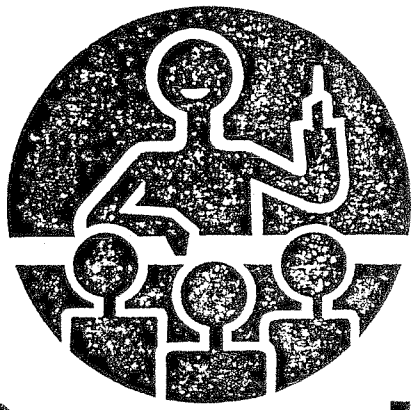
JOURNAL OF THE

Arizona Communication & Theatre Association

ACTA

FALL 1976

VOLUME VI



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Arizona Communication and Theatre Association

1976

Printed in the U.S.A., Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona,
under the auspices of the Department of Speech and Theatre

Journal of the Arizona Communication

and Theatre Association

Vol. VI, Fall 1976

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. . . from The Editor

I personally think that 1976 makes the year of a new beginning of the Arizona Communication and Theatre Association. At the previous Executive Council Meeting the following changes were made affecting the Journal:

1. Change in the Journal size to this present form.
2. Selling of advertising space to educational institutions and publishing companies.
3. Targeting the Fall issue around a particular topic and leaving the Spring issue pot pourri.
4. Changing the seal of the organization from the cactus to the one on this front cover.
5. Mailing the Journal to our members.

Our objectives are to place our Journal and organization, in the forefront of State organizations, while at the same time disseminating valuable information to Communication and Theatre Educators throughout our State. However, we will need your help. Please send me your suggestions for inclusion in the next issue of our Journal.

We look forward to receiving many new manuscripts, in preparation for the Spring issue. Please send your articles and written idea. Contributors should observe the following guidelines.

The Journal of the Arizona Communication and Theatre Association is published semiannually in April and November It is scholorly in nature and eclectic in scope. Subjects may range in approach and style; research articles, empirical studies and surveys, persuasive essays, original scripts, poems, adaptations and analytical stories are not only invited but encouraged.

Manuscripts should conform to the standards set forth in the MLA Style Sheet (2nd Ed., 1970), and generally should not exceed 2000 words. An original and three copies should be sent to the Editor, Dr. Robert O. Hirsch, Department of Speech and Theatre, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85281, by March 1st.

Robert Hirsch
Arizona State University

A Local Political Rally:

Who Came to hear Whom and How was it Publicized?

Robert O. Hirsch and Gale L. Richards*

The rally is a particular type of political event that has been with us in one form or another since the beginning of political campaigning in our country. Aly and Tanquary noted that political candidates in the early half of the nineteenth century were required to discuss their officeholding potential with the electorate with some frequency.[1] During the late 1850's, the political rally came into its prime with the Lincoln-Douglas debates in Illinois. Randall noted in his work on Lincoln that "stump speaking was a powerful magnet in the Middle West, and huge crowds poured out."[2] Depending on the bias of the newspapers and its reporters, estimates of crowds attending these debates often assumed proportions upward of thirty thousand. Randall also noted that the rally was more than simply a contest between two politicians; "...it was a spectacle and a show, replete with all the devices and claptrap of rough-and-ready campaigning. It was clamorous and colorful, with bands, bells, artillery salvos, fluttering banners, fireworks, torchlight processions, place cards, rockets, floats, decorations, racket."[3] Because of this carnival nature, people of all political persuasions took their families to the political rallies. In the early years of our nation, obviously, political rallies were a common source of social entertainment.

A century later in the 1970's, political rallies are of an altogether different nature. While political candidates often indicate that they are going to have a "good old-fashioned political rally," they rarely have anything approaching thirty thousand persons turn up for the event. Rallies during the era of the "new politics" of the sixties and seventies are usually much smaller. Kaid and Hirsch noted that approximately 940 people turned up for a political rally in Southern Illinois featuring Senator Edmund Muskie when he seeking the Democratic Presidential

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*Robert O. Hirsch is an Assistant Professor and Gale Richard is a Professor of Speech and Theatre at Arizona State University

1. Bower Aly and Grafton P. Panquary, "The Early National Period: 1788-1860," in A History and Criticism of American Public Address, William N. Brigance, ed. (New York: Russell & Russell, 1943), p.67

2. J. C. Randall, Lincoln and the President, Vol.1: Springfield to Bull Run (New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1945), p. 110.

3. Randall, p. 111.

nomination,[4] and this was viewed to be a major political event. While a President of the United States may attract a sizable audience, few candidates in the 1970's attract people in thousands. Obviously, there are too many other attractive alternative activities available to the highly mobile modern voter bouncing busily about his local community during the election campaign. Why stand out in the hot sun in the local park when you can catch the candidate on television at a later hour, beer in hand and feet up on a convenient stool in the comfort of the family room?

There is a continuing controversy in recent literature concerning who comes to rallies to hear political candidates speak, and why. Some scholars have argued that the theory of "selective exposure" is operative.[5] Those people attending rallies according to this concept are highly predisposed to the candidates. Thus, one would infer that under normal conditions Democrats attend Democratic rallies and Republicans attend Republican rallies. However, this conclusion is based upon extrapolated and anecdotal evidence. Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet, for example, discovered in their 1940 Erie County study that, with interested voters whose voting preferences remained constant throughout the campaign, 70 percent were exposed mainly to publicity of their own party with the remaining exposed to publicity of the other party (16%) or to both parties (15%).[6] Similarly, in 1959 Schramm and Carter reported telephone interview results indicating that 22 percent of Republican respondents had watched a portion

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4. Lynda L. Kaid and Robert O. Hirsch, "Selective Exposure and Candidate Image: A Field Study Over Time," Central States Speech Journal, 24, 1973, 49.

5. Jonathan L. Freedman and David O. Sears, "Selective Exposure," in Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Vol. II, Leonard Berkowitz, ed. (New York: Academic Press, 1965); Drury R. Sherrod, "Selective Perception of Political Candidates," Public Opinion Quarterly, 35, 1971-1972, 554-562; and David O. Sears and Richard E. Whitney, "Political Persuasion," in Handbook of Communication, Ithiel de Sola Pool, et al., eds. (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1973).

6. Lazarsfeld, People's Choice, p. 90.

of a Republican Gubernatorial telethon program, aired during the previous week.[7] Based upon this and similar evidence, Freedman and Sears concluded in their summary of selective exposure research that "Republican rallies are mainly attended by Republicans, Baptist services are attended by Baptists, the readers of the New Republic are mostly liberals, and those of the National Review are mostly conservatives."[8] However, they also noted that "laboratory evidence does not support the hypothesis that people prefer to be exposed to supportive as opposed to non-supportive information," so that unthinking party deviation can certainly not be linked inferentially to physical presence at a rally.[9] In point of fact, other data do not necessarily support an assertion that "likes" tend to come and hear "likes", in the political sense.

As far as we are aware, there are only two empirical studies which provide definitive conclusions concerning the attendance at political rallies to hear candidates speak. Sanders, Pace, and McNeil observed that in two of three audience situations that a majority of the people attending were not of the same political party as the candidate.[10] Kaid and Hirsch found similar results in their Southern Illinois study with people attending a political rally of Edmund Muskie.[11] A conditioning element in this latter observation was that the audience was composed predominately of students. The composition of other local rally audiences might of course be significantly different. Thus, for definite conclusions, we need additional information on selective exposure as it relates to the times, places, and types of people to whom it might apply.

There has been considerable concern about how people find

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7. Wilbur Schramm and R. F. Carter, "Effectiveness of a Political Telethon," Public Opinion Quarterly, 23, 1959, 121-126.

8. Freedman and Sears, "Exposure," p. 61.

9. Freedman and Sears, "Exposure," p. 94.

10. Keith R. Sanders, Thomas Pace, and Keith McNeil, "The Influence of Speech-Communication on the Image of a Political Candidate," unpublished report from the Center for Communication Research, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, 1972.

11. Kaid and Hirsch, "Field Study".

out about candidates.[12] The general assumption is that at the national level television and newspapers are the primary sources of political information. At the state level, Hirsch found in his study in Illinois that an additional source, direct personal contact with people, was important. Nearly 25 percent of his sample indicated that respondents obtained most of their information about candidates running for office directly from other people.[13] In 1974, Wright studied a town council race in Normal, Illinois. He discovered that people obtain their information about local politics in a much different fashion than at the national and state-wide level. His findings indicated that 89 percent of his sample received little or no information from television. Most of the local residents received their information from newspapers (54%), radio (16%), other people (14%), and political literature (11%).[14] There is here the suggestion that the amount of information may be a function of the importance the sources of information place upon it, and thus the emphasis with which receiver attention is directed to it.

Additional research has been conducted on differences between Republicans and Democrats with respect to where they obtain their information. DeVries and Tarrance noted, in their study of the "ticket-splitter", that Republicans are heavier users of television, radio, and magazines than Democrats.[15] In their study in Michigan, the Republicans not only obtained more information from all sources, they also tended to use more than one source for their information. In addition, they discovered that behavioral independents (people who split their tickets for candidates of different parties) were greater consumers of information than the Democrats, but not more inquisitive than were the Republicans. This seems to contradict the normal notion of studied skepticism as the unique attribute of the independent vote.[16]

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12. Nimmo; Philip Converse, "Information Flow and Stability of Partisan Attitudes," Public Opinion Quarterly, 26, 1962, 578-599; and Roper Organization, "An Extended View of Public Attitudes Toward Television and Other Mass Media, 1959-1971," a report prepared by the Roper Organization, Inc., New York, 1971.

13. Hirsch, "Media," p. 14.

14. Robert G. Wright, "Uses and Effects of Selected Channel Variables in a Non-partisan Local Election," unpublished Masters Thesis, Illinois State University, 1973.

15. DeVries and Tarrance, Ticket-Splitter, pp. 78-83.

16. Campbell, et al., Voter.

From this discussion, we have developed the following set of hypothesis which it seemed reasonable to test with the results from our observations of those in attendance at rallies in Tempe, Arizona, during the 1974 gubernatorial race:

1. There will be a significantly larger number of Democratic rally than members of other political affiliations.

2. There will be a significantly larger number of Republicans attending the Republican rally than members of other political affiliations.

3. People attending the Democratic rally will know the Democratic candidates significantly better than people attending the Republican rally.

4. People attending the Republican rally will know the Republican candidates significantly better than people attending the Democratic rally.

5. There will be a significant difference in the way Democrats and Republicans obtain their information about the rallies.

METHOD:

Two samples were used in this study. The first sample encompassed those persons attending a rally sponsored by the Republican Women's Club of Tempe, Arizona, on September 4, 1974. This political event was billed as a meeting at which voters could come and hear the five gubernatoral candidates seeking the Republican nomination for Governor of Arizona. The audience also was permitted to interact directly with the candidates following their presentations. The questionnaire used in this study was distributed to everyone entering the hall (except the five candidates) and approximately 90 percent of the people attending the political event responded (N = 124). The second sample consisted of people attending a Democratic rally held in Tempe, Arizona, on September 8, 1974. The Democratic candidates vying for the U. S. Senate, U. S. House of Representatives, Arizona's Governorship, and assorted state and local offices spoke to the people attending the rally, giving the people opportunity to interact with the candidates personally. A questionnaire similar to the one used in the Republican rally was distributed to everyone attending the Democratic event (except the candidates and very young children) and approximately 90 percent of the people responded (N = 125).

The questionnaire sought information in four general areas. First, it attempted to isolate political and demographic information. Respondents were asked if they usually thought of themselves as Democrats, Republicans, or Independents, and if they were registered to vote. In addition, they were asked questions relating to their education, age, and sex. Second, the questionnaire inquired into the information media through which attendees were made aware of the political rally, and also inquired if they attended political events with any regularity.

Third, a question was asked regarding how well the people thought they knew the political candidates, focusing on both the Republican and Democratic candidates vying for their respective party's nomination for the governorship. Fourth, rally-attenders were asked if they had made up their minds for whom they would vote, assuming that the primary and general election were to be held at the time of the rally.

The questionnaire was one page in length, with the assumption that brevity would encourage better response. Pencils were also supplied to facilitate completion of the questionnaire.

RESULTS:

Specific demographic information was obtained from the people attending these rallies. Table 1 provides a summary of this information.

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PEOPLE ATTENDING THE DEMOCRATIC AND REPUBLICAN RALLIES

Demographic Characteristic	Democratic Rally	Republican Rally
Education (in years completed)	15.3	14.8
Age	34.65	41.8
Sex		
Males	48.0	41.1
Females	52.0	58.9

The first hypothesis tested the possibility that "selective exposure" has been operative in the attendance at the Democratic rally. According to the sample, 88.8 percent said they thought of themselves as Democrats, 2.4 percent as Republicans, 3.2 percent as Independents, and 5.6 percent as belonging to another political party. From this descriptive data it seemed obvious that there were significantly more Democrats than Republicans, Independents, or members of other political parties. Nevertheless, since the data were nominal, a chi-square test was used to examine the differences between the political affiliations.[17] It revealed that there was a significant difference ($X^2 = 271.3$, p .05). Thus, the first hypothesis seemed to be confirmed.

The second hypothesis tested the operation of "selective exposure" as it related to those people attending the Republican rally. According to the sample, 87.9 percent said they thought of themselves as Republicans, 6.5 percent as Democrats, 4 percent as Independents, and 1.6 percent as mambers of another political party. As in the case of those attending the Democratic rally, the data appeared to be heavily biased in the direction of the candidates' party for whom the rally was organized. A chi-square test indicated that there were significantly more Republicans than members of other political parties ($X^2 = 262.2$, $p < .05$). Thus, the second hypothesis would appear to be confirmed. Thus, within the narrow range of inference implied by this small sample, meaning the concept of selective exposure was positively affirmed.

The third hypothesis similarly tested the concept of selective exposure. If people are highly predisposed to the candidates whom they come to hear, it would seem reasonable that they would think that they knew these candidates better than other candidates. In order to test this hypothesis, information was obtained from those attending both rallies asking how well they thought they knew the Democratic and Republican candidates running in the primary for their respective party's nomination. A one to five point scale was used to permit analysis of variance in the results.

There were four Democratic candidates seeking their party's nomination. With one exception (Caudill, $F = 0.27$, $p < .05$), those people attending the Democratic rally thought they knew these candidates better than those people attending the Republican rally (Castro, $F = 45.5$, $p < .05$; Moss, $F = 45.9$, $p < .05$; Ross, $F = 18.2$, $p < .05$). Caudill was not considered a serious candidate. Thus, the third hypothesis appears generally supportable. Table 2 summarizes this information. Because these

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17. George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), pp. 191-213.

Table 2

HOW WELL PEOPLE ATTENDING POLITICAL RALLIES KNOW THE CANDIDATES

Candidates*	Democratic Rally **	Republican Rally **
Raul Castro (Democrat)	3.35	2.23
Walter Caudill (Democrat)	1.18	1.15
John Driggs (Republican)	2.37	2.72***
Milt Graham (Republican)	2.36	2.64
Bill Jacquin (Republican)	1.97	2.46***
Evan Mecham (Republican)	2.29	2.56
Dave Moss (Democrat)	2.46	1.47***
Jack Ross (Democrat)	2.47	2.11***
Russ Williams (Republican)	1.99	2.60***

* The candidates' political party was not identified.
** A 1 to 5 point scale was used: 1 = Not At All, and 5 = Very Well.
*** Significant ($p < .05$).

audience groups are quite local and homogeneous, and the sample is small, the affirmation of selective exposure implied in these results must be visual in a research fashion.

The fourth hypothesis was similar to the third. The difference lay in the direct comparison of the two rally audiences with respect to their familiarity with Republican candidates for governor. Support from the data for this hypothesis was equivocal. There were five candidates seeking their party's nomination for the governorship (Driggs, Graham, Jacquin, Mecham, and Williams.) In three cases those attending the Republican rally thought they knew the candidates better than those attending the Democratic rally (Driggs, $F = 4.3$, $p<.05$; Jacquin, $F - 8.1$, $p<.05$; and

Williams, $F = 11.8$, $p < .05$). Table 2 summarizes the results.

The fifth hypothesis tested the difference between Democrats and Republicans with respect to the media through which they were informed about their rallies. Table 3 summarizes this information.

TABLE 3

THE SOURCE FROM WHICH PEOPLE FOUND OUT ABOUT THE POLITICAL RALLY

Source of Information	Democratic Rally*	Republican Rally*
Newspapers	22.40	32.36
Radio	0.0	0.0
Friends	13.60	13.71
Television	0.0	0.0
Family	10.40	11.29
Party Organization	32.80	25.00
Other Sources of Information	.80	.81
Newspapers & Friends	3.20	2.42
Newspapers & Family	.80	.81
Newspapers & Party Organization	2.40	3.23
Newspapers, Friends, & Party Organization	3.20	3.23
Other Possible Combinations	10.40	7.26

*Percentage of people indicating source from which they received information about the event.

AN ORAL INTERPRETER LOOKS AT PAT FULLINWIDER, DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR UNITED STATES REPRESENTATIVE

by

K. B. Valentine

"It ain't whatcha know that get's you in trouble; it's whatcha know that ain't so!"

What candidate Fullinwider did not know, as she entered the home of one of the MIA (Missing In Action) families for her campaign speech, was that her information on her opponent's treatment of the MIA issue would turn against her early in the evening. She entered the Tempe home smiling and solicitous and commented on her big campaign button with a friendly quip: "With a name like Fullinwider, you have to wear a large pin."

The group of people assembled that evening were connected to each other by virtue of each having a family member still classified as missing in action in Viet Nam. Since all had not yet arrived before Fullinwider, they engaged her in small talk and then fell silent. Fullinwider sensed the appropriateness of a story to fill the awkward time. She told of her summers spent knocking on doors to present herself as a candidate for Congress. She expressed chagrin that all the preferred glasses of water, and all the walking still had not made her thin. As the audience waited for the latecomers to ring the bell, Fullinwider sat quietly losing valuable time for selling herself, hesitating to begin.

When the chairperson decided not to wait any longer, she requested Fullinwider's position on the MIA's by asking, "If you were elected, how would you help us account for our men?" Having been told that the incombent, John Rhodes, had been lax in attending to requests for aid and information from the MIA families, Fullinwider launched into an attack on her opponent's negligence, promising that, unlike him, she would do everything she could to keep the cases open until as full as accounting as possible had been made. She asserted that she had no intention of sweeping the problem under the carpet as her opponent had done. With this introductory jab at Rhodes completed, she sat back in the upright dining room chair and waited for approbation from the assembled MIA families. To her chagrin, the responses was not approval, but an immediate and vociferous defense of John Rhodes with specific details on his efforts to keep the Department of Defense (referred to that evening as the "D.O.D.") from reclassifying all the men as "Killed in Action."

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*K. B. Valentine is an Associate Professor of Speech and Theatre at Arizona State University.

Faced with this changed audience situation, Fullinwider deftly backpedalled. She assured her audience that both she and Rhodes wanted the same results for them, but implied that she was not as beholden to the power groups as Rhodes, and would, of course, have more impact on a Democratic president than would the Republican Rhodes should Carter be elected. The projective energy and sense of spontaneity that Fullinwider usually displays while she is campaigning lessened as she retreated to a more cautious and selfcontained stance. She folded her arms in front of her, sat back in the stiff chair, and fielded questions from a more defensive nonverbal and verbal posture. Her voice was low in pitch, colored with a midwestern nasality, somewhat low in volume, and neither fast nor slow in rate. The sense of humor that often distinguishes Fullinwider from her opponent was suppressed by her preoccupied audience. She was able to elicit substantial affirmative responses only when she attacked Henry Kissinger. On this point the audience was in total agreement and much time was spent discussing the audience's perception of dirty dealings during the Paris peace talks.

At this juncture the initiated responses shifted from Fullinwider the campaigner, to E---, the MIA spokesperson. The real purpose of the meeting of audience and candidate now become clearer. The families did not want to hear about the candidate's positions so much as they wanted the candidates to take action on their behalf. This specialized audience, all related by blood or marriage to a soldier classified as MIA, has called this meeting to impress upon Fullinwider, and later on Dennis DeConcini, the urgent need for more information about their men. Some of these men, they believed, were being held in China, Cambodia, Laos, and North Vietnam. That the men might be alive and in prison in a distant part of the world and needed their help was a torturing thought to the group. That obsession precluded all interest in listening to political platforms. Because of this specialized situation, Fullinwider had no opportunity to speak on her strong points: the use of solar energy, tax and congressional reform, and human rights.

Fullinwider accepted the fact that control had passed from her hands to vocal audience members and began to listen carefully. She asked one of her staff members to write down the names and addresses of the key spokespersons for the group so she could get more detailed information. She sat forward in her chair, leaned on her knees and directed her attention to their speakers. She used little overt bodily activity during the entire hour and a half of the meeting except for her facial expressions. From the initial attitude of courteous welcome, she exhibited attitudes of amusement at herself, then attack and sudden surprise, to cautions defence, and finally to an attitude of attentive listening. Each of these attitudes was appropriate to the audience situation at that point in time. She maintained the attitude of listening responsively through the rest of the meeting time even after Dennis DeConcini,

Democratic candidate for the Senate, entered the home and the questioners and spokespersons turned their attention to him. DeConcini was also quickly silenced by the MIA group who wished to tell him, as they had told Fullinwider of their pressing concern for knowledge about the fate of their soldiers.

Whenever Fullinwider spoke that evening she projected the attitude that through the ordeals of campaigning she was a person of goodwill who could see more than one side to a problem. Frequently nodding her head to punctuate a point, she was involved in what she said and heard. She projected her emotions with restraint after her thwarted attack on Rhodes, and listened carefully to her audience when they took command. She picked up on audience cues and responded to them under the pressure of the moment with grace and sagacity. She tended not to look at the more antagonistic members of the audience, preferring instead to seek out the more friendly faces, difficult as it was to ignore the vociferous cries of defense for her opponent. Her light red pant suit and soft blouse were an energetic and appropriate accompaniment to the presentation of herself as a sensitive and intellectually involved person who believed she could help the country and Arizona by being in the Congress.

When it became apparent that the substantive points had been made by the MIA families, and that candidates Fullinwider and DeConcini could not expect to make any more headway with the audience, Fullinwider summarized her position. She said, in effect, "My staff will be in touch with you by the end of next week. We obviously need to learn more about the problems of the MIA families." Leaving the MIA group to finish their meeting agenda, the candidates and their staffs walked out into the dusky street. Fullinwider drove off in her Volkswagen beetle, wiser perhaps, to meet yet another audience.

POLITICS AND THE DRAMA OF THE MARKETPLACE

By Andrew A. King*

Since the television commerical exists at the intersection of broadcasting and marketing, it is not surprising that ad men have played a key role in developing the routines of Political Communications Consulting. It was the men of Grey Advertising who first defined the political campaign as a marketing situation. William Beulow, a Los Angeles ad man, first developed the computer letter to bring the illusion of intimacy to the mass media. It was a man at Foote, Cone, and Belding, Charles King, who developed the echo-image radio ad as a low budget extension of political television spots in the Humphrey campaign of 1968. With their promotional skills and media contacts, ad men have played a significant role in supplying a repertoire of techniques.

Despite their view of theory as the plaything of jacobins and a priori thinkers, ad men are usually far from being the epic unstructured artists they pretend to be. As strategists they are highly predictable and their general behavior is as strictly formal as a Chinese play. It consists of four acts:

(1) Commission a poll at least six months before the election.

(2) Define a communication strategy. (A definition of the situation based on polling information).

(3) Implement the strategy through selected mass media.

(4) Monitor the success of the strategy and make adjustments.

One of the most important things the poll tells a consultant is why people like or dislike his client's opponent.

Joseph Napolitan, founder of the American Association of Political Consultants, once received a Michigan poll indicating that a majority of the electorate were unable to name a single accomplishment of his client's opponent, a Congressman named Ross. Napolitan felt that the public's ignorance of the Ross record was the central fact of the campaign and he immediately set about to construct a communications strategy based squarely on this glaring weakness. Probably the most famous implementation of this strategy was an anti-commercial destined to live as long as the language:

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*Andrew King is a Professor of Speech Communication at the University of Arizona.

Full frame shot of a handsome powerfully built young man wearing a navy blue power suit, heavy wing-tip shoes and a crisp tie. He is seated at a massive wooden desk and behind him the walls are lined with leather books. He holds a single sheet of paper in his powerful spatulate hands.

He Speaks: Good evening. I'd like to take a moment to remind you of some of the major accomplishments of Congressmen Ross.

SILENCE. While the young man stares at the sheet of paper the sound of the clock ticking is gradually amplified. After 5 seconds the ticks sound like hammerblows. After 20 seconds the thudding ticks cease.

Camera moves to the sheet of paper. Audience sees that the paper is blank.

Camera travels to man's face. His expression is both apologetic and mildly hysterical.

He speaks: I--I can't think of anything. Can you help me out?

FADEOUT. . . .

Despite the 'stock' nature of the general method, the definition of the campaign problem, and the development of a strategy to meet it are creative acts. One can well understand the angry protests of certain consultants that they are gifted artists whose skills cannot be institutionalized by academicians. The implementation and monitoring of a media campaign, however, are more highly specialized skills that are easily institutionalized. Brains and sensitivity are not enough. General knowledge of the media market is not enough. One must rely on contacts, often professionals who know the market very tightly, to get things done.

My lasting impression from following campaign staffs through the 1976 Presidential Primaries is that there is a good deal less money than there was in 1968 and 1972. Everyone wants good, simple solutions to difficult problems, and the consultant is more important as a resident genius in an underdog campaign than in a truly successful one. Finally, in the Darwinian struggle of the campaign trail, a consultant with a gift for practical invention is one of the most interesting objects under the Sun.

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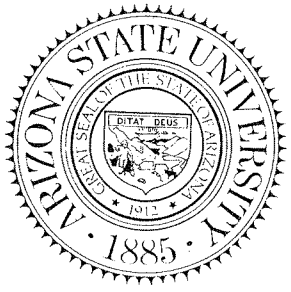

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HOW TO TEACH DRAMA ON ONLY 43.6 MILLION DOLLARS

Robert Sola*

It is extremely congrevious that the first presidential debate this year was held in the Walnut Street Theatre. This establishes the necessary credibility to demonstrate to students of drama the viability of the 1976 presidential candidates as dramatic examples. After all, since Congress has deemed necessary to give both Carter and Ford 21.8 million dollars for campaign funds, we had better get all of the benefit we can from any such encounter.

Now, the problem that exists is, how can we use the two highest paid actors of all times as proto-types of dramatic theory.

The first assumption that must be made, and hopefully accepted, is that these men are actors. The inference that they are good actors is not intended. We certainly can learn from non-quality as well as quality.

If this point is established, let us then attempt to establish the areas of consideration. All drama teachers are basically concerned with mutual attitudes of analysis. They may not be identified by the same title but a rose by any other name etc. Believability, Emotion vs Technique, Artistic Compromise and Character Establishment will be the Roman Numerals of the study guide in our multi-million dollar political drama unit.

Since this unit is a rather unscholarly approach and the students won't be watching the debates or campaign presentations anyway, it doesn't really matter where we begin. So, Character Analysis is just as good a place to start as any. It is our intent to stress the importance of positive character development. The actor must know who he is, where he's been, and where he's going. Unfortunately our dramatic examples don't meet our specifications. It appears that Carter nor Ford has zeroed in on the character he is willing to play. Carter has fluctuated from Playboy interviewee to Southern Baptist moralist; from gentleman farmer to friend of the slum dweller; from ethnic-purist to anti-racist; from defense spender to defense waster. Ford, on the other hand, doesn't quite have the dimension of his opponent. His range has stayed basically within the perimeters of clumsy, stumbling oaf to a lovable, do-nothing, cuddly teddy bear. It is true that he has wandered from wishy-washy to

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*Robert Sola is the Drama Instructor at McClintock High School in Tempe, AZ.

positive on forty seven different occasions (or is that negative such as in veto?)

Hopefully, both men will come through a trying rehersal period with a well-defined character by opening day, January 20.

Since drama is an art, and creativity is an intergal part of any art, it is desirable if all participants of the drama employ their creative powers for the fulfillment of the dramatic experience. This necessitates a director who is nondictatoral in his approach. The director and the actor must cooperate in the use of imagination or a puppet show may insue. The responsibility of both toward creativity has been termed by some as artistic compromise. How do our candidates measure up to this dramatic principle?

As with any actor the words are not their own. Their battery of writers have seen to this quite adequately and perhaps realistically. Where Carter and Ford have missed again is that neigher gestures, facial expression, vocal production, physical attitude, deportment, nor employment is theirs. Their bevy of experts are pulling the strings well but artistic compromise is suffering in the tangle.

It's somewhat difficult to differentiate between emotional feeling and technical processes when presented by an expert actor. This is not the case when the performance is handled by an amateur. It is desirable if a degree of balance can be maintained in regard to emotion and technique. The deepest of emotional feeling cannot be communicated to an audience without a proper amount of technical ability, and certainly a straight technical performance can be interpreted as shallow and empty.

Examination time. How may speeches, debate responses, T. V. blurbs have been presented under the guise of inner feeling but were really technique? How often have the true convictions of each candidate been revealed as opposed to Madison Avenue training? How often have camera angles and editing helped to convey the good ol' deep down south inner conviction or "What I'm doing must be right because I'm the President." Score both potential leaders on a basis of one to ten in each of the areas.

Ford: Emotion - 2, Technique - 1½

Carter: Emotion - 1½, Technique - 2

How about that? Maybe they've achieved balance after all.

And now to the final item in our dramatic-political or political dramatic study guide or unit or whatever.

Believability. I find it difficult to look into the hearts of Ford or Carter to judge this element. I can hardly do this with myself ala Goldwater. But try we must so that our drama students may have a rich, rewarding, and fulfilling dramatic encounter.

I have found no formulas available for judging believability. This aspect is best left to the gut-level reaction of the viewer. There is no need for distain toward this un-empirical approach since it is well known that every student of drama is the world's greatest dramatic critic. If all aspects of dramatic theory are employed, it is not unusual for all of the candidates to be judged in a dead heat (including McBride). The results of this test are not to be interpreted in a negative sense. It is a well accepted fact in the American-Political Dramatical way of life that no politician is to be believed.

After careful examination of the preceeding unit, you may not feel that this would be a worthwhile activity for your drama class. If this is your conclusion, I hope you reconsider - after all, it is your 43.6 million dollars.

Utilizing Political Campaigns as Communication Activities in the Classroom

By Robert O. Hirsch*

What is a Political Campaign? A political campaign is a war waged between political candidates, equiped with strategies, battle plans, tactics, and counter moves. People running for political office attempt to marshall all their means of persuasion, organization abilities, and knowledge of public affairs in such a way as to convince the electorate that they are the best person for the job.

Political campaigns are also valuable assets to the classroom teacher. They provide a natural environment where motivation to learn is already provided. The student is deluged with information about human affairs when campaigns are being waged. In fact, it is difficult not being aware that campaigns are taking place. An advantage to this is that with increased information, aside from the classroom, there is increased motivation.

Political campaigns are exciting. As competitive human beings students enjoy competition, either as participants or observers. Using political campaign activities in the classroom can capitalize upon this built-in desire to win.

Political campaigns are educational. As long as we have a democratic form of government we will have people vying for our votes. The techniques they utilize have emence importance in terms of their impact upon our behavior. It is important to know how others are manipulating us.

To this end I have provided a list of political campaign communication activities which can be used by the classroom teacher. I hope you find them useful.

1. Title: Political Rhetoric

   Objective: To teach the persuasive techniques of speechmaking.

   Time: Assign one day and discuss another day.

   Number of Students: Can be assigned individually or in a group. However, allow more time if in a group.

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Procedures: Tell the students that they are a political candidate running for the U. S. Senate. They are invited to give a 10 minute speech to a group of MIA wives on the subject of the MIA's. Prepare an outline of what you would say.

Obstacles: After the speeches are prepared:

1. What would they do if they found out at the event from a questioner in the audience that their opposition candidate was supportive of the MIA cause?

2. What would they do if they found out at the event from a questioner in the audience that their opposition candidate was not supportive of the MIA cause?

3. What would they do if they found out at the event that one of the women just received a government telegram informing her that her lost husband of seven years had just been found dead?

4. What would they do if they found out at the event that suddenly the communists had just released the names and status of all MIA's?

2. Title: Image Making

Objective: To teach the techniques used in political TV sports.

Time: From 2 days to 5 days.

Number of Students: Groups of 5 - 7 students.

Procedure: Assign each student a fictitious political candidate. Tell them that they are to develop a script of audio and video instructions. In other words, what will be said and shown. The spot should last one minute. Have each group present their political spot in class.

Discussion: After the political spots are presented discuss:

1. Upon what features did the focus? Why?

2. How effective would the audio be?

3. How effective would the video be?

4. How do the spots they see on television for political candidates compare with the ones they prepared?

5. How do political spots compare with other television commercials?

6. How much can you say about issues in political spots?

3. Title: News Release

Objective: To teach the techniques of good news copy.

Time: One hour

Number of Students: Individually

Procedures: Create a fictitious political event where the candidates vying for the same political office find themselves debating before a high school assembly. Contrast for opposing positions on the issues of (1) marijuana decriminalization, (2) tax reform, (3) development of nuclear energy, and (4) abortions so that one candidate favors a particular position while the other opposes it. Identify the number attending, where, the names of the candidates and any additional information which increases student interest.

Have each student write the first two paragraphs of one news release assuming s/he is the Press Secretary for one candidate and another one assuming s/he is a reporter for the local paper.

Discuss: After the two stories are written ask:

1. How do they differ? Why? (Not the affect bias has on news stories).

2. What are the subjects in the leading sentence? Do they focus upon the candidate, the debates, the audience, or an issue?

3. What issues are featured? Do they vary between stories? Why should they?

4. Title: Leadership Qualities

Objective: To teach the difference between autocratic and democratic leadership and the advantages of each.

Time: Two hours.

Number of Students: Groups of 7 - 10 students.

Procedures: Assign each member in the group a particular role (Campaign Managers Assistant Campaign Manager, Press Secretary, Image Maker, Schedule Coordinator, Research Director, Opposition Researcher, Field Coordinator, Advanceman, and Candidate.) Tell each group that they are the campaign staff for a political candidate. You will give them some problems and have them decide on a course of action. For some groups instruct them that they must reach their decisions using the autocratic form of leadership while other groups must use the democratic form.

Problems: 1. The newspaper has just obtained information which indicates that your campaign manager has been charged with possession of heroin.

2. The opposition candidate's campaign was charged with heroin possession and you just read about it on the front page.

Problems: (continued)

3. The senior senators of your state, although of the other party, charges your candidate with racial slurs.

4. Your candidates daughter was kidnapped and is being ransomed for $5 million.

Discussion:

1. How much time does it take to reach a decision?

2. What is the quality of the decisions reached?

3. How can you reach quality decisions in a short period of time?

4. Who makes the decisions in an autocratic form of leadership?

5. How much influence do all members in a Democratic form of leadership?

These are only some possible activities. Make up your own. One thing is for sure -- keep telling the students that they are only simulating political campaign's. They do not need to destroy the opposition.

A Reply to Professor Browning

Richard A. Parker*

"I don't know what you mean by 'land use,'" the debater said.

The critic-judge smiled contemptuously. "Of course you don't--till I fill out my ballot. I mean the conversion of trees into methanol for use in automobiles."

"But in my affirmative case 'land use' doesn't mean 'the conversion of trees into methanol for use in automobiles,'" the debater said.

"When I judge a word," the critic said, in a rather scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean--neither more nor less."

"The question is," said the debater, "whether you can make words mean whatever you restrict them to mean."

"The question is," said the judge, "which is to be master--that's all."

In his "Reasoned Discourse or 'Tea Party,'" Professor Timothy Browning proposes in the previous issue of this Journal that debate coaches and judges adopt "a theoretical framework from which one can judge and teach issues of topicality" in competitive debate. I submit that he has failed to develop such a framework, for a variety of reasons. I shall adhere faithfully to the organizational pattern of the quintessential debater: first, by explaining why Professor Browning's "positions" and supporting "philosophical explanations" are insufficient to constitute the proposed "theoretical framework," and second, by introducing the undesirable implications (or "disadvantages") of that framework.

I preface my "first negative" critique with an observation: Browning rightly states the issue in his quotation from Lewis Carroll. The issue really is "which is to be master"--the critic-judge or the debater. Browning opts for the former: he contends that the judge should impose his own definitions of terms upon the participants in each and every debate that he is expected to judge. I shall refer to this position as the imposition of "extrinsic standards," because the critic-judge sets the parameters for the acceptability of terms in a debate

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itself and foists these limits upon the debaters without any input from the debaters themselves. The alternative position--which I shall label the application of "intrinsic standards"--permits the debaters to determine the boundaries of acceptability for definitions of terms in the debate topic. The use of "intrinsic standards" implies that the resolution may mean something different to each and every debate team; the responsibility forindictment and defense of these definitions lies with the debaters themselves.

Browning masks his posture by arguing that "the reasonableness of definitions is a standard we can impose." Here the issue is mislabeled: no doubt critic-judges can impose such a standard by voting against cases that reside beyond judicially-acceptable boundaries for topicality. The issue is, rather, whether judges ought to impose extrinsic standards (Browning's posture) or permit the standards to be debated--and therefore developed intrinsically--in each debate round (my posture).

Browning's first "position" is that "to define terms outside the context of a resolution is at best acceptable and at worst absurd." All would agree with such a position, but the real question remains unanswered: what is the "content of a resolution?" How does the critic-judge specify the boundaries of that context, so that he may identify what is "outside" of it? By asking these questions we may specify the criteria a judge would employ when he assumed Browning's first "position." The critic who subscribes to intrinsic standards for topicality has a ready reply: the context of the resolution is the debate itself, and the criteria employed by the judge are those (and only those) that are introduced by the debaters themselves. Mr. Browning, however, provides no clear answer to these questions for the extrinsic critic.

Browning posits three "philosophical explanations" of his position. The question to be asked is, "do these explanations support the application of extrinsic standards--and only extrinsic standards--for decision-making in academic debate?" I contend that they do not.

The first "philosophical explanation" is that "debate requires definitions within a conceptual framework." The implication is that the intrinsic-standards position in debate judging admits definitions that do not reside in a "conceptual framework," which is unfair. The advocate of intrinsic standards accepts the "conceptual framework" which survives the clash of ideas in the debate itself. His framework is ever-changing, but at the end of any given debate he may specify with confidence the criteria for acceptability of topicality arguments (if any) which have been established for that round. The

advocate of external standards imposes his own "conceptual framework" on the debate. The task of the debater, then, is different in each case. To the judge with intrinsic standards he confidently presents his closely-reasoned arguments for the acceptability or unacceptability of a proposed definition of terms. To the judge with extrinsic standards he hazards his guess as to what these standards are, and wins or loses accordingly.

Browning's second "philosophical explanation" for defining terms "in context" is that "defining the resolution on a word-by-word basis would yield a nonsensical proposition." Yet Browning vastly overstates his argument. A word-by-word definition may be nonsensical, as the author aptly demonstrates. But this does not mean that such a definition would (necessarily) be nonsensical. This stronger claim is essential to Browning's position, but he falls far short of providing a warrant for it. Almost anyone could define the terms of a proposition on a word-by-word basis and yield not only a sensible result, but one that would comport with any "reasonable" interpretation of the resolution that Professor Browning--or any other judge--might wish to accept. Simply put, the author fails to demonstrate that word-by-word definitions are innately unsatisfactory or nonsensical. He simply proves, through his example of reductio ad absurdum, that he who invents bizarre interpretations of debate resolutions is likely to be hoisted on his own petard. This posture clearly justifies the intrinsic critic's standard, since a debate affords a negative team the opportunity to do precisely that. And, if the negative should fail, can the judge reasonably maintain that this team has "done the better debating?"

Professor Browning's third "philosophical explanation," an appeal to authority, is decidedly vague. Both of the authorities that he proffers argue for contextual definitions without defining what a contextual definition is. Apparently the emphasis is upon explanations that "make sense." The criteria of sensibility re other terms in a resolution may be offered at least as effectively by the participants as by the judge. If a negative team fails to demonstrate that an apparently non-sensible term is actually non-sensible in context, can the judge rationally claim that this team should win because it has "done the better debating?"

Professor Browning's "second position" is that "multiple word sic terms may be intrinsically a single term sic and must be defined as such." Yet to defend this position he must demonstrate that, in every instance, (a) the multiple-word term can be defined as a multiple-word term, and (b) the definition acquired thereby is always clearly superior to any definition by the coupling of single words. Clearly, Browning does not meet these rigid requirements; in fact, at the close of his

explication he contends that "'land use' is more appropriately defined as a phrase," a considerable retreat from his initial, emphatic position. Yet he offers no justification for even this diluted version. Why is it "more appropriate" to use a definition of "land use" than to cojoin a definition of "land" and a definition of "use?" Browning's appeal to authority is unenlightening, for the authorities are equally conclusionary. Furthermore, even if his claim (in either its weaker or stronger form) where true, its acceptance is no justification for defining terms within the contest of a resolution: one could define "land use" as a multiple-word term and yet do so outside of the context of the residual terms in the resolution. Finally, even if the definition of multiple-word terms were demonstrably more practical and more incisive than definition by single words, is it too much to expect of debaters that they themselves present and definitions--and their reasons for acceptance--in the round?

The third "position" explicated in the article is that "definitions must be so utilized as to further the debate." Browning contends that definitions which permit the affirmative to "win by default" or the negative to fail to "anticipate the case" fatally weaken "the basis of academic debate." But to accept only those cases that are readily apparent to anyone who stumbles upon the resolution, is to reduce case construction to the lowest common denominator of imagination. I distinctly recall listening to a debate at an early tournament in the fall of 1974, in which a negative team submitted Browning's claim as its only line of defense. The topic called for curtailment of the power of the Presidency; the negative team contended that, since neither member has anticipated that an affirmative team would argue for the restriction of the President's power to use military force abroad, they were unprepared and should receive the decision. Of course the "war powers" case was probably the most popular interpretation of the 1974-75 intercollegiate debate resolution. This team mearly carried the "failure to anticipate" argument to its logical(?) conclusion. One question is, where does the advocate or the judge draw the line between cases which are reasonably anticipated and those which are not? Also, does a negative team forego the right to offer topicality objections when it admits, through the presentation of other arguments, that it has in fact anticipated the interpretation at hand? The criterion of "furthering debate" is tautological; it provides us with nothing to apply to determine the acceptability of interpretations that fall in the "gray area" of topicality analysis, save personal biases.

My "second negative constructive" will be brief. Since Browning does not commit himself to a source of "reasonable definitions," I see no need to assail them all. Their origins are many, however. Some find reasonableness only in themselves,

while others posit the existence of a "reasonable man," or extol the virtues of the "man on the street." Still others unveil innate rationality in the opinions of the majority of people, or debate judges, or debaters, or liberals, etc. Yet others bestow the right of definition upon one source (Black's Law Dictionary, perhaps), or on a group of sources (debate handbooks). And others sense the "rightness"of the terms in their incestuous relationship with the "spirit of the resolution," whose guiding hand imparts to the faithful the true meanings of words that appear in debate resolutions. If we adopt Professor Browning's position we will not suffer from a shortage of eager volunteers for the noble duty of interpreting our debate topics.

Because Browning fails to designate or defend an infallible source for definitions, we will inherit a travesty of rationality. The judge will be master, and woe to the team that fails to predict the definitions he deems acceptable. This may sound preposterous, so I offer an example. While coaching in the East I know a forensics director who voted against any case he had not anticipated hearing on a given topic. And I, too, must sadly admit that I remember voting against a case in my first year as a judge on the ground that to admit its kind to the confines of the resolution would destroy academic debate, when the arguments presented against its acceptance demonstrated nothing of the sort. Oh, what a Hydra we design, when first we practice to define!

But in the final analysis, even if everything Professor Browning suggests were true and right and crystal-clear to each of us, why would we wish to impose the standards upon debaters? If the criteria for discriminating between topical and extra-topical affirmative cases are accessible, why would we desire to wrench these criteria from the mounths of the debaters themselves and impose them, in deus-ex-machina fashion, upon the forensics world. Should we not, rather, expect the debaters themselves to impose these criteria upon us and upon each other, so that they may comprehend why a given interpretation of a term is "unreasonable?"

If position, we would still do wrong, in my opinion, to apply them from their extrinsic source. Suppose an affirmative team presents a definition of terms which is "unreasonable" by these criteria, and the negative failed to prove that the definition is unreasonable? The judge with extrinsic standards would apply the standards and vote negative, thereby voting for the team that met the criteria, not for the team that did "the better debating." In the above case the judge with intrinsic standards would vote affirmative, thereby giving the "win" to the team that did the better debating. The reason for decision

would specify the arguments the negative must present to win by the criteria. Thus the goal of educational advancement in debate would be enhanced, because a proponent would be required to introduce and justify his position before he could win a debate on the topicality issue. Browning's posture retards the learning environment because it confers "right" decisions on debate teams that do not present the winning arguments in the debate, and whose members in fact might be incapable of understanding them if they were told about them.

Finally, if we are to set extrinsic standards for topicality, why not also for significance or inherency or disadvantages or any and every other issue in a debate? To invite one issue to be resolved by resort to extrinsic standards is to open the door to the resolution of all issues in a similar fashion. In this way the teams need never debate at all. However, we should not let the patent absurdity of this argument obscure the real question: why do we isolate the topicality issue for submission to extrinsic standards? I suggest the following answer: to vote on topicality makes us uncomfortable. We dislike voting for teams with esoteric cases. However, we often feel compelled to do so because most topicality objections are poorly conceived and presented. But this assessment of "the state of the art" should be perceived as an invitation to develop better analysis, rather than as an excuse to restrict the sphere of permissible interpretations of the resolution. The latter choice is, in the final analysis, a confession of failure.

It has been a policy to periodically publish a copy of the ACTA constitution and a directory of the members. This Fall issue contains the constitution and the directory will be sent to the membership under separate cover after the Fall Conference and included in the Spring issue.

THE ARIZONA COMMUNICATION AND THEATRE ASSOCIATION

CONSTITUTION and BY-LAWS

MAY, 1975

ARTICLE I - NAME

The name of this organization shall be: The Arizona Communication and Theatre Association.

ARTICLE II - PURPOSE

Section 1. The purpose of this organization shall be to unite these persons of the State of Arizona with an academic or professional interest in the field of speech and drama for the promotion of their mutual interests and the advancement of their common field.

Section 2. The purposes of this organization shall be exclusively educational within the intendment of section 501 C3 of the United States Internal Revenue Code operating as a non-profit-making organization under the laws of the State of Arizona.

ARTICLE III - MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. There shall be two classes of membership: Regular and Associate.

Section 2. Regular membership shall be available to any person interested in the purpose of this organization, upon payment of the current annual dues. Regular members shall have voting privileges, shall be eligible to hold office, shall receive an annual subscription to the official organ of the Association, and shall exercise the other privileges currently accruing to regular members.

Section 3. Associate membership shall be available to college and university undergraduate students upon payment of one-half of the dues for regular membership. Associate members shall exercise all the privileges of regular members except those of voting and holding office.

ARTICLE IV - OFFICERS

Section 1. The regular officers of this Association shall be: President, Vice-President, Vice-President-Elect, Secretary-Treasurer, Editor, Historian.

Section 2. All officers must be regular members of the Association.

Section 3. No person shall hold more than one regular office at the same time.

Section 4. The terms of office shall be one year.

Section 5. Duties of regular officers:

A. The President shall be the chief executive officer of the Association. It shall be his duty to preside at all the general and business meetings of the Association and of the Executive Council, or any of its committees; to appoint, at the direction of the Executive Council, all members of committees except those specified to be elected; and to promote the interests of the Association in all ways. The President may appoint special advisors, assistants, and special interest area chairmen subject to Executive Council approval. He shall represent the Association officially in other meetings where such representation has not otherwise been specifically provided.

B. The Vice-President shall assume the duties of the present in the latter's absence, or at the latter's request. He shall serve as chief liaison officer of the Association with AIA, WSA, ACA, ATA, ARSHA, ICA and AISL. He shall be responsible for the programs at the Association's conference.

C. The Vice-President-Elect shall serve for one year as an intern to succeed to the Vice-Presidency. Specific duties shall not be spelled out in this constitution; however, he shall serve as an assistant to the Vice-President who in turn may wish to request specific responsibilities from the Vice-President-Elect.

D. The Secretary-Treasurer shall record and file the regular minutes of all official meetings of the Association and of the Executive Council. He shall receive and file copies of reports of officers and committee chairmen. He shall handle all correspondence necessary to the proper performance of his official duties. He shall serve as Chairman of the Committee on Membership, and in this capacity shall receive application for membership, keep a record of action taken, maintain a current membership list and, in cooperation with the Editor, circulate a Directory containing a copy of the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association and a list of the officers and their terms of office to the Membership as early as possible in the fall.

E. The Secretary-Treasurer shall serve as Chairman of the Committee on Budget. He shall be entrusted with the collection and safe-keeping of lawful funds of the Association, subject to the expressed wishes of the members of the Association in their official meetings. He shall be the only official authorized to draw money from Association funds and to make expenditures, and his accounts may be subject to annual audit by an auditing committee appointed by the President and approved by the Executive Council. All routine expenditures as

outlined in the budget by the Committee on Budget shall be made by him. Unusual expenditures will be referred to that Committee for action. He shall be business manager of all Association publications and manage all business matters.

F. The Editor shall be Chairman of the Committee on Publication. He shall be responsible for all regular publications of the Association; all other publications of the Association shall be subject to his general supervision.

G. Historian. The Executive Council shall appoint an interested person from the general membership to serve as Historian for a one-year term. He shall be eligible for reappointment and shall be a regular member of the Executive Council. He shall maintain archives and collect material for the same.

Section 6. Any regular member, who has given consent, may be nominated for any office open for nomination. Nominations for office shall be made by a nomination committee which shall be appointed at the time of the fall meeting by the President. The names of the nominees presented by the nominating committee shall be published in the spring issue of the newsletter or bulletin of the Association. Nominations may also be made from the floor by any regular member. Election of officers shall take place at the spring conference and shall be by majority vote of those regular members present and voting. The term of office shall commence immediately after the adjournment of the spring meeting. In case any office becomes vacant before expiration of its term, the Executive Council is empowered to fill such vacancy unless other provision is made in this Constitution.

Section 7. Among the regular offices, only the office of Vice-President-Elect, Secretary-Treasurer and Editor shall be filled by election unless more than one vacancy occurs in a given term; the retiring Vice-President shall succeed to the Presidency and the Vice-President-Elect shall succeed to the Vice-Presidency. In case a vacancy should occur, the above order of succession shall apply and the Executive Council shall appoint a temporary Vice-President-Elect. The President, Vice-President, and Vice-President-Elect shall not be eligible to succeed and Vice-President-Elect shall not be eligible to succeed themselves. Candidates for the office of Vice-President-Elect shall be chosen alternately from secondary schools and colleges.

Section 8. In addition to the regular officers of the Association, there shall also be a number of program co-chairmen, the exact number of interest areas to be determined annually by the Executive Council with due consideration for the current program needs of the various subject-matter interests, academic levels, and geographic areas represented by the Association. The interest area program co-chairman, shall be nominated and elected in the same manner that the regular officers are nominated and elected. All program chairmen are to be elected for a two year term of office with one new chair-

man in each area being elected each year. The alternating terms shall begin with spring, 1972, elections whereby one of the co-chairmen for each interest area shall be elected to a one-year term while the other shall be elected to a two-year term, one-half of each being from secondary schools and the others one-half being from colleges.

Section 9. A Parliamentarian shall be appointed by the President and approved by the Executive Council. He shall serve as advisor to the President, the Executive Council and the Association. He shall serve as chairman of the Constitution Revisions Committee and shall be a member of the Executive Council.

Section 10. It shall be the duty of the area program co-chairmen to plan (in cooperation with the Vice-President) all meetings sponsored by the Association.

Section 11. Any officer may be removed from office by a three-fourths vote of the Executive Council and three-fourths vote of the members present and voting at a regular meeting of the Association, provided the action is initiated by the signed petition of at least ten regular members and the general membership shall be notified of the planned action at least thirty days in advance of the meeting.

ARTICLE V - EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Section 1. The Executive Council of the Association shall consist of the regular officers, the immediate past-president, program co-chairmen, the historian, at least one person presently serving on the A.I.A. Speech and Drama Advisory Committee, and chairmen of all standing committees and departments.

Section 2. Regular meetings of the Executive Council shall be held twice a year, with at least one of the regular meetings coinciding with the Spring Conference. Special meetings may be called by the President at other times when necessary. When it is impossible to gather a majority of the Council members for a special meeting, business may be conducted by mail ballot. A quorum shall consist of at least four of the members of the Council.

Section 3. The Executive Council shall exericse general management of the affairs of the Association, shall be the financial and business instrument of the Association, and, as such, shall review and approve the annual budget. It is the body to which all officers and committees of the Association report and are immediately responsible. In general, its duties shall be executive, and it is empowered to perform all such duties as are set forth elsewhere in the Constitution and By-Laws. Its action in such matters shall be reported to the membership at the spring conference. Where specified elsewhere in the

Constitution and the By-Laws, certain matters of business shall be referred to the membership for action, either at the spring conference or by mail ballot.

ARTICLE VI - COMMITTEES AND DIVISIONS

Section 1. The Executive Council shall establish such standing and special committees as are in the continuing interests of the Executive Council. The tenure of appointed committees and committee chairmen shall coincide with that of the President and may be subject to reappointment.

Section 2. The establishment of Divisions shall be by majority vote of the members present and voting at the fall or spring conference, provided that the general membership has been notified of the planned action at least thirty days in advance of the meeting.

Section 3. The Committee of Nominations shall prepare nominations for all Officers and Program Co-Chairmen to be elected at the spring conference, and submit these nominations to the Executive Council for approval or revision and recommendation to the membership.

Section 4. The committee on Budget shall consist of the President, the Editor, the Secretary, and Treasurer who shall serve as chairman. The Committee shall be responsible for the preparation of the Association budget, to be submitted to the Executive Council at the beginning of each fiscal year, and shall act upon all exceptional expenditures not otherwise authorized.

Section 5. The Secretary shall be chairman of the Committee on Membership. The Committee shall process applications of members and exercise general supervision over matters relating to membership.

Section 6. The Committee on Publications shall consist of the President, the Secretary, and the Editor, who shall be chairman, and such other appointive members as deemed advisable. The Committee shall direct all official Association publications. It shall submit all publications, budgets and requests for funds to the Committee on Budget for approval.

ARTICLE VII - CONFERENCES

Section 1. There shall be a spring conference of the Association, at which time the officers shall be elected. The time and place of such conference shall be determined by the Executive Council.

Section 2. There shall be a fall conference, the time and place determined by the Executive Council.

Section 3. Additional conferences may be called at the discretion of the Executive Council.

ARTICLE VIII - FINANCE

Section 1. The fiscal year of this Association shall end on August thirty-first.

Section 2. The annual membership dues shall be recommended by the Executive Council and increases of more than one dollar over the preceeding year must be approved by the membership. The dues shall cover membership for one fiscal year.

Section 3. Special conference reguistration fees may be established by the Executive Council.

ARTICLE IX - PUBLICATIONS

Section 1. The Association shall issue publications to the membership at least twice a year.

Section 2. A Directory of the Association membership containing names, addresses, and positions shall be distributed each fall by the Editor, who shall be aided by the Secretary. The Directory shall contain a copy of the Constitution and By-Laws and a list of officers and their terms of office.

ARTICLE X - AMENDMENTS

Section 1. This Constitution may be amended at any business meeting of the Association by a two-thirds vote of the members present and voting at the meeting, provided that notice of such amendment by granted the membership at least thirty days in advance of the meeting.

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I - QUORUM

At least 20% of the total members present at any conference or special meeting shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE II - AMENDMENTS

These By-Laws may be amended at any business meeting of the Association by a majority of voting members present at the meeting, provided notice of the proposed amendment has been circulated to the membership at least thirty days in advance of the meeting.

ARTICLE III - PARLIAMENTARY AUTHORITY

Unless stipulated otherwise, Robert's Rules of Order, Newly Revised, shall be followed in conducting the business of the Association.

Northern Arizona University
Speech and Theatre Department

OFFERS

* A UNIQUELY INTEGRATED COMMUNICATION PROGRAM WITH EMPHASIS IN:

Personal and Public Communication
Telecommunications
Speech Pathology-Audiology
Speech Education
Theatre

* TWO FIVE-WEEK SUMMER SCHOOL SESSIONS FOR 1977. SPECIAL FEATURES SCHEDULED

-SPT 558 --Speech Correction for the Classroom Teacher
-SPT 338w--Summer Theatre Production
-SPT 602w--Practicum: Theatre
(Students participate in organized theatre in conjunction with the Flagstaff Summer Festival. Two productions--one with a professional guest star, one which will tour.)
-SPT 642 --Directing Activities in the Secondary School
(offered June 13-July 1 in conjunction with the High School Workshop)

* 8TH ANNUAL HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH-THEATRE WORKSHOP, JUNE 19-JULY 2

-Debate - Theatre - Oral Interpretation-

For further information contact: Robert S. Stevens, Box 6006
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