For a time this plan was used almost to the exclusion of other forms except the single debate between two rival colleges.

Other improvements resulted from a demand for qualified teachers to take charge of the debate program. Gradually more teachers were provided to train students in debate and oratory. Books on debate were written, new courses were added to the curriculum, and separate departments of speech were established.

As debate became firmly accepted as a college activity a more definite means of financing the program was necessary; it was then given a specific appropriation or a percentage of the student activity fund.

Almost from the beginning debate has been confronted with problems. Making long tours was expensive; in some cases even holding a debate on the campus would cost several hundred dollars--pay for judges, meals and lodging for the visiting teams, and travel allowances. The difficulty of financing the program resulted in a trend toward concentration on a small group of three or six consisting of one affirmative and one negative team.

Other problems included the loss of time from school resulting from tours and visits to other schools; intense rivalry that reached an undesirable degree resulting from

questionable decisions; and a general decline of interest in debate from the student body and the public as competing activities were created. It became more and more difficult to secure audiences for debates. In spite of all of the other problems that confronted debate, the major problem has always been that of finding an adequate number of qualified judges.

The Debate Tournament

At the point when debate reached its lowest ebb, a new development took place that offered a solution to the problems with which the proponents of the activity were confronted. This was the debate tournament.

The first tournament was held at Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas, in the spring of 1923.[1] Dr. J. Thompson Baker, then Head of the Department of Speech at Southwestern, was director of the tournament and is recognized as the originator of the tournament idea. At the regional Pi Kappa Delta business meeting at Southwestern in the spring of 1923, plans were discussed for reforming debate. There were tournaments in various athletic contests which had developed from knightly tournaments so popular from the 12th to 15th centuries in Europe. The question, "Why not a debate tournament?" was asked and out of this came the idea for the first one.

The tournament rapidly took its place and extended

---

[1]Edna Sorber, "The First Debate Tournament," The Forensic, XLI (1956), pp. 67-69.

from its beginning at Southwestern College until it reached the coasts. Important tournaments arose in various sections of the country, as for example, the Linfield College Tournament at McMinnville, Oregon, and the Savage Forensic Tournament at Southeastern State College, Durant, Oklahoma. Winfield continued to conduct a pre-season warm-up tournament which increased in popularity until it was attracting as many as 250 teams from 15 to 20 midwestern states.

The popularity of the tournament was such that colleges turned from the leagues to the tournament and soon many schools were concentrating their entire season on this new activity. J. Thompson Baker was asked to speak at conventions on the tournament, reviewing its benefits and presenting plans for tournament organization.

The merits of the tournament over the league were given by Baker in an article as follows:[1]

1. The tournament is much less expensive per debate.
2. It is easier to get competent judges at the tournament.
3. Competition with so many more schools manifestly has added advantages over the league.
4. In the tournament the trickery and politics sometimes found in the debate league are eliminated.
5. Many more debaters may be used by each school in the tournament. (We used 22 different debaters from our college this year.)
6. The league is sectional and restricted; the tournament is just the opposite, breaking down clannishness and sectionalism.
7. The tournament avoids making so many different breaks

---

[1]J. Thompson Baker, "Planning and Working the Debate Tournament," The Forensic, XVII (1931), pp. 149-154.

in school work.

8. The expense of judges is practically eliminated at tournaments.
9. Tournaments have much better audiences and much more interest in the debates.
10. Keener rivalry of the right kind is found at the tournament.
11. More teams, more debates, more people from different sections at the tournament has merits readily recognized.
12. At the tournament for some reason the mere desire to win is largely supplanted by the effort to learn and gain debate value.
13. Many more debates and much more practice in a real debate atmosphere.
14. The tournament develops a better study and a better understanding of the question, and hence better debating.
15. The social values of the tournament are of inestimable value, such as the league cannot give.

The necessity of economy resulting from the depression contributed to the increase in tournament interest, as it offered an inexpensive means of providing a large number of debates. Traveling expenses were minimized as on one trip debaters could meet a large number of institutions. The problem and expenses of judges were eliminated as the coaches did most of the judging.

The tournament brought together many speakers with the same interests. Ideas were exchanged, friendships made, and experiences broadened. The tournament proved to be an elastic type of arrangement, as it could be a pre-season tournament, one for novices, or one in which champions were determined.

There was an advantage in giving contestants opportunities to participate in more events. They had a chance

to correct their mistakes in later rounds of the tournament, thus accelerating development at the moment of concentrated interest.

After the invention of the debate tournament the interest of those engaged in contest debate shifted to the tournament until it became the dominant force in forensics. It was a form in which one team could have as many debates in a weekend as the entire squad had previously engaged in for the entire season. More teams could be entered and a debate season might consist of a hundred debates for several teams instead of ten or twelve debates for a single team. Emphasis was shifted from a decision in a single contest to a consistent performance for an entire season. Rivalries diminished and with them went many of the evils that had been associated with decision debating.

Pi Kappa Delta popularized the tournament by using it at its national and provincial conventions.

Selecting the Debate Question

During the period in which the syllogistic disputation dominated debate, the question was assigned by the instructor in the classroom. Questions used for public exhibitions and commencement programs were selected by the Reverend President and a faculty committee aided by a select group of students.

The literary societies dominated debate with the

question to be used in the next meeting being announced by the presiding officer at the previous meeting. With most of the literary societies meeting weekly or biweekly and with one or two debate questions being used at each meeting, a large number of questions were considered during the school year.

When a contract for a debate was made between two colleges, definite arrangements were included concerning the choice of the question to be used. The host school usually submitted a list of questions, with the visiting school being given its choice of sides. Questions were sometimes submitted in which a "trick" definition or interpretation could be made with the hope that the other institution would select the question before discovering the impossibility of defending one side of the question. In many instances, the debate resolved into quibbling over the meanings of the terms.

In the debate leagues, the responsibility of selecting the question was shared by all of the member schools. Surveys made on questions used revealed that prior to 1920 as many as forty questions per year were used, although some questions were more popular and were used more often than others. A typical list of questions considered during one debate season is included in the appendix.

At the second national convention of Pi Kappa Delta in 1918, two chapters were invited to bring debate teams for

a demonstration debate as one feature of the program. Redlands University, coached by the national president, E. R. Nichols, was selected to meet a team of the host chapter, Ottawa University.

The selection of a question satisfactory to two teams from different areas was made. Transcontinental tours also made it necessary for a traveling team to agree on questions with teams in other states. However, in some cases a traveling team might be prepared to debate as many as five different questions. This was true of the British teams who came to the United States.

As plans for the third national convention of Pi Kappa Delta were being made, all chapters were encouraged to bring a team to the convention and to schedule debates with other chapters en route to the convention. In an editorial in The Forensic, one finds the first reference to the suggestion of selecting a debate question for all teams to use:

> . . . couldn't those chapters nearest to Sioux City arrange debates with those chapters farther away? On the way to or from the Convention they could debate. Might it not be well also for us all to debate the same question? And might we not decide on the question this spring?[1]

The suggestion was well received and the national secretary, Charles A. Marsh, sent out a letter in October, 1919, asking each chapter to submit a question. Nine chapters responded and the nine propositions were returned to the

---

[1]The Forensic, V (1919), p. 2.

chapters for a vote. The possibility of selecting one question for general use was discussed at the 1920 convention and the national secretary was authorized to conduct a referendum among the chapters for a question to be used the following year. In the March-April issue of The Forensic, 1921, the following reference is found:

> The National Secretary has sent out a request to the chapters to submit one definitely stated proposition for debate so that a list of questions shall be submitted to the chapters for a referendum vote. The question preferred by the majority shall be considered the official Pi Kappa Delta question for the year. It is believed that by having the question known in advance, many more debates will be arranged by teams visiting the Convention.[1]

In the October, 1921, issue of The Forensic this statement regarding the first official question appeared:

> Last spring the Pi Kappa Delta chapters voted to make the following proposition the official debate subject for the organization this year: Resolved, that the principle of the closed shop is justifiable . . .[2]

Thus, this question became the first official question selected for general use throughout the nation. By 1922, the policy of selecting an official question was established. In order to schedule debates with Pi Kappa Delta schools, other schools found it necessary to develop the Pi Kappa Delta question. Occasionally some state league or conference selected a different question, but for a period of 20 years,

---

[1]The Forensic, VII (1921), p. 8.

[2]Ibid., p. 19.

the Pi Kappa Delta question was recognized as the unofficial national question. In time the colleges who did not hold charters of Pi Kappa Delta asked for a part in the selection of the annual question and through the National Association of Teachers of Speech, which later became the Speech Association of America, a committee was appointed consisting of ten members with representatives from Phi Rho Pi, the junior college fraternity, and the non-fraternity schools, as well as the three forensic fraternities.[1] Later the committee was reduced in size to five members with the chairmanship rotating annually among the members of the committee.

One year (1941-42) Pi Kappa Delta selected one question and the national committee selected a different one. The national question was used early in the year. The Pi Kappa Delta question was not announced until December 1, and was used in some tournaments sponsored by Pi Kappa Delta schools as well as the national Pi Kappa Delta tournament at Minneapolis in 1942.[2]

A separate question has been selected by the Southern Speech Association, the Western Speech Association, and leagues such as the Missouri Valley Forensic League. Occasionally a practice tournament was held in which a different question was used for each round of debate with an hour of

---

[1] The Forensic, XXVII (1941), p. 1.

[2] Ibid.

preparation allowed after the question for the following round has been announced.

International Debating

International debating was started when Bates College, Lewiston, Maine, sent a team to meet Oxford University, England, in 1921.[1] The following year, Oxford commissioned a team to return the visit which made a tour of the Atlantic Coast, the Middle West, and the South, meeting such institutions as the Universities of Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, and Oklahoma, on a schedule that included twenty-six debates. Later, Cambridge and other British universities also sent teams to the United States. These were followed by visits from Canadian and Australian teams. Other American colleges followed the pattern set by Bates, sending teams to Europe, South America, and eventually around the world with debates in Hawaii, Japan, China, Australia, New Zealand, and India. Information received in a questionnaire[2] indicated that approximately 400 international debates had been held in a period of six years.

American audiences were impressed by the outstanding quality of the English speakers, as they were men and women

---

[1] "Bates Wins Debates," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 4-6.

[2] Raymond F. Howes, "Results of Questionnaire on International Debating in the United States," The Forensic, XV (1929), pp. 381-383.

who had finished their formal education, and hence, more mature than the typical American debater. It was obvious that they had been carefully selected because of their character and personality. A member of one team was the son of the British Premier, Ramsey McDonald, and was elected to Parliament while he was on the debate tour of the United States.

The English speakers with their background of training in the Oxford or parliamentary style of debate were a definite contrast to the American debaters who prepared their cases in a logical manner and reinforced them with facts and quotations from numerous authorities. Disregarding logical arguments to some extent, the English speakers concentrated on winning the audience to their side of the question through their ability to make a pleasing impression, and at times were accused of saying nothing in a pleasing manner. Their American opponents took the debate more seriously, presenting an avalanche of evidence and arguments in an uninteresting manner. The contrast was emphasized by the decisions that were given as the American team almost always won when the debate was judged by those with experience in the traditional pattern of debate, while the British won when the decision was given by a vote of the audience.

In order to finance the tours, it was necessary for the English teams to meet a full schedule of American colleges and universities, which obligated them to be prepared

to speak on either side of several questions, and the traveling teams usually prepared a minimum of five questions. As a result, they were not always adequately prepared, and resorted to entertaining the audiences with their humor instead of trying to meet the issues advanced by the American debaters.

The early enthusiasm over the tours of the British teams subsided as the depression developed in the 1930's with the limitation that it placed on the forensic budgets. Some resentment arose over the financial arrangements for the tours as the American colleges paid a generous amount to the visiting teams who, in some cases, made a substantial profit on the tour. American teams planning tours to England had to pay their own ways, the result being that the American college was required to finance the entire international debate program.

It was thought by some leaders that the influence of the British teams would result in drastic changes in the American style of debate. This, however, was not the case; although the British speakers did help to make the American debater more conscious of the audience, more cognizant of the need to relieve the seriousness with humor, and more aware of the value of persuasive and ethical appeals as well as the logical approach.

Another development on the American forensic scene that counteracted the influence of the British teams to some

extent, was the change in emphasis from audience debates to tournament debating. The slower speaking, entertaining but illogical style of the typical British debater was difficult to adapt to tournament debating. A British team was invited to enter a tournament at the University of Pittsburg as a guest team; however, the debates in which this team appeared were not judged.

Following World War II the tours by the British teams were resumed, and invitations from the American colleges and universities have increased to such an extent that it has become necessary to restrict the area in which debates are scheduled, with a tour being planned east of the Mississippi River one year and west of the Mississippi the following year. American debating has been influenced by the encounters with the British teams, perhaps, much more in those areas where debating is not dominated by the tournament.

A list of debate questions which were used by the British teams on their schedule of debates in the United States during the year 1930-31 is given in the appendix.

Innovations in Debate

From time to time directors have experimented with new forms of debate hoping to improve on the traditional form by using more practical organization of teams and realistic settings. Some of the variations have been popular and have been used extensively while others have been experiments that

did not prove feasible and have not been continued on a regular basis. The innovations that have been mentioned most frequently have been presented briefly in this part of the study. They may be classified under six headings as follows:

Form of Clash

- Direct Clash Debate
- Mock Trial
- The Oregon Plan

Audience Participation

- The Heckling Plan
- Forum
- Convention
- Parliamentary

Form of Judging

- Non-Decision Debate
- Clinic
- Audience

Arrangement and Number on Teams

- Split Team Debate
- Three-Sided
- Number on Team

Special Media

- Correspondence Debate
- Radio

Special Forms

- Neutral Floor Debate
- Twenty-four Hour
- Extension
- Impromptu
- The Progression
- The Pentathlon

Form of Clash

Direct Clash.--The Direct Clash plan of debate was developed by Edwin H. Paget of North Carolina State College in 1931. The plan brought the two sides face to face with the real issues, and eliminated discussion of unimportant points and fallacious reasoning. It required a somewhat complicated procedure in which the judge played an important part. Teams were composed of from two to five members, who did not speak in any regular sequence.

During the debate season of 1931-1932, debate teams representing Wake Forest College, Asheville Teachers College,

the University of Tennessee, and North Carolina State College introduced the direct clash plan of debating.[1]

Mock Trial.--This type of debate has been used to provide valuable training for law students. For use in the mock trial the proposition for debate calls for a definite decision on the part of the court. It has been necessary to modify details of the plan to conform to the conditions of the type of court before whom the case would logically be tried.

The Oregon Plan.--The most widely used variant was the cross-examination debate often called the Oregon Plan, as the rules were developed by Gray at the University of Oregon in 1924.[2]

The Oregon Plan found favor in audience-decision debating. Newman, one of the leading proponents for Cross Examination debate, conducted an annual Cross Examination tournament at the University of Pittsburg, in addition to using the form for audience debates.[3] Miller used the Cross Examination style of debating to an advantage at the University

---

[1]"The Direct Clash Debate Plan," The Forensic, XVIII (1933), p. 52.

[2]J. Stanley Gray, "The Oregon Plan of Debating," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XII (1926), pp. 178-179.

[3]Lloyd H. Fuge and Robert P. Newman, "Cross-Examination in Academic Debating," Speech Teacher, V (1956), p. 66.

of Michigan.[1]

Arrangement and Number on Team

Split Team.--The split team arrangement has been used in debate between two institutions in which each school provided one affirmative speaker and one negative speaker. It was necessary for the speakers to arrange a preliminary meeting several hours in advance to coordinate their plans for the debate. Under this arrangement each school would be assured of a speaker on the winning team as well as a speaker on the losing team, and the attention of the audience would be centered on the issues of the debate.

In the annual Split-Team Tournament held at Case Institute of Technology, for example, the schedule is so arranged that each debater had a new partner in each round and did not oppose two debaters from the same institution or the same debater more than once.

Under such circumstances the teams newly formed before each debate exchanged ideas on the debate question, pooled information, and achieved a new synthesis of case and material for each round. When this form of debate is used for tournament purposes, it is necessary to provide adequate time between rounds.

In judging split-team debates, the judge gives

---

[1]N. Edd Miller, "Michigan Tries Participation Experiment," The Gavel, XXXIV (1951), p. 5.

special consideration to team effectiveness and integration of cases. Ballots are provided for speaker ratings, as awards in such tournaments depend upon individual culminative scores.

Three-Sided Debate.--The three-sided debate has been used with three teams participating, in which each team served as an affirmative team as it presented a constructive case. Each team also functioned as a negative team as it was required to refute the cases of the other two teams.

Number on the Team.--Informal argument has been conducted without any definite plan or method of organization; however, the formal pattern of debate has called for a consistent team arrangement and order of speaking. Debate teams in the first intercollegiate debates consisted of three speakers who presented a fifteen minute constructive speech and a five minute rebuttal. A debate with this time schedule required two hours for completion. Later a two member arrangement was used which reduced the time of the debate to one and one-half hours. During the war one-man teams were developed using the Lincoln-Douglas debates as a model. One-man teams have been used for radio debates and appearances before civic clubs when it was necessary to complete the program in less time. In Direct Clash, the team may consist of from two to five members. In the legislative or parliamentary form an indefinite number of speakers may participate; however, the two speaker team with ten minute speeches and five

minute rebuttals, has become the traditional arrangement for tournament use as with this arrangement each round of debate can be completed within an hour.

Audience Participation

Heckling.--The Heckling Plan was developed as a variation of the cross-examination debate. It attempted to bring issues into focus through direct questioning, but it differed in that the speaker was subjected to interruption through question, protest, or various other relevant comments by the opposition. Thorough knowledge of the question and considerable poise and self-control were necessary on the part of the debater.

McReynolds[1] tried a variation of the Heckling Plan at the University of Maryland. In the Maryland Plan one speaker merely interrupted another when he felt like it. Debates were held before campus groups and on subjects of local interest. Describing the Maryland Plan, McReynolds wrote:

> We completed at Maryland twenty-five intramural debates in which forty-four debaters took part. These debates, held from 6:30 to 7:30 p.m., just after dinner, in the drawing rooms of dormitories, fraternities, and sororities, were often so crowded that the students had to sit in groups on the rugs. The subject used was, "More has been lost than gained by the new freedom of women," with the men taking the affirmative side and the women the negative side.[2]

---

[1]Charles H. McReynolds, "A New System of Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVI (1940), pp. 8-10.

[2]Ibid.

Forum.--The use of the word forum indicated that a question and answer period was to follow the debate with audience participation. In some instances the time of the prepared speeches has been shortened to allow more time for the forum.

Convention Debate.--The convention debate is more or less synonymous with the student legislative assembly or Congress. Consideration is given to the student congress in a special section of the study.

Parliamentary or Legislative Debate.--This type of debate has been used as a problem-solving technique with a large group of people participating. It has been conducted with those taking part being divided into two parties.

Special Media

Correspondence Debate.--Colorado College of Education conducted a correspondence debate with the Slippery Rock State Teachers College of Pennsylvania. Each submitted to the other a three thousand word affirmative case. The debate squads then replied with a two thousand word negative, after which each sent a one thousand word rebuttal. It was an interesting method of getting the squads to work up their cases. The finished debate was broadcast over the Colorado State College station at Greeley with one of the Colorado students reading the Slippery Rock case.[1]

---

[1]"Correspondence Debate," The Forensic, XXII (1937), p. 102.

Templar of Hamline University reported a similar variation in the form of a triangular debate carried on through the mail with the squads of Khoras, Colgate University, and Park College, directed by Rose.[1]

Radio Debate.--With the development of radio as a means of communication, radio debates have gained in popularity. Occasionally a debate has been carried on by means of a transcription that was mailed back and forth between two squads, with affirmative and negative speeches being added until the debate was completed.

Form of Judging

Non-Decision Debate.--This form of debate has been conducted with and without audiences. Sometimes a critic analyzed the debate but did not make an official decision.

Clinic Debate.--The clinic debate has been used for the purpose of demonstrating techniques early in the season. A critic gives an analysis of the debate for the benefit of novice debaters present. Speaker ratings may be given; however, win and loss decisions are not announced.

Audience Decision.--The audience decision type of debate is discussed in the chapter on History of Contest Judging.

---

[1]"Hamline, Park and Colgate Debate by Mail," The Forensic, XIII (1927), p. 184.

Special Forms

Neutral Floor Debate.--Teams from two schools have used this form by agreeing to meet before an audience at some convenient point between the two schools or on the campus of a third college.

Twenty-four Hour Debate.--The twenty-four hour debate has been used in which the question was not announced until twenty-four hours in advance.

Extension Debate.--The extension debate has been used with two teams from the same institution meeting before an off-campus audience. These debates may be arranged through the extension department, college speakers bureau, or through alumni.

Impromptu Debate.--This method has been used to an advantage in the class in argumentation to provide practice in speaking and the organization of materials in a limited time.

The Progression.--In an invitational tournament at Sioux Falls College, directed by Jordan,[1] a different approach was taken to the debate question in five rounds. The first round was an extemporaneous speaking contest with topics chosen from some phase of the debate question. This was followed by four non-decision rounds of debate. In the first round, the Direct Clash Plan was used. The second employed

---

[1]H. M. Jordan, "Tournament Experiment with Debate Types," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), pp. 75-76.

the Problem Solving Method in order to place emphasis on the solution phase of the problem. The Heckling Plan was used in the third round to give the debaters an opportunity to expose weaknesses in their opponents' reasoning, and the fourth round was carried on in the traditional form.

The Pentathlon.--The speech tournament of the Western Association of Teachers of Speech[1] held at Los Angeles City College in 1946 included a pentathlon consisting of contests in extempore speaking, impromptu, oratory, after-dinner speaking, interpretative reading, special speaking, and a panel on speech and speech teaching. Each speaker entered the extempore and panel contest, but had a choice of the other events. At the end of the tournament, the best all-round speaker was selected on the basis of scores accumulated round by round.

The many variations from formal debate indicate a dissatisfaction by directors who believe that training in debate has definite values for the student, provided it is conducted on sound principles. Many forensic directors believe that through experiments with new methods of conducting debate, the activity will continue to be timely as adjustments in the techniques and methods used will be made to conform to the changing socio-economic scene.

---

[1] "Western Association of Teachers of Speech," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), p. 82.

Summary

Consideration has been given to the most popular of the intercollegiate forensic events--debate, and to some of the significant factors that have developed as a result of the debate program. The origin of the debate tournament resulted in a large increase in the number of students participating in debate as well as an increase in the number of contests per student. Instead of five to ten debates per year in the pre-tournament era, many debaters took part in fifty to one hundred clashes per year. The tournament brought together a large number of students and directors with a common interest and popularized the activity at a time when interest in debate on the part of the public had subsided. With many teams attending tournaments it was necessary that all teams be prepared to debate the same question which resulted in the adoption of a plan for selecting an official question for the year.

International tours made possible a comparison of the methods of preparation and presentation used by debaters in other countries and international debating has become recognized as one of the influential factors in intercollegiate debate.

Many variations from the traditional form of debate have been tried. Some of the new forms have been advocated as improvements over the orthodox form; however, many of the

innovations have not been utilized to a large extent because of the difficulty of adapting them to a tournament program. Such deviations from the traditional form may be considered as a healthy sign of self-evaluation employed by directors in attempting to modernize the format of debate.

CHAPTER V

INDIVIDUAL FORENSIC EVENTS

Introduction

In this chapter consideration has been given to the development of oratory, extemporaneous speaking, and the Student Congress, the basic individual events in the forensic program. The first forensic event used as an intercollegiate contest was oratory, with the first contest being held several years before the first intercollegiate debate. Extemporaneous speaking was not developed as a contest event until forty to fifty years after oratory and debate contests were being held. Extemporaneous speaking made rapid gains and replaced oratory as the most popular individual event. Special attention was given to the student congress, an activity that some directors have maintained has integrated experience in a number of speech techniques to an unusual advantage.

An examination was made of the intramural program as it has provided the foundation for the forensic program on the local campus. Limitations such as the size of the forensic budget, students who have jobs and family responsibilities, and restrictions on the number of entries that are

permitted in tournaments, make it impossible for every student that is interested to participate in intercollegiate forensic activities.

Oratory

Historical Origin

Contests in oratory were developed before intercollegiate contests in debate. Oratorical leagues were formed and special interest groups also sponsored contests in oratory.

Oratory shared the curriculum in private schools that included the teaching of oratory, elocution, and the training of teachers. The National School of Elocution and Oratory in Philadelphia in 1885 had about 250 students with 10 to 12 faculty members.[1] In 1880 the Emerson College of Oratory opened in Boston with about a dozen students and by 1891 had over 500 enrolled.[2]

Contests in oratory were sponsored by the literary societies in some colleges. Alumni sometimes made grants to be used as awards in oratorical contests sponsored on the campus. The development of intercollegiate oratorical contests was paralleled by the development of the debate leagues.

---

[1]Karl R. Wallace, History of Speech Education in America (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), p. 303.

[2]Ibid., p. 304.

In some cases the oratorical leagues were formed before the debate leagues, and in other instances, the same leagues sponsored both debate and oratory.

To the Adelphi Society of Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois, was given the credit for planning the first intercollegiate oratorical contest.[1] Referring to the contest of physical power and endurance, it remained for them to "crown all former efforts in conceiving another outlet for this restless and impetuous spirit of rivalry, by testing intellectual merit through the eloquence of oratory."[2] Invitations were sent to six other colleges and universities on November 4, 1873. As plans for the event were made the idea of a permanent association was developed for the purpose of continuing the contests from year to year. Other invitations were issued to the same institutions, requesting that each send a representative to a planning session to be held on the afternoon preceding the first contest. The meeting was held in Galesburg, Illinois, at two o'clock the afternoon of February 27, while the first contest in oratory was held in the evening of the same day in the Galesburg City Opera House. Another meeting was held in Chicago June 9, 1874, to complete plans for the permanent organization. Thus, the Inter-State

---

[1]David Potter, Argumentation and Debate. (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954), p. 12.

[2]Ibid.

Oratorical Association came into existence.[1]

Within a few years other oratorical associations had been formed. Thomas C. Trueblood, for many years head of the speech department at the University of Michigan, "was influential in founding the Northern Oratorical League in 1890."[2] The Northern was composed of larger institutions than those in the Interstate.

Definition and Variety of Form

From the days of the earliest orators, a difference of opinion has existed as to what constitutes an oration. An oration usually consists of a manuscript developed on a theme which is timely, vital, and of interest to the speaker and the general public. As a contest, oratory is usually considered a means to an end rather than an end in itself. The general end should be making use of the techniques of persuasive speaking to focus the attention of the audience on the theme of the oration. In oratorical contests such a wide range of themes is found and such a variety of methods of presentation is used that the question justifiably may be asked: What is oratory?

The Missouri Collegiate Oratorical Association gave

---

[1]Charles E. Prather, Winning Orations (Topeka, Kansas: Interstate Oratorical Association, 1891), pp. 1-5.

[2]Wallace, op. cit., p. 427.

the following description of the oration, what it is, and what it is not:

> It is not an essay, a harangue, a stump speech, a debate, sermon, or thesis.
> It is not poetry, but like lofty poetry it strikes along on the heights of thought and emotion.
> It loves orderly and synthetic procedure.
> It must lead on in a strong sequential progression.
> It is impatient of many details.
> It speaks with authority. It paints its pictures in big, bold strokes, with outflashing colors.
> It must hold you, thrill you, stir conviction, beget admiration or condemnation for its object, move to action.
> Its diction must be choice, its phrasing musical, its movement elegant, refined and stately, for it is the aristocrat of oral prose expression.[1]

The description continues:

> The oration may be an entirely committed production; or it may be partly committed and partly extempore; or it may be entirely extempore; but in whatever form it is produced, it must be kept from first to last upon the highest literary and rhetorical level, and its rendition must exhibit the highest grace, charm and power of the speaker's art.[2]

Battin, College of Puget Sound, called attention to the lack of agreement of what constitutes oratory in a series of questions:

> Is it a hastily assembled jumble of sentences, phrases, and exclamations of petting, drinking, flirting, carousing, and all around sinning? Can you imagine a Mark Anthony moving the citizens of Rome to mutiny with a disjointed hastily patched together jumble of unrelated exclamations on the sin of necking? Or a Winston Churchill moving half the world to fight and work beyond its strength by telling how he went into a trance to hear a fairy tell him that we were winning the war? Or a

---

[1] "The Oration," The Forensic, XV (1929), p. 328. (Reprinted from Missouri College Oratorical Association).

[2] Ibid.

> Franklin Delano Roosevelt holding half the world spellbound at the loud speaker with a speech in which he tells how he went to sleep, had a dream, and woke full of wishful thoughts? Or a Patrick Henry firing the imagination of a nation by giving a badly composed imitation of the "Shooting of Dan McGrew." Yet every year tournaments give trophies for such effusions.[1]

Battin answered the question, "What is oratory?" in these words:

> It is speech in the grand manner. It is to spoken language what blank verse is to written language. It represents the best thoughts on vital problems spoken in vital words, beautiful phrases, and moving sentences. It moves in a powerful sweep through succeeding climaxes to a grand final plea for action. The oration is the result of hard work, writing, changing, cutting again, rewriting, perfecting, polishing. It is the result of putting weeks, months, sometimes years, and occasionally a lifetime of thought, study, and polishing into a production.[2]

Nichols described an oration as a piece of literature that should be as artistic as a poem and that the orator should no more be required to defend his thesis than that the poet should defend a poem he has written.[3] That the orator is a poet is shared by Moore, who said:

> The orator should be a poet and a dramatist, a painter, and an actor. He should cultivate his imagination. He should become familiar with the great poetry and fiction, with splendid and heroic deeds . . . The orators are produced by victorious nations--born in the midst of great events, of marvelous achievements. They utter the

---

[1]Charles T. Battin, "Why Teachers of Speech," The Forensic, XXVIII (1942), p. 15.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Egbert R. Nichols, "A Three to Two Decision," The Forensic, XXX (1945), pp. 54-55.

> thoughts, and aspirations of their age. They clothe the children of the people in the gorgeous robes of genius. They interpret dreams, they fill the future with heroic forms, and lofty deeds. They keep their faces toward the dawn--toward the ever-coming day.[1]

Development of National and Special Interest Contests

Following the formation of The Interstate Oratorical Association and The Northern Oratorical League, other regional and national contests were developed, including the Hamilton Club Contest, sponsored by the Hamilton Club of Chicago; the Civic League Contest, consisting of several colleges and universities in Ohio, New York, and Pennsylvania; the Peace National, in which the regional winners competed; and the Prohibition Interstate, with an Eastern, Central, Southern, and Western division followed by a National.[2]

Fackler reported that the first Prohibition contest was held at North Harvey, Illinois, in 1893, with thirteen contestants, and estimated that in the two decades following, at least ten thousand orations were delivered before three million listeners.[3]

---

[1]Wilbur E. Moore, "New Patterns for Debate," The Forensic, XXVIII (1943), pp. 43-47.

[2]"Six Interstate Oratorical Contests," The Forensic, II (1916), pp. 10-11.

[3]Leonard D. Fackler, "Prohibition Oratorical Contests," The Forensic, VI (1919), p. 19.

The Peace Contest.--One of the best known oratorical contests was sponsored by the Intercollegiate Peace Association and was known as The Peace Oratorical Contests.[1] The Peace Association was founded in 1906 at Earlham College by a group of representatives from Goshen, Bluffton, and Earlham Colleges, three of the historic church-related colleges. The purpose of the contest was "that of hastening in the era of international peace, and so the ultimate elimination of war in settling international differences of opinion and judgement."[2] After World War II the association resumed its work among college students with the hope of "arousing in them an interest in the importance and significance of international peace, a consciousness of the evils and barbarism of war, and to endanger the highest ethical ideals of practical statesmanship in all international dealings."[3] The Peace Oratorical Contest has continued more consistently than any other intercollegiate oratorical event with the exception of the Interstate Oratorical Contest. Twenty-seven states were holding the Peace Contests when they were interrupted by World War II.[4]

---

[1] "Six Interstate Oratorical Contests," op. cit.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Rules and Regulations of the Intercollegiate Peace Association (Columbus, Ohio: Capital University, 1947), pp. 1-4.

First Pi Kappa Delta National Contest.--A suggestion was made in The Forensic that Pi Kappa Delta hold an oratory contest as a special feature of its national convention with suitable prizes for the winners. The suggestion obviously was a popular one and the first Pi Kappa Delta national oratory contest was held at the third national convention in 1920.[1]

Ten chapters entered orators, several of whom had won honors in state contests. The oratorical contest has been a permanent event of the Pi Kappa Delta national convention since the first one was inaugurated.

The Better America Federation of California, with Randolph Leigh, Director, asked Delta Sigma Rho and Pi Kappa Delta to assist in conducting its National Intercollegiate Oratorical Contest on the Constitution of the United States. The nation was divided into seven districts with all colleges and universities eligible for the contest. The prizes totaled $5,000, ranging from a first prize of $2,000 to seventh prize of $300.

The contest proved to be a successful venture in awakening new interest in public speaking. The finals of the college contest were held in the Philharmonic Auditorium,

---

[1]Charles A. Marsh, "A Message," The Forensic, V (1919), p. 2.

[2]"National Oratorical Contests on the Constitution," The Forensic, X (1925), p. 39.

Los Angeles, June 5, 1925, with applications for seats being twice the capacity of the house. Because of the popularity of the contest on the Constitution, the Better America Federation continued to sponsor it for several years.

In 1928, The Forensic conducted a novel oratorical contest with the orations being printed. It made the reader a student of the orations and a judge of their worth as written compositions intended for oral presentation. They were asked to read each oration carefully and the criticism of it, and then send their ranking of the orations.[1]

Other interested groups occasionally sponsored oratorical contests. In 1935, one was sponsored by the Polish Student Association. The contest was won by Eugene J. Majewski of De Paul University. Mr. Majewski's award for winning was a two months' trip to Europe.[2]

Oratory has had its critics from the beginning of its introduction as a college activity. Referring to these critics, one of its staunch defenders said:

> It is quite the fashion in some quarters to belittle the work of intercollegiate contests in oratory and debating and to conclude that they serve no good purpose in the process of education. On such occasions it is not unusual to decide that winners of oratorical contests are generally simply smooth speakers without great depth

---

[1] "You Are the Judge," The Forensic, XIV (1928), p. 83.

[2] "Wins a Trip to Europe," The Forensic, XXI (1935), p. 10.

> of thought or personality, that sooner or later they are found out and become one-horse speakers in one-horse towns.[1]

Ewbank decided to see what the evidence available actually indicated. Using the records of the Interstate Oratorical Association, he investigated the winners of the first and second places in the final contests for a period of twenty-eight years. He found that twenty of the fifty-eight speakers, or slightly more than one-third, were listed in "Who's Who in America." They are listed in Appendix D.

Extemporaneous Speaking

Extemporaneous is a type of original speaking which should be prepared in advance but not memorized or read from a manuscript. The extemporaneous speaker shows what his subject will be in time to study it, make an outline, and prepare everything but the exact wording of the final speech before time for the actual presentation. Careful preparation should be made, yet the speech should retain the qualities of good conversation--directness, ease, spontaneity, informality, flexibility, and eagerness to communicate.

For use in contests, two plans have been developed for extemporaneous speaking. In the first the topics to be used are taken from a list of magazines for specified dates. The second, a general subject area is announced for advance

---

[1]Henry L. Ewbank, "What Becomes of Our College Orators?" The Forensic, X (1924), p. 33.

study, and the topics used by the contestants are subdivisions of the general subject. Experts in the area chosen may be invited to prepare the topics to be used.

A cross-examination period at the end of the speech may be used with two choices, both having been used to an advantage. One choice requires each of the contestants to question one other contestant. The second arrangement is one in which the cross-examination is conducted by the judge or judges.

The traditional contest format for extemporaneous speaking allows a contestant a choice of three subjects which are drawn approximately one hour before his turn to speak. Subjects are sometimes drawn at time intervals equal to the length of the speeches in order to give all speakers the same amount of time for preparation.

Although extemporaneous speaking was destined to replace oratory as the most popular individual forensic event, it made a slow start in the race. Intercollegiate oratorical contests had been developed in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and almost fifty years passed before the new contender replaced oratory. Intramural contests were added as the decline of interest in oratory became evident.

Early Development

The Hill Contest.--Brewer, debate coach at Montana State College for many years, after an attempt to trace the

history of intercollegiate extemporaneous speaking, gave credit to Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa, for holding the first formal contest in extemporaneous speaking in June, 1891.[1] Brewer was a student at Grinnell at the time, and was one of the six young men selected by the faculty to compete for prizes provided by two brothers who were graduates of the class of 1871. The brothers were Dr. Gershom Hill, of Des Moines, and Rev. James L. Hill, Congregational pastor of Lynn, Massachusetts. The Hill brothers originated the contest which became known as the Hill Prize Contest for the purpose of "promotion of excellence in extemporaneous speaking."[2] The contest was endowed with the sum of $700, which was increased from time to time until in 1919, it had reached $5,000. In the first contests, subjects were assigned three to five hours in advance and speeches were to be from twelve to fifteen minutes in length. The first contest was limited to men, although later a section was added for women.

Brewer admitted that there was a dearth of actual evidence on the history of intercollegiate extemporaneous speaking but asserted that interest in the contest spread from Grinnell as a parent institution by its graduates. He introduced it at Montana State College for high schools in

---

[1]W. F. Brewer, "Notes on the History of Extemporaneous Speaking," The Forensic, XXVIII (1943), p. 51.

[2]Ibid.

1911 using a variation of the Grinnell plan.

Intercollegiate Extemporaneous Speaking.--Perhaps the best known disciple of extemporaneous speaking to graduate from Grinnell was Glenn Clark of the Class of 1905. Clark later became Professor of Speech at MacAlester College, St. Paul, Minnesota, and used the extemporaneous speaking contest there.[1] Clark also gave credit to the Hill Contest of Grinnell as the earliest extemporaneous speaking contest on record. His enthusiasm for the extempore contest was indicated in his comparison of extemporaneous speaking with the oratorical contests held at Grinnell:

> These contests originally came in Commencement week the day before the Hyde Prize Contest in old line oratory. Never was there a more striking proof of the superiority of extemporaneous speaking over the old line than these two contests furnished. A handful of people attended the memorized speech contest; a full auditorium turned out to hear the vigorous, peppy contest in extempore speaking. Few men cared to enter the one; half the college wanted to try out for the other.[2]

Under Clark's direction, MacAlester inaugurated annual intercollegiate extemporaneous speaking contests with Hamline University and the University of North Dakota, and it was his belief that this series was the first of the intercollegiate contests, assumed to have taken place between the years 1910-1920.

---

[1]"Editorial," The Forensic, XI (1925), p. 106.

[2]Glenn Clark, "The Extemporaneous Contest," The Forensic, VII (1921), p. 7.

Clark took the lead in organizing a discussion and extemporaneous league in Minnesota and served as secretary of the league for seven years. Much of the growth and popularity of extemporaneous speaking was due to his belief that the extemporaneous style represented speaking at its best. Clark said:

> Extemporaneous speaking to be well done demands more of a man than any other form of public discourse. It demands that he be a first rate thinker. It demands that he have a good physique. It demands that he possess a good voice and sufficient training in our instinct for elocution to insure his making, effectively, the point he wishes his hearers to know. He must be a well read man, a resourceful man, and above all he must have personality.[1]

Clark expressed a desire for national contests in extemporaneous speaking. This became a reality when Pi Kappa Delta added extemporaneous speaking as an intercollegiate contest. As early as 1922 extemporaneous speaking was introduced in the intercollegiate forensic conference of Southern California[2] with its first extemporaneous speaking at the University of California at Los Angeles, December 12, 1922.

In Kansas extemporaneous speaking contests in varying forms were also developed. A triangular extemporaneous speaking contest between Washburn University, Kansas State College, and Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, was held in

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] "News Notes from Chapters," The Forensic, VIII (1922), p. 14.

which each school had three representatives. Westfall, National President of Pi Kappa Delta, prepared the subjects for the contests. Each man drew three subjects and had the choice of speaking on any of the three following an hour of preparation. The speeches were limited to eight minutes.[1]

Extemporaneous debating was also tried in Kansas and received favorable comments from both students and faculty.[2] The advocates of the new system felt it was a more practical plan of debate as it gave the debaters more opportunity for a direct clash.

The South Dakota Movement.--The "South Dakota" movement in extemporaneous speaking was developed under George McCarty of South Dakota State College.[3] McCarty later served as National President of Pi Kappa Delta and editor of its publication, The Forensic. The "South Dakota" experiments in extemporaneous speaking paralleled those of Macalester College and together they provided the background of experience from which Pi Kappa Delta drew to establish the first national contest in extemporaneous speaking at its convention

---

[1]George R. R. Pflaum, "Tri-College Extempore Contest in Kansas," The Forensic, XI (1926), p. 148.

[2]"Kansas State Collegian," The Forensic, VI (1921), p. 10.

[3]"The South Dakota Contest Plan of Extempore Speaking," The Forensic, XIV (1929), p. 186.

at Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois, in 1924.[1]

South Dakota State College experimented with the contest in competition with Huron College using a form in which each school used a three speaker team. The judges ranked the speakers in the usual manner and from the scores given both, an individual winner and the winning school could be determined. One feature of the South Dakota Plan was the addition of a question period for each speaker at the end of his prepared speech as a safeguard against the possibility of the use of a memorized speech.

The question and answer requirement placed a premium on the speaker knowing the subject as a whole and developed the ability to think clearly and quickly while before an audience. After this plan was tried in the State Association of South Dakota, it was used in the Provincial Conventions of Pi Kappa Delta and was added to the extemporaneous speaking contest at the national convention of Pi Kappa Delta in 1928. The question and answer period has been a permanent feature of the national contest ever since.

The rapid growth of extemporaneous speaking as an intercollegiate speech contest is an indication that forensic directors and students recognize it as one of the events with practical value for the contestant. It provides excellent opportunity for training in research, selection and organiza-

---

[1] "Convention Program," The Forensic, X (1924), p. 26.

tion of material, and practice in the communicative skills as well as contributing to the development of personality through poise and self-confidence gained from experience in the extemporaneous speaking contest.

Directors also recognize that improvements are possible in the format of the extemporaneous speaking contest, and occasional attempts have been made to find better ways of organizing and conducting the contest.

Student Congress

The student congress or legislative assembly has been a forensic event which provided opportunities for the integration of a number of speech skills. Being organized along the lines of state and national legislative bodies, they included a variety of activities such as: the preparation and introduction of bills and resolutions, consideration of measures in committees, debate on controversial bills, observing the rules of parliamentary procedure, and taking part in caucuses. Experience in cloakroom politics and log rolling tactics have been considered of practical value.

The congress sometimes was organized as a two-house legislature, and at other times as an unicameral house. In some congresses, bills introduced were restricted to specified areas, and in others no limit was placed on the type and number of bills that may be presented for consideration. Committees on education, labor, finance, foreign affairs, roads,

and judicial problems were usually announced and the student member was given a choice of committee assignments.

Early sessions of the congress have been used for the election of officers with candidates rallying supporters from groups divided along the traditional party lines. Occasionally special names have been used to indicate party affiliation such as the "liberals" and "conservatives."

Origin and Development

The first student legislative assembly to get widespread attention was the model League of Nations Assembly founded by the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs of Syracuse University in 1927.[1]

By 1931, this model league movement had become so popular that 37 assemblies were held, attended by 7200 students from 24 states.[2] Students from secondary schools as well as colleges were permitted to attend. In the early assemblies students used the actual speeches delivered at Geneva and the sessions were demonstrations of the positions of the various countries represented in the League of Nations.

In 1932, student conventions similar to the national political conventions were held at Princeton and the Pennsylvania State College.[3] In 1933, Cornell conducted a legisla-

---

[1]Lyman S. Judson, The Student Congress Movement Vol. XIII of The Reference Shelf (New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1940), pp. 9-12.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 11.

tive assembly using both committee and general sessions.[1] This convention differed from the model League of Nations Assembly in that the speakers represented themselves and worked out action policies on state rather than international problems. The problems used were selected from a list submitted by the governor of the state.

In 1934, the Northeast Ohio Debate Conference[2] established a Student Conference on Public Affairs. By 1935,[3] the student legislative assemblies spread to other states where at least five other groups were being organized. In 1937, Rhode Island[4] and Oklahoma[5] joined the list of states in which legislative assemblies were held. The Oklahoma student assembly was sponsored by the University of Oklahoma chapter of Delta Sigma Rho. It was an unicameral body which met in the Oklahoma State Capitol for a three-day session. Reports from seven committees were used with matters relating only to national policies of government. 1938 was a banner year for the student congress movement with student assemblies being inaugurated by the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech, the Penn State Freshman Invitational Debaters Convention,[6] and a parliamentary session held in Hutchinson, Kansas

---

[1] Ibid., p. 12.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 19.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid.

Junior College.[1]

National Congresses

The most important development of 1938 was the first national student congress sponsored by Pi Kappa Delta.[2] It was a feature of the national convention of Pi Kappa Delta which met at Topeka, Kansas. The congress consisted of a senate of 40 members, and a lower house where members introduced bills of their own drafting, considered them in committee, debated them on the floor in each house, and finally passed or rejected them.

Every member was allowed to introduce whatever measures he pleased--topics which came before the Congress included our neutrality policy, armaments, continuation of work relief, dollar stabilization, social security policies, judicial settlement in labor disputes, reorganization of the Supreme Court, submission of a new child labor amendment, and other matters of national importance. A portion of the proceedings of the Congress were broadcast.

Keith, director of the National Student Congressional Session, said:

> In launching the National Student Congressional Session Pi Kappa Delta has given emphasis to its twenty-fifth anniversary. That it inaugurates a national student institution bespeaks its maturity and vigor, already evidenced by its famous tournament and its predominant

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 18.

position in national forensic affairs.

For some time demands have been made for an enlargement of the activities of the National Convention of Pi Kappa Delta. The action of President Toussaint, Mr. Summers, and Mr. Pflaum in laying plans for a Student Congress is undoubtedly one of the most progressive steps which has been taken by any society or fraternity involved in the affairs of young people. At the same time the session offers possibilities for a study of new forms of activities in speech.

One may ask what is the National Student Congress and what does it propose to do? The four day sessions, Tuesday through Friday of Pi Kappa Delta Convention Week, will be organized to give students experience in the management and procedure of public assemblies. There will be a Senate and a House organized in the manner of our Federal Congress.[1]

The Student Congress was held in the state capitol building of Kansas and attracted a great deal of attention. It was considered a success and plans were made to continue the Student Congress as a permanent feature of the program of Pi Kappa Delta. In 1940, with the national convention at Knoxville, Tennessee, Pi Kappa Delta retained the Student Congress and the rules were revised in an attempt to prevent some of the log-rolling and political maneuvering that was evident at Topeka. However, without the impressive background of the state capitol, the Congress at Knoxville lacked some of the glamour of the first one.

When the national convention was held at Minneapolis during the war year of 1942, interest in the congress had subsided; however, it was retained as a unicameral body.

---

[1]Warren G. Keith, "National Student Congressional Session," The Forensic, XXII (1937), pp. 109-111.

An elaborate set of rules was prepared by T. B. Hyder[1] of North Texas State College. Mr. Hyder had served in the State Legislature of Texas and was well qualified to serve as director of the Pi Kappa Delta Legislative body. The third student congress was an improvement over the first two in its organization.

When the national convention of Pi Kappa Delta was resumed in 1947, after a five-year delay due to the war, interest in the student congress movement had subsided and the event was replaced by discussion in the national program.

One of the most highly developed examples of the student congress is the Biennial National Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho. Conceived in 1936, this Congress was first held in 1939, and subsequently in 1941, 1947, 1949, and 1951.[2]

Tau Kappa Alpha also entered the student congress field with a progression-discussion tournament at the Hotel Continental in Washington, D. C., December 31 to January 2, 1939. It was held in connection with the annual meeting of the Speech Association of America. The question used was "What should be the policy of the United States in relation

---

[1]T. B. Hyder, "Rules of the Student Assembly," Pi Kappa Delta National Convention (1942), pp. 1-8.

[2]For a more complete record of the student congresses sponsored by Delta Sigma Rho, see the section on "History of Delta Sigma Rho" in Chapter III.

to the other countries of the Western Hemisphere as regards defense against aggression?" The proposition was carried through seven rounds which conforms to the pattern of the discussion-progression rather than the typical Student Congress.[1]

Other schools adopted the student congress as an intercollegiate activity. East Texas State Teachers College claimed to have held the first one in the Southwest, October 25-26, 1940.[2] Another was held at Southern Methodist, November 15-16 of the same year.[3] Although both were reported to have been successful, neither was revived after the war.

The student congress provides an excellent opportunity for the correlation of work in research, problem solving, the techniques of debate, discussion, extemporaneous speaking, and parliamentary law. Delta Sigma Rho has emphasized the student congress as a feature of its national conventions. Tau Kappa Alpha also has used the student congress to an advantage. Pi Kappa Delta featured the student congress in three of its national conventions and replaced it by discussion. Several state and national student congresses are well established and continue to grow in popularity.

---

[1]For a more complete record of the student congresses sponsored by Tau Kappa Alpha, see the section on "History of Tau Kappa Alpha" in Chapter III.

[2]The Forensic, XXVI (1941), p. 56.

[3]Ibid.

In spite of the excellent possibilities for training in forensics provided by a well-organized student congress, its growth has been gradual. For instance, during 1956 while 150 intercollegiate speech tournaments were held, records indicate that only seven included student congresses.

Interest in the congress is greatest in those areas where the debate tournament is least popular, and the congress has been almost completely ignored in those areas where attention has been centered almost entirely on the debate tournament. However, some directors insist that there need be no conflict between the student congress and the tournament as each provides training that complements the other. These directors say that the student congress avoids many of the problems that arise in the tournament such as a shortage of contest rooms, qualified judges, crowded schedules, and lack of coordination of the program.

Intramural

A variety of intramural activities has been found on college campuses. In many cases the year began with an assembly, a party, or a general get together planned for the enlistment of freshmen in the forensic program.

St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesota, started the forensic season with a variation of the big brother plan. The new prospects were divided into groups with a discussion being held by a varsity debater in which the program of the

year was outlined and explained to the recruits.[1]

An important phase of the program for the year for many schools was an intramural tournament. In some instances a tournament was used for inexperienced debaters with the teams being coached by the more experienced speakers. Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, held one hundred intramural debates in which forty students participated.[2] The same school conducted the Strawn Discussion contest with fourteen students competing for a ten dollar first prize.[3] Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio, held an extemporaneous speaking contest for freshmen in which twenty-five dollars was divided equally among the top five speakers.[4] Alabama College, Montevallo, conducted an intramural speaking contest for inexperienced students with twenty-three entered.[5] Rollins University, Florida, conducted weekly intramural contests beginning in February.[6]

Concordia College, Minnesota, conducted a series of group discussions for both students and faculty called Coffee Conferences. The conferences were held each Monday afternoon

---

[1] "Minnesota," The Forensic, XXXIII (1948), p. 40.

[2] The Forensic, XXVI (1941), p. 147.

[3] The Forensic, XXX (1946), p. 39.

[4] The Forensic, XII (1926), p. 133.

[5] The Forensic, XXX (1945), p. 37.

[6] Ibid., p. 72.

on a topic introduced by a member of the forensic squad. Following the discussion coffee and doughnuts were served by a women's organization on the campus.[1]

Baylor University, Waco, Texas, exceeded the intramural program of most schools with two weekly programs being held. One meeting consisted of a debate forum with two local teams or one-Baylor team meeting a visiting team before a local audience, with an open forum following the debate. The second meeting was in the form of a discussion presented over the local radio station.[2]

Wheaton College, Illinois, conducted a series of broadcasts over WCFL, a Chicago station.[3] Other schools made use of the radio in some instances using the facilities owned by the college or commercial facilities available to the school.

Other intramural activities were developed. The College of the Pacific, California, forensic group had its own library which was located in the debate seminar room.[4] Subscriptions of news and reference books were made through contributions of alumni and other money raising plans.

---

[1] The Forensic, XXVII (1941), p. 33.

[2] "Baylor University Student Forums," The Forensic, XXXV (1950), p. 59.

[3] The Forensic, XXVI (1940), p. 32.

[4] The Forensic, XXXI (1946), p. 27.

William Jewell College, Missouri, published an illustrated folder giving its forensic history back to 1873.[1] It included the record of speakers now in college and an outline of its plans for the year. It was used to encourage freshmen to try out for a place on the squad and was distributed among alumni and program committees.

Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, organized its own Student Speakers Bureau and issued a sixteen page pamphlet to advertise its offerings.[2] Seattle Pacific College, Washington, developed a speech scrapbook which included pictures of speakers, clippings of forensic activities, and other items of general interest.[3]

The forensic season on the campus usually closed with a banquet at which awards for the year were made and the new members initiated into the forensic organization. One of the most elaborate was that of Southwest Louisiana Institute, Lafayette, in which a joint banquet for debaters and actors was held, called "Speech Takes a Holiday."[4] With eighty-five debaters, actors, and instructors present, this was an outstanding event of the school year.

Intramural activities in many schools are the

---

[1]The Forensic, XXVII (1942), p. 71.

[2]The Forensic, XXIX (1944), p. 56.

[3]"Washington," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), p. 59.

[4]The Forensic, XXX (1946), p. 120.

foundation of the forensic program. Through these activities experience may be offered to an unlimited number of students in contrast to the intercollegiate phase of the program which is limited by the size of the forensic budget, restrictions on the number of speakers or teams that may be entered in tournaments, and conflicts with jobs and family responsibilities for married students. Loss of time from classes, an objection sometimes raised against the intercollegiate program, is not a serious factor in the intramural program.

In addition to extending the advantages of forensic activity to a greater number, the intramural program has provided a group with forensic speaking experience that are potential recruits for the varsity squad, as participating in a contest on the campus has developed interest on the part of some for more extensive forensic activity.

In the intramural program an indefinite number of questions have been used by discussion groups and debate teams as an answer to the critics who complain that too much time is spent on one question. Groups prepared on a series of questions provide program material for civic clubs, assemblies, study groups and other audiences requesting programs. Experiences of speaking in real life situations have been provided for those in the intramural program who have been prepared on a number of subjects and questions while the varsity debater who has developed only the official debate

or discussion question has found that the situations which provided opportunities for speaking experience were limited to tournaments. In spite of the advantages offered through intramural activities, some directors have been content to work with a small group of two or four debaters with all of their attention centered on tournament participation.

Summary

Oratory was developed as an intercollegiate contest several years before the first intercollegiate debate was held, and a number of the oratorical leagues continued to flourish. Since debate replaced oratory as the number one forensic activity, there has been a tendency to overemphasize debate and many of the possibilities of providing forensic training through the individual events have been neglected. Over half of the tournaments have included only debate. Others have included one or two individual events, but gave them a secondary role so that directors were inclined not to take extra speakers to enter these events. If entries were made, the contestants were those who were also debating. The expense of taking an orator on a trip of several hundred miles to present an oration that would not exceed ten minutes was questioned; but it was easy to justify the expense for a debate team who would compete in a minimum of four or five hours of debate and in some cases engage in fifteen to twenty hours of debate in a two-day period. Directors believed that

training in oratory and extemporaneous speaking were of definite value to supplement training in debate. Not being a team activity, preparation has been easier for many students. Experience in extemporaneous speaking has been considered by some directors to be of more practical value than debate, and a definite course of study in extemporaneous speaking has been devised for students who did not have the time nor interest for debate. To justify such a course, it became necessary to modify the schedules of tournaments to provide more rounds of participation in individual events. Such a schedule has been used in the national tournament sponsored by Pi Kappa Delta, and in a limited number of invitational tournaments. The increased participation in the individual events in these tournaments indicated that there were other possibilities of using the individual events to a greater advantage.

The student congress has made steady growth as a forensic activity with more interest being indicated in those areas where the debate tournament has not been emphasized. All of the fraternities have used the student congress and Delta Sigma Rho especially has featured the congress at its national meetings.

Many limitations that apply to the intercollegiate forensic program do not apply to the intramural program as a larger number have been given the benefits of participation

with a minimum amount of expense, loss of time from school, family or work. The intramural program offered opportunities to provide practical experience to supplement the work of regular speech classes. Experiments with new events, methods of conducting contests, and evaluation of activities have been made in the intramural program.

CHAPTER VI

THE HISTORY OF CONTEST JUDGING

Introduction

In this chapter were reviewed some of the salient factors involved in the most controversial phase of intercollegiate forensic activities--contest judging. Because of dissatisfaction with judging methods, some colleges have abandoned contest debating or adopted non-decision debating while others have adopted the English style in which the emphasis is placed on debating beliefs and opinions.

Those favoring the continuation of decision debating have experimented with several different types of decisions. Eight methods of judging have been tried at various times and others have been suggested or recommended. The ones most frequently mentioned are:

1. Non-Decision Debating
2. The Single-Critic Judge
3. The Board of Judges
4. The Audience Decision
5. The Shift of Opinion Ballot
6. The Legislative Vote
7. Judging by the Opponents
8. The Combination Ballot

As the difference in criteria used by the judge has

made a difference in the results achieved, a special section considered criteria that have been proposed for debate judges.

The problem of judging individual events varies from that of judging debate, and seven plans that have been used for individual events were considered.

1. Non-Decision
2. Ranking
3. Rating
4. Rating by Opponents
5. Audience Decision
6. Use of Special Observers
7. A Combination Plan

The Problem of Contest Judging

From the beginning of intercollegiate forensic contests, much attention has been given to the problem of judging. Many different suggestions have been offered for the benefit of the judge. However, trained judges have arrived at decisions that were difficult for contestants and visitors to understand. The problem has been aggravated by the use of judges untrained in the techniques being evaluated.

One theory has been advanced that any average business or professional man was qualified to judge a speech contest, as the same individual might be called to serve on a jury and be required to help prepare a verdict involving matters of life and death. He would not be excused from jury duty on the grounds that he had not had a course in how to serve on a jury or previous experience in that activity. The necessity of adjusting the speech to the audience and

the occasion has been stressed in speech classes, and a contest with untrained judges has required the speaker to adjust his arguments to a school teacher in one round, a minister in the next, followed by a lawyer, a housewife, a college freshman, or even the janitor who has been drafted to judge.

Others have insisted that only trained judges should be used, preferably those who have had experience in the event under consideration at the moment, and thus have maintained that since forensic activities have been accepted as a part of the educational program, and decisions have been used as teaching aids and motivational techniques, that critiques given by the untrained have been little more than quackery, with the same undesirable effects that have resulted from untrained teachers in the classroom. Decisions have been of great value to the student when they have stimulated him to greater effort. If the judge has been made to realize that the desire to excel has been a powerful source of motivation, he has been made aware of his responsibility to analyze the speaker's presentation in terms of his strength and weaknesses. Decisions have been of value to the audience as well as the speaker by giving them training in weighing evidence and considering arguments, and winning or losing in the spirit of good sportsmanship, in addition to a better understanding of the problem that was being debated.

The responsibility of the judge has been to evaluate the skills and abilities of the debaters in the clash that

he has just observed, disregarding his personal opinion on the question, and to help keep the activity in line with sound educational principles.

The issues over judging have been confused in part because of a difference of opinion over the purposes of the contest. In some contests the purpose has been to select a first place winner, while in others it has been to give each contestant an idea of the degree of excellence in the use of the techniques required in the immediate contest.

Types of Debate Judging

In the 1920's a movement was started to abolish the decision in debating, hence the first question considered was: Should the debate be judged?

Non-Decision Debating

Critics of decision debating have said that the motive of striving toward a decision creates an artificial situation in debate in which the emphasis is placed upon winning rather than upon effective debating. Those favoring non-decision debating maintain that the absence of decisions creates a more natural speech situation. One of the first schools to try non-decision debating was Swarthmore College.[1] After several years of trial in local contests, the Debate

---

[1]Phillip M. Hicks, "The Open Forum or Judgeless Debate," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 15-16.

Board of Swarthmore College decided to substitute the open forum or judgeless debate, for the familiar method of judging.

The first step was made in 1917 when a vote of the audience was submitted for the decision of the usual board of judges in the extemporaneous speaking contest. The results obtained were satisfactory and Swarthmore dropped the use of special judges from all local contests.

According to those interested in debating at Swarthmore, the following advantages resulted from the new system:

1. It lifts debate from the field of sport into the plane of sincere discussion of public questions. Each speaker is independent of the others, and there is no necessity for sacrificing or suppressing personal convictions in the interest of team play to win a technical decision.

2. It directs the attention of the speaker to the proper end of all public speaking, that of interesting and convincing the audience as a whole rather than three supposed experts in the technique.

3. It eliminates the difficulty of securing judges who are experts in the field, a source of friction between institutions too well known to require comment.

4. It results in a more interesting and valuable discussion from the standpoint of the audience. This fact was brought out by votes taken in various classes following the Oxford debate, as well as by the unanimous approval of the students who actually participate in debates.[1]

It was believed that these advantages could be obtained without a sacrifice of the benefits of the usual plan.

---

[1] Ibid.

Swarthmore advocated the introduction of this system to increase the value of debating in American colleges. Advantages were claimed for the Oxford System on the grounds that it lifted debate from the field of sport into the realm of sincere discussion of important questions and eliminated competition. Debating as a game, with time limits, judges, teamwork, and debating strategy was regarded as inconsistent with the sincere and effective presentation of individual conviction by those favoring the Oxford System.

The idea of the non-decision debate has had its proponents even in tournament debating. Some directors assert that there is a place for the non-decision tournament if held at the right time of the year and managed properly. Such a tournament was conducted by Northwest Maryville State Teachers College (Missouri) for several years. Four rounds of debate were conducted with a critic present to conduct a discussion on the debate but with definite instructions not to indicate a decision. Only teams were present that were interested in this type of procedure. Early in the season, it had an advantage in placing the emphasis on analysis of the question rather than on trying to win decisions before the issues were clearly determined and developed. This plan had an advantage for the beginning debater who was given an opportunity to get experience without the stigma of defeat and discouragement too early in his career. In 1937, Southwestern College,

Winfield, Kansas, tried a variation of this plan by using four non-decision rounds followed by four decision rounds.[1] The plan was not satisfactory as after two rounds, some teams decided to sit out the round and by the fourth round many teams did not appear. The following year, two non-decision rounds were used followed by six decision rounds. This plan was more satisfactory and had merit for an early season tournament. In 1947, Tulsa University conducted a non-decision tournament using only a judges' rating ballot.

Tournaments may be divided into two divisions with a non-decision bracket for beginning teams and another division for experienced teams in which decisions would be given. This made a satisfactory arrangement for the beginning team as well as for the experienced teams who were ready for decision debating.

The proponents of decision debating maintained that the absence of decisions created an artificial speech situation and asserted that effective speech aims at conviction and to convince was to win a decision from the audience; failing to convince meant losing the decision. Also, the decision gave the debater a more definite goal and the realization that a speaker was being judged every time he appeared before an audience. One coach said: "Debating without a decision

---

[1]"The Winfield Tournament," The Forensic, XXIII (1938), p. 58.

and for the mere sake of debating is like batting a tennis ball for the mere sake of batting--there will be no flashes of excellency unless there is a man on the other side of the net batting the balls back and unless there is some way of determining which side is doing the better job of batting."[1]

The reasons for using decisions in debates are well summarized by Ewbank and Auer as follows:

1. The only reason for holding a debate in real life situations is the necessity of reaching a decision on a problem of policy. School exercises should resemble life situations as nearly as possible. Moreover, training in winning and losing is a valuable educational discipline.

2. The decision usually stimulates the debaters to greater efforts, both in preparation and performance, than they would otherwise make. The desire to excel is a powerful motivating force that should not be discarded because it is sometimes unwisely used.

3. The decision is valuable because it gives the debater an evaluation of his efforts. If he loses, he should find out the reasons, analyze his weaknesses and attempt to remedy them; if he wins, he should find out the reasons for his success that he may use the same methods again.

4. The decision is valuable if it gives members of the audience training in the evaluation of arguments. Every citizen, though he may never appear in a public debate should be an intelligent listener. Members of the audience who compare their own decisions with that of the official judge are taking part in a profitable educational enterprise.[2]

---

[1]Karl E. Mundt, "The Fallacy of Non-Decision Debates," The Forensic, XV (1929), pp. 273-275.

[2]Henry L. Ewbank and J. Jeffrey Auer, Discussion and Debate (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1944).

The Single Critic Judge

The use of the critic judge was considered an improvement over the board of judges previously used, as the critic judge was usually a debate coach or some one with debate experience. After judging several debates on the same question, he was able to sum up quickly the weak spots and the strong spots in each argument. He rather instinctively formed a judgment about the skill, reasoning, grasp of fundamentals, deftness of treatment, and the quickness with which either side took advantage of the weaknesses of the other. He would not be surprised by "trick cases" and the essentials to good debating would in time so impress themselves upon his mind that his mental judgment about each point would be made immediately; because of the large number of judges needed in tournament debating the use of the single critic judge became the most widely used system.

Board of Judges

The board of judges usually consisted of an odd number, usually three but in exceptional cases five, seven, or nine have been used. In the early debates, members of the board were selected from professional men and often were ministers, lawyers, businessmen, or teachers from other institutions. In many cases they had had no previous experience in debate or judging debates. Instead of judging on the merit of the debating done, decisions were often based on

the judges' personal opinions on the question. Judges sometimes were selected because of their bias on the question or favoritism toward a certain institution. Members of the board of judges have been known to give a consolation vote which resulted in a surprise decision when several members of the board voted for the weaker team just to make them feel good. In the semi-finals and finals in tournaments, the board of judges is still used. With several judges present, a faulty decision by one would be offset by the decisions of the other judges.

Audience Decision

In audience decision debates, the debate was held before an audience with the decision given at the end of the debate based on a vote of the audience.

Kansas State College[1] attempted to hold debates before audiences most interested in the question. Debates on the McNary-Haugen question were held before farmer audiences in five farm communities; one was held before a chamber of commerce group to which farmers had been invited; and one was broadcast over the radio station of the college. One debate with the University of Pittsburgh was held in a student assembly, the question used being that of the desirability of the present tendency toward the practical or occupational in

---

[1] "Kansas Tries the Audience Decision," The Forensic, XII (1927), pp. 154-155.

college education. Another debate with Northwestern University on the question of prohibition was held on a Sunday night before an audience in one of the local churches. This plan of carrying the debate to the people was considered successful as the audiences were large and exceptionally interested.

An interesting experiment with audience-decision debates was conducted during 1927 by the Southern Division of the Kansas State Intercollegiate Debating League.[1] The debates were held in neutral high schools, the people of the communities being invited to hear the contests and render decisions.

The experiment was a profitable one, but the unanimous opinion of the coaches and debaters was that the audience-decision plan should be rejected as a solution of the debate-decision problem.

From the viewpoint of the tournament, the audience decision might be used occasionally but would not be the ideal plan for tournament judging for several reasons. The difficulty of getting fifty audiences for fifty debates round after round would be an obstacle. In the case of college classes, it would be necessary to adjust the debates to the class schedule of fifty minutes with only ten minutes between debates. Such audiences would become disinterested and

---

[1] Ibid.

restless after the bell rung, which would happen when a debate was a few minutes late in starting. Classes required to listen to several debates would not be a desirable audience and would prefer popular appeals rather than those of logic and evidence.

The Shift of Opinion Ballot

The shift of opinion ballot was a refinement of the audience decision. It was developed by Woodward, Western Reserve University, who said of it:

> Such balloting does something to make audiences think on the question, to arouse an expectation of learning and an interest in learning something worth knowing. I am sure that it tends to make the debater feel that he has an opportunity to be an instructor in the field of adult education. Debating then to him becomes a significant and more serious task in playing the student part of his role . . .[1]

The vote of the audience was usually taken as a decision; however, it need not be, but has been used as the basis of special studies. It revealed interesting data, and served to stimulate the interest of the audience, but was not comparable to the critic decision because of the lack of a distinct basis for the decision. The general idea of the shift-of-opinion ballot was to take a vote of the audience on the question before the debate and another following the debate to see which side was more successful in changing the opinions of members of the audience, strengthening opinions, or

---

[1]Howard S. Woodward, "Measurement and Analysis of Audience Opinion," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XIV (1928), pp. 94-111.

winning those that were neutral.

The shift of opinion ballot would be impossible without an audience and hence could not conform to the needs of the tournament. It might be used in a final debate when an audience was present, and in an occasional round when classes were available for audiences. The question of criteria for judging would be a factor that would make the shift of opinion ballot unreliable as a basis for tournament decisions.

The Legislative Vote

The legislative vote was one in which the judge or judges voted on the merits of the question rather than the effectiveness of the debating done. O'Neill and McBurney said, "In no case should a judge or judges give a legislative vote in a contest debate."[1] Yet, unfortunately, some laymen judges have cast a legislative vote.

Judging by Opponents

Judging by opponents was a plan that has been used in connection with other forms of judging. In this form each team ranked its opponents on a comparative basis after all rounds of debate had been completed.

Murrish favored this plan as a result of a special study with the method. He said:

---

[1]James M. O'Neill and James H. McBurney, The Working Principles of Argument (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932), p. 369.

> If we are to train debaters to become more intelligent and responsible speakers, it is important that we provide them with an opportunity to evaluate their own deficiencies as well as their proficiencies. I am convinced that contest evaluations provide a functional methodology for the partial attainment of this objective. As debaters learn to be more self-reflective, it would seem that a higher degree of ethical responsibility would ensue. We are all aware of the debater's complaint that the last affirmative rebuttal speaker misconstrued the negative stand. Deliberate misrepresentation and unethical presentation would have little value in a contestant judged situation. One debater expressed this idea very definitely by saying that there was no point in being unethical or discourteous when your opposition is also your judge.[1]

Murrish recommended that other tournament directors use contestant evaluations as a supplement to critic judged tournaments. If debate was to survive as a contest activity, it must be justified as a learning technique. Self-objectivity should be the focal point of all learning, and this could be provided by giving debaters the opportunity to evaluate their own debates. This should reduce the advantages of glib tongues and sophistic devices and emphasize the value of sound argument and sincere, conversational speaking.

The plan of judging by opponents was used in 1938-1939 in the Baylor University Tournament.[2] Teams were asked to rank their opponents at the end of the preliminary rounds. The average rating by opponents was consistently lower than

---

[1]Walter N. Murrish, "Should Debaters Judge Their Own Debates?" The Forensic, XL (1955), pp. 52-53.

[2]"Rules and Regulations," The Baylor Forensic (Waco, Texas: Baylor University, 1938-39).

that of the judges for the respective teams.

A somewhat similar method of judging debate was reported by Baccus of Redlands, who wrote that his estimate of the method indicated that "there is some justification, mathematically for believing that the judgments rendered are accurate and unprejudiced."[1]

Combination Ballot

The combination ballot consisted of using a single critic judge, a board of judges, and an audience decision with a comparison of the results of the three systems.

The combination ballot could not be used consistently in the tournament, because of the lack of audience and the shortage of judges which made it difficult to assign more than one judge to debates. The combination ballot was designed largely for experimental purposes and occasional use rather than for permanent use. Its aim was to compare the consistency of different types of judging, rather than to serve as a form for permanent use.

Criteria of Debate Judging

Dissatisfaction often resulted in a conflict between the debaters and the judge because the debater was not aware of the criteria by which he was being judged. More satis-

---

[1]Joseph H. Baccus, "Debaters Judge Each Other," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIII (1937), p. 74.

faction in judging resulted when the factors being used by the judge were determined in advance and made known to the speaker. Several attempts have been made to develop a list of factors and the basis for their use in arriving at a decision.

Harshbarger of Bethel College, Kansas, made a comprehensive list of factors to be considered by the judge, and discovered that the weight given to a particular phase was a matter of individual judgment.[1] However, there were certain general principles which were universally accepted as follows:

1. The decision should always be based upon the general effectiveness of the two teams, never upon the judge's opinion of the merits of the question.

2. Preparation for the debate as evidenced by superior argument, organization, and evidence should weigh more heavily in the decision than merely superior speaking ability.

3. Use of gestures, control of the voice, general appearance, and personality should receive attention; any debate decided on these points must alone be a close debate, and weakness should be mentioned confidentially so that improvement may result.

4. Courtesy and honesty should be cardinal characteristics of every debate; willful violation of these rules may result in loss of a decision.

5. In judging the argument used:

    a. The affirmative must carry the burden of proof. The negative shares it only when a counterproposal is offered.

---

[1]H. C. Harshbarger, "Debate Purposes," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XVII (1931), p. 95.

b. If no direct clash results, the affirmative team wins.

c. Usually mere technicalities should not win a debate.

d. Unfair interpretations should be discredited.

e. Shifting of ground should be penalized.

f. New arguments should not be considered if offered in the refutation speeches; new evidence to support previous arguments is desirable.

g. Questions asked in the last affirmative rebuttal should be discounted since the negative has no chance to reply.

h. Decisions should be based on the quality and effectiveness of the issues presented, not upon their number.

i. A premium should be placed on well-substantiated reasoning. Extensive use of statistics and authorities is no substitute for reasoning.

j. Mistaken facts should not be too hastily considered fallacious unless so proved by the other team.

6. Excessive and obvious reliance on unoriginal unprepared speeches should be penalized. Ability to analyze arguments during the debate and skill in adapting your case to new arguments should be properly credited.[1]

Ewbank and Auer[2] included six factors for consideration, and O'Neill and McBurney[3] gave nine.

Edward S. Betz made a study to determine what people

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ewbank and Auer, op. cit., p. 506.

[3] O'Neill and McBurney, op. cit., p. 375.

in the field of debate believed concerning the basis for judging.[1] He sent questionnaires to coaches and debaters and found thirty-three points that should be considered in judging:

1. The debate should be judged on the general effect of the argument between the two teams rather than on the basis of individual scores.

2. The affirmative should not reserve refutation on a highly controversial point until after the last rebuttal.

3. A team should not be penalized because it does not have the original source of its evidence on hand.

4. The last rebuttal speaker should refrain from making broad assertions as to the accomplishments of the affirmative.

5. A team should authorize all evidence used except facts of common knowledge.

6. Arguments as to the constitutionality of the proposal should be waived.

7. Arguments as to whether the proposal will be adopted are irrelevant.

8. The negative is not required to accept the affirmative definitions without questions.

9. Minor differences in interpretation should be ironed out during the debate, but should not become the chief point of contention.

10. If one team adopts a strange interpretation plainly changing the intent and meaning of the proposition, the other is justified in refusing to meet the arguments presented.

11. After such unusual definitions by team A, if team B explains why they are unusual and destroy the meaning of the proposition, it (B) should win.

---

[1]Edward S. Betz, "A Study of Debate Standards," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 111-112, 181.

12. If in such a case, B does not disclose the true meaning of the proposition, the debate must be judged on the merits of the argument.

13. In debating questions of policy the affirmative should present the main outline of a plan.

14. Even though the negative admits that present conditions are not entirely satisfactory, it is not required to present a counter-plan.

15. The negative may agree that conditions need a change and still confine its arguments to attacking the affirmative plan.

16. Other factors being equal, the judge should favor the team that develops a few main arguments over the team that lists a great many.

17. The presentation of a large mass of facts--evidence--does not in and of itself constitute superior debating.

18. The effective use of persuasion and sound reasoning from basic facts constitutes superior debating.

19. The affirmative is not required to answer every question asked by the negative but may ignore obviously irrelevant ones.

20. The asking of a great many questions as a chief method of attack is not effective debating.

21. When there is no clash between the two teams, the fault should lie at the door of the negative.

22. The affirmative is not required to answer every one of the negative supporting arguments.

23. The affirmative must answer all of the principle negative arguments.

24. When team A presents fallacious reasoning, team B must point it out to get credit for its refutation.

25. If the negative fails to consider an affirmative main point, it amounts to an admission by the negative that the point stands.

26. In rebuttal a team should not attempt to re-establish

its constructive case by simply reiterating points and evidence introduced in its constructive speeches.

27. After an argument has been attacked, a team should be severely penalized if its rebuttal summary contains such statements as "And this point has not been mentioned by the opposition."

28. A First affirmative speech should not be penalized because it is memorized.

29. Sarcasm should be sparingly used and touched with humor.

30. Exceeding the time limit a negligible amount should not be penalized.

31. A speech well organized and presented in eight or nine minutes of the ten allotted should not be penalized.

32. The judicious use of humor in a debate should not be penalized.

33. Discourteous or unmannerly actions by the debaters should be considered by the judge in arriving at his decision.[1]

Musgrave made a different approach to the problem of judging, giving three principles of judging which he claimed have become axiomatic.[2] They are:

First: The decision must go to the team that did the better debating; the merits of the question itself are irrelevant.

Second: The decision should be made by a judge who is familiar with the principles of debating, who understands

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] George M. Musgrave, Competitive Debate (New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1946), p. 94.

strategy when he sees it, who knows the rules of the game, and who preferably has taken part himself.

Third: The criterion for determining which team did the better debating is, which team did what was required of it by the proposition? Debate topics are so worded that one team must succeed and one team must fail in proving what the proposition demands. The team that did what was required was obviously the winning team, and any decision that does not reach this conclusion must be incorrect.

Musgraves also disagreed with those who said that a point system should be used in evaluating the debate. "It should be evident that the use of any point system or list of 'elements of effective debating' is incompatible with the above principles."[1] He proposed the use of a double-summary sheet in order to ascertain which team accomplished what was required of it to win the decision.

It is in regard to the third item listed above, the criterion for determining which team did the better debating, that a great deal of controversy raged in the early days of the National Association of Teachers of Public Speaking and later the National Association of Teachers of Speech. Many writers contributed articles but those by James Milton O'Neill, then Professor of Public Speaking, University of Wisconsin, and Judge Hugh Wells, Coach of Debate, University

---

[1] Ibid.

of Southern California Law School, predominated to such an extent that the entire discussion became known as the "Wells-O'Neill controversy."[1]

O'Neill expressed his opinion as follows: "A decision for the affirmative team does not mean that the affirmative side is right. It should mean that the affirmative team is composed of better debaters,"[2] or, the objective of any particular team should be to demonstrate its superiority over its opponent in the debate.

Judge Wells said:

> I am unable to agree wholly with either Davis or O'Neill . . . Most instructors of debate endeavor to prevent percentage calculations in arriving at decisions, as it is conceded that such calculations lead to absurd results . . . No one credits a preacher with eighty per cent for argument, ten per cent for diction, and ten per cent for presentation . . . But how may debate be judged upon the elements of 'research, reasoning, and speaking' unless the judge adopts some percentage method, in fact or in effect?[3]

O'Neill's objections to Wells' proposal were:

1. The difficulty in arriving at some sensible list of elements, and the lack of standardization among various lists.

2. The difficulty in deciding how much weight should be given to each of these items.

---

[1] Ibid., p. 141.

[2] James M. O'Neill, "Judging Debates," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, IV (1918), pp. 76-92.

[3] Hugh N. Wells, "Judging Debates," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, III (1917), pp. 336-345.

3. The failure of the lists of elements' method to consider the interrelation of the elements.

4. The undesirability of teaching debaters to emphasize each element for its own sake, rather than to look upon it as a means to an end.[1]

Sarrett led the movement for use of the single critic judge, with a list of elements to be used as a guide, but with no definite percentage to be given for each element.[2] In an article on the expert judge of debate, he said:

> To improve the quality of future debates by a statement of the elements of effective debating which constitute, or ought to constitute in one form or another, the approximate standard of a judge, I request the following brief analysis to be read (by the critic judge in giving his criticism).
>
> 1. Organization of material
> 2. Proof of contentions
> 3. Establishment of most crucial issues
> 4. Destruction of opponents' crucial issues
> 5. Adaption of arguments to those of opponents
> 6. Analysis of debate as it progresses
> 7. Analysis of question
> 8. Team work
> 9. Delivery
> 10. Rebuttal
> 11. Strategy[3]

Sarrett continued:

> It is obvious that my statement of the elements of effective debating is merely a rough approximation . . . It is equally clear that certain parts of it overlap; that they are not mutually exclusive. Moreover, I do not contend that all eleven elements enumerated should be given equal value.[4]

---

[1] O'Neill, op. cit.

[2] Lew R. Sarrett, "A Juryman-Critic's Vote," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, IV (1918), pp. 458-533.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

The compromise offered by Garrett has been the plan most commonly used. Elements of effective debating have been listed as suggestions to the judge, but he has not been required to evaluate the team on a percentage plan.

Favoring the use of the debate judging ballot, Chenoweth compared judging a debate to appraising the valuation of a car. If a person has more effectively set a price on a car by inspection, evaluation, and summation of specific items in the construction of the machine, he concluded that an individual trained in debate could make a more valid decision through the evaluation and summation of separate elements of effective debating.[1]

Debating should be more than stating arguments and citing an abundance of evidence and processes involved in effective debating have been given due consideration in judging.

The trend has been that the judge should vote as a critic, not as a member of a jury, that it was his business to decide which of the two teams did the better debating according to the criteria provided by the tournament director. His personal views should be laid aside and a decision rendered on the basis of what the teams said and how they said it; however, judges, being human, disagreed at times in their

---

[1]Eugene C. Chenoweth, "Debate Judging Ballot," The Forensic, XXXII (1946), p. 3.

reactions to a speaker. One preferred a certain type of delivery while another did not. The personal element will always be a factor regardless of the criteria used. The large number of split decisions when three, five, seven or nine judges are used has been an indication of the difficulty of standardizing judging criteria. Some of the dissatisfaction could be removed if speakers were given information in advance as to the basis on which the decision would be made. Requiring opponents to judge each other would make debaters aware of the difficulties involved in making a decision. Experiments with different types of judging should be contonued on an objective basis.

Judging Individual Events

Non-decision

The non-decision has been used in individual events as well as in debate. It has been of value when a demonstration or clinical analysis served a better purpose than the usual contest situation. Beginning speakers have profited from the critiques presented by judges that offered suggestions for improvement without the use of official decisions based on grades, scores, ratings, or rankings.

Ranking

The system of ranking speakers in individual contests was widely used; however, it has lost favor and has been replaced by or combined with ratings in many tournaments.

Rankings consist of arranging the contestants in a rank of first, second, third, fourth, etc., as far as the rules require. In contests with a large number of entries, judges have been required to use the ranking system with as many as thirty-five speakers. Unusual results have developed when three judges have given a speaker rankings of first, second, and thirty-fifth, being outranked by another who received a ranking of tenth from all three judges. An improvement was developed by Pi Kappa Delta in the system of ranking by requiring the judges to rank the three best speakers first, second and third, and assign a rank of fourth to all other speakers, making it difficult for one biased or unqualified judge to lower a speaker's final rank by giving the speaker an abnormally low position. The system of ranking has been the one most frequently used when definite positions of first, second, and third are required by the rules of the contest.

Ratings

The system of ratings consisting of classifying speakers into categories of superior, excellent, good, fair, or poor, has gained in favor. Pfister discovered that chapter sponsors of Pi Kappa Delta preferred ratings over rankings by a ratio of two to one for oratory and extemporaneous speaking because it was considered to be easier to defend in terms of educational values, and fairer to contestants when several superior speakers were in the same division. Rankings

were criticized in the same report as creating excessive tenseness on the part of the contestants, and resulting in questionable practices on the part of some judges. A combination of ratings and rankings was also preferred over the use of rankings alone, but not over ratings alone, indicating the trend toward ratings.[1]

Rating by Opponents

In the National Pi Kappa Delta Discussion Event in 1947, held at Bowling Green, Ohio, judging by opponents was the only system of judging used.[2] The results were considered satisfactory, but outstanding speakers had a tendency to rate each other lower than the other members of the discussion group had rated them. Such inconsistency in judging standards and ethics have made this system a questionable one for use in tournaments.

In the spring of 1944 an oratorical contest was conducted by Grant of Hastings College, Nebraska, who used the method of having orators judge themselves.[3]

In the preliminary rounds of the contest, fifty students presented original orations on subjects of their own

---

[1]Emil R. Pfister, "Ratings, Rankings, or Both?" The Forensic, XXXVII (1951), pp. 9-10.

[2]"Official Rules and Regulations," Pi Kappa Delta National Tournament, The Forensic, XXXII (1947), p. 40.

[3]David M. Grant, "Orators Judge Each Other," The Forensic, XXXII (1947), p. 69.

choice. They spoke in small groups and each group was judged by a critic judge who was a member of the Speech Department. Each orator judged every other speaker in his section except himself. The final result was based on the formula that the student's scores counted one-half and the critic's counted one-half.

Audience Decision

On some occasions decisions by the audience have been used to an advantage. For instance, when a popular response to a speaker was desired as in the case of radio speaking, contests have been broadcast with awards based on rankings given by the listening audience. The audience decision has also been used in judging after-dinner speaking.

Use of Special Observers

The problem of making awards to those doing outstanding work in the student congress sessions has been solved by the use of special observers who attend the committee meetings and business sessions, making note of delegates who work to expedite the business of the congress in the most commendable manner.

A Combination Plan

Several combination plans have been used, such as combining ratings and rankings. Pi Kappa Delta has developed a satisfactory plan for use in its national and regional

tournaments in which contestants were given ratings based on scores resulting from rankings received from twelve judges. Each speaker was required to appear in four different rounds and was ranked by three judges in each round. The 10 per cent of the speakers receiving the highest score were given the rating of superior, the next 20 per cent were given the rating of excellent, while the next highest 20 per cent received the rating of good. Other combination plans that have been used included a rating based on the composite score of opponents and judges, or opponents, judges, and the audience.

Knower, in a study of rank-order decisions in speech contests, discovered that the correlation of two judges in ranking 1,269 extemporaneous speakers was .46.[1] Using the Brown-Spearman prediction formula, he found that eight judges would be required to provide a reliability of .87. Higher reliability coefficients have been found for judges' evaluation of speakers when ratings were used.[2]

---

[1]Franklin H. Knower, "A Study of Rank-Order Methods of Evaluating Performances in Speech Contests," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIV (1940), pp. 633-644.

[2]For other studies of speaker ratings see:
Wayne N. Thompson, "Is there a Yard Stick for Measuring Speaking Skills," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIX (1943), pp. 87-91.

Franklin H. Knower and Howard Gilkinson, "A Study of Standardized Personality Tests and Skill in Speech," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXII (1941), 161-175.

Summary

From the advent of intercollegiate forensic activities more attention has been given to the problem of contest judging than any other phase of the program. Dissatisfaction resulting from decisions in debate started a movement to abolish the decision and the non-decision debate has had staunch supporters for a number of years.

Experiments were tried with decisions by the audience, and a shift of opinion ballot was developed to measure the change in attitude of the audience after listening to the debate. Judging by opponents has been advocated and has been used on a limited basis. The legislative vote has been used in special cases such as deciding the issues advanced in the student congress.

The use of the single-critic judge has become the form of debate judging most widely used due largely to the emphasis on tournament debating which has required such a large number of judges that the use of more than one judge per debate has become impractical.

The use of standardized criteria has been proposed to improve the consistency in judging, and several imposing lists of factors for the judge to consider have been developed as a result of special studies. The problem of how criteria should be used resulted in the famous "Wells-O'Neill" controversy. Wells proposed that a score card arrangement

should be used by the judge with a definite percentage allotted for each item, while O'Neill maintained that the debate should be judged as a whole instead of by parts. Sarrett proposed a compromise in which the judge was asked to consider specific criteria without assigning definite percentage value for each item. The Sarrett proposal provided the basis for the plan accepted for general use.

The problem of judging individual events has varied from that of judging debate and seven plans proposed for use in these contests were reviewed in the final section of the chapter.

CHAPTER VII

THE CONTEMPORARY FORENSIC PROGRAM

A contemporary evaluation of the forensic fraternities and their place in the modern intercollegiate speech program will be presented. This will be followed by a contemporary evaluation of intercollegiate tournaments and meets from the viewpoint of a number of the leaders in forensics. A similar evaluation will be presented for debate, oratory, extemporaneous speaking, and the student congress. The final section will be allotted to a consideration of future trends in forensic development as indicated by the study.

Objectives and Principles

Many attempts have been made to outline a statement of guiding principles in forensic activities with directors often taking issue with the proposals of a colleague and a debate resulting from the conflicting opinions advanced. Formal debates have been arranged for meetings of the Speech Association of America and the regional speech meetings on such subjects as, "Should tournament debating be discontinued?" and "Contest debating should be de-emphasized."

Realizing the need for a definitive statement of principles and objectives in the forensic program, the American Forensic Association appointed a Committee on Professional Ethics to prepare such a document. At its 1953 meeting the statement of principles which appears below was presented and adopted by the Association.

Statement of Principles of the
American Forensic Association

> Recognizing that the free interchange and objective evaluation of ideas through such forencis activities as public speaking, discussion, and debate, are essential to the maintenance of a democratic society, the American Forensic Association herewith records this statement of principles which it believes should govern academic training in these disciplines.
>
> We believe that forensic activity should create opportunities for intensive investigation of significant contemporary problems.
>
> We believe that forensic activity should promote the use of logical reasoning and the use of the best available evidence in dealing with these problems.
>
> We believe that forensic activity should develop the ability to select, arrange, and compose material clearly and effectively.
>
> We believe that forensic activity should train students in the sincere and persuasive presentation of this material to the appropriate audience.
>
> We believe that forensic activity should stimulate students to honest and original effort.
>
> We believe that interscholastic and intercollegiate competition should be used to motivate students to their best efforts in attaining these objectives.
>
> We further believe that forensic activities should be under the responsible direction of a qualified faculty member, whose duty it should be to maintain and support the above principles.[1]

It was suggested that the committee consider the

---

[1]American Forensic Association, Statement of Principles, An Annual Report Prepared by the Association (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama, 1953), p. 4.

possibility of a further elaboration of the items referred to in the statement of principles and in response to the suggestion, the committee submitted in 1956 a more detailed statement on the objectives and values of forensics.

A study was made of the objectives and effects of debate by Level in 1956.[1] Level prepared a questionnaire and sent it to 171 debate directors who were sponsors of chapters of Pi Kappa Delta. Each sponsor was asked to rank seven objectives of debate in preferential rank-order method, with the major objective of his program in debate being given the rating of one; the second most important, two; and continuing through the list.

Of the seven objectives listed, the following rank of importance was noted by means of the mode and mean:

1. To promote and/or heighten skill in critical thinking and analysis; reasoning and synthesis of logical arguments.
2. To promote greater skill in oral communication--the ability to present material clearly and effectively.
3. To develop critical listening and evaluation of arguments presented by others.
4. To promote research--discovering, selecting, and evaluating material.
5. To develop ability to think quickly.
6. To develop co-operation within a framework of competitive team endeavor, and

---

[1]David A. Level, Jr., "Objectives and Effects of Debate," The Forensic, XLII (1957), pp. 43-44.

7. To cultivate social growth and development.[1]

The greatest number of sponsors of Pi Kappa Delta chapters reported that the following possible effects of debate training and experience were observed as being generally true: aids in personality development, provides recreational opportunities, develops respect for the opinions of others, increases knowledge of the use of the library, increases self-confidence, develops a broad knowledge of numerous subjects, increases ability to distinguish between the important and unimportant, prepares students to accept leadership, increases the use of reason rather than emotion, promotes effective speech habits, heightens ability to think clearly and rapidly, develops methodical reasoning, develops the ability to weigh evidence without prejudice, and focuses diffuse knowledge and information.[2]

While forensic directors tended to agree on the basic principles governing the forensic program, they disagreed on other items that were of secondary importance. Laase proposed that the director should keep the educational values of forensics as his primary goal, that the amount and type of participation should be determined by the student's individual needs and abilities; however, he was of the opinion

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

that forensics should be restricted to the superior student.[1]

Fest proposed that the director who limited his squad to not more than thirty students should have the vision to see the potential of reaching ten times that number.[2] Lull answered Fest's proposal by saying that there is a definite limit to the number of students that one director can train and increasing the size of the squad would result in a decrease in quality.[3]

Thonssen proposed a philosophy that would emphasize the social value of debate, saying that it should not foster a predatory attitude based upon a driving desire to beat the other fellow, but should be an instrument for the development of intellectual integrity.[4]

Thompson proposed that the values of debate would be greater if the student had a better understanding of the

---

[1]Leroy T. Laase, "A Critical Evaluation of Intercollegiate Forensic Contests in Terms of Educational Principles," The Forensic, XXIV (1939), pp. 35-41. (At the time of writing Laase was director of forensics at Hastings College, Nebraska, and recognized as one of the outstanding directors.)

[2]Thorrel B. Fest, "A Survey of College Forensics," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), p. 168. (Fest is now National President of Delta Sigma Rho.)

[3]Paul E. Lull, "Mass Production of Debaters," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), p. 374. (At the time of writing, Lull was National President of Tau Kappa Alpha.)

[4]Lester Thonssen, "The Social Values of Discussion and Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXV (1939), p. 113.

nature and purpose of debate. He asserted that debate should be something more than "organized argument" and that the speaker should rise above his own selfish purposes and make his objective cooperating with his opponent to decide whether a suggested solution to a problem should be accepted or rejected.[1]

Contemporary Evaluation of the Fraternities

Professional fraternities have made important contributions to forensics. They nurtured the program in many colleges and maintained it on the extracurricular basis for a number of years before the speech department was organized and assumed control of forensic activities. In some circles, doubt has been expressed as to the need of the fraternity under the new condition. Three positions are found in the relation of the fraternity to the speech department. In the first, the fraternity still has complete control of forensics, makes the schedule of activities, and uses student managers for all events, turning to the college only for financial support. The second position is the opposite extreme in that the fraternity has nothing to say about the management of forensics during the year, with the program being controlled entirely by the speech department; the fraternity meets once a year at the end of the forensic season to confer the honor of membership on those who have earned it. The

[1]Wayne N. Thompson, "A Broader Philosophy for Debaters," The Forensic, XXX (1945), p. 18.

third position is one in which the fraternity and the speech department cooperate in the organization and management of the program, with each sponsoring some events in its own name. Arguments have been advanced in defense of all three positions; however, those favoring the third position have the most tenable position.

Since World War II more than fifty new chapters of the forensic fraternities have been established, although half that number have been dropped for inactivity. The changing scene on the campus will call for adjustments in the position of the fraternity. The heart of the national organization is in the local chapter. Variations will be found as a result of local leadership, attitudes, and traditions; however, the fraternity can continue to make important contributions to collegiate forensic.

Differences regarding the purposes, goals, and advantages of forensics have focused attention on the need for an occasional evaluation of program. The fraternities have taken the lead in evaluating the programs sponsored by the national organizations and providing criteria for local programs. At a meeting of the National Council of Pi Kappa Delta following the close of World War II, a Code was adopted containing suggested criteria for forensics.[1] Tau Kappa Alpha

---

[1] "Formulation of General Policy," The Forensic, XXXII (1946), pp. 14-15.

presented a more detailed criteria containing seven points,[1] while Delta Sigma Rho appointed a special committee which made a study of the status of the forensic program using a questionnaire for directors and administrators.

Contemporary Evaluation of the Tournament and Contests

From its humble beginning with ten teams at Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas, in 1923, the tournament brought a rebirth to debate at a time when some of its exponents were becoming reconciled to the possibility of its death. When the Winfield Tournament became so large that it was necessary to schedule debates all day Friday and Saturday and the final round was not completed until early Sunday morning, other tournaments were established. By 1930, ten other tournaments had been started and within a decade more than one hundred were being held each year.

As the number increased directors realized that the tournament had its shortcomings, and a series of evaluations of the system was started.

Templer, an early critic of the tournament, maintained that several serious defects existed in the system, the first one being a tendency to place too much emphasis on victory. He further claimed that tournament debating was not

---

[1]Gregg Phifer, "Organizing Forensic Programs," Argumentation and Debate, ed. David Potter, pp. 345-348.

adapted to any life situation, that too much time and effort were spent on one question, and that tournaments were too long and too strenuous.[1]

In a recent article, Padrow referred to the typical tournament as a "rat race."[2] He cited the crowded schedule, the unlimited number of entrants, and number of entries per individual as making for a complicated situation. The hurried decisions made by judges further contributed to the net result of a very tired and unhappy group of contestants and judges, and an event of little educational value.

Padrow maintained further that directors should stop deceiving themselves about the educational value of forensics. He proposed that if the primary goal was to win, "we should demand scholarships for our speakers, and set up training tables with regular practice periods."[3] On the other hand, if it is believed that forensics have educational values, definite improvements should be made in the tournament organization with plenty of time being allotted for oral criticisms by a judge who follows the same procedure as in the classroom.

---

[1]Charles S. Templer, "Is It Time to Reappraise the Tournament System?" The Forensic, XXVI (1941), pp. 37-42.

[2]Ben Padrow, "Let's Stop Calling Them Educational," The Speech Teacher, V (1956), p. 205.

[3]Ibid.

Walsh, one of the outstanding forensic directors in the United States, is well qualified to indicate the weaknesses of the tournament. In a recent article she asked several questions that the forensic director should consider:

> How many times should a student have the opportunity to represent his school in interscholastic tournaments? At what point does further discussion or debate cease to enlighten a student concerning any particular problem? Have we a moral right to run risks by traveling on unsafe roads to tournaments which have become marathons running until midnight? What about the faculty ill will that absences from classes cause? What about the scholastic pressure on the student?[1]

One of the strongest defenses of the tournament system was offered by Freeley, who pointed out that while the tournament was invented for practical reasons to allow an increase in the number of debates at a reduced cost, it offers other opportunities that give it better reasons for existing than mere economy.[2] He states his point of view as follows:

> In what other phase of education do we assemble picked students from a score or more of colleges for six or eight hours of comprehensive examinations on a week end? In what other academic undertaking do students have their work evaluated by visiting professors from a dozen institutions? What other area of teaching provides the professor with the opportunity to study the results of a dozen different methods of teaching within so short a time? In what other form of education is the student provided with so frequent challenges to do his best? The tournament does all this and more. It provides these opportunities not once, but, for the average college,

---

[1]Grace Walsh, "Tournaments: For Better or Worse?" The Speech Teacher, VI (1957), pp. 65-67.

[2]Austin J. Freeley, "Minimizing Educational Opportunities," Speech Activities, IX (1953), p. 67.

several times a year. Most college professors deem themselves fortunate if they can attend one professional meeting a year. Yet the debate coach attends a number of tournaments annually, and I have not yet attended one that did not provide an informal "seminar"--call it a "Bull Session" if you will--wherein some professional problem was profitably discussed.[1]

Buehler provides an evaluative summary in his proposal of the following seven problems with which the director must deal:

1. Debate is more confining than it used to be as the debater is tied to one single topic for a whole year. He must debate both sides.

2. A steady diet of decision debating cultivates a stilted, formal, stylized, and dogmatic speaking manner.

3. A debate program geared almost wholly for tournaments is wasteful and inefficient.

4. Tournaments do not always develop intellectual honesty and high ethical principles. Coaches proclaim nobly and idealistically that the purpose of debate is to discover and reveal the truth. Yet, under the pressure of the "do or die" conflict this search for truth often becomes a sham. The real and more valid issues are schemingly avoided. Quotations are presented out of the context. Occasionally, evidence is brazenly fabricated. Frequently truth is covered up, ignored, garbled, twisted, shaded, or bluntly denied.

5. Even if everything is honest and above board, I still question the honorableness of the motive of the debater for whom the tournament contest is a device for self-aggrandizement.

6. Tournament debating does not draw adequately upon the personal resources of the speaker. Personality operation, so important in oral communication, is seriously hampered. There is no place for the debater's

---

[1] Ibid.

honest opinion. In fact, he may be penalized for injecting his personal views. There is little incentive for him to wrap his better self around what he says. Those elements of humanness, friendliness, and personal warmth are poorly rewarded.

7. Perhaps most serious of all the tournament debater is denied the experience of speaking before a real audience. All he has is one silent, bored, expressionless judge whose attributes for judgeship are often associated with his powers of appearing expressionless. The debater has no opportunity to explore and develop the skills of audience orientation. Almost every link in the chain of communication is absent.[1]

Contemporary Evaluation of Debate

More criticism has been directed toward debate than any of the forensic events or activities except the tournament and contest judging. Leaders in the field, at times, have become its most severe critics.

Typical of the indictments against competitive debate were those advanced by Miller, University of Michigan, in a debate with Sommer, University of Notre Dame. Miller based his opposition to competitive debate on the following points:

1. Competitive debate quite often is not broad in scope.
2. We can indict competitive debating also for restricting.
3. There is no variety in types of debate.
4. Too few students are used in competitive debating

---

[1] E. C. Buehler, "What Should Be the Philosophy and Objectives of a Debate Program?" The Gavel, XXXIX (1957), p. 31.

programs.

5. Competitive debating fosters poor public speaking training.

6. Motivation in competitive debating is unreal.

7. Competitive debating ignores the community.[1]

As a substitute for competitive debating, Miller proposed that a program be adopted that included the following measures:

1. More school debates before school audiences.

2. More community appearances.

3. A greater variety of debate topics.

4. A good debate program should provide a variety of forensic experiences.

5. A good debate program should use many different speakers.

6. Adopt the rule: "No debate without an audience."

7. Use audience decisions instead of critic decisions.

8. Go ahead with a competitive debate program and participation in tournaments, but do so only as long as you can remain consistent with the above seven suggestions.[2]

In his reply to Miller, Sommer defended competitive debating on the grounds that persuasive speaking involving a decision was inherent in the democratic system.[3] He stated

---

[1]N. Edd Miller, "Competitive Debating Should Be De-emphasized," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954), p. 95.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Leonard F. Sommer, "Competitive Debating Should Not Be De-emphasized," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 36-37, 43.

further that competition helped to develop the personality of the speaker because of the satisfaction of achievement that resulted from his experience in contest activity. His defense of debate may be summarized under the following points:

1. Competitive debate develops the student's experiences in speaking other than in classroom groups.

2. It gives the students experience in a wide variety of speaking situations, before dozens of different audiences, in company with and listening to a great many different communities and buildings.

3. It develops tolerance and understanding of his fellow man in the student because he meets on a social and professional basis people from a variety of geographical locations and a wide differentiation of social and economic levels.

4. It helps to overcome provincial habits of speech and presentation which inevitably develop unless there is contact with speakers from other schools trained by other teachers. It is for these reasons that I claim there must be more emphasis on competitive debate.[1]

Spending the entire season on one debate question has been condemned and defended with equal strength. The practice has been questioned since in some years the official question has developed into a definite pattern after the early part of the season with later debates being little more than repetition of those held earlier when two teams meet for s second time. Also, questions that were timely in October have become one-sided by April because of an act of

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 37, 43.

Congress, unexpected economic developments or changing world conditions. Questions have become so unbalanced that winning became more a matter of calling the toss of a coin than using good debate techniques.

Another controversy that has continued from the early days of the program has been the issue of requiring debaters to defend both sides of a question. Some directors offer arguments to justify the practice while others have been equally vigorous in opposing it. Murphy has been one of the most active of the opponents of the practice of debating both sides of the question.[1]

Pfister developed criteria for evaluation through a series of seven questions which challenged the forensic director to give more attention to points not included in other criteria.[2] Further emphasis was given to greater knowledge of the nature of evidence, the use of specialists in fields such as economics and government, greater flexibility in the thinking processes, a more adequate intramural program, and an intercollegiate program backed by an adequate amount of classwork.[3]

---

[1]Richard Murphy, "The Ethics of Debating Both Sides," The Speech Teacher, VI (1957), pp. 1-9.

[2]Emil R. Pfister, "Let's Evaluate Ourselves," The Forensic, XXXVI (1951), pp. 50-51.

[3]Ibid.

Contemporary Evaluation of Individual Events

Oratory

Oratory was the first event to be used as an intercollegiate speech contest. However, today some directors have dropped oratory from their program maintaining that it does not provide the type of training in speech needed by the present generation of students; but on the other hand, oratory still has strong adherents.

Scott discussed the value of intercollegiate oratory, saying:

> Before we assign oratory to the attic with the gramophone and musty memories of the past, we should re-examine this forensic event to see what positive value it may have for our present-day student and to decide if it is hopelessly outmoded.[1]

Scott developed the thesis that oratory as an event is basically sound and believes the decline in interest in oratory is due to the requirement that the speech be memorized. He was of the opinion that the memorized speech is used so little in public life that memorizing as a technique should be replaced by reading the speech from a manuscript.

Pross disagreed with Scott. He conceded that reading from a manuscript would develop some practical speech skills, but maintained that reading a dull and artificial speech

---

[1]Robert L. Scott, "Is Intercollegiate Oratory Dead?" The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), p. 74.

would be just as uninteresting as its memorized counterpart.[1] He affirmed that the successful college orator should speak from his heart on a topic very close to his life, and on one in which he had a profound personal conviction, a belief which he desired to share with others.

Schrier said that perhaps what was really meant when oratory was charged with being outmoded was that it was a form of memorized speaking and for that reason, old-fashioned and out-of-date.[2] He further maintained that college oratory was basically persuasive in nature and hence was not outmoded as it was being practiced daily by people in real life situations; that it had influenced public opinion much more than was commonly realized. He concluded with a proposal that attempts should be made to standardize criteria as to what constitutes oratory, but did not believe that standardization would improve the judging of oratory because of the varying interpretations that would be used by different judges.[3]

Curry outlined the responsibilities of the orator saying that he must possess:

1. Accurate, precise knowledge and use of facts in the field in which he has chosen to write;

---

[1] E. L. Pross, "More Probing of the Cadaver," The Forensic, XL (1955), p. 53.

[2] William Schrier, "College Oratory, As I See It," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), p. 35.

[3] Ibid.

2. An understanding of the way in which language is employed in that field;

3. Regard for the demands of logic;

4. Appreciation of and some skill in good English usage;

5. Intellectual honesty, integrity, and accuracy in the handling of materials;

6. Awareness of his social responsibilities.[1]

It has been suggested that the oratorical contest would be improved if the orator were cross-examined by the judges. This proposal has been vigorously opposed by Nichols who asserted that oratory was pure persuasion and requiring the orator to defend his speech would kill oratory.[2]

Daily challenged Nichols on the grounds that the "near poetic" playing on phrases was a star dust type of oratory that constituted one of the fundamental weaknesses of tournament oratory.[3]

Extemporaneous Speaking

Although extemporaneous speaking is second only to debate as a forensic event, having passed oratory in popularity, the literature on forensics contains much less about extemporaneous speaking than debate and oratory.

---

[1]Herbert L. Curry, "Orator or Demagogue," The Forensic, XXXV (1949), p. 1.

[2]Egbert R. Nichols, "A Three to Two Decision," The Forensic, XXX (1945), p. 54.

[3]R. C. Daily, "From Lower Mississippi Way," The Forensic, XXX (1944), p. 86.

At the spring meeting of the Province of the Pacific in 1946, a number of student panels were appointed to develop "concrete suggestions for the improvement of the forensic events."[1] The panels which were completely student guided considered two questions: (1) What is wrong (right) with the intercollegiate speaking contest? (2) What do you propose to improve this contest?

Regarding extemporaneous speaking the panel produced four statements in answer to question (1) as follows:

a. There are no clear objectives in this contest.
b. Topics drawn each round are frequently too narrow demanding considerable factual information rather than demanding considerable factual information rather than individual analysis.
c. Judging is inadequate due to the lack of standards and the failure of judges to give individual criticisms.
d. Extemp speaking is the best contest in the intercollegiate tournament system. Even with its shortcomings, it comes the closest to presenting a life situation and developing better speech habits.[2]

Three suggestions for improving the extemporaneous speaking contest were made:

a. The objectives of Extemp should be to test the speaker's ingenuity, ideas, and ability at clear presentation.
b. No general subject should be announced; topics should be of general nature drawn from current events and stated broadly enough to allow for flexibility in direction of approach.
c. Clear statement of the objectives of the contest and standards of judging should be given to the judges. These standards should be uniform throughout the country. Individual criticism blanks should be used

---

[1]Edward S. Betz, "Evaluation of the Intercollegiate Forensic Program," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), p. 95.

[2]Ibid.

and the results sent to the speakers after the tournament.[1]

Hope described the extemporaneous speaking event as being unrealistic, uninteresting, and unfair.[2] He asserted that it was unrealistic because in real life speaking situations, a speaker was not stimulated to speak on a topic; but when he participated in extemporaneous events, he was expected to some extent, to respond to what had already been said. He proposed that instead of giving the contestant a "topic" he should be given a full statement consisting of a brief editorial, a resolution, or a quotation from a speech which would not only give the speaker something to talk about but which would give meaning and purpose to that speech.

Hope maintained that such an arrangement would result in greater fairness because:

1. A statement of this kind, of perhaps one hundred to three hundred words, could touch the essential aspects of the whole field in a way that would make possible a good speech from anyone who was unfamiliar with that field. Some element of chance would remain, but it would in a sense be broad, it would at the same time require a truly extemporaneous speech, tailored to the requirements of the situation--no canned speech would be possible.

2. The use of the single subject for all speakers would make possible direct comparison and evaluation of speeches, to a degree that is out of the question when speakers talk on widely differing topics. This

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ben W. Hope, "Draw Three," The Forensic, XXXV (1950) p. 79.

> use of the single subject might require that contestants not hear those who precede them, but that is true of many extemp contests now.[1]

Forensic directors agree that, basically, extemporaneous speaking is a worthwhile event, although many of them feel that the method of conducting the event can be improved. Very few studies have been made in extemporaneous speaking and it is thus a good field for future consideration.

The Student Congress

The introduction of the student congress as a forensic activity resulted in both praise and criticism. Buehler was one of two persons attending both the first Pi Kappa Delta Congress held at Topeka, Kansas, in April, 1938, and the first Delta Sigma Rho Congress held in Washington, D. C., the following year.[2]

In comparing the two plans he called attention to the difference in the mechanical set-up of the two congresses, pointing out that the Pi Kappa Delta Congress was a two-house legislature while the Delta Sigma Rho Congress operated on the principle of the unicameral system. Buehler noted a difference in the atmosphere and attitude of the two groups of delegates saying:

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Lyman S. Judson, "The Student Congress Movement," The Reference Shelf, XIII (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1940), pp. 60-61.

> I got the impression at the Pi Kappa Delta Congress that the students caught the spirit of the real national Congress in action. I sensed there was more pomp and ceremony; there was more dramatic excitement. I think it helped some to hold this Congress in the State Capitol Building. The physical surroundings helped each member to feel his position as a legislator. I also got the impression at the Pi Kappa Delta gathering that the students were interested in putting on a show. There was considerable ballyhoo, particularly in the lower house. While at the Delta Sigma Rho Congress, the delegates seemed to be very modest, quiet, and went about their work in a most cordial and friendly manner. The Pi Kappa Delta students introduced their bills and fought for them to the last ditch, while at the Delta Sigma Rho Congress there was more of an impersonal approach to the major issues. Here the problems were analyzed and solved on the basis of reflective group thinking. This was especially true in committee meetings, although at the general assembly factional interests were very evident.[1]

Aly was impressed with the Delta Sigma Rho Congress by what he called "almost a complete lack of the pseudo-oratorical 'flub-dub' which sometimes characterizes student speaking."[2] He considered one of the chief values of the assembly to be the presence of an audience instead of a room of empty chairs. As improvements he suggested that the schedule should be less strenuous with some free time being allowed for sight-seeing trips, and more attention to the drafting of bills presented prior to the convening of the congress.

Bidstrup, commenting on the Delta Sigma Rho Congress, suggested that two questions be discussed rather than four, and more time should be spent in the general assemblies.[3]

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., pp. 62-63.

[3] Ibid.

As a negative criticism he said, "It appeared to be rather obvious that parliamentary tactics and strategy played too large a part in the proceedings. As a result, except for the committee meetings, only a few of the delegates participated."[1]

In spite of the early enthusiasm for the student congress, its growth has been gradual. In 1956 one hundred fifty tournaments included debate as an event, but only seven student congresses were recorded in the directory of the American Forensic Association. The congresses being held have developed better techniques as a result of the criticisms advanced against the early sessions.

Future Trends in Forensic Development

At this point in the study following the examination of the contemporary forensics program, one may speculate concerning the future trends in forensic development. Six avenues may be open to the forensic director.

First is a continuation of emphasis on the competitive aspects of forensics. Some warn of dangers from following this course. They point to the practice of over-emphasis on winning, concentration on a small group of semi-professional debaters who may be exploited for the ego of the coach, and the glory of the school. Isolated cases are found of over-emphasis where the interest of the student has been disregarded

[1] Ibid.

and his health and safety endangered through unnecessary risks. There is the possibility that loss of time from school may bring reaction from faculty and administrators which may result in controls being imposed by agencies such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Universities.

To offset the possibility of extreme external regulation, forensics may find it advantageous to formulate a policy of internal regulation. This could be done through the formulation of a code of ethics which would suggest limits on participation with the final choice being left to the director as some students are better prepared for a strong competitive program while others could benefit from only one or two tournaments per year.

The second avenue is one in which competitive activities would be de-emphasized and the program made a local one consisting of intramural activities and appearances before audiences. Some benefits would result from traveling down this avenue; for instance, experience could be provided for an unlimited number of students at a minimum of expense. On the other hand such a program could result in a lowering of standards and narrowing of horizons, as participation in tournaments bringing large numbers together from a wide area provides opportunities for a comparison of the quality of work of one group with other groups. This plan might also suffer because of a lack of cooperation with the regional

and national forensic organizations that establish standards and principles for the local program. Also missing from the program restricted entirely to the campus is the incentive provided by the opportunity to qualify for trips to the major tournaments sponsored by the fraternities and regional speech associations.

The third approach would lead to a program in which all experience in the original speaking events would be reserved for the regular courses in speech. A foundation of curricular offerings should be provided for the forensic speaker. However, a program consisting only of classwork in speech would lack balance and would fail to provide a continuation of training for those who had completed the course offerings. Formal class instruction should be supplemented by an extracurricular program that would provide motivation for the superior student.

The fourth avenus is a narrow one leading to an unbalanced forensic program in which all emphasis is concentrated on one event. In one instance a strong debate team may be found with no attention being given to individual events; in another, the major activity has been centered around a series of traditional oratorical contests; while others may go all out for the student congress. There is an advantage in periods of concentration which result in development to unusual degrees of excellence; however, the oppor-

tunities for the specialist are limited in forensics as they are in football where the platoon system with its emphasis on team effort makes it difficult for the expert passer or place kicker to enter the game to perform his specialty.

The fifth choice is a dark and foreboding one in which the forensic program has been abandoned. Undesirable as it appears to be, this choice has been made by a number of colleges since World War II. Approximately 50 institutions have voluntarily withdrawn or been dropped from the rolls of the three forensic fraternities for failure to satisfy minimum standards of participation as set forth by the organizations.

Most directors would select a sixth avenue in which the good features of the first four would be combined into a modern program that would include the advantages of wholesome competition, a well balanced program of intramural activities, a foundation of course work in speech, equal emphasis on all of the original speech events, and discouragement of specialization in a single activity. Experiences before real audiences should be provided as a balance for the contest program.

The person in charge of the program should cease to be a "coach" training a small group, but rather become the director of a squad, using the principles of modern guidance and placing more emphasis on the ethical and social values of forensics. A better understanding of the goals and the

purposes of forensics on the part of directors and students would contribute to its improvement.

Occasional use should be made of special media such as the transcribed debate and debate by correspondence as a means of engaging in contests with opponents in distant states that would not be met during the regular season. Such debates could also be arranged on an international basis. Experiments with other media are desirable such as the use of television for the presentation of debate in a courtroom setting.

Meets and Tournaments

The tournament has been established as a sound educational technique when properly organized and conducted; however, more attention should be given to organization, as it should not be assumed that one activity or event is inherently good and another inherently bad. A variety of meets should be provided such as the novice tournament for beginners early in the season, the one-day practice tournament, and others using the special types of debate, as well as the contests designed to name champions later in the year.

The plan of combining tournaments with regional and national professional meetings has been used to an advantage as in the Southern Speech Association and the Western Speech Association, and the same practice has been recommended for the local tournaments as well.

Criteria developed by groups such as the forensic fraternities and the American Forensic Association may be used to evaluate tournaments in order to establish an honor group.

Many of the criticisms would be avoided by a better arrangement of tournament schedules with more time between rounds, more attention to details such as providing information sheets, a map of the campus, and guides for the convenience of contestants.

Debate

Debate is a useful technique that may be used in the classroom today, serving the instructor as a teaching aid as did its antecedent, the syllogistic disputation, in the medieval university. It could be used to an advantage in courses in government, economics, history, philosophy, and literature.

As forensic speakers increase in proficiency they should be provided with opportunities to speak before real audiences. Civic clubs, and high school assemblies often provide suitable occasions for this purpose.

Early in the forensic season there is some value to be gained by non-decision debates and the clinic debate. During the year the program of debate in the traditional form should be balanced with use of the new forms such as cross-examination, direct clash, and heckling. Occasionally the

new forms may be coordinated in the form of a pentathlon with a different form being used in each round.

International debate has become established as a permanent feature of the forensic program. Its continuation may be used as a means of demonstrating the American concept of democracy to other nations, and as an aid in creating a better understanding among the peoples of the world.

The policy of selecting an official debate question has become established as a permanent and important feature of the forensic program. However, dissatisfaction resulting from the difficulty of selecting a well balanced question that remains timely for the entire year may cause a modification of this policy to the selection of a new question each semester. Additional questions may be developed during the year with different teams being assigned to study other questions for special use.

Oratory

There will be a place in the forensic program for some type of prepared speech as long as practice in this speech form is needed by the speech student; however, the word "oratory" may join "elocution" as a term with an unfavorable connotation. Since some of the objection to oratory has resulted from the requirement that the speech be memorized, there may be merit in allowing the speaker to present the speech by reading from the manuscript, presenting it from

memory or extemporaneously. A cross-examination period has been used to an advantage in debate and extemporaneous speaking, and a similar period in the oratorical contest might prove to be of equal value.

Requests are received from time to time by special interest groups who want to sponsor oratorical contests on the campus for promotional purposes; as some of these contests are desirable while others may be of doubtful value, some means of evaluating them should be developed.

Extemporaneous Speaking

Extemporaneous speaking has proved to be one of the most popular and practical of the forensic events although many directors believe that the techniques used in the extempore contest can be improved. It has been suggested that subject areas be substituted for the use of isolated topics in extemporaneous speaking. This is an area of forensics in which studies may be made to an advantage.

The Student Congress

The student congress has made steady growth as a forensic activity although it fails to compete on even terms with debate. As techniques improve the student congress may continue to grow because it provides opportunities for the coordination of a number of speech skills in a program of definite value.

The Forensic Fraternities

The three forensic fraternities are in favorable positions to continue their leadership in forensics by providing national standards, developing policies, and experimenting with new events and techniques.

The Speaker's Bureau

Better use can be made of the speaker's bureau to provide speakers with appearances before off-campus audiences. Specialized groups in the community and the state make excellent audiences for students in the forensics program.

Judging

More uniform criteria are needed for the forensic events. Standardization of ballots and rating sheets should result in more satisfactory judging; however, it will be difficult to completely eliminate the personality factor of the judge because of their differences in background and experience. More satisfaction should result from judging if contestants were told in advance the criteria to be used. Ample time should be allowed for oral critiques, especially at meets and tournaments held early in the school year.

As a means of eliminating inferior judges, rating sheets could be distributed and used by the tournament management as a guide in selecting judges for future events. The quality of judging has been improved in some tournaments

by hiring qualified judges and increasing entry fees to provide the funds necessary for this purpose. Experiments with judging by opponents indicate that this plan is worthy of further consideration.

Code of Ethics

Forensics could raise its standards by the adoption of a code of ethics following the precedent established by the professions of law, medicine, and education. Such a code would help to eliminate the occasional sophists, shysters and tricksters that appear. It could also suggest criteria to be used in determining such factors as the number of events a student should enter, and the maximum number of tournaments a team could enter to its advantage. The development of a public relations program on the local, state, and national level would be beneficial in informing the public and school officials of the purposes, advantages, and results of forensics.

Summary

Following this review of some of the evaluative literature in contemporary forensics by directors in the field, it is apparent that they have established worthy goals for their work.

The following statements summarize the beliefs of these leaders regarding their work:

1. Forensics should be more than an extracurricular activity.

2. Forensics offer educational opportunities to supplement the work in the classroom.

3. Forensics are an excellent means of motivation, stimulate students to aspire for high achievement.

4. They provide a unique means for the student to test himself by competing against the superior students of other institutions.

5. They teach the importance of self-evaluation and learning to utilize the criticisms of experts.

6. Tournaments and meets provide advantages in emphasizing the importance of social and ethical values in addition to practical experience in speech activities.

7. Training in debate develops the ability to do research, analyze evidence, and the power of creative thinking.

8. Debate provides an activity in which departmental lines may be crossed, and the work coordinated from fields such as literature, history, English, economics, sociology, and parliamentary law.

9. Training is provided in making decisions, leadership, and citizenship.

10. Most of the criticism in the field has been directed at the methods used by directors rather than the basic principles.

11. Tournaments, meets, clinics, and festivals have their counterpart in the workshops, field trips, and laboratories of other departments.

12. Contest activities should be a means to an end rather than a general end, as the long range values are of greater importance than the immediate goal of winning a contest.

13. Forensics contribute to the development of personality.

14. Speakers learn the importance of cooperation and teamwork.

15. The forensic program makes use of evaluative techniques to improve its events and activities.

16. The director often serves as a guidance counsellor, and considers the individual differences of speakers in the program.

Forensic directors believe that their methods are consistent with the goals of modern education; in fact, forensics may be considered a core subject around which a program of liberal education could be centered. The forensic program makes use of evaluative techniques in a never ending effort to improve the methods used in its events and activities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books and Pamphlets

Baird, A. Craig. Public Discussion and Debate. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1937.

Braden, Waldo W., and Brandenburg, Earnest S. Oral Decision Making. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955.

Crocker, Lionel G. Argumentation and Debate. New York: American Book Co., 1944.

Ewbank, Henry L., and Auer, J. Jeffrey. Discussion and Debate. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1944.

Foster, William T. Argumentation and Debating. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936.

Hayworth, Donald, and Capel, Robert B. Oral Argument. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1934.

Holm, James N. How to Judge Speech Contests. Portland, Maine: Platform News Publishing Co., 1939.

Judson, Lyman S. The Student Congress Movement (vol. XIII of The Reference Shelf). New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1940.

Lahman, Carroll P. Debate Coaching. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1936.

McElligott, James N. The American Debater. New York: Ivison Phinney and Co., 1860.

Musgrave, George M. Competitive Debate. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1946.

Nichols, Alan. Discussion and Debate. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1941.

Nichols, Egbert R., and Baccus, Joseph H. Modern Debating. New York: William Norton and Co., Inc., 1936.

O'Neill, James M., and McBurney, James H. The Working Principles of Argument. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932.

Pelligrini, Angelo M., and Stirling, B. Argumentation and Public Discussion. Boston: D. C. Heath Co., 1936.

Phelps, Edith M. Debater's Manual. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1924.

Platz, Mabel. The History of Public Speaking. New York: Noble and Noble, 1935.

Potter, David (ed.). Argumentation and Debate. New York: The Dryden Press, 1954.

Potter, David. Debating in the Colonial Chartered College: A Historical Survey, 1642-1900. (Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 899.) New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954.

Prather, Charles E. Winning Orations. Topeka, Kansas: Interstate Oratorical Association, 1891.

Reeves, J. Walter, and Hudson, Hoyt H. Principles of Argument and Debate. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1941.

Rules and Regulations of the Intercollegiate Peace Association. Columbus, Ohio: Capital University, 1947.

Wallace, Karl R. History of Speech Education in America. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.

Westfall, Alfred (ed.). Winning Intercollegiate Debates and Orations. Vols. I-X. Fort Collins, Colorado: Express-Courier Publishing Co., 1926-36.

Articles and Periodicals

Abernathy, Elton. "The Criticism against Speech Tournaments," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 354-356.

Acland, Richard T. "English Style of Debating," The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 366-368.

Ahrendts, H. L. "To What Statement of General Objectives of Education Should Speech People Subscribe," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 43-45.

Allen, Edna G., and Capp, Glenn E. "As the Debater Sees It," Speech Activities, VI (1950), pp. 151-153.

Arnold, Carrol C. "The Case against Speech," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XL (1954), p. 165.

"A Survey of Intercollegiate Debate Status," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 97-98, 104.

Auer, J. Jeffrey. "Tools of Social Inquiry, Argumentation, Discussion and Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXV (1939), pp. 533-539.

Baccus, Joseph H. "Debaters Judge Each Other," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIII (1937), pp. 74-80.

Baccus, Joseph H. "Unique Values of Competitive Debate," The Forensic, XXIII (1938), pp. 81-85.

Baird, Craig A. "General Education and the Course in Argumentation," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), pp. 58-59.

Baird, Craig A. "Salvaging Debate," The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 422-424.

Baird, Craig A. "Speech and the Democratic Process: Deliberative Speaking in the Service of Democracy," Vital Speeches, VI (1940), pp. 242-244.

Baird, Craig A. "The Debater: His Secret Weapons," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 67-70.

Baird, Craig A. "The Educational Philosophy of the Teacher of Speech," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIV (1938), pp. 545-553.

Baird, Craig A. "The Educator Looks at Debate," The Forensic, XVI (1930), pp. 55-60.

Baker, Thompson J. "Planning and Working the Debate Tournament," The Forensic, XVII (1931), pp. 149-154.

Baker, Thompson J. "Something New in Debate," The Forensic, XX (1934), pp. 21-23.

Baker, Thompson J. "Value of Debate Tournaments," The Forensic, XVI (1930), pp. 147-152.

Barker, Burt B. "As A Lawyer Finds It," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), p. 60.

Barse, Joseph R. "British and American Debating--Conflict or Harmony?" The Gavel, XXXV (1953), pp. 37-39.

"Bates Wins Debates," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 4-6.

Battin, Charles T. "Why Teachers of Speech?" The Forensic, XXVIII (1942), pp. 15-16.

Bavely, Ernest. "Suggestions from Improving Drama Festivals and Contests," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 327-332.

"Baylor University Student Forums," The Forensic, XXXV (1950), p. 59.

Benn, Anthony W., Boyle, Sir Edward, and Harris, Kenneth. "American and British Debating," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), pp. 469-472.

Betz, Edward S. "A Study of Debate Standards," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 108-112, 181.

Betz, Edward S. "Evaluation of the Intercollegiate Forensic Program," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), pp. 95-98.

Betz, Edward S. "Speech Tournaments," The Forensic, XXVII (1941), pp. 3-11.

Brewer, W. F. "Notes on the History of Extemporaneous Speaking," The Forensic, XXVIII (1943), pp. 51-54.

Brick, Adolph H. "Suggestions for Improvement of Debate Judging," The Forensic, VI (1921), pp. 1-3.

Brockried, Wayne E., and Strother, David B. "Televised Forensics," The Speech Teacher, VI (1957), pp. 30-35.

Buehler, E. C. "Delivery in Debate," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 20-21.

Buehler, E. C. "President's Page," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 1-2.

Buehler, E. C. "What Should Be the Philosophy and Objective of a Debate Program?" The Gavel, XXXIX (1957), p. 31.

Burrows, Albert H. "Competition in Forensics," The Forensic, XXVI (1941), pp. 76-81.

Carmack, Paul A. "A Survey of Intercollegiate Debate Status," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 97-99.

Casteel, John L. "Debate and Scientific Attitude," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XIX (1933), pp. 186-192.

Chenoweth, Eugene C. "Courtroom Style Debating," The Speaker, XXIX (1957), pp. 19-24.

Chenoweth, Eugene C. "Debate Judging Ballot," The Forensic, XXXII (1946), p. 3.

Chenoweth, Eugene C. "Decisions and the Critic Judge," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 14, 20.

Clark, Glenn. "The Extemporaneous Contest," The Forensic, VII (1921), pp. 7-9.

Cole, John D. "Western College Debate Survey," Speech Activities, VII (1951), pp. 45,50.

Collins, Sherod J. "The Student Assembly," The Forensic, XXVII (1942), pp. 126-127.

"Constitution of Delta Sigma Rho," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954),

"Convention Program," The Forensic, X (1924), p. 26.

"Correspondence Debate," The Forensic, XXII (1937), p. 102.

"Cost of Oratory and Debate," The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 384-385.

Cromwell, Harvey. "Decisions in Forensic Speaking," The Forensic, XXXVIII (1953), pp. 67-69.

Cronin, Francis E. "Collegiate Debate--Good or Evil?" Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 59-60.

Curry, Herbert L. "Orator or Demagogue," The Forensic, XXXV (1949), pp. 1-3.

Daily, R. C. "From Lower Mississippi Way," The Forensic, XXX (1944), p. 86.

"Debater's Code," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), p. 104.

Dee, James P. "Bringing the Forensics Program to the Taxpayers," The Speech Teacher, IV (1955), pp. 200-203.

"Delta Sigma Rho," The Forensic, XVII (1931), p. 48.

Drushall, J. Garber, Ralph, David C., Schug, Clayton S., and Miller, N. Edd. "Report of the Special Committee on Standards and Objectives," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 73-80.

"Editorial," The Forensic, XI (1925), p. 106.

Emmerik, Cunera Van. "What I Look for in Judging Individual Speaking," The Forensic, XL (1955), pp. 73-75.

"English Debaters Again," The Forensic, XXI (1936), p. 47. Reprint from The Aquin of the College of St. Thomas.

Ewbank, Henry L. "Speech Contests as Educational Techniques," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXII (1936), pp. 187-196.

Ewbank, Henry L. "What Becomes of Our College Orators?" The Forensic, X (1924), pp. 33-34.

Ewbank, Henry L. "What's Right with Debate?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXVII (1951), pp. 197-202.

Fackler, Leonard D. "Prohibition Oratorical Contests," The Forensic, VI (1919), p. 19.

Fenner, Frances H. "The Value of Forensic Training in Domestic Life," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 50, 67.

Fest, Thorrel B. "A Survey of College Forensics," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), pp. 168-173.

Fest, Thorrel B. "The Vanishing College Orator?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIX (1943), pp. 45-48.

Fest, Thorrel B., and Schindler, Barbara. "Can Forensics Survive the Educational Revolution?" The Gavel, XXIX (1957), p. 27.

Finley, George W. "Notes from the National Secretary," The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp. 36-37.

"Forensics in a Warring World," The Forensic, XXVI (1941), p. 139.

"Formulation of General Policy," The Forensic, XXXII (1946), pp. 14-15.

"Franklin D. Roosevelt," The Forensic, XXVII (1942), p. 85.

Freeley, Austin J. "An Examination of the Status Quo," The Gavel, XXXVI (1953), pp. 8-12.

Freeley, Austin J. "A Further Examination of the Status Quo," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954), pp. 59-62.

Freeley, Austin J. "Minimizing Educational Opportunities," Speech Activities, IX (1953), pp. 67-70.

Freeley, Austin J. "Public Relations and Forensics, Speech Activities, VII (1951), pp. 43-44.

Fuge, Lloyd H., and Newman, Robert B. "Cross-Examination in Academic Debating," Speech Teacher, V (1956), pp. 66-68.

Garland, J. V. "A Look at the '53 Congress," The Gavel, XXXV (1953), pp. 79-81.

Grant, David M. "Orators Judge Each Other," The Forensic, XXXII (1947), pp. 69-70.

Gray, Giles W. "Toward the History of Speech Education," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIII (1947), pp. 475-480.

Gray, Giles W. "Research on the History of Speech Education," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXV (1949), pp. 156-163.

Gray, J. Stanley. "The Oregon Plan of Debating," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XII (1926), pp. 178-179.

Gulley, Halbert E. "Building Audiences for Debate," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954), pp. 98-99.

Hadaller, John A. "The One Judge System in Debate," The Forensic, X (1924), pp. 40-41.

"Hamline, Park and Colgate Debate by Mail," The Forensic, XIII (1927), p. 184.

Hansen, John D. "Streamlining Debate," The Forensic, XXVII (1942), pp. 17-19.

Hansen, John D. "The Origin of the Debate Tournament," The Forensic, XXXV (1949), pp. 21-24.

Hargis, Donald E. "A Note on Championship Debaters," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), pp. 57-58.

Harrington, Elbert W. "What Deans Say about Activities in Speech," Speech Activities, VII (1951), pp. 57-58, 67.

Harshbarger, H. C. "Debate Purposes," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XVII (1931), pp. 95-99.

Harvey, P. Casper. "How Shall Debates Be Judged?" National Education Association Journal, XIII (1924), p. 106.

Haskin, Frederick J. "Is Oratory Declining?" The Forensic, VIII (1922), pp. 4-6.

Hay, Donald G. "Debate and the Measurement of Attitudes," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXII (1936), pp. 62-66.

Hellman, Hugo E. "The Influence of the Literary Society in the Making of American Orators," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 12-14.

Hendrickson, Ernest H. "The Audience-Reaction Ballot; an Evaluation," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIV (1938), pp. 48-61.

Hicks, Philip M. "The Open Forum or Judgeless Debate," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 15-16.

Higgins, Howard H. "The Oregon Plan of Debate," The Forensic, XVII (1932), pp. 221-223.

Hill, Mary. "Good Manners in Debate," The Forensic, XXII (1938), pp. 45-46.

Hinds, George L. "Developing University Oratory and Extemporaneous Speaking Programs," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954), pp. 15-16.

"History, Constitution, and General Regulations of Delta Sigma Rho," The National Society of Delta Sigma Rho (Manhattan, Kansas: Kansas State College, 1949), pp. 2-18.

"History of Delta Sigma Rho," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), pp. 70-78.

"History of Pi Kappa Delta," The Forensic, VIII (1923), pp. 1-23.

Holcomb, Martin J. "The Critic-Judge System," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XIX (1933), pp. 28-38.

Holm, James N. "Educational Purposes of Debate," Platform News, VIII (1941), pp. 15-17.

Holm, James N. "The Opposition Is Essential," The Forensic XXVIII (1943), pp. 87-89.

Hope, Ben W. "Draw Three," The Forensic, XXXV (1950), pp. 79-81.

Hopkins, Thomas A. "A Case for Written Critiques at Major Debate Tournaments," The Gavel, XXIX (1957), pp. 47-48.

Hostettler, Gordon F. "International Debaters Selected . . .," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 26-27.

Howell, William S. "Is Forensic Experience Valuable after College?" The Gavel, XXXV (1953), pp. 85-86.

Howes, Raymond F. "Results of Questionnaire on International Debating in the United States," The Forensic, XV (1929), pp. 381-383.

Hudson, Roy F. "Sound Thinking not Sounding Off," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 47-49.

Hunter, E. R. "The Judge's Score Sheet," The Forensic, XIV (1929), pp. 199-202.

Hyder, T. B. "Rules of the Student Assembly," Pi Kappa Delta National Convention (1942), pp. 1-8.

"Illinois Has Oldest Intercollegiate Oratorical Contest," The Forensic, XVI (1931), p. 214.

"Illinois Wesleyan Speech Clinic," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 38-39.

"Intercollegiate Peace Oratorical Contest," Speech Association Rules and Regulations, Revised (1947), pp. 1-4.

"International Debating," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), p. 28.

Irvin, Tucker. "Current Forensic Practices," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 76-77.

Irvin, Tucker. "Direct Clash Debating," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 88-89.

Irwin, Charles E. "College Speaking Is Going Out," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVII (1941), pp. 213-215.

"Is Debating a Lost Art?" The Forensic, XV (1930), p. 379.

"Is the English System of Debate Superior to That of the United States?" The Forensic, XIV (1928), p. 122.

Jenks, Loren T. "Something New in Debate," The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp. 185-186.

Jennes, Larry. "A Debate Philosophy to Grow With," The Forensic, XXXV (1949), pp. 8-9.

Johnson, Chester L. "Plans for the 1950 West Point Tournament," Speech Activities, VI (1950), pp. 86-87.

Johnson, T. Earle. "How Should Debates Be Judged?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXI (1935), pp. 396-399.

Jordan, H. M. "Tournament Experiment with Debate Types," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), pp. 75-76.

"Kansas State Collegian," The Forensic, VI (1921), pp. 10-11.

"Kansas Tries the Audience Decision," The Forensic, XII (1927), pp. 154-155.

Keith, Warren G. "The Student Assembly," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 163-166.

Keith, Warren G. "National Student Congressional Session," The Forensic, XXII (1937), pp. 109-111.

Keltner, John W. "Action Is the Heart of Our Tradition," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), pp. 55-56, 90.

Keltner, John W. "The Role of Delta Sigma Rho Chapters," The Gavel, XXXVII (1954), p. 20.

Knower, Franklin H. "A Study of Rank-Order Methods of Evaluating Performances in Speech Contests," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIV (1940), pp. 633-644.

Knower, Franklin H., and Gilkinson, Howard. "A Study of Standardized Personality Tests and Skill in Speech," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXII (1941), pp. 161-175.

Kruger, Arthur N. "Judging the Tournament Debate Judge," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 31-35.

Kruger, Arthur N. "The Extempore Speaking Contest," The Speech Teacher, V (1956), pp. 214-222.

Laase, Leroy T. "A Critical Evaluation of Intercollegiate Forensic Contests in Terms of Educational Principles," The Forensic, XXIV (1939), pp. 35-41.

Laase, Leroy T. "An Evaluation of the Quality Rating System in Measuring Debate Achievement," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 424-430.

Laase, Leroy T. "A Standard for Judging Debates," The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp. 192-194.

Laase, Leroy T. "Some Suggested Revisions in Contest Procedures," The Forensic, XXIV (1939), pp. 101-106.

Layton, Charles R. "History of Tau Kappa Alpha," in Argumentation and Debate, ed. David Potter (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954), pp. 475-490.

Layton, Charles R. "The Origins and Development of Tau Kappa Alpha; Sister Society to Delta Sigma Rho," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), pp. 79-80.

Level, David A., Jr. "Objectives and Effects of Debate," The Forensic, XLII (1957), pp. 42-45.

Lewis, LeRoy. "One Way to Secure a Debate Audience," The Forensic, XXVII (1941), pp. 13-15.

Lull, Paul E. "Mass Production of Debaters," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIV (1948), p. 374.

McClaugherty, John. "Are Debaters Disagreeable?" The Gavel, XXIV (1952), p. 28.

McCrery, Lester L. "Tournament Debating Should Be Abolished," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 51-55.

McLaughlin, T. J. "Ethics in Contest Debating," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), p. 9.

McReynolds, Charles H. "A New System of Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVI (1940), pp. 6-11.

Mahaffey, Roy D. "An Experiment," The Forensic, XXXV (1949), pp. 19-20.

Mangun, V. L. "Debating: Sophism Institutionalized," Educational Review, LXXIV (1927), pp. 195-197.

Marcham, Frederick G. "Teaching Critical Thinking and the Use of Evidence," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXI (1945), pp. 362-368.

Marsh, Charles A. "A Message," The Forensic, V (1919), p. 2.

Marsh, Charles A. "Coaching Debate Teams," The Forensic, XVII (1931), pp. 97-101.

Miller, N. Edd. "Competitive Debating Should Be De-Emphasized," The Gavel, XXXVI (1954), pp. 95-97.

Miller, N. Edd. "Michigan Tries Participation Experiment," The Gavel, XXXIV (1951), pp. 5-7.

Miller, N. Edd. "The History, Nature, and Function of the Delta Sigma Rho National Student Congresses," The Speaker, XXXVIII (1956), pp. 12-13, 15.

Millson, William A. D. "Measuring Audience Reaction," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XVIII (1932), pp. 621-637.

Millson, William A. D. "Audience-Reaction to Symposium," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXI (1935), pp. 43-53.

"Minnesota," The Forensic, XXXIII (1948), p. 40.

"Minutes of the Executive Council of Tau Kappa Alpha," The Speaker, XXXVIII (1955), pp. 20, 22.

Moore, Wilbur E. "New Patterns for Debate," The Forensic, XXVIII (1943), pp. 43-47.

Morris, D. W. "The Intercollegiate Forum," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIV (1938), pp. 212-220.

Mundt, Karl E. "The Fallacy of Non-Decision Debates," The Forensic, XV (1929), pp. 273-275.

Murphy, Jack W. "A New Look for Debate," The Speaker, XXXVIII (1955), pp. 3-4, 17-19.

Murphy, Richard. "Festival or Tournament?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVII (1941), pp. 392-397.

Murphy, Richard. "The Ethics of Debating Both Sides," The Speech Teacher, VI (1957), pp. 1-9.

Murrish, Walter. "Should Debaters Judge Their Own Debates?" The Forensic, XL (1955), pp. 52-53.

National Education Association. "Administrator and Speech a Symposium," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVII (1941), pp. 532-544.

"National Oratorical Contests on the Constitution," The Forensic, X (1925), p. 39.

Nelson, Jane. "St. Olaf Entertains English Debaters," The Forensic, XXV (1940), pp. 40-42, 50.

Newman, Robert P. "Oxford and the Cross-Examination Tournament," The Gavel, XXXVII (1954), pp. 10-12, 17.

Newman, Robert P. "Tournament Debating Should not Be Abolished," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 55-60.

"News Notes from Chapters," The Forensic, VIII (1922), pp. 14-17.

"News from the Chapters," The Forensic, XXIX (1943), p. 24.

Nichols, Egbert R. "American Debating: Beginning a Codification of Its Rules and Customs," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 70-74.

Nichols, Egbert R. "A Three to Two Decision," The Forensic, XXX (1945), pp. 54-55.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating; I," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXII (1936), pp. 213-220.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating; II," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXII (1936), pp. 591-602.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating; III," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIII (1937), pp. 259-278.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 5-8, 31-32.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Some Remarks upon Intercollegiate Debating," The Forensic, VIII (1922), pp. 7-16.

Nichols, Egbert R. "Statistical Summary of the Forensic Year 1916-17," The Forensic, III (1917), pp. 1-6.

Nichols, Henry W. "The After-College Values of Forensics . . .," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 24-25.

"Northeastern Region," The Forensic, XI (1925), p. 84.

"Official Rules and Regulations," Pi Kappa Delta National Tournament, The Forensic, XXXII (1947), p. 40.

O'Neill, James M. "Judging Debates," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, IV (1918), pp. 76-92.

"One of the Founders Visits Convention," The Forensic, XIX (1934), p. 111.

"Oratorical Contest," The Forensic, V (1918), p. 4.

Padrow, Ben. "Let's Stop Calling Them Educational," The Speech Teacher, V (1956), pp. 205-206.

Paget, Edwin H. "An Analysis of Debating," The Forensic, XVII (1932), p. 189.

Pellegrini, Angelo M. "Renaissance and Medieval Antecedents of Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 14-19.

Pelsma, J. R. "Advantages and Disadvantages of Impromptu Debating," The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp. 153, 157-158.

Pfister, Emil R. "A Survey of Attitudes toward Debate Judges," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 102-104.

Pfister, Emil R. "Let's Evaluate Ourselves," The Forensic, XXXVI (1951), pp. 50-51.

Pfister, Emil R. "Ratings, Rankings, or Both?" The Forensic, XXXVII (1951), pp. 9-10.

Pflaum, George R. R. "Tri-College Extempore Contest in Kansas," The Forensic, XI (1926), p. 148.

"Pi Kappa Delta Code of Ethics," The Forensic, X (1924), pp. 30-33.

Potter, David. "More Footnotes for a History of Debating," The Forensic, XXXII (1947), pp. 93-96.

Potter, David. "Significant Changes in Collegiate Debating, 1748-1948," The Gavel, XXX (1948), pp. 73-74.

Pross, E. L. "More Probing of the Cadaver," The Forensic, XL (1955), pp. 53-54.

Quimby, Brooks. "A Sponsor Wonders 'Why,'" The Gavel, XXXVIII (1956), p. 61.

Quimby, Brooks. "A Rebuttal That Took Thirty Years to Develop," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 35-37.

Quimby, Brooks. "Can We Learn from Debating with the British?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIII (1947), pp. 159-161.

Quimby, Brooks. "It's not the Championships," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 2-4.

Radcliffe, Charles W. "Let's Adopt British-Style Debating," The Gavel, XXXIV (1952), pp. 30-31.

Reiff, E. A. "Practical Forensics for the Duration," The Forensic, XXVIII (1942), pp. 13-14, 19.

Ridgway, James M. "Education Principles and Contest Debating," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVII (1941), pp. 542-546.

Ringwalt, Ralph C. "Intercollegiate Debating," Forum, XXII (1897), pp. 633-640.

Robinson, James L. "A Recent Graduate Examines His Forensic Experience," The Gavel, XXXVII (1956), pp. 62, 88.

Robinson, James L. "Let's Clamp Down on Forensic Shysters," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 50-51.

Robinson, James L. "Why Spend Your Time," The Gavel, XXXV (1953), pp. 58,66.

Ross, F. B. "A New Departure in Forensics," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 1-3.

Rudin, John J. "Ethical Proof in Debate," The Forensic, XXX (1945), pp. 43-48, 61.

"Rules and Regulations," The Baylor Forensic (Waco, Texas: Baylor University, 1938-39).

Sarrett, Lew R. "A Juryman-Critic's Vote," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, IV (1918), pp. 458-533.

Schmidt, Ralph N. "A Philosophy to Guide Us in Teaching Public Speaking," The Speech Teacher, V (1956), pp. 1-7.

Schmidt, Ralph N. "Some Current Problems in Contest Speech," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIX (1943), pp. 93-99.

Schmidt, Ralph N. "Why Study the History of American Oratory in 1952," The Gavel, XXXV (1952), pp. 15-16.

Schrier, William. "College Oratory, as I See It," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 35-42.

Schrier, William. "Intercollegiate Debating and Citizenship," The Forensic, XLII (1957), pp. 74-85.

Schug, Clayton H. "Gaining Administrative Support for Debate," The Gavel, XXXV (1953), pp. 50-54.

Scott, Robert L. "Is Intercollegiate Oratory Dead?" The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 74-75.

Scott, Robert L. "The Objectivity of Debate Judges," The Gavel, XXXVII (1954), pp. 14-15.

Shaw, Warren C. "Open Forum Debating at Knox," The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 435-436.

Shaw, Warren C. "What of Oratory in This Modern Day?" The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp. 195-196.

Shepard, David W. "In Defense of College Debating," The Forensic, XXXIX (1954), pp. 71-73.

"Six Interstate Oratorical Contests," The Forensic, II (1916), pp. 10-11.

Sloan, Thomas O., Jr. "The Academic Adjustment of College Forensic Students," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 29-30.

Smith, Carney C. "Debating: A Training School for Life," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIII (1937), pp. 426-431.

Smith, Horace G. "Debate and the Ministry," The Gavel, XXXVII (1956), pp. 60, 68.

Sommer, Leonard F. "Competitive Debating Should Not Be De-emphasized," The Gavel, XXXVII (1955), pp. 36-37, 43.

Sorber, Edna C. "The First Debate Tournament," The Forensic, XLI (1956), pp. 67-69.

Spencer, Charles F. "American Men of Public Affairs as College Debaters," The Forensic, LXX (1934), p. 54.

"Statistical Summary of the Forensic Year 1916-17," The Forensic, III (1917), pp. 1-6.

"Student Assembly Rules," The Forensic, XXVII (1942), pp. 48-51.

Summers, Harrison B. "Debating for the Audience," The Forensic, XVI (1931), pp.111-117.

Summers, Harrison B. "Some Aspects of Intercollegiate Oratory," The Forensic, IX (1923), pp. 1-4.

Swigert, J. Mack. "Can Debating Survive?" The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 444-449.

Tauber, Abraham. "New Aims for Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXI (1935), pp. 389-392.

Templer, Charles S. "The Extempore Speaking Contest," The Forensic, XX (1935), pp. 33-40.

Templer, Charles S. "Is It Time to Reappraise the Tournament System?" The Forensic, XXVI (1941), pp. 37-42.

"The Business Side of Forensics," The Forensic, XI (1925), pp. 1-5.

"The Direct Clash Debate Plan," The Forensic, XVIII (1933), p. 52.

"The Oration," The Forensic, XV (1929), p. 328. (Reprinted from Missouri College Oratorical Association.)

The Forensic, V (1919, p. 2; Vii (1921, pp. 3, 19; XII (1926), p. 133; XXVI (1940), p. 32; XXVI (1941), p. 56, 147; XXVII (1941), pp. 1, 33; XXVII (1942), p. 71; XXIX (1944), p. 56; XXX (1945), p. 37; XXX (1946), pp. 39, 120; XXXI (1946), pp. 27, 59.

"The South Dakota Contest Plan of Extempore Speaking," The Forensic, XIV (1929), pp. 186-187.

"The Winfield Tournament," The Forensic, XXIII (1938), p. 58.

Thomas, Gordon L. "To Talk of Many Things," The Speaker, XXXIV (1952), pp. 12-15.

Thompson, Richard N. "Measurements in Contest Speaking," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXI (1935), pp. 81-84.

Thompson, Wayne N. "A Broader Philosophy for Debaters," The Forensic, XXX (1945), pp. 49-52.

Thompson, Wayne N. "Is There a Yardstick for Measuring Speaking Skill?" The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXIX (1943), pp. 87-91.

Thonssen, Lester. "The Social Values of Discussion and Debate," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXV (1939), pp. 113-117.

Todd, Hollis B. "What Constitutes an Oration for a College Oratorical Contest?" The Forensic (1953), pp. 70-71.

Walsh, Grace. "Tournaments: For Better or Worse?" The Speech Teacher, VI (1957), pp. 65-67.

"Washington," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), pp. 59-60.

Weldon, John. "Direct Clash Debating: Recent Developments," The Forensic, XXVI (1941), pp. 44-45.

Wells, Hugh N. "Judging Debates," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, III (1917), pp. 336-345.

Westerfield, Hargis. "Decision Debating: A Philosophy," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVIII (1942), pp. 24-27.

Westerfield, Hargis. "Mass Debating: Incentives and Techniques," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXVI (1942), pp. 420-426.

"Western Association of Teachers of Speech," The Forensic, XXXI (1946), p. 82.

Westfall, Alfred. "Editorial," The Forensic, XXIV (1939), pp. 59-60.

Westfall, Alfred. "The Critic Judge Arrives at His Decision," The Gavel, XV (1933).

Westfall, Alfred. "What Speech Students May Do to Help Win the War," The Forensic, XXVIII (1942), pp. 8-12.

"West Point Tournament," Speech Activities, VIII (1952), pp. 60-62.

"Why Is Debate Worth While?" The Forensic, XVII (1932), pp. 214-215.

Wiley, Wellington E. "Debate as Competition," The Forensic, XV (1930), pp. 434-435.

Wilson, Ollie J. "Techniques for Stimulation of Interest in Debate," The Gavel, XXXVIII (1955), pp. 11-14, 25-26.

"Wins a Trip to Europe," The Forensic, XXI (1935), p. 10.

Woodward, Howard S. "Measurement and Analysis of Audience Opinion," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XIV (1928), pp. 94-111.

Woodward, Howard S. "Values to Stand By," The Forensic, XXVI (1941), pp. 69-72.

Woodward, Julian. "The Extra-Curriculum as an Educational Review," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XIV (1944).

Woolbert, Charles H. "On Critic Debate Decisions," The Quarterly Journal of Speech, XI (1925), p. 286.

Woolbert, Charles H. "Our New Olympics," The Forensic, XIII (1927), pp. 83-85.

"Worst Faults of Debate Judges," The Forensic, XXXIII (1948), pp. 49-51.

"You Are the Judge," The Forensic, XIV (1928), p. 83.

Bulletins and Reports

American Forensic Association. The Educational Values of Forensics. An Annual Report Prepared by the American Forensic Association, 1956.

American Forensic Association. Statement of Principles. An Annual Report Prepared by the American Forensic Association, 1953.

"History of Delta Sigma Rho." Fiftieth Anniversary Bulletin.

Potter, David. Debating in the Colonial Chartered College: A Historical Survey, 1642-1900. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954.

"Public Address in the Secondary School." The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, May, 1952.

"Speech Education for All American Youth." The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 151, January, 1948.

University of Pennsylvania. Bulletin of the University of Pennsylvania Speech Department, 1955, p. 9.

Unpublished Material

Barber, G. Bradford. "An Analysis and Evaluation of Forensic Contests as Conducted in the Secondary Schools within the Area of the North Central Association." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1953.

Conklin, Royal F., Jr. "A History and Analysis of Debate Tournaments in the United States." Unpublished Master's thesis, Baylor University, 1950.

Cowperthwaite, Lowery L. "Forensics at the State University." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1943.

Davis, Frank B. "The Literary Societies of Selected Universities of the Lower South." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1949.

Laase, Leroy. "The History of Intercollegiate Oratory in the United States." Unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University, 1929.

Level, David A., Jr. "The Objectives and Effects of Debate as Reported by Sponsors of Pi Kappa Delta." Unpublished Master's thesis, Purdue University, 1956.

McBride, Sara Ann. "Forensic Activities at the University of Florida, 1905-1932; with Special Attention to Societies." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Florida, 1949.

Murphy, John W. "A Follow-Up Study of Former Intercollegiate Debaters." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1953.

Murrish, Walter N. "An Analysis of Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Debate Tournament Procedures." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Denver, 1954.

Olson, Donald O. "Debate at the University of Nebraska." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1947.

Potter, David. "Debating in the Colonial Chartered Colleges: A Historical Survey, 1642-1900." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1954.

Ross, Raymond S. "Preliminary Research toward a History of Intercollegiate Debating at Marquette University." Unpublished Master's thesis, Marquette University, 1950.

Sillars, Malcolm S. "A History of Intercollegiate Debate at the University of Redlands." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Redlands, 1949.

Tewell, Fred. "A History of Intercollegiate Debate in the State Collegiate Institutions of Louisiana." Unpublished Master's thesis, Louisiana State University, 1949.

APPENDIX A

A LIST OF OFFICIAL DEBATE QUESTIONS, 1920-1956

OFFICIAL DEBATE QUESTIONS

1955-56

Resolved: That the non-agricultural industries of the United States should guarantee their employees an annual wage.

1954-55

Resolved: That the United States should extend diplomatic recognition to the Communist Government of China.

1953-54

Resolved: That the United States should adopt a policy of free trade.

1952-53

Resolved: That the Congress of the United States should enact a compulsory Fair Employment Practices Law.

1951-52

Resolved: That the Federal Government should adopt a permanent program of wage and price control.

1950-51

Resolved: That the non-communist nations should form a new international organization.

1949-50

Resolved: That the United States should nationalize the basic non-agricultural industries.

1948-49

Resolved: That the Federal government should adopt a policy of equalizing educational opportunity in tax supported schools by means of annual grants.

1947-48

Resolved: That a Federal world government should be established.

1946-47

Resolved: That labor should be given a direct share in the management of industry.

1945-46

Resolved: That the policy of the United States should be directed toward the establishment of free trade among the nations of the world.

1944-45

Resolved: That the Federal government should enact legislation requiring compulsory arbitration of all labor disputes.

1943-44

Resolved: That the United States should cooperate in establishing and maintaining an international police force upon the defeat of the Axis.

1942-43

Resolved: That the United Nations should establish a permanent federal union with power to tax and regulate commerce, to settle international disputes and to enforce such settlements, to maintain a police force, and to provide for the admission of other nations which accept the principles of the union.

1941-42

Resolved: That the Federal government should regulate by law all labor unions in the United States. Constitutionality conceded.

1940-41

Resolved: That the nations of the Western Hemisphere should form a permanent union.

1939-40

Resolved: That the United States should follow a policy of strict (economic and military) isolation toward all nations outside the Western Hemisphere engaged in armed international or civil conflict.

1938-39

Resolved: That the United States should cease to use public funds (including credits) for the purpose of stimulating business.

1937-38

Resolved: That the National Labor Relations Board should be empowered to enforce arbitration of all industrial disputes.

1936-37

Resolved: That Congress should be empowered to fix minimum wages and maximum hours for industry.

1935-36

Resolved: That Congress should have the power to override, by a two-thirds majority vote, decisions of the Supreme Court declaring laws passed by Congress unconstitutional.

1934-35

Resolved: That the nations should agree to abolish the international shipment of arms and munitions.

1933-34

Resolved: That the power of the president of the United States should be substantially increased as a settled policy.

1932-33

Resolved: That the Allied War debts should be cancelled.

1931-32

Resolved: That Congress should enact legislation providing for centralized control of industry.

1930-31

Resolved: That the nations should adopt a policy of free trade.

1929-30

Resolved: That the nations should adopt a plan of complete disarmament, excepting such forces as are needed for police purposes.

1928-29

Resolved: (Men) The foreign policy of the United States in Latin America.
(Women) Abolishment of jury trial.

1927-28

Resolved: (Men) The foreign policy of the United States in Latin America.
(Women) The foreign policy of the United States.

1926-27

Resolved: (Men) That the essential features of the McNary-Haugen bill be enacted in to law.
(Women) Abolishment of jury trial.

1925-26

Resolved: (Men) That the Constitution of the United States should be amended to give Congress power to regulate child labor.
(Women) That the United States should adopt a uniform marriage and divorce law.

1924-25

Resolved: That Congress should be empowered to override by two-thirds vote, decisions of the Supreme Court which declare acts of Congress unconstitutional.

1923-24

Resolved: That the United States should enter the World Court of the League of Nations as proposed by President Harding.

1922-23

Resolved: That the United States should adopt the cabinet-parliamentary form of government.

1921-22

Resolved: That the principle of the "closed shop" is justifiable.

1920-21

Resolved: (Men) A progressive tax on land should be adopted in the United States.
(Men) That the League of Nations should be adopted.
(Women) Intercollegiate athletics should be abolished.

APPENDIX B

A LIST OF DEBATE QUESTIONS USED DURING THE 1921-22 SEASON

The following questions were used for intercollegiate debates during the year 1921-22:

1. Resolved: That the principle of the "closed shop" is justifiable.

2. Resolved: That Congress should pass the Veterans' adjusted compensation bill.

3. Resolved: That the United States should take steps toward the granting of immediate independence to the Philippines.

4. Resolved: That the Kansas Industrial Court Plan of adjusting industrial disputes should be adopted throughout the United States.

5. Resolved: That the United States should immediately institute a program for the gradual reduction of armaments of war.

6. Resolved: That the same rights of immigration should be granted to the Japanese as are granted to European immigrants.

7. Resolved: That the Kansas Industrial Court Law should be extended to the rest of the country through a national law.

8. Resolved: That Congress should establish a system of government employment agencies to equalize the distribution of labor.

9. Resolved: That the United States should permanently annex the Philippines.

10. Resolved: That all immigration should be suspended for three years.

11. Resolved: That the United States should enact legislation providing a system of compulsory unemployment insurance similar to that now in force in Great Britain.

12. Resolved: That all coal mines in the United States should be placed under direct control of the Federal government.

13. Resolved: That the debt due the United States from her associates in the recent war should be cancelled.

14. Resolved: That Ireland should be given complete national freedom from Great Britain.

15. Resolved: That the supremacy of the Senate in our Federal system of government is a menace.

16. Resolved: That the shipping now controlled by the United States shipping board should be placed on the open market and sold to private interests.

17. Resolved: That the United States and Great Britain should enter into an agreement to protect France against German aggression.

18. Resolved: That the Eighteenth Amendment should be repealed.

19. Resolved: That Admiral Bowls disarmament plan by limiting the size of battleships and guns should be adopted.

20. Resolved: That New Testament history and ethics should be taught in the primary and secondary schools of _____ (local state).

21. Resolved: That the constitution of Kansas should be so changed as to provide for a unicameral legislative body.

22. Resolved: That the coastwise trading vessels of the United States should be permitted to pass through the Panama Canal free of tolls.

23. Resolved: That the present method of political formulism of the great parties--reverting from extravagance in national expenditures to the so-called economy--is a deceptive blind on the eyes of the American people which cannot but bring disaster to the parties themselves.

24. Resolved: That the United States should adopt a parliamentary form of government.

25. Resolved: That the United States should take a position for the strict enforcement of the Monroe Doctrine.

26. Resolved: That the Esch-Cummins law is the most satisfactory solution of the railroad problems.

27. Resolved: That the Federal government should aid in the construction of the all sea waterway to the ocean by way of St. Lawrence.

28. Resolved: That sugar should be admitted to the United States free of duty.

29. Resolved: That social fraternities and sororities should be abolished from American colleges.

30. Resolved: That the state institutions of higher learning of Colorado (or other states having separate institutions with separate boards) should be under one central board of control.

31. Resolved: That we should have a Secretary of Education with a place in the Cabinet.

32. Resolved: That the principle of municipal ownership should be applied to the transit system of New York City.

33. Resolved: That the nations engaged in interstate commerce should agree upon a policy of free trade.

34. Resolved: That the United States should abandon the policy of protective tariff.

35. Resolved: That the Irish Dail Eirann should accept David Lloyd George's proposals for the settlement of the Irish question.

36. Resolved: That the United States should levy a general sales tax.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONS USED BY THE BRITISH TEAMS IN 1930-31

QUESTIONS USED BY THE BRITISH TEAMS

IN 1930-31

Oxford University Questions

1. That the Statue of Liberty is not a signpost but a gravestone.
2. That immediate independence should be granted to India.
3. That the press is democracy's greatest danger.
4. That the nations of the world should take a twenty-year tariff holiday.
5. That American civilization is a greater danger to the world than that of Russia.

English University Questions

1. That the dole provides a better methos of solving the unemployment problem than does the charity system.
2. That the world has more fear from Fascism than from Bolshevism.
3. That the formation of a federation of European states would be conducive to world peace and prosperity.
4. That the future well being of humanity depends on the continued dominance of the white races.
5. That this house favors international agreements for free trade among the nations.

Robert College Questions

1. That Turkey should be a member of the League of Nations.
2. That the mandatory system used by the Great Powers is a continuation of imperialistic policies.
3. That the United States should recognize the government of U. S. S. R.

4. That compulsory unemployment insurance should be adopted by the sovereign states as public protection against the vicissitudes of the Machine Age.

APPENDIX D

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF WINNING COLLEGE ORATORS FOR 28 YEARS

WHAT BECOMES OF COLLEGE ORATORS?

Olin Alfred Curtis, deceased; one-time professor in Drew Theological Seminary; second place in 1876, representing Lawrence College.

Frank Prouty, Congressman; address, Des Moines, Iowa; second place in 1877, representing Central University of Iowa.

E. A. Bancroft, lawyer, general counsel International Harvester Company; first place in 1878, representing Knox College.

Robert M. LaFollette, senator; United States Senator from Wisconsin; first place in 1879, representing the University of Wisconsin.

Richard Yates, ex-governor of Illinois, 1901-1905; address, Springfield, Illinois; second place in 1880, representing Illinois College.

Charles F. Coffin, lawyer and life insurance official; address, Indianapolis, Indiana; first place in 1881, representing Depauw University.

George L. Machintosh, educator; President of Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana; second place in 1884, representing Wabash College.

Albert J. Beveridge, senator, author; United States Senator from Indiana; first place in the 1885 contest representing Depauw University.

H. H. Russell, clergyman and reformer; address, Westerville, Ohio; second place in 1886, representing Oberlin College.

John H. Finley, educator, editor; President, College of the City of New York, 1903-1913; President, University of New York, 1913-1921; Associate Editor New York Times; first place in 1887, representing Knox College.

Henry Morrow Hude, author; address, Simeon, Albermarle Co., Virginia; second place in 1888, representing Beloit College.

Edwin Holt Hughes, bishop; Bishop in Methodist Episcopal Church; first place in 1889, representing Ohio Wesleyan University.

J. A. Blaisdell, educator; President, Pomona College, Claremont, California; second place in 1889, representing Beloit College.

S. W. Naylor, educator; Dean, Lawrence College; first place in 1890, representing Washburn College.

F. A. Fetter, educator; Professor of Economics, Cornell University; first place in 1891, representing Indiana University.

Guy Everett Maxwell, educator; President, Winona State Normal, Winona, Minnesota; second place in 1891, representing Hamline University.

Mrs. E. Jean Nelson Penfield, lawyer and parliamentarian; address, 34 Pine Street, New York City; first place in 1892, representing DePauw University.

C. F. Wishart, educator; President Wooster College; first place in 1894, representing Monmouth College, Monmouth, Illinois.

Perl D. Decker, Congressman, U. S. Congressman from 15th Missouri district; first place in 1897, representing Park College.

Oscar Edward Maurer, clergyman; Paster Central Church, New Haven, Connecticut; first place in 1902, representing Beloit College.

The study did not include those that won third place and the many winners in the state contests. Also, it did not include the winners of other oratorical contests such as the Peace Oratoricals and the Prohibition Oratoricals. John A. Shields, one of the founders of Pi Kappa Delta, and its first national secretary, was successful as an orator in the Prohibition Contests in Kansas during his undergraduate days at Ottawa University. After graduation he was associated with the National Prohibition Association, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Manufacturers.