

Speaker & Gavel

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Because I Said So

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Jayne R. Henson

William L. Benoit

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Among Christians in France and Britain**

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Michael Dreher

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S&G went to an entire online format with volume 41/2004 of the journal. The journal will be available online at: www.dsr-tka.org/ The layout and design of the journal will *not* change in the online format. The journal will be available online as a pdf document. We hope enjoy and utilize the new format.

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Because I Said So A Functional Theory Analysis of Evidence in Political TV Spots

Jayne R. Henson
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Abstract

This study examines presidential general election television advertising (1952-2004), primary advertising (1952-2008), and non-presidential advertising from 2002 (gubernatorial, U.S. Senate, U.S. House) to understand the use of evidence (statements for which sources are provided) in such campaign messages. 8% of the themes in these spots were supported by evidence (that is, identified a source for a claim). However, the longitudinal presidential data suggests that evidence in advertising was rare until the 1990s, when Bill Clinton in particular employed a great deal of evidence in his spots. Although the appeals across all ads were mainly positive (70% of the themes in these ads were acclaims), evidence disproportionately supported attacks (65% of the utterances with evidence were attacks). No consistent topic evidence emerged for use of evidence in these ads (a tendency to use evidence to support policy in general presidential ads, and to support character in senate ads). Candidates in this sample used newspapers most frequently as sources of evidence, followed by governmental reports and statements from one's opponent, voting record, and other sources.

Key Terms: political campaigns, television spots, evidence, presidential, Senate, House, gubernatorial, functions, topics

Introduction

Television advertising in political campaigns is the most prominent medium of communication between the candidate and the voter (Kaid, 2004, p. 157). One reason why scholars focus on advertising is the sheer amount of money spent on campaigns (Benoit, 2007), which allows for the creation of multiple ads which are aired repeatedly. Advertisements are also scripted, so politicians have the opportunity to frame their messages to audiences. Political ads are also relatively short and require little effort on the part of the audience in order to pay attention.

Researchers have investigated several aspects of television advertising. For example, they have studied the types of news coverage of political ads and effects on voter opinions (Min, 2002), political ads and learning (Zhao & Chaffee, 1995), and political ads and agenda-setting effects (Benoit, Leshner, & Chattopadhyay, 2007). The influence of positive and negative advertising is one of the largest areas of research into political advertising (Allen & Burrell, 2002; Ansolabere & Iyengar, 1994; Ansolabere & Iyengar, 1999; Lau, Sigelman, Held-

man, & Babbitt, 1999; Lau, Sigelman, & Rovner, 2007). One aspect which has been relatively overlooked has been the use of evidence in televised political advertising.

Evidence usage in messages increases credibility of the message and the source (O'Keefe, 1998). Very few studies on political campaigns and evidence usage have been conducted. Researchers have used content analysis to examine the types of statements evidence is used to support in television advertisements (Geer, 2006) and the amount of evidence usage and likelihood of the vote intention in debates (Levasseur & Dean, 1996). More extensive research is needed to determine trends in evidence usage over time and by level of office. This study reports a content analysis of evidence in presidential and non-presidential political advertisements. The following sections will describe literature on political ads and the importance of evidence usage, the theoretical framework for the study, the method, report results, and discuss the implications of findings.

Literature Review

Several researchers investigate political TV spots; for example, books on this topic include Ansolabehere and Iyengar (1995), Benoit (1999), Biocca (1991a, 1991b), Diamond and Bates (1993), Jamieson (1996) Johnson-Cartee and Copeland (1991, 1997), Kaid and Johnston (2001), Kern (1989), Nelson and Boynton (1997), Schultz (2004), Thurber, Nelson, and Dulio (2000), and West (2001); see also Kaid (2004) and Loudon (2007). Researchers have investigated the functions and topics of presidential advertising (e.g., Benoit, 1999; Kaid & Johnston, 2001) as well as non-presidential advertising (e.g., Airne & Benoit, 2005; Brazeal & Benoit, 2006). Issue ownership (Petrocik, 1996) patterns in presidential (Petrocik, Benoit, & Hansen, 2003-2004) and non-presidential (Benoit & Airne, 2005) TV spots have also received scholarly attention. Kaid and Johnston (2001) have analyzed visual aspects of political ads. Nelson and Boynton (1997) analyze image and music in political spots.

Within political advertising research, one variable that is frequently measured is perceived credibility (Hellweg, King, & Williams, 1988). Researchers have found that higher perceived credibility of a candidate positively predicts vote intention (Yoon, Pinkleton, & Yo, 2005). Moreover, higher perceived credibility is significantly related to believability (Teven, 2008). In order for advertisements to be effective, citizens must believe that the statements that are made are, at least, somewhat truthful. To increase the effectiveness of political messages, candidates may choose to use evidence to support the claims they make in advertisements. The study of evidence in argumentation has a long history. O'Keefe (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of the effects of evidence in persuasive messages: Evidence increased both credibility of the source and persuasiveness of the message. Thus, inclusion of evidence in persuasive messages significantly increases the effectiveness of those messages, and it enhances the perceived credibility of the source.

However, researchers continue to debate the definition of "evidence." Comparisons between studies that have utilized different definitions have found vary-

ing results for the influence of evidence (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). Geer (2006) examined the use of information (statistics, statements with references, and quotations) in presidential advertising, reporting that information was used more often to support attacks than acclaims, and policy rather than character. Levasseur and Dean (1996) analyze evidence in nine of the presidential debates from 1960-1988. They used McCroskey's (1967) definition of evidence. McCroskey distinguishes factual information (which can include descriptive statements, concrete examples, and statistics) from *evidence*, which he defines as statements for which sources are provided (cf. McCroskey, 1967). But due to the limitations of the debate format, Levasseur and Dean (1996) included candidate statements that were specific and verifiable. These researchers found a negative correlation between use of evidence and persuasiveness and no correlation between type of evidence usage and persuasiveness. However, Reinard's (1998) research grouped studies based on operationalizations of evidence and his meta-analysis "showed an average effect size for testimonial assertion evidence effects on attitude of an r ranging from .234 to .258. These results appeared to be consistent main effects" (p. 83; see also Reinard, 1988 for a review of the literature). Therefore, when researchers account for differences in definitions of evidence, significant effects can be demonstrated. As the previous study illustrates, testimonial evidence, the type used in this investigation, has been shown to have a significant effect on attitude (Reinard, 1998).

Politicians in electoral contests want to appear credible. Given the potential to impact credibility, politicians may choose to include evidence to further chances of election victory. This study concerns the use of evidence in political advertisements. Specifically, we investigate the types of sources that are used to support candidate claims, what types of claims are most often supported, and the frequency of sources used. The next section will provide a theoretical framework for this study and propose research questions.

Theoretical Framework

The Functional Theory of Campaign Discourse (Benoit, 1999; 2007) stipulates that in order to win elections, candidates seek to appear preferable to other candidates. Functional theory posits three types of messages that candidates use to appear preferable: acclaims, attacks, and defenses. Acclaims are positive statements made to highlight the qualities or good deeds of candidates. Attacks point out the weakness of opponents. For this reason, candidates only make acclaiming statements about themselves and only attack their opponents or the opponent's party. Citizens generally report that they dislike "mudslinging" (Merritt, 1984; Stewart, 1975), so attacks are generally the second most common function. Defenses are statements that refute an attack made by another candidate. Defenses are least common for three reasons. First, candidates must repeat an attack made by opponent; this might reinforce the weakness of the opponent in the minds of voters. Researchers have found that negative information is more salient (Bradley, Angelini, & Lee, 2007), and refutational statements are only marginally effective (Weaver-Lariscy & Tickham, 1999). Second, defenses may take the candidate off message. Finally, voters may perceive that a candidate is

being reactive, rather than proactive. Research has established that presidential and non-presidential candidates tend to use significantly more acclaims than attacks, and that defenses are the least common function (Benoit, 2007).

Functional Theory further posits that candidates discuss two topics in their campaign messages: policy and character. Policy means governmental action, often called issues in the literature. Character, sometimes referred to as image, describes the candidates' personal qualities, leadership ability, and ideals. Some studies have argued that there is little difference in the use of character and policy statements (Payne & Baukus, 1988); however, the vast majority of research suggests that candidates focus on policy more than character (Airne & Benoit, 2005; Benoit, 2007; Cooper & Knotts, 2004). Benoit (2003) argues that presidential candidates discuss policy more than character because voters consistently state that policy is more influential in their vote decisions; he also reports that presidential candidates who win elections tend to address policy more, and character less, than losers. Candidates may be aware of the potential persuasiveness of evidence noted earlier and so they may include evidence in their campaign messages in hopes of increasing the effectiveness of their messages. However, we do not know much about the use of evidence to support functions and topics of political campaign discourse.

This exploratory study investigates the use of evidence in televised political campaign advertisements. We ask the following four questions regarding the use of evidence:

RQ1: What percentage of ad themes contained supporting evidence?

RQ2: What functions are supported with evidence?

RQ3: What topics are supported with evidence?

RQ4: What types of sources were used most frequently for supporting evidence?

Method

This study utilized the Functional Theory of Campaign Discourse to content analyze general election television advertisements from presidential candidates (primary, 1952-2008; general, 1952-2004) and non-presidential political ads (gubernatorial and congressional) in the 2002 Midterm Elections – adding analysis of evidence to the typical Functional method.

Sample

Television advertisements from congressional candidates in the 2002 mid-term elections, and from presidential candidates 1952-2008, comprised the sample. Because no repository has the population of television spots, a convenience sample was employed. The sample of 1057 general election presidential TV spots is described in Benoit (1999) and Benoit et al. (2003, 2007). The presidential primary TV spot sample from 1952-2004 is described in Benoit (1999; Benoit et al. 2003, 2007) and includes 269 presidential primary spots from the 2008 campaign through May 2008, a total of 1436 ads. Texts of non-presidential

television spots were obtained from the *National Journal* webpage (www.NationalJournal.com). Furthermore, television ads in Arizona, Illinois, Missouri, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio and C-SPAN were video-taped from television programming and transcribed.¹ This yielded a sample of 492 gubernatorial, 174 U.S. House, and 85 U.S. Senate ads from the 2002 elections – for a total of 3244 political TV spots.

Procedure

Coding required four steps. First, the spots were analyzed using the procedures developed for Functional Theory (Benoit, 2007). Ads were unitized into themes, which is roughly synonymous with claim, utterance, argument, or statement (themes can be part of a sentence or multiple sentences). Second, each theme were categorized by function: acclaim, attack, or defense. Acclaims are positive statements about the candidate, attacks are criticisms of an opponent, and defenses are refutations of an opponent's attack. Third, themes were coded for topic, either policy or character. Finally, themes with evidence were identified and the source of evidence was recorded (newspaper/tv news, governmental report, opponent, voting record, and other). Evidence consisted of direct quotations or paraphrases and may or may not include statistics (notice that, unlike Geer, we considered identification of a source to be a defining characteristic of evidence, so statistics provided without a source were *not* considered evidence in this study). Intercoder reliability was calculated using Cohen's (1960) κ , which corrects for agreement by chance. Approximately 10% of texts were used for calculation. The *kappa* for function was .95, .74 for topic, and .97 for source. Landis and Koch (1977) explain that κ values of 0.81-1.00 represent "almost perfect" agreement among coders. Coding procedures produce frequency data, so *chi-square* was used for statistical analysis.

Results

The first research question asked what percentage of TV spot themes employed evidence. Overall, 8% of the themes in this sample were supported by evidence (as defined here, cited a source). For instance, Bob Riley was a candidate for Alabama governor in 2002. One of his ads argued that "Since Don Siegelman was elected, he's given them [his friends and big campaign contributors] over \$900 million of our tax money in thousands of sweetheart deals and no-bid contracts (headline on screen: 'Millions awarded in no-bid state contracts' – *Birmingham News*)." This utterance offers a newspaper headline to support its claim. Another example of the use of evidence in a political ad occurred in Jimmie Lou Fisher's spot: "Huckabee even put a 'bed tax' on our nursing home patients" (Source: Act 635, House Bill 1274, March 9, 2001)." Fisher employed his opponent's voting record as evidence for this attack. So, evidence was presented for 8% of the themes in this sample of political television spots (this figure derived from Table 1).

Table 1. Function of Themes in Political TV Spots

	Acclaims	Attacks	Defenses	Total
Presidential General (1952-2004)				
No Evidence	3372 (64%)	1920 (37%)	60 (1%)	5352
Evidence	90 (17%)	414 (80%)	11 (2%)	515
Total	3462 (59%)	2334 (40%)	71 (1%)	5867
Presidential Primary (1952-2008)				
No Evidence	5235 (74%)	1770 (25%)	56 (1%)	7061
Evidence	148 (65%)	80 (35%)	0	228
Total	5383 (74%)	1850 (25%)	56 (1%)	7289
Gubernatorial				
No Evidence	1960 (79%)	522 (21%)	6 (0.2%)	2488
Evidence	135 (35%)	243 (64%)	4 (1%)	382
Total	2095 (73%)	765 (27%)	10 (0.3%)	2870
U.S. Senate				
No Evidence	821 (91%)	81 (9%)	0	902
Evidence	62 (40%)	89 (60%)	2 (.01)	153
Total	883 (83%)	170 (17%)	(%)	1053
U.S. House				
No Evidence	688 (87%)	102 (13%)	0	790
Evidence	34 (26%)	93 (72%)	2 (2%)	131
Total	722 (79%)	195 (21%)	2 (0.2%)	919

Evidence versus no evidence, acclaims versus attacks: Presidential general χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 402.39, $p < .0001$, $\phi = .26$; Presidential primary χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 11.19, $p < .001$, $\phi = .04$; Gubernatorial χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 313.24, $p < .0001$, $\phi = .33$; U.S. Senate χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 234.8, $p < .0001$, $\phi = .46$; U.S. House χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 237.74, $p < .0001$, $\phi = .51$.

Research question two concerned the functions supported by evidence. Political television ads were mainly positive (70% of the total themes were acclaims). However, the themes which were supported with source citations were mainly negative: 65% of the themes supported with evidence were attacks. An illustration of an acclaim based on evidence occurred in Rod Blagojevich's campaign for Illinois governor: "In congress, he's protected Medicare [on screen: Source: House Vote #2362, 6/29/00, HR 4657, 10/10/98]." This statement used his voting record as support for his acclaim. In the Iowa gubernatorial campaign, Tom Vilsack argued that "Steve Sukup says [Doug] Gross has shown

a consistent pattern of blurring the truth [on screen: Steve Sukup: Gross has shown a ‘consistent pattern of blurring the truth’ – *Cedar Rapids Gazette*, 5/15/02].” This ad used a quotation from a newspaper to support this criticism. Janet Napolitano provided evidence to support her use of defense as she denied an attack in the Arizona governor’s contest: “The *Arizona Republic* calls Matt Salmon’s attack on Janet Napolitano on taxes not true [on screen: the *Arizona Republic*: Ad unfair to Napolitano pro-Salmon assertions stretch and distort the truth].” This quotation refutes the attack from her opponent. Overall, there was a significant difference between the function of statements supported by evidence with statements without evidence (defenses excluded): $\chi^2 [1, n = 17858] = 956.9, p < .0001, \phi = .23$.

The third research question concerned topic of utterances which employed evidence. Here, no pattern emerged: Themes in general presidential ads with evidence were more likely to concern policy than character; themes with evidence in senate ads were more likely to be about character than policy, and there was no difference in topic between themes with evidence and without evidence in presidential primary spots, gubernatorial spots, or U.S. House spots. In the Georgia gubernatorial race, for instance, Roy Barnes argued that “Roy Barnes used George Bush’s Texas education reform plan as a model in Georgia for higher standards and accountability [headline on screen: ‘Bush backs Barnes’s education plan,’ May 9, 2000, Cox Newspapers].” An education reform plan clearly illustrates discussion of policy. In contrast, an example of evidence used to support character came in an ad from Bill McBride in the 2002 Florida governor’s race: “The *Palm Beach Post* praised his character [on screen: ‘character,’ *Palm Beach Post*].” A *chi-square* reveals no significant difference in topic: $\chi^2 [1, n = 17858] = 0.27, ns$; these data are derived from Table 2). Given the sample size, this test is very powerful: The power of a *chi-square* with $df = 1$ and $n = 1000$ to detect small, medium, and large effects is .82, .99 .99 respectively (Cohen, 1988).

Table 2. Topics of Themes in Political TV Spot

	Policy	Character
Presidential General 1952-2004		
No Evidence	3251 (61%)	2041 (39%)
Evidence	339 (67%)	165 (33%)
Total	3590 (62%)	2206 (38%)
Presidential Primary 1952-2008		
No Evidence	3839 (55%)	3166 (45%)
Evidence	135 (59%)	93 (41%)
Total	3974 (55%)	3259 (45%)
Gubernatorial		
No Evidence	1416 (57%)	1066 (43%)

Evidence	204 (54%)	174 (46%)
Total	1620 (57%)	1240 (43%)
U.S. Senate		
No Evidence	680 (75%)	220 (25%)
Evidence	80 (52%)	73 (48%)
Total	760 (72%)	293 (18%)
U.S. House		
No Evidence	399 (51%)	391 (49%)
Evidence	61 (48%)	66 (52%)
Total	460 (50%)	457 (50%)

Evidence versus no evidence, policy versus character: Presidential general χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 6.62, $p < .05$, $\phi = .03$; Presidential primary χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 1.73, *ns*; Gubernatorial χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 1.27, *ns*; U.S. Senate χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 35.25, $p < .0001$, $\phi = .18$; U.S. House χ^2 ($df = 1$) = 0.27, *ns*.

Finally, the fourth research question investigated the type of evidence employed by these politicians. Overall, 61% of the themes supported by evidence were from newspapers, 11% from government reports and from opponents, 9% from voting records, and 8% from other sources. A *chi-square goodness of fit* test confirms that these categories did not occur with the same frequency in these data (χ^2 [$df = 4$, $n = 1324$] = 1382.08, $p < .0001$). For instance, Jill Long Thompson, running for Congress, told viewers that “Jill voted no to all new taxes [on screen: *Washington Times*, 11/12/90].” This shows how newspapers can be the source of evidence employed in TV spots. Tim Carden attacked his opponent for campaign contributions and votes:

Ferguson took hundreds of thousands from drug and insurance companies, then he opposed real prescription drug reform and a patient’s bill of rights [on screen: Congressman Ferguson took \$140,000 from drug companies, \$110,000 from insurance companies – FEC Reports; Congressman Ferguson voted “NO” prescription drug coverage – HR 4954, vote #281, 6/28/02; Congressman Ferguson voted “NO” patients bill of rights – HR 2563, vote #331, 8/2/01].

This illustrates evidence from government reports (FEC) and voting records. Mark Shriver’s congressional campaign used evidence from an “other” source: “Elect a proven fighter for people [on screen: ‘a proven fighter for people’ – AFL-CIO].” Scott Garrett, running for the House in 2002, said that “Anne Summers’ plan, raise the retirement age, make people work longer, and change benefits for retirees. Anne Summers: ‘We need to talk about raising age, changing benefits’ [Anne Summers, 10/1/02 AARP debate].” This claim employed a statement from the opponent to attack that opponent.

Table 3. Sources of Evidence in Political TV Spots

	Newspaper	Government Report	Opponent	Voting Record	Other
President Gen.	259 (50%)	91 (18%)	90 (17%)	44 (9%)	31 (6%)
President Pri.	158 (69%)	7 (3%)	24 (10%)	9 (4%)	31 (14%)
Gubernatorial	282 (74%)	27 (7%)	16 (4%)	29 (8%)	28 (7%)
U.S. Senate	38 (57%)	11 (16%)	9 (13%)	4 (6%)	5 (6%)
U.S. House	68 (52%)	12 (9%)	7 (5%)	29 (22%)	15 (11%)
Total	805 (61%)	148 (11%)	146 (11%)	115 (9%)	110 (8%)

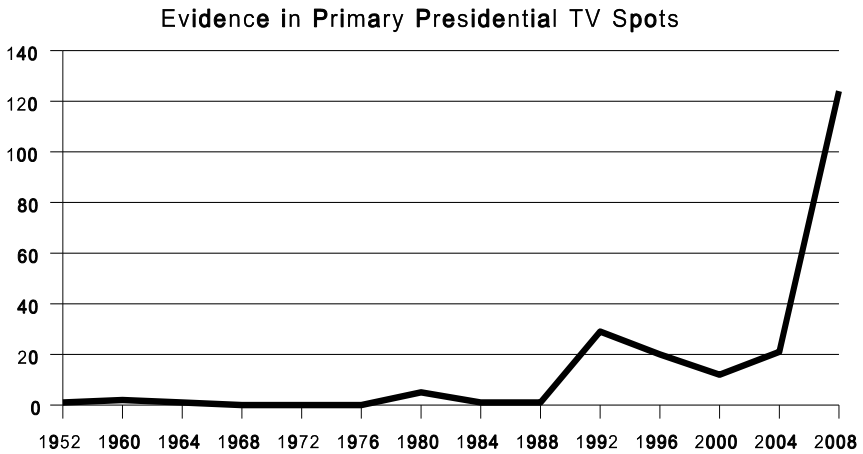
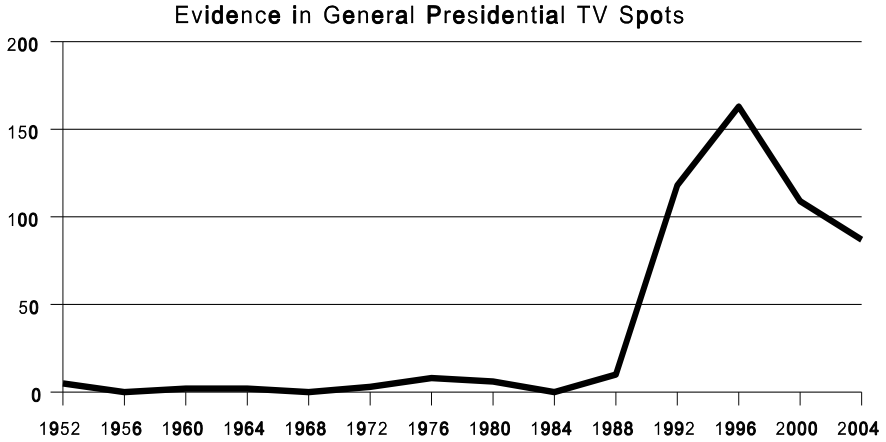
Discussion

We now have data about the use of evidence in American political television spots. 8% of the themes in these political ads were supported by some form of evidence (that is, provided a source for the claim). However, Figure 1 makes it clear that evidence was only an occasional component of presidential TV advertisements until 1992 – and most of the evidence ads in 1992 and 1996 were from one candidate, Bill Clinton. In general ads, Clinton had 117 instances of evidence in 1992 (his opponent, the first President Bush, used 1) and 134 instances of evidence in 1996 (his opponent, Bob Dole, used 29); in primary ads, Clinton had 20 instances of evidence in 1992 compared with Pat Buchanan 9, which were all quotations from President Bush; “Read my lips”). In fact, Clinton produced 49% of the evidence in this sample of presidential general TV spots. The largest amount of evidence prior to 1992 had been in the year 1988, when candidates used a combined total of 10 pieces of evidence in their TV spots (the peak in frequency of evidence use in primary ads before 1992 was 5 instances of evidence in the year 1980). The use of evidence was less frequent in 2000 and 2004 than in the Clinton years, but they clearly did not drop back to pre-1992 levels (109 instances of evidence in 2000 and 87 in 2004). It is clear that Clinton revolutionized at least one aspect of television advertising, the use of large amounts of evidence in presidential TV spots. This suggests that the figure of 8% of themes in presidential ads that are supported by evidence, the mean from 1952-2004, is a low estimate for contemporary political advertising.

It is impossible to know for certain why Clinton used so much evidence. However, it appears likely that it was in part a response to the attacks on his character in both the 1992 primary and general campaign (attacks which continued in the 1996 general election campaign). For example, in the 1992 Democratic primary, Paul Tsongas ran an ad which declared “Some people will say anything to be elected President [‘I want desperately to be your President,’ Bill Clinton, *New York Magazine*, 1/20/92]. Now, Bill Clinton is distorting Paul Tsongas’s record on Social Security, trying to scare people.” Of course, Pat Buchanan contested the Republican nomination, arguing that Bush broke his dramatic “Read my lips: No new taxes” promise from his 1988 Acceptance Address, so the presence of harsh character attacks cannot by itself explain Clin-

ton’s heavy reliance on evidence. Perhaps the frequent use of evidence was also related to the idea that Clinton was a “policy wonk” (someone who had a grasp of the details of policy) who had many facts at his command and was happy to use them in his ads.

Figure 1. Frequency of Evidence in Presidential TV Spots, 1952-2004



Perhaps even more interesting than the frequency of evidence use is how it was used. Table 1 shows that evidence is used disproportionately to support attacks rather than acclaims. The themes with evidence were attacks in 60-80% of the cases across the individual samples of ads. However, this emphasis on attacks with evidence becomes even more striking when one realizes that overall

candidates used more acclaims than attacks (59-80% acclaims, 20-40% attacks) in their ads. Thus, candidates produced more acclaims than attacks, but evidence was used predominantly in attacks. Geer (2006) found that negative ads are more likely to use evidence than positive ads (his sample consisted of presidential ads, 1960-2000). Furthermore, although defenses are infrequent (too few to include in statistical analysis except for presidential ads), it appears that defensive themes with evidence occur more frequently than defenses without evidence.

Politicians avowedly seek elective office, an activity which does not brook much modesty. Thus, statements from political candidates are likely to be seen as self-serving. Given the fact that the public does not like mud-slinging (Merriitt, 1984; Stewart, 1975), voters may be particularly suspicious of, or less likely to be persuaded by, attacks on a candidate's opponent. Geer (2006) argues that "*in general* criticism requires more evidence to succeed, because viewers are going to be skeptical without documentation" (p. 52, emphasis original). Additionally, candidates with higher perceived credibility are more successful with attacks (Yoon, Pinkleton, & Yo, 2005). Thus, it makes sense for candidates to employ evidence more to support attacks than acclaims.

There is no clear pattern for use of evidence by topic. Only in presidential ads is there a difference in the topics of themes with evidence (evidence is used more to support policy themes than character themes). However, this difference is quite small and never occurs in the non-presidential ads in this sample. Geer (2006) concluded that negative information is more common in issues than personal appeals (recall that he included statistics without sources as instances of evidence). There is no particular reason to anticipate that evidence would be more useful for one topic. Brazeal and Benoit (2006) reported that congressional spots from 1980-2004 stressed policy (51%) and character (49%) about equally; they speculated that "character is more important for congressional than presidential elections" (p. 413). Evidence may support policy and character at about the same level because non-presidential ads do not emphasize policy as much as presidential ads.

The relative frequency of use of the various types of evidence could be a function of two factors. First, newspapers may be seen as a relatively objective and familiar source. Although some newspapers have clear biases (and often endorse candidates), and although academics may argue that no human being (including editors and reporters) can be truly objective, newspapers probably appear relatively objective compared with other possible sources. Researchers have substantiated the levels of citizens trust in this medium and have even found that newspaper reading can increase overall political trust for those less cynical after candidate message reception (Avery, 2009). And, although newspaper readership rates may be decreasing over time, surely more people are familiar with newspapers than, say, voting records. Second, quotations and paraphrases from newspapers may be more accessible. Newspaper stories can be found on a wide range of topics, and particularly topics that are "hot" in an election, and newspaper stories are relatively easy to access. Candidates can easily find research on opponents to use in advertisements.

This study investigated the use of supporting evidence in political television advertisements. Further research should consider performing similar trend analysis on non-presidential advertising. Additionally, experimental investigations could examine reactions to supporting evidence used to enhance various types of candidate statements. Future research could examine other message forms in political campaign discourse, such as direct mail brochures or candidate-sponsored webpages. Other research could investigate the use of evidence in other fields, such as corporate communication or governmental communication. We know relatively little about the use of evidence in persuasive messages. Other research could investigate the effects of evidence in situated discourse (as opposed to research employing experimenter-designed messages). This investigation provides just one glimpse into candidate advertising, but the choice to include evidence may prove to be a strategic advantage for candidates at various levels of office.

Endnotes

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A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Argumentativeness Among Christians in France and Britain

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Abstract

This study analyzes the differences in argumentativeness between France and Britain. A total of 521 individuals in France ($n = 244$) and Britain ($n = 277$) participated in this study. Results indicate British Christians had a lower level of argumentativeness than French Christians. Religiosity was a nonsignificant predictor of total argumentativeness in France. However, in Britain, religiosity significantly predicted 37% of total argumentativeness.

Keywords: Argumentativeness, Religiosity, Cross-cultural Comparison, France, Britain

Introduction

Over the past thirty years, a plethora of research has examined cross-cultural differences in communication traits. Studies have explored cross-cultural differences in communication apprehension between Americans and East Asians (Hsu, 2007; Klopff & Cambra, 1979; Yook & Ahn, 1999; Zhang, Butler, & Pryor, 1996), in self-disclosure between American and non-American students (Chen, 1995), in verbal aggressiveness (Avtgis, Rancer, & Amato, 1998; Suzuki & Rancer, 1994), and in conflict style preference (Polkinghorn & Byrne, 2001; Wilson & Power, 2004). The overwhelming majority of these cross-cultural analyses, and other analyses, focus on differences between American and East Asian populations such as China, Japan, Korea and Taiwan (Croucher, 2006, 2008).

The present study cross-culturally examines differences in one communication trait, argumentativeness. Infante and Rancer (1982) define argumentativeness as “a generally stable trait which predisposes the individual in communication situations to advocate positions on controversial issues and to attack verbally the positions which other people take on these issues” (p. 72). Argumentativeness studies have been conducted primarily in the United States, with a few cross-cultural analyses (Becker, 1986; Hsu, 2007; Klopff, Thompson, & Sallinen-Kuparinen, 1991; Prunty, Klopff, & Ishii, 1990; Suzuki & Rancer, 1994). We see the lack of cross-cultural studies on argumentativeness in contexts outside of comparisons between the United States and East-Asian populations as an opportunity to expand argumentativeness literature. We should not assume conclusions drawn from research predominantly comparing Americans with East

Asian populations are cross-culturally generalizable. While previous studies offer rewarding insights into argumentativeness, more studies into communication traits like argumentativeness must be conducted on non-American and East-Asian populations. The current study fills this research gap by specifically analyzing argumentativeness in two contexts unexplored within argumentativeness literature, France and Britain. These two nations differ on Hofstede's (2001) individualism/collectivism dimension, with Britain scoring high on individualism and France scoring in the middle of the spectrum. Furthermore, scholars argue Christians in France and Britain conceptualize religion differently and are affected in their daily lives differently by their religious faith (Croucher, Oommen, Borton, Turner, & Anarbaeva, 2010; Davie, 2007). Therefore, a cross-cultural comparison of these two nations can increase understanding of this communication trait between these two nations/cultures. Moreover, France and Britain have a long history of international relations and both are significant global economic and political powers. Currently, no studies in communication studies have compared these nations, while studies in political science and religion have compared the two and offer the most comparable analyses to communication research (Bonner, 2005; Croucher, 2006; Favell, 1998; Fetzer & Soper, 2005; Keaton, 2006; Laurence & Vaisse, 2006; Savage, 2004; Weller, 2006; Withol de Wenden, 1998).

Second, previous argumentativeness studies rely heavily on college-aged student samples (Hsu, 2007; Infante, 1982; Klopf, Thompson, & Sallinen-Kuparinen, 1991; Prunty, Klopf, & Ishii, 1990; Suzuki & Rancer, 1994). Student samples offer a convenient sample for researchers. Granted, student samples do provide interesting insight into communication behaviors/traits; however an examination of traits such as argumentativeness among non-students will more than likely increase the generalizability of results and increase the external validity of the study's findings (Hsu, 2007).

Along with sampling limitations, there are other relevant factors that have been overlooked in cross-cultural research. We intend to rectify this by considering particularly significant, yet overlooked variables. In particular, we focus on respondents' religious identification and or religiosity. Alston (1975) defines religiosity as "the degree of one's connection or acceptance of their religious institution, participation in church attendance and activities, as well as one's regard for the leaders or the religion and church" (p. 166). Geertz (1973) asserts religion is an integral part of culture, however very few studies in cross-cultural communication operationalize religion as a variable, even though religious differences could influence various psychological/cultural traits (Cohen & Hill, 2007). Rancer and Avtgis (2006) assert psychological and cultural traits have a significant influence on individuals' communication traits. Specifically, Rancer and Avtgis argue psychological and cultural background can influence how an individual approaches aggressive communication or argument. Yet, little research has examined an individual's strength of religious identification or religiosity (Allport & Ross, 1967) and argumentativeness together. Stewart and Roach (1993) found religiosity was negatively associated with level of argumentativeness. The authors assert research should examine this relationship further.

Thus, given the status of current argumentativeness literature, we see opportunities for expanding the literature. This study compares argumentativeness between self-identified Christians in France and Britain. To conduct this analysis, a review of literature of argumentativeness, and religiosity follows. Then, the method, results and discussion for this analysis are provided.

Review of Literature

Argumentativeness

Infante and Rancer (1982) conceptualize argumentativeness as a communication predisposition. Individuals tend to vary in their degree of argumentativeness. High argumentatives have great confidence in their abilities to argue, whereas low argumentatives have little confidence (Infante & Rancer, 1982). Martin and Anderson (1996) found assertive communicators to be more argumentative. In their study the researchers found argumentative communicators keenly approach argumentative situations. It should also be noted that highly argumentative individuals feel excited while approaching arguments and display no desire to avoid arguments.

To describe argumentativeness, Infante and Rancer (1982) outline two factors – tendency to approach argument ARG_{AP} and tendency to avoid argument ARG_{AV} . An individual's overall argumentativeness or ARG_{GT} is ARG_{AP} minus their ARG_{AV} . Thus, the greater the tendency to approach argument and the lesser the tendency to avoid argument, the higher an individual's overall argumentativeness. High argumentatives are high on ARG_{AP} and low on ARG_{AV} . On the contrary, low argumentatives are low on ARG_{AP} and high on ARG_{AV} . A moderate argumentative would have the same levels of ARG_{AP} and ARG_{AV} (Infante & Rancer, 1982).

Argumentativeness has been linked to many traits in past research. Substantial research has linked argumentativeness to leadership and competent communication (Infante, Anderson, Herington, & Kim, 1993; Limon & La France, 2005; Martin & Anderson, 1996; Schullery, 1998), religion (Stewart & Roach 1993), age (Schullery & Schullery, 2003), and one's gender (Schullery, 1998). Past research has shown argumentativeness is positively associated with relationship outcomes because argumentative people are more competent communicators and are more capable of handling conflict without being verbally aggressive (Infante, Anderson, Herington, & Kim, 1993; Martin & Anderson, 1996).

Religiosity

Shafranske and Malony (1990) assert religiosity is how much one accepts and performs beliefs and rituals of an established church or religious organization. Level of religiosity has been shown to be a significant predictor of multiple behaviors and traits. High religiosity is linked with positive self-descriptions, certainty, and self-knowledge (Blaine, Trivedi & Eshelman, 1998). Religiosity is linked to emotion (Fuller, 2006). Croucher, Oommen, Turner, Anarbaeva, and Borton, (2008) found religiosity to be positively correlated with ethnic identity among Muslims in France and Britain. Religiosity also partially predicts conflict

style (Croucher, Borton, Oommen, Anarbaeva, & Turner, 2008) and media use preference among Muslims in France and Britain (Croucher, Oommen, Borton, Turner, & Anarbaeva, 2010). In a test of the predictive influence of religiosity/religiousness on argumentativeness among Americans, French, and British participants, Principal Investigator et al. (2010a) found religiosity significantly tempered argumentativeness ($r = -.57, p < .01$). When taking into consideration the interactions between national culture, religiousness, and self-construal, the effect of religiousness diminished but was still statistically significant.

The aforementioned studies on religiosity add to those of Stewart and Roach (1993), who found high argumentatives argued more than low argumentatives about religious than about nonreligious issues. While Infante and Rancer (1982) restricted their definition of argumentativeness to “controversial” issues only, Stewart and Roach (1993) found high argumentatives also valued non-controversial issues over controversial issues. Less religious individuals were found to show more desire to argue than highly religious individuals. The relationship between whether an individual is highly religious (high religiosity) or less religious (low religiosity) and the level of argumentativeness reveals the link between religiosity and argumentativeness. Thus, combining research on religiosity, with previous research on age and education concerning argumentativeness, we propose the following research questions comparing individuals in France and Britain:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference between British and French Christians in terms of total argumentativeness?

RQ2: To what extent does religiosity predict total argumentativeness between these two groups?

Method

Participants and procedures

A total of 521 individuals in France ($n = 244$) and Britain ($n = 277$) participated in this study. French participants ranged in age from 18-63 ($M = 31.13, SD = 8.71$) and British participants ranged in age from 18-45 ($M = 26.72, SD = 6.62$). In France, men made up 58.2% of the sample and the sample in Britain consisted of 56.3% men. All participants were asked their citizenship and only self-declared citizens of France and Britain were included in the analysis. Individuals self-identified their religious faith; based on this self-identification, the 521 self-identified Christians emerged for statistical analysis. Individuals voluntarily filled out the survey without offers of compensation. Unlike the overwhelming majority of previous studies in cross-cultural research and communication studies, this sample consisted of less than 10% students. The remainder of the participants were college graduates, individuals who did not attend college, professionals, and miscellaneous laborers who were recruited through social networks held by the principal investigator. See Table 1 for more in-depth information on participant demographics. Surveys were completed at various locations, including cafés, bus stops, train stations, at universities, in hotel lobbies, and in individuals' homes. In some cases, a snowball sampling of participants

took place. Granted, this sampling design does not involve random probabilistic sampling; it represents a case of “sampling to” as opposed to “sampling from” a population. Sampling to a population represents a hypothetical population, whose nature can to a certain extent be understood only based on the socio-demographic characteristics. However, it does represent a larger group to which results may be generalized (DeMaris, 2004). The diversity of the sample, while still a convenience sample, should limit the potentially negative effects on generalizability and external validity of using only a student sample.

Table 1
Demographic Information for Participants in France and Britain

Variable	France		Britain	
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>
Gender				
Male	142		156	
Female	102		121	
Age		31.13		26.72
Highest Education Completed				
Grade School		2		
Some High School		4		
High School Grad.		7		15
Some University		85		97
Completed Bachelor's		63		101
Some Grad. Education		45		25
Completed Grad. Ed.				77

Instruments

Argumentativeness scale. The argumentativeness scale is a twenty-item scale utilizing 5-point Likert-type questions that measure argumentativeness in individuals. The items range from “1” *almost never true*” to “5” *almost always true*. Sample items include: “I enjoy avoiding arguments” and “I have the ability to do well in an argument.” The scale consists of two components – the tendency to approach argument and the tendency to avoid argument. When combined the latter components provide the sum measurement of one’s general tendency to argue (Infante & Rancer, 1982). Thus, positive scores point to high argumentativeness, and negative scores show low argumentativeness. Reliability for the total argumentativeness scale was .88 in Britain and .86 in France.

Measure of religiosity. To ascertain the level of religiosity, the 25-item Measure of Religiosity (MOR) was used (Croucher, Oommen, Turner, Anarbaeva, & Borton, 2008). This scale was developed to effectively measure religiosity cross-culturally and across different religions. Of the 25 items on the MOR, 10 items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging between *never* to *very often*. Sample items include: “I attend regularly scheduled religious services” and “I attend religious services held on religious holidays.” The remaining 15 items are also on a 7-point Likert scale ranging between *not at all important* to *very im-*

portant. Sample items include: “Religion is important when I choose what books to read,” and “Religion is important in who I vote for in elections for political offices.” In this study, the alpha was .91 in the French sample and .90 in the British sample.

Bilingual translation and reliability

Back-translation was used to develop the French-language questionnaire. The MOR and the argumentativeness scale were both translated into French by the author and then independently translated back from French to English by two independent bilingual French speakers. If items were not identical, the items were revised to fit into common conversation.

Analysis

To assess the difference between French and British Christians, a t-test was conducted using argumentativeness as the test variable and country (France or Britain) as the grouping variable. To evaluate the predictive power of religiosity on argumentativeness in France and Britain, regression analysis was computed. Argumentativeness served as the dependent variable, and age, education, and religiosity served as independent/predictor variables.

Results

RQ1 asked whether there was a significant difference between French and British Christians in terms of argumentativeness. Results revealed French Christians ($M = 29.42, SD = 10.80$) are more argumentative than British-Christians ($M = 24.54, SD = 11.77$); ($t = 4.91; df = 521; p < .0001$).

RQ2 asked to what extent religiosity predicted argumentativeness. Religiosity was a nonsignificant predictor of total argumentativeness in France ($b = .02, R^2_{adj} = .003$). In Britain, religiosity was a significant predictor of total argumentativeness ($b = -.54, R^2_{adj} = .37$). See Table 2 for the unstandardized regression coefficients, standard error, standardized regression coefficients, and t-values.

Table 2
Regression Model for Total Argumentativeness

Independent Variables	France				
	B	S. E	β	t	R^2_{adj}
Religiosity	.02	.04	.04	.64	.003
	Britain				
Religiosity	-.54	.04	-.61*	-12.55	.37

Note: * $p < .0001$.

Discussion

Individualism/collectivism and argumentativeness (RQ1)

The first conclusion concerns French-Christians being more argumentative than British-Christians. A traditional perspective would expect more arguments in cultures valuing the individual, regardless of whether the argument is about the issue or the person. Furthermore, group harmony and cohesion are generally considered to be important in more collectivistic cultures, which would equal less argumentativeness. Yet, we propose France's tendency toward higher argumentativeness is more in line with a functional view of argumentativeness (as a benefit to the collective good). France falls closer to the middle than Britain who is securely placed on the individualistic side of Hofstede's individualism/collectivism dichotomy (Croucher, 2006, 2008; Hofstede, 2001; Croucher, Oommen, Borton, Turner, & Anarbaeva, 2010). Therefore, it stands to reason that in a slightly more collectivist culture like France, arguing and attacking the issues rather than the other person's self concept would be more common than it would be in a more individualistic culture like Britain (Infante & Rancer, 1996). Moreover, what could be occurring in the two nations is a potential interaction between argumentativeness, national culture, and religious identification. Interactions between these variables could be at work; this is a situation Croucher et al. (2010) in another research project among Muslims and Christians in France and Britain observed. A similar pattern may be emerging here, where various variables have interacted to affect an individual's overall argumentativeness.

Argumentativeness and religiosity (RQ2)

Results of this analysis reveal religiosity to be a significant predictor of argumentativeness (approach, avoid and total) in Britain but was nonsignificant in France. In Britain, religiosity tempered an individual's total argumentativeness ($\beta = -.54, p < .0001$). The status of religion in each nation is more than likely the reason for these results. France has a staunch history of secularism, separation of church and state; in Britain, the Church of England is the official state sponsored church (Croucher, 2006, 2008; Fetzer & Soper, 2005). While church attendance in Britain and Europe continues to plummet (Croucher, 2008; Fetzer & Soper, 2005), an independent samples t-test reveals religiosity among the British sample ($M = 40.73; SD = 18.16$) was still significantly higher than among the French sample ($M = 29.89; SD = 13.13$); $t(424.59) = 7.64, p < .001$. The differing levels of religiosity due to the different political and cultural perspectives on religion in each nation affect the predictive influence of religiosity on argumentativeness.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study adds to research on argumentativeness in the following ways. First, this study reveals the significant influence of cultural-level variables such as religion and national culture. Religion is an understudied variable in social scientific analyses of communication traits (Oetzel, Arcos, Mabizela, Weinman, & Zhang, 2006; Croucher et al., 2010), yet, the effects of religion on communication traits is undeniable (Croucher, Oommen, Turner, Anarbaeva, & Borton,

2008). Moreover, the influence of national identification/culture is also a significant predictor of individual psychological and communication traits. Thus, these two variables, in collaboration with other variables, can reveal significant results about our behaviors and traits.

Second, the examination of religiosity in this study demonstrates how an individual-level variable neglected by communication scholars profoundly influences our aggressive communication. Religion and faith significantly influence an individual's argumentativeness. However, as this study reveals, few studies have empirically tested this relationship. The results of this study offer religiosity as an additional individual-level variable to add to our understanding of aggressive communication, which includes among many: argumentativeness, verbal aggressiveness, and conflict styles.

Limitations and Conclusion

This study has two limitations. The first limitation of this study is the use of self-report measurements. Self-reports are regularly used in communication research (Oetzel, 1998) to evaluate various traits such as argumentativeness, and other personality traits related to argumentation and conflict such as verbal aggressiveness (Infante & Wigley, 1986), and conflict styles (Rahim, 1983). However, given the nature of questions on the argumentativeness scale, individuals may have the tendency to answer questions in ways to make themselves appear less disagreeable or argumentative. This social desirability tendency was observed during data collection. Multiple participants asked the principal investigator how the research team would know if they were lying in their responses. Nicotera (1996) asserts use of the argumentativeness scale in view of the potential effect of social desirability is something researchers should consider. As Hsu (2007) asserts, a peer-rating measure could be used in the future in conjunction with self-report measures to test argumentativeness.

The second limitation or area of future research is the addition of a qualitative element to this and other argumentativeness studies. Studies into argumentativeness need to branch out into qualitative analyses. Schullery (1999) echoed this call and asserted future studies could include interviews, videotapes of interactions and ethnographic observation. Such studies would add to our understanding of argumentativeness and aggressive communication.

Ultimately, the findings of this study begin to extend our understanding into the differences in argumentativeness between the British and the French. The effects of national identification and religiosity on argumentativeness suggest individual culture influences this trait. Further communication studies should be conducted examining the interactions between these and other variables in these cultures that have been under represented in the communication literature.

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A Report on the Status of Standards for Tenure and Promotion in Debate

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Wake Forest University, June 2009

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Summary

At the core of debate is the director who sometimes has the title of “coach.” The director is sometimes described as a competitive strategist, playing much the same role in debate that directors/coaches play in athletics. This view is fundamentally incorrect since the very essence of coaching debate involves two key pedagogical goals common across higher education. The two key pedagogical roles fulfilled by the director/coach are teacher and research team mentor. The director/coach teaches debaters argumentation theory, audience analysis, and a host of other topics. But he/she also teaches them how to research and construct strong arguments. In this way, the director/coach plays a role similar to the leader of a research team. In addition to the pedagogical roles, the director/coach is a mentor, a strategist, a motivator, a planner, an organizer, and often a friend.

Every successful debater has a story about a director/coach who changed his/her life. A successful director/coach can have impact across generations of debaters. In that way, the director/coach also becomes the institutional memory of the activity. Debaters see the competitive demands of the moment, but the director/coach can see how competitive practices impact long term pedagogy. Given the many crucial roles that the director/coach plays in debate, it is essential for the health of the activity that appropriate standards are in place for evaluating the performance of the director/coach and providing the same type of reasonable protection against unfair evaluation that the tenure process provides

for other faculty members. Without those standards, directors/coaches may be evaluated based on standards that do not account for the unique demands involved in coaching academic debate. The result may be to move the activity toward a situation in which more and more of the coaching is done by non-academic instructors whose focus is only on competitive success and who lack either a long term perspective or a pedagogical focus.

The Tenure and Promotion Working Group was convened in order to participate in the ongoing national conversations on assessment and promotion and provide guidance to units as to the most appropriate way to appoint and evaluate the performance of professionals in debate and forensics. As we note in detail later in this report, debate directors/coaches currently are evaluated based on a wide variety of different standards and through many different procedures. While there are many models for evaluating the work of coaches, only a few of those models provide the stability that the tenure model provides for faculty members in tenure track positions. This situation is unfortunate. First, current trends in appointment and evaluation encourage the use of non-academic coaches. A tenure model, in contrast, produces a culture dominated by directors/coaches with a focus on long-term pedagogy. Second, it means that directors/coaches lack the protections of other faculty members. As a consequence, in a difficult economic or ideological climate, it may be much easier to get rid of a debate director/coach than other faculty members, a situation that may create instability in the forensics program itself. Third, there is a danger that the incredible time commitment involved in coaching debate may not be rewarded appropriately because the evaluative standards do not account for the pedagogical, professional, and intellectual work of the director in furthering the pedagogical goals of the activity.

To address these difficulties, the tenure and promotion group believes that there are two appropriate models for evaluating the performance of debate coaches. One approach treats the director/coach as a normal tenure-track faculty member, but broadens what can count for academic research. Under this approach, a season of debate should be evaluated as itself a form of research in the same way that a theater production would be considered creative research for a faculty member in a theater department. A few schools already have had the vision to embrace this model. A second approach treats the role of coaching debate as essentially similar to that of faculty who in addition to teaching have a professional performance dimension to their academic assignment. In this way, coaching responsibilities would be evaluated as a kind of professional performance in the same way that the work of a librarian or an academic scientist is viewed as professional performance.

The working group recognizes that when a university grants tenure to an individual, the institution is making a commitment that can extend for twenty-five or more years. Some universities may be wary of making such a commitment to a debate director/coach, fearing that the director/coach will not continue to work with debate over the long term. The working group believes that institutions can confront this situation by specifying the responsibilities of the director/coach. For example, some institutions may want to create a title and position descrip-

tion for debate that specifies the duties of the debate director/coach and makes clear that any grant of tenure applies in the context of the particular position description. The director/coach would be able to earn tenure with all the rights and privileges associated with it and could be promoted to Professor under this approach. Transfer to an alternative tenure line would require review by appropriate administrators as is common with many university appointments such as with department chairs, directors of graduate studies, and basic course directors. The university might give the director/coach a particular title to make this point clear, in the same way that some universities have a different title for a clinical professor than for other faculty members.

A proposed “Standards for Evaluating the Performance of Faculty Debate Coaches,” is included at the end of this document. This document was approved by the attendees at the developmental conference and also by the Board of Trustees of the National Debate Tournament at the same conference. It has been adopted by the NDT Committee, CEDA, and other debate organizations, along with the overarching organization for all of these groups, the American Forensic Association. Based on the endorsement of debate organizations, the standards should be considered by deans and department chairs in crafting the appointment and evaluation standards for future generations of coaches. The standards also may lead to a shift back toward directors/coaches having the protections of tenure, a development that would both provide stability to the coaching ranks and also help maintain a pedagogical focus in the activity.

While our focus has been on debate coaches, we think it quite likely that a very similar situation applies to directors/coaches working with forensics and that the same standards that we are proposing for debate would be appropriate in that context as well.

Debate scholarship embraces a wide array of topics, research methods, and modes of presentation and publication. Although we consider this diversity of scholarly practice a great strength of our field, it brings with it potential difficulties as well. Notable among these is the complexity of assessing records of scholarship that include elements not easily captured by the typical categories used in tenure, promotion, and merit review.

Although this document is meant to provide guidelines to assist institutions in the creation of tenure and promotion related documents we recognize, of course, that each case of professional assessment is an internal matter of departments, colleges, and universities with their own evaluative standards. Directors/coaches expect to be assessed with the same rigor as their colleagues in other fields. We do not presume this document will supercede procedures at individual institutions. Rather, it offers a perspective on the value of scholarly practices that, though distinctive to debate research, may not be as familiar to scholars and reviewers in other fields. Additionally, the guidelines do not offer an exhaustive account of arguments relating to the many roles fulfilled by the director/coach in debate.¹

In what follows, we first provide an overview of debate in order to explain the importance of the activity and then review the status of tenure and evaluation

standards among directors/coaches in various types of programs across the country. A mass email was used to ask directors/coaches to submit information about the nature of their current appointment (tenure track, term appointment, and so forth) and the standards through which their performance is evaluated. In addition to seeking information about appointment and evaluation standards for current coaches, we reviewed material from previous developmental conferences and the Quail Roost document, as well as information about how faculty in theater and academic professionals in positions similar to that of a debate director/coach are evaluated. Following the review of current appointment and evaluation practices, we develop a case for the proposed two tracks for evaluating the performance of debate coaches. We conclude with draft standards.

An Overview of Debate

The fundamental goal of academic debate in all its forms is to provide students with the critical analysis and advocacy skills they need to build a strong case for a position related to a public controversy. Debate accomplishes this goal through a process in which students prepare for and then attend tournaments on a stated topic. The students, usually in teams of two, research all aspects of the topic, along with underlying issues relevant to the topic, and then prepare positions in order to support and oppose the topic.

The topic is usually a broad statement of policy (or value implying policy) that potentially can be supported or opposed in many different ways. To be successful therefore, debaters must have strong positions related to all of these different ways of supporting or opposing the topic. While the focus of debaters is often on competitive success, that emphasis on competition pushes them to hone their research, critical thinking, argument construction, and presentation skills. The competitive aims of the activity are tied directly to the pedagogical goal of training students to present strong and ethical positions on a public issue. In this way, tournaments are best understood as a kind of advanced laboratory for teaching public argument. Debate provides a laboratory not only for teaching argument, but also for testing the value of various proposals on a given topic. It is thus both a place for training future policy makers and also a place for testing policy proposals. From the perspective of the debater, competitive success may be the primary goal of participation. From the perspective of the director/coach, however, the desire of debaters for competitive success is a powerful prod pushing them to fulfill the pedagogical functions of the activity.

Over the course of a debate season, a team (or individual debater) might compete in as many as a dozen tournaments, comprised usually of six or eight preliminary rounds, followed by a single elimination tournament of teams seeded based on the preliminary results. The process of tournament debate pushes students to do enormous amounts of research and other preparation for tournament competition. The process also forces students to continuously work to strengthen positions on the topic because opposing teams are researching counter-arguments to the positions they have developed. Once again, competition serves a pedagogical function.

It should be evident that while debate is often compared to other competitive activities, especially athletics, it is fundamentally different from those activities. In athletics, the fundamental goal of the competition is the competition itself. In debate, in contrast, the competitive aspects of the activity are a means to a pedagogical end. Debaters are motivated by the competition to do an enormous amount of work researching and preparing arguments, work that they would never do in the same quantity or with the same intensity without the competitive motivation.

Why do universities invest in academic debate? The answer is that the power of tournament debate for training students in public argument and advocacy has been demonstrated over almost 100 years. Many academic programs use simulations of various kinds to train students to confront a given issue. For example, both within and outside universities, crisis simulations are common for preparing professionals for a crisis in public health, foreign policy, and so forth. The simulation serves as an educational laboratory to prepare the students on the topic. Debate is best understood as a more general type of educational laboratory, a laboratory that gives students the basic skills they need in order to develop and defend a persuasive and ethical case related to an important public issue.

A Review of Tenure and Evaluation Standards and Appointment Status in Contemporary Debate

We received twenty nine institutional responses to our query concerning the status of tenure and evaluation standards for debate coaches. Ten of the responses involved institutions with non-tenure track appointments while the remaining nineteen responses included at least one tenure track appointment. Several institutions reported a mixture of tenure track and non-tenure track appointments. In total, the responses represent a wide variety of institutions with one single common denominator—they employ at least one full time debate director/coach.

After analyzing the responses, three items for consideration emerged. First, there is little uniformity concerning the categorization of debate coaching activities. Second, there is a wide continuum between institutions that require debate directors/coaches to achieve the same publication record as their traditional faculty colleagues and institutions that do not have any requirements for scholarship from their debate coaches. Third, there are alternative models for evaluating debate as a creative research activity that may help resolve the institutional pressures for increased scholarly production.

Although total uniformity across institutions is impossible, it is our opinion that these items demonstrate that the status of debate directors/coaches across the academy varies so widely from institution to institution that it is difficult to train, prepare, and evaluate current and future generations of debate coaches. It is not surprising, therefore, that none of the responses included an active debate director/coach with the rank of full professor with tenure, and that our anecdotal evidence suggests that few debate directors/coaches have been promoted to full professor in the modern era.

Item One: How do institutions account for debate coaching activities?

Categorizing debate coaching activities as scholarship, teaching, and/or service represents a major discrepancy between institutional approaches to evaluating debate coaches. Although there is a persuasive argument that debate coaching activities intersect all three of these traditional categories, few institutions permit debate directors/coaches to submit their activities within all three categories. Instead, with a few notable exceptions, institutions have generally moved towards treating debate coaching activities as either teaching or service.

The majority of institutions surveyed consider debate coaching as primarily a teaching related activity. As such, most institutions offer course reductions to allow their debate directors/coaches more time to focus on their debate obligations. The number of reductions changes from institution to institution, but the use of course reductions is consistent across a broad range of institutions. Beyond course reductions, however, the standards for evaluating debate coaching activities as teaching vary widely.

One struggle that debate directors/coaches consistently confront is how to articulate teaching *effectiveness* outside of competitive success. One director/coach resents the connection between teaching effectiveness and competitive success because despite how effectively a debate director/coach teaches his/her students, "Student talent is still an extremely important intervening variable." The responses demonstrate that traditional measures of teaching effectiveness such as student evaluations are rare for a director's/coach's debate related activities. We suspect that few of these traditional student evaluation measures would be appropriate for determining the teaching effectiveness of a debate director/coach. As a result, rather than focusing on measures for effectiveness, institutions are increasingly developing descriptions of the connections between debate coaching activities and the educational benefits associated with participation in intercollegiate debate.

Despite the fact that there is a trend towards considering debate coaching as teaching, there is very little consensus on the level of specificity necessary to establish the connection between coaching and the educational benefits of debate. Some institutions have very specific lists of debate related activities such as, "Directing undergraduate research projects," while other institutions have general statements such as, "Extracurricular student guidance, such as faculty advisor for the undergraduate student organization." As a result of the vague nature of some descriptions, debate directors/coaches sometimes find themselves explaining the basic connections between their debate coaching activities and teaching while other directors/coaches have the luxury of focusing on explaining their success within specific categories already recognized by the department.

Although the majority of institutions categorize debate coaching activities as teaching, there are several institutions that consider these activities as solely service related. A research one institution's tenure and promotion document categorizes debate coaching activities under the service section with a list of other activities such as, "Advising student groups." The director/coach of this

institution described his/her institutional categorization of debate as follows, "Debate vaguely counts under 'service'." This categorization of debate is not limited to research one institutions. A small private university explicitly evaluates debate coaching as only service. The tenure and promotion document prioritizes teaching as 50% of the evaluation with research and service split at 25% each. The director/coach of this institution wrote, "I teach the same number of courses as the other faculty, have the same research expectations, the same number of advisees and committees, and other university service and then I do debate on top of that."

We acknowledge that every academic institution has unique goals and approaches to its academic culture. The result of the current categorization scheme, however, is that different universities end up describing the same exact coaching activity as either teaching or service, but not both. For example, some institutions consider judging at intercollegiate debate tournaments a unique area for instruction. According to one institution, "The faculty member is asked to critically engage the ideas and performance of student competitors, then to render a decision and provide an oral as well as written critique of the event to the students involved. These activities are recognized and rewarded as teaching activities." A separate institution, however, evaluates judging as second level service when the debate director/coach presents an "oral debate critique before an audience." Judging debates is a prime example of an activity that can persuasively be articulated as both teaching and service. However, when institutions only evaluate debate coaching activities as either service or teaching it forces similarly situated activities to be relegated to one portion of a debate directors/coaches consideration evaluation.

Institutions differ between categorizing debate coaching as teaching and/or service, but one consistent paradigm throughout the responses is that coaching debate is not considered a "traditional" scholarly activity. None of the responses included a standard of evaluation wherein debate coaching activities are considered the equivalent of publishing peer reviewed articles or a book published by an academic press. As we will review in items two and three, the relationship between coaching debate and scholarship is complicated by alternative models of evaluation, but none of the responses support an evaluation of debate activities as traditional scholarship.

Item Two: Expectations for scholarship

The second item that emerges from the responses is that the expectations for debate directors/coaches to produce scholarship exist on a wide continuum. On one end of the spectrum, debate directors/coaches are expected to achieve the same publication record as their traditional faculty colleagues. Five of the nineteen institutions with tenure track debate directors/coaches have the same publication expectations for their debate directors/coaches as their traditional faculty. The responses represent a variety of institutions ranging from a Carnegie research one university that requires two publications in journals of "high quality" per year to private institutions that require ten publications in peer-reviewed

departmentally approved journals. The tenure and promotion documents for these departments do not distinguish between debate directors/coaches and traditional faculty with regard to research.

Almost all of the debate directors/coaches at this end of the spectrum cited an institutional philosophy that debate directors/coaches should be treated the same as the other faculty with regard to publication expectations. One director/coach wrote, "The publication requirement is the same as anyone else in the department—no special privilege for debate." Another director/coach noted, "...despite the fact that 45% of my job is assigned service with the debate program, there is not much weight assigned to debate once you get out of our department...we are expected to publish 'or perish' as it has been put." In addition to having the same publication expectations, these institutions do not count scholarship on the practice of debate at the same level as traditional academic research unless it is published in one of the top journals as designated by the department. In short, this end of the spectrum does not recognize debate as a scholarly activity, creative or otherwise.

On the other end of the spectrum, institutions do not require their debate directors/coaches to engage in any scholarship. There were over twenty five debate directors/coaches represented at this end of the spectrum and all of them were non-tenure track appointments. The positions ranged from directors with the full privileges of a tenured professor except with periodic reviews to one year adjunct appointments. The majority of these debate directors/coaches have reduced teaching obligations and are evaluated on their debate related activities and their classroom teaching effectiveness. Several of these positions are located outside of an academic department and therefore the debate director/coach is evaluated by a university administrator. Within this end of the spectrum, there are a wide variety of institutions from research one universities with multiple directors/coaches to small private teaching colleges with one director/coach. The one common characteristic is that none of these institutions require their debate directors/coaches to engage in scholarly activity.

While the overall publication expectations vary from institution to institution, there are fewer and fewer debate directors/coaches today who fall somewhere in the middle. In the middle, debate directors/coaches are expected to publish some traditional academic research, but not as much as their traditional faculty peers. Only four institutions have explicit middle ground standards for scholarly research. Two of the three institutions had vague language suggesting that the debate director/coach should demonstrate a consistent record of publication, but acknowledged that the unique demands associated with the position require the institution to evaluate a candidate's overall contribution. The most explicit middle ground standard was set by a research one institution. At this institution, the research requirements for a traditional faculty member require a candidate to either publish two peer-reviewed articles for each probationary year or publish an academic book and five peer-reviewed articles. This institution, however, has a separate description for the debate director/coach which requires that person to publish at least five peer-reviewed articles during his/her probationary period. Despite the attempt of these three institutions to carve out a mid-

dle ground, the overall responses suggest that unless an institution adopts an alternative model for evaluating debate coaching activities the trend is decidedly in the direction of more publications and less distinction between debate directors/coaches and traditional faculty or towards hiring non-tenure track debate directors/coaches with no expectations for scholarship. In the latter situation, directors/coaches lack the protection and status afforded by tenure.

Item Three: Alternative Models for Evaluating Debate Coaches

Four of the institutions surveyed utilized alternative models for evaluating the activities of their debate coaches. The four institutions represent a large research one institution, two mid-size state universities, and one small private university. All of the institutions have tenure-track debate coaches. Despite the diversity of institutions, the one characteristic they share is that they evaluate debate coaching activities as a form of scholarship. One institution's tenure and promotion document is adapted from the *Quail Roost Conference* report and acknowledges that "Within the Department of Communication, the Director of Forensics is a unique position with unique evaluation requirements." The document goes on to describe how the responsibility to be well versed in the relevant literature on the debate resolution permeates all parts of being an active debate director/coach including directing undergraduate research projects, judging intercollegiate debates, and effectively preparing students for competition. The debate director/coach submits these materials in an annual portfolio that is considered a form of research for their tenure and promotion materials.

Two of the institutions borrow their model directly from the performing arts and theater in particular. The tenure and promotion document from one of these institutions identifies "Direction of forensic activities" under the category "Scholarship and Other Creative Activities." The document outlines the standard as follows, "Creating and managing a nationally competitive forensics program and providing leadership at the national level in competition debate are the primary indices of achievement in this category." In this model, the debate director/coach submits a portfolio describing how his/her activities satisfy this standard, and external reviewers evaluate the candidate's success. The other institution utilizes a "career variable interest agreement" that counts debate as a professional activity that is modeled after the standards used to judge the professional activity of theater professionals. These alternative models suggest that a deeper understanding of debate coaching as a form of scholarship can help resolve the tension between requiring scholarship for tenure and promotion or moving the debate coaching position to a non-tenure track appointment.

Is a Tenure Model Appropriate for Academic Debate?

The focus on the competitive nature of academic debate along with analogies often drawn in the media between debate and intercollegiate athletics might lead some to argue that the tenure model is not appropriate for a debate director/coach. While the working group recognizes that the tenure model will not fit all institutions, we also believe that it is the most appropriate model for max-

imizing the value of debate as a means of training future leaders and producing research on argumentation. A tenure model is appropriate for a debate director/coach for the same reasons that it is appropriate for other faculty members. The tenure model both provides appropriate protections for the director/coach and ensures that the director/coach will be viewed as a valuable faculty colleague within an institution and not as a second class citizen. The director/coach has a great deal to offer his/her colleagues in terms of depth of knowledge of public policy, and an understanding of effective management of a research team, for that is what a debate squad is. This expertise may be lost to the department and larger institution if the director/coach is not viewed as normal faculty member. Directors/coaches lacking a tenure-track appointment are often denied the opportunity to participate on faculty or graduate student committees. Not only do such rules unfairly harm the career of the director/coach, but they deny to the institution the many insights about argumentation and public policy that a director/coach can provide.

In addition, the tenure model is needed to protect and nurture academic debate as a subfield in argumentation studies. While academic debate is a highly competitive activity, from a pedagogical perspective it is best viewed as an extremely intense form of leadership coaching in order to train the next generation of leaders in a host of fields related to the public sphere. A tenure model is widely seen as appropriate for faculty teaching and doing research in all areas of the curriculum. Precisely the same point applies to debate. The presence of tenured faculty in any sub-field guarantees a focus on pedagogy and research. In debate, tenured faculty members provide both institutional memory and a focus on the larger educational purposes of the activity.

Two Models for Appointment and Evaluation of Debate Coaches

The review of appointment status and evaluation standards of debate directors/coaches indicates that there are many different models for appointment and evaluation of debate coaches. However, only a few of those models provide the stability and protection of a tenure track appointment *and* account for the unique demands of coaching debate. Debate directors/coaches have responsibilities and demands on their time that are very different from other faculty members. An appropriate model for appointment and evaluation of debate directors/coaches needs to take into account those responsibilities and demands.

Coaching debate is a form of teaching, but the time demands are much greater than for traditional classroom teaching. Consider the example of a director/coach with a squad of five teams that travel actively and three more that participate occasionally. In order to prepare these teams for tournament travel, a director/coach would have to spend many hours and several evenings a week working with the teams on arguments and listening to practice debates. A team of this size would need to travel to eight or more tournaments a semester in order to provide each of the active teams with adequate competition. Even if the director/coach of the team had help in some form, he/she would need to go to at least eight tournaments and more likely ten or more a year. Each tournament requires a four or five day commitment, including travel days. The time de-

mands we have described are typical for debate coaches. Many directors/coaches spend even more time than in the typical example we have described. There are similar time demands for forms of debate that are focused on individual, rather than team competition.

Of course, directors/coaches do far more than simply prepare teams for travel and attend tournaments. Directors/coaches also recruit high quality students to their college or university, engage in a variety of alumni related and other outreach activities, host public debates, do public relations for the program and university, along with many other activities.

Why do directors/coaches spend so much time working with debaters? Another way of considering this point is to ask why such an incredible time commitment is justified in an academic sense? The short answer to this question is that the debaters of today are the academic, business, legal, and political leaders of tomorrow. As is demonstrated in the reports of other working groups, academic debate has served as a terrific training ground for people who go on to shape society. Debate teaches people the research, critical thinking, and advocacy skills they need to deal with problems in the public sphere and elsewhere. Student newspapers often compare the work of the debate director/coach to the work of a football or basketball director/coach. In terms of the time commitment, this comparison is exactly on target. In terms of the impact of the director/coach, however, the comparison is deeply misleading. A successful basketball director/coach trains the next NBA point guard or power forward. It is no exaggeration to say that a successful debate director/coach might train a Senator, Supreme Court Justice, or President. Former debaters are widely represented in professions related to public argument including the law, academia, business, politics and government. And the debate director/coach accomplishes the aim of training these future leaders without the support system found in athletics by putting in very long hours working with gifted students. A number of studies of higher education recently have emphasized a coaching model. Academic debate is perhaps the strongest and most successful example of a discipline using that model.

The key point is that appointment and evaluation standards need to take into account the time demands of the director/coach and the importance of the work that the director/coach is doing. There are two basic problems that are present in the current appointment and evaluation models. First, many directors/coaches are evaluated based on standards that do not account for the unique demands of coaching debate. For example, the time demands on directors/coaches mean that they have far less time to work on traditional academic research than do normal tenure track faculty members in research appointments. It is unsurprising that debate directors/coaches have not produced as much traditional research as other faculty members, given the time demands we have described. This means that applying traditional research standards to debate directors/coaches is in nearly all cases inappropriate. A similar problem occurs in cases where the program attempts to account for the work demands of coaching debate by providing a course release from teaching or other small benefit. While helpful, the demands

of coaching a season of debate cannot be balanced by the provision of a small benefit, such as a course release.

Moreover, the application of traditional standards for research to debate is inappropriate because it does not recognize as legitimate the unique forms of research that are produced by debate. Debate directors/coaches assist their debaters in developing innovative arguments on a given topic. The debaters then test those arguments rigorously in competition against teams in the region or throughout the nation. This testing process is a form of peer review, quite similar to that which occurs at journals. The ideas produced in this competitive process *are* a form of research. In the arts, it is widely recognized that projects produced in collaboration by a faculty member and a student are a form of creative activity. Similarly, the arguments produced by the collaboration of directors/coaches and debaters are best understood as creative research. Applying traditional standards of research to debate directors/coaches is fundamentally unfair because it fails to recognize the work of the director/coach along with his/her students in producing creative research.

In order to validate the creative research produced by the collaboration of directors/coaches and debaters, the working group recommends that in conjunction with the American Forensic Association, debate organizations create an on-line journal focused on best practices in creative public policy research. In addition to providing an outlet for best practices in debate argumentation, the journal also might publish policy analyses about contemporary policy controversies drawn from debate research. The editorial board of the journal would review samples of creative research submitted on a given topic and then publish on-line those examples of creative research meeting the standards of the journal. The focus of the on-line journal would be on best practices in creative research related to the particular debate topic and thus would not compete with the mission of existing journals, such as *Argumentation and Advocacy*. However, the existence of the on-line journal could validate the importance of the creative research produced in the collaboration of directors/coaches and debaters. The on-line journal also might be a way for the debate community to participate in the dialogue about public policy in the public sphere.

The second problem is that in attempting to account for the time demands on debate coaches, many institutions have created non-traditional academic appointments for debate coaches. These appointments do account for the demands of the activity, but often lack the protections provided to tenure-track or term appointment faculty members. This situation threatens the stability of coaching. In a difficult economic time, a debate director/coach may be let go simply because he/she lacks the protection of tenure. Also, debate directors/coaches are much more subject to the vagaries of shifting academic ideologies than are faculty members with tenure-track appointments. Another unfortunate effect of present standards is to encourage institutions to hire non-academic coaches, usually a recent former debater, to direct a program. This coaching arrangement may produce an activity in which the focus is almost exclusively on competition as opposed to pedagogy. It also means that directors/coaches rarely have a long term perspective.

It seems clear that the solution to the problems we have identified is to create appointment and evaluation models that both account for the unique demands of coaching debate and also provide appropriate academic protections for coaches. Our goal in this report is to provide clear, equitable, reasonable, and attainable standards for annual performance evaluation and promotion. While recognizing that institutions may take many approaches to appointment and evaluation standards for a debate director/coach, the working group believes that there are two possible models for establishing standards that are clear, equitable, reasonable, and attainable that merit particular attention.

Model One

A Professional Performance Model

Under the professional performance model, a debate director/coach would be appointed and evaluated in the same way that professionals with teaching, but not research responsibilities, are appointed and evaluated. In this view, a debate director/coach would be evaluated based on his/her professional accomplishments in coaching debate, along with normal teaching and service responsibilities. The professional accomplishments in debate would be assessed through a professional responsibility portfolio that might include one or more of the following:

- A summary of team-building and other coaching efforts carried out by the director/coach;
- A summary of team performance at tournaments in the review period;
- A sample of research briefs created during the debate season. This material might be published in the on-line journal on best practices in debate argumentation;
- A summary of the director/coach's work as a judge in debate and how this judging functioned as a means of carrying on an academic dialogue concerning research relevant to the debate resolution;
- Information about public debates and other events in which the debate squad participated;
- A summary of pedagogical efforts training coaches and future directors of debate;
- A summary of efforts to secure external funding for research, programming, and/or outreach and development programs, e.g. Urban Debate Leagues (UDLS);
- A summary of alumni development and other outreach efforts;
- Traditional academic research in argumentation and debate in journals such as *Argumentation and Advocacy*, *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate*, and *Argumentation* or the proceedings from argumentation conferences such as Alta, ISSA and OSSA, outlets that have played a key role in the development of argumentation and debate/forensics theory and practice (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment);

- Other appropriate information bearing on the professional performance of the director/coach.

The professional responsibility model recognizes that the demands of coaching make it difficult or impossible for a debate director/coach to fulfill the research mission of other tenure-track faculty members. Rather, the position should be evaluated in the same way that a Clinical Professor or other professional, with teaching responsibilities is evaluated. For example, the Basic Course Director at a number of universities is evaluated under a model in which professional performance takes the place of research in the evaluation scheme. Similarly, a clinical professor managing something like a clinic or laboratory would be evaluated based on their work in the clinic or laboratory, as well as their teaching, and not based on publications. Some universities may want to give the debate coach a particular title analogous to clinical professor in order to account for the nature of the position.

The professional responsibility model provides an appropriate way of accounting for the massive time commitment associated with as well as the pedagogical importance of coaching debate. Under this approach, a debate director/coach could be placed in a tenure-track faculty line with all the rights and privileges thereof, but evaluated under the professional responsibility model. The director/coach could be tenured in this position and post-tenure remain in it continuing to fill the position as director/coach. Alternatively, the professional responsibility model could be used for renewable term appointments of three or five years. The tenure-track model is preferable because it provides greater stability.

The professional responsibility model accounts for the substantial commitment that acting as a debate director/coach requires and provides an appropriate means of specifying the appointment assumptions and evaluating the performance of a coach.

Model Two

Debate Performance as a Form of Research in a Tenure-Track Model

While the professional responsibility model is an appropriate means of evaluating the performance of a debate coach, the working group believes that the Debate Performance model is preferable. Under this approach, a season of debate would be viewed as itself a form of research in the same way that directing a theatrical production is viewed as a form of creative performance in theater. This model accounts for the enormous demands of debate and also recognizes that academic debate is itself an enormously research-intensive activity. In the course of a debate season, the arguments produced under the direction of any director/coach reach literally hundreds of debaters, judges, and other coaches. In that way, the ideas are presented and tested in a public setting at least as rigorous as the peer-review process for academic publication. The Debate Performance model is the most appropriate model for appointment and evaluation of a debate director/coach at any university with a strong research mission. At such institutions, there is every danger that a faculty member on a non-research appointment may be viewed as a second class citizen. Recognizing that debate perfor-

mance is itself a form of research provides a means of fairly evaluating the work of a director/coach and minimizing the danger that the director/coach will be viewed as academically inferior to other research faculty. Under this approach, a debate director/coach would be evaluated based on his/her research performance in debate, along with normal teaching and service responsibilities.

The Debate Performance model requires a means of assessing the research dimension in a season of debate in a way similar to that which is used in theater to assess the creative performance value in a theatrical production (examples of such standards are included as an appendix to this document). A similar approach is sometimes used in journalism and other disciplines. Drawing on the experience in theater and other academic disciplines, debate directors/coaches could be evaluated based on one or more of the following:

- A portfolio of research materials including research briefs representing a broad sample of the team's research efforts over the course of the debate season. This material might be published in the on-line journal on best practices in debate argumentation;
- A summary of the director/coach's work as a judge in debate and how this judging functioned as a means of carrying on an academic dialogue concerning research relevant to the debate resolution;
- A two-page statement explaining the intellectual importance of the research produced over the course of the season;
- A summary of pedagogical efforts training coaches and future directors of debate;
- A summary of efforts to secure external funding for research, programming, and/or outreach and development programs, e.g. Urban Debate Leagues (UDLS);
- Peer review statements on the research performance of the team by debate critics certified for their excellence in argument by the National Debate Tournament, the Cross Examination Debate Association, and other appropriate debate organizations, operating under the general sponsorship of the American Forensic Association, the leading professional organization in argumentation studies. In theater, peer reviewers are certified by leading organizations and their views are consulted on the quality of theatrical productions. A similar process would work well in debate and be much easier to organize because of the tournament focused nature of the activity. The standards needed to be classified as a peer critic would be validated by debate organizations and the American Forensic Association;
- Traditional academic research, including research focused on pedagogical issues in argumentation and debate in journals such as *Argumentation and Advocacy*, *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate*, and *Argumentation* or proceedings from argumentation conferences such as Alta, ISSA and OSSA, outlets that have played a key role in the development of argumentation and debate/forensics theory and practice (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment); (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment);

- Other appropriate information bearing on the professional performance of the coach.

The Debate Performance model provides an appropriate model for appointing and evaluating the academic performance of debate coaches. It recognizes the immense demands placed on directors/coaches and provides a means of evaluating that performance that does not risk labeling the director/coach as a non-research and therefore lesser faculty member. Rather, it recognizes that a season of debate involves just as strong and rigorous a commitment to academic research as does participation in the peer review publication process. Under this approach, a debate director/coach could be placed in a tenure-track faculty line with all the rights and privileges thereof, but evaluated under the debate performance model. The director/coach could be tenured in this position and post-tenure remain in it continuing to fill the position as director/coach.

In relation to the Debate Performance model, the working group urges relevant debate and forensics organizations to study the most appropriate means of certifying peer reviewers. In addition to conducting reviews of tenure and promotion materials, these reviewers might be used in some cases as part of the annual evaluation or third-year review process. It is important that debate and forensics organizations establish rigorous standards for validating status as a peer reviewer in order to guarantee that reviews produced by the peer reviewers receive the careful consideration that they deserve.

Appointment Expectations

In order to clearly establish appointment expectations, it is important that letters of appointment specify the responsibilities of the director/coach and the criteria under which his/her performance will be evaluated both in terms of the annual merit process and in terms of promotion and tenure. The letter of appointment should articulate the relationship of the director/coach and the debate/forensics program to the mission of the program, department, college, and university.

Promotion to Professor

In addition to providing a model for promotion to Associate Professor with tenure, it is important to provide an appointment model and associated standards for promotion to Professor. Provision of a model under which distinguished debate directors/coaches can be promoted to Professor is important for two reasons. First, the promotion to Professor is a sign of substantial professional accomplishment. Without that alternative, even the most distinguished director/coach may be considered a second class citizen in the department. Second, because attaining the rank of Professor takes both time and considerable professional accomplishment, directors/coaches who attain this rank will have long experience with the activity. These directors/coaches play a crucial role in providing institutional memory within the activity and maintaining a focus on pedagogy.

Each of the models for appointment and evaluation that were described earlier could be used to set standards for promotion to Professor. The faculty member would again use the portfolio process, but with the aim of demonstrating that he/she was a major intellectual leader in the activity, as defined by the criteria for evaluating the portfolio under either the professional performance or the debate performance models.

Merit evaluation

As we noted in a review of the current status of appointment and evaluation standards in debate, many directors/coaches currently are on non-academic appointments. This method of appointment lacks the stability of the tenure track model and deprives both debate as a subfield and also particular academic institutions of the insights that the director/coach can provide on a host of academic issues related to public policy, value argument, argumentation, and means of managing a research group. Therefore, while we believe the tenure model is the most appropriate approach for appointing and evaluating debate coaches, we also believe that regardless of the model it is essential for directors/coaches to be evaluated through the same merit evaluation process as other faculty members, although by criteria appropriate for the director/coach as outlined in this document, and to have access to the same kinds of rewards as other faculty members.

Transfer to alternative evaluation appointments

It is important to recognize that the appointment and evaluation standards apply only to cases where faculty members remain actively involved in debate. Meeting the standards for appointment and promotion under either the professional performance or the research performance models would not necessarily qualify the individual to shift his/her appointment to a traditional research oriented appointment. Since the individual would not have been tenured under a research model, his/her accomplishments would not necessarily qualify him/her for such an appointment. This approach has two advantages. First, it encourages debate directors/coaches to remain in the activity by providing them a path for promotion first to Associate Professor with tenure and then Professor. This should help keep senior directors/coaches involved in debate. Second, it answers the fear of some that debate directors/coaches will be tenured under a non-research model and then retire from debate to the department and become unproductive. This would not be possible because the appointment of the director/coach should specify not only their assignment to debate, but also that their promotion and tenure were accepted under a non-research model. Thus, the faculty member could transfer out of debate into a traditional tenure track faculty line only with the approval of relevant promotion and tenure decision makers at a given school.

Conclusion

The Working Group on Tenure and Promotion Standards believes that current appointment and evaluation standards in many cases do not account for the

unique demands of coaching debate and fail to provide the stability of the tenure track model. Current practices also encourage programs to move to a model in which the director/coach is a non-academic and the focus of the program is purely on competition. The working group believes that this trend is unfortunate and that alternative standards are needed. In this report we have developed a case for two models for appointment and evaluation. In the final section, we include draft language that we hope will be endorsed by various organizations associated with academic debate.

Standards for Appointment and Evaluation of Debate Coaches

Approved by the Developmental Conference on Debate, June 2009

Approved by the Board of Trustees of the National Debate Tournament, June 2009

Approved by the American Forensic Association, November 2009

Preamble—The pedagogical value of debate for training the next generation of leaders in business, academia, the law, and the public sphere is well known. Debaters of today often become the successful lawyer, academic, business leader or even Senator, Supreme Court Justice, or President of tomorrow. Given the pedagogical value of debate, it is important to have appointment and evaluation standards that account for the unique demands of tournament debate. The time demands of working intensively with a group of gifted students to prepare them for tournament competition against other gifted students are enormous. Appointment and evaluation standards must account for both those demands.

It is in recognition of both the importance of the director/coach and the need for appointment and evaluation standards that account for the nature of debate, that _____ endorses the following standards:

Model One

A Professional Performance Model

Under the professional performance model, a debate director/coach is appointed and evaluated in the same way that professionals with teaching, but not research responsibilities, are appointed and evaluated. Professional performance replaces research in the appointment and evaluation standards applied to the coach. Professional accomplishments in debate should be assessed through a professional responsibility portfolio prepared by the director/coach in the normal evaluation cycle for the institution. That portfolio should include one or more of the following:

- A summary of team-building and other coaching efforts carried out by the coach;
- A summary of team performance at tournaments in the review period;

- A sample of research briefs created during the debate season. This material might be published in the on-line journal on best practices in debate argumentation;
- A summary of the director/coach's work as a judge in debate and how this judging functioned as a means of carrying on an academic dialogue concerning research relevant to the debate resolution;
- Information about public debates and other events in which the debate squad participated;
- A summary of pedagogical efforts training coaches and future directors of debate;
- A summary of efforts to secure external funding for research, programming, and/or outreach and development programs, e.g. Urban Debate Leagues (UDLS);
- A summary of alumni development and other outreach efforts;
- Traditional academic research, including research focused on pedagogical issues in argumentation and debate in journals such as *Argumentation and Advocacy*, *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate*, and *Argumentation* or proceedings from argumentation conferences such as Alta, ISSA and OSSA, outlets that have played a key role in the development of argumentation and debate/forensics theory and practice (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment); (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment);
- Other appropriate information bearing on the professional performance of the coach.

Under the professional responsibility model, the debate director/coach should be evaluated in the same way that a Clinical Professor or other professional with teaching, but not research, responsibilities is evaluated. For example, the Basic Course Director at a number of universities is evaluated under a model in which professional performance takes the place of research in the evaluation scheme. Similarly, a clinical professor managing a clinic or laboratory would be evaluated based on their work in the clinic or laboratory, as well as their teaching, and not based on publications. Some universities may want to give the debate director/coach a particular title analogous to clinical professor in order to account for the nature of the position.

The professional responsibility model provides an appropriate way of accounting for the massive time commitment associated with as well as the pedagogical importance of coaching debate. Under this approach, a debate director/coach could be placed in a tenure-track faculty line with all the rights and privileges thereof, but evaluated under the professional responsibility model. The director/coach could be tenured in this position and post-tenure remain in it, continuing to fill the position as director/coach. Alternatively, the professional responsibility model could be used for renewable term appointments of three or five years. The tenure-track model is preferable because it provides greater stability.

Model Two**Debate Performance as a Form of Research in a Tenure-Track Model**

While the professional responsibility model is an appropriate means of evaluating the performance of a debate coach, the Debate Performance model is a more appropriate model at institutions with a substantial research focus. Under this approach, a season of debate is viewed as itself a form of research in the same way that directing a theatrical production is viewed as a form of creative performance in theater. This model accounts for the enormous demands of debate and also recognizes that academic debate is itself an enormously research-intensive activity. In the course of a debate season, the arguments produced under the direction of any director/coach reach literally hundreds of debaters, judges, and other coaches. In that way, the ideas are presented and tested in a public setting at least as rigorous as the peer-review process for academic publication. Recognizing that debate performance is itself a form of research provides a means of fairly evaluating the work of a director/coach and minimizing the danger that the director/coach will be viewed as academically inferior to other research faculty.

The Debate Performance model requires a means of assessing the research dimension in a season of debate in a way similar to that which is used in theater to assess the creative performance value in a theatrical production. Drawing on the experience in theater, debate directors/coaches should be evaluated based on one or more of the following:

- A portfolio of research materials including research briefs representing a broad sample of the team's research efforts over the course of the debate season. This material might be published in the on-line journal on best practices in debate argumentation;
- A summary of the director/coach's work as a judge in debate and how this judging functioned as a means of carrying on an academic dialogue concerning research relevant to the debate resolution;
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- Peer review statements on the research performance of the team by debate critics certified for their excellence in argument by the National Debate Tournament, the Cross Examination Debate Association, and other appropriate debate organizations, operating under the general sponsorship of the American Forensic Association, the leading professional organization in argumentation studies. In theater, peer reviewers are certified by leading organizations and their views are consulted on the quality of theatrical productions. A similar process would work well in debate and be much

easier to organize because of the tournament focused nature of the activity. The standards needed to be classified as a peer critic would be validated by debate organizations and the American Forensic Association;

- Traditional academic research, including research focused on pedagogical issues in argumentation and debate in journals such as *Argumentation and Advocacy*, *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate*, and *Argumentation* or the proceedings from argumentation conferences such as Alta, ISSA and OSSA, outlets that have played a key role in the development of argumentation and debate/forensics theory and practice (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment); (note, that such research is not a required part of the appointment);
- Other appropriate information bearing on the professional performance of the coach.

The Debate Performance model provides an appropriate model for appointing and evaluating the academic performance of debate coaches. It recognizes the immense demands placed on directors/coaches and provides a means of evaluating that performance that does not risk labeling the director/coach as a non-research and therefore lesser faculty member. Rather, it recognizes that a season of debate involves just as strong and rigorous a commitment to academic research as does participation in the peer review publication process. Under this approach, a debate director/coach could be placed in a tenure-track faculty line, with all the rights and privileges thereof, but evaluated under the debate performance model. The director/coach could be tenured in this position and post-tenure remain in it, continuing to fill the position as director/coach.

Appointment Expectations

In order to clearly establish appointment expectations, it is important that letters of appointment specify the responsibilities of the director/coach and the criteria under which his/her performance will be evaluated both in terms of the annual merit process and in terms of promotion and tenure. The letter of appointment should articulate the relationship of the director/coach and the debate/forensics program to the mission of the program, department, college, and university.

Promotion to Professor

Each of the models for appointment and evaluation that were described earlier could be used to set standards for promotion to Professor. The faculty member would again use the portfolio process, but with the aim of demonstrating that he/she was a major intellectual leader in the activity, as defined by the criteria for evaluating the portfolio under either the professional performance or the debate performance models.

Endnote

¹We are heavily indebted to the *NCA Performance Studies Division: Tenure and Promotion Guidelines for Understanding and Evaluating Creative Activity*, n.d. for the language of these previous two paragraphs. Additional references include Voice and Speech Trainers Association, Inc., *Promotion, Tenure and Hiring Resources*, 2002; Association for Theatre in Higher Education, *Guidelines for Evaluating the Teacher/Director for Promotion and Tenure*, August 1992; *Good Practice in Tenure Evaluation: Advice for Tenured Faculty, Department Chairs and Academic Administrators-A Joint Project of the American Council on Education, The American Association of University Professors, and United Educators Insurance Risk Retention Group*, 2000.

The Peoria Recommendations Suggestions on Promotion, Tenure and Evaluation for Forensics Professionals

Michael Dreher

Introduction and Background

The reality of forensics education in the early 21st century is that there are a variety of models in terms of designing programs. A simple list of configurations can include:

- Single tenure-track director of forensics
- Tenure-track director of forensics with one or more tenure-track assistant coaches and/or assistant directors
- Tenure-track director of forensics with one or more part-time assistants coaches and/or assistant directors
- Single continuing-appointment director of forensics
- Single term-appointment director of forensics
- Single staff member director of forensics
- Staff director of forensics with one or more full-time staff assistant coaches and/or assistant directors
- Staff director of forensics with one or more part-time staff assistant coaches and/or assistant directors
- Adjunct director of forensics

All of these configurations occur within the basis of a variety of different types of institutions, including research institutions, regional comprehensive institutions, liberal arts institutions, community colleges, and other types of institutions such as for-profit institutions¹.

The AFA Policy Debate Caucus gathered in 1993 at the Quail Roost Conference to create draft guidelines that would help forensic educators obtain tenure. While the original committee consisted primarily of debate educators, the goal was to create a document that could be supported by many forensic organizations. Clearly, the Quail Roost committee was correct in calling for a document that served all of these different constituencies. However, Quail Roost (as I'll further refer to the document in this article) was written from a policy debate paradigm.² Quail Roost was updated in 2009 by a committee chaired by Robin Rowland from the University of Kansas and R. Jarrod Atchinson of Trinity University (Rowland, et al, 2010), and has been approved by the American Forensic Association. While many forensic educators have borrowed from Quail Roost in the preparation of promotion and tenure documents, this document reconsiders Quail Roost and the Status of Standards for Tenure and Promotion of Debate to account for directors who are part of individual events only or are part of comprehensive programs.

Executive Summary

Questions to be asked and answered in terms of promotion, tenure, and rehiring

1. Questions to be asked of all forensic educators

- a. What is your coaching philosophy?
- b. What is your judging philosophy?
- c. What is your teaching philosophy? How do you demonstrate effective teaching?
- d. How do you see your program within the context of various forensic organizations? Do you know what the various organizations stand for?
- e. How do you see forensics as an educational opportunity?
- f. How would you define your program? If someone were to ask you what makes your program unique, how would you answer?
- g. How do you know your program is meeting its goals?

2. How does the professional document teaching?

3. How does the professional document service?

4. How does the professional document research?

5. Questions to be asked by internal and external reviewers

- a. Does the forensic professional understand the key issues of the field?
- b. Has the forensic professional shown mastery of key competencies?
- c. When appropriate, has the forensic professional established her/himself as an effective teacher in her/his field of study?
- d. Has the program clearly identified its mission, and has the forensics professional successfully operated within its mission?

Justification for Peoria Recommendations

Quail Roost was written before some major reconceptions of theories of scholarship. Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered* has had a significant impact on promotion and tenure practices at a variety of institutions. Any guidelines or suggestions for evaluation of forensic professionals must take into account how Boyer's practices have influenced higher education. Additionally, one of the presuppositions of the Quail Roost document is of a "reverse presumption" about service – that in the realm of policy debate, service often happens earlier rather than later in one's professional career (Rogers, 2000, pp. 7-8). That is certainly not always true within the variety of different forensic organizations, although it can be. Instead, a conception of service that is broader-based is necessary to consider the different kinds of service that take place within the forensics community.

This document, therefore, seeks to strike a balance between prescriptive and descriptive. While departments and institutions vary as far as standards of evaluation, tenure, and promotion are concerned, this document seeks to advance the work of former and current forensic educators such as Ann Burnett, MaryAnn Danielson, Tom Workman, David Williams and Joe Gantt to raise the kinds of questions that directors (and assistant directors) should ask of themselves and

their programs, and to suggest questions that should be asked of forensics professionals³ when it comes to their evaluation. In that light, these recommendations serve both to further the professionalism of the activity as well as to align forensics with the growing movement toward assessment (Bartanen, 2006; Kerber and Cronn-Mills, 2005).

While doing so, however, it is important to recognize the caveats noted several years ago by Ed Hinck (2000):

Comparing the work of one director with another is often more difficult than comparing the more traditional work of faculty members who teach and write in their field of expertise. However, just as we recognize the varied contributions of faculty members within the four major categories of teaching, scholarly activity, service, and professional activity, it seems important enough to describe the variations in programs and explain the educational value of those emphases. Failing to address those issues leaves directors vulnerable to the misapplication of a very limited set of standards for evaluating their work. (pp. 11-12)

To Hinck's qualifications, this article contends that we as a forensics community must consider research about the activity as well as research about higher education in order to make the recommendations that follow more meaningful. Thus, the recommendations that will be offered seek to address several questions:

1. How do we define when a director/assistant director is an effective part of the forensics community, which is by definition educational, co-curricular, and also competitive?
2. How do we help to define how forensics uniquely impacts the areas of teaching, scholarship and service?
3. How do we account for the variations in program types when determining what makes an effective ADOF/DOF?

This document draws upon two decades of forensics and higher education research. In some cases, the research and points made will be familiar to long-term members of the forensic community. In many cases, the arguments presented were prescient long before they were recognized in the larger community. In other cases, good ideas that simply were forgotten are being advanced again because of their intrinsic value.

One other point of qualification must be made about this document. This document does not argue that forensics professionals, unless in a forensics-only position, should not be held to appropriate standards of tenure and/or promotion. The expectation is that a forensics professional should be effective in teaching, research and service. What this document does is to highlight how those areas can function within the forensics community, and offers guidance both to the forensics professional as well as host departments and the college or university

as a whole as to how the areas of teaching, research and service may differ for a forensics professional. To utilize an analogy, the Association for Theatre in Higher Education (ATHE) has developed guidelines for evaluating the teacher/performer for promotion and tenure. The ATHE suggests that in the application of their guidelines, "All institutions, departments and faculty members are urged to adapt these guidelines to serve their specific missions. Departments are urged to determine and record--before promotion and tenure considerations, preferably at the time of hiring--what shall constitute qualitative and quantitative achievements as a teacher and performer" (Chabora, 1996, p. 1). These recommendations are given in the same spirit.

The Professionalism of Forensics Professionals Bridging the Pedagogical and the Competitive

One of the unique challenges that a director of forensics faces is that she or he has the ability to offer educational philosophies that guide an entire program. Assistant directors, particularly those who have oversight for a particular portion of a program (for example, individual events or a particular type of debate) also have this same ability. While this ability to set the educational philosophy is often ground in negotiations with both the host department (as applicable) and/or the larger institution as a whole, it is clear that the director should be able to offer justifications as to the existence and the educational viability of forensics.

As the Status for Standards for Tenure and Promotion in Debate observe, what makes forensics tournaments unique are that they are "best understood as a kind of advanced laboratory for teaching public argument" (2009, p. 4). Indeed, the debate standards suggest that competition and pedagogy are intertwined: "From the perspective of the director/coach, however, the desire of debaters for competitive success is a powerful prod pushing them to fulfill the pedagogical functions of the activity" (2009, p. 4). Accordingly, it is appropriate, then, for forensics professionals to be asked how understand both the competitive and pedagogical nature of what they do, and how they choose to integrate the two.

Along those lines, and of those suggested by Keefe (1989), we should consider the following questions to be essential to ask forensic educators (pp. 49-50).

1. What is your coaching philosophy?

While this question sounds fairly straightforward at first, most forensics professionals recognize that this can easily become a fairly complex question. Inherently, by being a part of the forensics community, members of the community have developed a variety of attitudes and perspectives about how forensics should operate, both on a team (micro) and community (macro) level. A successful coaching philosophy should recognize both the micro and macro level.

On the micro level, forensics professionals should be able to answer at least three different questions: how do we expect students to generate speeches⁴, what role should we as coaches play in the development of our students⁵, and what kind of squad do we want to develop?⁶ We should, as forensics educators, be

able to clearly delineate and identify the kind of role we want to play in the development of our students as forensics team members, both in micro and macro contexts.

On the macro level, we have a variety of good illustrations from the realm of policy debate. Dr. Ede Warner's Louisville project and Towson State University's 2008 CEDA National Championship team are two examples of programs that have successfully raised questions of how debate should function. Warner has posted extensively on the former EDebate listserv as well as published an article examining the philosophical assumptions under which his program operates.⁷ Additionally, the growing research about forensics and service learning⁸ suggests ways in which forensics teams can interact within a variety of different communities.

2. *What is your judging philosophy?*

The question is familiar to those who coach debate, as several organizations such as CEDA (Cross Examination Debate Association), NCCFA (National Christian College Forensics Association), NPDA (National Parliamentary Debate Association), NPTE (National Parliamentary Tournament of Excellence) and the NDT (National Debate Tournament) already explicitly require written philosophies as a part of the tournament entry. The call was made at the 3rd Individual Events Developmental Conference for individual events coaches to do the same. As Przybylo (1997) argued, "A judging philosophy is dynamic or ever changing. Our views and criteria should develop as one grows as a judge and educator" (p. 20). Przybylo argues for, at the minimum, the following areas to be covered:

- A General Philosophy Statement (overall view of your positions)
- "Overdone" material/topics
- Different rules (NFA, AFA, Phi Rho Pi, etc.)
- Listening behavior of students in the round
- Language (dirty words, sexist language, etc.)
- Movement and Book-as-Prop
- Use of script
- Current sources
- Types of comments written on the ballot
- Use of speaker points
- Organization of ballot
- Appearance of student
- Time violations
- Statements for each event

Przybylo's series of questions are a good start toward establishing a personal philosophy. One might expect, when it comes to questions of tenure, promotion and retention, that members of the community should be aware of some of the critical issues within various events, and have clearly articulated statements

about their own positions relative to those critical issues⁹.

3. What is your teaching philosophy? How do you demonstrate effective teaching?

This question is essential to answer no matter whether the forensics professional is striving for full professor or as a staff member up for contract renewal. Even though teaching may be only a part of our responsibilities, given that forensics is at its core an educational activity¹⁰, we must still be able to articulate two different aspects of teaching: “What is our own pedagogy, and how have we derived it?” and “How do we understand our role as teachers within forensics?”¹¹

Both of these are covered later in this essay.

4. How do you see your program within the context of various forensic organizations? Do you know what the various organizations stand for?

Although in an ideal world, directors and other professionals should first determine their philosophy and then decide what organizations their teams should be members of, the fact of the matter is that most programs tend to decide what organizations they are part of based on region or the particular events in which they participate. To that end, then, it is appropriate to expect the professional to articulate how and where her or his program fits. For example, in the realm of parliamentary and Lincoln-Douglas debate, programs often confront the question of whether they are traditional or more policy-based¹². Such considerations are also critical for programs at faith-based institutions: to what extent and how should the forensic team uphold elements of the university’s faith tradition?¹³

Additionally, care must be taken to consider whether a program can successfully be part of multiple organizations, and when tournaments conflict, which organizations will a program more closely identify with? In recent years, NPDA has conflicted with CEDA; directors of programs that participate in both organizations have to make decisions as to which organization’s tournament to support. Such decisions should be made in the context of the goals and the pedagogy present within each program, but should be clearly articulated by a forensics professional.

5. How do you see forensics as an educational opportunity?

The goal behind this particular objective is to have directors and other professionals articulate what kinds of students they draw into the forensics experience. In the realm of policy debate, for example, some programs (such as Vermont, Louisiana-Lafayette, and others) are known for drawing novices into the activity. In individual events, several colleges and universities, particularly in Minnesota, require some of their students to participate in forensics in order to graduate.¹⁴ Since we clearly do not serve all of our student populations, it is important for us as forensics professionals to more clearly articulate the kinds of students we attract to our teams, as well as how those students fit within the educational mission of our respective colleges and universities.¹⁵

6. How would you define your program? If someone were to ask you what makes your program unique, how would you answer?

This particular is mentioned last because in some ways, it is the summary of the previous five questions. Most of the previous questions are designed to be affirmative answers (i.e., “I seek to engage students in critical thinking”). However, we often answer the last question in the negative (“My program isn’t like program X, Y or Z.”). Forensics professionals should be able to answer this question in the affirmative, grounded not only in terms of their objectives of the program, but also in terms of their program’s contributions to their college or university.

Part of defining the philosophy of the program is to make a decision on whether or not the program should be specialized or broad-based. Rogers (2000) made the case for the broad-based program, contending, “If we give up and compartmentalize our programs doesn’t that make them all the more vulnerable to external critics who argue that we are educating within only a narrow band of experience?” (p. 8). McGee and Simerly (1997) advanced the argument that “In an era of forensics specialization, no program or program director can do all things well” (p. 282). They also examined issues of resource allocation and the experience of the director to make the case for more focused programs.

Forensic educators should be able to articulate why they have chosen the course they have through *pedagogical* rather than pragmatic lenses. If a program chooses to only offer individual events, then the director should be able to make that case. If the program tends to concentrate on particular areas, such as Lincoln-Douglas debate, limited preparation debate, and so forth, the program should be able to provide a justification. In short, the test of a director should be as Joseph Cardot (1991) once argued: “The director or coach of today must help decision-makers see the educational, social, and personal relevance of forensics” (p. 81).

7. How do you know that your program is effectively meeting its goals?

Bartanen (2006) notes the problem with much current assessment of programs: it tends to be process rather than outcome-based. While studies have been done concerning the role of forensics within the university as a whole¹⁶, most programs tend not to ask questions about what kind of outcomes the program desires, and whether or not those outcomes have actually been achieved.

One of the means of assessment should be to include students who are part of the program. The Denver conference on individual events recommended that “forensic coaches have the duty to articulate to students their program’s philosophy, goals, rules and expectations” (Karns and Schnoor, 1990, p. 7). Part of an assessment instrument should be to find out how students perceive the goals of the program, and to see whether those goals are actually being achieved.¹⁷ In addition, forensics professionals can profitably include peer evaluations (such as those already required as external referees/reviewers), reviews from former coaches and DOF’s, and so on.

Forensics Professionals and Teaching

Clearly, the expectation is that as instructors in a college classroom, forensics professionals are expected to be effective teachers. The question of whether or not teaching also applies to forensics has been long debated in a variety of tenure and promotion committees. Because of the kind of coaching that forensics professionals often do, which can be one-to-one or one-to-a few, it is often not recognized in the same way as teaching a normal course. However, there are at least two reasons to consider forensics as teaching.

First, to be an effective coach requires the recognition of learning styles. The idea that learners utilize a variety of styles has long been examined within education at all levels; to say that different people prefer styles such as auditory learning, visual learning, and so forth, is neither new nor controversial.¹⁸ In the forensics literature, Thomas Bartl's article which noted that a learning styles approach to coaching can be extremely effective. Since this approach borrows from what has already been established within educational pedagogy, its applicability is readily apparent. Forensics professionals must consider and document their development as teachers.¹⁹

Second, forensics professionals have the unique ability to see a student's performance multiple times and to give it far more feedback than a typical instructor can do within a course. In our role as judges, we are asked to provide feedback to students from other institutions, and in that sense, confirm whether students have sufficiently mastered the competencies expected within forensic events, and their effectiveness in a realm of public speaking. As such, we not only teach our students, we teach the students of our colleagues as well. The ballot comments we provide can be a basis for which we can document our teaching.²⁰

Forensics Professionals and Service

Different institutions have different levels of expectation as far as service is concerned. This document will consider that service can happen both within the forensics community and externally, such as in service-learning.

Within the forensics community, the common assumption is to think primarily in terms of the national organizations. There are ways in which forensics professionals can engage in service, however. The first is the tournament itself. Not every school is able to host; not every professional is able to direct. Those who do are indeed the lifeblood of the activity. What is needed, however, is more of an assessment tool by which we can establish the effectiveness of the hosting experience. Numbers of schools are a poor indicator; given the nature of the tournament calendar, tournament attendance will vary. However, as a community, we should encourage tournaments that offer variations in different events²¹, as well as to provide standards by which we know that hosts and tournament directors have been successful. This paper will not list such standards, as they are best left to regional and local communities. The two preliminary round and finals Twin Cities Forensics League tournaments on Tuesday afternoons in Minnesota, for example, serve a much different audience than the national draw of the Sunset Cliffs or the HFO Swing.

Service also happens within regional and local associations. Recognition should be given to those who do such tasks as write topics for tournaments, serve in tabulation rooms, on executive boards and councils of regional forensics organizations, and so on. Each of these different activities is a form of peer-recognized service.

In short, both the forensics professional and those who evaluate the professional should ask the question of how the professional is engaging the larger forensics community, and what role that person has in serving the community. In doing so, it is important to recognize that service happens in a variety of different ways.

Forensics Professionals and Scholarship

This paper will argue, as others, that scholarship should not be confined to traditional views of scholarship as simply conference presentations, refereed journals and/or books. Indeed, many in the academic community have come around to the idea that scholarship should be more broadly grounded along the lines of Ernest Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*. The idea of utilizing Boyer's framework is not new; a variety of coaches have successfully used these arguments in promotion and tenure cases²². In expanding on Boyer's conceptions of how higher education should function and how it could be helpful for evaluation purposes, one important caveat must be emphasized: Boyer's conceptions do not in any way suggest that such research is easier or less rigorous as compared to traditional research; indeed, in many ways, such research is harder to do and harder to explain. The four elements of research Boyer considers are: the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of application, and the scholarship of teaching. These four types of scholarship will be explained in terms of the forensics community, as well as how they can be conceived of in various stages of a forensics professional's career.

Boyer suggests that the scholarship of discovery is most similar to traditional research and is based on the notion of a commitment to knowledge for its own sake. This kind of scholarship, in Boyer's view, often includes the creation of original work.

In the forensics community, there have been a variety of calls for additional research into what we do as a community. However, it is also the case that creative activities, such as directing a Readers' Theater, involve the creation of original work as well. To make the case for Readers' Theater, the following is an example of the kind of argumentation Boyer suggests:

Is the scholarship presented publicly or published? Yes.

Is it peer-evaluated? Certainly. We often tend to choose judges in events such as RT that show a significant understanding of the event.

Does it have an impact on the field? Good Readers' Theaters force us to reconsider what the event should be, and indeed, what should be discussed within RT. ARTa is an excellent illustration of this principle. ARTa, and notably foren-

sics professionals such as Leisel Reinhart, Steven Seagle, Todd Lewis and many others, have advanced the scope of what Readers' Theater can be and what it should do.

Boyer's second type of scholarship, the scholarship of integration, refers to where disciplinary boundaries come together. This is often seen in the integration of oral interpretation and performance studies literature. Recent attempts to integrate forensics and organizational culture and forensics and leadership could also be considered within the scholarship of integration.

The third type of scholarship, the scholarship of application, is phrased by Boyer in terms of "How can knowledge be responsibly applied to consequential problems? How can it be helpful to individuals as well as institutions? And further, can social problems *themselves* define an agenda for scholarly investigation?" (p. 21). Boyer then argues, "New intellectual understandings can arise out of the very act of application" and that in several disciplines, "theory and practice vitally interact, and one renews the other" (p. 23).

Typically, when the forensics community considers the kind of research presented at our national conventions, it often falls into the scholarship of application. We also see it in review pieces at developmental conferences²³, specialized conferences such as ARTa²⁴ and PKD, and in forensics journals²⁵. This kind of scholarship is common within the realm of interpretation, as forensic educators examine the interaction between oral interpretation, theater, performance studies, narrative theory, and in some cases, musical forms such as hip-hop²⁶ and so forth.

Practical Applications for Forensics Professionals About Scholarship: To Publish in Forensics or Not?

This question is one of great concern to the forensics community, for as Kay pointed out nearly 20 years ago, a bias does exist against forensics research. Kay, a former DOF and then chair of the Department of Speech Communication at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, saw the purpose of his paper "to plead with members of the forensic community to ground their research interests in matters which simultaneously serve the community of forensics and the community of scholars who are dedicated to the understanding of human communication" (p. 61). While this paper doesn't disagree with Kay's perspective, it instead argues for a broadening of the perspective, to contend that forensics professionals *do* interact with the communication discipline. In any event, the forensics professional should be ready to demonstrate how her or his research interacts with the larger scholarly community and/or the public.²⁷

Evaluation of Forensics Professionals Can One Size Fit All?

The beginning of this paper argued that there were at least nine different categories of educators. Clearly, the standards for promotion to full professor at Research Extensive universities should look different than the standards at community colleges. In a parallel way, standards for staff members are likely to be (radically) different than for faculty members. This portion of the paper will present several different means by which we can evaluate forensic educators that

can function across a variety of different types of institutions and programs.

1. Does the forensic professional understand the key issues of the field?

One aspect of Boyer's work that has been relatively unexplored is his third chapter in *Scholarship Reconsidered* on the faculty. Boyer argues the following:

... it is unrealistic, we believe, to expect *all* faculty members, regardless of their interests, to engage in research and to publish on a regular timetable. For most scholars, creativity simply doesn't work that way. We propose an alternative approach. Why not assume that staying in touch with one's field means just that – reading the literature and keeping well informed about consequential trends and patterns? Why not ask professors periodically to select the two or three most important new developments or significant new articles in their fields, and then present, in writing, the reasons for their choices? Such a paper, one that could be peer reviewed, surely would help reveal the extent to which a faculty member is conversant with developments in his or her discipline, and is in fact, remaining intellectually alive. (pp. 27-28)

Such an approach could easily be incorporated into a teaching portfolio. This would allow forensic professionals to take a broad approach that considers the entirety of forensics within communication, political science or other disciplines, or focuses more narrowly on particular events.

Diamond's (2002) criteria defining an activity also provides some means by which we can assess whether the reflection we as forensics professionals are doing meets scholarly criteria:

1. The activity of work requires a high level of discipline-related expertise.
2. The activity or work is conducted in a scholarly manner with clear goals, adequate preparation and appropriate methodology.
3. The activity or work and its results are appropriately and effectively documented and disseminated. This reporting should include a reflective critique that addresses the significance of the work, the process that was used, and what was learned.
4. The activity or work has significance beyond the individual context.
5. The activity or work, both process and product or result, is reviewed and judged to be meritorious and significant by a panel of one's peers (p. 78).

2. Does the forensic professional show mastery of key competencies?

Previous research by Workman, Williams and Gantt, and Danielson and Hollwitz have tried to focus on key competencies of the director of forensics. Workman suggests that there are six critical competencies: instructional, financial management, leadership and responsibility, administrative, interpersonal, and professional (pp. 84-85). Williams and Gantt's survey identified the administrative as being the most frequently mentioned cluster of DOF duties, followed

by team management and coaching.

Danielson and Hollwitz's survey of DOF's identified four essential components and four relevant components of the DOF's position. In their study, the essential components included: arranging students' participation in off-campus tournaments, administering the speech and debate program, coaching speech and debate participants, and accounting and bookkeeping. The four relevant components of the DOF position were: recruiting students for speech and debate programs, teaching speech and debate classes, directing on-campus tournaments, and counseling and advising speech and debate students. They then went on to suggest that two other components may possibly be included: college and community service involvement, and moderating speech and debate student groups.

Clearly, previous studies have suggested that there are a variety of competencies that surround the forensics professional. As was noted earlier, the forensics professional, in conjunction with her or his supervisor (dean, department chair, etc.), should mutually agree on the important competencies and then demonstrate how those competencies are to be measured.

3. When appropriate, has the forensic professional established her/himself as an effective teacher in her/his field of study?

Because of the nature of some forensic positions being primarily staff positions and/or adjunct positions, those professionals may not necessarily be teaching traditional undergraduate or graduate courses. However, in the sense that forensics coaching can be considered a form of teaching, all who coach are teachers, as this essay argued earlier.²⁸ When we evaluate teaching, there are at least three different contexts to consider in evaluating the forensics professional: teaching within one's discipline, coaching and teaching students, and teaching future forensics professionals.

Teaching in one's discipline has certainly gained a great deal of importance over the past several decades, and it is not the primary focus of this particular paper. I would suggest, clearly, that those who are effective teachers in their courses should be rewarded and recognized. As we evaluate colleagues from other institutions, those who are called to be reviewers should not be afraid to ask about their teaching in other courses.

This paper has already discussed the notion of coaching and teaching students, so this essay will then turn to the final element: teaching future forensics professionals. Many in the forensics community have lamented the decrease in terms of doctoral-level programs that educate forensics professionals; at the same time, MSU-Mankato has developed an MFA program for forensics professionals. But the impact of the trend is that much of what passes as teaching today takes place informally.²⁹ Documenting mentoring or other kinds of relationships is an important part of this process. For forensics professionals who work with graduate students or assistant coaches, documenting the kinds of things that are taught both formally (through classes, workshops or retreats) or informally can serve to show how younger professionals are being asked to model the behaviors and raise the questions that are central to any kind of disciplinary study. Evaluations by the assistants and/or graduate students can become part of the

teaching evaluation process. In much the same way that department chairs are assessed, so too can forensics professionals be assessed.

4. Has the program clearly identified its mission, and has the forensics professional successfully operated within its mission?

Mission statements, for example, can help to both shape the professional's thinking as well as to serve as a reminder of the focus of the program. As Bolton, Brunnermeier & Veldkamp (2008) observe, "A good leader is able to coordinate his followers around a credible mission statement, which communicates the future course of action of the organization" (p. 1). This provides a basis by which the literature of leadership and the literature of assessment come together. If we consider the mission statement of the professional's program, then there are a variety of assessment tools, from surveys, interviews, and focus groups, to external reviewers, that can help to assess the effectiveness of the mission statement and the extent to which the forensics team fulfills the mission statement. As a side effect of that strategy, it is likely that more forensics professionals will be grounded in pedagogical reasons for their teams' existence.

The Status of Standards for Tenure and Promotion in Debate (Rowland, et al, 2010) argue for two different models: a professional performance model, and as research in traditional research-based models. Given the vast differences in comprehensive programs, individual events programs, or even alternative debate format programs (parliamentary debate, LD, IPDA Debate, etc.), it is beyond the scope of these recommendations to suggest that these two models are the only models for forensic professionals. However, these recommendations agree with the Standards for Tenure and Promotion in Debate document, which argue that there must be a path for forensics professionals to reach both associate and full professor, should the professional be in a tenure-track position.

Conclusion

The Peoria Recommendations are meant to be a starting point for both further discussion within the forensics community as well as for individual forensics professionals to consider the key questions of how professionals function within the community, and how professionals should be evaluated within the community. Without clearer standards, the role of the forensics professional will continue to be marginalized as committees who do not understand forensics are asked to evaluate forensics professionals.

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Endnotes

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- ¹ Earlier in the decade, DeVry had several students competing in parliamentary debate.
- ² The Third Developmental Conference on Debate met in June, 2009, to discuss a followup to Quail Roost. From the posting by Robert Rowland of the University of Kansas to EDebate, the revision was to be focused on debate. The goals were outlined in "Professional Status Information," <http://www.ndtceda.com/pipermail/edebate/2009-February/077602.html>, accessed 4 February 2009. The actual paper was approved by the American Forensic Association during the Fall 2009 business meeting.
- ³ The term "forensics professional" shall be used throughout this paper to indicate someone who fits within any of the conceptions mentioned at the very beginning of the recommendations.
- ⁴ Among other places, the issue is raised in O'Rourke, D. J. (1985). Criticizing the critic: The value of questions in rhetorical criticism. *National Forensic Journal*, 3(2), 163-166. Most recently, it was raised in Swift, C. L. & Rybold, G. (2007). Finding an acceptable definition of 'original' work in platform speeches: A study of community college coaches. *Speaker and Gavel* 44 (2007), 27-44.
- ⁵ White, S. L. (2005). The coach as mentor. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 89-94.
- ⁶ Keefe, C. (1991). Developing and managing a peer forensics program. *National Forensic Journal*, 9(1), 65-75; Friedley, S. A. and Manchester, B. B. (2005). Building team cohesion: Becoming 'we' instead of 'me.'" *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 95-100.
- ⁷ Warner, E. & Brusckhe, J. (2001). 'Gone on debating:' Competitive academic debate as a tool of empowerment. *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate*, 22, 1-21.

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- ⁸ Much of the 1998 issue of the *National Forensic Journal* is devoted to service learning. See Hinck, E. A. and Hinck, S. S. (1998). Service learning and forensics. *National Forensic Journal*, 16, 1-26; Warriner, A. A. (1998). Forensics in a correctional facility. *National Forensic Journal*, 16, 27-41; Hatfield, K. L. (1998). Service learning in forensics: An undergraduate's perspective. *National Forensic Journal*, 16, 43-52.
- ⁹ This has long been a strand of forensic research. See Ott, B. (1998). Bridging theory and practice: Toward a more pedagogical model of rhetorical criticism. *National Forensic Journal*, 16, 53-74; Croucher, S. M. (2004). Like, you know, what I'm saying: A study of discourse marker frequency in extemporaneous and impromptu speaking. *National Forensic Journal*, 22(2), 38-47; White, L. and Messmer, L. (2003). An analysis of interstate speeches: Are they structurally different? *National Forensic Journal*, 21(2), 2-19, among others.
- ¹⁰ See Church, R. (1975). The educational value of oral communication courses and intercollegiate forensics: An opinion survey of college prelegal advisors and law school deans. *Argumentation and Advocacy*, 12(1), 49-50; Bartanen, K.M. (1998). The place of the forensics program in the liberal arts college of the twenty-first century: An essay in honor of Larry E. Norton. *The Forensic*, 84(1), 1-16; Stenger, K. (1999). Forensics as preparation for participation in the academic world. *The Forensic*, 84(4), 13-23; Millsap, S. (1998). The benefits of forensics across the curriculum: An opportunity to expand the visibility of college forensics. *The Forensic* 84(1), 17-26.
- ¹¹ White, L. (2005). The coach as mentor. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 89-94.
- ¹² I recognize this is a simplification; however, it illustrates the general principle of identifying one's own program in the light of other peers. This is more a function of the "Here's what my program is like" approach.
- ¹³ For example, many evangelical schools do attend the National Christian College Forensics Invitational, but not all do. Questions of whether or not a program should separate itself from others are perfectly fair and appropriate questions to raise. Forensics professionals at faith-based institutions are typically required to write a faith-integration essay as part of promotion and tenure portfolios. A typical expectation is that the forensics professional would incorporate her or his forensics experience and pedagogy into the faith-integration paper.
- ¹⁴ This is covered more fully in Dreher, M. (1997). Component-based forensic participation: Using components to build a traditional team. *Southern Journal of Forensics*, 2(3), 236-243.
- ¹⁵ An often cited justification is that forensics students tend to be brighter than the typical college student, thus, raising the academic profile of the institution. Additionally, this is the justification offered by Urban Debate Leagues (UDL) for their existence. The Rogers *Contemporary Argumentation and Debate* article cited in the bibliography provides a research-based substantiation for this argument.

- ¹⁶Allen, M., Berkowitz, S., Hunt, S., and Louden, A. (1999). A meta-analysis of the impact of forensics and communication education on critical thinking. *Communication Education* 48, 18-30; Bellon, J. (2000). A research-based justification for debate across the curriculum. *Argumentation and Advocacy*, 36(3), 161-175.
- ¹⁷Such an approach can be found in McMillian, J. K., and Todd-Mancillas, W. R. (1991). An assessment of the value of individual events in forensics competition from students' perspectives. *National Forensic Journal*, 9(1), 1-17.
- ¹⁸See Evans, C. and Waring, M. (2006). Towards inclusive teacher education: Sensitising individuals to how they learn. *Educational Psychology*, 26(4), 499-518.
- ¹⁹See Kugel, P. (1993). How professors develop as teachers. *Studies in Higher Education*, 18(3), 315-328.
- ²⁰See Elmer, D. and Borke VanHorn, S. (2003). You have great gestures: An analysis of ballot commentary to pedagogical outcomes. *Argumentation and Advocacy*, 40(2), 105-117.
- ²¹See Williams, D. E., Carver, C. T., and Hart, R. D. (1993). Is it time for a change in impromptu speaking? *National Forensic Journal*, 11(1), 29-40; Jensen, S. (1997). Equal opportunity?: The impact of specialized tournaments on forensics pedagogy, forensics professionals, and the forensic laboratory. In S. Whitney (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 3rd National Developmental Conference on Individual Events* (pp.66-72). Houston: Rice University.
- ²²The author has utilized this framework for promotion to full professor in 2004; he is indebted to Bob Groven of Augsburg College, who also used the idea. This idea is also discussed in Holm, T. and Miller, J. (2004). Working in forensics systems. *National Forensic Journal*, 22(2), 23-37.
- ²³See Knapp, T. (1997). Returning to our roots: A new direction for oral interpretation. In S. Whitney (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 3rd National Developmental Conference on Individual Events* (pp.29-34). Houston: Rice University.
- ²⁴For example, one panel at the 2008 ARTa conference by Amy Andrews and Crystal Lane Swift concerned "Argumentation/Interpretation: Do Performances Have to Argue?" Swift (2009) then expanded and published her paper: Rejecting the square peg in a round hole: Expanding arguments in oral interpretation introductions. *Speaker and Gavel*, 46, 25-37.
- ²⁵Among many different possibilities, see Lewis, T. V., Williams, D. A., Keaveney, M. M., Leigh, M. G. (1984). Evaluating oral interpretation events: A contest and festival perspectives symposium. *National Forensic Journal* 2(1), 19-32.
- ²⁶See Sotto, T., "The Poetics of Hip Hop," ArtsEdge/Kennedy Center series, <http://artsedge.kennedy-center.org/content/3656/>
- ²⁷While it is this author's contention that public scholarship is a legitimate form of scholarship, a word of caution should be given. Many institutions do not recognize public scholarship in the same kind of way as traditional scholarship, and some institutions do not recognize public scholarship at all in the

realm of promotion and tenure. Advice should be sought from the chair and relevant university committees before engaging in a public-based research agenda.

- ²⁸Clearly, the forensics literature has suggested that ballots, and indeed events, perform an educational function. Additionally, the Spring 2005 (volume 23, no. 1) focus issue of the *National Forensic Journal* included a variety of articles based on the educational focus of various genres and events. As just one example, see LaMaster, G. (2005). Understanding public address events. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 32-36; also in that issue were Kelly, B. (2005). Basic training: An assertion of principles for coaching oral interpretation for intercollegiate forensics competition. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 25-31; Turnipseed, I. (2005). Understanding limited preparation events. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 37-44; and Diers, A. (2005). Understanding Lincoln-Douglas debate. *National Forensic Journal*, 23(1), 45-54.
- ²⁹See Workman, T. (1997). Solving for a healthy future: Creating national standards for training future directors of forensics. In S. Whitney (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 3rd National Developmental Conference on Individual Events* (pp. 83-86). Houston: Rice University.

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