

An Analysis of Male/Female Participation at Select National Championships

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To provide supporting evidence for the educational value of intercollegiate forensics as well as to provide supporting evidence for university expenditures on the activity, educators have continually turned to professionals for whom the experience in intercollegiate forensics proved valuable. Reviews of such testimony appeared as early as 1935 (Church, 1935) while a 1952 survey of political and governmental leaders identified such notables as Richard Nixon, J. William Fulbright, and Supreme Court Justices Thomas Clark and William O. Douglass, Jr. as espousing the importance of debate and speech activities in their educational experience (Freeley, 1960). Two surveys conducted in the legal profession sought opinions on the value of debate preparation for lawyers; whether or not the respondents themselves had participated in educational debate activities, they believed debate to be important in the training of lawyers (Arnold, 1966; McBath, 1961).

Forensic literature also includes testimony from university administrators who attest to the value of forensic experience in their own educational background (Henderson, 1961; Anderson, 1954; Hancher, 1948; Marts, 1940; Maurer, 1937). Broader surveys of university graduates, including business leaders (Murray, 1964) and university as well as secondary school graduates with forensic experience (Lunde, 1967; Jackson, 1961; Courter, 1956; Murphy, 1953; Ewbank, 1949; Robinson, 1933) have suggested the perceived educational value of forensic activities.

The gender difference in forensic participation has long been a concern in the forensic community; as early as the 1930's women were addressing the issue (Knee, 1939). By 1957, the concern was once again expressed (Cole, 1957), and the issue was clearly stated at the National Developmental Conference on Forensics jointly sponsored by the American Forensic Association and the Speech

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Communication Association in 1974. Included among the conference recommendations was a call for research to "determine why certain individuals, women and minority group members, resist involvement" (McBath, 1975). Since 1974, some demographic descriptions of debaters and tournament participants have been developed, but no concerted effort to conduct research recommended by the conference has been made. Thus, the extent to which female and minority groups participate in forensics remains speculative. Ten years later, the 1984 National Developmental Conference at Northwestern University endorsed a resolution "to increase and strengthen forensic participation by identifying ethnic, racial, gender, and handicap barriers which may currently inhibit student participation as well as disseminate findings concerning such barriers throughout the forensic community."

A recent survey conducted within the forensic community sought to explore the perceptions of male/female participation in forensics (Friedley and Nadler, 1983). The results of this study indicate that males are perceived to be more disproportionately represented in debate participation and that debate is perceived as a "masculine" activity with male participants experiencing few gender-related barriers. Data such as this suggests that males are adhering to sex-role stereotypes and sex-role expectations when they participate in debate because it is perceived as a "masculine" activity. Female debate participants, however, experience more gender-related barriers because they are not adhering to sex-role stereotypes and sex-role expectations.

In individual events, the study reports that male/female participation is perceived as more "balanced." While females are perceived to be more prevalent and even have a slight advantage in individual events, both sexes are subject to perceptual limitations in this activity. For example, female participants come closer to meeting sex-role stereotypes and sex-role expectations in individual events; however, perceived barriers of "competitiveness," "aggressiveness," and "intellectual respect" in the original speaking events and limited preparation events are apparent. According to respondents, males also face perceptual barriers primarily in the interpretive events which are perceived to be "feminine"; thus, participants who excel in these events are *not* perceived to be adhering to sex-role stereotypes and sex-role expectations. As a result, the "homosexual" label is much more likely to be used when describing the barriers experienced by males who participate in the interpretive events.

The benefits accrued through participation in the forensic experience should be available to all individuals regardless of

gender. In addition, the argumentative and communicative skills fostered by forensics may be especially beneficial to specific groups of individuals who may not otherwise have the opportunity to develop these skills. Since perceptions "suggest" there is an imbalance in male/female participation, investigation into the actual ratios of male/female participation in forensic activities is warranted. The purpose of this study is two-fold: 1) to describe the male/female participation and success in both debate and individual events national competition and 2) to identify areas of gender-based inequity generated from this data.

METHOD

To provide data for this research, three national forensic tournaments which require a qualifying procedure for participation were selected: 1) the National Debate Tournament, 2) the American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament, and 3) the National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals. National tournaments with a qualifying procedure were selected to assure participants who had already been judged to represent a level of "success" which warranted participation at a national tournament. For the National Debate Tournament, results published in the June, 1984, issue of the *AFA Newsletter* were compared to the tournament program which provided complete names of all tournament participants. For the American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament, tabulation sheets which included the participant's complete name were consulted while for the National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals, tabulation sheets which included only participant last names were compared to the complete names listed on each school's student eligibility form obtained from the Executive Secretary. Using this data, the participant's sex was determined by noting obviously sex-typed first names. When a participant's first name was not gender-specific, identification was determined through consultation with various directors of forensics. Participants names from these three 1984 national tournaments were then analyzed to determine male/female distribution ratios for both preliminary rounds and elimination rounds of competition. Using these ratios, male/female participant and team comparisons were made in debate while male/female participant comparisons by event and event groupings were made in individual events. The research findings are reported individually by national tournament.

RESEARCH FINDINGS*National Debate Tournament*

Of the 124 participants who competed at the National Debate Tournament in 1984, 85% were male while 15% were female. A male/female distribution of the 62 teams competing included the following: 73% were male/male debate teams, 24% were male/female debate teams, and only 3% were female/female debate teams. Those participants advancing to quarter-final rounds of competition at this tournament included 87% males and 13% females (a total of 4). Again, a male/female distribution of the 16 teams advancing to elimination rounds included the following: 81% were male/male debate teams, 13% were male/female debate teams, and only 1 team (6%) was a female/female debate team. Semi-final rounds included 15 males (94%) and only 1 female (6%) with 7 (88%) male/male debate teams and 1 (12%) male/female debate team participating; no female/female debate teams advanced beyond the quarter-final rounds at this national tournament. The final round of competition at the National Debate Tournament included 3 males (75%) and 1 female (25%); of the top ten speakers designated at the tournament, 9 were males and only 1 was female.

American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament

Of the 861 participants at the 1984 American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament, 58% were male and 42% were female. Combining all ten events in the competition, participants advancing to quarter-final rounds were 65% male and 35% female, while participants advancing to the semi-final rounds were 71% male and 29% female. Participants advancing to the final rounds of competition in the combined ten events were 80% male and 20% female; thus, the gender gap widened as the tournament progressed with females dropping from 42% in preliminary rounds to 35% in quarter-finals, to 29% in semi-finals, to only 20% in final rounds of competition. Of the 66 finalists, only 13 were females. Of the top ten overall "sweepstakes speakers," all 10 were male.

Of the 257 participants in the original speaking events including informative speaking, persuasive speaking, communication analysis, and after dinner speaking, 57% were male and 43% were female. That relative gender balance in participation was preserved in both the quarter-final rounds of these events (58% male, 42% female) and semi-final rounds of these events (58% male, 42% female). The greatest gender differences in ratios of participation appeared in the final rounds of competition in the original speaking events where 71% of the finalists were male and only 29% were

female. When the original speaking events are analyzed individually, a relative balance in male/female participation exists in preliminary rounds of competition for informative speaking (48% male, 52% female) and persuasive speaking (48% male, 52% female). The greatest disparity between male/female participation in preliminary rounds occurred in communication analysis (71% male, 29% female) as well as after dinner speaking (71% male, 29% female). In final rounds of competition, both informative speaking and communication analysis included 5 males (83%) and only 1 female (17%). Of the original speaking events, persuasive speaking reflected the strongest gender balance with 3 males and 3 females participating in the final round of competition.

Of the 437 participants in the interpretive events of poetry, prose, drama, and dramatic duo, 54% were male and 46% were female. While there was a relative balance between the genders during preliminary rounds of competition, the male/female ratio changed drastically at the outset of the elimination rounds. As a result, 71% of those participants advancing to the quarter-final rounds of competition were male and only 29% were female. The gap widened in semi-final rounds (78% male, 22% female) and continued to widen even more in final rounds of competition in the interpretive events (83% male, 17% female). During preliminary rounds of competition in these events, dramatic duo reflected the greatest male/female ratio imbalance where 61% of the participants were male and 39% were female. Only 1 female/female duo advanced to the quarter-final rounds of competition and did not advance to the semi-final rounds of competition. While preliminary rounds of competition in poetry interpretation indicate a slight female dominance (49% male, 51% female) as well as a slight male dominance in dramatic interpretation (52% male, 48% female), ratios of male/female participation in these two events shifted drastically by the final rounds of competition in these two events. In poetry interpretation, only 1 female (17%) and 5 males (83%) advanced to the final round while no females advanced to the final round of competition in dramatic interpretation—all national finalists in this event were males.

Of the 167 participants in the limited preparation events of extemporaneous speaking and impromptu speaking, 69% were male and 31% were female during the preliminary rounds of competition. As participants advanced to the elimination rounds, the male/female ratio of participation increased slightly for females (63% male, 37% female) advancing to quarter-final rounds; however, the male/female ratio of participation decreased for females ad-

vancing to semi-final rounds of competition in these events (79% male, 21% female). By the final rounds of competition, these events reflected the greatest male/female ratio disparity of the three event groupings—92% were male and only 1 female (8%) advanced to the final rounds of competition in these events. Specifically, 66 males (72%) and 26 females (28%) participated in preliminary rounds of impromptu speaking competition, but only 2 females (17%) advanced to the semi-final rounds and only 1 female (17%) advanced to the final round of competition in this event. While the male/female participation ratio was a little higher for females in preliminary rounds of extemporaneous speaking (67% male, 33% female), no females advanced to the final round of competition in this event.

National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals

Of the 1096 participants at the 1984 National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals, 52% were male and 48% were female. Combining all nine events in the competition, participants advancing to quarter-final rounds were 59% male and 41% female while participants advancing to semi-final rounds were 57% male and 43% female. Participants advancing to the final rounds of competition in the combined nine events were 58% male and 42% female; thus, females constituted 48% of the entries in preliminary rounds and their "success ratio" remained relatively constant throughout the elimination rounds of competition by dropping only to between 41% and 43%. Of the top ten "pentathlon speakers," 8 were male and 2 were female.

Of the 738 participants in the original speaking events including expository speaking, persuasive speaking, rhetorical criticism, and after dinner speaking, 51% were male and 49% were female. In general, balance in the male/female participation ratios in these events was preserved in all three elimination rounds—51% male and 49% female in quarter-final rounds of competition, 52% male and 48% female in semi-final rounds of competition, and 46% male and 54% female in final rounds of competition. Original speaking events in general were the only group of events in which females held a slight edge in the male/female ratio of participation by the final rounds of competition. Of the original speaking events, after dinner speaking with 5 females (83%) and 1 male (17%) as well as expository speaking with 4 females (67%) and 2 males (33%) reflected the greatest ratio of participation for females.

Of the 971 participants in the interpretive events of poetry, prose, and dramatic duo, 49% were male and 51% were female. While there was a relative balance between the genders during preliminary

rounds of competition, the male/female ratio during elimination rounds favored the male participants with females constituting only 39% of the quarter-finalists, 44% of the semi-finalists, and 38% of the finalists in the interpretive events. The greatest male/female ratio disparity occurred in prose interpretation. While this event began with a male/female balance during the preliminary rounds of competition (50% male, 50% female), 5 males (83%) and only 1 female (17%) advanced to the final round of prose interpretation. On the other hand, poetry interpretation preliminary rounds reflected a slightly greater ratio of females (57%) when compared to males (43%); however, by the final round of competition in this event the ratios reflected a greater disparity for males—4 females (67%) and only 2 males (33%) advanced to the final round of competition in poetry interpretation. In the dramatic duo event, of the female/female duos only 3 advanced to the quarter-final rounds, 1 advanced to the semi-final round, and none advanced to the final round.

Of the 240 participants in the limited preparation events of extemporaneous speaking and impromptu speaking, 62% were male and 38% were female during preliminary rounds of competition. The ratio of female participants compared to male participants in these events decreased slightly through the quarter-final and semi-final elimination rounds, while 9 males (75%) and only 3 females (25%) advanced to the final rounds of competition in these events. While participation in preliminary rounds of impromptu speaking was 57% male and 43% female, only 1 female (17%) and 5 males (83%) advanced to the final round—the greatest ratio drop occurred between the semi-final rounds (58% male, 42% female) and the final round of competition. In extemporaneous speaking where 69% of the participants in preliminary rounds were male and 31% were female, 4 males (67%) and 2 females (33%) advanced to the final round.

DISCUSSION

Exploratory gender research in forensics suggests that debate is perceived to be a male-dominated activity, and actual examination of the male/female participation level at the 1984 National Debate Tournament indicates that participation in the national tournament was largely dominated by males. Though one female did advance to the final round of this national competition, there were considerably fewer male/female teams and female/female teams competing than male/male teams; in fact, no female/female team advanced beyond the quarter-final rounds of competition. Because

previous research suggests that debate is typically perceived as a "masculine" activity and that females who participate in the activity may also be perceived as violating sex-role expectations, this cultural barrier may account for the apparent disparity in female participation in this activity.

Exploratory research also suggests that individual events is perceived to be a more gender-balanced forensic activity. While descriptive data from the preliminary rounds of competition at the 1984 American Forensic Association's National Individual Events Tournament and the 1984 National Forensic Association's Individual Events Nationals suggest a general balance in male/female participation ratios, analysis of the elimination rounds at these tournaments reflect a gender-based imbalance which emerges—an imbalance which favors male participants in this activity. While perceptions of the forensic community suggest that females may have a slight advantage in this activity (particularly in the interpretive events), that perception appears to be inaccurate when compared to actual data.

Specifically, the forensic community perceives that original speaking events and limited preparation events reflect a slight male domination; the data indicate a distinct male domination in these two groupings of events at the American Forensic Association's national tournament while only a slight male domination in the limited preparation grouping of events at the National Forensic Association's national tournament. Perhaps the most surprising finding, however, is associated with the male/female participation and success in the interpretive events. While previous research suggests that these events were generally perceived to be more "feminine" and the ones most likely to provide a barrier to male participation because of conflicting sex-role expectations associated with the events, analysis of the data concerning male/female participation ratios at the two national tournaments does not support this perception; instead, males tend to dominate slightly this group of events at the preliminary level of competition and tend to dominate greatly this group of events in the elimination rounds of competition, especially at the American Forensic Association's national tournament.

While this finding appears to be inconsistent with typical perceptions of sex-role typing and the constraints of such typing, there may be some explanations for this phenomenon. First, the majority of the literature in our culture (especially prose and drama) has been written by males and about males—males write the best "parts" for males. As a result, literature, which provides

the most challenge for males may also provide the most viable outlet for success among males interpreting that literature. Second, those judging "success" in this activity may strive to reward males who are willing to violate sex-role typing because of the risk associated with such violation. As a result, the male who is willing to portray emotional and aesthetic aspects of literature may be more highly rewarded than his female counterpart who portrays such aspects in literature interpretation or who excels in the most cognitively-oriented aspects typically associated with the original speaking events. Regardless of the reason, analysis of the two national tournaments in individual events suggests there may be discrimination which is gender-based.

Finally, it is important to note a gender difference between male/female participation at the two national tournaments in individual events. Overall, the results from the 1984 tournaments clearly document that the American Forensic Association national tournament was more male-dominated in both participation levels and especially in success levels than the National Forensic Association national tournament. Of the nine events at the National Forensic Association national tournament, women comprised over 50% of the quarter-finalists in three events, over 50% of the semi-finalists in three events, and over 50% of the finalists in three events. Of the ten events at the American Forensic Association's national tournament, women comprised over 50% of the quarter-finalists in one event, over 50% of the semi-finalists in one event, and over 50% of the finalists in no events. Women comprised at least 33% of the finalists in seven of the nine events at the 1984 National Forensic Association's national tournament, while comprising at least 33% of the finalists in only three of the ten events at the 1984 American Forensic Association's national tournament.

Again, these findings may occur for several reasons. First, the American Forensic Association clearly has its roots in debate—the first national tournament in individual events was held in 1978 compared to a long history of national tournaments in debate. While the organization clearly has a commitment to the growth and development of individual events, historically much of its support is generated from programs with a strong debate tradition and potentially a strong male-dominated debate tradition. This potential "old-boy network" which may be more apparent in both coaching and judging associated with this tournament may also be reflected in the male-dominated participation and success at this tournament; the National Forensic Association is not historically associated with debate and does not currently host a national

debate tournament. Second, the National Forensic Association philosophy provides a broader-based tournament with a qualifying method that is more conducive to participation by community colleges as well as smaller colleges and universities. While speculative, female coaches and judges who may be more prevalent at these institutions may reflect a greater participation and a higher level of success from females at this national tournament. Regardless of the reasons, females enjoyed a significantly higher level of success in 1984 at the National Forensic Association tournament than they did at the American Forensic Association tournament.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While this research provides an initial analysis of male/female participation and level of success at both debate and individual events national tournaments, it is only the first step necessary to identify some of the gender barriers confronted by participants in this educational activity. With this initial analysis, however, the authors clearly recognize the need for continued research to identify and explore the impact of gender barriers in the activity.

First, similar research which examines the same type of data over a period including several national tournaments would certainly provide a greater sense of "trend" than the current study. If this trend suggests a movement toward a balance in male/female participation, then we as educators are heading in the right direction toward meeting the goal of providing this activity for all individuals regardless of gender. If, on the other hand, trends indicate continued levels of male/female disparity in participation and/or success, then a concerted effort to address and overcome these barriers must be undertaken.

Second, male/female participation and success in forensics should also be examined on a regional basis. Data from the national tournaments may be examined from a regional perspective to indicate regional differences that will provide additional insight into addressing gender issues. In addition, data collected from regional tournaments throughout the year could provide helpful information to determine if male/female participation and success at the regional level is comparable to that represented at the national tournaments. Specifically, even greater male/female participation and success disparities may exist at the regional level of competition.

Third, additional levels of forensic participation as well as areas of forensic competition should be examined for male/female participation and success. For example, high school forensic competi-

tion and community college forensic competition should be examined to see if such disparities and potential gender barriers exist. In addition, such areas as CEDA debate should be included in exploratory research to determine if areas of forensics not explored in this research provide fewer gender barriers to participation.

Finally, research which focuses on the impact of gender among judges in the activity may offer the most valuable insight into why females are not experiencing the level of success in both activities as males. Since these individuals judge what is considered "successful" in this competitive activity, an examination of perceived gender variables and their impact on the competitive setting might begin to explain "why" such barriers occur.

CONCLUSION

While this research is somewhat limited in its scope, it does provide an exploratory examination of male/female participation and success at both debate and individual events national tournaments. Perhaps the most significant finding of this research is that some gender-based perceptions held by the forensic community may be supported while others are not. While debate may appear to be a male-dominated activity as perceptions suggest, individual events may not provide as much gender balance as perceived by the forensic community. In general, it appears that regardless of the forensic activity, male domination ranges from "slight" to "overwhelming." If gender-based perceptions in the forensic community are directly related to the participation and success of males and females in the activity, then such research may provide the key to bringing about awareness and eventual change of gender-based attitudes within the forensic community.

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Gender Issues in Cross Examination Periods of C.E.D.A. Debate

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On October 11, 1984, fifty million television viewers watched Geraldine Ferraro and George Bush clash wits in a much publicized vice-presidential debate held in Philadelphia. The political debate not only held importance for the 1984 presidential election, but it also was the first time a man and a woman nominated for such a high office had met face-to-face in a political debate. The participants in the debate each faced a sticky task of demonstrating their leadership ability while, at the same time, maintaining an appropriate decorum in debating the opposite sex. On the one hand, Bush could not be too harsh, for if he attacked Ferraro voters would think he was impolite. As one Bush supporter remarked before the debate, "It's very difficult for [Bush] to prevail. Either it looks like [he's] beating up on [Ferraro] or not standing up to her."¹ On the other hand, Ferraro needed to appear knowledgeable and presidential. As Congressperson Tony Coelho put it: "She needs to avoid looking bitchy. She can't be shrill. She has to come across as a leader."²

Regardless of the outcome of the 1984 election, the vice-presidential debate raised an important question concerning the differences between male and female speakers. Do men and women differ in their speaking styles when debating the opposite sex? For the Bush/Ferraro debate the answer was yes. Ferraro, "a brassy, sassy, quick-witted and fast-talking on the stump" speaker, followed the advice of her political analysts to "speak more slowly and adopt a much cooler style for the televised encounter."³ Bush, who publicly announced that if he attacked Ferraro in the debate "people [would] think [he's] impolite," declared just prior to the contest that he was no longer concerned about the "woman

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¹Jack Nelson, "Interest Grows in Debate by Ferraro, Bush Tonight," *Los Angeles Times*, 11 October, 1984, p. 19.

²Nelson, p. 19.

³Nelson, p. 19.

factor."⁴

Like Ferraro and Bush, intercollegiate speech participants also should consider gender factors when competing in speaking contests. Intercollegiate debate, the most complicated contest event at speech tournaments, is no exception. Differences in male and female speaking appear very pronounced in debate.⁵ More men than women participate in debate and men appear to have a competitive edge since male/male or male/female teams generally are more successful than female/female teams.⁶ Since men appear to have a competitive advantage in debate, an analysis of speaking styles, focusing on the similarities and differences between male and female speech, might offer a partial explanation for the differing success.

This study, then, investigates gender differences in debate. Generally, debate calls for four speakers to engage in argument. One team, consisting of two speakers, affirms the resolution while the other team opposes it. Each speaker in a debate is given four occasions to speak: a constructive speech, in which the speaker presents his/her case; two cross-examination speeches, one questioning an opponent and one answering an opponent's inquiries; and finally, a refutation speech, in which the debater refutes the opposition and restates his/her own case. For this study, we have narrowed our research to focus on the cross-examination speeches in an intercollegiate debate.

Studying the cross-examination speeches of males and females appears to be one of the more effective ways to investigate gender differences in an intercollegiate debate since the theory base for gender differences in speech, including such items as total amount of speaking time, interruptions, hedges, filler, the use of less precise language, and the use of tag questions, is closely tied to the analysis of dyadic conversation. In addition, it allows the researcher to watch the struggle for conversational dominance in a debate. With its direct confrontation between speakers, cross-examination is an excellent behavioral demonstration of relational dominance. Therefore, answers to the questions of whether men or women have greater control over the cross-examination period might be deter-

⁴Nelson, p. 19.

⁵Sheryl A. Friedley and Marjorie Keeshan Nadler, "Perceived Gender Differences in Forensic Participation and Leadership," Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association Convention, Washington, D. C., 1983, p. 11.

⁶Lawrence D. Medcalf, "The Participation and Success of Women in CEDA Debate," Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association Convention, Chicago, Illinois, 1984.

mined by investigating the use of interruptions and the number and type of questions asked during the cross-examination period. This essay, then, reports the differences between men and women's speech in cross-examination debate in two general areas: the attempt to dominate the interview with interruptions; and the attempt to control the interview with specific types of questions. The paper proceeds as follows: first, a summary of the research on gender differences in interruptions of conversational speech is detailed and then the advice of forensic scholars on how to conduct a cross-examination is summarized; second, the method used in this study to evaluate gender differences in the cross-examination portion of an intercollegiate debate is outlined; third, the results of the study are summarized; and, finally, the limitations of the research and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Interruptions and Cross Examination Debate

Robin Lakoff's influential and provocative work on women's language provided a springboard for research in language and gender differences. In her article "Language and Woman's Place," Lakoff hypothesized that women's speech was different than men's speech.⁷ She is not alone in that judgment. In fact, women's speech consistently has been described as polite, emotional, talkative, and uncertain, while men's speech has been characterized as direct, rational, illustrating a sense of humor, and strong.⁸

The differences between men and women's language readily become apparent when studying power relationships between the sexes and the use of interruptions to gain control of the conversation. Generally, it is accepted practice for a man to interrupt a woman but not for a woman to interrupt a man, especially in public.⁹ "As the 'superiors,'" wrote Spender, "men are free to do the talking and the interrupting when interacting with women."¹⁰ Research supports the position that men interrupt women more often than men interrupt men in social conversation and that the interruption is a device for exercising power and control in conversation.

⁷Robin Lakoff, "Language and Woman's Place," *Language in Society*, 2 (1973), 45-79.

⁸See Cheris Kramarae, "Women's Speech: Separate but Unequal?" *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 60 (1974), 14-24. See also Barrie Thome, Cheris Kramarae, and Nancy Henley, eds., *Language, Gender, and Society* (Rowley: Newbury House, 1983); and Judy Cornelia Pearson, *Gender and Communication* (Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown, 1985), pp. 176-81.

⁹Dale Spender, *Man Made Language* (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1980), p. 44.

¹⁰Spender, p. 45.

According to Scheloff, the basic rule for conversation is one party at a time.¹¹ However, in cross-examination debate this is not always achieved. Speakers who ask questions are forced to interrupt respondents who give lengthy answers or interrupt respondents once the answer they want has been given. Likewise, individuals responding to the questions interrupt the person asking questions in order to qualify or elaborate on an already given answer. Thus, the rule for conversation, that being one speaker at a time, frequently is violated during debate examination periods. The way individuals manage their turn-taking in cross-examination ultimately affects a critic's perception of a participant's speaking ability. For example, a person who constantly cuts off a respondent may be perceived as being too aggressive, while a person who never cuts off a respondent may be perceived as too passive.

The research on interruptions in conversations is fairly extensive and demonstrates that a male's speech is more dominant. Goffman and Duncan each have studied turn taking by identifying turn-yielding and attempted turn-suppressing signals in conversation.¹² Bernard found that women in a mixed-sex task-oriented group have a difficult time in gaining the floor and are more susceptible to interruptions from men.¹³ Early research by Zimmerman and West found similar results. They reported that in same-sex conversations interruptions were initiated rarely but in cross-sex conversations an asymmetrical relationship was discovered with men initiating a major portion of the interruptions.¹⁴ In a subsequent study, West and Zimmerman confirmed their previous judgment that a gross asymmetry existed in conversations of cross-sexed groups when they found that ninety-six per-cent of the interruptions were done by males to females.¹⁵ Males interrupted the females more in every conversation which West and Zimmerman studied and the findings

¹¹Emanuel A. Scheloff, "Sequencing in Conversational Openings," *American Anthropologist*, 70 (1968), 1075-95.

¹²S. Duncan, "Toward a Grammar for Dyadic Conversation," *Semiotica*, 9 (1973), 29-46; and S. Duncan "Some Signals and Rules for Taking Speaking Turns in Conversations," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 23 (1972), 283-92; and E. Goffman, *Behavior in Public Places* (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1963).

¹³Jessie Bernard, *The Sex Game* (New York: Atheneum, 1972).

¹⁴Don H. Zimmerman and Candace West, "Sex Roles Interruptions and Silences in Conversations," in Barrie Thome and Nancy Henley, eds., *Language and Sex: Differences and Dominance* (Rowley: Newbury House, 1975), pp. 105-29.

¹⁵Candace West and Don H. Zimmerman, "Small Insults: A Study of Interruptions in Cross-Sex Conversations Between Unacquainted Persons," in Thome, Kramarae, and Henley, pp. 102-117.

even held when the subjects previously were unacquainted. The explanation for why men interrupt women more frequently seems difficult to grasp. Two explanations were excluded by West and Zimmerman when they argued in the conclusion of their study that women did not invite interruption by seeming to tolerate it, nor did men interrupt women in order to get a word into the conversation.¹⁶

Research by Kennedy,¹⁷ Octigan and Niederman,¹⁸ and Rogers and Jones¹⁹ lend credence to the position that men interrupt women more frequently than women interrupt men. Likewise, Hoffman arrived at a similar conclusion but with the qualification that the sex of the person spoken to was more important than the sex of the speaker.²⁰ Willis and Williams study of conversations in a high school discussion group, a university faculty office, and the cafeteria in a university student union revealed that listeners were more likely to speak at the same time as a female was speaking and that men were more likely to initiate talk while a woman was speaking.²¹

Although cross-examination in debate is not the same type of dyadic communication as social conversation, the research on interruptions and gender differences in speech does provide a starting point for understanding gender differences in cross-examination. We define cross-examination as a process of dyadic communication with a predetermined and serious purpose involving one person who asks questions and a second person who answers questions. Cross-examination is similar to an interrogation interview in that its participants are frequently aggressive and the interview is highly directive. In a highly directive interview, "the interviewer establishes the purpose of the interview and . . . controls the pacing of the communication situation."²² The person

¹⁶West and Zimmerman, "Small Insults," p. 103.

¹⁷Carol W. Kennedy, "Patterns of Verbal Interruption Among Women and Men in Groups." Paper presented at the 3rd Annual Conference on Communication, Language, and Gender, Lawrence, Kansas, 1980.

¹⁸Mary Octigan and Sharon Niederman, "Male Dominance in Conversations," *Frontiers*, 4 (1979), 50-4.

¹⁹William T. Rogers and Stanley Jones, "Effects of Dominance Tendencies on Floor Holding and Interruption Behavior on Dyadic Interaction," *Human Communication Research*, 1 (1975), 113-22.

²⁰Susan Freeman Hoffman, "Interruptions: Structure and Tactics in Dyadic Conversations," Paper presented at the International Communication Association Convention, Acapulco, Mexico, 1980.

²¹Frank N. Willis and Sharon J. Williams, "Simultaneous Talking in Conversation and Sex of Speakers," *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 13 (1976), 1067-70.

²²Charles J. Stewart and William B. Cash, Jr., *Interviewing: Principles and Practices* (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1974), p. 15.

asking questions, therefore, performs the role of information-gatherer and the person answering the questions assumes the role of information-giver. The interviewer in a cross-examination debate has unlimited freedom to probe into answers and adapt to changing situations in the examination period. Personal risk both for the interviewer and interviewee is often very high in cross-examination periods.

It is our position that simultaneous speech is a violation of norms regulating conversational exchange. Consistent and repeated interruptions during a cross-examination signals dominance of one person over another person. One of the purposes of this present study was to test three hypothesis with respect to interruptions in cross-examination debate. First, men would interrupt more than women during the cross-examination period of the debate. Second, when men question women there would be more interruptions than when women interview men. Third, men would be more successful than women in regaining control of the floor through the use of interruptions.

In addition to studying interruptions, we also were concerned with the method of questioning used by the debaters during the cross-examination period of the debate. Forensic educators have not studied gender differences in cross-examination debate in the past. Fuge and Newman,²³ Henderson,²⁴ and Norton²⁵ are a few of the authors who have addressed strategies of cross-examination in our journals. But none of these authors have included gender issues in their discussions of cross-examination.

Authors of debate texts also have ignored the gender issue but have supplied the debater with a list of commandments, the do's and don't's for cross-examination.²⁶ The commandments for cross-

²³ Lloyd H. Fuge and Robert P. Newman, "Cross-Examination in Academic Debating," *The Speech Teacher*, 5 (1956), 66-70.

²⁴ Bill Henderson, "A System of Teaching Cross Examination Techniques," *Communication Education*, 27 (1978), 112-18, 133.

²⁵ Robert Norton, "Remembering What the C.E. Stands For: Toward a Greater Role for Cross-Examination in CEDA Debate," in Don Brownlee, ed., *CEDA Yearbook* (1983), 29-31.

²⁶ See Douglas Ehninger and Wayne Brockriede, *Decision By Debate*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Row, 1978), pp. 207-8; Arthur N. Kruger, *Modern Debate: Its Logic and Strategy* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), pp. 388-90; J. W. Patterson and David Zarefsky, *Contemporary Debate* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1983), pp. 263-279; Richard C. Price, "More Effective Cross-Exam: Format, Goals, Strategies," in David A. Thomas, ed., *Advanced Debate: Readings in Theory, Practice and Teaching* (Skokie: National Textbook, 1976), pp. 204-14; Richard D. Rieke and Malcolm O. Sillars, *Argumentation and the Decision Making Process*, 2nd ed. (Palo Alto: Scott, Foresman, 1984), pp. 235-37; James Edward Sayer, *Argumentation and Debate:*

examination can be summarized in one phrase: "control the witness."²⁷ Several authors have advised the examiner to control the answers of the respondent by asking closed questions, especially leading questions. At the same time, these authors caution the student to avoid open ended questions since these questions would permit the person answering the questions to hold the conversational floor for a significant period of time. As Walter put it, "a leading phrase is like a spoon to put the castor oil of unpleasant facts into a witness's mouth."²⁸ Although Walter was discussing cross-examination in a courtroom setting, the same advice would hold for cross-examination in academic debate since it is an important illustration of a debater's credibility.

How the cross-examination is conducted can contribute to or detract from the overall image of the debater in the mind of the critic-judge.²⁹ The use of leading, closed, open, tag, multiple questions or the making of statements instead of just asking questions seems to have particular importance in controlling the cross-examination period. This study, therefore, attempts to fill the gap in our knowledge in the type and use of questions by gender in cross-examination debate. In doing so we test three hypotheses: First, women would use more open questions than men; second, men would use more closed questions or leading questions than women; third, women would use more tag questions than men. Warrant for these three hypotheses is based on the belief that women are less forceful and dominant in cross-examination and, thus, would exhibit behavior which was more tentative and less in control, such as asking tag questions or open questions more frequently.

METHOD

Sample

The cross-examination periods of eighteen Cross Examination Debate Association (CEDA) debates were recorded at four different California forensic tournaments attended by both students from *Principles and Applications* (Sherman Oaks: Alfred, 1980), pp. 346-52; J. Michael Sproule, *Argument: Language and its Influence* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1980), pp. 420-22; Wayne N. Thompson, *Modern Argumentation and Debate: Principles and Practices* (New York: Harper & Row, 1971), pp. 294-300; and George W. Ziegelmüller and Charles A. Dause, *Argumentation: Inquiry and Advocacy*, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1975), pp. 213-226.

²⁷Michael J. Walter, "Controlling the Witness on Cross-Examination," *Litigation*, 7 (1980), p. 36.

²⁸Walter, p. 36.

²⁹Henderson, p. 118.

four-year universities and two-year colleges during October, 1984 to January 1985.³⁰ The debaters all argued the fall 1984 CEDA topic that "The method of conducting presidential election in the United States is detrimental to democracy." The debates recorded were selected randomly from the open division competition.³¹ Two of the debates were excluded from the final sample because one team in each of those debates had been recorded during an earlier period of the tournament. The sample size, therefore, consisted of sixty-four three-minute cross-examination speeches. Overall, 192 minutes of questions and answers were recorded. Forty-three men and twenty-one women were included in the final sample.

Procedure

Two individuals, using the taped cross-examination speeches, coded the data. Before an item was coded into a category, each of the coders had to agree on where the item was to be categorized. Two general areas were investigated: interruptions and types of questions. An explanation of each of these areas follows.

Interruptions were coded for both the person asking questions and the person answering the questions. For the purposes of this study, an interruption was defined as the occurrence of simultaneous speech and was assigned to the participant who initiated speech while not possessing the conversational floor. Thus, brief utterances such as "yes" or "uh huh" which a listener intersperses during a speaker's pauses were not coded as an interruption. A successful speech interruption resulted in a switch of which speaker held the floor. Successful speech interruptions were recorded only for the person who was asking the questions and not for the person answering the questions.

Questions asked by the questioner were coded as either an open question which called for the respondent to give a more extended answer (What is the value of the electoral college?), a closed

³⁰The four tournaments included: Sacramento City College's tournament, an early tournament in the competitive season drawing schools mainly in the Northern California region; Sacramento State University's tournament, a Northern California tournament which draws teams from Nevada, Oregon, and Washington; University of Southern California's tournament which draws teams from across the nation; and University of California at Los Angeles's tournament which also draws teams from across the nation. Of the teams who were recorded, the majority came from the Western States with the largest number coming from the state of California. Teams from eight different states were recorded.

³¹Students with more competitive debate experience compete in open division. Students who have not debated before compete in novice division.

question which called for the respondent to give a yes/no or a short answer (Do the primaries extend the length of the political campaign?), a leading question in which the person asking the questions phrased a very narrow and specific question (Would the election have resulted in a different person being elected if one per-cent of the population had changed their vote?), and tag questions in which the person asking questions would add a single phrase onto the end of a declarative sentence (The two party system positively supports democracy. Correct?). In addition, tag questions also were coded as a closed, or leading question depending on how the sentence was phrased. Questions asked by the person being interviewed (Q. What are the factors which influence voting. A: Well, I don't understand what you mean. What do you mean by factors?), and general questions which were given as an answer instead of a statement (Q: Do you think it's fair that the criteria be limited to only one person one vote? A: Do you think it's not fair?) were both coded as respondent questions.

An open question is broad in nature and allows the respondent considerable freedom in determining the kind and amount of information to give. Closed and leading questions are more restrictive. A closed or a leading question would limit the answers available to the respondent. A leading question supplies all the possible answers in the question. Closed questions require less effort on the part of the respondent because they do not require long explanations.

Statistical Analysis

The data were interpreted in two stages. First, the sixty-four cross-examination speeches were divided into two categories: men asking questions, and women asking questions. Then a analysis-of-variance test was performed for five of the six hypotheses. A difference-of-means test was used to test the hypothesis that men would interrupt women more than women would interrupt men. Second, the sixty-four cross-examination speeches were divided into four categories: Male interviewing male; male interviewing female; female interviewing female; and female interviewing male. Due to small cell sizes only means and percentages were computed for each of the four coded categories. Finally, additional variables were tested in an analysis-of-variance test to determine if there was any other explanation for differences in the number of interruptions and use of questions. Variables tested included speaker position, success of the debate team at the tournament, amount of experience of the speakers, and comparison between the four selected tournaments.

RESULTS

Interruptions

The mean ratings for interruptions, on the part of the cross-examiner, are reported in Table 1. As the table indicates, there was an asymmetry in the initiation of interruptions on the part of males. The mean number of interruptions made by males was calculated at 12.47 while the mean number of interruptions initiated by females was only 8.62. An analysis-of-variance test was significant at the .03 level. This marked asymmetry seemed to be present for respondent interruptions as well. The mean score of interruptions made by male respondents was found to be 5.51 while female respondents interrupted an average of 2.95 times. Furthermore, no significance could be found when comparing interruptions with tournaments, speaker position, amount of debate experience, or success rate of the participant. Thus, these results clearly support the first hypothesis: That men interrupt more than women during a cross-exam period of debate.

Affirmation of the second hypothesis, that being that men who question women will interrupt more than when women question men, also clearly is indicated by the results. The mean score for total interruptions suggested that a disproportionate number exists between interruptions initiated by males and females. For

Hypothesis	Mean Score Males	Mean Score Females	F-test	df	Sign. Level
1. Men interrupt more than women.	12.46	8.62	5.10	63	.029
3. Men would be more successful in interrupting than women.	7.86	4.05	13.88	63	.0004
4. Women would use more open questions than men.	3.9	5.9	6.49	63	.01
5. Men would use more closed or leading questions than women.	Closed 12.1	9.5	7.32	63	.008
	Leading 5.2	3.48	7.29	63	.008
6. Women would use more tag questions.	2.44	3.66	2.96	63	NS

men interviewing women, the mean number of interruptions was calculated at 14.89. Yet the mean score for women interrupting their male respondent was found to be only 8.83. A one-tailed T- test, calculating the difference of means, reached significance at the .005 level. These results are reflective of the "gross asymmetry" West and Zimmerman reported in their study of cross- sex interruptions.³² Furthermore, these findings indicate that male examiners show greater control than female examiners over their respondents in limiting their opponents' response. Thus, the male interviewer may be perceived as managing his time more effectively.

Perhaps the more interesting note here is that, in a comparison of cross-sex and same-sex cells, males tended to interrupt females more than males tended to interrupt males. This statistic seemed to hold true not only when the male was asking the questions but also when answering the questions. Whereas the mean score of a male examiner interrupting a female respondent was figured at 14.89, a male respondent was interrupted by a male examiner a mean score of only 10.72. As a respondent, the males interrupted the female examiner 8.28 times while the male examiner was interrupted only 3.52 times. However, this same phenomenon did not seem to hold true for women. As questioners, females tended to follow their male counterpart, interrupting the male respondent a mean score of 8.83 and the female respondent a mean of only 7.33. Yet the reverse occurred when women take the respondent position. Female respondents interrupted their male interviewer a mean score of only 2.61, whereas the female interviewer was interrupted a high mean of 5.00. These findings indicate that a style difference exists, with respect to interruptions, when opposite sexes enter into the debate.

Most surprising are the results that pertain to the third hypothesis that men would be more successful than women in interrupting and regaining control of the floor. As reported in Table 2, the mean score of successful interruptions would seem to infer that the male examiner is far more successful in regaining control than his female counterpart. Furthermore, the analysis-of-variance test showed significance at the .0004 level. However, an investigation of the percentages of successful interruptions in the cross-sex and same-sex cells would support the rejection of the hypothesis. The results indicated that female debaters were slightly more successful at interrupting than male debaters. As examiners, women were successful in interrupting their male respondent 52% of the time

³²West and Zimmerman, "Small Insults," p. 102-117.

Table 2
Percentage and Mean Interruptions by Questioner

	Male/ Male	Male/ Female	Female/ Male	Female/ Female
Interruptions	10.72	14.89	8.83	7.33
Successful Interruptions	7.12	8.89	4.17	3.33
Number of cases	25	18	18	3
Percentages of Successful Interruptions	34%	41%	52%	54%

while a female respondent was successfully interrupted 54% of the time. On the other hand, male examiners were only successful 41% of the time in interrupting their female respondents, while male respondents were successfully interrupted a low of 34% of the time. These findings seem to support the rule for turn-taking established by Scheloff: One party at a time.³³ In following the rules for politeness, a speaker seemed to turn the control of the floor over to the person who is interrupting. It appeared that women enjoy a small advantage in this respect perhaps because men give deference to female opponents. One feasible explanation for this unexpected result may be that men change their style in cross-examination so that they do not appear to be brow-beating women in front of a critic-judge. Regardless of the explanation, these findings suggest that women were more successful than men in regaining control of the floor.

Types of Questions

A comparison of the mean number of open questions males and females ask affirmed the fourth hypothesis that women use more open questions than men. As Table 1 suggests, the mean number of open questions asked by female speakers was 5.9 while the male debater asked a mean of only 3.9. The analysis-of-variance test was calculated to be significant at the .01 level. The implications of these findings should not be overlooked. An open question hardly "controls" the witness. Instead, an open question gives the respondent easy access to the floor. Open questions, therefore, not only can indicate poor use of cross-examination time, but can reduce the effectiveness of the examiner by allowing the respondent significant opportunity to control the cross-examination period. A critic-judge might devalue a female debater who spends a third of her time using open questions when her male counterpart spends

³³Scheloff, pp. 1075-95.

only a fourth of his time on open questions. In fact, both males and females would be better advised to reduce the number of open questions asked during the cross-examination period of a debate altogether.

The fifth hypothesis, that men use more closed or leading questions clearly was confirmed. As indicated in Table 1, an analysis-of-variance test was found to be significant at the .008 level for both leading and closed questions. In both cases, the male examiner showed a decidedly improved ability over his female counterpart in illiciting the desired answer from the respondent. Male examiners used a mean score of 12.1 closed questions. At the same time, female examiners used a mean score of 9.5 closed questions. The illustration of this point becomes most noticeable when comparing percentages of closed questions used by male and female interviewers. As suggested in Table 3, males devoted 65% of their inquiries to closed questions when interviewing other males. Similarly, when querying a female respondent, 65.5% of all the questions asked by the male examiner could be categorized as closed. However, when females took over the task of interviewing, only 50% of all their questions were coded as closed. The results concerning leading questions revealed the same imbalance with respect to gender. Males used a mean of 5.20 leading questions, whereas leading questions used by women averaged a mean of only 3.42. By comparing percentages it becomes clear that men questioning men show the best use of leading questions, devoting 30.4%

Table 3
Percentage and Means of Types of Questions Asked by Questioner

Question	Male/ Male	Male/ Female	Female/ Male	Female/ Female
Total Questions	19.2	17.72	18.11	22.00
Leading	30.4% 5.84	24.5% 4.33	19% 3.44	16% 3.61
Open	17.9% 3.44	25.7% 4.56	30.67% 5.56	30% 8.0
Closed	65% 12.6	65.5% 11.61	50% 9.22	50% 11.0
Tag	16.4% 3.16	8.2% 1.44	20% 3.78	22.7% 3.0
Multiple	5.8% 1.12	7.8% 1.39	5.5% 1.0	22.7% 5.0
Statement	7.9% 1.25	9.1% 1.61	10.1% 1.83	12.1% 2.67
Number of Cases	25	18	18	3

of their questions to the use of this technique. Men interviewing women used 24.5% leading questions, while women interviewing men used only 19% leading questions. The poorest use of leading questions occurred when females interviewed females, where only 16% of the questions asked were leading in nature.

In an analysis-of-variance test the hypothesis that women use more tag question was not confirmed although in a comparison of both means and percentages, females used slightly more tag questions than their male counterparts. The mean number of tag questions used by females was figured at 3.66, whereas, the mean number of tag questions for men was calculated at 2.44. Likewise, in examining percentages, only 13.14% of all questions asked by males were classified as tag questions, yet 19.64% of the questions posed by females fell under the tag question category. Although tag questions are generally leading or closed in nature, they exhibit a more tentative style of speech. Thus, women or men who use tag questions exhibit less control of the questioning in the cross-examination period.

Although this study did not hypothesize about either the use of multiple or statement questions, it appeared that both sexes should be advised to avoid these types of questions. Good questioning style calls for one question at a time. Multiple questions, therefore, are not an effective use of the cross-examination time. Furthermore, statement questions also are an ineffective use of time and usually are perceived as "just talk." Warnings against such statements often are given by judges. Comments such as "Ask questions in CX nothing else, just questions," or "Don't make arguments in CX, ask questions" are common criticisms on ballots. Thus, both men and women would do well to heed this advice.

Finally, additional variables were tested to determine if there might be an alternative explanations for the differences between gender in the use of questions and interruptions. Speaker position, debate experience, and differences between the four tournaments (early versus late season) showed no differences. A fourth variable, success rate, did show significance in an analysis-of-variance test for both tag questions and interruptions. However, further comparisons of percentages among the groups indicated that no such significance existed and thus any difference might be due to small cell size of the sample. Therefore, these alternate variables do not appear to be factors which influenced interruptions or use of questions.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study does not purport to be a definitive answer to how men's and women's speech in cross-examination debate differs. It

does, however, attempt to determine if differences existed in the use of questions and in the amount of interruptions. If a debater wants to maintain control over the structure of the cross-examination period, interruptions are necessary because interruptions help manage the interaction between questioner and respondent. Likewise, the use of questions can assist a speaker in controlling the cross-examination period.

The conclusions of this research are limited due to the small sample size. We tentatively suggest that in cross-examination periods of CEDA debate men attempt more interruptions than women; men questioning women interrupt more than when women question men; women are slightly more successful than men in completing their interruptions; women use more open questions than men; and men use more closed or leading questions than women. The only hypothesis on which we found inconclusive information was in the area of tag questions. Although females use more tag questions than men, the difference is not significant. Overall then, women exhibit more hesitant or polite speech in cross-examination. By not interrupting as much, by permitting their own speech to be interrupted, by not using closed and leading questions but using open questions, female debaters are not as in control of the cross-examination period as male debaters.³⁴

The current study focused on interruptions and questioning techniques in cross-examination. However, other variables, such as the use of hedges, tentative language, humor, the use of less precise language, and the use of fillers, might prove to be important differences between men's and women's speech in debate. Future research could take these other items into account.

Finally, there is one limitation to this study. Only the verbal responses of the participants in the cross-examination periods were evaluated. No nonverbal dimensions were coded or used. How a question is asked or answered is often times more important than what is asked. Future research should take into account the nonverbal behaviors in debate.

This study provides a beginning point for understanding language differences between genders in debate. We hope this initial study will serve as a springboard for more lengthy research into the differences between men's and women's speech in debate. If women continue to be less successful than men, forensic educators have the responsibility to search out potential explanations for this phenomenon.

³⁴See E. R. "A Systematic Approach to the Measurement of Dominance in Human Face-to-Face Interaction," *Communication Quarterly*, 28 (1980), 32-43.

The Gender Factor in Selecting Extra-Curricular Activities

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The issue of gender factors in forensics has been a recently expressed concern. While this concern has encompassed many issues, part of the focus needs to consider the relationship of gender to decisions about participation in the activity itself. Relatively little research has been reported in this area, and the research that has been conducted has been quite limited. Most of the examinations of factors determining participation have focused on the high school level exclusively and have explored reasons for participation in extra-curricular activities in general rather than forensics in particular. The role of gender in those decisions has also been largely overlooked. This essay examines the research exploring the reasons students give for participating and not participating in extra-curricular activities and reports the results of a pilot survey in this area.

As early as 1971, *The Encyclopedia of Education* observed that "a major obstacle to attempts to generalize about student activities in American schools is the unavailability of data" (p. 488). In the intervening years, little has been done to remedy this situation, and this lack of data is even more pronounced in forensics. Recent data has examined perceptions of forensic coaches about gender differences in forensic participation. That data suggested that males were *perceived* to outnumber females in forensics in general. This was particularly pronounced in debate and at the college level (Friedley and Nadler, 1983). Of course, this data is limited since it focused on *perceptions* of male/female participation ratios rather than actual counts of participation; it does, though, raise questions that should be addressed.

Some research has examined gender related patterns of participation in extra-curricular activities at the high school level. The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (1982) reported, "on the average, girls have a somewhat higher participation rate than boys in extra-curricular activities. They enroll more frequently in journalism, the arts, and social and community clubs. In contrast, boys are more likely to participate in athletics" (p. 2018). It further

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pointed out that participation in athletic events by girls significantly increased following the passage of Title IX.

In a survey of 122 students from three Phoenix, Arizona high schools, Morris and Starrfield (1982) also found some gender differences in extra-curricular participation. They found that athletic activities were male dominated in general and tended to select their leaders competitively while social and academic activities (which included forensics) were female dominated in general and tended to select their leaders non-competitively.

These findings were consistent with those reported by Buser (1980) in his survey of Illinois public schools. He found that "female participation exceeded male participation appreciably in all categories other than athletics/sports and hobby/leisure related—regardless of school size" (p. 9). Specifically, he reported that "female participation exceeded that of males predominantly in drama, honors, service, cheerleading, publications, speech and social related areas" (p. 9). Buser (1980) included speech and debate activities within his drama category. In the breakdown of the category, females were reported to constitute 61 percent of the speech club and 51 percent of the debate club. Overall, Buser (1980) found that "female and male high school students participated in co-curricular activities to about the same extent, although in different areas" (p. 24).

Nover (1981) obtained results consistent with the previous studies in his survey of 293 students from semi-rural, suburban high schools in southeastern New England. He observed that "high school boys were found to participate significantly more frequently in sports than were high school girls, while girls participated significantly more frequently than boys in the arts and in academic activities" (p. 16). All these studies reported females as being more active within the broad category that included forensics, and all the studies surveyed secondary school students. Only one study, Buser (1980), reported an actual breakdown of gender differences in forensics. While the data does not *conclusively* indicate that females match or exceed male participation in forensics nationwide at the high school level, it does lend considerable support to that hypothesis. Unfortunately, none of these studies examined college level participation in extra-curricular activities in general—or forensics in particular. The perception data reported by Friedley and Nadler (1983) suggests that the male/female ratio is less balanced than this at the college level, and that the ratio varies according to each forensic activity. If females are indeed more active in these events than males at the high school level, then

some exploration of why that would change at the college level is needed.

The other aspect of extra-curricular activity participation that has been reported in professional literature deals with reasons for participation and nonparticipation in extra-curricular events. *The Encyclopedia of Education* (1971) reported that

a number of studies have examined the relationship between grades and part-time work, extra-curricular activities, type of housing and courseload. These investigations are notable because they consistently fail to find the expected inverse relation. . . Similarly, students who devote varying amounts of time to extra-curricular activities earn about the same level of grades as do nonparticipating students of comparable ability; and this relation seems to hold regardless of the nature of the extra-curricular participation, be it athletics, debating, or music. (p. 231-323)

In their survey of Phoenix high school students, Morris and Starrfield (1982) reported that the main reason given for joining athletics was to perform in athletics; the main reason for joining social activities was to socialize; and the main reason for joining academic activities was to enhance knowledge. The motivation given for joining an activity was based on internal rewards for the most part, particularly in academics.

In a survey of 1500 students drawn from 65 randomly selected high schools across the nation, Long, Buser and Johnson (1977) concluded that

over half of the students report they don't participate because they have a job outside of school, because activities are irrelevant, or because activities are scheduled after school. High costs, teacher domination, parental disapproval, and unavailability for their sex are given as reasons by fewer than 40 percent of the students. More than three of four students state they participate for fun and enjoyment, personal achievement, or needs and interests. (p. 3)

These studies have focused exclusively on high school students. They did not examine gender differences and they failed to check on whether the reasons varied by activity. Thus, these would be an inadequate basis for drawing conclusions about reasons for participation and nonparticipation in forensics or for gender-related differences in those reasons. They would also be an inadequate basis for drawing conclusions about college level students.

Survey

A survey was created to explore the reasons college students give for participation and nonparticipation in extra-curricular events. Students from the Miami University forensic team and an introductory public relations class filled out a survey about their participation in extracurricular activities. They were asked to identify the activities they currently participate in, rate 17 reasons for participation on a seven-point scale according to its importance to them, identify the activities they would like to participate in, and rate 21 reasons for not participating in extra-curricular activities on a seven-point scale. Demographic data consisting of gender and year in school were also collected. A copy of the questionnaire is included at the end of this essay.

A 2 x 2 design was employed examining differences for gender as well as forensic participation (i.e., forensic participation, no forensic participation). Analysis of variance procedures were utilized concerning the number of activities participated in, each reason for participation and nonparticipation in extracurricular activities, and number of additional activities subjects wanted to participate in. Subjects consisted of 17 forensic participants (seven males and ten females) and 28 non-forensic participants (12 males and 16 females).

Results

Significant results occurred for nine of the 39 dependent measures. A summary of the significant results is provided in Table 1. There were four factors of the 17 reasons for choosing an extra-curricular activity that had significant results. Females in forensics valued relevance to career goals as a reason for choosing an extra-curricular activity least (Mean=3.00), while males in forensics

Table 1
Significant Results

Factor	Source of Variation	Mean Square	F	Sign.
Career Relevance	Interaction	5.727	4.457	0.04
Several Activities	Forensics	12.130	4.023	0.05
Friends Participate	Gender	22.977	7.924	0.01
Parents Approve	Forensics	12.925	3.974	0.05
Time Inhibits	Gender	13.207	6.447	0.02
Employment Inhibits	Gender	13.403	4.302	0.05
Lack of Invitation	Interaction	24.714	5.298	0.03
Cost Inhibits	Gender	12.130	4.791	0.04
Cost Inhibits	Forensics	15.425	6.092	0.02
Social Interaction	Forensics	2.679	5.565	0.03
Social Interaction	Interaction	1.989	4.130	0.05

valued it most (Mean=1.86). Subjects not in forensics valued the ability to be involved in several activities as more important (Mean=3.28) than forensic participants (Mean =4.38). Males valued friends' participation in an activity more (Mean=2.76) than did females (Mean=4.28). Forensic participants valued parental approval (Mean=4.47) more than did non-forensic participants (Mean=5.60).

There were five factors of the 21 reasons for being inhibited from joining an extra-curricular activity that yielded significant results. Males are more inhibited by activities that would take time away from schoolwork (Mean =2.75) than are females (Mean=3.96). Males are also more inhibited by conflicts with jobs or employment (Mean=2.75) than are females (Mean=3.96). Male forensic participants are the most inhibited by a lack of invitation or selection to participate (Mean=2.67), while male non-forensic participants are the least inhibited by this factor (Mean =4.60), and forensic participants find cost (Mean =3.00) to be more inhibiting than non-forensic participants (Mean=4.36). Forensic participants also find the presence of social interaction (Mean=6.25) to be slightly more inhibiting than non-forensic participants (Mean=6.83). The interaction effect shows that female forensic participants find social interaction (Mean=5.86) to be more inhibiting than subjects in any other cell, while female nonparticipants find social interaction less inhibiting (Mean=6.86) than subjects in any other cell.

Discussion

These results show no clear pattern that would support the hypothesis that there are widespread gender differences affecting choices regarding reasons for participating or not participating in extra-curricular events. Males in forensics value extra-curricular activities relevant to their careers more than females in forensics. If this is true, then it may indicate that male forensic participants find forensics to be more relevant to their anticipated careers than do female forensic participants. Since forensics is a time-consuming activity, it is difficult to be active in a number of organizations while participating in forensics. Since individuals not in forensics valued the ability to be involved in several activities more highly than forensic participants, the time required for the activity could be a factor inhibiting some students from participating in forensics. Contrary to the popular stereotype of females wanting to join activities with their friends, this survey found males valuing friends' involvement more highly. Forensics has traditionally been considered a very time consuming activity, and males found time away from schoolwork and employment conflicts to be more

important factors than did females. This would suggest that males should be less involved in forensics than females which is contrary to the perceptual data at the college level as discussed above.

This study has some serious limitations that must be taken into account before the results are viewed as dismissing gender differences in decisions about whether to participate in forensics or in validating the significant results reported above. The sample size for the survey was not ideal. There was an imbalance between the sizes of the forensic population (17) and the non-forensic population (28). That imbalance became even more critical when examining interaction effects. Cell sizes ranged from 7 to 16, and those levels lead to questions about the validity of the results. In addition, 117 statistical tests were performed. Significant results for 11 of them could have occurred by chance, and thus great care should be exercised in drawing upon those significant results.

Directions for Future Research

This paper offers a beginning step in examining the importance of gender to decisions about whether or not to join forensic activities. There are a number of directions additional research could profitably explore. Broader-based college samples of both those involved in forensics and those not involved should be explored. It might also be valuable to break down forensics to examine debate and individual events populations or to break down the debate group even further into CEDA and NDT debaters. An examination of non-forensic participants' perceptions about forensics as an activity or exploration of reasons for not choosing forensics in particular could also be useful. Aside from the question of gender, these areas of exploration could provide important information to programs attempting to involve more students overall in forensics.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

1) Please list *all* extra-curricular activities and/or organizations you are currently involved with. (For example, debate, individual events, drama, music related activities, athletics, social organizations, honor societies, fraternities, sororities, student government/council activities, professional and class related activities, etc.)

2) What factors are important to you in choosing an extra curricular activity and/or organization? Please rate each of the following factors on a scale of 1 to 7 with *1 being very important* and *7 being very unimportant*.

- Fun/personal enjoyment _____
- Relevance to career goals _____
- Relevance to personal needs or interests _____
- Minimal time interference with school work _____
- Acceptability of activity by peer group _____
- Minimal costs _____
- Ability to be involved in several activities _____
- Appropriateness of activity for my sex _____
- Availability of activity for my sex _____
- Competition is involved _____
- Social interaction is involved _____
- Opportunity for leadership positions _____
- Friends participate _____
- Parents approve _____
- Learning experiences not available in the classroom are offered _____
- Improve relations with faculty _____
- Being invited and/or selected _____
- Other (Please specify)

QUESTIONNAIRE - continued

3) Are there any extra-curricular activities and/or organizations you are *not* participating in that you would like to be involved in? If so, please specify which ones.

4) What factors would inhibit your participation in extra-curricular activities and/or organizations? Please rate the following factors on a scale of 1 to 7 with *1 being very inhibiting* and *7 being not at all inhibiting*.

Lack of fun/personal enjoyment _____
 Lack of relevance to career goals _____
 Lack of relevance to needs and/or interests _____
 It would take time away from school work _____
 Conflicts with job/employment _____
 Not being invited or selected _____
 Activity controlled by a select group _____
 Sponsors or faculty advisers play favorites _____
 Activity is dominated by sponsor or faculty advisor _____
 Lack of advertisement of opportunity to join _____
 Costs _____
 Required transportation _____
 Not an "in" thing to do _____
 Not available because of your sex _____
 Not the norm for your sex _____
 Too many rules _____
 Desire to participate in many activities.
 Competition is involved _____
 Social interaction is involved _____
 Grades aren't high enough _____
 Parents disapprove _____
 Other (please specify)

5) Are you Male _____ or Female _____

6) What year in school are you in?
 Freshman ___ Sophomore ___ Junior ___ Senior.

Forensic Recruiting within the University

KEVIN W. DEAN and KENDA CREASY DEAN*

Often when we think of the word "recruitment," we think of attracting individuals to the university from "Somewhere Out There." Obviously, this is desirable; but for many university forensic programs it is an overwhelming, if not impossible, task. For forensic programs in universities without ivy-league reputations, without forensic scholarships, or programs which are simply new, there is a valuable, often overlooked, resource: the students who are already on campus.

Most of us recognize that there are talented students on every campus; the question becomes, "How do we locate them to interest them in speech activities?" The goal of this article is to present some suggestions for on-campus recruiting for college forensic programs. Since our experience has been recruiting for individual events, this will be the focus in this discussion, but the same principles apply to recruiting for debate. From the onset it is important to realize that these suggestions are not intended to be a "guarantee" for success in building a forensic program. Each university faces unique constraints, and the techniques used by one director of forensics may need to be adapted for another. It is hoped that this information will serve as a catalyst to stimulate creative and effective recruiting efforts for intercollegiate forensic programs within various universities.

The success of on-campus recruitment rests in its organization. Essentially it is a three-phase process: activities prior to the start of school, activities during the first three weeks of the fall term, and sustained public relations throughout the year. In addition to explaining these three phases, we will also explore why on-campus recruiting is so beneficial and some underlying philosophies of recruiting from within the university.

ON-CAMPUS RECRUITING

Students will, most likely, only involve themselves in a few extracurricular activities, especially during their freshman year.

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As students "shop" for ways to "get involved," the forensic director must strategically market a forensic program if he or she expects it to sell. Naturally, the ideal situation would be for anxious, talented, self-motivated students to line up outside the door (during 1-2, Monday-Thursday—office hours only), begging to be on the speech team. In our five year coaching careers, the students who have met that description could fit comfortably in the back seat of our Datsun. As part of a university where athletics dominate extracurricular activities and where theatre receives far more student attention than speech, it seems to us that the speech program must come to the students.

With this in mind, then, why bother with on-campus recruiting? Although there are certainly other advantages, three major benefits of an on-campus recruitment program are low cost, an achievable goal, and manageability. Perhaps the most obvious advantage is the minimal financial commitment required for on-campus recruiting. For programs with limited funds, the idea of spending time and money for weekend recruitment trips instead of weekend tournaments seems to defeat the purpose. Also, since many forensic programs are not linked to scholarship money, the frustration of competing against ABC University, complete with full-ride tuition waivers, is avoided because you are able to capitalize on a high-potential target audience: the students who are already on campus.

The second benefit is a limited, achievable goal. Because you'll be talking with full-time students, the hardest job has been accomplished for you: they are already "sold" on the university. All you must do is "sell" forensics. Here again, the first step is something you probably have already told most of your students—explaining the advantage of the confidence, poise, and research skills gained through speech, no matter what the student's field of study.

Finally, recruiting on the college campus offers maximum flexibility in terms of management. Successful recruiting can be done on a small scale, where the program director is the sole coach, or broadened to a wider spectrum of students for programs where additional faculty, graduate students, and/or willing varsity team members are available to help.

Most programs define their own recruiting philosophies according to their own needs. Because we recruit almost exclusively on-campus, we have gradually formulated a few philosophical guidelines which we try to keep in mind when encouraging already-enrolled students to try intercollegiate forensics. These guidelines help both the students, as they make a decision about joining a forensic team, and the coaches, to help keep recruiting aligned with our goals as speech educators.

First, forensics is not an "exclusive" activity. Participation in forensics is beneficial for any college student regardless of major. Despite vocational choice, the skills developed in presentational speaking will be a great asset to the student. Thus, recruitment efforts should be campus-wide and not necessarily limited to the handful of speech majors on campus. More specifically, we do not have "try-outs" for membership on the speech team, since we have found that it is often the least promising novice who becomes a very promising varsity competitor. Furthermore, the improvement gained by *any* student is the real mark of a successful forensic career, not the trophies won.

Second, not everyone is cut out for the competitive realm of forensics. We have seen many extremely talented speakers go by the wayside because they don't know the time commitment forensics entails, because they lack the responsibility to make them reliable team members, or simply because they "don't like it." As a recruiter, a coach must recognize those qualities which make a student a good competitor and team member, not just a good speaker.

Third, it is sometimes tempting to want students to make forensics "their life." A student's college career should entail many varied experiences; hopefully, forensics will be one of them. But it is *only* one of them. Forensics does not have to be a student's only activity on campus for him or her to be an asset to a forensic program.

Finally, we should remind ourselves that our job as recruiter succeeds only to the extent that we are effective as a teacher and coach. If you work best with five students, make that your recruiting goal. If you have time to effectively operate in a larger group, broaden your recruitment goal. Recruiting should be proportional to the coach's ability to spend time with forensic activities.

Understanding some of the benefits of an on-campus recruitment program and exploring some philosophical foundations for attracting full-time students to forensics allow us to consider some specific suggestions for implementing an on-campus recruitment program—specifically, what to do before classes start, as classes start, and after classes have been in session.

Activities Prior to the Start of School

Summer is a time for a welcome break from weekend tournaments, long van rides, cheap motels, and explaining the extemp filing system. It is also time to lay the groundwork for successful fall recruiting. As hectic as late summer might seem, fall will be worse. Furthermore, you are competing with other extra-curricular activi-

ties that are also doing their preliminary recruiting in August—so it is the classic case of the early bird and the worm. Thus, now is the time to get to know three valuable individuals: the directors of admissions, housing, and public information.

Many university admission offices provide incoming freshmen with interest survey forms. Some of these are actually included on the university application form itself. For example, our university's application form asks students to check which of the activities they are interested in, and offers students a varied list including performance theatre, athletic intramurals, and speech team. In addition, most universities require the SAT test. Along with student scores, ETS also sends admissions offices the data collected from an interest survey completed by students who have requested that their scores be sent to your university. The SAT interest survey does include participation in speech activities.

Thus, once you have made the acquaintance of the director of admissions, your tasks are as follows: In August, request a computer printout (based on either the university application or SAT scores) of incoming freshmen and transfer students who show an interest in forensic activities. August printouts have cancelled names of many students who were admitted but who do not plan to attend the university. Earlier printouts include these students—a waste of time for all involved. The printout should include the student's name, home address, and, if possible, campus address (although at our university this requires contacting the housing office). In some cases, the admissions office will also supply mailing labels. Furthermore, you can request computer printouts of students interested in majoring in speech communication, theatre, telecommunications, and pre-law—high potential target groups for forensics because of career interests entailing speech proficiency. Finally, most universities have admissions/orientation programs during the summer. Request time to give a presentation during orientation, set up a forensic booth at a student activities fair, or at least ask the admissions office to inform incoming students that a speech team exists on campus.

Now that you have the *names* of students, you must begin to *locate* them. If you're lucky, the admissions office may have students' campus addresses too. Some universities assign campus housing as soon as admissions are finalized, while others wait until the end of the summer to make specific placement. Whatever system is used, the acquaintance of the housing director should be made so that addresses and phone numbers for speech-interested students can be obtained.

The actual recruiting begins once names, addresses, and phone numbers have been collected. The first or initial contact is most simply accomplished by an informational mailing. Sent bulk rate, such a mailing list is relatively inexpensive and for us has had a rate of return that outweighs the cost by saving time at a later date. The mailing should contain three items: a brief letter of introduction, a description (or, if you have one, a brochure) about the college program and college forensics as a whole, and an interest form to be returned to you (SEE APPENDIX A). The letter functions as a warm welcome to college and an invitation to participate in your college's forensic program. The program director's name, office address and location, office phone, and times of availability during the first week of classes should be included. Students should be encouraged to make contact as soon as they arrive on campus during summer orientation or in the fall.

The informational brochure/description serves two functions. For the high school competitor, it reinforces the familiarity of the forensic activity while highlighting the differences (such as types of events offered) between high school and college competition. For the individual who is curious about how he or she got on the mailing list, it helps to clarify the nature of the activity. We have found that most students are both surprised and flattered by the demonstrated interest in them, and often are even more curious to find out about this activity that seems to admire their talents.

The interest form, when returned, provides a target list to contact when school starts. We found that, of the students we contacted by mail, between 10-15% returned interest forms (their stamps and envelopes). Because these individuals demonstrated the initiative to return the form, they should be the first students contacted once school begins, and will comprise a highly potent target group. The interest forms should obtain such data as the student's name, campus address, and phone number if known (this provides a cross check with the university list), past speech experience, and possible future interests. This kind of information provides good springboard material for your initial conversations with the student.

Once the initial student contact is made by mail, one final stop should be made before school starts: the university Office of Public Information. One of the best ways to draw attention to a forensic program is to advertise. Find out the procedures for publishing materials (specifically tournament results) in the campus and/or community papers. Check to see if the campus or local radio and/or television station would be willing to support any promotional activities during the first week of school. Investigate the proper

avenues for sending future feature articles to the local newspapers of students on the team. Finding out this procedural information prior to the start of school will not only make your job easier when school begins but will also beat the rush of other organizations clammering for attention at the start of the school year. Also, the possibilities of having a feature article on forensics early in the school year will likely draw positive attention to the program.

Once contacts have been established in the offices of admissions and housing and an initial mailing has been sent, and once a foundation has been laid for publicity through the Office of Public Information, you are off the hook until school starts. But, with the first day of classes, begins the most crucial of the three stages of on-campus recruitment.

Activities During the First Weeks of All Term

As previously mentioned, most students limit themselves to a select number of extra-curricular activities. Whereas high school forensic coaches must contend with band, theatre, and athletics, the college forensic coach must contend with athletics, the Greek system, and concerned parents who don't want to finance four years of extra-curricular activities. Because forensics is in direct competition with other organizations for students' free time, your sales pitch must come early.

One valuable technique used by most programs at the beginning of the year is a team meeting for anyone interested in the forensic program, including varsity team members from the previous year. (The two programs we have coached have found weekly meetings, set at a regular time, most valuable. These meetings are designed to disseminate information as well as provide an opportunity for students to get to know each other before the van rides.) The first meeting of the year, preferably held during the first week of school, should be well-advertised and have a clearly stated agenda.

Once the time and place of the informational meeting has been established, there are two ways to encourage students to attend: by telephone and via visual display. The phone list (obtained from the admissions and/or housing offices) of interested students should be adjusted for the time and manpower available, but personal contacts should be made whenever possible, welcoming the new student to campus and inviting him or her to the orientation meeting. Absolutely contact your "priority list" of students who returned interest forms from the mass mailing during the summer. A phone call made by the program director or another faculty coach often has more impact than student calls, but a phone call of any kind will have more impact than a sign or an ad in the newspaper.

Visual advertisements are also useful. Beside the obvious bulletin board or trophy case displays, consider running an advertisement in the student newspaper on the day prior to the meeting. For the past two year we have spent approximately \$30.00 on a 3 x 5 inch advertisement announcing our organizational meeting. Several students attended as the direct result of that announcement.

As you prepare for the first contact with students, remember that students respond best to clearly identifiable goals. They should leave the first meeting with a specific time when they will return. The meeting itself should be brief (not much longer than an hour) but should cover some essential information. Specifically five major topics should be included on the agenda. After welcoming the students to campus, first introduce the coaching staff and explain general team policies. Second, explain the college forensic activities available to students at your university and, if time allows, demonstrate samples of debate and/or individual events. (We usually devote our *second* weekly meeting exclusively to sample events presented by varsity members.) Third, a list of potential tournaments should be discussed. This provides specific target dates and tangible goals for students to strive for.

After collecting from students their names, addresses, phone numbers, and the reason they attended the meeting (this serves as a check to see which advertising channels were most effective), the final, and most important function of the first meeting occurs: getting students signed up for an individual appointment with the coach. Let's say student X signs up for an individual meeting on Wednesday at 1:00. During this session, the student should be able to conclude: a) this activity isn't for me or b) I'd like to try this, so here is my first goal (such as choosing two events to start working on). After each session with a coach, the student should sign up for another session. For example, the student could be encouraged to bring at least two possible ideas for prose to next week's appointment.

Establishing specific goals during the team meeting and individual coaching sessions is crucial for several reasons. First, specific goals enable students to feel the purpose or need to return for another appointment. Moreover, this way coaching time is not wasted with excessive "Where do I start" and "I don't know what I want to do" comments. Additionally, if students target a specific tournament early in the season, they can better manage their time, which results in less last minute frustration, a greater chance of being prepared for the first tournament, and less pressure from Mom and Dad when homework gets put aside. An early tournament

target date helps students visualize themselves in the activity, as opposed to preparing for a tournament so far away that it may or may not materialize in the next three months.

The first meeting, which leads to a chain of continual coach contact before the first tournament, is the most beneficial tool an on-campus recruiter can use. A student who has been to a tournament is far more likely to "stick" than one who has not. Thus, in the first weeks of school, the recruiter's first and foremost goal is to get the student to the first tournament in a prepared fashion.

At this point, the stage is set for the year to begin. But successful campus recruitment does not end in September. It continues throughout the academic year.

Activities Throughout the Year

Recruiting in September matters little unless students "stick it out" for the entire season. This means that successful recruiting is an on-going process. Two major recruitment goals should be achieved throughout the year: visibility on campus and visibility with parents. Good public relations management in these two areas ensures a program with potential for growth as well as maintenance.

Several avenues exist that can bolster campus visibility. First, keep in touch with campus public relations officials. As stated earlier, if contact is made with the office of public information during the summer *before* some newsworthy activity occurs, you stand a much greater likelihood of coverage because the legwork has already been accomplished. Many universities have both "on" and "off" campus offices of public relations—the latter being responsible for contacting the student's hometown newspaper. An attempt should be made to have tournament results reported to *both* public relations offices, so that the good news can be printed in the campus/local paper and in the student's hometown publications. As the campus and community begins to read about the team, more interest is likely to be generated, even among high school students reading about former classmates in hometown papers.

Second, keep the university administration apprised of team successes. Let your superiors know that forensics exists. After each tournament the results of the weekend (individual as well as team achievements) should be sent to the department chair, the college dean, the provost, and the president. Even if the media does not report the results of that particular weekend, key individuals whose support is crucial will be knowledgeable of your efforts.

A third vehicle for campus visibility is something we call a "forensic spotlight." Such an event, held once each term is a showcase of forensic speeches. Five to six students (our experience

with this activity shows greater response when the program does not exceed much more than an hour) present their contest material. If your department supports outside class or extra credit assignments, this activity makes ideal viewing for students in the basic speech course. We have had audiences between 200-250 students each quarter. As students see the speech team "in action," they are simultaneously introduced to forensics. Several students have contacted our program for more information as a direct result of this activity. Furthermore, it provides an excellent opportunity for team members to gain experience speaking before a large audience and their friends on campus.

One of our most successful "on-campus visibility" programs last year was a "Friends of Forensics Tea," held towards the end of the spring quarter. This is an opportunity to thank administrators, colleagues, staff, and friends for their support. Team members can invite teachers, family, roommates, and friends who have shown interest in their forensic activities. We issue written invitations and display awards/trophies won during the year, scrapbooks, a slide show, and printed programs giving biographical information about the team (SEE APPENDIX B). Team members in tournament attire, as well as the coaching staff, serve as hosts for this activity. Perhaps the most unique kind of visibility helpful for on-going recruitment is visibility with parents. Parents are usually the first to be called with tournament results; parents hear the Thanksgiving and Christmas break complaints about having to "get that speech finished"; and parents are concerned that their offspring not become so involved in extra activities that they ruin their grades. But many parents know very little about forensics itself. If the forensic director makes personal contact with parents, many find that they become more involved with—not estranged from—their children's activities. Parental support of forensics is heightened when press releases about their sons and daughters begin appearing in the local papers. A second and more personal involvement comes through direct contact with coaches. Last year our coaching staff sent "Christmas letters" to the parents of our team members, informing them of the team's progress and thanking them for their interest, encouragement, and support of our activities (SEE APPENDIX C). A second letter was sent in the spring to the parents of those students who had qualified for the National Tournament, congratulating them for their son or daughter's success. In the letter we also asked them to be a part of a surprise for their children at the National Tournament. Parents were asked to send a "good luck" letter to their son or daughter, in care of the program director.

The letters were distributed to the students before the first round of Nationals began. The response was overwhelming. Not only did parents respond, but letters were received from grandparents, siblings, nieces and nephews, high school forensic coaches, and friends. We received numerous favorable responses from parents who were excited that they played a part in this activity. The reaction of our team was equally thrilling. The element of surprise was well-timed and the words of praise, encouragement, and support received by our team were not only touching, but a strong motivating force as well. And, thanks to their parents' support, those students have been encouraged at home to compete this year as well.

CONCLUSION

Given the individuality of forensic programs nationwide, it is hoped that this information can be a guide for inspiring well-organized, creative, and successful on-campus recruitment programs. No matter what program is involved, it is our contention that a comprehensive on-campus recruitment effort can be of tremendous value. The benefits of low cost, realistic, and achievable goals and manageability make this type of recruitment activity advantageous over many other forms of recruiting. Action along these lines can also be adapted easily for various program philosophies.

By organizing recruitment activities prior to the start of school, during the early weeks of the first academic term, and sustaining public relations throughout the academic year, forensic recruitment becomes not just a growing extra-curricular activity, but an extension of the university itself. We believe the suggestions outlined here to be flexible, workable, and affordable possibilities for many forensic programs. When properly planned and thoughtfully executed, on-campus recruitment can produce fruitful results.

Appendix A

BALL STATE UNIVERSITY MUNCIE, INDIANA 47306
COLLEGE OF SCIENCES & HUMANITIES
Department of Speech Communication

Dear Potential Speech Team Member,

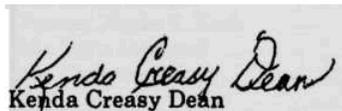
The Admissions Office has recommended you as someone with outstanding potential for the Ball State Individual Events Team (speech team). Surprised? We spend much of our time during the summer scouting out students like yourself, so that we may introduce ourselves by letter before school starts. The Ball State Speech Team is comprised of people who have high academic standards, a high degree of creativity, and interest in a field that requires communication excellence. Your record indicates that these qualities describe you as well. For that reason, we think you'd fit in very well here.

Ball State's Individual Events Team is currently ranked 8th in the United States and #1 in Indiana in competitive speaking. We pride ourselves on being one of two nationally-ranked teams at Ball State (the other is the men's volleyball team!). In a nutshell, we travel all over the U.S. on weekends to compete at invitational tournaments in *public address* (like persuasive and after dinner speaking), *oral interpretation of literature* (like prose, poetry, and drama), and *limited preparation events* (like impromptu and extemporaneous speaking). In all, there are nine events to choose from, and you can do as many as you like. We have approximately 25 active members who arrange coaching times (based on their own schedules) with four faculty coaches and two graduate students who assist with the Team.

You don't "try out" for the BSU Speech Team; no experience is necessary. Nor does the Speech Team have to be your only extracurricular activity; most people travel 2-3 times a quarter. Last year we travelled to tournaments as close as Miami of Ohio, and as far away as Savannah, Georgia and Lincoln, Nebraska. Since you represent the University as a member of the Speech Team, all expenses (room, board, travel, and entry fees) are paid for by Ball State. Of course, half of being on the Speech Team is creative communication. Needless to say, the other half is just plain fun!

We'd like to invite you to *SPEECH TEAM "CALL OUTS"* on *Tuesday, September 11, at 8:00 p.m.* in Room 410 of the Arts and Communication Building (formerly called the English Building). It's an informal gathering where you'll be introduced to the BSU Speech Team. Enclosed is a campus information slip; *please return it as soon as possible!* Without it we won't know how to contact you when school starts. And, when you get to campus, please drop in or give us a call! We're looking forward to meeting you.

Sincerely,



Kendra Creasy Dean
Coach

The Ball State Speech Team,
in gratitude for your unfailing
support of
B.S.U. Individual Events,
requests the pleasure of your
company at an open-house tea
to be given in your honour

On Monday, 14 May
3:30-5:00 pm 303
Student Center

rsvp 1882

FRIENDS OF INDIVIDUAL EVENTS TEA

May 14, 1984

Sponsored by the Ball State Speech Team,
in cooperation with
The Department of Speech Communication

WELCOME!

The Individual Events Team of Ball State University is one of the most unique organizations on campus. As a team, our purpose is to represent Ball State on a competitive level with other universities nationwide. As an academic activity, our purpose is to develop and refine communication skills in students regardless of academic major, interest, or experience.

The Individual Events Team—or "Speech Team" as it is fondly called—allows students to compete in any or all of nine nationally-recognized events, including prose, poetry, dramatic duo interpretation, persuasion, informative, impromptu, extemporaneous, after dinner speaking, and rhetorical criticism. Travelling nearly every weekend throughout the year, attending tournaments at campuses from Wisconsin to Georgia, speech team members still maintain G.P.A.'s significantly above a 3.0 average.

But what gives the Individual Events Team its true appeal is the fact that team members represent the highest standards of Ball State University competitively, academically, and personally. As a recruitment tool for both outstanding graduate and undergraduate students, the Ball State Speech Team, literally, "speaks" well of the university.

For the first time in 6 years, Ball State's Speech Team is ranked in the Top Ten nationally, officially finishing 8th at the National Championships in April. Today, we'd like to thank you, our "Friends of Individual Events," for all the various ways you have supported us this year—for it is you who have made the difference. Without your encouragement, faith, and backing, our success this year would have been impossible . . . and what's more, meaningless. We are, indeed, most grateful.

NATIONAL STANDINGS

1983-1984

1. Bradley University — Peoria, IL
2. Eastern Michigan University — Ypsilanti, MI
3. Ohio State University — Columbus, OH
4. Bowling Green State University — Bowling Green, OH
5. George Mason University — Fairfax, VA
6. Miami University — Oxford, OH
7. Illinois State University — Normal, IL
8. Ball State University — Muncie, IN
9. Carson-Newman University — Jefferson City, TN
10. Oakland University — Rochester, MI

COACHES

Ball State Individual Events Team

Keith Semmel, Director
Kevin Dean, Assistant Director
Kenda Creasy Dean, Faculty Coach
Daniel O'Rourke, Faculty Coach
Jennifer Colby, Graduate Assistant
Kerry Bean, Graduate Assistant

THE BALL STATE INDIVIDUAL EVENTS TEAM
1983-1984

RANA BAKER—A freshman English education major, Rana had never heard of "individual events" until September when she was accidentally placed on an I.E. phone list. Rana competed in prose, poetry, and informative speaking, and is currently ranked 3rd in the State in poetry interpretation.

VEDA BACKMAN— Currently ranked 1st in the State in persuasion and informative speaking, and ranked 7th in the U.S. in persuasion, Veda is a sophomore telecommunications major from Indianapolis. Vice-president-elect of the forensic honorary DSR-TKA, Veda competed in prose, poetry, dramatic duo, informative, persuasion, and rhetorical criticism this year.

JACQUIE SHAFFNER BEAN— Currently the Indiana State Champion in poetry interpretation, Jacquie is one of two graduating seniors on this year's team. An elementary education major formerly of Logansport, Jacquie's recent marriage to one of her graduate assistant coaches (!) has kept her in Muncie this year. Jacquie competed in prose, poetry, dramatic duo, persuasion, and informative speaking. She and Kerry will be moving to Colorado for their first "real jobs" in June.

CHRISTIE BECK— Our only other graduating senior, Christie is presently ranked 15th in the U.S. and 2nd in the State in persuasive speaking. A former State Champion in both persuasion and prose interpretation, Christie has been active in BSU forensics for four years. A speech communication/public relations major from Warsaw, Christie competed in prose, poetry, duo, persuasion, informative, extemp, impromptu, and rhetorical criticism.

etc ...

FRIENDS OF INDIVIDUAL EVENTS 1984

Dr. Kenneth Atwell	Department of Journalism
Mr. William Bartolini	WBST
Ms. Debbi Bear	Business Affairs
President Robert P. Bell	
Dr. James Benson	Department of Speech Communication
Mr. Tim Berghoff	
Mr. David Brown	Purdue University
Dr. David Caslan	Department of Accounting
Mr. Jim Collier	
Dr. Janice Crouse	Department of Speech Communication
Ms. Betty Davis	Budget Office
Ms. Lynn DeBoer	Custodian, 2nd floor English Building /
Dr. Duane Diedrich	Department of Speech Communication
Dr. Celia Dorris	Chair, Department of Speech Communication
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Mr. J.T. Eiler	Director of Speech and Theatre, Rossville High School
Dr. Dorothy Freeman	Department of Speech Communication
Ms. Shirley Fuelling	Department of English
Mr. Todd Fuller	
Ms. Anna Gaurano	
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Ms. Sandy Golden	Appleton, Wisconsin
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Dr. Warren Vanderhill	Director, Honors College
Ms. Karen Watson	
Mr. Jeff Wharton	Marion, Indiana
Dr. David Wheeler	Dean, The Graduate School
Ms. Liz Wheeler	Department of Biology
Ms. Denise Wilson	Monticello, Indiana
Dr. Richard Wires	Department
And with many special thanks to our parents and friends, without whom speech would be meaningless.	

BALL STATE UNIVERSITY MUNCIE, INDIANA 47306

COLLEGE OF SCIENCES & HUMANITIES
Department of Speech Communication

December 15, 1983

Mr. and Mrs. Joe Baker
371 S. Elmcrest
Muncie, IN 47306

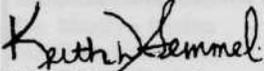
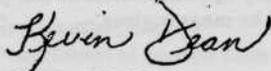
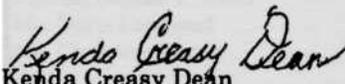
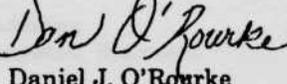
Dear Mr. and Mrs. Baker,

Just a note to say "Merry Christmas" and "Thank You" from the Ball State Speech Team coaching staff! As you know, Christmas turns the team from tournaments to other types of festivities — which is a welcome break for everybody! But before things start up again in January, we wanted to express our thanks to you, as parents, for your warmth, support and encouragement of the students on the speech team . . . without you, forensics wouldn't be possible.

Since speech is rarely a "spectator sport," it's hard to come home from a tournament, be proud of the job you've done, and have your roommate ask, "what's persuasion?" When we stop for dinner after a tournament, it's always the same: the students can't wait to call home to share the good news with you. You provide the encouragement when the score was close — but not close enough. You provide the congratulations on a job well done with the pride only a parent can have.

And we just wanted you to know, it means so much.

MERRY CHRISTMAS from all of us,

 Keith D. Semmel	 Kevin W. Dean
 Kenda Creasy Dean	 Daniel J. O'Rourke

Verbal Interactions in Coaching the Oral Interpretation of Poetry

CAROLYN KEEFE*

Possibly every individual events coach has wondered what transpires in the coaching sessions held by colleagues and opponents during the process of preparing students for tournament competition.¹ How often do coaches meet with their students? How long do the sessions last? How is analysis (topical or literary) conducted? Do coaches employ directive or nondirective methods of instruction? What teaching strategies are used? How much composing, if any, is done by coaches?

The answers to most of these questions and others such as those raised in this study have not emerged from the meagre individual events literature produced by the forensic community.² The few forensic handbooks and textbooks prescribe what should be done to prepare for competition but not what actually occurs in coaching for individual events.³ Several coaches have explained how they approach their work,⁴ but no systematic study of coaching has appeared. Without a methodology for collecting, measuring, and

**The National Forensic Journal*, III (Spring 1985), pp. 55-69.

CAROLYN KEEFE is Director of Forensics and Associate Professor of Speech Communication at West Chester University, PA 19383.

¹A study conducted by Richard D. Rieke, "College Forensics in the United States—1973," *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, 10 (1974), 130, establishes the fact that various types of tournament preparation are used.

²This claim is based on the author's literature search (from 1950 on or the inception of the publication on) in *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, *Communication Monographs*, *Communication Education*, *Southern Speech Communication Journal*, *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, *Central States Speech Journal*, *Communication Quarterly*, *Literature in Performance*, *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, *National Forensic Journal*, *The Forensic, Speaker and Gavel*, forensic textbooks and handbooks, and two data bases.

³See, for example, Don F. Faules, Richard D. Rieke, and Jack Rhodes, *Directing Forensics*, 2nd ed. (Denver: Morton Publishing Company, 1978); Donald W. Klopff, *Coaching & Directing Forensics* (Skokie, 111.: National Textbook Company, 1982); and William E. Buys, ed., *Contest Speaking Manual* (Skokie, 111.: National Textbook Company, 1970).

⁴At the Speech Communication Association Annual Meeting in Louisville, Kentucky, November 4-7, 1982, Doug Jennings (Illinois State University), Sheryl A. Friedley (George Mason University), and Ron Hartley (Clarion University of Pennsylvania) presented papers on the program "Preparation

analyzing data, the development of coaching theory cannot progress.

The present work sets forth one systematic way to examine the coaching dyad. It presents a descriptive study that concentrated on an individual event that is one of the most popular on the forensic circuit, namely, the oral interpretation of poetry.⁵ Data supplied from the actual coaching sessions of college/university forensic coaches provided the answers to two main questions: 1) In the process of coaching, what types of verbal interaction take place? and 2) What differences emerge between the coaches in regard to the percentage of time spent on each type of verbal interaction?

PROCEDURE

Four graduate student coaches and four senior coaches from across the country⁶—thus reflecting the national scope of forensics—participated in the project. A "graduate student coach" was defined as a person who had less than five years post-college coaching experience and was currently enrolled in a graduate school. A "senior coach" was defined as a person who had at least five years post-college coaching experience and was a member of a college/university faculty or had been hired as an adjunct to direct a college/university forensic program. Although no particular effort was made to use championship coaches, only coaches from schools with a consistent pattern of winning awards were used. "Consistent pattern" meant that for at least the five years prior to the study the coach's school had been listed among the award winners in *Intercollegiate Speech Tournament Results*. Perhaps it needs to be pointed out here that the researcher did not assume that there would be coaching differences between the two groups of coaches—although she did not rule out the possibility—but, because schools with graduate programs use graduate student coaches, it

for Individual Events Competition: The Role of Coaches." See also, Sara Lowrey, "Preparing Students in Oral Interpretation for Contests," *Southern-Speech Journal*, 23 (1958), 204-10.

⁵Actually, since the 1976-77 forensic season, oral interpretation of poetry has emerged as the individual event offered at more tournaments than any other. This claim is based on an examination of *Intercollegiate Speech Tournament Results* up to the 1980-81 issue, the last one available at the time of this writing. Published since 1961, *ISTR* is the only ongoing, comprehensive record of intercollegiate forensic competition. The current editors are Edward Harris (Suffolk University) and George Armstrong (Bradley University), although for most of its years Jack Howe (California State University, Long Beach) served as its editor.

⁶Two coaches were from schools in the West (California and Oregon), although the coach from the Oregon school conducted her coaching in

seemed wise to include both in the study.

Each coach received a packet containing these items: (1) six ninety-minute blank audio cassette tapes, (2) two copies of three poems on the general theme of "Animals and Children,"⁷ and (3) instructions for carrying out the project. The coach selected a student in his/her first year of intercollegiate forensic competition and, using the poems in any order, coached the student to the point of tournament readiness.⁸ This included the writing of an original introduction for the poems and transitions between them. The coaching sessions were taped in their entirety. Upon completion of the coaching, the tapes, which had been dated sequentially and packed in a provided mailer, were returned to the researcher.

The next step in the procedure was the preparation of tape-scripts. They were typed with double-spacing, the speakers differentiated by "C" for coach and "S" for student, simultaneous dialogue shown by underlining, and each session of a given coach numbered sequentially. The resultant 594 pages of tapescript, which had been transcribed by four individuals, were checked for accuracy by the researcher who then made any necessary corrections.

In order to measure the designated aspects of the coaching sessions, it was necessary to develop an instrument. Although many systems exist for measuring classroom verbal interaction,⁹

Pennsylvania. The Midwest was represented by coaches from two Missouri schools. There were four coaches from the East, one from Florida and three from Pennsylvania (two different institutions). One of the Pennsylvania coaches worked with a New York student.

⁷See John Crowe Ransom, "Janet Waking," in *The Premier Book of Major Poets*, ed. Anita Dore (Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1970), pp. 234-35, and John Bennett, "New England Poem" and "How I Killed the Last Baby Dinosaur in New England," *For the Time Being*, 6, No. 5 (1979), 18-21. As explained in the instructions to the coaches, these poems were selected because "they 'read' well, provide a balance of mood, are appropriate for either a male or female reader, and are challenging but not too difficult for a first-year competitor."

⁸"Tournament readiness" was not defined by the researcher but was left to the judgment of the coach and/or the student, as the case might be. The assumption was made that this is how tournament readiness is decided.

⁹See Edmund J. Amidon and John B. Hough, eds., *Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research and Application* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1967; Herbert M. Kliebard, "The Observation of Classroom Behavior," *The Way Teaching Is*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Center for the Study of Instruction, National Education Association, 1966), pp. 45-76; and Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel, "Measuring Classroom Behavior by Systematic Observation," in *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), pp. 247-328.

the researcher did not find any suitable for use in the coaching dyad. For example, the Flanders Interaction Analysis, which is undoubtedly the best known interaction classroom tool, emphasizes the teacher's role. Although it contains two main divisions, Teacher Talk and Student Talk, there are seven behaviors under the first category and only two under the second category. A tenth behavior is silence or confusion.¹⁰ In a coaching situation where student input and performance are important components, a system that includes specific student behaviors on a wide range is essential for accurate description and measurement.

Two questions guide the development of the instrument: "What types of verbal interactions do the tapescripts reveal?" and "Are the types mutually exclusive?" By working inductively through the tapescripts and keeping in mind that the emerging categories should be on the same level of specificity for both the coach and the student, the author identified eighteen mutually exclusive verbal behaviors,¹¹ plus no verbal behavior and inaudibility. The instrument that incorporated these behaviors was designated as the Forensic Coaching Verbal Interaction Classification (FCVIC).

The content validity of the instrument was a crucial concern. According to Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh, the important question in assessing this type of validity is: "How well does the content of the instrument represent the entire universe of content which might be measured?"¹² Content validity is established only when experts in the field under scrutiny cannot specify any behaviors that have been omitted or delete any behaviors that have been included. In the case of this particular instrument, six experienced forensic oral interpretation coaches unanimously testified in writing that the categories of verbal interaction specified by the researcher represent the possible range operant in the coaching dyad.

Inasmuch as the desired product of the measuring procedure was the percentage of time each member of the coaching dyad spent on each behavior, it was first necessary to determine the amount of

¹⁰Edmund Amidon and Ned Flanders, "Interaction Analysis as a Feedback System," in Amidon and Hough, p. 125.

¹¹For purposes of this study, the audible turn-taking behaviors were included under verbal interaction. In this way all of the spoken messages on the tapes were accounted for. Usually these behaviors ("uh-huh," "urn-hum," "hum," "oh"), along with the solely visible turn-taking behaviors, are considered under nonverbal communication. See Mark L. Knapp, *Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction*, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978), pp. 213-17.

¹²Donald Ary, Lucy Chester Jacobs, and Asghar Razavieh, *Introduction to Research in Education*, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1979), p. 197.

time allotted to each behavior. For this purpose, the author designed an adaptation of the Flanders three-second analysis.¹³ First, as she played the tapes she put slashes on the scripts to mark the two-minute periods, the time being measured by a stopwatch. Then she replayed the tapes, only this time a specially prepared tape that emitted a bong every three seconds was played simultaneously, thus enabling the researcher to demarcate with slashes the three-second periods on the tapescripts. If the two-minute segments marked previously did not yield forty three-second intervals, then the procedure was repeated until accuracy was achieved. Frequently multiple attempts were required.

After the three-second periods had been marked on a given tapescript, what transpired within each segment was categorized according to the FC VIC. (Anywhere from one to six behaviors took place within three seconds.) The numbers assigned to each script were rechecked at least once and more often three times. Intrarater reliability, which is an important test of validity for interaction analysis, was calculated at .997 by using Scott's Phi Correlative Method.¹⁴ The researcher's previous observer training, extensive self-training,¹⁵ and use of tapescripts rather than live coaching sessions¹⁶ account for this high reliability.

An applications computer program was developed to measure the total time and percentage of time each person spent on the behaviors for each session, as well as for all the sessions of a given dyad. The numbers from the scripts were read orally to a computer operator and checked off on the scripts so that accuracy was maximized. Spot checks of six coaching sessions were also made. Every number from the six corresponding tapescripts was compared with those found on the computer sheets for those sessions. No errors were discovered. A further test of accuracy was carried out by comparing the total running time of the tapes from five coaching sessions with the time figures from the pertinent computer printouts. The percentage of error was found to be only .005, no more than could be accounted for by time variants over successive runs on the same cassette tape recorder.

In the development and utilization of the FCVIC, then, the three

¹³For a description of the Flanders system, see Amidon and Flanders, pp. 121-28.

¹⁴Ted Frick and Melvyn I. Semmel, "Observer Agreement and Reliabilities of Classroom Observational Measures," *Review of Educational Research*, 48 (Winter 1978), 168-69.

¹⁵Frick and Semmel, p. 160.

¹⁶Bruce J. Biddle, "Methods and Concepts in Classroom Research," *Review of Educational Research*, 37 (1967), 340.

instrumentation concerns of content validity, intrarater reliability, and accuracy were satisfied by appropriate tests.

A further concern, a methodological one, involved the use of the tape recorder in the coaching sessions. As Campbell and Stanley point out in their classic monograph on experimental design, even a microphone on a classroom desk may produce reactive effects.¹⁷ In this study the coaches were asked by the researcher to specify in writing what they considered were the differences, if any, between the taped coaching sessions and their usual ones. Seven of the eight coaches responded to the question. Three coaches mentioned their students' awareness of the tape recorder, with one of this group adding that the student found it difficult "to let go." Two coaches claimed that during the taped sessions their approach was more systematic. Other differences that resulted from scrutiny via the tape recorder were mentioned once (two coaches provided these comments): harder work, more concentration, more time spent on analysis, and greater awareness of what was occurring. Therefore, when the results of the study are examined, these effects should be kept in mind: apparently the tape recorder intimidated one student (how it affected the other students is not known), and it produced positive efforts from at least some of the coaches.

RESULTS

The first primary research questions was: In the process of coaching, what types of verbal interaction take place? The tape-scripts from the eight coaches and eight novice interpreters revealed twenty mutually exclusive behaviors, eighteen of them verbal, one nonverbal, and one inaudible. Of the eighteen verbal behaviors, nine ensued from the coaches and nine from the students. These behaviors, along with a description and examples of each, constitute the FCVIC shown in Table 1.

The second main research question was: What differences emerge between the coaches in regard to the percentage of time spent on each type of verbal interaction? Although the question focused directly on the behavior of each coach, in the answering of it student behavior also came under scrutiny. This is appropriate, of course, because a dyad functions as a unit.

In making comparisons between the coaches, the author employed the mean as the measure of central tendency. Because the mean is a ratio statistic, it is usually a more precise measure than the median

¹⁷Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, *Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research* (Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963), p. 9.

or mode and accounts for the value of *every* score.¹⁸ Inasmuch as the standard deviation is used only when the subjects have been selected randomly from a given population, that statistical measure

TABLE 1

The Forensic Coaching Verbal Interaction Classification (FCVIC)

Categories	Description of Categories	Examples of Messages
<i>Coach Messages</i>		
1. Coach shares information.	Coach presents concepts, opinions, facts, examples, and insights. Category 1 also includes perusing material and asking rhetorical questions.	"They're talking, this woman and C. S. Lewis, both of them talking about this philosophy that dogs and cats should, so to speak, be raised together because it broadens their minds." "The sense I get from it is very much one of affections."
2. Coach gives directions/explains procedures.	Coach tells student what to think or do or how to feel. Procedures are also included. Often these messages are imperatives.	"Say 'Janet Waking, John Crowe Ransom,' open the book." "Keep that in mind." "You have to write your own introduction and the transitions."
3. Coach demonstrates.	Coach shows student how or all of selection can should be performed,	"I felt a tug and pulled a part creature up that sent me be or almost through the nearest tree."
4. Coach asks question.	Coach poses query to student.	"What does 'and' mean?" "What are your reactions to these poems?"
5. Coach engages in turn-taking behavior.	Coach encourages student to continue sending message.	"O.K." "Uh-huh." "Um-hum." "Hum."

¹⁸Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh, p. 103.

TABLE 1 — continued

6. Coach shows acceptance.	Coach agrees with student's idea(s), feelings, or behavior.	"O.K." (Context reveals difference between this O.K. and the one in 5 above.) "All right." "It's O.K. to feel that way.'
7. Coach gives praise.	Coach lauds student's idea(s) or behavior.	"I like your little girl voice." "Good." "That was nice."
8. Coach confirms understanding.	This shows that coach "got" the idea. Included are paraphrasing, repetition of student's words, and special expressions.	"It's got to sound more oral, in other words." "Got it." "Oh!"
9. Coach shows disagreement.	Coach does not concur with student's idea(s) or behavior.	"No, it's not really." "You're missing crisp, clean diction, articulation." "So that's really incorrect.'
<i>Student Messages</i>		
10. Student shares information.	Student presents concepts, opinions, facts, examples, and insights. Category 10 also includes perusing material and asking rhetorical questions.	"I liked the story." "That was really a tragic thing." "I've seen so many different type things, like highlighting every other line." "It doesn't seem that they're giving him much credit for thinking or anything."
11. Student gives directions/suggests or works out details of procedure.	Student tells coach to do something or suggests way to proceed.	"Wait a second." "Okay, let me read it once through." "Do it again." "Maybe we could even spend a lot of time on this

TABLE 1 — continued

		one and then next time conquer the other ones."
12. Student practices/ performs.	Student reads directly from manuscript in vocal manner that indicates interpretation is being tried out or program is being rehearsed.	"Beautifully Janet slept Till it was deeply morning."
13. Student asks question.	Student poses query to coach.	"What is this 'by love enfranchised'?" "More pause?" "We do? Again?"
14. Student engages in turn-taking behavior.	Student encourages coach to continue sending message.	"Yeah. Oh." "Um-hum." "O.K." "Uh-huh."
15. Student shows acceptance.	Student agrees with coach's idea(s), feelings, or behavior.	"O.K." (Context reveals difference between this O.K. and the one in 14 above.) "All right." "Right."
16. Student gives praise.	Student lauds coach's idea(s) or behavior.	"You make it sound better than I do." "That's a good idea."
17. Student confirms understanding.	Student "got" the idea. Included are paraphrasing, repetition of coach's words, and special expressions.	"The impact." (This is student's response to coach's directions: "Get the meaning to us.") "Oh, my gosh." "Light bulb. Ding-dong."
18. Student shows disagreement.	Student does not concur with coach's idea(s) or behavior.	"I saw a few areas that you needed help on!" "Anyway—" (Student is not convinced of coach's idea.)

TABLE 1 — continued

19. Coach and/or student engages in no verbal behavior.	Coach and/or student is silent or makes some nonverbal noise. This includes laughing and clapping.
20. Coach and/or student speaks inaudibly.	This indicates dialogue not discernible by researcher.

was not relevant. The mean, then, served only to show the central tendency of the eight coaches and as a point of reference in making comparisons. No statistical significance was attached to it.

The total time spent by each dyad is shown in terms of percentages in Table 2. Each category of the FCVIC is represented. The rank orders should not be construed as implying quality. Coaches designated by numbers one to four are senior coaches, and those with numbers five to eight are graduate student coaches. The numbers given to the student readers correspond to those of their coaches. Further explanations of the table are found in the table note.

These are the five most pertinent findings from the data collected in this study:

1. One of the purposes of descriptive research is to discover relationships that exist between nonmanipulated variables.¹⁹ To further this goal, a broader classification of the FCVIC behaviors was developed. Five groups of behaviors emerged: (1) Analytic, (2) Directional, (3) Performance, (4) Interactive, and (5) Evaluative. Analytic behaviors include those particularly related to understanding the literature and, at times, the dyadic participants themselves. In this category are behaviors 1/10 (shares information) and 4/13 (asks question). Directional behaviors are concerned with directions and procedures, namely, 2/11. The performance group consists of 3/12 or demonstration, practice, and performance. Interactive behaviors are 5/16 (engages in turn-taking behavior), 6/15 (shows acceptance), and 8/17 (confirms understanding). In the evaluative group are behaviors 7/16 (gives praise) and 9/18

¹⁹John W. Best, *Research in Education*, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977), p. 15.

TABLE 2
Rank Order of Percentage of Total Time Spent on Each FCVIC
Category for Each Coach and Each Student

1. C. shares information			2. C. gives direct./ explains proced.			3. C. demonstrates		
R	C	%	R	C	%	R	C	%
1	1	28.74	1	1	20.64	1	7	6.64
2	5	25.12	2	8	14.83	2	5	3.68
3	7	23.27	3	7	14.66	3	8	3.53
4	6	21.75	4	6	12.68	4	4	3.11
5	8	20.79	5	4	11.72	5	6	2.48
6	3	20.26	6	5	10.89	6	2	1.58
7	4	11.99	7	3	10.54	7	1	1.53
8	2	7.55	8	2	10.48	8	3	0.78
M=		19.93	M=		13.31	M=		2.92

4. C. Asks question			5. C. engages in t-t behav.			6. C. Shows accept.		
R	C	%	R	C	%	R	C	%
1	5	5.04	1	6	0.88	1	6	2.33
2	8	4.57	2	1	0.81	2	3	2.25
3	4	4.14	3	5	0.67	3	1	1.50
4	6	3.90	4	3	0.63	4	7	1.26
5	3	3.45	5	8	0.36	5	5	1.22
6	1	2.83	6	7	0.18	6	2	0.98
7	2	2.83	7	2	0.17	7	4	0.81
8	7	2.41	8	4	0.09	8	8	0.35
M=		3.65	M=		0.47	M=		1.34

7. C. gives praise			8. C. confirms understanding			9. C shows disagree.		
R	C	%	R	C	%	R	C	%
1	5	3.74	1	3	0.53	1	2	2.07
2	6	3.48	2	8	0.43	2	1	1.82
3	1	2.53	3	5	0.23	3	6	1.78
4	7	2.14	4	6	0.15	4	3	1.38
5	3	1.67	5	2	0.14	5	5	1.17
6	8	1.65	6	4	0.13	6	4	0.72
7	2	1.53	7	7	0.09	7	7	0.58
8	4	1.00	8	1	0.04	8	8	0.58
M=		2.22	M=		0.22	M=		1.26

TABLE 2 — continued

10. S. shares information			11. S. gives direct./sug. pro.			12. S. pract./perf.		
R	S	%	R	S	%	R	S	%
1	3	31.03	1	7	0.90	1	4	51.41
2	5	14.08	2	3	0.63	2	2	49.69
3	6	12.01	3	5	0.58	3	8	39.38
4	2	11.99	4	2	0.47	4	7	23.34
5	1	10.86	5	6	0.42	5	5	20.83
6	7	8.09	t	1	0.42	6	6	20.00
7	8	7.07	7	4	0.27	7	3	18.41
8	4	6.93	8	8	0.10	8	1	17.54
M =		12.76	M =		0.47	M =		30.08

13. S. asks question			14. S. engages in t-t behav.			15. S. shows accept.		
R	S	%	R	S	%	R	S	%
1	7	3.58	1	6	1.92	1	5	3.69
2	6	2.38	2	7	1.19	2	1	3.19
3	3	2.25	3	1	1.03	3	4	2.31
4	2	1.34	4	5	0.87	4	7	2.31
5	5	1.13	5	3	0.70	5	2	2.29
6	1	0.99	6	4	0.65	6	6	1.85
7	4	0.66	7	2	0.60	7	3	1.80
8	8	0.45	8	8	0.24	8	8	1.00
M =		1.60	M =		0.90	M =		2.31

16. S. gives praise			17. S. confirms understanding			18. S. shows disagree.		
R	S	%	R	S	%	R	S	%
1	5	0.22	1	3	1.26	1	5	0.12
2	7	0.11	2	5	1.25	t	7	0.12
3	3	0.07	3	1	0.81	3	3	0.03
4	1	0.05	4	7	0.44	4	1	0.00
5	6	0.03	5	6	0.41	t	2	0.00
6	2	0.00	6	4	0.16	t	4	0.00
t	4	0.00	t	8	0.16	t	6	0.00
t	8	0.00	8	2	0.08	t	8	0.00
M =		0.06	M =		0.57	M =		0.03

TABLE 2 — continued

19. C/S. engage in no verb, behav.			20. C/S. speak inaud.			Program Sample
R	C/S	%	R	C/S	%	
1	6	11.16	1	8	0.64	
2	7	8.48	2	6	0.38	
3	2	5.93	3	2	0.28	
4	5	5.20	4	5	0.27	
5	1	4.62	5	7	0.22	
6	4	3.88	6	1	0.05	
7	8	3.86	7	4	0.01	
8	3	2.32	8	3	0.00	
M=		5.68	M=		0.23	

Note. The abbreviation C stands for coach, S for student, R for rank, and M for mean. A solid line indicates the cut off of the mean between coaches, whereas a box around a number shows the mean. A small t under a rank signifies a tie in that rank.

(shows disagreement). Each of the five groups has a coach and a student dimension that can be specified in describing a given dyad in reference to the means shown in Table 2. For example, Coaches Five, Six, and Eight and Student Three are strongly analytic, having both analytic functions (shares information and asks question) above the means. Although the designations are not statistically meaningful, they facilitate comparison and understanding of coaching styles.

2. The sharpest difference in coach verbal behaviors were shown by Senior Coaches One and Two. The former spent almost 50% of her time in sharing information and giving directions/ explaining procedures, and her student practiced and performed for almost 10%. Coach Two reversed these percentages for the same behaviors.

3. Two behaviors alone accounted for slightly over 50% of the mean time. They were student practices/performs (30.08%) and coach shares information (19.93%). The only other two behaviors that had a mean percentage time in excess of 3.65% were coach gives directions/explains procedures (13.31%) and student shares information (12.76%). Thus four behaviors out of the eighteen captured over three-quarters of the mean time (76.08%).

4. Only three of the eight dyads used all eighteen verbal behaviors. Every coach employed the nine coach behaviors, but

only Students Three, Five, and Seven used all nine student behaviors. Students Two, Four, and Eight did not give praise, and Students One, Two, Four, Six, and Eight did not show disagreement. 5. In the verbal behaviors that were used for the largest percentage of mean time by the coaches, namely, the first four behaviors, the graduate student coaches resembled each other more than they resembled the senior coaches. For these behaviors, all the graduate students spent in excess of 40%. Coach Five, 44.73%; Coach Six, 40.81%; Coach Seven, 46.98%; and Coach Eight, 43.72%. Only one senior coach (One) exceeded 40% with her 53.74%. The other senior coaches used these percentages of time: Coach Two, 22.44%; Coach Three, 35.03%; and Coach Four, 30.96%. Thus the graduate student coaches took a more dominant role than three of the four senior coaches.

DISCUSSION

Perhaps the most productive theoretical understanding revealed by this study concerns the nature of coaching for oral interpretation of poetry. Above all, it is a shared undertaking. For each of the coach behaviors, a counterpart student behavior was found, thus showing that for the coaching dyad to progress toward goal achievement, both members need to perform similar functions. Information must be presented, some by the coach, some by the student. Both members of the dyad must ask questions. How to proceed is not the sole concern of the coach, nor is performance only a student prerogative. Even in the matter of reinforcement—both positive and negative—some students assume the responsibility along with that of the coach. Binding these interactions together are the turn-taking and confirmational behaviors of both members of the dyad. By utilizing most or all of the eighteen verbal behaviors, the coach and the student unlock the meaning of the literature and summon the performance capabilities of the student. Although the dyads showed differing degrees of coach versus student verbal interaction, all the dyads reached tournament readiness through some degree of shared discovery.

The fact that the four graduate student coaches generally took a more dominant role than did the senior coaches raises several questions that deserve further examination. Do graduate student coaches in general assume this more dominant approach to coaching? If so, what factors account for this phenomenon? Even beyond these two questions is a correlational one: Which of these approaches to coaching produces the best results? The outcomes

could be weighed by tournament success, improvement over time, student task satisfaction, or a number of other important measures.

Forensic coaching offers a fruitful area for the study of dyadic communication, both from the perspective of instruction and of interpersonal communication. For example, research could be designed that would manipulate the coaching style variables of analytic, directional, performance, interactive, and evaluative in order to determine which one(s) result in greatest student gains. An investigation could be made into whether the percentages for a given coach remain relatively stable when that person coaches different students. Innumerable factors operative in dyads, such as reciprocity, compliance, dominance, and affiliation, could be examined within the coaching context.

It is hoped that the understandings that have come from this first systematic study of forensic coaching will lead to subsequent examination of this neglected topic. Further studies are needed to build a recognized theory of forensic coaching and to integrate theory from the areas of group process, leadership, interpersonal communication, oral interpretation, literary analysis, and learning.

Modern Interpretation Theory and Competitive Forensics: Understanding Hermeneutic Text

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I once used one of my own poems in poetry interpretation as a competitor in forensics. The piece had been published under a pseudonym I sometimes use. The poem, its author, and I did rather well at the tournament—but then there were the ballots. Of nine judges at the tournament who heard my poetry program, five commented that they felt I "did not understand what the author of the piece had in mind," or that I was interpreting the piece without consideration of the "author's intent in this (or that) passage." Imagine my chagrin—particularly in light of who the author actually was.

All too often in competitive interpretation both contestants and judges assume that concepts like "authorial intent" can be adjusted and quantified in order to do the pieces "correctly." The fact remains, however, that often competitive interpretation bears little resemblance to work done in non-competitive settings. The differences are many and varied, but many of them relate to basic understandings of a single concept: text. Concepts of the text in forensics differ radically from what the text is understood to be by scholars in oral interpretation. Some of this may relate to a lack of forensic programs at the nation's most prominent schools of oral interpretation theory.¹ Another contributing factor may be a lack of interpretation theory background in the coaches of oral interpretation in forensics. A final possibility is that, even with knowledge of modern understanding of text, oral interpretation guidelines in competitive settings are sufficiently restrictive as to negate honest, creative explications of text based on *any* theory.

It is not the aim of this article to present a litany of the flaws of competitive interpretation—such lamentations are all too often

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¹Of the four major interpretation theory institutions [Louisiana State University, the University of Texas, Northwestern University, and Southern Illinois University at Carbondale] only one school, Southern Illinois Univ. at Carbondale, has a nationally-ranked individual events program.

heard at both tournaments and scholarly conventions. Rather, the exploration of a hermeneutic understanding of text should facilitate an interpretation that guards the integrity of text, provides insight into the text, and helps students continue to succeed. The ensuing discussion is divided into three primary areas: first, the hermeneutic definition of text; second, the difference between forensic interpretation and the hermeneutic understanding of text; and, third, how an understanding of hermeneutic text can enhance the interpretive ability of forensic competitors.

HERMENEUTICS AND TEXT

Hermeneutics may be best defined in John B. Thompson's terms as "a discipline that has been primarily concerned with the elucidation of rules for the interpretation of text."² Although the hermeneutics of Paul Ricoeur, Hans-Georg Gadamer, and Maurice Merleau-Ponty have also been associated with phenomenology, semiotics, and critical theory, the "pure" form of hermeneutics has much older roots—tracing its origins to the Greek Enlightenment.³ However, the works of Ricoeur in hermeneutic phenomenology provide the most readily apprehended definitions of the facets of hermeneutic text.

"Text" in Ricoeur's hermeneutics is divorced from the speech act per se in that

. . . the text is not merely the inscription of some anterior speech, since speaking and writing are alternative and equally fundamental modes of the realisation of discourse. Nevertheless, the realisation of discourse under the condition of inscription displays a series of characteristics which effectively distance the text from the circumstances of speech.⁴

In this way, literature which is selected for oral interpretation is, in large measure, "distanced" from oral interaction. This distanciation process indicates several changes in the focus of written text as opposed to oral congress. Ricoeur notes that

the literary work discloses a world only under the condition that the reference of descriptive discourse is suspended. [Or in other words: in the literary work, discourse unfolds its denotation as a denotation of the second order, in virtue of suspension of the denotation of the first order.]⁵

²John B. Thompson, *Critical Hermeneutics* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), 1981, p. 36.

³Thompson, p. 36.

⁴Thompson, p. 52.

⁵Paul Ricoeur, *Role of Metaphor: Multi-disciplinary Studies of the Creation of Meaning in Language*, tr. Robert Czerny with Kathleen

This second-orderness of text is manifest most readily in several forms of distancing which remove it from the rules governing traditional oral discourse (either rhetorical or dialogic). The literary text, claims Ricoeur, contains altered concepts of meaning, author, audience and ostensive reference: four pivotal distanciations from the speech act, giving literary text a different ontological and epistemological universe from which to function.

Meaning. The first major distanciation comes in how a text "means" in ways different from an initial speech act. The inscription is, therefore, "the surpassing of the event of saying by the meaning of what is said."⁶ Thompson elucidates Ricoeur's first form of distanciation further, noting:

For it is the meaning which is inscribed in writing, and this inscription is rendered possible by the 'intentional exteriorisation' of the speech act.⁷

In short, inscription allows for reflection, indeed, requires that a reflective act be performed. This, claims Ricoeur, is necessary for meaning to manifest. Meaning is never an *a priori*.

Author. The second form of distanciation for Ricoeur is in the notion of author/speaker/sender. In oral discourse, authorial/speaker intent and the meaning of what is said are difficult, if not impossible, to separate, and often overlap. In the case of writing, however,

the text's career escapes the finite horizon lived by its author. What the text says now matters more than what the author meant to say, and every exegesis unfolds its procedures within the circumference of a meaning that has broken its moorings to the psychology of its author.⁸

Put more simply, text moves immediately away from author once inscribed. It is unnecessary and even harmful to focus merely on the author of a literary text because by doing so the meaning of the text is obscured. There is an obvious sense in which the I that is typing even this passage of this essay is not the same I that wrote the preceding sections. This text comes to mean beyond me and in spite of me.

Further, the distanciation of author from text proves the futility of attempts to analyze authorial intent. What a given author/speaker intended is not as important as what the text itself says.

McLaughlin and John Costello, SJ. (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978), p. 221.

⁶Thompson, p. 52.

⁷Thompson, p. 52.

⁸Paul Ricoeur, *Hermeneutics and the Human Sciences*, ed. and tr. John B. Thompson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981), p. 136.

The text remains, despite its historicity, as a complete entity, while the author does not do so.

The distancing of *audience* functions in a similar fashion in that the audience of spoken discourse is specified in advance by the dialogical situation. "In the case of writing the text is addressed to an unknown audience and potentially to anyone who is able to read."⁹ The text, then, is not locked into a specific socio-historical context; it is open to limitless interpretations in any number of spatial or temporal contexts.

Ricoeur's final distancing, that of *ostensive reference*, removes restrictions based on the dialogic situation. The text is then not situation-specific in its references, but rather is free for interpretation by whatever means its readers choose to use. There is no pointing to "this ball" or "that child," since such references have no meaning without the specific ball or child referred to. Rather, an inscribed text may refer to the ball or the child—and it is the interpreter's interpretation which then gives meaning to the reference.

All of this distancing might lead one to believe that, in hermeneutical text interpretation, "anything goes." Based on *reductio ad absurdum* of the distancing concepts, nearly any interpretation of text would be as valid as any others. Thompson is quick to dispel this notion:

... while a text may allow of several interpretations, it does not follow that all of these interpretations are of equal status; and the elimination of inferior interpretations is not an empirical matter of verification and proof, but a rational process of argumentation and debate.¹⁰

Sadly, this element of hermeneutic text theory is often overlooked, both by advocates and opponents of hermeneutic interpretation. Both Thompson and Ricoeur (in addition to countless others) disagree with claims that all interpretation is equally valuable. Some interpretation, it would seem, is quite valid; but this invalidity is a point of debate and reason, not quantification. Bleicher notes Jurgen Habermas' view of communication as a "rational consensus among participants"¹¹ where a number of "validity claims" must be satisfied—among them the notion of intelligibility. Following Ricoeur's and Habermas' claims, then, interpretation as part of the communication process (or communication as a function of interpretation) must be both defensible and intelligible.

⁹Thompson, p. 52.

¹⁰Thompson, p. 53.

¹¹Josef Bleicher, *The Hermeneutic Imagination* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1982), p. 33.

What this all boils down to is quite simple: every interpretation of text is new and based on the interpreter. A text is itself: it is not its author, its initial audience, its context, or even its composition. A text does not have meaning *a priori*, but only conditionally in the interpretive act. Umberto Eco perhaps sums up this argument best:

A work of art, therefore, is a complete and *closed* form in its uniqueness as a balanced organic whole, while at the same time constituting an *open* product on account of its susceptibility to countless different interpretations which do not impinge on its unadulterable specificity. Hence every reception of a work of art is both an *interpretation* and a *performance* of it, because in every reception the work takes on a fresh perspective for itself.¹²

Eco further contends that the variety and versatility of possible interpretations are necessary and healthy to the interpretive process: that they inject vitality into a work of art and to the appreciation of that work. Further, such interpretation is *creation* in that the work is created anew with each new appreciation of it.

COMPETITIVE INTERPRETATION VS. HERMENEUTIC TEXT.

Several problems are apparent in comparing what is done in competition and what is believed about text in hermeneutic theory. The first, and perhaps major, problem is protection of the integrity of a text. The text "means" based on its wholeness and its presentation as it is found by the interpreter. Perhaps the biggest dilemma for competitors arises when interpretation is confused with "poetic license." Students in competitive forensics have cut and pasted texts, changed the sex of major characters in literary works, rewritten portions of text which did not "flow right," and destroyed the generic identification of literature, particularly of poetry. Some of this literary butchery is done in the belief that the author "really won't care." The author, however, is not the piece of literature. For oral interpretation to be an honest effort, the act of *interpretation* is important, not the act of rewriting the text. Rewriting is not re-creation in the sense of interpretation; this type of poetic license is a *creation* process.

One noteworthy case is the particularly common habit of interpreting poetry as if it were the same as prose, exclusive of differences of genre and intent. When a reader encounters poetic works, the reader discovers that

¹²Umberto Eco, *The Role of the Reader* (Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1979), p. 49.

all have this in common, that the reader experience textuality, that is, the something holding his attention, soliciting his ingenuity, exciting in him a pleasure or irritation that he feels to be an esthetic sensation. This something he recognizes as a finite, well-defined text, and the features characterizing this text he rationalizes as typical of poetry.¹³

In oral interpretation in non-competitive settings, special pains are taken to protect the character of the poetic genre: the understanding and evocation of cadence, rhythm, linguistic complexity and device. In the competitive setting, however, many students are taught to ignore the poetry's structure in favor of a prose-like interpretation. This particular form of interpretation is one of Ricoeur's "less valid" ones—it is not defensible to alter the text by way of interpreting it. Many students (and coaches) find themselves frustrated by poetry, however, and prefer the generic implications of the prose form.

Another common problem is that judges and contestants alike ask the wrong questions in preparation for the interpretive act. The students or judges ask, "What did the author mean when he wrote this poem/story/play?" The question is, more properly, "What does this poem/story/play say, and what *can* it mean?" The text, claim hermeneutic scholars, does not mean until it is interpreted. The typical judge's comment (and I must confess that I was once guilty of this) is that the student "does not understand what the author means or intended to mean/say." In the scheme of things, this is a rather silly thing to say, since odds are that the judge is no more privy to authorial intent than the student. Just as foolish, on another level, is to claim that the contestant failed to understand what the piece/text means, since it did not mean until it was interpreted. A much more rational approach to criticism, particularly in light of text theory, is to disagree with the validity or intelligibility of the student's interpretation of the text.

The task of the student should be to evoke the literature in such a way that the validity of the interpretation is supported and explained by the interpretation. If an interpretation seems to make "sense," even if we question it, we may often think, "yes, I can see how it could be read in this way." We may disagree with the interpretation of text, because that is not how we would interpret it, but we cannot argue its validity, nor question its intelligibility.

One final problem which occasionally arises is the suitability of certain texts for *oral* interpretation. Some works, particularly

¹³Michael Riffaterre, *Semiotics of Poetry* (Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1978), p. 115.

forms like concrete poetry, are patently unsuited to oral modes. Other texts cannot be interpreted because they cannot be cut without ruining the original sense of the literature. Some works can easily lose the flavor or noteworthiness of the inscribed text by attempting to transform them into a dialogical situation—the attempted removal of written texts' distanciation. Students are sometimes encouraged to believe that a good "interper" can transform any literary work into an oral performance of quality. Such is not the case, and students should not be encouraged to believe that it is. Some texts are well suited to some kinds of oral performance, but not in competitive settings. Indeed, the very mention of some works will drive forensic judges to the nearest bar for attitude adjustment—Edgar Allen Poe's "The Bells" is a case in point.

All in all, however, two major problems exist in competitive forensics in juxtaposition with hermeneutic text theory: 1) guarding the integrity of the text and 2) validity of interpretation.

A PEDAGOGY OF HERMENEUTIC TEXT

Coach: "I want you to try hermeneutics when you do your prose next weekend."

Student: "Herman who? Is he a foreign author?"

One could almost predict that the preceding kind of conversation might ensue if we were to attempt to enlighten our students with the verbiage of Ricoeur and hermeneutic text theory. However, one need not know a lot about nuclear physics to know that it is good to avoid the blast sites of hydrogen bombs. While the terminology of philosophy is not, shall we say, conducive to gleeful understanding by the average freshman, still the principles of hermeneutics may have some very practical and helpful applications to competitive interpretation. If theories based on hermeneutic text are to be useful outside of graduate schools of interpretation theory, some pedagogical guidelines and linguistic conventions must exist. And, unfortunately, the rather arbitrary (and decades out of date) guidelines of competitive forensics must be abided by, e.g., physical presence of the text, in the form of the "black notebook," on stage.

My proposal is that a pedagogy of hermeneutics include four rather simple propositions:

1. A need to ensure the integrity of a text.
2. An understanding that oral interpretation is both creation and re-creation of an art form.
3. The realization that interpretations which are defensible are valid.

4. A decision to honor generic characteristics of a given art work.

The underlying premise in all of this is that what exists and must be dealt with is a text—a piece of inscribed literature which should be interpreted based on its genre and content. The first point, ensuring the integrity of a text, is necessary in order to end hog-butchery interpretation. Many students fail to realize that, in some cutting and restructuring, they do not achieve the primary goal of interpretation in an oral sense: presentation of the work. What they rather accomplish is the authoring of a piece of their own work. They ignore the rationale for the event. Interpretation is a re-creative act—a *re-creation* of an extant text in such a way that it comes to life for the hearers of the interpretation. It is also a creative act in a sense, in that the distancing of inscribed text must be removed. While the initial forms of distancing still exist, they are, it seems, suspended in the creation of oral discourse by the text. In the interpretive process, then, discourse is created—new meanings generated, a sender (the text, through the interpreter) established, an audience selected, and a contextualization realized and required.

The student, then, not only re-creates the text, but forms a creative dialogic between the text and the audience. If students can be convinced that the text is participating directly in the discourse, while they are basically a channel, perhaps an awareness of the importance of text can then ensue. The text is significant—not the interpreter—since text is both sender *and* message/meaning.

With this understanding of the basic nature of inscribed text made oral text, students may be shown the need for some interpretation which is valid (in a defensible sense) and intelligible. While competitive interpretation is limited by staging requirements, an assumption that there is only one "right" way to interpret the text locks interpreters into manacles and chains them to a wall. Students must be encouraged to explore a variety of possible avenues of analysis and understanding of a work in an attempt to free the creative part of the interpretation process. By facing a need to create a discourse between text and audience, students may more quickly see a need for an intelligible interpretation—one which the audience may understand, which can mean for them. Discussing the "whys" of the student's interpretation will allow for a defense to evolve in the student's mind. The defense can then be incorporated into the material for presentation as introductory passages, stylistics, or vocal intonation. If a student cannot defend an interpretation, there is a possibility that it will be judged invalid by

hearers, and some alternative may then be found by the student and coach.

Finally, a need exists for an understanding of the demands of a genre on the interpreter. A piece of poetry is completed text—as poetry. True interpretation requires that the text speaks to the audience with the "accent" of poetic discourse. Certainly, if a rhyme scheme becomes too pronounced, too obvious, the work becomes obscured for the singing. However, the conveying of cadence, rhythm and linguistic device are important to the "personality" of a piece of literature. This is particularly true of poetry interpretation, more than any other interpretive form, since poetic genre is all too often obscured or ignored in competition. Removing the rhythm of poetry is like taking away the accent of a person—identification of the individual voice is no longer possible because the voice is not special, despite the validity of what the voice is saying.

Obviously, I have only begun to scratch the surface of the valuable contributions that modern interpretation theory can make to competitive forensics. My special concentrations were never in the interpretive events, although I tried to do them well, and generally enjoyed performing in them. As a judge, I find myself frustrated because I have seen how oral interpretation can be done in an environment of freedom to experiment and create.

Review of Professional Resources

Millard F. Eiland, Editor

FORENSIC TOURNAMENTS: PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

by G. Thomas Goodnight and David Zarefsky
Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1980

Perhaps one of the great traditions in forensics is the semi-mystical practice invoked to schedule a tournament. Few formal sources of information exist to help the inexperienced coach deal with the intricacies and subtleties of tournament management. One attempt to remedy this information gap is *Forensic Tournaments: Planning and Administration* by G. Thomas Goodnight and David Zarefsky.

Forensic Tournaments suffers from an understandable identity crisis. The book attempts to consider the practices of both debate and individual events tournaments at the high school and college levels. The result is that the advice offered, while sound in theory, lacks generalizability to most realistic tournament situations.

The book's five chapters can be considered as three sections. The first section covers the general preparation for hosting a forensic competition. This section contains a great deal of good advice on facilities acquisition, tournament staffing, and the responsibilities of a host. Unfortunately, a number of pivotal practical questions are virtually ignored. How does one determine fees for the competition? What is adequate compensation for hired judges? How many hired judges are likely to be needed? How can tournament dates be selected to avoid conflict with more established tournaments? To an experienced director, these are perhaps trivial matters, but if this book is designed to aid the inexperienced director or as a text for students contemplating a forensic career, these matters are of critical importance.

These initial chapters also tend to provide a distorted view of tournament preparation. For example, nearly two pages is spent on managing banquet preparations and organizing a coaches and/or contestants party, but only two paragraphs are devoted to the need for obtaining tournament awards. In reality, virtually every tournament manager awards trophies and this major outlay of tournament income deserves more consideration of the fiscal details involved in the award process. Contrarily, very few current tournaments offer banquets or elaborate parties that require much attention to detail.

The second major section of the book deals with debate scheduling and tabulation. Goodnight and Zarefsky are clearly most comfortable with these issues. It is easy to understand the quality of Northwestern University debate tournaments after the authors explain in concise practical terms how to schedule and pair a debate competition. The delicate issue of random judge assignment versus discretionary assignment is discussed cogently and professionally. There is enough information in these two chapters to please either the would-be host or the experienced director.

The final section of the work deals with individual events scheduling and tabulation. Despite their years of tournament management experience (both Goodnight and Zarefsky are highly respected, eminently qualified debate coaches), they are not in touch with contemporary individual events practices. They devote 42 pages to debate scheduling and tabulation and only 12 pages to the same processes for individual events. The description of scheduling follows a debate-oriented approach including references to individual events power matching and semi-finals of 18 contestants in three sections. There is no mention of how to tabulate pentathlon or even that such a competition exists. Scheduling examples employed by the authors are simplistic (they never exceed more than five sections).

What may be most troubling is that the scheduling system proposed by the authors is based on totally random selection for each round. Such a procedure ignores the principles of "spreading" a school's entry throughout an event schematic and rotation of a contestant in multiple-round competition to guarantee maximum competitive exposure. (A much sounder system is detailed by Donald F. Peters in the inaugural issue of this journal.)

On the whole, this is a viable handbook for debate tournament management, but for individual events it is shallow at best.

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