



**Our Stories:
Twentieth-Century
Women Presidents
Of NCA**

Edited by
Patti P. Gillespie

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WOMEN WHO WENT FIRST

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*To all the women who cleared the paths we took,
and to those called to lead in the future.*

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PRODUCING HERSTORIES

Stories help us connect to a world beyond the self. In telling our stories we make connections with other stories. . . . [T]hese stories are a way of knowing. Therefore, they contain both power and the art of possibility.

—bell hooks¹

We live in a world of stories. As communicative acts, stories serve numerous functions. They can inform us about different social worlds, cultural realities, and political environments. They can expand our individual and collective worlds by introducing us to new ways of feeling, thinking, engaging, and relating. They can inspire us by challenging our thinking, stimulating our imagination, and igniting our passions. They can excite our senses, arouse our emotions, and propel us to action.

Stories can also create and sustain community through the sharing of communal experiences, mutual bonds, and collective struggles. They can help us resist oppressive social arrangements and imagine new cultural and political realities. They can heal us, individually and collectively, by animating what has been hidden, forgotten, buried, erased, or annihilated.

Stories we tell ourselves to make sense of who we are—as a professional organization and an academic discipline—produce history about our field. As Joan Scott accurately points out, history is a fluid and deliberate action rather than a solid and coherent epistemology.² In other words, history is not simply about accuracy of representations of past events or the process of recovery of a “truth” about the past. History is about production of knowledge about the past. As such, it is profoundly political: History is intimately connected to power and knowledge. In this sense, history is also powerful because the knowledge that is produced about the past, such as the social realities of women in our professional association, helps us construct and make sense of knowledge in and for the present.

Our Stories: Twentieth-century Women Presidents of NCA is a collection of stories—indeed a history—of some extraordinary women in the communication discipline. But it is much more than a history of the lives of these particular women in the association. Indeed, the collection should be more accurately read as a situated and nuanced history of an emerging professional organization during particular moments in the development of the discipline. This history, contextualized within the larger U.S. social, cultural, and political landscape, continues to influence and interact with who we think we are as a community of communication teachers, practitioners, and researchers. In this sense, it is not simply about gender in the politics of our association but the gendered and racialized nature of knowledge production and dissemination in our discipline. As such, these stories are relevant and important for anyone interested in communication ranging from students and newcomers to experienced teachers and seasoned researchers. In the classroom, they can be used in courses on the history of the discipline to seminars in gender and organizational communication and research methodology.

This collection is also about the production of the stories of women—herstories—within the larger context of U.S., white, heteropatriarchal culture in the twentieth and early twenty-first centuries. These stories serve as distinct and unique voices that will stand along hegemonic disciplinary historical narratives that, as Gloria Anzaldúa reminds us, are “usually made up by the people who rule.”³ By engaging the “thick intersectionalities” of gender, race, class, sexuality, and nation, these stories are, in many ways, an act of intervention in the communication discipline.⁴ I hope they will inspire and open up new possibilities to produce more stories, particularly those that have been deemed unintelligible or unrecognizable in our national association.

Gust A. Yep
San Francisco, California

Many have helped us with this book. Thanks go first to Karlyn Kohrs Campbell, Linda Putnam, and David Zarefsky, who read our stories, suggested that they might comprise the heart of a book, and explored with us the kind of book they might make. Thanks to the Manuscript Division of the Library of Congress for the picture of the suffragists in front of the White House; to the National Communication Association’s then executive director, Roger Smitter, and the staff, who provided the picture of the earliest speech teachers and most of the presidential pictures; to Jane Blankenship and to Special Collections, Milbank Memorial Library, Teachers College, Columbia University, for the pictures of Jane Blankenship and Magdalene Kramer, both of which were absent from the collection in the national office; and to Maureen Williams, who provided the picture of the six still-living presidents at their convention presentation. Thanks to Timothy J. Gura for leading us to Amy Tan’s novel and to Carolyn Warner’s *Treasury of Women’s Quotations* (Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1992) for the epigraphs and Adrienne Rich’s poem. Thanks to Judy Pearson, who first showed us the shape of our book, and to Libbie Griffith and Tim Donahue, who helped solve computer problems. Finally, thanks to Gust Yep and his manuscript readers, all of whom provided extremely helpful comments.

PART ONE: Back Stories

The universe is made of stories, not of atoms.

Muriel Rukeyser

With the end of the twentieth century came much millennial thinking—about both the past and the future. It was just such millennial thinking that led the six still-living, twentieth-century women presidents of the National Communication Association to develop a special session for the Association's annual convention, a session that aimed to re-introduce to the members of the Association its first five female presidents. Discovering how few materials survived to document the five women's contributions, we realized that, unless we preserved our own experiences, women at the end of the twenty-first century would face the same problems that we now confronted.

Existing histories of the early Association (under whatever name) make scant reference to women.* The reasons for this inattention are complex, but one reason is doubtless the difficulty of simply unearthing the facts. This book, then, is in part a recuperative history; that is, it aims through a combination of archival research and personal narrative (supplemented by interviews, publications, and so on) to discover and record the stories of the professional lives of these eleven women. The book is also a kind of compensatory history, a history that aims to insert women's contributions back into the story of the Association's past. And histories are important, for as James Baldwin reminds us in "Unnameable Objects, Unspeakable Crimes," history is more than the past—it is also the present: "[T]he great force of history comes from the fact that we carry it within us, are unconsciously controlled by it in many ways . . . and history is literally present in all we do." The professional lives of these eleven women, then can offer clues not only about women leaders and the Association in the twentieth century but also about leaders and leadership in today's NCA. Thus, this book about the past helps explain the present and forecast a future, which is soon yet another present.

We hope that this volume will serve many groups: those who are interested in the history of the Association and the history of women; those who strive to become leaders in the Association and who want to learn about leadership in general; those with an interest in feminism and cultural studies. Most of all, we hope that the volume will be used in our classrooms—in introductions to the discipline, where the experiences of these women offer insights into the ever-changing culture of our field; in organizational communication, where discovering how these women adapted some of the Association's structures and its paths to leadership can reveal alternative routes to the top; in interpersonal and small group classes, where these presidents' heavy reliance on consultative leadership may find receptive colleagues.

*Throughout this volume, the name used for our professional association will be the name of the association at that time. The names were as follows: 1914—National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking; 1918 or 1923—National Association of Teachers of Speech (there is a discrepancy in the records, which is treated in Chapter II); 1946—Speech Association of America; 1970—Speech Communication Association; and 1997—National Communication Association. See also Appendix A.

Because individual lives are embedded in their own times, this book begins with two back stories in Part One—one, of the changing position of women in the United States and the other, of their changing position within the national professional association devoted to the study and practice of communication. Part Two sets forth the professional lives of the first five women presidents; Part Three, those of the final six women presidents in the twentieth century. The fourth and final part summarizes the patterns discovered among these lives and proffers meanings that can be extracted from them.

In sum, although the heart of the book is the individual stories of the eleven women presidents, the implications of the book extend beyond them—to the field and the culture. We hope that both the stories and the implications intrigue you.

Ed.

Anita Taylor



The first speech association, predecessor to the NCA, appeared in 1914; in 1917, these fourteen suffragists picketed the White House seeking the right to vote in national elections.

An old Cherokee story tells of a time when leaders of the tribe arrived for an arranged negotiation session with the European settler-traders. Seeing that no women had come with the white men, the Cherokee wondered, Where are the women? Upon realizing that no women were to be consulted, the Cherokee decided that the Europeans could not be planning for a serious discussion. From the Cherokee perspective, the men could not make significant plans without consulting the women.¹

If present at the founding of what became today's National Communication Association (NCA), those Cherokee elders would likely have asked the same question, Where were the women? Were they to visit the handsome, well-preserved, nineteenth-century building on 19th St. in Washington, D. C., that is NCA's current home, they could find the names of the teachers of speech who voted in 1914 to separate from the newly established National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, formed in 1911). They would see seventeen names, identifying many who would come to be considered giants in the field. And if they visited NCA's web site, they could find a list of all who have led the organization as president from its founding. From among those founders' names, seven appear also in the list of presidents. None of the founders who were also early presidents were women.

Where *were* the women? This volume offers provisional answers for one group of the Association's women—the women presidents of the twentieth century. The need for such a volume is clear and compelling. One might think, based on many documents about the early days that there were virtually no women in the field. Look, for example, at *A History of Speech Education in America*, edited by Karl Wallace, or Robert Oliver's *History of Public*

*Speaking in America.*² Search through the chapter titles or indexes of these volumes for names of women authors. Only a tiny number will be found. Yet, women have always been active in the Association. Jane Blankenship notes that the program of the first convention identifies four women among the sixteen presenters.³ *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, first published in 1915 (although under a different name), included articles by women in nine of the first ten issues. Yet, by 2000, when for first time two women were elected for presidential succession in consecutive years, only eleven women had led the organization.

In part, the answers to the question, Where were the women? come from the milieu in which the Association organized, toward the end of the Progressive Era and just before the U.S. entered World War I. A seeming absence of women pervaded many aspects of public life at the time. Women had no national right to suffrage; of the eleven states that allowed women to vote for national offices in 1914, only Illinois was east of the Mississippi River. There was no national or constitutional guarantee for this rite (and right) of citizenship, for the Supreme Court had decided in the 1875 case of *Minor v. Happersett* that being a citizen did not convey a presumptive right to vote. This ruling, that women constituted a special category of non-voting citizens for whom states were free to grant or deny the right to vote, became the precedent upon which an edifice of Jim Crow laws was erected. By 1914, suffrage militancy had grown far beyond its beginnings in 1900. Referenda on suffrage had been held in a number of populous states. There were public marches for women's suffrage that had garnered substantial publicity in New York and Washington, D.C., but the women involved in such marches were considered radicals.

In the 1914 world of the founders, the North American world still held as an ideal the Victorian cult of true womanhood, which restricted proper roles for women to a domestic sphere and created strong barriers—by means of laws and economic forces—against women's moving outside that domestic sphere. Living the Victorian ideal was never a choice for huge numbers of women, however, because economic necessity and racial barriers made it necessary for all members of many families to accept whatever work-for-pay they could find. Women *were* in this economic public sphere. U. S. Census data show that women constituted 29 percent of the paid labor force.⁴ Perhaps even more significant, agriculture remained the means of livelihood for nearly 40 percent of the population. In farm families, everyone worked, even if only the male landowner was identified as the income earner and held title to the land. Nonetheless, the ideal held. Many women who by necessity worked long hours in fields or factories or were hired as domestic help would have welcomed a male breadwinner with sufficient income to support her to stay at home and work around the house.

Most women, too, would have welcomed an opportunity to earn an advanced degree, which some women visibly had done. Elizabeth Blackwell, for instance, became the first woman with a medical degree, after facing much opposition and many rejections from the medical colleges. Blackwell notably spent most of her practicing life in England. As medicine professionalized, nursing increasingly opened to women.

By 1914, too, many women had followed the call of those who wanted schoolmarm to help civilize the West and had entered the recently opened profession of teaching. Education, especially at the pre-college levels, became an increasingly respectable way for women to have

a life (partly) outside the domestic sphere. Even though the world of education had not been fully open to women for long, women had entered gladly. Women soon predominated among elementary- and secondary-school teachers, comprising 84 percent of pre-college teachers by 1918.⁵

Although social norms still made it more important for men than for women to go to university, many women nonetheless attended. Many pushed against social boundaries and went beyond the two years of normal school required to become a nurse or a teacher or (later) the six months of business school required for clerking and stenographic positions. Chamberlain reports that “from 1900 to 1930, the proportion of women receiving a bachelor's or first professional degree increased from 19 to 40 percent.”⁶

It was not common for women's paid employment to be life-long. Women with either high-school or university degrees who took paid employment were expected, often required, to quit if they married. Those who did not leave voluntarily were usually dismissed. This was true of most jobs in government, educational institutions, and large businesses—even in clerical positions. The restriction was unequally enforced, applying largely to white women in the growing middle class. Farm work, the working-class trades open to women, as well as domestic and other service roles did not have such restrictions for married women. Thus, many poor women, immigrant women, and women of color never left the income-earning workforce (to the extent that their meager wages amounted to income).

The academic world in which the university speech teachers organized their new association in 1914 included women, but the restrictions on women's lives at that time meant that those with post-secondary degrees and university teaching appointments did not reflect the general population of women. Not only was it rare to have an advanced degree, the few who did rarely married or had children. Elizabeth Blackwell, Catharine Beecher, Susan B. Anthony, Frances Willard, and Alice Paul were only the most prominent of the many women who consciously rejected marriage, a pattern reflected in the lives of a great many activist women of the early twentieth century.

No, it was not rare in 1914 for women to be among college and university faculties. But the women who were there were unusual. They did not resemble most women in the country. Sadly, the information necessary to know how unusual the early women faculty in speech were, compared with the women on other post-secondary faculties, is largely lacking. We know that many published professionally, but we don't know the size of the population of women on college and university faculties in speech during those years, and so we don't know how those who did publish and participate in Association life might have differed from their academic colleagues who did not. Indeed, we can only speculate about how many college and university faculty were in the field of speech. Given that many strictures against women speaking out in public remained in the non-academic world (in churches, the political arena, and organizations that included both women and men), probably more women in the NCTE (from whence the Association emerged) taught *writing* than taught *public speaking*. But that is only a reasoned guess.

But women clearly were among the teachers of speech. For example, the photo chosen by Herman Cohen for the cover of *The History of Speech Communication* includes six women

among the unidentified sixteen “teachers of speech in Cleveland Ohio, December 30, 1920.”⁷ The research needed to more precisely identify these women among our forebears has not been done. Nonetheless, it is quite likely that being interested in the art of speaking in public made such women unusual. Moreover, the women who became presidents were probably doubly unusual in having attended enough conventions to come to the attention of the Association’s leaders. To attend conventions requires now, and doubtless did then, a degree of economic standing and independence that probably exceeded that of the average college or university faculty member, female or male.

After 1914, suffrage militancy increased—as did the violence resisting it. The ranks of women’s rights activists swelled. Many more women dared to march, strike, picket, and demand suffrage from public platforms. But most people still considered marchers to be radicals, and these radicals earned scorn and public ridicule (from both women and men) for behaving in such a manly way, making many women remain reticent even about seeking suffrage. Still, some women entered politics. In 1916, Congress had its first woman member, Jeannette Rankin, representing sparsely settled Montana. Several additional states finally voted for suffrage, but not until 1920 did the U. S. Congress pass and the necessary two-thirds of the states ratify the guarantee of nationwide women’s suffrage. This was, of course, no guarantee for women of color. *Minor* and subsequent decisions permitted (one might even say encouraged) states to severely restrict voting rights for Blacks; nationally, American Indians and some groups of other ethnicities (e.g., Asian and Pacific Island heritage) also lacked full rights of citizenship.

Still, gaining the right to vote enabled many women to follow new paths. The 1920s and 30s saw openings for women, even as the political fervor of suffragism subsided. Jane Addams earned a Nobel for her work with Chicago’s poor; Amelia Earhart flew the Atlantic; Frances Perkins became America’s first female cabinet member; Babe Didrickson stunned fans with her athleticism; and Eleanor Roosevelt, as first lady, held the first press conference that could be attended only by women reporters. American popular culture, especially film, also celebrated strong women, with Rosalind Russell in *Craig’s Wife* and *The Women*, Katharine Hepburn in *Alice Adams* and *Mary of Scotland*, and Myrna Loy in the series of *Thin Man* pictures.

But for many—perhaps most—women, white and black, the decade of the 1930s was a decade devoted to surviving, keeping families together, finding work. The Great Depression affected everyone in some way. Labor unrest and the fear of communism created significant reactions against socialists and other reformers who agitated for better conditions for working people. Lynchings and state-enforced impoverishment for many Blacks continued.

The first women presidents of the Association made their careers in the tumultuous years of the 1930s, after women had gained suffrage and when women of sufficient means and ambition could join college and university faculties. We now know that the early feminist movement did not end with the suffrage amendment; for example, Alice Paul worked for passage of the Equal Rights Amendment well into the 1930s (when she succeeded in getting it out of committee in both the House and the Senate). We also now know that, for the vast majority of women, many of the issues raised by women reformers of the early twentieth century seemed either remote from their concerns or not women’s issues. Had the few women who chose to become college and university faculty been involved in contemporary

social movements, they probably would have been labor reform supporters, promoters (or opponents) of prohibition, socialists, or anti-communists. A few university-level academics did take part in efforts to resist Jim Crow laws and improve economic conditions for African Americans. (The NAACP had incorporated in 1911.) Some joined efforts to end lynching, improve health care, and gain access to reproductive control—but not many.

Most likely, in the early years of the Association, the women, like their male counterparts, were interested in academic issues, especially in establishing and creating healthy speech departments and in promoting speech as a scholarly discipline. Members wanted to ensure the academic teaching of public speaking and to wrest the field from perceived charlatans, snake oil salespeople, and elocutionists. Later both women and men worked to nurture and support the growth and professionalization of new specializations: speech pathology, radio, educational film, (and later) television, etc.

Then came World War II, concluding with the detonation of two atomic bombs that ushered in the nuclear era. Given how desensitized to combat Americans have become amid televised wars and twenty-four-hour news coverage, it is easy to forget that World War II killed nearly a half million U. S. soldiers and tens of millions of people across the world. After the war, there followed a short-lived celebration of the end to war that was abruptly interrupted by a new cold war. Not long after, the whole world, but especially North America, was briefly terrorized by the prospect of Soviet missiles arriving in Cuba. In the absence of personal memories of those years, it is hard in the years after the dissolution of the Soviet empire to conceive how it felt to see the peace of 1945 so quickly shattered.

Even amid unrest, depression, and war through the 1930s and early 40s, college and university campuses remained relatively quiet havens for both students and faculty. In retrospect, one can understand how faculty in such a time could focus primarily on their fields of study and their students’ skills in public speaking. Changes were taking place, nonetheless, affecting those in speech communication where the emerging study of psychology directly influenced how speech faculty thought about their field.

But massive effects quickly followed after 1945: veterans and young people, now freed from supporting the war with their labor, flooded onto college and university campuses. The formerly quiet college and university campuses grew noisier, filled first with returning veterans and war workers, and soon with many other new students, who began to recognize the role of education in helping move them out of the working and into the middle class. Speech was among the beneficiaries of such expansion in higher education. Then the civil-rights movement developed along with the free-speech movement and related changes that, for colleges and universities, culminated in the anti-Vietnam-War protests of the 1960s.

Just as labor causes and concerns did not go away in the 1940s and 50s, feminism had not gone to sleep from the 1920s through the 1950s. As is often true, however, the relative deprivation of women in professional careers was considered less important than economic and political survival during the 1930s and then less important than the war in the 40s and the joys of an apparent normality following the war in the 50s. As post-war and cold-war growth stoked the U. S. economy, women and men alike began to enjoy what, for many, was a respite from decades of hardship.

World War II had sown many seeds of change that slowly took root. President Truman's order desegregating the military and similar executive orders for the federal civil service set in motion changes that, though often imperceptible, inexorably began opening opportunities for education, employment, and different life choices for African Americans. The NAACP capitalized on its patient and painstaking early work, establishing a legal framework challenging overt racial discrimination. Eventually, rulings ensued that moved toward desegregating interstate transportation, public facilities, and schools. African-American soldiers and those who worked in war industries experienced a change in consciousness that led them to support the difficult, painful steps of resisting segregation, discrimination, and prejudice. Many (although not enough) whites joined in the spreading activity that became known, collectively, as the civil-rights movement. But even those who did not join freedom rides or voter registration drives could not remain aloof. Just as television made Vietnam the first living-room war, it made civil rights the first inescapable social movement. Almost no one missed the images of the horribly beaten Emmet Till when his mother opened the casket at his funeral. On television, virtually everyone saw the dogs and police batons wielded on the non-violent marchers crossing the Edmund Pettus Bridge and saw the images of clean-cut, well-behaved college students peacefully enduring taunts and violence simply because they sat at lunch counters. It was nearly impossible not to be moved by the brave organizers, demonstrators, and marchers. These civil-rights struggles are relevant to the story of women in the Association's leadership because civil-rights activism, directly or indirectly, led to resurgence of women's activism.

Only four women had been president of the Association before 1960; the seven during the twentieth century after 1960 lived during the decades of civil-rights change. We ranged from five to twenty years old when Rosa Parks' bravery sparked the Birmingham bus boycott and when Eisenhower ordered federal marshals to ensure desegregation in Little Rock High School. By the time the 1964 Civil Rights Act passed, many white women's concerns had turned to women's rights. Whether it was Simone de Beauvoir's *Second Sex* (1949), Jack Kerouac's *On the Road* (1959), or Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* (1963), we felt what these books tapped, a restless unease with the good life that the end of World War II and the return of prosperity had supposedly brought.⁸ Even if we did not immediately join activist groups (and most of us did not), we knew personally women who did. We knew women who had been forced from (relatively) high-paying, war-industries work back into low-wage and lower prestige domestic or clerical service. We knew that women continued to dominate K-12 teaching, nursing, and clerical work while remaining rare in more prestigious (and better paying) fields.

Once we had entered university teaching ourselves, we could see how often we and the other women on those faculties were not only rare, but also clustered in lower ranks, temporary positions, and less prestigious universities. All of us were well into either our school years or our professional careers when Title IX became law in 1972. Even though many of us did not feel directly either the conditions leading to the civil-rights movement or to the growing women's-liberation efforts, we knew what was happening. Looking back, we all can personally attest to how different were our lives in academia from those of our male peers

who joined those faculties at the same time we did. Most of us can relate personal incidents, whether as students or teachers, that would fit what we could name sexual harassment after the Supreme Court's decision in 1986. But to understand the lives we lived as well as of those women in whose paths we followed, most of us needed to learn both the historical context and the feminist analyses generated or discovered during the 1960s and 70s.

This small volume cannot relate everything about those dramatic years. It can, however, pose a follow-up question to the one that opened the chapter: Why did we not know there were women present from the beginning? Our answers grew from what came to be known as second-wave feminism, a term that in the 1970s came to mean the re-emergence of an activism that sought women's equality in the world. We knew, from our own lives, how political is the personal, although for most of us it took feminism to theorize the concept for us. Once we knew that principle, we understood why we didn't know that there had been women teaching speech, doing theatre, conducting speech therapy, pioneering in oral interpretation as long as there had been a speech (communication) association—we understood why their stories had disappeared from our collective memories (and our written histories).⁹

Feminist theory highlighted causes other than personal failures or weaknesses that explained why those women had been in the Association but had rarely risen to the top. Going to conventions, writing articles, coaching debate and forensics, holding offices (usually secretary) weren't sufficient for women to be seen and heard. This second-wave feminist movement taught us that the reasons women were not prominent, or visible, had more to do with the patriarchal (male-dominated) structures of our schools and social institutions than either with whether women were present or with the personal preferences or abilities of those who were present. Feminist theory gave us ways to think of women's experience as much in terms of how women are perceived and responded to as in terms of what they do and are.

We weren't far into the 1970s when those feminist thinkers and activists who were shaped by other kinds of exclusions helped us—white feminists—to see that our oppression was quite relative, in that we shared other privileges: We benefited from the perks that come to white people, even though we rarely noticed getting such benefits. Women of color taught those of us who paid attention that white, too, is a race, but that, like the air we breathe, we don't notice white until we don't have it or something directs our attention to it. Lesbian feminists helped us see the privileges that came with being heterosexual, an identity we held, at least so far as our professional colleagues knew. Given the natural elitism of college and university intellectual environments, it's not surprising that most of us rarely noticed the privileges we'd gained merely by being or becoming part of the white, middle-class, heterosexual, educated world.

That women's leadership was often facilitative and nurturing more than inventing and promoting meant, then and often still today, that it was not defined as leadership, neither recognized nor rewarded. It took a feminist re-awakening and analysis to reveal to us many lessons of our own experiences. One of the first lessons of feminist analysis in the 1960s was fully understanding the mantra, "The personal is political." One way that works out in lives is that all women at the time were said to have a point when they heard "the click." That was the point when we became aware that girls (or women) are treated differently from boys

(or men). We learned too that the different treatment is not, in fact, caused by something we did or did not do but rather because of what we *are*, female. Moreover, at about the same time, we learned that such different treatment doesn't happen just because of the individual(s) who may be reacting to us; we came to see that it's bigger than any individual(s). Years may have passed before one adopted the label *feminist*; indeed, many women never did. Nonetheless, having "the click" meant becoming aware that differential treatment of female and male is systemic: It's woven throughout the worlds we inhabit and the ideology that rationalizes, implements, and provides sanction for enforcing the structures that privilege males. For the white, ostensibly heterosexual, women who are the subjects of this book, we came in varying ways and times to recognizing that similar systemic inequities based on class, race, and sexual orientation also privileged us.

Ultimately, feminist analysis revealed that the systems sanctioning differential treatment of female and male are intricately woven into the institutions of the culture, and feminist analysis gave us the label to describe this aspect of the system: it is white patriarchy. Patriarchy means simply that institutions and their rules ensure male domination. White patriarchy privileges white men. Neither form means that every male dominates; indeed, inasmuch as the systems are rigidly hierarchical, most males cannot dominate. But it does mean that the system ensures that those in charge (the dominators) are either male or male identified (e.g., a monarchy can be ruled by a queen when she is appropriately related to a royal male and behaves so as to preserve the system of male domination). A white patriarchy ensures that the race that dominates is white or white identified.

Surfacing the hidden rules of whiteness buried in U.S. patriarchy came eventually—usually at the prodding of insightful African-American women—and showed how tightly patriarchal systems interweave male domination with other enforced differentials. The system in which we live (its institutions, values, rules, customs, etc.) is not only patriarchal; it is racist, classist, and heterosexist. That is to say, not only do the structures and ideology enforce male domination, they also ensure the domination of whites (Caucasians, actually, because other varieties of white, such as Semitic peoples, and, at other times, Irish, Italians, etc., don't qualify as white). Obviously, Hispanics, Latina/os, Blacks, American Indians, or those of Asian or Pacific-Island heritage need not apply, unless obviously identified with white males or white-male values. The system also ensured that economically comfortable, heterosexual males (or those who could pass) dominated.

The vast majority of our academic institutions differed in no essential way from other institutions within the patriarchal world. They were male dominated and structured to replicate male-identified values, beliefs, and behaviors, no matter the identity of the individuals involved. The institutions were also self-proclaimed meritocracies. The results were often odd. The fact that mostly males rose through the merit-based evaluation system was seen as either pure coincidence or proof of their superiority; it had nothing to do with sex. The fact that virtually no men of color were among those ruling males was seen as pure coincidence or attributed to poor education, limited economic opportunity—or southern ignorance. Few institutions or leaders even recognized the situation, let alone accepted any responsibility for correcting the resulting inequities.

Professional women in the 1960s and 70s did not all come to feminist awakening at the same time; indeed many who came to such awakening would never have used the adjective *feminist* for themselves. THAT idea was branded as radical (a neat trick of labeling that patriarchies promote), and most of us were far from radicals. Most of us did not demand far-reaching changes in this system. All we wanted was what we thought of as a fair shake. We didn't want to change the system; we just wanted the doors of the system to be open—to us. Those who have studied feminist theorizing would recognize our behavior as what came to be called liberal feminism, which at the time was probably the dominant form within white academic institutions. Most of us didn't consider the system itself as flawed.

Over time, those of us who came to embrace feminist analysis learned to see that our early analysis was itself flawed. We came to see that at its base the patriarchal system is built on excluding the feminine. Females might be permitted in, if they embody enough male-identified characteristics; the feminine, though, has no place in patriarchy's public world—it belongs in private lives. That observation reveals one more way to understand how "the personal is political." Just as the feminist analysis was deepening, the U.S. experienced a conservative turn, embodied in the presidency of Ronald Reagan and the emergence of rightwing talk radio. This turn influenced feminism in ways that some came to describe as post-feminist, a phrase with varied meanings. For some, it seemed to mean that the country had experienced a feminist era but had now moved beyond it; for others, it seemed to mean that a backlash against women's progress had set in, a perspective crystallized by Susan Faludi's book entitled *Backlash: The Undeclared War Against American Women*. Whatever the cause, there is little doubt that many policies and attitudes favorable to women were slowed or reversed by the mid 1980s. Still, the idea that women should be free to enter whatever occupations they wished continued to gain widespread acceptance, and their numbers in academia and the professions expanded. Within the Association were signs of these turns. In the 1990s, the feminist and women studies division joined the earlier women's caucus, reflecting an expanding interest in feminist research and analysis and a growing number of women in academic careers; but after the election of a woman president in 1984, nearly a decade intervened before the election of another.

By century's end, we had developed both broader and deeper analyses of women and patriarchal systems. Feminist analyses taught lessons that were manifest in the macro sense of Western culture, the micro sense of our individual lives and interpersonal relationships, and the intermediate sense of the structures of our families, schools, and churches and our civic, political, and economic organizations. We were enmeshed in these structures, as was our professional Association. Among the lessons: patriarchal culture imposes widespread limitations upon both women and men; patriarchies are by definition hierarchies of power and privilege, structured to maintain dominance (power) for and by the privileged; patriarchal limitations are nearly invisible, since they are buried as integral elements of virtually every institution and relationship that exists within that patriarchy. The U. S. version of western culture, with its heavy stress on individuals and individuality, is uniquely good at hiding the limitations within its rules, values, and supposedly non-gendered language.

*This more mature analysis came to be seen by some as an entirely new phase of the movement, which they called *third-wave feminism*.

Thus, most of us required a feminist analysis to teach how insidious was the patriarchy buried even within the structures of our English language.[†] Feminist analysis showed that not only were our institutions dominated by men, but more crucially by male-identified values, patterns, and language. It showed the complexity of women's absence, how it formed not only from devaluing individual women and their accomplishments (hence lower pay and ranks for women) but also from a broader (and deeper) pattern of devaluing anything identified with women. Hence, the values and practices of academic institutions were not only designed by men for (some) men, but, even when they were open to (some) women (as they were increasingly through the last thirty years of the twentieth century), they still taught, reinforced, and recreated male-identified values and practices, even if the practitioner was female.

Eventually, a more complete understanding of feminist theory showed how, in patriarchy, patterns of privilege translate into dominance, even when the patterns are tacit instead of overt and when the patterns are integrated into hierarchies of privilege. Patriarchal systems privilege some men and masculinities over others, with the most privileged occupying the top rank of other dominance hierarchies as well. Among these interlacing hierarchies are race, heterosexuality, physical ability, and socio-economic class. The complexity of these dominance hierarchies provides much of the continuing strength of the patriarchal (social and ideological) systems, a complexity that occurs in and is reinforced by language systems. Not surprisingly, therefore, much feminist theorizing both inside and outside the field of communication dealt with language.

Feminist analysis drew our attention to the importance of naming and to the role of naming in framing issues and establishing perspectives. Early in the return to an activist feminist movement in the 1960s and 1970s, scholars and activists alike focused on the roles of names and on who holds the power to name, because both contribute to maintaining structures of dominance and privilege. Among other matters, feminist scholarship critiqued laws and less obvious rules regarding naming women, showing how such concepts limit equity and progress. Feminist analysis called attention to how marriage practices, combined with naming customs, erased women, not just their accomplishments. The critique extended to how such practices reinforce and maintain patriarchal systems, that is, male economic, social, and ideological dominance and privilege. Such analyses highlighted the symbolic function of words in both names (nouns) and associations (adjectives and adverbs) and to the effects of language patterns, such as preference for subject over object. These, combined with other patterns of patriarchy, result in objectifying women, removing them as subject, and contributing to the erasure of women by combining language rules and marriage customs.¹⁰ By century's end, this turn to discourse dominated much communication research as well as most feminist scholarship and thinking.

[†]Using *English* as an adjective here does not imply that English is the only language structure that embodies patriarchy. Nor does our earlier use of *our* to modify patriarchy suggest that the U.S. social system is the only one that is patriarchal. Quite obviously, neither is true. But adding such modifiers does consciously avoid universalizing an English pattern to all languages—or U.S. practices to other social systems.

*Attention to language, especially through discourse analysis, spread far beyond its origins in communication and linguistics. Opening their edited book, which presents examples of and critiques the use of discourse analysis, psychologists Sue Wilkinson and Celia Kitzinger say, "the 'turn to language' is a defining feature of contemporary social science." Sue Wilkinson and Celia Kitzinger, *Feminism and Discourse* (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE, 1995), 1.

Every pattern named here can be seen in the lives and careers of the women of the Association. In the academic world of the twentieth century, women were concentrated mostly in the K-12 workforce, and that part of the field was less valued than the colleges and universities, in which men predominated. The valuing goes beyond attitudes. College and university faculty, especially those considered scholars, still earn higher salaries than elementary and secondary teachers.

Universities have their own pay and status gradations. On the whole, faculties in more prestigious, Research-One universities, have considerably higher proportions of men than women. Women, both of color and not, within universities are mostly concentrated in lower ranks, temporary, and adjunct positions. To find any people of color in more than token numbers, one has to look to historically Black institutions or to urban or suburban institutions where one will also find relatively high proportions of students of color. Throughout universities, women on the average receive salaries lower than those of similarly positioned men, and the positions and institutions that include more women pay lower salaries than those filled disproportionately by (white) men.

Similarly in the Association: women were never uncommon among the members nor inactive in the organization. But not until there was change in the organization's culture, created in large part by the civil-rights and women's-liberation movements, did the position of women in the leadership of the Association change as well.

The women introduced in this book were academics; most shared the dominant characteristics of what became known as second-wave feminism: middle-class, white, interested more in theorizing a way of understanding women's experiences than in engaging in an activism that could change the daily lives of most women. We were not unconcerned with the issues confronting poor women, or women of color, or (at first) lesbians; but we did not foreground these issues; they were not completely ignored, but rarely did they become priorities. Matters of class did not become priorities for women who already had professions (until later when a professional underclass developed in academia). And it was all too easy for white women to believe that the momentous civil-rights legislation of 1964 and 1965 could be relied on to solve the problems of people of color. No one who lived through the 1960s and 70s lived untouched by the wholesale changes those years brought. Nor was the Association unaffected. Nonetheless, neither the organization as a whole nor the individuals chronicled here ever attended in the same way to the issues of civil rights or social and economic justice as they did to improving the conditions for women in their home institutions and in the Association.

The claim just articulated is based in part on personal recollections by one who played an active role after 1967 and in part on documents recording the efforts at changing leadership within the Association throughout the years.¹¹ Nominees for the second vice presidency of the Association beginning in 1956 were to succeed to the presidency. Over the more than five decades since then, only three people of color—one woman and two men—have ever been nominated for that office. See Appendix D. Two of the three were nominated twice. One of the men, Orlando Taylor, was elected the second time he stood for election. The woman, Carolyn Calloway-Thomas, lost the first election in which she ran for office, tied the second

time, and subsequently lost when the membership voted again on the same nominees. In sum, nominations of neither women nor men of color have been frequent; election has been even less frequent.¹ And while in no case is an election due entirely to any one or several personal characteristics of a candidate, neither could one argue that race or sex are absent issues in nomination or election decisions. Social and institutional structures both offer and constrain choices.

One can categorize causal currents in many ways. In our telling, the story of the Association throughout its twentieth-century history has three parts. First is the founding and early growth of academic study of speech (a story we make no effort to do more than outline; other documents have detailed it).¹² Then comes the expansion and legitimization of speech (communication) programs across a wide spectrum of institutions of higher education, a history largely left to be written, although Herman Cohen's book does a good part of the work. Finally comes the slow opening of the discipline to new faces and new ways of scholarship and teaching. The women chronicled in this book played a part in each of these changes, although they did so unevenly. We have not answered the question, Where were the women? We have, however, opened the door to the narratives of some women who were there. Our hope is that others will take part in preserving and recording those stories.

¹In 1997, an African-American female scholar, Charlene Seymour, was elected president of an organization that came from our discipline, the American Speech-Language Hearing Association.

CHAPTER TWO: Early Wo-mentors and Fo-mentors, Women in the Association

Jane Blankenship



Herman Cohen, from whose 1994 landmark history this photo is borrowed, said in April 2009 that these teachers were, in fact, members of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Speech, which was three years old at the time. There is a strong possibility, therefore, that one of the six women pictured is Mary Yost of Vassar, its first vice president.

Success, especially of women, carries a high price. Just as the last of these chapters was being prepared for submission, three feminists in communication released a profoundly on-point book, *Women's Ways of Making It in Rhetoric and Composition*. Michelle Ballif, Diane Davis, and Roxanne Mountford say their work demonstrates how "to succeed as women academics in a sea of gender and disciplinary bias, and to have a life as well." They offer models for women "as they become, survive, and thrive."¹

Women in our discipline clearly continue to have serious problems unrelated to their intellect, experience, and potential when three courageous and savvy teacher-scholars are compelled to advise women on "dealing with sexism in the tenure and promotion process, . . . struggling for scholarly and/or administrative respect, . . . struggling to say 'no' to unrewarded service work, . . . mentoring junior women" in rhetoric and composition, and more.² Something is still seriously wrong when the great-great granddaughters of the national organization's founders need a "how-to" book before, during, and after their dissertations and job applications, ten years into the new millennium.

While social reform saturated the culture during the Progressive Era, c. 1890-1920, oral and written speech was differentiating, developing, perhaps mutating. At the same time, the academic split between the liberal-arts, or humanistic, approach to rhetoric of the Cornell School and the social-scientific approach of the Wisconsin or Midwest School was argued in journals and meetings for decades. The most important outcome of the 1914 creation of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking (NAATPS) by former English teachers within the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) was the emergence of whole new college departments, usually called Departments of Speech, primarily in the Midwest and Northeast. The word *academic* in the name was apparently intended to suggest that the Association's membership comprised college and university professors engaged in scholarly and pedagogical activities. We will survey the times of the foremothers (and fathers), the decade of the 1910s, to appreciate that the emerging new discipline of speech communication had its own Progressive-Era parallels and contradictions.

To help set the stage and tone as we drive forward watching the rear-view mirror, we listen to a singular courageous voice that cut through the clutter in November 2005. Judith Felson Duchan of SUNY-Buffalo, N.Y., created the Founding Foremothers Awards for Women Born in the Nineteenth Century as a unique presentation before the annual convention of the American Speech-Language Hearing Association (ASHA). The award is dedicated to "our foremothers—women who have contributed to but are not always credited with founding the profession."³

For this award, Duchan applies precisely the same standards used to identify American Speech and Hearing Association's forefathers: scholarly contributions, clinical methods and inventions, and organizational service.

Many awards of ASHA and the few histories written about the profession talk about people who were outstanding in . . . these [standards]. . . . Criteria based on who they knew are harder to determine. In the early days . . . it often had to do with whether they were in the network of the faculty at the University of Iowa, or the University of Wisconsin, the two institutions that were to offer curricula in our profession. This is what has been called the old-boy network. You can become important in your profession because you have been invited into the inner circles and are considered worthy by others who are already part of that network. . . .

Most people who have been around a bit in the profession are familiar with this old-boy phenomena [sic]. You can become an "old boy" if your faculty sponsor who is part of the network makes you co-author of articles, or if he recommends you for an executive office in the professional organization, or if he talks to others about your clinical accomplishments. But mostly, being part of the old-boy network puts you in a place of privilege and increases your chances of becoming well-known in the profession and having your work acknowledged and encouraged.⁴

As a start, Duchan identifies ten early ASHA foremothers, decrying that "their hidden influences on decision-making are often invisible."⁵ She generously recognizes that women teacher-scholars "from other fields . . . made contributions to ours."⁶

Like the ASHA, the NAATPS rose from the crucible of the Progressive Era. This convergence gave voice to women scholars in the new discipline that would now be recognized as communication. In it, they began to publish studies and successful curricula on theatre, methodology, voice, speech pathology, the influence of psychology on the emerging discipline, competitive coaching, and more.

As we have seen, in the larger society of that era, women from all sectors of the nation's economy, politics, and culture dared to challenge child-labor abuses, sexual roles, poverty, the robber barons, public health, immigration practices, corporate greed, and unsafe working conditions through worker organizations. The Progressive Era marked the end of the western pioneer movement, the depression of the 1890s, the start of the New South, our government's protection of the environment, and the first time that U.S. soldiers fought a war overseas.

Our early women teacher-scholars had spiritual allies in such progressives as Eleanor Roosevelt and Frances Perkins, who were driven by their beliefs that education improves all lives, workplace dignity lifts the human spirit, and suffrage for women was a requirement of democracy. The facts that progressives had college educations and lived primarily in cities also had to be resonant with our very early wo-mentors. They endured the emotional bad news of the deaths of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire that killed more than a quarter of its 500 factory girls, the exclusion of women from the dedication ceremony of the Statue of Liberty, and the attacks on and arrests of thousands of suffragists all around the country. But they also celebrated "the mother of Social Security," Perkins, who later became FDR's Secretary of Labor.

So it was in this stormy, uncharted sea of revision—when Jim Crow laws existed and a school teacher in Tennessee was fined for teaching evolutionary biology—that the very early foremothers of communication navigated.

The first person, man or woman, to earn a Ph.D. in speech pathology in the U.S. was Sara Mae Stinchfield Hawk (one of Duchan's first ten foremothers in ASHA). This event is relevant to our monograph, because those involved with the practice and study of speech science, voice and diction, speech defects, phonetics, physiology, anatomy, and dialects found an early home in the public-speaking division of the national organization, and they provided many authors and a wide variety of topics for its quarterly journal. They united into their own organization in 1925. Duchan reports that these "pioneers of the profession may have called themselves elocutionists, speech teachers, English professors, speech correctionists."⁷ Not unlike the incarnations of our own Association (e.g., SAA, SCA, NCA), the new national group changed its name, too, first to the American Speech Correction Association in 1934 and later to the American Speech-Language Hearing Association (ASHA), its current name.

I arrived on the Mt. Holyoke College faculty some twenty-three years after Dr. Stinchfield Hawk left campus as an associate professor to join the growing faculty of the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, and become director of a hospital speech clinic there. Her Ph.D. had been conferred by the University of Wisconsin in 1922; the University of Iowa had

awarded her master's degree in 1920; and she had earned the bachelor's in 1914 from the University of Pittsburgh. One of twenty-five academics and practitioners who founded ASHA in 1925, Stinchfield Hawk was elected its president for 1939-40. A tireless researcher and prolific writer, she died at the age of ninety-two in 1977.⁸

Herman Cohen calls the history of the discipline in the 1910s "murky" because of some records—oral and written—having become lost forever. The young field was vibrating with philosophical and organizational activity in those days, with the disciplinary split and with various other curricular interests clustering on a smaller scale.⁹ Did these broadening theoretical and practical components add up to an inter-disciplinary *field* or a distinctive *discipline*? Should it be modeled after ancient European cathedrals of learning? Should it be experimental, cut out of whole cloth, or hybridized? The emerging study of communication tried to cope with its own identity crisis, and, in some ways, the coping continues.

The torn photograph on the cover of Cohen's *A History of Speech Communication* stands as a metaphor and semiotic statement of our discipline's "murky" early history. Some day, we will know *who* were the six women "Teachers of Speech" and their ten male contemporaries standing before a brick building in Cleveland, Ohio, on December 30, 1920. Neither SCA's copyright nor several archival searches in Cleveland have been able to identify the occasion. Could the group have been one of the several meetings of the research committee? Could it have been one of the conferences so vital to the self-realization of the developing field (or discipline)? One could guess that the sixteen people pictured might have included some of the aggressive, dissident members of the NCTE, who reinvented themselves into the NAATPS, which, at the time of the snapshot, had been convening for about six years.

The first president of the NAATPS was James O'Neill of the University of Wisconsin, and his presidential speech appeared in the first issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking (QJPS)*, which NAATPS nurtured.¹⁰ The *QJPS* was published in Chicago by the University of Chicago Press, beginning with volume 1, number 1, in April 1915, and ending with volume 3, number 4, in October 1917. Despite the prestige of University of Chicago Press, there was a change of publisher, for reasons not immediately evident. With less than three months between issues, G. (George) Banta in Menasha, Wisconsin, began publishing the journal, now under the name *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education (QJSE)*, later the official organ of the National Association of Teachers of Speech (NATS), with volume 4, number 1, in January 1918; this private firm continued publishing through volume 13, number 4 (November 1927).¹¹ It, of course, later became the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Not surprisingly, the name changes of the journals reflected the discipline's growth, diversification, and identity-formation.*

*As a sidebar, the choice of G. Banta Publishing Co. was probably related both to the magnetic force of the University of Wisconsin and the obvious connection with the NAATPS' first president. In addition, G. [George] Banta had built, at the beginning of the Progressive Era, a scholarly publishing empire in a little town few knew. Between 1902 and 1962, G. Banta published the journals of the American Psychological Association; Greek letter societies by the dean of men at the University of Illinois; more than twenty-one monographs on studies in the history of culture; doctoral dissertations in Italian and German that were accepted by U.S. schools; early English drama; medieval theatre-in-the-round; many and various religious documents, atlases, and charts for the governments of the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Massachusetts; treatises on law and human conduct; original and early records of the *Merrimack vs. the Monitor* in Virginia; a German study of middle-Eastern sexuality; German historical literature, and, of course philosophy.

Cohen and others are certain that fifteen of the seventeen maverick professors in public speaking and oral communication who broke from NCTE to form the NAATPS hailed from the Midwest, leaving one from Harvard and one from Cornell to represent the interests of the New England and North Atlantic Conferences. Nine of the fifteen taught and researched in large, publicly supported schools, including one each from the University of Cincinnati and Miami University. All were men, of course, and there were no representatives from the vast South or sprawling West.¹²

During these years, there were a number of firsts for women. Maud May Babcock, an expert in oral interpretation from the University of Utah, was the first woman to have published in a scholarly journal, in July 1915.¹³ Mary Yost was the first person—male or female—to receive a Ph.D. in a communication topic, specifically speech communication. An article based on her ground-breaking Michigan dissertation, stressing democratic communication, was published the same year, 1917.¹⁶

Products of their times, other early women analyzed relevant topics then in the areas of speech defects, interpretation, oral English, voice training, high-school public speaking, theatre, and argumentation. The search for every early woman teacher-scholar obviously remains incomplete at this time. Lost records have taken their toll, of course. But matters are also complicated because many early women used only initials for their first and middle names, perhaps to protect the credibility of their published ideas. But a third of the early authors, men and women, used only initials and, in some instances, participated in committees and state organizations that did not list authors in citations. Also, citations to a "Mrs. Edward. . ." or "Mrs. Mary. . ." were not uncommon. And despite Virginia Woolf's observation, we still do not know who Anonymous was.

The following excerpted list indicates very early scholarly contributions by women in two of the earliest journals, *QJPS* and *QJSE*:

Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking:

- July 1915 - Maud May Babcock, "Teaching Interpretation"
- October 1915 - Mrs. Charles M. Holt, "The Speaker in Relation to Himself"
- January 1916 - Maud May Babcock, "Interpretative Presentation Versus Impersonative Presentation"
- April 1916 - Mrs. Alice M. MacLeod, "Major and Credits in Public Speaking"
- July 1916 - Hettie Amsdell, "Modern Principles of Voice Training"
- October 1916 - Maud May Babcock, "Impersonation vs. Interpretation"
- October 1916 - Margaret Gray Blanton, "The Relation of Emotional States to Vocal Defects"
- October 1916 - Lousene G. Rousseau, "The Rhetorical Principles of Cicero and Adams"
- January 1917 - Mrs. Mary H. Dowd, "Oral English in the High School"
- January 1917 - Bertha Forbes Herring, "Story-Telling in High School"
- April 1917 - Mary Yost, "Argument from the Point-of-View of Sociology"
- April 1917 - Bertha Forbes Herring, "A Special Course in Oral Expression for High Schools"

- July 1917 - Lousene G. Rousseau, "Voice Training in Normal School"
 July 1917 - Clara W. Williams, "Spoken English II at Smith College"
 October 1917 - Claudia E. Crumpton, "The Better Speech Movement in Alabama"
 October 1917 - Pauline E. Camp, "Correction of Speech Defects in a Public School System"
 January 1918 - Bertha Forbes Herring, "Training in the Technique of Speech in the High School"
 January 1918 - Margaret Gray Blanton, "The Broader Aspects of Speech Training"
 March 1918 - Clara Kathleen Rogers, "Class Instruction in Voice"
 May 1918 - Elva M. Fomcrook, "A Fundamental Course in Speech Training"
 October 1918 - Grace H. Stivers, "A High School Course in Dramatic Art"

Quarterly Journal of Speech Education:

- January 1919 - Sara M. Stinchfield, "The Speech of the Normal Child"
 January 1919 - Charlotte B. Chorpennig, "Putting On a Community Play"
 March 1919 - Beatrice Humiston, "The Theatre as an Educational Institution"
 March 1919 - Gertrude E. Johnson, "Dramatic Production and the Educational Curriculum"
 May 1919 - Alice Justin Jenkins, "Unity of Effort in Speech Education"
 May 1919 - Mary Yost, "Training Four-Minute Men at Vassar"
 May 1919 - Hannah Moore Creasy, "Psycho-Pathology of Speech Defects"
 May 1919 - Margaret Rabe, "The Princess's Choice"
 October 1919 - Margaret Gray Blanton, "What is the Problem of Stuttering?"
 October 1919 - Alma M. Bullowa, "The One-Act Play in High School Dramatics"
 February 1920 - Agnes C. Loughlin, "The Voice in Speaking and Singing"
 February 1920 - Gertrude E. Johnson, "Education Through Reading Declamation"
 February 1920 - Alma M. Bullowa, "Speech Training in Hunter College High School"
 April 1920 - Agnes C. Loughlin, "The Voice in Speaking and Singing (II)"
 April 1920 - Nona MacQuilkin, "The Emancipation of the Contest Coach"
 June 1920 - Mrs. Edward W. Scripture, "The Treatment of Speech Defects"
 November 1920 - Bertha Forbes Herring, "Vocal Interpretation of Literature in High Schools"
 February 1921 - Estelle M. Raymond, "What the Government is Doing for Soldiers with Speech Defects"
 February 1921 - Anne T. Renshaw, "Modern Attention to Pantomimic Action"
 April 1921 - Pauline B. Camp, "Speech Treatment of Schools in Grand Rapids; Report of Cases"
 April 1921 - Laura G. Whitmire, "The Class Play"
 [And possibly...April 1921 - Anonymous, "An Irish Dialogue with an English Ending."]

Along with speech correction, theatre was an active part of the Association in its early years, and theatre teachers treated much zettier topics than those in speech correction or general speech. Their topics will continue to rivet feminist scholars long after us. Up in lights in the center of the stage was a new genre, the *brothel drama*, a term coined in the 1910s.¹⁵ Simultaneously, drama was "a site of struggle over the meaning of gender during periods of social change."¹⁶ Whether the topics involved shop girls who became shop-worn, whether wives-mothers-careerwomen, farm women, fallen women, full-time housewives, or ones who unconditionally stood by their men, hundreds of documented plays across the young nation amazingly had a common thread: the play had the "power to determine what will be seen as 'right' or 'wrong' within [its] context."¹⁷

All classes of audience in the Progressive Era were "invested enormously in the study, regulation, and portrayal of prostitution," which, interestingly, helped create the FBI, which then closed down at least one Broadway hit.¹⁸ Girl musicals, working-girl shows, and melodramas of the "passive and helpless" were opportunities to "reinforce dominant gender ideology" while—somehow—challenging "the nineteenth-century ideology of domesticity."¹⁹ Female moral reformers "argued that women could weed-out corruption and ultimately reform society, if given the chance to extend their house-cleaning and sanctifying talents into the public arena."²⁰

During the Progressive Era, the names of female playwrights Martha Morton, Rachel Crothers, Elizabeth Robins, Alice Brown, Anne Crawford Flexner, Susan Glaspell, Clare Kummer, Charlotte E. Wells, Dorothy Donnelly, Arlene Van Ness Hines, Zoe Atkins, and Rachel Barton Butler were well known. They and others wrote Progressive-Era plays focused on societal issues affecting women and bearing such titles as *Votes for Women*, *The Marriage Game*, *Her Honor The Mayor*, *Declasse*, *Mama's Affair*, *The New Woman*, and *Why Marry?*

The press of the era also reflected a continuing curiosity about whether actresses' public lives were consistent with their feminist politics.²¹

At the center of the new discipline, however, was rhetoric, and the most important early woman in that field was Mary Yost, called by her students, peers, and non-academic friends whose lives she improved "Dr. Mary." This Staunton, Virginia-born, Vassar graduate, Wellesley and Vassar faculty member helped found both precursor organizations that would become today's Eastern Communication Association and National Communication Association. Yost moved to become Stanford's Dean of Women and Associate Professor of English (teaching subversive rhetorical concepts of communication) the remaining thirty-three years of her career. She retired in 1946, living the rest of her days at Stanford.²²

Yost was the first woman in the U.S. to earn a Ph.D. in communication theory, with an emphasis in rhetoric.²³ The dissertation was controversial, because it challenged psychologists' traditional compartmentalization of the brain into the reason, the will, and the emotions, a practice called *faculty psychology*.²⁴ She used both oral and written acts of communication to demonstrate a much more organic process in which several parts of the brain work in concert to meet the demands of the situation facing an individual in a group.²⁵

For years following the 1917 conferral of the Ph.D. degree, personal attacks from those who felt threatened flew around her. One aspersion was based on the fact that Michigan did

not have a formal department of communication (whatever *that* was) from which the conclusion was drawn that the woman's writing could not possibly be about rhetoric, persuasion, conviction, argumentation, etc. While Charles H. Woolbert of Illinois, a professional and experimental psychologist, and Everett Lee Hunt, a humanities professor from Cornell, led the pugilism over what the fledgling study of speech and public speaking should contain or become, a young upstart in the form of a fine-boned woman entered the arena. The two opposing teams felt her presence as salt in the wounds, buckets of ice water, and other similes.²⁶

The publication of a fifteen-page summary of her dissertation in *QJPS* in 1917 caught a number of luminaries off guard; it added different energy and different direction to the dynamic of the new discipline's future. The real focus should be "not in the logic of the argument . . . but on the communication of members of a social group," Yost wrote, almost plaintively.²⁷ Her dissertation and the derivative article became widely sought-after scholarship, and, as Tom Dickson and others early discerned, Yost actually used the term *communication* more frequently than the term *argumentation*.²⁸ She continued and elaborated these ideas over her forty-five years in academic life. Both Yost and her mentor, Gertrude Buck of Michigan, whose prolific life was cut short at age fifty, studied and taught argumentation to advance social reforms of the Progressive Era.²⁹

Indeed, Yost believed that sociology served the goals of speech education and that the traditional models, which pitted one individual's strength against another's, should be redesigned to see human psyches as they behave in groups, in communities. In 1994, Cohen rightly decried the fact that Yost's work was ignored for decades, originally dismissed by the dominant paradigm of her day as too abstract and theoretical.³⁰ Her application of long-taught classical sociological methods and topics to public speaking, argumentation, and other related subjects *was* new and made the earth move under many feet. The most defensive appear to have been the Midwestern emulators of the German research university. Tall, male standard-bearers they were.

Yost had the audacity to complain that, up to and including the Progressive Era, a woman married to a house and a student's education were not democratic arrangements. Her suffragist leadership and her background in sociology and social psychology prepared her for the many challenges to her ideas—that society could evolve when building communities and negotiating differences replaced traditional zero-sum, winner-loser, agonistic, individual-focused persuasive rhetoric. Jane Donawerth agrees that traditional definitions of rhetoric were then too narrow and exclusive: "Women's theory did not always look like the men's theory . . . women's theory often takes conversation as a model for public discourse in ways never found in the classical men's tradition of rhetoric."³¹

Yost paid a very high, perhaps unfair, price for her rejection of the combative, male model of "fraternity-house" debate, argumentation, and related subjects.³² Adding his own invective to decades-old prejudices, Robert J. Connors said that permitting women in traditional debate weakened, feminized, and probably choked the life out of the male pursuit of debate and related subjects.³³ Yost's and the Seven Sisters' networking, their hybridization with Michigan's and Gertrude Buck's networks, and their successes with the new, non-

pugilistic model of debate and argumentation, met with verbal violence." Critics complained that women students and faculties of the Progressive Era cut off the "psychological needs" of their male counterparts, needs that were satisfied by debate and argumentation. Connors and some of his male academic ancestors seemed convinced that nineteenth- and twentieth-century women transmogrified the teaching and theory of rhetoric from hard competitions to "a nurturing partnership between teacher and student."³⁴

As we know, "sisters" across the country's campuses entered the visible, public aspect of the emerging, identity-seeking discipline. Social reformers of the Progressive Era tapped women debaters to speak to and for them; the reformers studied methods needed in the exigencies of the times: child labor, worker safety and organization, immigration, and, of course, their own domestic lives, and the vote. Young men's psychological needs were rechanneled or rewarded in other ways.†

Some fifty years after Yost, Lloyd Bitzer presented his well-developed and tested scholarship, the "rhetorical situation."³⁵ Yet in 1917, Yost's long-ignored research had foreshadowed much of his argument. She asked:

What are the characteristics of the social situation in which we find the outcome of argument? Argument arises, as we have seen, when the normal working of the social group has been interrupted, checked in a certain way. When argument is successful, we find the social group again able to develop through the cooperative efforts of audience and speaker in a direction in harmony with the speaker's initial conception of the needs of the group. The situation has undergone a certain change, the relations between the members of the group, as we have found them to be when the argument was started, have shifted.³⁶

Notably, Bitzer's "rhetorical situation," while more deeply articulated, also became controversial, because not all rhetoricians accept the supposition that "situations determine rhetorical responses."³⁷ Bitzer said:

A rhetorical situation is "a complex of persons, events, objects and relations presenting an actual or potential exigence which can be completely or partially removed if discourse, introduced into the situation, can so constrain human decision or action as to bring about a significant modification of the exigence."³⁸

Twentieth-century scholars who bothered to inquire easily discovered that Yost was also deeply invested in audience effects. She wrote succinctly, plainly, and clearly that "the search for characteristic stages in the process of the act of communication by which these effects are produced" was problematic.³⁹ Yost's wisdom seems to embrace a considerable branch in today's studies of mass communication: audience-effects theory. Yost called on all writers and speakers to first gauge, know, and be sensitive to "the needs" of the social group or audience they were addressing. Otherwise, she cautioned, no "purposive communication" can occur.⁴⁰

*Mount Holyoke, Smith, Radcliffe, Wellesley, Barnard, Vassar, and Bryn Mawr comprise the Seven Sisters; located in the Northeast, all were liberal arts colleges for women (some are now coeducational).

†The era and lives of such student scholars were popularized in a 2007 wide-distribution commercial film, *The Great Debaters*. Coincidentally, the lone female protagonist, Henrietta (Bell) Wells, died at the age of ninety-six in February 2008 (*NY Times* obituary feature, March 12, 2008). Also see *Iron-Jawed Angels*, an HBO made-for-television film, released February 15, 2004.

These ideas also tie in to Kenneth Burke's much later thoughts on consubstantiality.⁴¹ Yost's sociological discussions of knowing and empathizing with one's audience, rather than persuading through forceful imposition of the rhetor's singular view, predated Burke's audience-identification theory by about half a century. Burke's *Rhetoric of Motives* explains that it is vital to either have or develop the ability to identify with others, to act together, to see the same images in the mind's eye, to understand complex ideas, to enjoy shared principles, to appreciate a common spirit, etc.⁴² On the other hand, to be completely fair, many similar ideas are traced to Aristotle.

Like so many women before their time, Yost never published another piece on what would otherwise be called a seminal work. However, she continued to promote her own ideas in her primary social groups as activist professor, university policy-maker, and often-requested public speaker for progressive causes.

Yost's dissertation was approved and released fewer than two years after the NAATPS formed a new research committee to fashion its own fledgling field of study, which they organized around bibliographies from the following subjects then being taught in colleges: The Sociology of Communication; The Psychology of Social Groups; Expressive Reading and Reciting; Elocution and Expression; Gesture and Pantomime; The Teaching of Physiology and Psychology; Spoken Language; Written Language; Tone Production and Phonetics; Reading and Literature; Debate and Discussion; Public Speaking and Oratory—plus the histories of each of these subjects. Oral Interpretation was added later to the list of scholarly pursuits.⁴³ It may be only coincidental that the committee overturned the earlier heresy that the social sciences were in the genetic code of the new discipline of speech education.

However influential, Mary Yost herself had other women who served as her mentor.

Buck mentored many women debaters and graduate students, actively recruiting them from the Seven-Sister colleges. Yost, probably Buck's most famous student-colleague (along with Edna St. Vincent Millay in advancing the community theatre movement), had intimate knowledge of Buck's book *The Present Status of Rhetorical Theory*; her widely-known article, "The Metaphor;" her book *A Course in Argumentative Writing*; and another book, co-authored with Elizabeth Woodbridge, titled *A Course in Expository Writing*. Also influential within the group of intellectual women was Buck's professional and life partner, Laura Johnson Wylie, chair of the Department of English at Vassar.⁴⁴ Other women academics who published in the humanistic and rhetorical tradition influenced Yost. They included, but were not limited to, in alphabetical order:

Hallie Quinn Brown (1849-1949): *Elocution and Physical Culture*

Mary Augusta Jordan (1855-1941): *Correct Writing and Speaking*

Harriet L. Keeler (1846-1921), Emma C. Davis (circa 1891): *Studies in English Composition*

Sara Lockwood (1854-1902): *Lessons in English*

Anna Morgan (1851-1936): *An Hour With Delsarte*

Genevieve Stebbins (1857-1914): *Delsarte System of Expression*; and the Stebbins System of Expression and Physical Training

Frances E. Willard (1839-1898): *Woman in the Pulpit*

Jennie Willing (1834-1916): *The Potential Woman*.⁴⁵

For those thirty-three Stanford years, 1921 until her death in 1954, Yost lived with her life companion, Hoover librarian Nina Almond, according to the extensive research of Bordelon and other feminist scholars.⁴⁶

Yost was not alone in having her considerable contributions marginalized, either through attack or ignorance. Herbert A. Wichelns, undeniably one of the discipline's major architects, reproduced in his 1959 *A History of the Speech Association of the Eastern States*, a description of how an earlier, unnamed chronicler noticed the female mind and personal attributes. He, of course, was not alone throughout history. Wichelns wrote, in part:

[W]e note a rising interest in drama and theatre, and in speech and phonetics. This latter theme brought together at one session of 1921 four notable women, long active and well-known in the Conference. Miss Elizabeth Avery of Smith College, gracious of manner, gracefully angular in frame, presided over Azubah Latham of [Columbia] Teachers College, Estelle H. Davis of Barnard, and Henrietta Prentiss of Hunter.

Each of the four had great energy and force. Miss Latham's blunt and homespun manner and sharp wit tended to conceal a broad sympathy and tolerance. About Miss Prentiss, there was always the rustle of silks, but neither her gently formal air nor Mrs. Davis's magnetic brown eyes kept either one from speaking her mind plainly and pointedly.⁴⁷

Unfortunately, the record of the *ideas* in that discussion is very meager. It should be noted that Henrietta Prentiss, with her "rustle of silk" and "gently formal air" later became a president of both the Speech Association of the Eastern States (SAES) and the Speech Association of America (SAA). (Notably, too, personal attributes appeared alongside intellectual ones in letters of recommendation in 1929 for Marie Hochmuth Nichols, who became SCA's president in 1969.)

Wichelns neither hinted at an original author or note-taker of that 1921 session nor used quotation marks to show that he was not the author. Whether his motive to publish such details, which never would have been acceptable for male scholars and office-holders, was to compliment other women and make them feel welcomed or to demonstrate how evolved the SAES had become in the thirty-eight intervening years is not evident. Wichelns did not state his opinion on that topic, despite having complete control to do so. Sharing that same page was a brief mention of "One of the Founders, Mary Yost," speaking at the 1919 meeting in Princeton on "training four-minute men (those speakers-for-patriotism-in-movie-houses, who were needed in pre-radio days)."⁴⁸

I am very glad I held on to that slightly yellowed, almost dog-eared Wichelns' *History* all these years. It contains valuable, telling nuances about our past. Forty-nine years ago, something must have told me to save this glossy, 8½ by 11-inch booklet from the New York meeting, along with two rooms-full of my own graduate textbooks and many other types of materials by and about the luminaries of our discipline.

Although we did not know it at the time, this wo-mentoring project began informally, when two or three of the former women presidents exchanged stories of the good ol' days over soup and salad (or caffeine almost any time of day or night), mostly at regional and national conventions in the late 1990s. In different combinations over those years, the six living ("surviving," we chuckled) past SCA/NCA presidents focused on the women who had changed the discipline and made a difference in our lives. Some were obvious, well-known for published scholarship or for producing extraordinary graduate students: Gladys Borchers, for example. Some for their tireless, often thankless sweat-equity labor as debate coaches: Deldee Hermon and Annabel Hagood here. Some occasionally because they had become chairs of major departments at a time when women were scarce at that level: Ota Reynolds comes to mind. Just as often, we exchanged stories about the many women grade-school, high-school, and undergraduate teachers who shaped our minds during critical, formative years. Our stories exist because of them.

We six who made it well into the new millennium—remembering our five deceased wo-mentors and the guessed-at numbers of Progressive-Era fo-mentors—realized that we shared a unique experience. In our own personal way, each of us had come to terms with our discipline and with the fact that our women mentors, despite their own obstacles, opened locked doors and lighted dark corners for all students, regardless of gender. And we wondered about the extent to which we did the same for all our intellectual children.

Cohen's 1994 wisdom resonated with us:

The lack of historical consciousness has had serious consequences for the profession. To borrow a term from anthropology, we are a deracinated people who are unaware of our roots. . . . Our lack of awareness of our past [and] . . . [o]ur ignorance [have] allowed us to engage in colloquies and disputes, without understanding that the same matters were the subjects of discussions years earlier . . . Speech Communication is, admittedly, a derivative discipline.⁴⁹

Perhaps, some day, long after we are gone, third- or fourth-wave feminists will argue whether—or to what extent—we were derivative. Surely by then, communication as we know it will not exist, and the act of communicating will not require paper, Blackberries, or thumbs.

The author acknowledges with profound thanks the scholarly and computer assistance of Maureen Williams, Ph.D., in finishing this manuscript. I heard the advice of the great editor and late colleague "in the Illinois tradition," Dr. Hermann Stelzner, to "cut the crap" echoing throughout this project.

PART TWO: Presidents Write About Presidents

Biography is to give a [wo]man some kind of shape after [her] death.

Virginia Woolf

Part Two comprises the life stories of the first five women presidents of what is now the National Communication Association: Henrietta Prentiss (1932), Maud May Babcock (1936), Magdalene Kramer (1947), Elise Hahn (1958), and Marie Hochmuth Nichols (1969). Written by five of the six other women presidents of the twentieth century, these essays are that special kind of history called biography. As with any sort of history, biography relates and stresses some details while ignoring or blunting others. These biographical essays aim to reconstruct the scholarly and professional contributions of these women, giving attention both to their unique contributions and to the historical moments in which they worked.

Obviously, such studies depend on evidence, and, even though these five presidents had several decades of teaching and writing to their credit, few archival materials remain; available evidence is therefore scant. It is also uneven. Given the Mormons' attention to genealogical records, the relative richness of materials on Maud May Babcock, whose career unfolded at the University of Utah, is unsurprising. The equal abundance of materials on Marie Hochmuth Nichols probably has several explanations. She was, by any fair measure, a giant in the field, one of the most powerful scholars and teachers in our discipline, male or female; records of such persons tend to persist, at least for a time. Too, her career unfolded during turbulent years and culminated in the presidency of an Association that was striving to define itself and its place in an increasingly uncertain, often violent, world; such times tend to produce ample records. Finally, records have a way of hanging around for a time, being tossed out only when other important materials seem to require their space; because Marie Hochmuth Nichols was the most recent of the early presidents, more materials about her probably survived, at least in part, because of the vagaries of record keeping. Fortunately, archival materials could often be supplemented with the person's own publications, with personal recollections of former colleagues and students, and with an occasional dash of serendipity.*

Ed.

*Appendix B lists all twentieth-century female presidents, with their birth and death dates and the dates of their presidencies.

CHAPTER THREE: Henrietta Prentiss President, National Association of Teachers of Speech, 1932

Judith S. Trent



Prentiss served as president of what is now the NCA some twenty-three years after the first professional association in communication was created and some seventeen years after the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking itself was formed. Carroll Arnold has offered a compelling portrait of these early years: In 1916, the first observations on the “art of oral composition” were being offered, and one of the “first convention papers on effective speech organization” was given “at the meeting of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference.” At that same meeting, Mary Yost of Vassar College read a paper contending that argument is a social, not a purely logical, process. By the 1920s, “For whatever reason, those interested in the psychology of speaking were chiefly occupied in arguing the relative values of Jamesian, behavioristic, and Gestalt hypothesis. . . . W. E. Utterback was probably right when he called these efforts to interpret all rhetorical activity according to this or that psychological system, ‘largely misdirected’.”¹

It is noteworthy, then, that Prentiss assumed the presidency of the National Association of Teachers of Speech at a time when the discipline had yet to develop any enduring and significant framework for describing, interpreting, and evaluating communication. Indeed, at least according to Arnold, the discipline of communication could not even be said to exist until some six years after Prentiss served as president of the Association:

I think we may say that, by 1938, the rediscovery of rhetoric as the art of adapting formal discourse to the requirements of special situations was virtually complete, insofar as oral discourse was concerned. But it was not until the thirties that a search began for some kind of rhetoric of informal discourse—the speech of conference and purposive conversation.²

Indeed, in Arnold’s view, the twentieth century could itself be divided into two broad periods: There was “a period of rediscovery and explication, running from the beginning of the century to about 1938.” After 1938, he found “a period of intensive scrutiny of the rediscovered doctrines.”³

What is particularly striking about Arnold’s historical sketch is that Prentiss served as president of the professional association when the discipline itself was in the process of rediscovering its most basic premises about what communication was. Following her presidency, the discipline itself expanded its focus dramatically—perhaps undergoing its most radical

transformation of the last century—from the study of formal to informal communication. Although I do not want to overstate the case, it seems at least partly true that Prentiss served as president of the national association in communication during its most revolutionary transition—in its object of study, its methods of analysis, and its role as an academic discipline. Few, if any, guidelines existed for serving as president of the Association during this period. For this reason, some understanding of Prentiss as an individual becomes particularly powerful.

Henrietta Prentiss was born in 1876 to a New England father and a New York mother. Although little information can be documented about her early life, she had at least one sibling, a brother, Arthur Morgan Prentiss. She never married and was survived only by her brother at the time of her death, May 14, 1940. Records indicate that Prentiss spent the majority of her life in the Northeast. She graduated from Smith College in Northampton, Massachusetts, and subsequently took a job teaching speech at the Bloomburg Normal School in Pennsylvania. Sometime before 1907, Prentiss left the east for Iowa City to begin graduate work at the University of Iowa. She majored in zoology, minored in botany, and earned a master's degree in 1907. The title of her master's thesis was "A Discussion of the More Recent Theories of Heredity."

The first position Prentiss took after her graduate degree was at Adelphi University in Garden City, New York, where she taught biology. In 1908, she accepted a position in the biology department at Hunter College, where she spent the remainder of her professional life as a faculty member. While at Hunter, Prentiss became involved in the college honor system, and for years she fought any attempt to abolish the system. She was one of two faculty members to sit on the honor board of the college, the group that determined if students violated any part of the honor code.

In 1913, five years after coming to Hunter College as a biology professor, Prentiss began teaching speech there. It was, in fact, the discipline of speech—especially the training of the voice and the instituting of high standards in both speech and the teaching of speech—that became the defining area, indeed the passion, of her academic career. Prentiss viewed speech as a unique, burgeoning young discipline—special at least in part because both scientific and aesthetic perspectives were important to it. She frequently discussed her concept of the field and the teaching of speech in her writings. The following excerpts from a 1928 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* article entitled "Our Speech Standards" are an example:

Having passed through the period of pseudo-art commonly called elocution (although elocution has had its great artists and its fine expression as well as its quacks and its quackery), we are now entering upon a period of self-justification in which we would prove ourselves more scientific than the scientists, more factual than the historians, more logical than the mathematicians. Fortunately, most of us in our hearts own such allegiances to Art and Skill that I believe our teaching will never become purely academic.⁴

And later, she discussed the beauty of the spoken word: "Phoneticians may laugh at the idea of one sound having more beauty than another, and I agree that difference in the relative beauty of whispered sounds is negligible, but once consider articulate sounds in

relation to voice, and not only does ease of production assume importance, but beauty becomes a vital factor also."⁵

Several years after beginning to teach speech, Prentiss became the head of the Department of Speech at Hunter. A student at Hunter from 1933 through 1936, Marjorie Dycke recalled in a letter to me that the department under Henrietta Prentiss included such aspects of the field as public speaking, speech correction, speech pathology, discussion, debate, oral interpretation, and dramatics. In addition, she related that Professor Prentiss was often referred to by the students as "Hendy" and that she was a dignified, pleasant, and very approachable lady.⁶

Prentiss wrote and lectured throughout her career on teaching speech, training the refined voice, and developing standards by which to evaluate speech. In one of her early publications, the 1928 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* article, there is ample evidence of the ways in which her training in biology guided her perspective or approach to her new discipline, speech. In that article, she wrote:

We have superimposed on each other in our jaws and throats, that antipathetic functions of speech and of snatching tearing, holding and gulping. In the brute of man, speech had much of brute noise. With the progress of civilization, we are getting speech out of the throat, encouraging the making of sounds as far forward as possible, keeping the mass of the tongue away from the larynx, that the vocal chords may not be impeded in their vibration; relaxing the muscles of feeding that the more delicate muscles of voice may play unhampered and unexhausted.⁷

Although an emphasis on the scientific aspects of phonetics was clear in her writing, she balanced the scientific with her belief that speech was also an art form. In an eloquent 1926 letter to the editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, Prentiss suggested:

Those of us who are very hopeful that the creative faculties shall not be neglected for the purely scientific and analytical, find comfort in the fact Iowa is accepting creative work for advanced degrees, and that Yale has founded a dramatic school. Those of us who feel that speech must be subjected to the laboratory test and come out pure science, rejoice in the spread of laboratory methods in our universities.⁸

Thus, convinced that speech was both an art and a science, Prentiss frequently wrote about the multiple dimensions of speech. For example, in a 1925 book chapter entitled "The Training of the Voice" she outlined the complexity of the spoken word:

We are justified in demanding of our students:

- 1 The voice social; radiation of voice.
- 2 The voice pleasant; modulation of voice.
- 3 The voice animated; eagerness of voice.
- 4 The voice clear; support of voice.
- 5 The voice resonant; amplification of voice.⁹

Throughout her years at Hunter, Prentiss focused on two issues: better training for prospective teachers of speech and higher academic standards in speech departments. She fervently believed that refined speech was an integral part of a student's education and that well-trained instructors were essential. Her conference presentations were frequently on these subjects. In a 1930 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* article entitled "Speech Problems at Hunter College," Prentiss expressed these sentiments:

It is a sorry experience for anyone to find himself in an economic or a social environment where good speech is expected and to be unable to swing into line without awkwardness or self consciousness. Here lies the joint responsibility of the school, as an educator and an employer. The school must teach its children to speak well and it must demand of its teachers good speech.¹⁰

Much of her scholarly writing dealt with the problems caused by teachers who were inadequately prepared and lacked the knowledge to teach speech effectively. In the same 1930 article she wrote, "The voice is a most delicately directed function, its capacity for injury from ignorant direction appalling. The teacher whose only technique is to say 'louder, please,' and 'louder' or 'don't run your words together' is a menace."¹¹ And in a 1932 speech, presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, she said:

In the field of utterance there is more danger of developing snobbishness than in almost any other field of education. Ought we not teach our young people to respect differences? ... The essential thing is that she [the student] has something to say and that she said it unafraid of pronunciation. Is that not a great deal better than what you do when you dodge the right word to express your thought because you are not sure whether the stress is on the first or the second syllable? We know, many a child has done this and many a teacher has been responsible because his teaching lacked a sense of proportion.¹²

Prentiss was an active member of disciplinary associations throughout her career. In addition to her service in speech organizations, she was a founding member of the Linguistic Society of America and remained active in the organization until her retirement. She was also a part of the National Council of Teachers of English but became an active participant in the group that broke from the English Council to form the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking. The constitution for the new group, now named the National Association of Teachers of Speech, was drafted in 1932, and Prentiss became its president. She was thus the first woman to serve as president of what is now the National Communication Association.

In 1932, when Prentiss became president of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, the United States was in the midst of economic depression. Despite obvious financial constraints on Association members, Prentiss was determined that the national convention, which was to take place in Los Angeles, be held. In her 1932 "Message from the President" she wrote:

Certainly we are all urged to be cheerful, to be optimistic, and to be extravagant. I can think of nothing more cheerful, more optimistic, or more extravagant, than to believe that the convention ought to be held this year and to hope that a large majority of members of The National Association of Teachers of Speech will foregather in Los Angeles at Christmastime. As our faith, so shall it be unto us.¹³

Later in the message, she made the case for members to attend despite the difficulties it might cause:

Knowing that attendance at our convention this year will mean sacrifice, I nevertheless urge you to come, determined to give and gain courage through comradeship, to acquire wisdom through discussion, to seek vision through new experiences and to find compensation in high thinking for the plain living that may be necessitated by your trip to Los Angeles.¹⁴

Following her year as president, Prentiss remained an active member of the Association for the remainder of her life. Although continuing as head of Hunter's speech department, she became ill sometime after 1932. Following what was described in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* as an absence of "some time," she returned to her duties at Hunter early in 1934. Little else is known about the rest of Prentiss's life, other than that she retired from her position at Hunter College in June 1939 and died eleven months later on May 14, 1940.

Selected Publications

- Prentiss, Henrietta. "The Training of the Voice." In *A Course of Study in Speech Training*, edited by Alexander M. Drummond, 63-75. New York: Century, 1925.
- . "Standardized Requirements in Teacher Training" (a letter to the editor). *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 12 (1926): 68-69.
- . "Our Speech Standards." *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 14 (1928): 189-195.
- . "Speech Problems at Hunter College." *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 16 (1930): 472-475.
- . "A Message from the President." *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 18 (1932): 515-517.

CHAPTER FOUR: Maud May Babcock President, National Association of Teachers of Speech, 1936

Sharon A. Ratliffe



Miss Babcock," as her students affectionately referred to her, was born on May 2, 1867, in East Worchester, New York, and died at the age of eighty-seven on New Year's Eve in 1954. The University of Utah's Library Register of Maud May Babcock Papers mentions a sister who attended the Baltimore College of Physicians and Nurses during the years 1892 and 1893 but does not verify her graduation from this institution.¹ Also mentioned is a brother, William Wayne Babcock, Jr., who attended the University of the City of New York in 1894 and, according to Joseph F. Smith, a former student, was five years younger than Maud and became "one of the world's great surgeons." Of these three—and possibly more—siblings, Maud was apparently the oldest and her brother the youngest, judging from their dates of college attendance. While their parents' education and occupation are unclear, correspondence among the children suggests a cultured and educated family.

Miss Babcock received her B.A. from Wells College, New York. She received a Bachelor of Elocution degree from the National School of Oratory of Philadelphia in 1886 and graduated from the Lyceum School of Acting (later the American Academy of Dramatic Arts) in New York City in 1888. She also attended Chicago University and spent two years studying in London and Paris. In 1939, one year after her retirement from the University of Utah at the age of seventy-one, Miss Babcock received an honorary doctorate from that university.

Before her long and distinguished career at the University of Utah, Miss Babcock taught at the Engleside School for Girls in the Berkshires, at Rutgers College, and in the public schools of New York. She taught a summer session at the University of Wisconsin (1921). She also studied and taught at Harvard University for three summer sessions (1891, 1892, and 1893) and, apparently, applied for a permanent position there. Her sister consoled her, in a letter, for not getting the appointment at Harvard, indicating that most people work a lifetime to qualify. While teaching in a summer session at Harvard, however, she met Susan Young Gates, Brigham Young's daughter, who was a student in Miss Babcock's class during the summer of 1892. Miss Babcock went to the University of Utah in 1892 as a professor of oratory and speech. (She verified in 1947 that Mrs. Gates was responsible for her coming to Utah.) Shortly after her arrival at Utah, Miss Babcock joined the Mormon Church, although her mother in a letter (1893) had expressed concern over Maud's interest in the Mormons and requested that she not join them.

At her retirement in 1938, Miss Babcock claimed to have had the longest active service of any faculty member at the University: forty-six years. According to Joseph F. Smith, she taught elocution and physical culture at the University in the morning and at the Brigham Young Academy in the afternoon during her first year. Following this first year, her name appeared in the catalogue, and her personal history paralleled the early history of the field:

- 1893-94 Instructor of elocution and physical culture
- 1896-97 Director of gymnasium and instructor of reading, elocution, and physical culture
- 1897-98 Assistant professor of elocution and physical culture and director of gymnasium
- 1903-04 Associate professor of elocution and director of women's gymnasium
- 1904-05 Full professor of elocution (Single-handedly, she was the Department of Elocution.)
- 1917-18 Professor of public speaking (when the department became the Department of Public Speaking)
- 1927-38 Chair, Department of Speech (as the department changed its name again).

The department grew from one to eight members during her tenure.

Miss Babcock organized the University of Utah Dramatic Club in 1895 and began to stage productions in a facility loaned to her by the Mormon Church. The Dramatic Club claimed to be the first in the country, and it did have the longest consecutive record of annual productions. She personally produced more than three hundred plays, including a number even after she retired. In 1916, she spent a semester directing at the Washington Square Theatre in New York City. Two years later, Miss Babcock was credited as "the leading spirit" in bringing the first subsidized professional theatre to a university in the United States. For establishing such a theatre at the University of Utah during 1918-22, she was called a pioneer in the college Little Theatre Movement. The record also refers several times to her productions of "Mrs. Bumpstead Leigh," a 1913 production that Miss Babcock directed again twenty-three years later—in 1936, the year of her NATS presidency. For the 1936 production, ten of the eleven original players returned, along with the student stage manager. The 1936 cast included two judges, a surgeon, two attorneys, the Attorney General, and the Governor of Utah.

But Miss Babcock's first love was what we now call performance studies, which she referred to as "oral reading" or "interpretation." She wrote several books, including *Interpretive Selections for High Schools* and *Interpretive Selections for College*. In addition, a series of articles on "Teaching Interpretation" and distinguishing "Interpretative Presentation from Impersonative Presentation" appeared in the *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking* in 1916, articles that now seem to be classic in defining the differences between interpretation and acting.

In all of her writings on the subject of interpretation she credits Alfred Ayres, her professor in New York, with "planting our feet on an intellectual basis." She rejects memorization as a technique, preferring instead to recreate through practice the thoughts

and feelings stimulated within the literature and to reproduce these in speech and action. How much practice? Until the language has been internalized, and the reader is no longer reliant on the printed page.

A brochure of "Dramatic Recitals and Interpretative Lectures" by Miss Babcock is included in her papers at the University of Utah. The wide range of literary classics in her repertoire, the varied topics of her "Lecture Recitals," "A Birdseye View of Literature," and, especially, the press cuttings from throughout the United States testify to her amazing career as a performer. Just one brief example:

Miss Babcock is an artist in every sense of the word, and as she deftly painted each word picture of each poem, one was forced to gaze upon the veil of imagination, where those portraits of fancy become real objects.

— Ogden (Utah) Standard

This brochure also includes a picture of "some of the four thousand who listened to Miss Babcock's reading of Abraham Lincoln from the parapet of the great Lincoln Monument at the University of Wisconsin, July, 1920."

In addition to her productive life as a teacher and performer, Miss Babcock was also very active professionally. She was:

- President of the national dramatic fraternity, Theta Alpha Phi, for three years (1920-22)
- Member, Delta Kappa Gamma, the national education sorority
- Honorary member, National League of American Pen Women
- Honorary member, Pi Alpha Pi
- Trustee, Utah School for the Deaf and Blind (22 years); President (12 years)
- Chaplain, Utah State Senate (probably the first woman in the United States to hold this position)
- Charter Member, National Association of Elocutionists (1892-1917)
- Charter Member, National Association of Teachers of Speech (1917)
- Associate Editor, *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*
- President, National Association of Teachers of Speech (1936).

Thus Miss Babcock became only the second woman to ascend to the presidency of what is now the National Communication Association. The only reference to a possible pathway to this presidency was a glancing remark about her being associate editor of *QJSE*. She was unopposed for the office, as was the custom at the time, and she, like Henrietta Prentiss, was unmarried at the time of her presidency and remained unmarried throughout her life. Miss Babcock herself identified Alfred Ayres as a mentor: a handwritten document that appears to be a resume reads, "Pupil of Alfred Ayres, Eleanor Georgan, Moses True Brown, etc.," but Miss Babcock wrote elsewhere only of Ayres. The only other professional influence she mentioned was Susan Young Yates, Brigham Young's daughter, who was instrumental in Miss Babcock's move to Utah.

A particular professional interest of Miss Babcock's is clear from a draft of a letter she wrote in 1916 to the National Council of Teachers of English. In it she used the occasion of their twenty-fifth anniversary to express her "earnest desire" that the disciplines of speech and

English have a closer affiliation. She referred to English as the “fundamental discipline on any educational level” and praised English teachers who also taught oral English as a “great help in convincing educational authorities of the great value of oral English, and oral interpretation of literature.” Then she stated her belief that reciprocity in academic training should exist for teachers in either subject, that a degree or teaching certificate in either subject should require at least a minor in the other field. The outcome, wrote Miss Babcock, would be teachers in each field both better grounded in the other and with a “clear mutual understanding and mutual appreciation, which I, for one, so much desire.” The desired closer affiliation between the two disciplines seems to have been both a personal and a professional goal.

Miss Babcock’s description of the twenty-first annual convention of the NATS further demonstrated her concern with training at the elementary and secondary level. The President’s Message, in a letter to fellow teachers entitled “Convention Call,” announced that the annual convention of the NATS would meet jointly with the National Convention of the American Speech Correction Association in St. Louis at the Statler Hotel from December 29 through 31, 1936. It praised the men and women in the profession who worked to place speech “in the present unqualifiedly recognized position in the college and university educational world.” Then Miss Babcock went on to say that “from now on we must turn our efforts to a most vital, an almost unplowed, educational field—the elementary and secondary school levels.” She continued:

Without good speech training in these levels, we, who are teachers in the upper levels, are building without a trained speech foundation. It is now necessary in the upper levels, to build a foundation that should have been made on the lower levels. Our Association must increase its activity in this direction and secure better speech training on the lower levels, and more definite preparation for instructors who must teach in the elementary and secondary schools. This is the work of the college and university.

That this area was of personal interest to Miss Babcock is also suggested by the title of one of her publications, *Handbook for Teachers*.

To know whether Miss Babcock had any credibility problems as a leader is difficult. She was held in very high regard. As only the second woman among the first twenty-one presidents, however, perhaps her gender did raise some issues of credibility. Miss Babcock’s interest in elementary and secondary school education might also have been a source of concern to some in the Association. On the other hand, referring to her role within the University of Utah, Joseph Smith described Miss Babcock as “a fighter.” He continued:

It is not to be wondered at, as the first woman on the university faculty, she had problems. But she eloquently and firmly stood her ground, always on deep-seated principle, and became a formidable champion of any cause, principle, or procedure which she espoused.

Everything written about Miss Babcock suggests that she was a very congruent person—her beliefs, her rhetoric, and her behavior seem to have been in alignment. She expected perfection of herself and sought to elicit the same from her students. Perhaps her problems as a credible leader were few and small.

In addition to her very full life within the profession, Miss Babcock participated widely outside it. Her home and her summer cabin in the Wasatch Mountains, for example, were open to her present students and alumni, and, because exercise was an integral part of her life, she required long hikes of visiting students. Joseph Smith, describing her as “indefatigable,” recounted the gourmet meals that Miss Babcock prepared following these hikes, while students reclined in various stages of exhaustion. Apparently, too, Miss Babcock often conducted student tours, and she made several trips to Europe and Asia. From such trips, she owned a large collection of articles from all countries, including dolls that were dressed in authentic costumes, which she used as models for costuming plays and operas.

Miss Babcock’s high energy also transformed her social consciousness into social action. She exchanged a series of letters with Madame Chiang Kai-shek in 1938. The first reported a contribution of ten dollars for the aid of Chinese victims of the Sino-Japanese War. Miss Babcock received a two-page letter of gratitude in return. Then Miss Babcock, along with a woman who spent a summer with her in China, organized a “silver tea” and open house on Easter Sunday. After four hours, they had entertained two hundred people and collected \$52.45. Rounding off the amount, Miss Babcock sent a check to Madame Chiang Kai-shek for \$55.00 for the Women’s Relief Fund. Within two weeks, Miss Babcock received a letter of appreciation. Subsequently, this effort grew into a local group for Chinese relief. Assisting young women seems to have been a particular theme for Miss Babcock’s social action, as when she founded the Lucy Mack Home for Girls.

Joseph Smith has claimed that Miss Babcock could not be known through biographical details such as those sketched in this essay. He remembered her as a small woman of about five feet, three or four inches who dressed meticulously and paid special attention to color harmony. He described her as once wearing “a dark velvet toque, a deep lavender velvet jacket with a white fichu at her throat, a light lavender pleated silk skirt, gray stockings and gray shoes.” Outfits such as this one probably explain why, in another memory shared by Smith, an eminent artist referred to her as “a symphony in color!”

But neither biographical details nor appearances captured her essence: “The inspiration, the unswerving rectitude, the dynamic influence—these had to be experienced,” wrote Smith. The Speech Association of America last “experienced” Miss Babcock when she gave her final address before it in November 1950, at the age of eighty three. Entitled “Interpretation as I Taught It,” the speech described how she had taught interpretation in 1900, a half-century before. The tape recording captures not only the concise simplicity of her language but also the clarity of her enunciation and the strength of her voice, all three serving to augment the ideas of the speech.

I am indebted to the Special Collections Department of the University of Utah Libraries, and especially to Dr. Malcolm O. Sillars, Professor Emeritus of the Department of Communication at the University of Utah, for providing materials that made it possible to rediscover Maud May Babcock, an extraordinary voice in so many ways.

Selected Publications

- Babcock, Maud May. "Loyalty." Address to the Mutual Improvement Association Conference at the Tabernacle, Salt Lake City, UT, June 5, 1904. *Improvement Era*.
- . "Convention Call" and "President's Message" in a letter addressed to Fellow Teachers, on NATS letterhead, 1936.
- . Draft of letter to the National Association of Teachers of English on their 25th Anniversary, 1936.
- . Prayer read as Chaplain of the Utah State Senate, February 14, 1945.
- . "The Social Hall." *Improvement Era*.
- . "The New Movement in Theater." *Young Women's Journal*. n.d.
- . "Courses in Debating." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 1 (1915): 91-92.
- . "Teaching Interpretation." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 1 (1915): 173-176.
- . "Community Theatre Activity." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 2 (1916): 393-396.
- . "Impersonation vs. Interpretation." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 2 (1916): 340-343.
- . "Interpretative Presentation versus Impersonative Presentation." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 2 (1916): 18-25.
- . "Interpretation as I Taught It." Text and Audiotape of final address given before the Speech Association of America. December 1950. Gail Plummer Collection.

CHAPTER FIVE: Magdalene Kramer President, National Association of Teachers of Speech, 1947

Beverly Whitaker Long Chapin



Magdalene Kramer, president in 1947, when we were called the National Association of Teachers of Speech, received her Ph.D. from Columbia in June 1936. In July of that year, I was born. In 1958, when I was enrolled in summer school at Teachers College, Columbia University, I met Magdalene Kramer. Or maybe I just saw her in the hall. I'm not quite sure. But I do remember that she was tall and had reddish hair and was imposing—at least to a very impressionable high-school teacher from Arkansas. In fall 1999, I went back to Columbia to learn more. In the Department of Special Collections at the Milbank Memorial Library, I found a file labeled "Kramer."

Magdalene Emma Kramer was born June 17, 1898, in Canton, Ohio. She received an A.B. from Trinity College, Washington, D.C., in 1920; an M.A. from Columbia in 1930; and a Ph.D. in 1936. A teacher in the Washington and Ohio secondary schools for eight years in the mid to late 1920s, she served for the last four of them as teacher of oral English and director of dramatics. At Columbia she moved rather seamlessly from student to faculty: 1930-1933, teaching assistant; 1933, instructor; 1936, teaching associate; 1937, assistant professor; 1939, associate professor; 1945, professor; and 1963, emeritus professor. From 1941, two years after she was promoted to associate professor, she served as chair (actually chairman) of the Department of Teaching Speech, a post she held until she retired in 1963. She chaired a department of five to ten faculty members while teaching a broad array of courses in general speech, theatre, and speech correction and audiology—for twenty-two years. The year of her retirement, the department's name was changed from Teaching Speech to Speech and Theatre, the "speech" still including speech pathology and audiology. After she retired, two new faculty members taught the courses she had been teaching. An interim chair was replaced three years later by a person who chaired both the Department of Language and Literature and the Department of Speech and Theatre Arts. By 1970, speech's status had been reduced, and speech was housed in the Department of Languages, Literature, Speech and Theatre.

Magdalene Kramer's early academic interest probably was in theatre. I can imagine that she was in plays in college and studied speech arts, especially oral reading. During her high-school teaching, she taught English and oral English and served as director of dramatics, meaning, I suspect, that she directed junior and senior class plays and coached students for extracurricular activities. By the time she moved to New York to begin her advanced degrees, she was an experienced teacher. She was, as Rose Abernethy, one of her 1936 students, noted, known by her peers as "Madge." Teaching "choral speaking, a new field, [and] oral

interpretation, she was a vital, enthusiastic, well-informed teacher. . . . an animated red-head." She wrote a dissertation on "Dramatic Tournaments in the Secondary School," an extensive survey that concluded with carefully evolved recommendations, including the claim that festivals were more educational than contests and that the primary goal in such activity was not competition but appreciation and education for the students.

Not surprisingly, Professor Kramer—Madge—was teaching junior- and senior-level courses even before she completed the Ph.D. She must have been pleased when Columbia asked her to stay and become a full-time faculty member. Over the years she would continue to teach basic and advanced oral interpretation and a series of courses on teaching speech, psychology and speech, directing dramatics, research methods, and internships. Throughout her tenure, the department required diagnostic qualifying examinations (oral) for all entering advanced degrees. She appears to have taught 15-17 hours each semester and regularly advised M.A., Ph.D., and Ed.D. candidates—roughly 15 per year. The Department also offered a number of certification programs, which she administered. She advised undergraduates as well.

According to personnel records in the Milbank Library, Madge Kramer's salary in 1937 was \$3000, plus \$667 for summer school. By 1947, when she served as president of our national organization, she was earning \$6500, plus \$1200 for summer school. The following year she had a "sabbatical with salary" of \$7500. When she retired in 1963, her annual income was \$13,000.

Kramer was an early, perhaps founding, member of the New York Metropolitan Teachers of Speech, an executive council member of the New York State Speech Association, and president of the Speech Association of Eastern States. She was also a member of the American Speech and Hearing Association, American Educational Theatre Association, National Education Association, National Council of Teachers of English, and the American Educational Research Association. She clearly was what would have been called an exemplary, broadly informed, speech professional.

Clearly, Kramer was also nurturing. Linda Lederman, distinguished professor at Tufts, recalls: "When illness prevented me from attending classes for almost half of one semester, she helped me make up the work so that I could complete my degree on time. She helped me get my first teaching job—right out of Columbia with a brand new M.A. When I asked her what I could do to repay her kindness, she replied, 'You can pass it on.'"¹

Anita Taylor offers a more indirect characterization in her comments about Kramer's 1963 article on the teaching of another, earlier teacher of speech at Columbia, Azubah Latham: "[W]e can probably take much of the article's praise for Latham as indicative of Kramer's own philosophy and goals. She commended Latham's 'ahead-of-her-time' educational procedures in which 'most of the time was spent in students' reading and in critical analyses of the readings' (on page 188); her advocacy of teaching through use of example; and her insistence that oral interpretation of literature be communication by full analysis and understanding of its meaning as well as good vocal technique. Kramer praises Latham for being a 'firm and strict task-master,' as well as having her own creative abilities, and for recognizing and cultivating creativity by her students. We can reasonably conclude Kramer strove for the same outcomes."²

Another former NCA president, Jane Blankenship, remembers Professor Kramer: "Once she came to Mr. Holyoke College, when I was an instructor. During the informal lunch, I was awe-struck at being in the presence of a former SAA president. She did her best to include me in the conversation and presumed that I might have something to say. She conducted the conference in the same way, with strength and graciousness."³

Kramer was president of NATS when the convention was held in Salt Lake City. Since she was a woman president—the third in the association's history—she, according to Loren Reid, "felt the prestige of women everywhere was at stake." Faculty from the University of Utah "rounded up special attractions." Probably most to Madge's satisfaction was the completion of a new constitution, one that, as far as I can determine, recommended the creation of a legislative assembly and the name change to Speech Association of America.

I was disappointed, though not really surprised, when I asked a man who had been active in the Association in the 1940s why he thought Kramer was elected president. He guessed that "it was time for a woman—and someone in her field and from her part of the country. The rhetoric boys looked at all of that." These reasons of gender, specialty, or geography seem challenged in another man's assessment of Kramer's proven leadership, which is probably the more likely reason for her selection. Lester Thonssen, long-time professional colleague, remembers that "she provided the skillful, even-handed leadership which is essential to the success of professional organizations. . . . On many occasions we watched her—both with admiration and perhaps a bit of envy—as she stood up to other administrators and leaders of our profession. With unflinching tact and charm, but with proud, strong conviction, she defended proposals and practices in which she found merit; with equal vigor, often interlaced with finely honed indignation, she opposed recommendations which struck her as shallow or imprudent. She never shunned a controversy in which she felt deeply; she never gave equivocal replies for reasons of expedience or personal advantage."⁴

Madge was a likely candidate for president of NATS during what must have been very stressful post-war times. The Psychology of Speech courses she had been teaching for a decade probably helped her in moving about in a male-dominated organization. She had a proven record of working with diverse students, faculty, and administrators in a variety of private and public institutions. She was efficient, apparently healthy, single, undaunted by days and nights devoted to work, conversant with the needs of teachers in fields outside her own, charming, spirited, and published.

Magdalene Kramer remained active in the national Association, presenting papers as late as 1960. After retirement, she continued to live in New York City until 1976, when she developed cancer and moved to her sister's home in Connecticut. She died November 23, 1978.

Kramer's obituary notes twenty nieces and nephews. Surely somewhere in so large a family, there are scrapbooks and memories as yet untapped. More of her students during the fifties may yet be traceable. There may be records in the D.C. college where she received the B.A. and at the secondary schools where she taught. And perhaps there are people reading this report who can suggest other leads.

Selected Publications

Kramer, Magdalene. "SAES - 1959," *ECA Newsletter* (October 1973): 8-9.

- . "Azubah J. Latham: Creative Teacher," *Speech Teacher* 12 (September 1963): 187-191.
- . "What is New in the Speech Association of America?" *Speech Teacher* 4 (September 1955): 149-154.
- . "History of the Speech Association of the Eastern States," *Today's Speech* (April 1953): 1-4.
- . "The Gilman Plan for the Reorganization of the Speech Association of America: A Symposium," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 38 (October 1952): 359. With others.
- . "The Role of Speech in Education: A Re-Evaluation," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 34 (April 1948): 123-127.
- . Review of *Poems for Playtime*, by Carrie Rasmussen. *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 29 (February 1943): 115. With Loren Reid.
- . *Dramatic Tournaments in the Secondary Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936, 1-176.

CHAPTER SIX: Elise Hahn President, Speech Association of America, 1958

Anita Taylor



Elise Stearns graduated from UCLA in 1932 with a B.A. in English. She met Eugene F. Hahn, her son believes, while in college, and they married sometime in the 1930s. Few records are available about this time; she had no siblings, and her son, also Eugene Hahn (called Gene by his friends), was born in May 1945, several months after his father died. Gene reports no concrete recollections of his mother's talking about this period.¹ Laurie Schulman, who met Elise Hahn in 1968 and shared a retirement home with her, also reports having little concrete knowledge about this period of Hahn's life.² Clues can be inferred from what is known about Eugene F. Hahn.

Both Schulman and Gene Hahn believe that Elise was interested in writing during this time and that it was Eugene F. Hahn's appointment to a faculty position in the Midwest that motivated a move from California. Gene believes that Elise wrote some musical scores and published them under husband's name because she didn't think they'd be published using her name. She did publish in the *Saturday Evening Post* in 1944, where she is identified as the editor of a piece by Herbert Richard Kabat, "Bare Fists Against a Shark," in the November 11, 1944 issue.³

She became active as a speech clinician sometime around 1935, although certification did not occur until much later, in 1953. The inference is based on two sources. In her 1948 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* article about the speech of first-grade children, Elise Hahn comments that "the investigator" had "been engaged in voice training and speech correction with children and adults for some thirteen years. Much of her work has been in speech clinics."⁴ And it seems that she worked with Eugene F. Hahn as he moved toward an academic career in the developing field of speech therapy. According to a report of his death made to the annual meeting of the American Speech Correction Association (ASCA) in 1944, he was "a young man of unusual promise" who had left a position as Associate Professor at Wayne University (now Wayne State University), Detroit, to enter the Navy during World War II.⁵ The news item by Sara Stinchfield Hawk in the *Journal of Speech Disorders* reporting his death said that Hahn was stationed at the Naval War College in Newport, Rhode Island, when he succumbed to pneumonia in November 1944 and that "Mrs. Hahn was closely associated with him in clinical work."⁶ These dates support both the family story that his death was service related and the inference that she had begun working in clinical settings well before then. Other evidence points to a date around 1935 as the time when she turned fully to speech training. Howard Grey, whose Ph.D. program at UCLA was directed by

Elise Hahn, when asked if he knew what occupied Elise Hahn during the 1930s, said he had the impression that she was “a protégée” of Eugene F. Hahn.⁷ Information accompanying two of Eugene Hahn’s early publications indicates he was directing a program at the speech clinic at the University of Southern California while working on his doctorate (awarded by USC in 1940).⁸ The *ASCA Membership Directory* for 1944 reports that he was director of the speech clinic at Wayne University, where Elise Hahn had earned her M.A. in 1942.⁹ Her thesis, from the Department of Speech Education, focused on speech improvement in the classroom.

According to Gene, the Hahns had planned a life near Eugene’s professorial post and had purchased four or five acres of land in the area, intending to build a house, when a low draft number led to a Naval enlistment. While in the Navy, Eugene did a variety of speech work with officers and staff. Shortly after Eugene F. Hahn died in the service, Gene reports, Elise’s mother died. Soon thereafter the young widow and infant son moved back to California, where they lived with her father. Gene Hahn reports that his grandfather had been “involuntarily retired” by Bank of America at sixty-five and thereafter provided a great deal of the primary care for his grandson.

The exact date of the move is unclear; records show that she earned her Ph.D. in August 1947 from Northwestern University and that she was appointed as a lecturer in public speaking in the Department of English at UCLA July 1, 1947. Her Ph.D. thesis, “The Speech of First-Grade Children in Audience Situations,” doubtless formed the basis for articles that appeared shortly thereafter in *QJS*. Elise Hahn’s M.A. thesis, “What the Classroom Teacher Can Do in Speech Re-education,” probably formed the basis for an identically titled piece that was indexed, without a date, in *The Education Index*, Vol. 6 (covering July 1944 through June 1947), as having been included in a publication of the National Education Association’s Department of Elementary School Principals: *Role of Speech in the Elementary School*. This publication is probably based on (or may have been the same as, since it had the same title) the item as reported in *QJS* as a Speech Association of America’s committee report that had been published by the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1947.¹⁰

Records at UCLA (examined and reported by Suzanne Shellaby of UCLA’s Library Archives) show that students could major in speech from 1948 until 1964 and could emphasize public address, oral interpretation, or speech correction. In 1964, the speech correction program was discontinued, “but in cooperation with the Department of English, a program of study in experimental phonetics was added in its stead.” Also according to Shellaby, the records show that from 1950 to 1955 Hahn had an appointment in the psychology clinic as well as in English and that words describing such an appointment to the clinic in her personnel records for 1955 through 1962 had been subsequently erased.¹¹ In 1963, Hahn became an associate professor in the Department of Speech; academic year 1963-64, she is recorded as being on leave without pay. Reports from some faculty members and other contemporary colleagues in communication at California State University Los Angeles indicate the departure from UCLA was unpleasant.¹² At any rate, by 1964-65, the catalog at California State University Los Angeles (CSULA) includes her name, and a note from David Sigler, an archivist at CSULA, indicates she began working there in 1963.¹³

Hahn retired from CSULA in 1977 but continued active in the profession in which she had been a leader. She was president of the California Speech-Language Hearing Association in 1969-70 and of the American Cleft Palate Association in 1971. In 1953, Elise Hahn had been named a Fellow of the American Speech and Hearing Association (ASHA), and, in 1982, ASHA voted her Honors of the Association. She was a member of the California Cleft Palate Association and the St. John’s Hospital Cleft Palate Team in Santa Monica. In 1984, the California Speech and Hearing Association (CSHA) awarded her Honors of the Association, an award recognizing significant contributions to CSHA and outstanding professional achievements. In 1984, the California Speech-Language Hearing Association gave her its highest award as well, Honors of the Association.

According to her son, she was especially proud of the ASHA designations, justifiably so, as they recognize distinguished contributions to the field. Only seventy-one persons had been chosen for this honor in the thirty-seven years between 1945 (when the first was named) and 1982. Moreover, few women are on that list. Of the seventy-one, identifying and then counting all the names that are possibly female, at most seventeen were women; using only the names that are surely female, the total is closer to eleven.

Gene Hahn reports that Elise did much work with Eugene F. Hahn on his publications, which include two books, *Public Speaking Handbook, For a Beginning Course in Public Speaking* with Grafton P. Tanquary (c. 1939) and *Stuttering, Significant Theories and Therapies* (c. 1943), with a foreword by Sara Stinchfield Hawk, as well as articles in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, the *Journal of Exceptional Children*, and the *Journal of Speech Disorders*.¹⁴ Elise Hahn prepared the second edition of the stuttering book, published in 1956, which was reviewed in *QJS* by John V. Irwin (University of Wisconsin) as a “thorough reworking of the first or 1943 edition . . . [and] a significant addition to the literature of this field.”¹⁵ In 1952, with Charles Lomas, Donald Hargis, and Daniel Vandraegen (all at UCLA) she wrote, *Basic Voice Training for Speech* (part of the McGraw-Hill series in speech), which the authors described as growing out of a felt need for a text in voice training.

Records of her service to the Speech Association of America before being selected president are slim. During the 1940s and 50s (and doubtless before), reports in the “News” and “Forum” sections of *Quarterly Journal of Speech* (later called “Shop Talk”) regularly detailed actions at the then executive council and the annual business meetings of the Association, all of which seem to have occurred during the annual convention. In either the winter or spring issue, this news section always included the report of the Association’s nominating committee. (The mode of constituting that committee changed during this period. In 1949, it was described as being elected “at the previous convention.” Only later were mail ballots used to select the nominating committee.) These records show that Elise Hahn was elected to a three-year term on the executive council in December 1952, serving from 1953 through 1956.¹⁶ *QJS* reports her as a member of a “study committee” on “problems in the elementary schools,” one of many study committees on “problems in . . .” She reported in 1948 that this committee was sending questionnaires to instructors in teacher-training institutions to learn what training in speech education was being given.¹⁷ I infer that it is this committee that prepared the report published by the NEA referred to above. She

continued to be identified as a member of the committee on problems in elementary schools until it was discontinued, apparently with the implementation of SAA's new constitution in 1956. She is identified as a member of the advisory committee on publications in 1955 and as having been a member of the 1955 convention's committee on resolutions and a member of the 1956 committee on committees; she is recorded as having introduced the petition for establishing the interest group for speech and hearing disorders at the convention in 1956, when many such groups were being formed in implementing the new constitution.¹⁸ She was reported again on the committee on committees in 1957 as well as a member of the public relations committee and the committee on cooperation with related organizations.¹⁹ In 1959, she was a member of the committee on committees, a committee on time and place (a three-year term), and on consultation.²⁰

The SAA spent several years around 1950 deliberating changes in its structure, with the first committee to recommend a new structure being appointed in 1950. The new constitution, adopted in December 1954, became effective in 1956. It provided that two candidates would be named for each office and that the entire membership would vote by mail ballot. Before this time an elected committee nominated a single candidate for each office; this candidate was then elected, it seems, by the executive council, although that is not entirely clear from a reading of these records. Quite likely, at some point the executive council began endorsing the nominating committee's choices and presenting them for affirmation at a business meeting held at the annual convention. What is clear is that Hahn was the last person elected to the presidency (by way of the vice-presidency, which succeeded to the presidency) under the system of a single nominee elected at the convention. As the second vice president in 1956, she is described as the first person to chair the new legislative assembly, a group of 125, one very much larger than the previous governing body, the executive council.²¹

Loren Reid in a letter said he believed he was a member of the nominating committee that selected her, although the *QJS* named as committee members W. Norwood Brigance, Bower Aly, Lionel Crocker, Kenneth Hance, and Orville Hitchcock, but not Reid.²² As the incoming president, however, he doubtless consulted with committee members, especially given the close connections he had with these Association stalwarts. I think we can take Reid's description of committee deliberations, therefore, as an accurate reflection of the thinking of the Association's then leadership. He notes that the committee reviewed the list of past presidents to see what regions and professional specialties were represented and "discovered right off that many of them had been from rhetoric and public address and that speech pathology was absent from that list." Since the Association then represented departments including the range of speech-related study, including theatre, oral interpretation, and speech pathology as well as radio and (soon) television, the absence was notable. He continued, they also "noted that the West had not had a president for a while . . . [and] most of our presidents had been men." Reid concluded, with tongue planted firmly in cheek, "That led to the remarkable decision that we could kill three birds with one stone by selecting a woman president from the West whose field was speech pathology." Reid does not believe that two candidates were chosen at that time; he reports being "reasonably sure she

was elected by acclamation at a convention."²³ *QJS* records confirm at least the first part of his recollection.

As long-time members recall, the Association had a long tradition of holding its annual meeting between Christmas and New Year's Day. A review of the many news reports in *QJS* in the late 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s finds many deliberations about location and timing of these annual meetings, reflecting much dissatisfaction with the holiday conventions. As an experiment, SAA held its 1957 convention August 25-28 in Boston, the year that Hahn was responsible for planning the program. *QJS* reported that 1,205 persons attended, compared with 1,615 the previous year in Chicago in December and 1,250 the year before that, also in December, but in Los Angeles.²⁴

Records of the American Speech Correction Association (now the American Speech and Hearing Association) show that Hahn was active in ASCA at this time as well. Reports of business at the annual meeting and other matters appeared once a year in an issue of the *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders* until 1982, when a new format was adopted. In the late 1950s, Hahn served two years on a "special committee" on the organizational structure. In 1961, she was vice president elect and vice president in 1962. Records do not show that officers moved through the chairs in ASHA at this time, and it does not appear uncommon for a person elected to a vice-presidency not to have been subsequently elected president.

Association work obviously consumed much of Elise Hahn's time (time spent itself reflects a strong interest), but it seems equally clear that being a teacher and clinician were also major interests. Talking with a number of her students strongly suggests that she was a powerful personality with great interest and exceptional skill in clinical work and in training clinicians. Schumann reported watching Elise Hahn work and said that she never failed to elicit a response from a nonverbal child.²⁵ The students' reports confirm an impression gained by reading the publications. Howard Grey, who started his program of study at UCLA in 1955 and earned the first Ph.D. in the program, said she had "a remarkable ability to involve you in her life, which was then about 80 percent clinician/teacher."²⁶ Each of Hahn's students interviewed described her work with clients (and of watching through the one-way mirrors as they saw Hahn model the therapeutic behaviors they were learning), her interest in their lives, and her willingness to share her own life with them. She is described as having time to respond to questions and listen to students. Almost all the students remember being invited to Hahn's home for parties, and her son, Gene, mentioned these as well. Grey described these as ways of helping students "learn how to be professionals" and "who to know." Through these events and conversations with students, she would share stories of the people in the field as people, not just professors. She "offered ways to pattern yourself after a model."²⁷ Gene Hahn mentioned that on more than one occasion students stayed in her house when for some reason they were temporarily without housing.²⁸

Her teaching style did not rely on lectures but on the modeling described above. In classes, she used a seminar approach. Students, sometimes paired, sometimes individually, would do reports or papers and present them orally. Then the instructor and class would discuss what was covered. She is remembered as writing extensive comments on student papers, commenting on scholarship, writing style, completeness. Students in the cleft palate

class, Lisa O'Connor recalls, all developed a notebook that would include handouts, notes, assignments. Hahn reviewed the notebooks for organization and accuracy and gave students feedback. She expected students to use these notebooks for consultations when they entered their own practices, and O'Connor mentions using her notebook on cleft palate for years as a reference.²⁹ O'Connor and other former students also tell of being encouraged to stay in touch with Hahn and to feel free to consult with her when they encountered clinical problems for which they had some doubt about the best approach to treatment.

Without the luxury of hearing her voice, we cannot respond with certainty to some of our questions about women and leadership. We can be fairly certain that, as an only child whose parental relationships later included living with her father a sustained period of time as an adult, Elise Hahn was a favored child. We know that her enrollment at UCLA, at the time when relatively few women attended, reflected a privileged background. We can be pretty sure that her work in the speech clinics managed by her husband and her later completion of an M. A. degree in the institution where he was on the faculty reflected not only a strong personal drive for professional achievement on her part but also an enlightened attitude, at least for the time, on the part of Eugene F. Hahn. Although we can't know with certainty the degree of her influence on his early work, it was probably considerable. It's obvious that he was a strong influence on her work as well. Whether she was a "protégée" of his, as one observer noted, or rather was a strong-minded woman who insisted he share his professional life with her may be an inappropriate dichotomy to raise. She may well have been both.

We know nothing about her activities in high school or college, other than that she earned the degree, nor do we know anything for certain about her motivations later in life. That she had a dramatic flair and strong self-presentation seems clear from students' testimony. Clearly, she became strongly committed to professionalizing speech therapy and to teaching well the young people attracted to the then-new field. Both goals seem obvious from her various committee involvements, both in the SAA and ASHA. We can be certain she was between forty-seven and forty-nine at the time of her election to the presidency and that she had been active in SAA prior to her selection. We know she wanted to promote good educational programs as one primary goal, but nothing remains to show that she had any other special projects or individual goals as president, nor have we any evidence for reasons she might have had in deciding to become president. That she presided over one of the rare conventions of the Association before 1973 that was not held over the Christmas break is probably an accident of timing, since convention locations and dates were usually chosen before any particular person held presidential office. This inference would be especially likely given the process of presidential selection at that time. Without checking further records, we cannot be certain of her marital status at the time of election. We can be certain that her first husband (Hahn) strongly influenced her professional life; no evidence remains to demonstrate that a subsequent marriage (to a man outside academe—a short union that ended in divorce) had effects on her professional life.

From what we know about women as leaders in the 1950s and from comments by contemporaries about her nomination, we can safely infer that few members would have

expected Elise Hahn to challenge the then-current orthodoxy of the Association. She would have been expected to champion her causes of speech therapy and speech education, but those were not outside the mainstream, and it's clear that she had no revolutionary intent, such as causing these fields to replace the strong focus on rhetoric and public address in the discipline. Whether she could be described as a separatist (urging the soon-to-come separation of SCA and ASHA) cannot be determined from the records. That she served in an official role as liaison between the associations after her presidency we know; what may have preceded the separation or what occurred in the debates within ASHA itself we don't know—although further investigation among ASHA members or within its records might reveal more information.

That she maintained positive relationships with many other women is clear. Women who were her students and some who became colleagues remained long-time friends and speak warmly of her influence (as do many of her male students and colleagues).

To report with confidence about the Association's climate at the time of her presidency requires more investigation. Clearly, hers was a time of change; even greater changes were soon to come and may already have been underway. Certainly, the mood of the Association could not have been business as usual. There were these strands: A new constitution had been debated for several years just preceding her presidency. Higher education in general, and the discipline specifically, grew during the 1950s and more rapidly in the 60s. A perhaps still nascent but doubtless developing sense of unease appeared among the many women in the field. And, because Hahn had vigorously championed one of the growth areas within the discipline as it struggled for its own sense of professional identity, we can safely infer that her selection as president in some way reflected a response by the elite of the Association to those currents of change. Their response might be reasonably described as an effort to bend, but not break, the traditional operating modes and philosophy of the Association, to accommodate to the new—perhaps even assimilate it—without significantly changing the Association itself.

Hahn became president eleven years after the last woman had held the office (Magdalene Kramer in 1947), and another eleven years would pass before the next (Marie Hochmuth Nichols in 1969). The contextual essays in this book can help place her within the Association and among the other women who led it. Clearly, Elise Hahn was no revolutionary, but just as clearly, we can conclude that she served as a change agent both for women, students, and colleagues and for the Association of which they were a part.

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CHAPTER SEVEN: Marie Hochmuth Nichols President, Speech Association of America, 1969

Jane Blankenship



Marie Hochmuth Nichols was the fifty-fourth president and the fifth woman president of what is now NCA. She was born Marie Kathryn Hochmuth into a family of German immigrant stock on July 13, 1908, in Dunbar, Pennsylvania. "She loved school," "made her own way," and "worked hard to make ends meet," according to Theresa Murphy.¹ At an early age she began to define herself in terms of hard work, self-reliance, and determination to look forward.²

In high school, Hochmuth was a debater and worked on the school newspaper. After high school, she taught elementary school in Dunbar Township during 1926-27, and she was awarded a J. Buell Snyder Scholarship to the University of Pittsburgh. During the summer of 1927, she worked at the *Connellsville (PA) Daily News* to help finance her first year. At Pittsburgh, she majored in English and history and joined the university's debate team as a freshman. Hochmuth debated before the tournament system developed. The debaters of the period "were a wonderful group, drawn from the city of Pittsburgh and the outskirts, and filled with desires to learn and argue."³ About thirty students, half of whom were women, participated in the debate program. They did both intercollegiate debates and squad debates—all before audiences. In addition to learning about argument, for many, particularly those who were daughters and sons of blue-collar parents, debating allowed them to travel.

Hochmuth was clear about the difference passionate teachers made in her early life:

A passionate teacher can make a difference. I encountered about five who disciplined my life. . . . A 5th Grade teacher taught me how to diagram a sentence. One of them, a junior and senior high school English teacher, taught me how to do historical research and led me into editorial work on the high-school paper . . . one of them in the *Rise of American Civilization* removed ignorance and bigotry in quantity; one of them in the *Rise of National American Literature* gave me an enthusiasm from which I never departed; one of them, the most humane man I suppose I ever encountered, led me into the mysteries of radio and television and their effects; one of them taught me the notion of abstraction and the nature of evidence.⁴

After graduating from Pittsburgh in 1931, Hochmuth became a field worker and case supervisor for the Allegheny County Emergency Relief Association, Pittsburgh. From 1935 through 1938, she taught English and speech at Mt. Mercy College for Women, Pittsburgh; and during part of that time she completed her M.A. (1936) at Pitt, where Wayland Maxfield

Parrish directed her program. The Mt. Mercy dean noted: "She is intensely interested in the work, is indefatigable in pursuing her purpose, and will succeed in anything she undertakes."⁶

Between 1938 and 1941 and during the academic year 1942-43, Hochmuth worked on her Ph.D. at the University of Wisconsin, majoring in rhetoric and American literature. She loved history, literature, and language. As a colleague, Donald Bryant, observed:

She loved history, especially the history of [people] trying to cope with complexities and opportunities of their world through discourse, and she made herself at home in that history of the past and present. History was to her a companion, a colleague, a collaborator—neither an idol to be worshipped, an antagonist, an opponent to be overcome, or circumvented, nor yet a venerable elder to be lauded and put aside.⁷

To supplement her graduate fellowship at Wisconsin in 1942-43, she worked several summers at the University of Illinois, Urbana. After completing her dissertation, "William Ellery Channing: A Study in Public Address," under the direction of H. L. Ewbank, Hochmuth received her Ph.D. in 1945.

Three 1939 letters of recommendation for her appointment to Illinois yield considerable insight into Hochmuth at that time and presage much about her. One letter described her as "a girl of striking appearance, quiet disposition, an even temperament" who has "achieved for herself an education far beyond the requirements of her schooling." She had "a long hard struggle against a very discouraging family environment and has come through it to a serene and intelligent philosophy of life." She has "a deep and strong interest in the social, political, and artistic life of the community." Another noted that "she did outstanding work" and regarded her "as one of [Wisconsin's] most promising candidates for the doctorate." A third noted that at Mt. Mercy "she did outstanding work. . . . She is attractive and cooperative. If I were an administrator, I would consider myself fortunate if I could make her a member of my staff."⁷

Hochmuth joined the University of Illinois faculty in 1939 and remained there until her retirement in 1976. She taught speech and literature at the undergraduate level from 1939 through 1955, and from 1951 to 1976 she also taught courses in American public address and rhetorical theory and criticism at the graduate level.

Her first published article appears to be "Debating for Women" in *The Pennsylvania Speech Bulletin* (1930). During the 1940s her articles on Phillips Brooks, William Ellery Channing, and Henry Wallace appeared in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. As Associate Editor of *QJS* from 1945 to 1947, she was in charge of the "In the Periodicals" section. In 1948, she edited the *Illinois Speech News*, and her "Speech and Society" appeared in *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (1948).

In 1952, she was promoted to associate professor and began establishing herself as a major scholar. She introduced Kenneth Burke and I. A. Richards to our discipline. She co-edited (with W. M. Parrish) *American Speeches* in 1954, which includes her exemplary essay, "Lincoln's First Inaugural." She edited *History and Criticism of American Public Address, III* in 1955, which includes another of her pivotal pieces, "The Criticism of Rhetoric." She also chaired the interest group in rhetoric and public address.

The 1960s were to become especially auspicious for Hochmuth. She married Alan Nichols, long a distinguished faculty member at the University of Southern California, in 1961. Her much-cited book, *Rhetoric and Criticism*, appeared in 1963 and again in 1967; thereafter she was to play an increasingly important part in the leadership of the Association.⁸

Although Hochmuth had served on a variety of Association committees and had chaired an interest group, her 1963 appointment to the editorship of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* marked a major milestone both on her path to the presidency and in the history of the Association, for she was the first woman editor in its forty-seven-year history. Several features marked her two-year tenure as editor: She (1) clearly sustained "excellence and breadth in the articles she chose to publish," (2) "fostered, encouraged, and assisted with astonishing care and patience new contributors—young ones, but some older ones too—seeking to make their way respectably into print," and (3) she and her editorial board were also forward-looking, selecting some important pieces in newer areas.⁹ These included "Introduction to Cybernetics and Information Theory," "Methodological Analysis in Communication Research," "Linguistics as a Science," "Stability in Meaning for Quantitative Terms," "Meta-Analysis in Communication Research," and "Televising Courtroom Proceedings." Such essays brought new substantive and methodological matters to our attention, pushed us to look beyond ourselves to see what other disciplines might be telling us, moved us beyond analysis to meta-analysis, and pushed us to examine the role of a newer medium as it interacts with a long-studied setting.

Eight years later, elected in a contest with George Bohman, Wayne State University, Hochmuth Nichols assumed the second vice presidency of SAA on January 1, 1967. Beyond the contest itself, it needs noting that all Association officers come to their posts at a particular time. As they go about their generally prescribed duties, they do so within the particularities of the Association's life, the larger life of the academy, and the still larger socio-political life of the times.

Hochmuth Nichols presided over the Association in one of its most tumultuous periods. The country was in turmoil; the academy was in ferment; and the SAA, troubled both about its role in the larger society and within its own structure, was asking other necessary questions: What kind of an organization do we want to be?—primarily a *scholarly* organization? a *professional* one? How do we accommodate a membership that is changing—some groups leaving, such as theatre and communication disorders; others seeking recognition, such as interpersonal, organizational, and intercultural? How, within those groups remaining, do we deal with the needs for specialty—for example, a rhetorical theory committee to be developed within the rhetoric and public address interest group? How do we deal with a recombinant organization in significant financial need?

Why did she decide to run for the presidency? Here are some guesses. A preeminent scholar-teacher, she had a vision of what the Association could and should do to help shape the future. She thought often and deeply about the environment which we construct and by which we are constructed. Three themes played a major role in her view: (1) Permanence and change—or, more particularly, permanence amidst change—permeate our environment. We need to figure out ways to be forward-looking while honoring the worthwhile parts of our

past. (2) We live in an environment of words as well as the air we breathe and the water we drink. We need to think more carefully about our language. Words are "terministic screens" that both select *and* deflect. They not only describe, they prescribe. (3) Means are ends in process. Public discussion can be passionate and intense without being irrational and uncivil. Among the ends towards which she was especially passionate were "tolerance, understanding, justice, and cooperation." One needed a discourse commensurate with achieving those ends.

Why was she elected? Some reasons, perhaps, have already been identified: She was well known as a major scholar-teacher. She was a person of extraordinary energy and eloquence. She could honor the past while looking forward. There were big problems to deal with, and she had the forthrightness and courage to begin facing up to them. In addition to being a rhetorician at a Big Ten university, she fit in the Association's one-every-ten-years practice of electing a woman.

As vice president, she focused a special effort on the convention. As with her editorship, much of her concern focused on quality and on encouraging the young to participate more fully. To these ends she maintained and strengthened a plan that Richard Murphy, Donald Bryant, and she had previously developed for the rhetoric and public address interest group, a competitive session for new authors called the debut program. Other groups were encouraged to have such a session. To further ensure increased quality and earlier planning for convention papers, she edited a book of *Abstracts* of convention papers

Two terms seemed pivotal to Hochmuth Nichols's leadership of the Association: *excellence* and *relevance*. For example, excellence was featured in her approach to convention planning as vice president and in her first *Spectra* message as president, entitled, "The Search for Excellence;" relevance was featured in her "Convention Welcome" and in her presidential address, "The Tyranny of Relevance."¹⁰

SAA's administrative committee and legislative assembly had debated and rejected relocating the 1968 convention out of Chicago. Wherever the site, she clearly intended that the discipline engage the issues of the day in a very direct way. To that end she encouraged events that would facilitate such dialogue. That decision seemed even more compelling as the 1968 convention drew near, especially after that summer's Democratic Party's nominating convention in Chicago was marred by demonstrations, civil disorder, and police brutality.

Hochmuth Nichols's convention theme was 'Cultural Re-Orientaion,' which she explained in the program's Welcome Page:

Aware of the swiftness of change within our society, the officers and committees have sought to prepare a program which manifests this awareness. Persons concerned with programs of communication as they relate to civil rights, civil disorders, and the underprivileged, research and development, have offered their services in giving unity to the Convention. Workshops and regular programs have been directed by the guiding principle of social relevance.¹¹

Some programs centered on revising classroom instruction ("Oral Communication, Training, and the Disadvantaged"; "Reorienting Undergraduate Speech Instruction to Cultural Needs"; "How to Hear the Black Man"). Some focused on free speech and protest ("American Issues: Dissent or Disagreement"; "The Rhetorical Perspective for a Response to Protest, Rhetoric of Groups as a Medium of Change"). Some dealt with the role of media ("Media and Civil Rights," "Mass Media and Civil Disorders"). One centered on "The Social Relevance of Doctoral Dissertations."

To further enact her theme, she reinstated the presidential address as a regular part of the convention program, and President Douglas Ehninger titled his 1968 speech "Of Relevance, Relatedness, and Reorientation." Among the questions he asked were: "Should we, this, our professional organization, announce a position on public issues? What should be our stance socially and politically . . . ? What are our obligations in those situations where freedom of speech or of assembly appear to have been restricted?"¹²

Response to the convention was mixed. Some saw it as an earnest beginning of addressing more directly the issues of the day. Some worried about the further politicization of the Association, and some called it largely irrelevant.

The Association's president has a variety of duties, only some of them managerial. She or he forwards agendas and presides over meetings, but largely the presidency is a "bully pulpit." At the outset of her presidential address, she recalled the 1968 presidential speech delivered by Ehninger, noting that he gave priority to the problem of making speech education socially relevant:

[T]eachers of speech are faced by a challenge to give our work at all levels and in all areas a new measure of social relevance; to search out what we professed experts, in the processes of education, can do to facilitate education among people and between factions; to replace divisiveness and war with consubstantiality and peace; to study not only to make ideas safe for people, but how to make people safe for ideas.¹³

She made her own position clear: "With almost none of that could anyone disagree." She, too, wanted to address the issue of relevance, but to focus on the "The Tyranny of Relevance."¹⁴ In the speech, she made six claims: 1) A central focus of our discipline is the examination of the way words and their meanings come to construct our lives, sometimes "unobtrusive words with uncertain meanings." 2) One word in particular, "relevance," when used as an "all-purpose word," should be singled out for deeper inspection because it seemed to be "gnawing at the roots of the educational structure. . . ." "Relevance," she argued, had "taken on more sinister aspects, allowing it to become a bullying slogan, allied with power, designed to stop thought, as slogans frequently *do*. . . ." 3) Debate and discussion, long important ways of settling arguments, had been superseded by acts of physical violence. The academy, as a "place of words, was being targeted as the institutional center of violence." As one piece of evidence, she cited a dissident:

The central instrument of violence in American culture is not physical violence. . . . It is the word. We are violent to each other in almost no other way, and therefore the central institutions of violence in America are those

that deal with the word and the killing abstraction. . . . The University may be the central instrument of violence in America.

4) Change is needed, but it should not be brought about by violence. According to Hochmuth Nichols:

No one doubts that the educational system needs reform to meet the exigencies of changing times, but that effective change can be brought about by turmoil and abdication to the pressure of a slogan may well be doubted.

Toward the end of her speech, her last two claims were made in defense of the Association.

5) She challenged claims that the 1968 convention and the discipline were irrelevant: a) "How accurate was that claim when one looked closely at the last year or so?" and b) "Whose ideology should guide us in our judgment of what is relevant and what is not?" She asked: "What is so irrelevant about professional people getting together either to learn or exchange views . . . on the ethics of speechmaking . . . , on modes of communicating with Blacks, on the relationship between business and the disadvantaged . . . ?"

For example, to a question raised by the concerned committee of students and teachers: "Are we a field aimed only at the perpetuation of white, middle-class standards and concepts of discourse, an idealistic series of prescriptions for effective speaking and listening within the aforementioned norm, offering little for the student whose social existence is outside that norm?" she answered by quoting the black president of the University of Guyana:

[T]o give up white, middle-class standards of language training might be playing the cruelest hoax of all on our minorities . . . when we know that more than 50% of minorities will work in an integrated world, dominated for the foreseeable future by white, middle-class standards. . . .

The brevity of the answer seemed to many in the audience not commensurate with the seriousness of the question. 6) She agreed that politicization of the Association carries serious negative consequences. Here, she shared a letter from a friend, "a former member of Hitler's Youth, and now a distinguished, thoughtful member of our professional organization," whose alarm she clearly felt:

When you ask me whether my professional organization should be politically 'neutral,' you ask much more than that. You cause me to wonder if I may face the day when my professional association is "captured" by political activists, who then present me with the choice of submitting to their philosophy or leaving the association.

At the end of her speech she reminded us that "whoever knows the field of speech knows that other words at other times have tried to take over. Speech teachers today must not be a Cyclops with one eye, only for relevance. Indeed, [they] must be even a Janus, looking backward and forward. They must determine what is relevant today both in terms of the past and the hopes for the future."

The speech, reprinted in *Spectra* (February 1970), surely was one of the most controversial presidential addresses in the Association's history. Some, perhaps many, in the audience came ready to do battle over nothing less than the future role of the academy in

the larger social scene. Hochmuth Nichols, an establishment figure, was known to speak very directly and with considerable passion. Some people came to walk out of her speech. One past president made a public point by leaving during the speech. People left the room sharply divided on what they had just heard. The name-calling was harsh and left little middle ground. People were either for or against the message. One senior member of the discipline, now deceased, reportedly called her a troglodyte. Dictionary definitions of this term range from "caveman" to "one who lives in the past." Another well-known scholar, who had heard this speech as a young man, called the address "a case that needed to be made" and called her "a prophet who spoke the unpopular truth."

Raising an alarm about any contemporary god-term is a tricky matter, and taking on the multi-faceted god-term *relevance* in troubled times proved to be no less difficult. Her presidential successor, Donald Bryant, pointed to the really courageous center of what she tried to do: "She dared to examine in public, rationally, though hardly without passion, one of the slogans driving the times with an hysterical frenzy that made genuine dialog difficult."¹⁵

At the center of Hochmuth Nichols's lifelong study was the examination of the way words and their meanings come to construct our lives. In a time of extraordinary strain and challenge, she focused our attention on a central term of the times and the elasticity of meanings surrounding it. Terms have implications, and she asked us to examine where those implications might lead us. Forward-looking as usual, she asked that we move beyond the term as a too-ready slogan and approach it with the due seriousness of the academy.

Marie Hochmuth Nichols's scholarship has had a major impact on the discipline and, ultimately, on the future of critical thought. Any retrospective of Marie Nichols therefore needs to acknowledge the preeminence and breadth of her scholarship. Her work includes a series of what James Chesbro terms "scholarly documents" that had a powerful impact from the 1940s through the 1960s, and still to this day.¹⁶ Also included are what Richard Enos called "reflective essays."¹⁷ Two of the most telling about the times were "Rhetoric in a Time of Pessimism" (1973) and "When You Set Out for Ithaca" (1977).¹⁸ Perusing the fuller bibliography will reveal the broader and deeper range of her work.

The late 1950s and 60s were turbulent times, not only for the country but for rhetoricians as well. Change often was in the air. A too-easy chasm separating Aristotelians, neo-Aristotelians, and others was frequently intense.

To suggest that Nichols's body of rhetorical criticism and theory was based on a narrow Neo-Aristotelianism, let alone a slavishly followed, narrow Aristotelian prescription, is not easily justified by a careful and extensive reading of her work. I do not propose to restate the essentials of Aristotelian criticism nor recall the challenges. There are ample recountings of the sometimes testy challenges. As Patton has observed, "While she has been frequently held up as an exemplar of the neo-classicist or traditional method of rhetorical criticism, such a label seems far too limiting for the kinds of insights that she generated in theorizing and critical practice."¹⁹

In describing the "critical stodginess" that had set in "over the rhetorical landscape" and the discontent during the 1950s, Richard Gregg recalls a special issue of *Western Speech* in 1957. He notes the clear concern Nichols had for the limitations of the "solidly established

conventional aspects of the Aristotelian, with stress upon the functional and dynamic character of rhetoric."²⁰ Further, he quotes Nichols:

Rhetoric as technique designed to secure effects, not rhetoric as an art sustained in and through dialectic, has been our concern, and our lack of equipment to deal with rhetoric in its philosophical aspects has manifested itself in our criticism. The Aristotelian rationale has, of course, made easy the practice of seizing upon the mechanical aspects of the lore.²¹

Nichols freely admits to a major development in her work in *Rhetoric and Criticism*:

I had assumed that since 1935 I had something to do with communication but the first of Burke's books, encountered some ten years later, set me to wondering. I suppose all of us get accustomed to look at what we are doing in a certain way and after a while have a kind of "trained incapacity" looking at things in another way.²²

Moreover, Nichols seemed most at home characterizing her attitude as the "humane approach," and she is clear about what the characterization does not mean:

In stating the case for the humane approach to rhetoric, I hope I shall not be interpreted as making a plea for a return to the classics. Classicism merely is indoctrinated humanism. As Perry has pointed out, it is no necessary part of humanism. Where else could the Renaissance have turned for light except the Greeks and Romans? The world at that time was a limited world, and the past a limited past. . . . The humane approach to rhetoric does not mean burying one's self in the 4th Century Athens or 1st Century Rome. . . . The real spirit of the humane approach is, I think, in the words of Kenneth Burke: 'Use all there is to use.'²³

By the 1960s, younger critics were suspicious that contemporary criticism had been, among other things, tinged with social conservatism, not merely with a surfeit of critical methods but also with a limited repertoire of communication situations examined.

Amid a growing demand for greater diversity, the ever-expanding breadth of the communication discipline, and the blossoming of new approaches, Nichols began her roles of editor and president. It was also during that period that she began to speak out about the lack of recognition that the work of younger women in the Association had received and the implications for them as well as the whole discipline. The Wingspread Conference on the future of rhetorical studies announced that participants would be nominated by their department of SCA members. When no women were selected, Nichols broke her silence on such matters and wrote in her review of the conference report:

More than forty males presented their wisdom about rhetoric for the 70s and beyond. This reviewer, in something of a huff, would like to ask the question: Would the inclusion of four or five females have greatly lowered the quality of the discussion? Such a distribution would probably have been more in line with the realities of the present.²⁴

Still, it was a time when a male colleague could and did refer publicly to her as "our menopausal scholar." And the very issue of *Spectra* carrying her presidential picture on the front page also carried the call for papers for the 1969 Convention Program on the last page:

One Man . . . One Paper
(and women too).²⁵

In the 1970s (by now fighting the first of two bouts with cancer), she returned to several of her favorite topics: "Rhetoric and Style" (1971) and "Rhetoric and the Humane Tradition," subtitled "A Tradition in Transition" (1974). Her husband, Alan G. Nichols, Professor Emeritus, University of Southern California, died in 1973.

In addition to her own scholarship, she continued to assess the general state of rhetorical studies, as well as more specific matters, such as who was selected to participate in discussions of the future of rhetorical studies. In 1974, she taught a seminar at the Eastern Communication Association entitled "Rhetoric in a Time of Pessimism."²⁶ That was a time of debunking much of the humane tradition. *Rudy's Red Wagon* and *The Games People Play* were in vogue. For Nichols, such books were inadequate for college-level learners. The "exercise of reason was called a hang-up," and one writer conducted an "autopsy" of the rhetorical tradition.²⁷

In that seminar, she recalled convention papers on "the Rhetoric of the Parking Meter," "Pornography as the Paradigm for Rhetoric," and "The Rhetoric of the Bagel and White Bread." Agreeing that the subject should be expanded, she asked: "Need its identity be lost? And need truth be called subjectivity?"

A second major concern was with the growing treatment of communication as a process and the proliferation and attention to behavioral models. She was concerned with neglect of purpose and ends.²⁸

A third concern was the continuing appropriation of symbols from many fields, e.g., the rhetoric of ballet, of architecture, etc. She asked, "by what rights do we 'poach' on other people's fields, especially when we neglect our central focus, verbal symbols?" More than one department, including major ones, were asked by their administrations, "What do you do that no one else on our campus does?" The times were nervous, and such a question might lie just below the surface of academic life or death. The point here is less to recount some of the particularly edgy speech, than to illustrate how directly and passionately Nichols pushed us to ask central questions.

Since the quality of her work and her habits of the heart account in large part for her election to the presidency, any assessment of Hochmuth Nichols's leadership of the Association must, centrally, include her role as scholar-teacher.

We have earlier noted her repute as a scholar. As Kathleen Hall Jamieson put it: "Some of us command an encyclical; some of us command a single rhetorical theorist; some of us command a rhetorical period. Marie Hochmuth Nichols commanded the tradition."²⁹ Hochmuth Nichols's work was recognized both in the Association and elsewhere. In 1973, she was chosen to be one of twenty-seven distinguished scholars of the University of Illinois, specifically honored for her body of work by the president of the university, the chancellor of the Urbana campus, and the governor of the state. In 1976, the University of Illinois Press

published *Rhetoric and Communication: Studies in the Illinois Tradition*, honoring Hochmuth Nichols, Karl Wallace, and Richard Murphy. In 1976, too, she received the Association's Distinguished Service Award. Shortly before her death, she was awarded an honorary doctorate from Drury College. In 1995, she and others were named, posthumously, as SCA Distinguished Scholars.

Her scholarly contributions were of several sorts: the history and criticism of public discourse; the discussions of Richards, Burke, and others, which enlarged the range of theoretical perspectives from which the discipline could choose; the "reflective essays," which have "served both to analyze and direct studies in rhetoric;" and her broader look at disciplinary matters.³⁰

To try to estimate Hochmuth Nichols's scholarly influence on several generations of Association members is almost impossible, but her influence on women was especially profound. As Karlyn Kohrs Campbell noted in 1983: "No one can study rhetoric and public address without being influenced by her work as an editor, a theorist, and critic. She was a woman in whose steps we could hope to follow. And those were rare in those days."³¹

To say that Hochmuth Nichols was an extraordinary teacher is to be guilty of understatement. Four of Nichols's fundamental beliefs informed and underpinned her teaching. They were her belief in enduring values; in rational public discussion and debate; in the clear and elegant use of language, which elevates rather than diminishes our lives; and in the inextricable relationship between rhetorical study and the humane tradition.

In her teaching, as in her published works, Hochmuth Nichols was always on the lookout for the new. She initiated courses dealing with the Existentialist philosophers and Marshall McLuhan long before most others in our discipline. Her harshest criticism, for example, of the 1971 book, *The Prospects of Rhetoric*, based on the Wingspread Conference on the future of rhetorical studies, was reserved for the less than forward-looking aspect of that work: "The truth of the matter seems to be that the entire conference needed fresh air to counteract some of the 'dead topics' that were discussed."³²

The role model she set for her students was compelling. She labored on convention papers the way many labored on published articles. When we wandered home from late-night reading at the library, her office light was frequently on; yet she often seemed to find time for a cup of coffee to talk over some trial or triumph. When one of us was in the hospital, she visited; if we were taking doctoral comprehensives, the night before she would casually call to ask what we were up to; and during especially difficult times, her home was opened to us. Gregory Payne tells of one such time when he "was having difficulty with [his] dissertation. . . . she suggested that [he] go to Los Angeles and live in a house that she and Alan . . . had purchased" for \$125 a month, including utilities and phone. He noted: "Incidentally, when she passed away, her family found a pile of checks I had sent to her for the rent in California. She never cashed any of them."³³ Joseph Wenzel and Roger Nebergall have written lovingly that a large generation of graduate students "depended on Marie to raise their morale."³⁴

When this project was announced, letters and phone calls poured in. They focused on her humor and enjoyment of it, her generosity of spirit, her special affection for the young, and most often on the sheer breadth of her knowledge outside scholarly matters and her penchant for asking questions. William Robertz, for example, told of her conversation with boxing champion Ezzard Charles about his physiological and aerobic training for his comeback bid.³⁵ Robert Davis recalled a conversation about auto mechanics during which she talked about taking her car out on occasion "just to blow the carbon out." Davis: "at that moment I finally concluded that Marie Hochmuth Nichols knew EVERYTHING!"³⁶ Two of her younger colleagues at Illinois recall that her conversations were punctuated with questions. Kurt Ritter recalled: "This is not a form of hazing—she really wanted to know what I thought. She was not testing me, but me as a colleague."³⁷ And, John Patton agreed: "She questioned us because she cared about what we thought. In doing that, she gave us, as no one else was able to do, an invaluable gift: The gift of being taken seriously."³⁸

In August 1978, just months before she died of lung cancer, Hochmuth Nichols delivered a graduation speech, "The Song of the Open Road." It is useful to think of her that way: On a public platform—where so often she stood speaking to students at a commencement. She was surely present at many of the commencements throughout our lives (individually and in the life of our Association), there with unspoken but understood affection and pride and there also with a stern but gentle reminder that we could—that we should—do better, because there are tasks that sorely need doing and that is why we are here.

Marie Hochmuth Nichols died on October 7, 1978. Her concern for the Association, its scholarly and professional interests, was sustained even unto the end of her life. During a break in the September 1978 meeting of the administrative committee, several on the committee called her in the hospital to say hello. She was filled with questions about the Association: Had our financial picture improved? Were we ready for the convention? Had the second vice president ballots been counted? What had we decided to do about the monograph series in public communication? Always, forward-looking.

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- . "Rhetoric and the Humane Tradition." In *Rhetoric: A Tradition in Transition*, edited by Walter R. Fisher, 178-91. East Lansing: Michigan State UP, 1974.
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PART THREE: Presidents Write About Ourselves

All autobiographies are alibi-ographies.
Clare Booth Luce

Part Three tells the stories of the professional lives of the six women presidents who served during and after second-wave feminism: Jane Blankenship, 1978; Anita Taylor, 1981; Beverly Long, 1985; Patti Gillespie, 1986, 1987; Sharon Ratliffe, 1995; and Judith Trent, 1997.

These stories, written by the women themselves, avoid the historical problems of biography but introduce those of autobiography, such as faulty memory and self-serving reconstruction. Whereas the stories in Part Two were shaped at least in part by the availability of evidence, those in Part III, we decided, needed to be shaped in ways that allowed fruitful comparisons.

To this end, we developed a questionnaire to guide the writing. Some questions seemed inevitable (*e.g.*, When and where were you born?). Others grew out of sociological research (*e.g.*, What was your placement in the family? because research suggests that only children and oldest children tend to be leaders). Still others emerged from feminist research and theory (*e.g.*, Were you married? Did you have children? because feminist theory and research suggest that marriage, with its asymmetric assignment of family responsibilities, tends to disadvantage women in their careers, a disadvantage compounded with the arrival of children). A copy of this questionnaire is included as Appendix C.

We did not propose that the individual essays answer the questions in any particular order, nor did we propose that the same weight be given to each question. Our goal was, while providing points for comparison, to allow each woman to tell her story in a way that she thought would best reveal it and that would allow her to use a strong, personal voice for its telling.

Ed.

**CHAPTER EIGHT:
Jane Blankenship
President,
Speech Communication
Association, 1978**



In May 1934, I was born unexpectedly early in the home of my grandparents, Dr. James Boyce and Ella Sexton Taylor. As the only child of my parents, Lawrence and Mabel Blankenship, the first grandchild of my maternal grandparents, and the first niece of three doting aunts, in my home town of Huntington, West Virginia, I thrived on their attention, love, and unconditional support; their influence on the meaning of my life is almost inexpressible.

My family taught me to read, write, and do arithmetic before I went to first grade. Fostering an early interest in music, Mother and Dad provided piano lessons, beginning at age four. I do not remember our home without music. Nor do I remember it without newspapers, radio news, and political talk. In the earlier years, we “watched” the radio, and I remember FDR’s voice. My family cried when he died, and early on I began to realize something of “the president’s” connection with “the people.” In sum, they encouraged me to open my mind to the world beyond their front yard.

Absorbed by local and national politics in 1936, Granddad Taylor (a medical doctor) put a pencil in my two-year-old hand and lifted me up to mark on the ballot so that later I could say, “I voted for FDR.” He was widely read in history and political science, served in the West Virginia state legislature, and later became a reform mayor of Huntington, then the largest city in the Mountaineer State. An engaging speaker, he was invited often to address local audiences on public issues. From the time I was born, he sent me a stream of letters framed in the historical issues of the day, which Mother pasted in big hard-bound albums so I could read them in another century, another millennium.

Echoes of the Great Depression and, later, World War II shaped my early life. Dad earned a B.S. in Chemistry from Marshall College as a pre-med student, but the Depression and my arrival required him to put aside thoughts of medical school. Rather, he taught in rural Kentucky schools, including, at one point, a one-room schoolhouse. Hard work, saving, sharing, and concern for those less well off were part of a larger family ethic. I attended first grade in Huntington and began to enjoy performance activities. My first piano recital had been at age four, and as a first grader I narrated the school Christmas play. These were probably extraordinarily important, because I did not know I was supposed to be afraid. I received audience applause and many hugs from my family.

During World War II, I attended grade school in two small Indiana towns while my Dad worked at a DuPont munitions plant. My grade-school teachers knew a lot, enjoyed their jobs, and were helpful. First, in the safety of bucolic Sellersburg, the centers of our life were the Clover Farm store, the church, the Saturday afternoon movie, and our house, surrounded by fields of bluebells and small farms. This scene contrasted sharply with our second Indiana home in Charlestown, where we lived in temporary one-story duplexes, largely without yards. There, the war was omnipresent—in everyday talk and the speeches on the radio, in the fence surrounding the Plant and the searchlights plowing through the night sky. In the early grades we collected tin foil and milkweed pods (for life preservers), and knitted scarves for the troops. I was much better at collecting than knitting.

After peace came, we moved to “the big city,” Akron, Ohio, where Dad worked at Goodyear Tire & Rubber. He had been raised on a farm and, wherever we lived, his avocation was gardening; many admired his roses and vegetables. He taught me to fish, brought me my first chemistry set, recited poetry, and taught me the values of solitude. Quick-witted and vivacious, my mother, who had attended high school in Huntington, was a meticulous homemaker, had a keen sense of humor, loved language, and won most arguments. She taught me values of sociality.

Early influences included both public and private people. One of my best friends was my doll Eleanor (Roosevelt). In 1948, my granddad sent me a newspaper article about Congresswoman Helen Gahagan Douglas (D-CA), which I dutifully pinned up on my early-teen bulletin board. In college I realized how very extraordinary she was, and, in 1994, I finally delivered on a promise to myself that I would someday write an article about her. Active girls in novels with identities and important things to do also contributed to my formative years. Nancy Drew did things. I also vividly recall a book series after WWII about *Nancy Dale*, *Army Nurse* and women in the WAVES and WACS. I discovered the myriad of worlds in East Branch Library, and, when I was old enough, I went to work there. By the sixth grade I knew I wanted to be a teacher and writer.

In high school, I seemed always on the run: I played Annie Oakley in the senior class play, wrote the words to the senior class song, sang in the glee club, worked on the newspaper, and was a member of the National Honor Society. The university debate coach heard me the Sunday I was youth minister at church and asked me to join the team.

In undergraduate school, I planned to double major in chemistry and music. It did not take long for the folly of that idea to become apparent, so I majored in English. I debated, delivered original oratory, and participated in theatre productions. I belonged to a sorority and did the usual work on homecoming floats. If the Great Depression and World War II shaped much of my early life, the ban the bomb movement of the 1950s and the civil rights movement of the 60s helped to shape my graduate-school years and first faculty position at Mount Holyoke College. Later in life, one of my favorite teaching assignments was the Rhetoric of Social Movements.

My teaching career began with a Sunday-school class, a day-camp counselor position with the city park system, and a student-teaching assignment in grades six and eleven as part of my college program of study. I taught grades two and three full-time while taking my last six credits

at the University of Akron. Working with highly vulnerable and often abused children in a low-income part of the city was a profoundly formative experience. To this day, I remember their names, their faces, and the often sad stories of their lives. I graduated in 1956 with a B.A.

During my high school and undergraduate years, although the word *mentor* was not used at the time, my family continued to mentor me to prize knowledge, integrity, sustenance of family, and respectful relationships. In addition to Helen Gahagan Douglas and Eleanor Roosevelt, Adlai Stevenson helped fuel my interest in politics, ethics, and civic behavior. High-school teachers were also influential, particularly those women who taught me literature and sustained my interest in writing. *Theatre Arts Magazine* and Saturday afternoon radio broadcasts of the Metropolitan Opera fostered dreams of big cities and marvelous music—and developed my interest in theatre.

English professor Julia Hull was the single most influential figure in my undergraduate life. The first woman I met who finished graduate school, she was demanding and bright, and she took my writing seriously and opened me to undreamed-of depths in *Huckleberry Finn*, *The Odyssey*, etc. Many years later, just before her retirement, my parents sent me a newspaper clipping that she had won a distinguished teaching award. My congratulatory note said, “It’s about time!” and then proceeded to tell her that I was working on an article about Coleridge, to whom she had introduced me. Ruth Putnam, who taught the Bible as literature and took us to Cleveland to see plays, had a softer style than Hull. From these two women I also learned that there are a number of ways to be a good teacher.

Quite accidentally, the University of Illinois (Urbana) became the site of my graduate school life. The summer after my B.A., I went to California to live life on the beach while I wrote the great American novel. Later that year, an out-of-body experience occurred and a total stranger told me, “It’s time, kid, for you to go home now.” I called my former debate coach and said that I needed order in my life. The karma must have been good, because Illinois chair Karl R. Wallace had just told him that a graduate TA had withdrawn his appointment. Soon, I was in Urbana. I don’t know that I had ever heard of rhetoric as a discipline, and I had given no previous thought to grad school. Although I was scared most of the time, within a semester I knew I had found an academic home.

In my graduate program at Illinois there was only one woman professor (Marie Hochmuth Nichols, aged fifty to fifty-five at the time) and two other women graduate students in rhetoric, both of whom were in their mid-thirties and about to receive their degrees. I was the only woman in my rhetoric classes at Illinois. Throughout my entire academic life, Nichols, an extraordinary scholar-teacher and friend, was my central role model, on whom I could always count when I needed counsel. Richard Murphy directed my dissertation, and Tess Murphy, his wife, provided tea, muffins, and “You can do it!” as she shoved me out of the door to my oral defense of comprehensives and dissertation. Karl Wallace set a good example not only for scholarship but also for collegial behavior. Wayne Brockreide was debate director when I was a forensics assistant at Illinois, and the teaching assistants loved him for his fairness, dedication, expertise, and fabulous punning. We also saw him work with Douglas Ehninger when they developed their groundbreaking article on Stephen Toulmin. The environment was a young rhetorician’s heaven.

My Ph.D. dissertation was less than a third done when I joined the faculty at Mount Holyoke College. So, in a very real sense, I was both a faculty member and a graduate student. I initiated a debate team and taught an array of courses, including public speaking, argumentation, history of rhetorical theory, and rhetorical criticism to very fine students whom the college's president persisted in calling "uncommon women." At Mount Holyoke, many of my friendships and acquaintances were with young, untenured women. Faculty housing was provided, and our building housed about twenty-five of the younger female and male faculty. It had a homey quality and a communal dining room, and it afforded a supportive refuge. Since I was in one of the weakest departments at a strong college, I had to establish my intellectual credibility and that of my discipline. Although annoying, the experience toughened me. Because there were no rhetoricians to talk shop with at Mount Holyoke, I became active in the New England States Speech Association, the Speech Association of the Eastern States (now the Eastern Communication Association, ECA), and the Speech Association of America (now NCA).

In 1966, I began teaching at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and continued there until I retired in 1997. One could hardly imagine a group of colleagues more stimulating than those I have worked with, including Herm Stelzner, Ron Reid, Herm Cohen, Mal Sillars, Vincent Bevilacqua, and Karl Wallace. The department competed, often successfully, for the very best graduate students. The faculty and graduate students shared an atmosphere conducive to serious scholarship; colleagues were genuinely interesting, highly energetic, and collegial. It was in such an atmosphere that I thrived, eventually receiving the Chancellor's Distinguished Faculty Medal.

In addition to teaching rhetorical theory, criticism, and political communication, I also took on some administrative tasks. I was director of graduate studies for six years, during which the department started the Ph.D. program, and, about ten years later, I took a second tour of duty. I was honors director in the department several times. As director of the university's six-credit rhetoric requirement, which also included the administration of English as a second language and the communication skills center, I answered directly to the provost. The rhetoric program taught two thousand students per semester. Seventy-two graduate teaching assistants taught in the program. Sara Stelzner and I developed a teacher-training program. I also chaired the executive committee of the Faculty of Social and Behavioral Science and served on the university academic priorities committee several terms.

Being the first woman was a mixed, if not a dubious, distinction. I was the first woman to be elected to the executive committee of the university's Faculty of Social and Behavioral Science. At the first meeting, the dean, shuffling papers, opened the meeting by saying, "All right gentlemen, shall we get down to business?" When he looked up—there I was. He turned noticeably red-faced and clearly was uncomfortable. His discomfort level gave me small hope that the dean would somehow linguistically adjust to my presence. For at least another meeting or two, this opening scene persisted and his discomfort grew. Finally, he opened the meeting with "Lady and gentlemen, shall we get down to business?" He may have been making some progress, but by singling me out as "the other," he had made all of us wish he would find a way out of the awkwardness. Let *him* find a way, my devilish side opined, but

the better angels of my nature decided that I would help him out. So, I suggested, "Why don't you just say, 'Let's get started.'" Those were *not* the good old days. And I have since been delighted to see increasing diversity of those around the table.

Signs of difference were everywhere and were at once amusing, annoying, and, mostly, tiring. During my thirty years at the university, I developed strong collegial relationships with many women faculty. Unlike the experience of some of my peers at other universities, we made substantial progress in hiring women. In the early days, women were more likely to be in communication disorders and theatre; two women were hired in rhetoric. Later, the department added mass communication and interpersonal communication; women were hired in those areas also. A conscious effort was made to open up the department. When I was director of graduate studies, I worked closely with women faculty on committees and have stayed in touch with many of them, including the current university dean of graduate studies, who also became president of the American Speech and Hearing Association. At one point we had eight full-time women in the department. Aside from hall chats and the like, in the late 1980s and early 90s faculty women established a monthly lunch on a non-teaching Friday. When the guys got curious and encouraged their wives to find out what we talked about, we flirted with calling ourselves "The Women's Sewing Circle & Terrorist Society."

The ECA presidency (1974) was definitive for me because it never occurred to me that I would be elected to such a high office. During my ECA presidency, we set up a task force on community colleges and one on secondary schools, bringing into our decision-making and colloquy those two very important groups of people. We also established an equal-opportunity task force that worked on informal rules for interviewing job candidates at convention hotels. When I realized how much members wanted to speak and be heard, to listen and try to understand, I also re-instituted the *Newsletter*. My presidency was definitive for me for a second reason. When they announced my election, an elderly woman in her seventies threw her arms around me and said, "We won!" After a moment's surprise at the hug, I realized that she meant "We [women] won." It was a moment of profound awareness.

In 1975, at the SCA convention I returned to my hotel room to pick up my coat. The phone was ringing as I entered. To say I was surprised by the question asked by the caller would be an understatement: "Would you agree to be nominated for the SCA's second vice presidency?" A prankster, I thought. But the caller reminded me that it was the last night of the convention and the committee wanted to announce the two nominees. It seemed clear that several people had been asked before me. One potential nominee had indicated that he would not say yes until he knew who would be running opposite him. They agreed to call back in two hours; I hurriedly sought to contact the persons whose opinions I valued. Literally roaming the lobby, hotel restaurants, and bars, I managed to find one and to leave a call back for a second. Both agreed with me that the answer should be "No." Just how those "no's" became a "yes" is still a puzzlement.

I ran against James McBath, a very well known forensic coach. Although I had never met him, I think I had read his debate-and-argumentation book. He was generally well liked and was especially well thought of in the West. I so fully expected McBath to win that shortly after accepting the nomination I wrote a note to Jim (to be put in a desk drawer in my

office) congratulating him on winning and offering to help him in any way I could. My thinking was that I could be more gracious at letter writing then than after I had lost the election. When Associate Executive Secretary, Bob Hall, called to inform me officially that I had won the election, no one was more surprised than I. Later, I asked Jim to work with me on a task force on alternative careers in communication. He did so graciously and helpfully.

The months between the nomination and the election provided ample time for reflection. I recalled my first office in SAA (1967) as the doorkeeper for the legislative assembly, where I handed out copies of motions and reports; my work as a delegate to the constitutional convention (1960); and my role as chair of what was then called the voice, phonetics, and linguistics interest group (1968).

Two days before being unexpectedly nominated to the SAA vice presidency, I had been unexpectedly nominated from the floor for the vice presidency of the public address division (PAD). And I was elected. After I agreed to run for the SAA vice presidency, I called to resign as the division's vice president, not so much because I thought I would win the vice presidency of SAA but because it would be only fair to allow PAD to have a sure thing for its own business. I was so happy to have been given this vote of confidence from my home group.

The decision to accept the nomination and run probably included some mixture of the following: *The folly of youth*. Having been so surprised that my name was on any such list at forty-one, I reasoned that it must be a good thing. And since I never expected such an honor, I would not feel hurt when I lost. *The obligation to repay the Association*. The Association had provided me with a sense of community, acting as my professional family, especially when I was teaching in a small college that placed little value on communication studies as a discipline. The Association's journals and conventions provided opportunities for me to learn new things, discuss issues of disciplinary and professional concern, meet old friends, and make new ones. *The appeal of public life*. My role models were often public people, and I had been, in small ways, a public person much of my life. Moreover, several of my mentors had taught me a long-lasting lesson: There are tasks that sorely need doing, and that is why we are here.

The reason I won is still not readily apparent to me, but, because "I don't know why I won" is an unacceptable answer, I will make some guesses: moderate name recognition from writing three textbooks and publishing articles in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, *Philosophy & Rhetoric*, *Communication Monographs*, *Speech Teacher*, *Journal of the American Forensic Association*, and other journals. Because I had served as president of my regional association (ECA), Easterners had a chance to see me work up-close and personal and may have tended to vote for me just as Westerners tended to vote for my opponent. Coming from a Big Ten school in the Midwest and being a rhetorician at that time was a plus. Having worked with ECA's community college task force, a secondary school task force, and an equal-opportunity task force may have helped indicate my desire to open up the SCA. At a time when growing numbers of women belonged to the SCA, being a woman who had never been a part of the old-boy network was a plus. Being seen as a moderate who would not threaten the establishment was also an asset.

I served as president at forty-four. Because I had not served on the administrative committee before my election, I had to learn about the organizational structure. I thought of myself as hard-working, pretty good at juggling several tasks simultaneously, self-motivated, and willing to listen to alternative viewpoints. But I had so much to learn. Bill Work, a kind and helpful person, was a treasure trove of institutional history, and we worked hard together to balance his role as the Association's executive director (a hired staff person) and mine as vice president and president (elected positions). Barbara Lieb-Brilhart, an associate director dealing with both research and educational policy, a person of boundless energy and good ideas, mentored me as we dealt with strengthening services for elementary and secondary teachers, clarifying the points of articulation between research and teaching, producing instructional materials for the classroom, and monitoring more closely pending legislation that concerned communication.

Some concern about my credibility seemed likely. I knew no one in the national office. My expected loss backfired. The voices of power had to be nervous about an upstart who had not even played around the edges of the old-boy network, many of whom had worked with Nichols and probably thought I was her clone. I was clearly associated with rhetoric and public address, and I sensed there was restiveness about electing another rhetorician. I largely knew only people from the East and Midwest. And I believe some folks saw my basic politeness as a weakness. Perceived strengths? I'm not really sure. I hope they were clarity of goals set and the structures, such as task forces, to operationalize them. It is also my hope that I was perceived as accessible, collegial, inclusive, and cooperative.

Some of the benefits I reaped from this position are incalculable. The election gave me the opportunity to work closely with Wallace Bacon (the president before me, whom I had never met) and Ron Allen (the president after me, whom I had known when he coached debate at Amherst College and I coached at Mount Holyoke College at the beginning of our careers). What treasures they were. The members of the administrative committees during our joint tenure initiated and renewed friendships and forged long-term working relationships. Their energy, ingenuity, and willingness to work reflected their faith in the Association and our determination to do the best we could. The willingness of Association members to take on difficult and often unglamorous tasks was amazing, and their diversity of views enhanced our colloquy so we saw not just one side or two sides of an issue but sometimes three ... twenty.... Our members were and are interested and interesting. The national office staff was and is tireless, filled with good ideas, and patient as they tutor each new set of officers.

For the record, the first formal public announcement of my goals itemized the following: (1) SCA should continue to improve and increase its service to the full membership by a variety of means, such as providing thematically oriented workshops and conferences and aiding in the development and distribution of instructional material. (2) SCA should increase its efforts to attract and serve primary and secondary school teachers and those in community and two-year colleges, striving to become the primary professional organization for those interested in speech communication. (3) SCA should continue to define our central concepts and to explore their interrelationships. Further, we should seek to minimize

methodological quarrels, seeking alternative methods that could be brought to bear on key questions in speech communication. This we must do while striving for excellence in each of our several areas of study. (4) SCA must articulate clearly and forcefully to administrators who we are and what we are about if we are to maintain speech communication at all levels of the curriculum. (5) SCA should examine our teaching, scholarship, and community service, consistently seeking ways to demonstrate in word and deed the essentiality of our discipline and to improve the quality of our several communities. (6) SCA should lead the way in exploring alternative career opportunities.

After familiarizing myself further with the workings of the Association, I formulated additional goals. For example, I opened up the process whereby the agenda was devised, heightened the accessibility of the leadership to colloquy with the membership, and worked to facilitate the Association's interaction with governmental agencies.

After identifying goals, I took on other major jobs: working to re-image the SCA, planning the convention, preparing the presidential speech, and implementing projects to actualize the goals. Of these tasks, clearly convention-program planning was among the most arduous and essential. I wanted to help foster the rich diversity of the Association and help sketch out and articulate what held us together as an organization by identifying and imaging our central foci. The essential metaphor for the SCA had often been an umbrella (under which we huddle like agents from different countries who come in out of a cold rain). At the 1976 convention, an even more unlovely and illogical image was suggested—that of an octopus with tentacles reaching out in all directions. The metaphor I chose with which to imagine the Association was a constellation. The image *constellation* might better illuminate the nature of our relationships to one another. Although the initial metaphor came from a basic book about stargazing, about six months or so later I read a set of galleys for Karlyn Kohrs Campbell's and Kathleen Hall Jamieson's book, *Form & Genre: Shaping Rhetorical Action*. The Association, like a genre, composed of a constellation of "recognizable forms bound together by an internal dynamic. . . ." A genre, they argue, "is given its character by a fusion of forms not by its individual elements." For me, that was the Association.

By this time in my tenure, I had a pretty good idea that my convention theme would be "Anatomy of Purpose: A Center which Holds" in order to advance the discussion of who we were: our central concepts as a discipline, our purpose as an organization. The cooperation from the program planners in carrying out the theme was tremendous.

During the planning, I converted one entire wall of my office into a worksheet, lining it with index cards of different colors representing the various divisions, commissions, etc. My graduate assistant, Barbara Sweeney, and I would sit in the middle of the room perusing the multi-colored spectacle, jumping up from time to time to move a card across, or up or down. The logical nightmare of convention planning in a pre-computer age was made more manageable when Barbara suggested the metaphor of the air traffic control center at Chicago's O'Hare airport. One member, however, presented us with a unique problem. He had agreed to be on more programs than we had time slots!

The presidential speech loomed large for at least a year, in part because it was previewed months before at the regional conventions. After several incarnations, the speech was titled,

"In the Presence of the Word" (borrowed from Walter Ong). That title seemed broad enough to allow me to address three recurring concerns: (1) the increasing passivity of the American public who, as Ernest Boyer put it, were "soaking up the messages of others and becoming less effective in formulating messages of their own;" (2) the increasingly deplorable state of our public language, dominated at the time by doublespeak and psychobabble, which allowed us to lie directly and indirectly, respectively, and (3) the abdication of choice in "a decade of distraction" and "sensory overload," leading to a lack of concern for the value-laden aspects of discourse. My speech may have had the singular distinction of being the only presidential speech during which the ballroom lights went out!

Each president has several special projects, and I had three: a task force on career alternatives in communication (CAC); an apparatus for dealing more directly and more vigorously with SCA and governmental communication; and, later, an attention to health communication and communication and aging. The CAC task force was important because the job market was depressed for our graduates and the country needed our skills and insights in a wide variety of settings. We needed to interact more with business and industry to know what skills and insights they required. We undertook this initiative with surveys, the results of which were published in the *ACA Bulletin*. Members on the task force included persons from corporations (e.g., IBM, Kraft, Caterpillar), community colleges, and universities. We established the governmental relations committee, which I chaired as immediate past president. Our original charge was to monitor communication-related legislation and set priorities aimed at helping SCA interface more productively with governmental agencies. Associate Executive Secretary Lieb-Brilhart successfully spearheaded the effort that managed to get the words "and oral communication" into one piece of legislation which, among other things, enhanced the possibility for those of our members working on school-curriculum advancement to secure grants. With the exception of a convention panel on communication and aging sponsored by the vice president and the initial planning for a summer conference about health communication and communication and aging, we merely opened the door to what has emerged as a significant part of our discussions today.

Two different kinds of troublesome events happened during this period. First, the Association's dire financial straits resulted in the loss of one of the three executive officers in the National Office, Lieb-Brilhart. Since two of the three executive officers had been granted tenure, the choice was no choice, and so we lost a bright, high-energy, creative, far-sighted executive secretary. The second event occurred when the state of Illinois failed to ratify the Equal Rights Amendment. Many members requested that our Association's convention be moved out of Chicago. A number of academic groups had already announced their intention to do so. The issue was fundamental fairness. If the state did not accede to that fairness, then they would learn that women and the supporters of equal rights had economic clout. A long and passionate debate in the legislative assembly ensued. Those who opposed the move did so on the basis of possible legal consequences. Moreover, they argued, it was too late to make alternative arrangements. Other arguments focused on the very real economic consequences for the low-income wage earners who were typically hired for a major convention, on the ethics of breaking a contract, and on whether the Association should be taking stands on political issues.

Over the years working with groups in ECA and SCA, I have developed strong collegial relationships with an exceptionally large group of women. For example, in ECA I got to know Dar Wolvin, who taught me a lot about community colleges, and Melbourne Cummings and Deborah Atwater, who through their leadership made us more aware of the importance of diversity. Karlyn Kohrs Campbell and I served on SCA's administrative committee at the same time. Through common disciplinary interests, I came to know Kathleen Hall Jamieson and Fern Johnson. Through graduate teaching and serving on dissertation committees, I came to know Beth Dobkin, Sandra Sarkela, Ellen Hoffman, Marsha Houston, and Cindy White. Through research projects I came to know co-authors such as Marie Rosenwasser, Carolyn Anderson, Marlene Fine, Deborah Robson, Janette Kenner Muir, and Maureen Williams. Senior colleagues remained friends for most of my career, such as Mary Margaret Roberts and Mary Francis HopKins. In the past years I have especially enjoyed a close relationship with the six women past presidents. Clearly, many people have helped me along the way, but none more surely than my own graduate students, women and men, who have taught me much about the discipline, life, and values of co-mentoring.

I usually tell inquisitive inquirers that my long-time partner and I "live in a very large English Cocker Spaniel dog house in which humans are permitted" in a part of western Massachusetts that is nicknamed "the Berkeley of the East." Generally, inquiries beyond that have been on a need-to-know basis, as we both were brought up to be circumspect about our private lives in workplaces. Maureen is a mass-communication Ph.D. who has taught college in several states. She is a former newspaper editor and labor activist who operates a real-estate rental business.

In my office at home, there stands a framed, handwritten letter postmarked to reach Amherst when I returned from the Washington, D.C., convention where I received the presidential gavel. The letter began, "Dear Madame President" and, after some proud-parently prose, "Remember, you can always count on your Mother and Dad to stand by you." I did and do.

In the time that has passed since my presidency, the Association and our discipline have grown in numbers, diversity, and sophistication.

Among other signs of change, after my presidency the Association no longer seems bound by the one-every-ten-years rule for nominating and electing women to its highest office. HOORAY !

In 2009, meeting in Philadelphia on the occasion of its 100th anniversary, the ECA named me a Centennial Scholar in two areas: for Political Communication Research and for honoring Voices of Diversity. This has been one of the biggest surprises in my life, and it came while I was recovering from a near-deadly car crash.

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**CHAPTER NINE:
Anita Taylor
President,
Speech Communication
Association, 1981**



The middle child of three girls, born during the dust bowl on a farm in southern Kansas near the small town of Caldwell, I had no brothers. After high school, my mother had had a few months of normal-school training, whereupon she taught in a local country school until marrying two years later. My father had an agricultural-school education (two semesters over two years), after which he farmed 160 acres his father (and the bank) owned.

In my life have been a variety of countervailing influences, and I rarely deliberately sought the paths I followed. In this respect, I reflect the phenomenon described by Catherine Bateson in *Composing a Life*, with influences from family, culture, and the times. I characterize my life as driven by two mottos, which I lived before I'd read or heard either. The first I recognized as fitting me when I heard it in, of all places, a beer commercial: "You only go around once in this life, so grab for all the gusto you can get." The second came from Robert Frost, "Two roads diverged in a wood, and I— / I took the one less traveled by / and that has made all the difference." Whatever the source of these dispositions, they characterize my life. I've had only one long-term goal in my life: to go to college, even though I had no clear conception of what to study or what I'd do with the degree. Therein lies the story, a story that I will narrate with names, thereby singling out people of great influence.

As a child, one important influence was that my father, no feminist, had little choice but for his daughters to help with the farm work. We did the kind of chores that all farm children did, with no sex roles for the daughters. We depended on a big garden for much of our food, so all members of the family, including my father, worked at it, although only mother and daughters canned. Somewhere in grade school we daughters learned to milk the cows and help with the annual fence fixing, and about high school we learned to drive tractors and do field work. High-school and college summers I drove a wheat truck; I was a field hand and paid for college by being one of my dad's hired help.

We were quite young when our parents started giving us an allowance. My earliest recollection of that was of earning \$.10 a week, of which we had to save one-half. We understood we were saving for college. In our family (and in most families of our acquaintance), parents felt no responsibility for our education beyond high school. We knew we were supposed to go to college and that we would pay for it. We earned small bits of money in many ways: picking up nails (another story), cutting thistles and sunflowers, occasionally waiting tables or doing nurse's-aid work in town.

Another important influence was reading. My big sister, three years my elder, loved school and decided to teach me to read as she learned—and our mother, the former school teacher, encouraged us. I'm especially fortunate in this respect, since our little one-room country school had doozies for teachers my first two years. In first grade in 1941, we spent much of every day running outside to watch the planes on training missions from the air force base and the Boeing factory in then-very-far-off Wichita—sixty miles. The next year we had a fresh-out-of-normal-school young woman barely older than some of the big boys who were having difficulty getting out of eighth grade, there being no automatic passes. Although a couple of years older than the biggest of the boys, she was much smaller. More than one time, our days were disrupted as they stole her shoes and ran outside with them while she sat at the desk and cried. (Why the shoes were off, I haven't the foggiest.) By third grade or so, I'd read every book in our school library (a wall case of about six by six), along with some Nancy Drew books we had at home. Mother encouraged the reading habit by taking us regularly to the town's Andrew Carnegie Library. In retrospect, it's clear I vicariously experienced worlds far from our farm and small town, experiences that doubtless contributed to the sense I soon developed that neither Caldwell nor Wichita was the place for me.

My pre-high-school years included little group activity. One-room schools don't have clubs. Mother saw to it we took part in 4-H, and both parents approved when my projects ranged from the expected sewing and cooking to raising and showing cattle. I stayed active in 4-H through high school, doing a couple of projects that required presentations, though I now have little recollection of what they were. I didn't participate in many groups in high school, either. My older sister was a cheerleader; I tried out but wasn't selected (and never tried again; I never responded well to not getting something I wanted). Caldwell schools in the 1950s had no girls' sports, something I much resented, as one of the stories mother loved to tell was of playing on a girls' basketball team that traveled by train to two interscholastic national tournaments in the 1920s. We kids loved to look at the medals she'd won. I loved basketball myself, PE being probably my favorite high-school class. One year I was in a school play, and as part of my senior English class (which was our speech class), I participated in a local forensic event, giving a dramatic monologue—a wonderfully funny piece by Dorothy Parker. I regularly participated in school and church choirs and did both piano and chorus in high-school music festivals.

A final important childhood influence was a family friend who'd take the opposite side of any opinion anyone stated. Harry was clearly a person high in argumentativeness, and I guess I was too, because we'd engage in long arguments just for the fun of it. His family had no daughters, and the boys had trouble standing up to their dad. I cannot even begin to imagine the damage to their psyche he must have inflicted, because while he and I could do friendly arguments, he wasn't capable of that with them. So, naturally, they encouraged me. Quite unconsciously, I received early training for debate—convenient, since our school had no debate team.

During high-school years, I attended a couple of state 4-H camps and some church camps. Having become quite the dedicated young churchgoer, I became a leader in church youth group—conducting sessions, leading prayers and services. Our Methodist church wasn't much for demonstrative worship except in song, so we didn't do much witnessing. But sometime in

these later high-school years, I decided to become a missionary (the inner traveler perhaps?), a decision that led me to a small church college nearby—Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas. There, it took only the first year to decide that such a life was not for me, and I transferred to Kansas State University. During the first year of college, I took a speech class in which the teacher, Edna Sorber, interested me in debate (after, that is, she cast me as Grumio in her production of *Taming of the Shrew*). At K-State, I joined the debate team and that, as Frost said, “made all the difference.”

I did not major in speech in college. In fact, after deciding the missionary life was not for me, finding a life goal became a real problem. Never had our parents suggested anything other than that we'd need a college education—they made no efforts to shape what we needed that education for, although I suspect they were quite pleased with my early missionary goal and quite saddened when it was abandoned. What was the alternative to be? This was the 1950s; my family were good, conservative souls; no women's roles I knew of interested me. I'd hated high school, being bored beyond belief, and I rejected the idea of being a teacher. For a while I thought I would become a doctor, but working part-time as a nurse's aid changed that; I didn't like blood. I never considered nursing. The nurses I worked with mostly followed orders and cleaned up messes, neither of which was I (nor am I) any good at. Halfway through the sophomore year, I romanticized about becoming a foreign-service officer, and, naïve child that I was, headed to Washington, D.C., thinking I'd work and finish college at George Washington University, an idea abandoned when I learned the amount of the tuition. In D.C., I flirted with journalism, but on learning that the copy-boy job offered at *The Washington Post* paid the princely sum of \$20 a week while I was then being paid \$50 a week as a payroll clerk for a construction company, I started saving and headed back to K-State, where what kept me going were two years of intercollegiate debate.

Finally, after a battery of aptitude tests (which, surprise, showed I liked to work with people), an academic counselor advised me to finish the B.S. as quickly as possible and look for some experience in the world to help me decide on a life course. I loaded up on sociology classes, made up for time lost in D.C. with overloads and correspondence courses, and graduated with my class—never having been classified as a senior. I lined up a job as a probation trainee in Chicago, and my perceptive debate coach (Charles Goetzinger) “just happened” on the way to a tournament to drive through the neighborhood where I'd be working. On the trip home, he suggested I could go to graduate school in speech with an assistantship in debate. Gutsy guy—along with the department head who approved the scheme (John Keltner)—at the time I had nine college credits in speech. But they knew I was a quick study and had been relatively successful as a debater, so it wasn't really much of a gamble for them.

The grad-school option had never occurred to me. Our parents encouraged going to college, but the idea of graduate school just wasn't part of our universe (unless it was medical school, which one of my [male] cousins had done, an idea I'd long ago rejected). But I loved it—the classes, the teaching, the coaching. Quite without intention on my part, I'd found my place, on a university faculty. Within two years Goetzinger and Keltner had moved from K-State, and I had become the debate director, not just someone's assistant. Perfect!

Only in retrospect, years later, did I realize the early turmoil over career resulted from role conflict. My childhood experiences developed the nearly perfect androgyne, but the world in which I lived had no formulation of such a person. I can now see that many pioneer and farm women exhibited these same characteristics, but no one among my contacts had conceptualized the idea. Indeed, in those days (1949-57) only a few people anywhere had conceptualized such ideas.

After graduation, I had a summer job at Yellowstone National Park (waiting tables, what else?). On the way, I visited my sister and her husband where I met the man for whom my brother-in-law worked. Skipping the mostly irrelevant details, I'll report only that I married the guy (Walt Taylor) one year and two months later. Walt thereupon became a significant influence in my life. He professed to want no part of a traditional marriage—and, to be fair to him, he really didn't in some important respects. He supported my completing the master's degree, was willing to move so that I could begin a Ph.D. program at another school, and expected to have a career wife—though at the time neither one of us really knew what that meant. So in one way, I had the ideal situation for a woman like me at that time (1958): I was married (and hence a legitimate woman in the eyes of many in my world); I soon had more education than the vast majority of women; we didn't have or want children (Walt had children by a previous marriage; I wasn't the motherly type). I had few home-life interferences and a career I loved.

Another factor I didn't realize until achieving a raised consciousness over a decade later: I settled into a life full of several countervailing pressures. Teaching in an institution with only an M. S. degree, earned from that institution (a big school in a small town), I could easily have become one of the permanent instructors—of which K-State had a lot—who were mostly place-bound women. I'm not sure how long it would have been before I realized how exploited all in that position were destined to be, but fate and my well-honed inability to take orders soon intervened. The speech department needed to beef up its faculty credentials, so they hired a (man with a) Ph.D. and gave him the title Director of Forensics. I was given to understand (perhaps I wanted to hear) that he'd do it in title only, that he was a scholar and didn't really want to do debate: I would continue to run the program. Guess they didn't give *him* that understanding. When we met the first day, our different ideas of who was to be in charge became clear; I went home that night and told Walt to begin planning for a move; I was quitting.

I had by then realized that, should I really want some status in my future as a university faculty member, I'd need the Ph.D. This situation crystallized the need, and four years later I was ABD, with one change of jobs in between—again because a man in a position of authority had interfered with a decision that I believed was mine to make. (There's a gender pattern here, one that I saw only retrospectively: I was being supervised by men who thought they deserved to tell me what to do but who didn't know as much as I did, and I wouldn't put up with it.) Significantly, my motivation for graduate school was not to become a scholar. I wanted to teach at the university level and needed the "union card" to have some control over my life. This motivation dictated my choice of schools and programs. U. of Missouri was close to home; its Ph.D. was rhetoric and public address, which fit my interest in debate.

Having lived six years with a full income (though it wasn't much, it sure beat a T.A.'s salary), I was not willing to stay on at the university until the degree was done. But not a lot of folks in 1967 were looking for an ABD female faculty member, even if she did coach debate. It was May before I got called for a job interview at Florissant Valley Community College (FVCC) in St. Louis; it was serendipitous in many ways. They wanted a teacher, not a scholar. It was close to Mizzou, so I could finish the degree—and then move on to a university where we all want to be, right? And, given their salary structure, the unfinished degree didn't hurt. I started the job that fall at a salary that exceeded the one being earned by the full professor (female) who was directing my dissertation and who had more than thirty years teaching at the university. Was I beginning to see a pattern? Yes, but it turned out not to matter for a while.

We fit in many ways, Florissant Valley and I. It was the first place anyone spent any significant amount of time helping me learn to teach. It was a new school, short on traditions and long on enthusiasm. We had, for a little while, a wonderful administration. For the first time since Goetzinger and Keltner, my experiences with male supervisors were positive. The man who hired me, Art Meyer, recognized talent and supported the development of the faculty, regardless of sex or race—as did the college dean, the president, and the system chancellor. I loved the place, I had great opportunities, and I learned a lot. At FVCC I taught twelve years, became an administrator—first a department chair, then a division dean.

Loren Reid, at Mizzou, stressed to Ph.D. students that being a university professor meant being involved in the profession. We were to participate in professional associations, so as soon as I had money again, I did just that. I even went to business meetings. SCA became important because at Florissant Valley I had few disciplinary colleagues. Association work became my continuing education. I also developed good friends in the Association, partly through the women's caucus, but, as of my presidency, mostly through the community college group and the people I knew through debate. My scholarly interests came after my presidency.

Once again, however, I noticed that status thing. In this case, it was that I had identified with the community-college movement, believed it important within the system of higher education, but quickly learned that most of my professional colleagues considered those of us who worked in such institutions a lesser rank of professional. By now, I had the title *doctor*; I had experience in both kinds of institutions, and, although I knew that most of my community-college colleagues were not in the same league of scholarship as university faculty, I also knew most university faculty couldn't hold a candle to most of us as teachers. So I quickly agreed when Art Meyer asked if I'd join a task force to work on community-college issues that SCA's Associate Executive Secretary, Robert Hall, was shepherding. I'm not sure whose idea it was to form the task force, but we became quite the activist little group and earned some visibility (notoriety?) within the Association.

I also became active in the organization of department chairs that Bob Hall fostered; I was president for a couple years. Thus, by now several folks in the Association came to know who I was—as many in the debate community already did. In response, I'm sure, to pressure from our community-college group and the newly formed women's caucus (of which I was always a part, though never an elected leader), I was among the few women invited to a

retreat devoted to framing long-term goals (the Airlie conference)—after all I was a super token: female *and* a community college representative. I also served on a committee (placed there I suspect by Bob Hall) that suggested that SCA should move to an open placement service. The committee wrote the guidelines to be followed when the Association agreed to the new system. I suspect affirmative action was again at work in 1973 when the SCA committee on committees asked if I'd accept appointment to the finance board. None of us had any idea what was about to happen.

I was having a grand time working to achieve what I thought were important goals: gaining respect for teaching among my professional colleagues, opening doors for women. After the finance board, the obvious next step seemed to be the chain to the presidency. I wanted the powerful (mostly male) nominators at least to have to consider a woman presidential nominee from a community college. In character, I wrote the committee in 1977, nominating myself. Referencing the rhetoricians and the dominance of big universities in the Association, I suggested I wouldn't accept a nomination if slated against someone from a Big Ten institution, because it wouldn't be a fair fight. To no one's surprise, they did not nominate me. I was more than a bit irritated, however, when I learned that, of the two persons nominated, one was an affirmative-action token, a very nice young man from a Minneapolis high school, certain to garner no more than a few votes against the other candidate, Phil Tompkins, a representative of the rhetoric-and-research-university establishment. I was irritated but willing to wait and renew my candidacy the next year.

Then the critical incident occurred. In those days, the annual awards were given at a luncheon, and the Association's various officers would sit on a raised dais at the head table. During this particular ceremony, all faces arrayed along the high, raised table were male, save one, second vice president Jane Blankenship's. She herself had quite shaken the Association's establishment when she'd unexpectedly won election over their candidate, for whom, most of us believed, Jane had been nominated as a sacrificial lamb. Bob Hall claimed at the time that her win was because the women of the Association always returned their ballots and, when given the opportunity to vote for a woman, did so. I grew increasingly distressed with the lineup on the dais as each successive (male) award winner's name was called. Finally, for the last one, the distinguished service award, a woman's name was called, Marie Hochmuth Nichols. The passage of years leaves me not completely clear why she was called up although other aspects of that scene are still vivid to me. Hochmuth Nichols had been given this (relatively new) award the previous year and probably was presenting the 1977 winner, Carroll Arnold. Her presence was pleasing. How could the Association *not* have recognized a person of her caliber? or of Carroll Arnold's? By any criteria, both were then and are now giants in our field. But as she spoke, Nichols commented on one of the many controversies at the time. This was, after all, the convention during which we debated the wisdom of holding our meetings in states that had not ratified the Equal Rights Amendment, of which Illinois (the location of our meeting the following year) was one. In her remarks, she said something to the effect that she knew some people claimed women were discriminated against in the Association but that she didn't believe it. For one thing, she said, she'd never experienced discrimination in all her years with SCA.

That was too much. I stormed out of the room, not even waiting for her to finish to much applause (well-earned but for the remarks about women and discrimination). In my furious and raving state, I almost ran into, literally, Herman Cohen, SCA ex-president with whom I'd become acquainted during the finance-board years. When he heard from me the cause of my fury, he questioned me in total I-don't-get-it candor (of which there was a lot in those days; Herm *was* well intentioned). He wanted to know why I was so upset? "After all," he said, "you've got Jane!" I'm not sure Herman Cohen ever understood why that resulted in an even greater level of fury.

Almost immediately thereafter, I ran into another ex-president, Bob Jeffrey. Upon hearing the tale, especially about the second-vice-presidential candidates, he said I should run a write-in campaign. He knew (probably had been a member of the group that wrote the constitution) that a candidate who presented a petition with 500 names would automatically be on the ballot. Bob Kibler happened upon the scene, as did Bob Hall. Both joined in urging me to do it; Kibler and Jeffrey volunteered to carry petitions around at parties that evening and the next. Hall and I went to the SCA office space, prepared and duplicated the petitions that were later passed out among a small legion of helpers. Thus it is, as I've often said, that I owed the presidency to three guys named Bob.

We left the convention with well over three hundred names (although some were illegible—probably intentionally). I mailed petitions to my many friends from debate days and to every member I knew in a community college. We collected well over 500 names and achieved the ballot. With three names on the ballot, no one earned a majority, and, in the run-off with Tompkins, I won, not much to anyone's surprise. Given the mode of my nomination and the fact fingered by Bob Hall that women in those days voted—and voted for women—my election was probably a cinch once my name was on the ballot in a fair, two-way race. So I became the first community-college person to be elected to SCA's highest office and the seventh woman.

I was forty-five the year of my presidency and married with no children (I had step-children, only one of whom lived with us while she was in college), reflecting a pattern of the time for women in workplace management. What credibility problems I had were from those who thought the president should be a leading scholar and couldn't do what the Association needed unless she or he were such a person. Because most of those folks still needed our journals as outlets for their publications and our conventions as chances to meet friends and showcase their graduate students, I found their attitudes no hindrance to anything I wanted to do. We had some membership problems in those days, but they had little to do with whoever might be president and, in any event, considerably preceded my presidency.

I think I was seen as dedicated to opening up the Association—and I was. Some people saw this as a strength and others thought it a weakness. Other than showing that a woman and a community-college representative could be elected, opening up the Association was probably my only goal as an officer. I also was seen, accurately, as a strong-minded person and one who made a difference, however fleeting, for the "little people" among us. Before the

presidency, I suspect my being a woman caused some people to underestimate me and others to be irritated with my more-than-assertive manner. But given the times (1970s and 80s), the Association included a lot of people who agreed with the goal. Sometimes I even benefited from being underestimated—and from being seen as an outsider.

I tried to achieve my goal in two primary ways. One was presidential appointments and nominations. I remember no specific *ad hoc* committees or task forces I appointed, although a check might show my involvement in getting an affirmative-action officer and statement. Through my years on the committee on committees, I insisted on appointing women, people of color (although then we always said minorities), and folks from other than the big-name universities. The other was to make sure my voice was heard, all through my service on legislative council and administrative committee, before, during, and after the presidency. Because one way the establishment keeps women and others of low rank in their places is to mute their voices (by silencing or distorting those voices), I always insisted on being heard. Fortunately, years of experience in debate and academic politics helped me do more than be heard; I could not easily be dismissed.

One additional action I took is interesting mostly in retrospect. In planning the convention, I stated up front that we would accept as many programs as the hotel could accommodate. I knew that many people could attend the convention only if on the program. Because the number of programs at conventions now far exceeds what I scheduled in 1980, my action now seems minor. But at that time and during a few conventions after my presidency as well, programs were tightly controlled; the ostensible goal was to emphasize the scholarly nature of the session and ensure the quality of programming. Even if those were actually the goals, they had the effect of keeping certain people out of sight. Twenty years later, many of us lament the proliferation of programs, which requires us to choose among desirable concurrent sessions. Nonetheless, we have clearly chosen the option of being more open than closed in convention programming, a factor having a substantial effect on the exceptionally high percentage of members who attend conventions. I am pleased to claim some responsibility for our coming to that choice.

My administrative experience included many years as a director of forensics and a department chair and three as a division dean at Florissant Valley. At the time of the presidency, I was a university department chair.

I don't think I ever really had a mentor. I thought of some folks as role models, including Norma Bunton, the woman who chaired the speech department at K-State for a while, and Anabell Hagood, long-time director of forensics at the University of Alabama. Art Meyer was a source of good advice on many occasions, and I learned much about leading meetings of fractious colleagues from Dave Campbell, who chaired our compensation committee at the St. Louis Community College. These relationships were not mentorships, although valuable. And, although I greatly admired the intellectual ability of my doctoral dissertation adviser, Frances McCurdy, and liked her a lot, she was far too self-effacing and willing to accept discounting by the university for me to consider her either a role model or

a mentor. I considered the president at Florissant Valley for the first ten years I was there, Ray Stith, a role model. The two SCA presidents I most admired and attempted to emulate as Association leaders were Sam Becker and Ron Allen.

In important ways, my husband was a mentor. He had an unerring ability to judge character when he met people. I admired that talent and wished my ability to pick personnel could reflect such skill. His skill was intuitive, so I never learned any techniques from him, but I did often go with his judgment (and sometimes regretted it when I didn't). What I did ultimately learn from him—a hard lesson for a debater and academic—was to trust my instincts. Though short on formal education, Walt had a wonderful way with words and was a great critic of memos, reports, and speeches I would write. He also had a great talent for humor. Many things about living with him taught me to be less serious and more fun. I believe a sense of humor to be a survival skill. Walt helped me develop that skill.

The symbolic meaning of the presidency puzzles me a bit. Clearly the office is an important symbol, especially to the membership. That's precisely why some applauded my presidency while others considered it a travesty. I represented a part of our profession that too many academics (still today, inside and outside our field) consider of lower rank. Before the 1980s, we overtly valued male over female as well as masculine over feminine. At the time I was elected, being female was also to be lower-ranking. By the start of the twenty-first century, we in academia no longer value male over female, although we clearly still value masculine over feminine. Certainly when I was president, and to some extent still today, women who made it in our field and inside our Association had ties and identifications predominantly with big-name institutions and powerful male mentors or sponsors. Occupants of the top office still generally reflect the male-identified values of the Association, and their representation powerfully reinforces and perpetuates those values. Thus, the person who holds the office represents the Association. When she or he happens not to reflect the prevailing image, the symbolic presence is even stronger. Just as the fish doesn't notice water as long as it's swimming in it, when something is different about the representative of an Association, the presence of that different quality, whatever it is, increases the power of the symbol. Thus, I was an important symbol. Indeed, the presidency is both symbolically and actually important, though each of us who's been there knows how limited we are when in the role to actualize fully the goals that we had.

My scholarship over the years of my professional activity illustrates well the feminist principle that the personal is political. I shifted focus immediately when I moved directly from my Ph.D. studies in rhetoric and public address to employment in an institution where teaching quality was the primary value. I quickly realized that I'd had virtually no formal preparation for teaching and certainly none for work in an environment where the range of student preparation and goals was vast. My scholarly activity quickly focused on what Kenneth Boyer in *Scholarship Reconsidered* helped us recognize as scholarship. With no incentive to pursue rhetorical studies and much need to find ways to adapt to the variety of my students, I worked at learning and developing instructional materials and methods

appropriate for different learning styles and situations. This work led to publishing two textbooks and some individualized learning packages and structures, creating a speech laboratory on campus, helping bring special programs for deaf students to campus, and helping develop AV materials for integrating listening skills into communication classes. The FVCC faculty developed the first interpersonal and group communication classes in the district and helped other schools implement our models.

When, twelve years later, I moved back to a university atmosphere, it was primarily to do administrative duties. Again circumstances shaped new directions of scholarship. I quickly realized that as a university administrator, even one at a relatively low level, I worked in a different world from most of my colleagues, of whom most were (not incidentally) men. By this date (the early 1980s), second-wave feminism was well underway; it was a movement that I had been involved in for some time, seeking to open our field to women. One of my early publications, for instance, was an essay in *The Persuader* arguing for eliminating the women's division in intercollegiate debate. But, working in a community college with a high proportion of women even at high levels of administration and in a division that was predominantly female, I had limited personal contact with gender bias in the workplace. That innocence changed in the university environment. And although I remained interested in instructional development, gender issues became the center of my scholarship. The work "Avoiding Sexism in Communication Research," that Bobby Patton, Carol Valentine, and I did was revised after feedback from editors and scholars across the discipline. Subsequently, the Organization for the Study of Communication, Language, and Research adopted it as a set of guidelines for its members and publications and thereafter shared it with editorial boards of several communication journals and associations. In 1989, I assumed editorship of the small, interdisciplinary research periodical *Women and Language* (which had begun life as a newsletter linking those in several disciplines working on issues of gender and language).

In some ways, in the later years of my career, my work has come full circle. My latest scholarship involves preparation of learning materials to be used by English and communication teachers, at both high-school and university levels, to integrate knowledge about gender, language, and communication into their classes. These materials will be in web publications, making them widely available and easily used. I consider this among my most important work, because it is now clear, thirty-plus years after the re-emergence of the twentieth-century women's movement, that what we know about gender, communication, and language when used in classrooms and in lives is mostly distorted and incompletely applied. Even though gender is a central structure of English thought and language, attention by teachers to helping students become aware of its role is minimal, a tag-on at best. The materials that a colleague (M. J. Hardman, a University of Florida linguistics professor) and I have been workshopping since the mid 1990s and are now preparing for e-publication will provide usable means of filling the void and correcting the distortions.

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CHAPTER TEN: Beverly Whitaker Long President, Speech Communication Association, 1985



I enjoyed a privileged childhood, privileged in the sense of being wanted for a long time. When my mother gave birth to a stillborn girl in 1934, she and my dad were told not to try it again. But two years later they did, and I came home from the hospital with parents who wanted more than anything to have a family. When I was four, my brother Johnny was born. The family was complete: the four of us plus one grandmother, one grandfather, four aunts and three uncles, their spouses, and eventually thirteen first cousins. There was much affection, little money, and faith in a bright future.

The family, the church, the farm, the school—these were my dad's priorities. He was a fiercely independent man who began farming with forty acres that, over three decades, grew to a thousand. His formal education ended with high school, but he never stopped studying farming methods, consulting with county agents, and adapting to new technology. It was fortunate that Mother was a teacher, both because she was a gifted one and also because when crops failed, there was still a bit of dependable income. They were both enterprising workers and committed to making things better.

We lived in a recently built three-room house with a red roof in the country, about twenty-two miles south of Jonesboro, Arkansas, and sixty miles from Memphis, Tennessee. Daddy farmed; Mother taught fourth, fifth, and sixth grades at a nearby country school. It was a good, uncomplicated life in that little house. Then we moved to the town of Harrisburg, population then and now of 1900 residents. The house was bigger and located about midway between the church and the school. Daddy served many years as secretary of the school board, church treasurer, and chair of committees to build a new church and parsonage. The school would add a public-school music program, started by Mother, and a hot-lunch program, also begun when she was president of the PTA.

Mother went to school in summers and earned a B.S. in the 1950s. In 1967, the same year I earned a Ph.D., she was awarded an M.S.E. in Early Childhood Education. All her adult life she served as church pianist and organist. She was actively involved in the lives of families in the Harrisburg area: playing organ or piano for church services, weddings, funerals; teaching first the third grade and then public-school music. When she directed Christmas pageants, she usually cast me in the lead because I liked "play acting" and she needed an at-hand performer.

My brother Johnny was golden in his early days and throughout his life. So cute he once won a baby beauty contest, so smart he was an honors student from pre-first-grade on, and

such a good high school athlete that he depleted my resources when I announced that I'd give him \$10 for every touchdown he scored. He attended Hendrix College, as did I, then medical school, and became an internationally acclaimed neurologist. His wife Elaine earned a Ph.D. in English Literature at NYU; his son Jeff a B.A. from Williams and an M.B.A. from Wharton; daughter Amy a B.A. from Williams and an M.B.A. from Yale and an M.F.A. in art in London; daughter Stacey a B.A. from Amherst. The educated family that my dad dreamed of long ago was now a reality.

To Mother's dismay, I was not an outstanding student in high school, neither valedictorian nor salutatorian in a class of forty-four students. I was very busy and happy being in plays and operettas and cheerleading. What sixteen-year old could want more? During my senior year the physical education teacher offered a speech class. I loved it and there met the first poem I really liked, Sara Teasdale's "Barter." At Hendrix, I majored in speech and drama and during my sophomore year fell in love with yet more literature, this time prose (Willa Cather's *My Antonia*, Edith Wharton's *Ethan Frome*, Dorothy Parker, William Allen White, James Thurber). Here I also first felt the power and magic of staged drama in a production of *Oedipus Rex* as a chorus member who cried at each performance.

At Hendrix, I also earned a degree in business. I'm not sure exactly why except that I liked accounting when it meant working with big ledger sheets—the illusion of control, I guess. I was business manager of the college newspaper and managed the campaign of the senior class president. With his victory, I was named to the college senate.

The primary influence during this time was Ella Myrl Shanks, director of drama at Hendrix, a sophisticated, motherly figure who encouraged me then and for years to come to "just do your best." My first teaching job was at Newport (Arkansas) High School. I taught three ninth-grade-English classes and two speech classes, directed junior and senior plays, and even did a bit of speech therapy. At Newport, I began a career of working with male administrators (Superintendent Castleberry and Principal Davis) who valued and rewarded my work. They gave me much support and boosted my confidence in my teaching and directing abilities.

At L.S.U., where I received both M.A. and Ph.D. degrees, I was, unconsciously perhaps, very much influenced by the leadership style of Waldo Braden, department chair. He was a rushing bear—full of advice, a bit frightening in his intensity, and ever ready to help students. He was, I realize now, what would be described as a masculine leader—full of ideas and non-collaborative in implementing them. My chief academic influences were different. Francine Merritt, enigmatic and private, was the most widely informed person I'd ever met, and she made oral interpretation both pleasurable and academically significant. A major influence on Francine was Don Geiger, whose published work in the 1950s and 1960s cleared the way for the later shift from "interpretation" to "performance." His thesis was seemingly simple. We, of course, must know texts in order to perform them. But, Geiger insisted, we also perform them in order to know them. My belief in the validity of this claim grew even stronger over the next four decades of teaching. Eventually, I developed both courses and productions that grew out of my confidence that performances truly mattered because they created knowledge. Two such efforts were aimed first at illness and then at ageing. The idea

was that we as performers and audiences might *perform our way to a felt understanding* of experiences common to the elderly and to those afflicted with sickness and disability (see Selected Publications at the end of this essay).

Also at L.S.U., Fabian Gudas, professor of English, taught courses in literary criticism. I took four of them and left armed with exciting and invaluable tools that would evolve later into theories of describing and evaluating literary works and literature in performance. Throughout my career, the theory and practice of performance criticism was central to my work as I questioned (in workshops and in publications) the practices of those who judge the work of others, often without making clear the assumptions on which those judgments rested.

In my first college teaching at Southwest Texas State in San Marcos, I encountered two more nurturing male administrators, Elton Abernathy, department chair, and Jim Barton, director of theatre. I was hired to costume four major productions a year, direct children's theatre, teach introduction to speech (four sections each semester), and oral interpretation, and, if I were lucky, team up to teach an interdisciplinary class in theatre appreciation. I never learned so much as I did working with Elton and Jim and also with faculty from a wide variety of disciplines, an association made possible by the small size of the institution. Perhaps the major discovery of this period was my realizing that, although I was committed to performance, the texts to which I was most attracted were not plays, but poems and narrative. From that point on, I was focused on the performance of literature. In the 1960s, I also came to believe that the idea of "readers theatre conventions" was not really very helpful in adapting and directing literature for the stage. It was far more challenging to let the text, rather than a stage convention, shape the performance style.

At L.S.U. and at San Marcos, I discovered the pleasure and power of my women colleagues. I'm not sure I've ever made a professional decision without discussing it with Mary Frances HopKins and Gresdna Doty (and later, Mary Strine). They were—and are—collaborators, questioners, enablers. Never pushy or judgmental, they profoundly affected my thinking and my practices. I learned from them what "feminist," in its richest sense, meant.

In 1963, while at San Marcos, I attended my first professional convention, the Texas Speech Association in Galveston. It was fun and I got to see Robert and Gertrude Breen perform "Miss Brill" in a style they called "chamber theatre." The next year I took students to the Southern Speech Convention in North Carolina and, in 1967, my first SCA convention, where I delivered a paper on aesthetic distance. Since that time, I've missed few Southern conventions (serving as president in 1975) and no national ones. The conventions were always energizing and often inspirational.

In 1968, I met Bob Jeffrey, new chair of the Department of Speech at the University of Texas at Austin. He was my boss, adviser, soul mate, friend, even cast member. He knew how to get things done, and he knew what was worth doing. He was open, kind, shrewd, and visionary. And he generously shared his wisdom, making him a mentor of the highest order. He (and his wife, Phillis) encouraged, advised, even pushed, my work in SCA. He was on the nominating committee (along with Dennis Gouran) that asked me to be a candidate for the 1985 presidency.

By that time, I had left the University of Texas to be with my recent husband, Bill Long. Some colleagues were amazed that I could give up a professorship at U.T. and move to Indiana. I loved Texas, but there was no contest. In 1977, Bill took early retirement, a decision that coincided with my being offered a job at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. I thought I was going there to be a full-time teacher/scholar, but what the department needed was a chair and I was the most likely candidate. Most of the faculty were much younger than I, so it was challenging and rewarding to support them in building their professional careers.

In SCA, I served on all sorts of committees, first in the interpretation division and later in Association appointments. My induction into the administrative committee was as a member and then chair of the research committee, where I watched, admired, and learned from Karlyn Kohrs Campbell.

When I was elected second vice president, candidates did not run in the sense they do today. There were no regional convention appearances, no speeches; in fact, it was expected that one would not even seem to be campaigning. I doubted that I would win because I was a woman and neither educated nor employed in a Big Ten school. I did, however, have support from a variety of places: Texas, where I had taught at two institutions and served as an officer in the state association; the Southern region, where I had been very active in the interpretation division; and among women. My opponent was Jim Andrews from Indiana University, a charming man whom I had only recently met. Somewhat ironically, this project on women presidents of NCA led me to him again because he had once taught with Magdalene Kramer, the subject of my other essay in this book.

During my tenure on the committee on committees, with its frequent opportunities to make appointments, I worked to increase the presence of women. I also worked to increase the visibility of the arts-performance-literature tracks of the Association. I wanted performance to be mainstream, or at least respected, not marginalized. My chief effort was directed toward the creation of a new journal, as happened eventually with the substantive contributions of Bob Jeffrey, Mary Frances HopKins, Jim McBath, and Kathleen Jamieson.

Another of my goals was to recognize teaching in a manner similar to the way we already recognized scholarship. To that end, I asked Jody Nyquist and Mary Margaret Roberts to create the first "Teachers on Teaching" programs. Also I reinstated the past-presidents' gathering, which had been discontinued because of financial austerity. I thought the Association and the national office would be more secure when this group of committed former leaders knew each other and met annually. I also initiated the Task Force on Related Organizations, which, for a time, established contact with other professional organizations, primarily through exchanges of convention programs.

During my presidential year, I spent a good deal of time trying to assist in holding things together in the national office, where there was illness, confusion, shortage of money, and general unease. I was helped greatly by my colleagues at the University of North Carolina who worked on Association matters, and more importantly, gave me the opportunity to practice leadership by chairing the department. I was blessed with an abundance of help from my husband, Bill. A retired IBM manager, he not only made coming home a joy, but he

also made work smoother with his calm listening and astute commentary on whatever the issues at hand.

My general sense, when I left the SCA office, was that I had helped make something good a little better, and I felt good about that.

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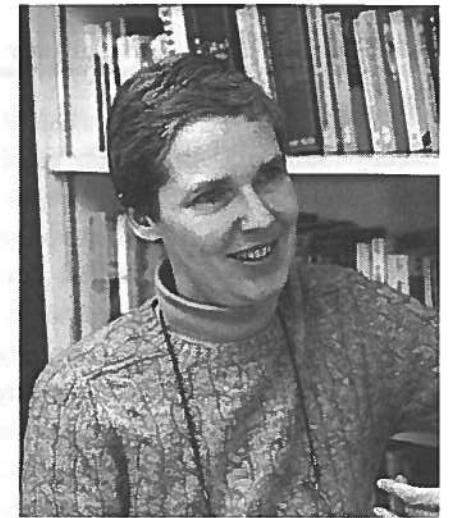
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CHAPTER ELEVEN: Patti P. Gillespie President, Speech Communication Association, 1986, 1987



My parents, both college educated, lived a very comfortable and very southern life. Although a high-school teacher for a time, my mother became a full-time homemaker and clubwoman after my birth. My father ran his own businesses, served on boards of various local banks and savings and loans, and developed subdivisions until he retired (which he did the year I left home to attend Wellesley College). As the only child, I led a life of privilege.

During my high-school years, I enjoyed several superb teachers, all women: a ninth-grade English teacher, Miss Mary McCombs, and a tenth-grade history teacher, Miss Polly McClure, were the two most influential. (My godmother, Pat Rosebrook, was equally important to these years: she was the only married woman I knew then who chose not to have children and so was free to work outside the home, to go places and do things, which seemed to me even then a very smart decision.) During these years I was extremely active as a member of the debate team, the chorus, the orchestra, the individual events squad, and the usual run of academic clubs and honoraries. During these years, too, I began some public speaking: I gave sermons on youth ministry days, served as the Story Lady for a local radio station for a year, acted in an occasional play, and gave one of the high school's two commencement addresses. I volunteered at, among other places, the local Girls Club, where I taught acrobatics and dance. I also took a variety of lessons during these years—violin, piano, organ, voice, golf, tennis, riding.

When I left Bowling Green, Kentucky, to attend college near Boston, a whole new world opened up, one that was much snowier and more serious than the one I knew. I hated my year at Wellesley because I never managed to get warm and because the men (as we were instructed to call them) from the surrounding Ivy League colleges didn't behave at all like the southern boys I was accustomed to dating—the college men drank wine rather than bourbon and preferred talking to dancing. What to do? I polished my southern accent and was the belle of Boston for a time, but I eagerly transferred at the end of the first year to the University of Kentucky—back to a more familiar, comfortable world.

The year at Wellesley, however, had done its work; I was committed intellectually. Having been surrounded for the first time in my life by girls and women who took themselves and their work seriously, I must have begun to imagine for myself a life different from those that I saw at home or among family friends. Although I didn't recognize any change in myself at the time, in retrospect it is clear that my single year at Wellesley changed me profoundly.

At the University of Kentucky, I majored in bacteriology, minored in chemistry, and usually found myself the only girl in a class of forty or more, taught without exception by male professors. I carried between twenty and twenty-three hours each semester, went to summer school, and finished college in two more years, Phi Beta Kappa, with honors. During college, I was much less active than in high school, mostly because of my overloaded semesters in courses that required three-hour laboratory sections for every hour of lecture. Still, I belonged to a social sorority and a water-ballet company, and I served as both life guard and canoe guard occasionally.

Although I briefly considered attending medical school, I instead married the summer I graduated from the university, as was then customary. I moved to another small southern town, where no visible career path presented itself. I therefore quickly returned to school at a regional university to secure teaching credentials and, the next year, a master's degree in English, and, the year after, taking advantage of federal dollars loosed by Sputnik, thirty hours above the masters in chemistry education. After teaching beginning chemistry, qual/quant analysis, beginning biology, anatomy and physiology, physics, English 9 and 10, and French 1 and 2 (from which the language in Kentucky has never fully recovered), I taught a course in speech and drama (in which I had never had a course of any kind, though I had been active in the local community theatre). My most important qualification for the assignment was that I had a free period at the time that the course was scheduled. I loved teaching this course because it put me in contact with students who didn't take courses like anatomy and physiology or analytical chemistry.

Soon thereafter, I reached the highest professional rank then possible in Kentucky for a high-school teacher. At the age of twenty-eight, I didn't think it promising to be already at the top of my profession. I determined to return to graduate school at Indiana University. I drove up one day to investigate financial aid packages in the several departments for which I thought myself competitive (English, comparative literature, bacteriology, chemistry), and I applied, as an afterthought really, to one department for which I was clearly unqualified: the Department of Speech and Drama. I thought how much fun it would be in theatre and how dreary it would be in any of the others, and so I went into theatre. As its chair, Jeffrey Auer, explained, "We never penalize a student for seeing the light too late." When I graduated, Jeff Auer also recommended me for my first university teaching position—at the University of Iowa.

During these years, my major influences were all men: there were few (usually no) women in my classes and few (usually none) on the faculty at these three universities. (I didn't notice this peculiarity at the time.) I had two important intellectual and one pivotal professional influence at this time. Bacteriologist Maurice Scherago, at Kentucky, taught me how to set and meet high goals in independent work, and drama theorist Hubert Heffner, at Indiana, taught me that it was much more important to understand than to know. Samuel Becker, whose efforts on my behalf are too numerous to detail, was my first department chair. He was always ready to offer advice (but only when asked) and to show me how to keep a sense of humor, even when there appeared little reason to have one. He also helped me see how universities really worked (as distinct from how they were supposed to work). Sam Becker was Mentor Extraordinaire, perhaps without even knowing it.

Indeed, I have Sam Becker along with Sears-Roebuck to thank for introducing me to the ideas of feminism. Sam left a stream of articles in my mailbox at the office, articles that asked questions about gender-based salary differences, modes of address, and numerical proportions among faculties within research universities. Sears refused me a credit card in my own name, though they were happy to issue me one in my husband's name. He was unemployed at the time. Before then, I had thought feminists strident, probably paranoid, and perhaps crazy. "After all," I can still hear myself saying, "I had never been discriminated against."

I left Iowa after four years when offered the kind of position that comes only once in a career: I was invited to become the founding chair of a new department of theatre and speech at the University of South Carolina. Thus began my too-long sojourn in departmental administration, my work with the Association for Communication Administration, and through it my introduction to many persons whom I very much liked and certainly admired: Bob Jeffrey and Bob Hall, Edd Miller and Jim McGrath, most notably. During these years, too, I added to my membership in SCA and its regionals, memberships in several theatre associations. In all, I began to hold minor offices and to chair several committees. While at South Carolina, too, my personal life underwent a stunning reconfiguration. I left my husband of twenty-plus years, moved in with my current domestic partner (Kenneth Cameron, with whom I have now lived for thirty-plus years; no more marriage for me, thanks), bobbed my hair, and had some body parts removed.

After nine years, I left South Carolina to become chair of the Department of Communication Arts and Theatre at the University of Maryland, a sprawling, underfunded unit comprising three divisions, a faculty of about fifty, a graduate program of about one hundred fifty, and a whopping twelve hundred undergraduates. Soon after I arrived at Maryland, I was asked if I would accept nomination for the second vice presidency of SCA, and I quickly agreed. I had by then served as vice president of two national theatre associations, chair of the national Women in Theatre Program, a member of the board of directors of John Houseman's The Acting Company, and president of ACA. I had by then as well served SCA as chair of its theatre division; as a member of the legislative council two or three times, both elected and ex officio; on several editorial boards and committees, and as a member and then chair of the finance board, which brought with it membership on the administrative committee. I had also published some textbooks and had articles in the major SCA journals and the ACA journal as well as in various theatre outlets.

In truth, I was flattered to be asked to accept nomination for the presidency of SCA, and I thought that I might open a few more doors for women, just as doors had been opened for me. Perhaps as importantly, I liked the people I worked with in the Association, and I thought SCA was doing genuinely important work, to which I wanted to contribute whatever I could. I suppose, too, that I sensed (even if I could not articulate) the symbolic importance of having a woman president of this large professional organization: to see a woman leading a professional association suggests that women are an accepted and important part of both the profession and the association.

Probably I was elected because I was seen as someone who would try to open up the leadership in the Association and because I was perceived as someone who had worked hard

for SCA for several years. Almost certainly I would have been neither nominated nor elected had it not been for the women's movement, which was then at its most vigorous, both inside and outside SCA. That the election was very, very close suggests that many people had reservations about my holding this office, probably because as a theatre person I was far from the intellectual center of the Association and perhaps because I was a woman who would assume the presidency mostly because "those feminists," who were beginning to get noisy within SCA, wanted a woman president.

The other candidate was Will Linkugel of the University of Kansas. His research interests were closer to the intellectual center of the Association than were mine, and at the time he was doing some very interesting work on women's rhetoric with Karlyn Kohrs Campbell. On the other hand, he was less active within the Association and therefore less visible in the professional meetings of the Association. I had not known Professor Linkugel before our nominations, but during our visits to the four regional conventions, visits customary at the time, we sat together often, talked, and got acquainted. After the election, we seldom saw one another.

My vice presidential and presidential years unfolded oddly. When I was second vice president, the first vice president died. He was replaced by a highly respected person in the field, one who should have been, but who had never been, president, Wayne Brockriede. He too died unexpectedly. The result was that I served as president starting slightly before the convention in the year that I was first vice president and convention planner, serving the rest of that year and then the following, my own, year. My two presidential years were 1986 and 1987; I was forty-eight and forty-nine years old. Two other major challenges marked my presidencies: the Association was preparing to celebrate its fiftieth anniversary and the Association's long-time executive secretary, Bill Work, was preparing to retire. I needed to set in motion the mechanisms to forward both. I think I was much more successful in meeting the second than the first (others following me as president had much better ideas than I for celebrating our fiftieth), but by appointing the committee to search for Bill Work's successor and by naming Anita Taylor chair of that committee, I think I did my very best.

Throughout my vice presidencies and presidencies, I tried to bring more women and people of color into positions of responsibility and visibility. For example, when I planned the conventions, I appointed co-chairs for all major units, pairing a young and coming woman or minority with an active, senior professional. (Some of these pairings worked better than others, but in at least two instances my sub-rosa mentoring program seems to have born fruit.) Whenever I sat with groups to appoint committees, I tried to assure the presence of underrepresented groups. And I chose as the subject of my presidential address a defense of affirmative action as a tool for increasing diversity.

As should be clear from this recounting, until well into the 1970s I knew almost no academic or professional women. From the time I left Wellesley college through my years at South Carolina, I could count on one hand the number of female faculty with whom I came into contact and, on two, the number of female students with whom I shared classes. The dearth of women was partly because I was in the hard sciences for my undergraduate and one of my graduate degrees and because there was only one other women working on a

Ph.D. at Indiana while I was there (and no female faculty). When I joined Iowa's faculty, there were only two women faculty in the department—both in theatre, one a costumer and the other a vocal coach, clearly technicians rather than scholars.

I had just begun to work with women outside my department at Iowa when I moved to South Carolina and again found myself isolated from professional women: I was the only female chair in the college and one of only two or three in the university and so, echoing Yogi Berra, it was déjà vu all over again. I therefore gravitated to SCA as a place to meet and work with other professional women. My first convention was the year of Marie Hochmuth Nichols's presidency; my first feminist action was drafting the resolution to get the convention moved from states that had not ratified the ERA; this action brought me into contact with then president Jane Blakenship and with Anita Taylor, who led the floor fight to get the resolution passed by the legislative council. Both women quickly became my models of strong, thoughtful, and successful academic women.

SCA was also my first scholarly outlet, both through convention papers and publications. My scholarship tracked my faculty career in perhaps predictable ways. Heffner's influence led to a dissertation in dramatic theory and to my earliest articles—in dramatic theory and criticism, published in *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, *Communication Monographs*, *Central States Speech Journal*, and *Educational Theatre Journal*. Although I occasionally returned to such pieces later in my career, most of my later work tracked in three other areas: theatre education, academic administration, and women in theatre.

My assignment to teach Iowa's course in Drama and Western Culture (an introduction to the history of drama and theatre) caused me to rethink and experiment with ideas on how to engage students in large lecture courses, the results of which found publication in *Communication Education*.

My interest in theatre education continued and led to publications in regional theatre journals, *Communication Monographs*, *The Journal of Aesthetic Education*, and, most recently, an anthology compiled by two of my former doctoral students. Soon after publishing a high-school textbook for classes in speech and theatre, co-authored with a colleague from Iowa, I entered administration and began to publish regularly in the *Association of Communication Administration Bulletin*, 1975 through 1990 or so. Beginning in the mid-70s, my interest in women's issues grew and my scholarship followed. An article on feminist theatres of the 1960s and 70s, drawing on Karlyn Campbell's work on women rhetors, was a pioneering work in the field but, published first in *QJS*, which theatre people didn't read, became an important addition to theatre scholarship only after its reprinting in *Women in American Theatre*, an anthology; other articles on women in theatre, drama, and dramatic theory appeared off and on through the 1980s and 90s. Probably because my course assignments in South Carolina comprised mostly courses in theatre's history, I wrote with my partner an upper-level textbook: *Western Theatre: Revolution and Revival*, which used Thomas Kuhn as its theoretical underpinning. A year in Botswana on a Fulbright led to an interest in African theatre and drama, resulting in an article and, more importantly, in a rethinking of the nature of theatre, which caused major changes in parts of *The Enjoyment of Theatre*, an introductory text also co-authored with my partner. These patterns suggest, correctly, that my scholarship, like my life, shifted with my context but that certain questions persisted:

how best to educate theatre students, how to guide academic departments, and how to position women in art and culture.

My scholarship has explained parts of my life to myself. For example, as we now know from a large body of feminist scholarship, the category *woman* and the category *leader* have often been perceived as culturally at odds; that is, in the public mind, traits usually associated with the one have often contradicted traits usually associated with the other. My sense is that my personal traits locate me closer to the leader than to the woman end of this culturally accepted, but quite inaccurate, see-saw. Nonetheless, words like *efficient*, *resolute*, and *goal-directed* describe me better than words like *supportive*, *collaborative*, and *social*. My former husband once offered a telling rejoinder: When told by a member of the departmental faculty at South Carolina that he didn't much like me, my then-husband opined that the faculty member would need to wait his turn at the end of a very long line. I suppose my so-called management style is well captured by Max Eastman's description of the actor-director Ida Rauh, who, he said, "lack[s] the yielding and surrounding instinct so notably possessed by water and other liquids."

For better or worse, I have lived my life pursuing my own goals rather than goals deemed suitable for me by others. That I was free to do so, I now recognize though I did not for some time, came as much from my privileged background and my historical position within the movement for women's rights, as from my own talents and efforts. Because of that realization, I have come to a deep appreciation of the importance of history, especially women's history, and feminism to the lives of all women.

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**CHAPTER TWELVE:
Sharon Ratliffe
President,
Speech Communication
Association, 1995**



Born in 1939 in Dearborn, Michigan (a suburb of Detroit), I carry the label *depression baby*. I was the “apple of everyone’s eye” because I was an only child; I was even an only grandchild on my mother’s side until I was in my teens.

My mother had dropped out of high school when she was sixteen. Later, when I was a junior in high school, my high-school English/drama/speech teacher, Ruth Hunter, helped my mother enroll in a local community college, where she completed about twelve units with grades of A. Ruth Hunter also contacted the high school my mother attended as a youth, requesting a regular diploma for her. The diploma was granted. Although my mother did not continue her education, she changed from working in retail sales to being a bookkeeper for a hotel.

After graduating from high school in Dexter, Missouri, my father had gone to college on a football scholarship, intending to major in English; however, he quit after the first football season and did not return. Proud of the fact that he never missed a pay check during the depression, my father managed a grocery store and then took a position as security officer for General Motors, Cadillac Division, a position from which he retired.

I spent a good deal of time with my maternal grandparents throughout my youth. My grandfather retired from General Motors, Cadillac Division, where he designed and applied personalized monograms on cars for people throughout the world. With the advent of the assembly line, his creativity was replaced, and so he simply spray painted cars as they passed by on a conveyor. After retirement, he remodeled homes and built garages. My grandmother was a homemaker who excelled in bringing the out-of-doors to life with colorful plants and vegetables. Both were as eager to teach me their crafts as I was to learn them.

During my early years, I can remember looking forward to spending each weekend with these grandparents at their home, which they had built themselves. Both grandparents were eager to let me follow in their creative, artistic footsteps, teaching me any of their skills that I expressed an interest in learning. At a very early age, I became an expert gardener, thanks to my grandmother’s patience. My grandfather encouraged me to work at his side as he designed and built the garage and maintained the house. Often, the three of us would work side-by-side on projects, even before I started kindergarten. Because of my grandparents, I did not learn to differentiate work from play, and I did not distinguish between work for women and work for men. Work simply needed to be done.

My maternal grandparents were my first mentors. After they sold their home, they lived with our family for approximately five years, until I was in my teens. Then they bought a home that was a short walking distance from our home and remained an integral part of our immediate family. The monument to their efforts is a three-story house in the Tehachapi mountains in California that I built with Ruth Hunter, my former high-school mentor, who was now my colleague at Golden West College in Huntington Beach, California. Building the house was a seven-year project that will always require more finishing touches. I never thought to ask during the construction process whether I was capable of the effort. And, when others ask me how two women could ever have conceived of such a project, I usually respond with, "When applied, a Ph.D. can do wonders!"

In high school, my initial goal was to drop out as soon as I became sixteen years old. I was bored with learning from books. Ruth Hunter asked me to student-direct the high-school play. My first words were, "But I have never even seen a play; how can I direct one?" I liked my speech class so I agreed to try. I soon became hooked—and forgot to drop out. From directing this first play, I learned that putting on plays meant I could "build houses." I became excited about constructing scenery and lighting more plays. In fact, my grandfather got involved in helping me build a fireplace and ceiling for one play. I was very involved in the drama club throughout high school.

My experience in drama led to the expectation that I would submit my name to be a speaker at the high-school graduation ceremony. After all, Ruth Hunter not only directed plays, she was also in charge of graduation ceremonies. I can remember being the last of four student speakers. My message was brief, encouraging fellow graduates to strive beyond the ordinary; and, if their life's work ever felt like work, I suggested that they should look for a different occupation.

As a first-year student in college at Wayne State University—on a scholarship that Ruth and a counselor applied for and received for me—I lasted nine days before I quit. I went to work in a bank and soon learned that a life of shuffling credit references was probably as boring as sitting in a classroom. I learned early on that, for me, applied-learning situations in which I was physically involved and which had practical application were critical. I first learned this lesson when I was an apprentice to my grandparents while completing their chores and projects. Working with them led to a career of going to college part-time or full-time but always working full-time.

I completed a year and a half at Wayne State University in Detroit while continuing to work in a bank. Toward the end of this period, I traveled with Wayne State's forensic team to Western Michigan University to participate in a state contest in extemporaneous speaking. In fact, Judith Trent, who was enrolled at Western Michigan University and who became NCA President in 1997, competed with me in this contest. Judith finished first, and I came in second. I was impressed with Judith's ability and also with the comments given to me by the judge, who turned out to be Judith's coach, Deldee Herman. I was also taken with the beauty of the campus at Western.

The next fall, I promptly transferred to Western Michigan, where I became involved in theatre activities—acting, lighting, staging, costuming—because such laboratory work was an

integral part of the many required speech courses, all designed to produce majors who were generalists and who could develop sound speech programs in the secondary schools. Although I acted in one play, my major interest and main activities continued to be backstage—designing, building, and lighting stage sets.

I did not choose the discipline of speech; I fell into it. I started college expecting to prepare for a career backstage in the theatre, and so I took speech classes from Mrs. Elizabeth Youngjohn at Wayne State, who was the mentor of my high-school teacher Ruth Hunter. The environment was comfortable, and the most obvious thing to do with an accumulation of courses in speech was to add to them courses in English and then to teach. Without much serious consideration, I followed a common, established pattern.

As I came to the end of my bachelor's degree, however, I observed that my time and energy went into speech courses, not English courses. After all, the speech courses were applied and practical. I could be involved with my hands! When I started applying to graduate school, therefore, speech was my chosen field. I applied to Northwestern University and was awarded a fellowship in children's theatre. For one semester, I attended classes and worked with Professor Rita Criste in costuming plays that involved students at an Evanston junior high school.

After one successful semester, I returned to Dearborn, Michigan, to live with my parents and finish a master's degree at Wayne State University. My reasons for this move were complex; however, three reasons stand out: I did not feel that I was of an equal caliber with the other students in my classes at Northwestern—economically, socially, or intellectually. The students gave me no reason to react in this manner, and my grades were excellent. But because someone appreciated my abilities, I was offered the opportunity to teach full-time in a local junior high school, and I felt overwhelmed by the idea of teaching and continuing classes when I felt inferior to other students. Going home meant I could save money and go to Wayne State. I felt comfortable at Wayne because I had previously attended classes with students who had successfully earned graduate degrees while working full time. I believed that being at Wayne State would increase my chances of finishing a master's degree.

With a master's degree in hand, I was invited back to Western Michigan University to accept a teaching position. Ironically, and thankfully, my new office mate was Deldee Herman—Judith Trent's former debate coach and one of my mentors while I was an undergraduate student at Western. In January 2001, I was invited by her children to give a eulogy at Deldee Herman's funeral. The experience of writing the eulogy vividly reminded me that the theme of Deldee's professional life—"giving service to the profession"—had become my own theme. The experience also reminded me that the moment I decided to reverse my decision not to run for the presidency of SCA was when my mother looked me in the eye and said, "Well, I just want to know how you are going to explain to Deldee that you are refusing to run for president!" I taught at Western Michigan for eleven years and completed a Ph.D. at Wayne State while working full time at Western.

Throughout my teaching career, I consistently held a variety of service roles both within the colleges and universities in which I taught and within professional associations. Before the sequence of offices leading to the presidency of NCA, I served as member and one-year

chair of the educational policies board; chair of the instructional development division; chair of the community college section; editor of reviews for *The Speech Teacher*; and secretary of the elementary/secondary school interest group within the old structure of the Speech Association of America.

I served as president in 1995 at the age of 55. I was single. My perspective as president was to add no further projects but instead to examine, improve, and give members access to the governance process. As I look back, this focus on process had the result of opening the Association to two individuals who might not otherwise have served (e.g., a high-school teacher as chair of the finance board and a community-college teacher as chair of the research board, one who later became president). Orlando Taylor of Howard University credits the "access flavor" of my presidential speech as the reason he was elected in his second, successful bid to become president.

I suspect that my credibility problems as a leader within SCA, if any, were related to my passion for applied scholarship and to my position in a community college rather than a university during my term of office. I believe my strengths stemmed from an ability to include varied viewpoints and people of diverse backgrounds in my work. I had no university-wide administrative experience; I had served as assistant chair of the speech communication department at Ambassador College, Pasadena, and chair of the speech communication department and director of staff development at Golden West College. Although each of these was a faculty position, the position in staff development released me 100 percent from the classroom for a decade, and the administration, faculty, and support staff all treated me as though I were an administrator.

My connections with other women academics grew after I was elected. My mentors were primarily women academics. As Secretary General of the World Communication Association, I worked closely with Judy Pearson, who was its president at the time. This position and relationship paralleled my successful election with SCA. I had a host of mentors. As an only child of parents who did not complete college, I sought advisors as soon as I entered college, and being mentored became as much a way of life for me as did mentoring others.

Ruth Hunter, my high school speech teacher, was the first person I recognized as a mentor. As I now reflect, however, a third grade teacher, Judith Sandberg, functioned as a friend and my first mentor outside of my family. Deldee Herman, teacher and then colleague at Western Michigan University and long-time friend, was a second important mentor. Zack York, who chaired the speech department when I was a student at Western Michigan and who hired me as an instructor when I finished my M.A., was an important mentor and remained a close friend until his death in 2008. Dorothy Kester (deceased), who was director of children's theatre at Western and with whom I lived during my senior year, influenced me to begin an M.A. and become a graduate assistant in children's theatre at Northwestern, where she had received her doctorate. George Bohman, adviser for my master's and doctoral degrees at Wayne State, was a very close friend and mentor. Ed Pappas and Raymond Ross were on my master's and doctoral committees and served as close colleagues even more than as mentors because of our relationships through the Michigan Association of Speech Communication (MASC). In fact, the officers in MASC at all levels of education served as a

community of mentors and a professional family at one time or another, and MASC is still my Michigan home base.

I became an officer in SCA primarily because Deldee Herman, who taught Methods of Teaching Speech in the High School at Western Michigan, required *The Speech Teacher* as one of our texts for the course, and expected students to become involved in MASC and beyond. When I returned to Western as a faculty member, Deldee took me to national conventions and encouraged me to become active in state, regional, and national associations. This mental set, that "professionals give back to the profession," instilled by Deldee Herman, resulted in my saying, "Yes, I will place my name on the ballot" the morning after I had said, "Thank you for thinking of me; but, no, I would prefer not to run for NCA president." In all fairness, my mother and father were good friends with the Hermans, too. Had my parents not been visiting me from Florida at the time the call came, I might not have called back the next morning to reverse my decision. It was my mother who questioned my choice. I re-thought the choice, measuring it against the belief I hold and have tried to instill in my students: "Professionals give back to the profession." Consequently, Jim Applegate and I ran for the SCA presidency in 1992.

The week after we were named to the slate, Jim and I had a telephone conversation regarding our plans for campaigning. Having no intention of campaigning, I shared with Jim that I would attend only the one regional in the West, my usual pattern. Jim indicated that he would attend the two regional conferences at which he was delivering papers—Southern and Western. Although serving as president was an honor, I truly did not seek the role. When asked to run, however, I did feel committed, after some encouragement from family, to serve the profession in this manner. For me, then, the symbolic meaning of the presidency is the obligation to serve. While I enjoyed the experience immensely, I did the commitment more as an obligation than as a privilege or opportunity, and the obligation I felt was as much to my past mentors as to the field or to the Association.

In speculating about why I was elected, my first thoughts went to the words of the chair of the nominating committee, who reported that I had been nominated by several people. I can only assume that such calls came from both the central and western regions, where I spent the two halves of my career. Perhaps because I was professionally active in both regions I garnered a breadth of support. Maybe I gained support, too, because between Patti Gillespie's 1987 term and mine, men had been elected for eight consecutive terms. In addition, fourteen years had passed since Anita Taylor ran in 1981 as a candidate from a community college, and, although I had taught in three university settings, I was teaching at a community college at the time of the election. That I have a reputation for taking on work and following through in ways that are inclusive might also have influenced those who voted for me. I suspect I was elected, in large part, for each of these reasons.

My primary goal as president was to create new access to the organization. The annual meeting of the committee on committees was one setting in which I could realize this goal. Each year, I was instrumental in filling positions of board chair with what might be called nontraditional candidates—the high-school teacher for finance board, community-college instructor for research board, and an African American for finance board. When I chaired

the committee on committees in my presidential year, I was proud to report that we had an abundance of candidates to choose from for all positions. I believe this abundance resulted from my articles in *Spectra* that explained how to achieve access to positions of leadership within the Association. I think it also occurred because members saw that nontraditional candidates were, indeed, being named to key positions.

Whenever I had the opportunity to chair meetings, I tried to build consensus. I believe that we did not take votes during either of the administrative committee meetings or the committee on committees meetings that I chaired. I truly believe that one effect of making decisions by consensus is to confirm the equality of all participants. This practice encourages them to take advantage of their access to the decision-making process and to become responsibly involved. I have heard that some in the Association thought I was too successful in manifesting this belief into action.

My scholarship and research interests were primarily in the area of communication education and teacher preparation. My most significant contributions to scholarship and research in the discipline were in developing procedures for assessing communication skills for both native and non-native speakers of English, in developing laboratory settings for conducting such assessments by both trained peers and community volunteers, and in allowing both to proceed one-on-one. Publications directly related to these interests are identified in Selected Publications, below.

In rereading this piece, I find myself amazed at some of the contradictory descriptors that I used here to characterize myself: assertive, shy, sensitive, strong, bold, perceptive, objective, cautious, risk-taking, optimistic, creative, a follower, a leader, diligent, argumentative, and a peace-maker. To look through a rearview mirror at my professional life has been an interesting exercise. The pattern in my academic and professional career of replacing a lack of personal self-confidence with the confidence my mentors had in me is a powerful endorsement for the importance of the mentoring process. Finally, I find it very satisfying to know that probably Deldee Herman's most significant professional legacy is that Sharon Ratliffe and Judith Trent started in a teacher's college in a place called Kalamazoo and became two of the first dozen female presidents of what is now the National Communication Association. These developments seem so logical in hindsight.

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- . "Implementation." In *The Wingspread Conference in Communication Competencies*. Annandale, VA: National Communication Association. 1990.
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- Ratliffe, Sharon A., and D. D. Hudson. "A Description of a Student-Staffed, Competency-Based Laboratory for the Assessment of Interpersonal Communication Skills." ERIC ED 283-409. 1987.
- . "Involving Community Volunteers in a Competency-Based Program to Teach Speaking, Listening, and Pronunciation Skills to Non-Native Speakers of English." ERIC ED 282-410. 1987.
- . *Skill-Building for Interpersonal Competence*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1988.
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- , executive producers. "Public Speaking in Action." VHS. NY: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1991.
- Ratliffe, Sharon A., and M. A. Oberhaus, producers. "Professional Selling: A Relationship." VHS. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press, 1993.
- Hudson, D. D., and Sharon A. Ratliffe. "A Developmental Approach to Speaking and Listening Skills in the Multi-Cultural Classroom." ERIC ED 291-262. 1988.
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**CHAPTER THIRTEEN:
Judith S. Trent
President, National
Communication Association,
1997**



Born in a suburb of Grand Rapids, Michigan, I lived alone with my mother (although her parents lived only a few blocks away) until she remarried when I was in the sixth grade. It was a loving home, and my stepfather rapidly became my father.

My mother was the dominating influence in my pre-school childhood. She worked full time as the administrative secretary to the superintendent of the school I attended (our house was right next to the school). I stayed with my grandmother during the day, and, probably because life at my grandparents' could be boring, I learned to read when I was three. At four years, I had read the complete Bobsy Twins series of books, and, by the time I started kindergarten, my book reading had progressed to the Nancy Drew girl-detective series.

Education was a major value of my parents, especially my mother. Unlike my stepfather, who had had several years of college, my mother had never had the opportunity to go beyond high school, in spite of the fact that she was the valedictorian of her high-school graduating class. She grew up in the Depression and, after high school, had to work to help support her parents and younger siblings. From kindergarten through high school, I was expected to do well academically. And because during grade school my mother worked at the school and knew all of my teachers, she heard all the news about me (good or bad) before I even got home. Although I remember each of my grade-school teachers as good, fair, and competent women, none really stands out in my mind as having particularly influenced me. Throughout those years, I took the usual lessons (piano, voice, and dance) and was involved in the Bluebirds and Campfire Girls. I went to camp for several weeks in the summer, practiced my piano all year round, and was generally caught up in the activities of grade school. And I still devoured all the books I could find—by now having advanced to historical novels.

In junior high and high school, my activities expanded greatly. I tried cheerleading, liked it, stayed with it through high school, and served as captain of the squad my junior and senior years.

The really eventful part of junior high and high school was that I entered the world of communication—at that time known as speech. A social-studies teacher by the name of Charles Stone had the idea to put together a debate and forensics team. He selected eight seventh and eighth graders (seven males and me). Together we eventually became fairly respectable debaters and individual-event participants. We went to all of the local tournaments at other high schools and at the various colleges and universities in Michigan. As I recall, we pretty consistently won our league championships, and I also did well in

individual events, including declamation, original oratory, and extemporaneous speaking. By that time, Charles Stone had retired, and a man by the name of Blanton Craft took his place as the speech teacher, drama teacher, and debate coach. He did a great job and years later, after we both had Ph.D.s in the discipline, we were able to renew our friendship at Association meetings each year. I think he was pleased when I became its president.

Although in high school I participated in a variety of activities including the school plays, drama club, honor society, cheerleading, and student government, it was debate and forensic events that were most important. In fact, it was through forensic activities that I came into contact with another mentor, Deldee Herman from Western Michigan University. Deldee heard several of my high-school debates and recruited me to Western Michigan to debate for her on the women's debate team. Even in those years, separate women's and men's debate teams within one university were highly unusual. But, after meeting and talking with Deldee, I knew that it would be a wonderful opportunity, particularly as I had spent junior high and high school as the only female on the debate team.

So with a scholarship for tuition, fees, and books in hand, off I went to Western Michigan University (just fifty miles from my home) to major in speech and minor in English and history.

From the beginning, I loved the Department of Speech. Deldee was frequently somewhat exasperated with me, however, because I not only debated but also participated in original oratory, got involved in campus politics (I ran for president of the freshman class after having been at the university for two days), became an officer in the United Nations campus organization, became campus president and the regional vice president of College Young Republicans, and had roles in three or four theatre productions on campus. Something had to give, and so my junior and senior years I did not debate but continued in forensic individual events. Deldee was great about it, and she remained a mentor long after the time I graduated from Western Michigan.

Following graduation, I took a position at Belleville High School (a large consolidated school between Ann Arbor and Detroit, Michigan) teaching speech and English. There had been no debate or forensic program, but the superintendent was eager to get a program going. His encouragement and backing—especially in funding the activity—were phenomenal. He even purchased a station wagon for the school so that I could transport the debate team from tournament to tournament. Although the students in the district did not, by and large, come from families who were college educated, or who had, in fact, even heard of academic debate, by the end of the first year, more than twenty students were participating. By the second year, I was teaching only speech courses and coaching debate, and the debate and forensic programs became part of the community, with the students speaking regularly at the local service clubs and the service clubs sponsoring individual students to go to various university summer debate workshops around the country. We also put together some kind of public performance each year as a fundraiser for the speech and debate programs. The debaters presented a melodrama, and the individual-events students presented their declamations, readings, and orations. The superintendent, Harold Wetherall, was always in attendance at those events and was certainly in the audience the two years the debaters were

in the state finals. The year the students won the state debate championship was my last at Belleville. During those years I had been active in the Michigan speech communication and debate associations, and a number of university colleagues were telling me I should go on to graduate school.

I had become well acquainted with the faculty in the Department of Speech at the University of Michigan and so decided to accept their offer of an assistantship to serve as the coach of the debate team. I never regretted the decision and thought graduate school was one of the best things that had ever happened to me. There were no women on the faculty to serve as mentors, but the men, such as Howard Martin, Bruce Gronbeck, Kenneth Andersen, William Sattler, C. William Colburn, and William Donaghy were the best mentors a student could have.

Originally, I had intended to get a master's degree and return to high-school teaching. Everyone talked me out of my plan and helped me secure a generous fellowship from the Ford Foundation (Michigan's graduate school titled these the Rackam Prize Fellowships). I went ahead and received the Ph.D. in 1970.

I am, however, a bit ahead of my story, because in December 1969, the day following my comprehensive examinations, I married Jimmie D. Trent, who was at that time in the Speech Department at Wayne State University.

As I was finishing my dissertation and looking for a job, Jimmie and I came face-to-face with the problems confronting two-career couples in the 1970s. Several department heads in communication at major universities said they would hire either of us but not both of us. Finally, I took a position at Youngstown State University, and Jimmie stayed at Wayne State. Although I enjoyed my first year out of graduate school, it was abundantly clear that living apart during the week was not how we wanted to live. Subsequently, Jimmie took the chairmanship position in the Department of Communication at Miami University and I went to the University of Dayton in the Communication Arts Department. We established our home in Oxford (where Miami is located), and, in 1975, we adopted a six-year-old child.

The thirteen years I spent at the University of Dayton were rewarding. I moved up the professional ranks pretty much on schedule: I was the department's director of graduate studies, established and directed the first public-relations major within a communication department, served on a variety of college and university committees, continued research and writing in political communication, and worked part-time in the university's independent research institute.

During these years, I was actively involved in the Ohio Communication Association, the Central States Communication Association (CSCA), and the Speech Communication Association (SCA). In CSCA, I chaired the rhetoric and public address interest group, founded the women's caucus with Ellen Reid Gold, and served as president in 1982. One of my fondest memories of the CSCA was having the opportunity to plan the convention for the Association's fiftieth anniversary. During these years, I also served on a variety of SCA committees.

In 1983, I was selected to be an American Council on Higher Education Fellow in academic administration. It was (and is) a year-long program designed to provide a twelve-month educational program in university administration. I left the University of Dayton to

spend the 1983-84 academic year working with the president of the University of Cincinnati, Henry Winkler, an excellent administrator, a highly respected scholar, and a wonderful mentor. Before the year was over, it became clear that the University of Cincinnati was a good fit for me and, with the understanding of my Dayton mentors, I did not go back to the University of Dayton after my fellowship year was over.

I took the position of associate vice president for research and advanced studies and worked for a woman who became a friend and mentor. Eula Bingham was and is a highly respected toxicologist who served in President Jimmy Carter's administration as Director of the U.S. Occupational Safety and Health Administration.

Although I was heavily involved in my university job and in research and writing (during my first year at Cincinnati, the first edition of *Political Campaign Communication: Principles and Practices*, co-authored with Robert Friedenber, was published), I was also enmeshed in several SCA activities. I chaired the task force that later became the political communication division, chaired the public address division, chaired the Association's nominating committee, and served on and chaired a variety of award committees. A few years later, I was nominated and ran for second vice president. I lost the election and was unhappy because, as a student of political communication, I knew I had been out-campaigned. It is also true that I was one in a series of women who had lost and were to lose SCA presidential (that is, second-vice-presidential) elections.

In 1992, I was appointed to the Association's finance board, a three-year appointment that has, on occasion, served as a springboard to the presidency. I ran for second vice president while serving as chair of the finance board, and it was the first time in the Association's history that the two nominees were women. The other candidate, Martha Watson, was at the University of Maryland at the time, and we were and are good friends. In fact, as I became second vice president, Martha was appointed chair of the publications board, and we served on the Association's administrative committee together for three years.

Certainly, the nomination of two women to compete for the Association's presidency was noteworthy. It had not happened before and did not happen again until 2006 when two women again ran for second vice president.

I enjoyed the years as an officer because I saw those offices as opportunities to move the discipline forward. In fact, "Advancing the Discipline" was the slogan on the pins I gave to members during my trips as president in 1997. As second vice president, I appointed two task forces, one to examine and press for increased racial diversity in the discipline and the other to develop guidelines, materials, and procedures that could be used by communication departments to increase their visibility, credibility, and centrality within a college or university. Each task force made recommendations for Association actions that were put into place in the following two years.

As first vice president, I had the opportunity and challenge to serve as the primary planner for the 1996 annual convention. The convention was to be held in San Diego, but California's passage of Proposition 187 in 1995 (the so-called anti-immigrant initiative); the University of California's decision in 1995 not to use race, religion, sex, color, ethnicity, or national origin as criteria for admission; and the passage of Proposition 209 in 1996, which

banned preferential treatment of women and minorities in state employment and contracting, caused many NCA members to question whether we should hold our annual convention in California. In fact, in two consecutive meetings of the legislative council, the Association's leaders discussed pursuing a boycott of California. Finally, it was decided that SCA would go to San Diego, that a stance against California's undoing of policies designed to integrate and ensure equality for minorities and women would become part of the Association's policy, and that, as the primary convention planner, I would create a high-profile event on diversity and affirmative action for California.

With the help of other Association leaders, I put together the "silent march," a one-half mile walk from the Marriott Hotel and Marina to the Marina Park peninsula for the "lighting of the candles," a symbolic reaffirmation of SCA's commitment to diversity and multiculturalism that concluded with the "celebration," which featured six leading members of the Association who gave speeches of celebration and commitment. In addition to the diversity celebration, for the first time the convention included athletic events (the Association's first tennis and golf tournaments), special programs and events sponsored by textbook publishers, and a prime-time series of seventeen programs called "At The Helm" that featured some of the discipline's most distinguished scholars. The papers from the seventeen programs became a book that I edited, which was published by Allyn and Bacon as *Communication: Views From the Helm For the Twenty-First Century* and distributed at the 1997 NCA Convention.

As president, I hoped to advance at least five items—and to the largest extent they were the reason I had agreed to run for the presidency a second time. These goals included gaining a positive vote of the membership to change the Association's name from Speech Communication Association to National Communication Association, gaining acceptance into the American Council of Learned Societies, revitalizing the relationship of the discipline's doctoral programs with NCA, bringing back the doctoral honor seminars, and focusing the Association's summer conference on racial and ethnic diversity. Each came to fruition during my presidential year.

I find it difficult to provide self-descriptors because, without the context of specific situations, they can seem contradictory. But here goes: high-energy level, self-starter, task-oriented, emotional and sentimental, efficient, responsible, impatient, honest, loyal, strong work ethic, likely to take charge if things begin moving slowly or there seem to be no goals and objectives, and non-confrontational unless pressed.

As noted earlier, I enjoyed the offices I held in the Association. I believe that my years of experience in upper-level university administration increased my understanding of leadership. I realized the importance of following projects through to their completion and acquired some skill in talking good and competent people into taking on tasks they might otherwise not have undertaken.

When describing my years working with disciplinary associations as well as the years spent in academic administration, I failed to address the area of academic life that has been of singular importance to me—my research and scholarship. Beginning with the first quarter in graduate school, I knew that the focus of my research would be communication and elective

politics—especially presidential politics (the area of research and scholarship now known as political communication had not yet been defined). And while over the years I have authored, co-authored, or edited books and book chapters, academic journal articles, and zillions of conference papers, some have made more important contributions than others. I believe that my most important contributions have been the analysis of the rhetorical advantages of challengers in political campaigns (originating with a journal article that was co-authored with Jimmie D. Trent). In another journal article, I defined and described surfacing (the first stage in political election campaigns). In addition, I have co-authored articles published in the *American Behavioral Scientist* that analyzed the results of New Hampshire field study research on the characteristics of the ideal presidential candidate from 1988 through the 2008 presidential primary. In my mind, the other most important scholarly contribution has been the book *Political Campaign Communication: Principles and Practices*, which is co-authored with Robert V. Friedenberg, and which, in 2007, entered its sixth edition. *Political Campaign Communication* made a difference because it was the first book-length study of election campaigns that utilized the principles and practices of communication to examine elective politics.

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CHAPTER PART FOUR:
Reading Between The Lines



The six still-living female presidents of SCA/NCA at the annual convention in Chicago, November 1999, following a program about the first five female presidents. Left to right in the front row are Drs. Judith Trent, Sharon Ratliffe, and Patti Gillespie. Back row, L to R, are Drs. Beverly Whitaker Long Chapin, Anita Taylor, and Jane Blankenship.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN: Reading Between the Lines

Patti P. Gillespie and Janette Kenner Muir

Each of the eleven lives sketched in this book offers a unique story of a professional woman who was a leader within her professional Association. But the stories of the eleven women taken together hint at more, for there are patterns to suggest a collective story of women's leadership within NCA and beyond.

The personal lives of the women showed clear patterns. All of the eleven were uncommon women for the times in which they lived: They all had advanced degrees and professional careers in the academy. All of the eleven women were white, and all were from the middle class, although both the richer and poorer ends of it were represented. Six of the eleven were only children; others had one or only two siblings. Education was important to all, with reading singled out by several as their window to a world beyond their family and community. Nearly half of the women never married; only one bore a child.

Their paths to the discipline and the presidency could be glimpsed through the stories. Several mentioned stumbling into the discipline rather than choosing it, entering speech only after trying out another major or even an undergraduate degree in another field. Debate, forensics, and theatre were important co-curricular activities for the women—in high school, college, or both. Several entered the field as debate, forensics, or theatre directors. All published. All were leaders in the Association before their presidencies, serving as division and caucus heads and chairs of major boards such as finance, research, or educational policy. Most were campus leaders as well as Association leaders, serving as deans, department and division chairs, and directors of forensics and graduate studies, in some combination.

Their election and service in the presidency revealed other patterns. The presidents through Hahn were all single nominees whose nomination was then ratified at the convention. Thereafter, all women presidents ran against and defeated male candidates until 1995, when Judith Trent faced another female candidate. The women, with the notable exceptions of Nichols, Blankenship, and Trent, either were, or considered themselves to be, outside the center of the Association—*e.g.*, Babcock and Gillespie in theatre, Ratliffe and Taylor in community colleges. Many served during times of change, or even crisis: redefinitions of the discipline, personnel problems, financial threats. Significantly, beginning with Blankenship (1978), all cited as a major goal the opening up the Association, especially the leadership of the Association, to previously underrepresented groups.

But there were some differences between the first five women presidents and the last six: The first three women attended women's colleges in the east—Smith, Wells, Trinity; thereafter only Gillespie made such a choice, and then not to a degree. Later women tended instead to cluster in universities—UCLA, Pittsburgh, Wayne State, Western Michigan, although small

colleges attracted one or two. Among the early group, two did not hold doctorates, whereas all the later women did. As well, marriage patterns differed noticeably. Three of the first five women never married; only two of the six later women never married, but among those who did marry, the phrase *married woman* was considerably inflected by late marriage, early widowhood, divorce, or atypical living arrangements.

Finally, the stories suggest traits shared by all eleven women, although admittedly the links are more certain with the later women than the earlier, where incomplete and uneven evidence continues to thwart confident comparisons. All eleven women had an unusually strong commitment to students, both in and out of the classroom. All seemed willing to take risks, in both their personal and their professional lives. All seemed aware of some of the privileges that marked their lives—privileges of family life, of wealth, of education, of mentors and role models, of the historical moment. All seemed infused with optimism; they felt good about their lives, their discipline, and their Association. All seemed to embrace diversity—of opinion, specialty, individual differences, and (later) race, class, gender, and (later still) sexual orientation.

What conclusions might be confidently drawn from such observable patterns?

First, these were all women of privilege. They were born white. They lived middle-class lives but managed to escape the rigid sex roles that dominated middle-class America during their time, perhaps because they grew up in supportive family environments where parents and often grandparents encouraged their *daughters* to attend college. As only children or as one of a small number of children, they were the focus of the family's resources, financial and emotional.

Second, each of these women allowed serendipity its say in her life. None suffered from tunnel vision, seeing only what they expected, or were expected, to see. Indeed, each seemed to embody Mary Catherine Bateson's notion of life as an "improvisatory art" that follows "an unspoken grammar and an evolving aesthetic" and that allows free responses to new situations and challenges.¹ For example, two earned their undergraduate degrees in science, others in business, sociology, English. Several came to graduate studies in communication mostly because an assistantship opened up there when they were ready to change direction in their lives. Not only did several enter the field in unconventional ways, but, once in the field, they seldom stayed at its center: one was drawn to applied research, another to clinical work with children, another to university-wide administration, and so on. Many entered the presidency in equally unconventional ways: one nominated herself and fought to be included on the ballot; another, when nominated, asked for advice and, when everyone advised "no," she did it anyway; another, when nominated, said "no" and then changed it to "yes" overnight. One worked mostly with children; another corresponded with foreign leaders. What they all shared was their willingness to give chance a chance. They all seized opportunities whenever opportunities presented themselves. That they could do so attested to their general competence and preparation—and their willingness to take risks.

Third, the trajectories of these women's professional lives follow in general outline the directions pointed by earlier research. For example, a disproportionate number among these

eleven women were only children and older children, characteristics located in earlier studies of successful people.² Other such examples will emerge during the course of the discussion that follows.

Fourth, the professional lives of these eleven women were strongly influenced by male mentors, teachers, and traits. Babcock regularly identified herself as a student of Alfred Ayers and wrote mostly of his influence. Hahn's husband ushered her into the profession. Taylor, Long, Gillespie, and Trent all cited specific men who had served as mentors or role models. Not just specific men but also male-identified behaviors influenced several of these women. Taylor spoke of farm work as producing a kind of androgyny; Ratliffe told of family jobs to be done without reference to the gender of the doer; and Gillespie placed herself more on the masculine than the feminine side of stereotypically gendered behaviors. Such tendencies toward male mentors and masculine traits confirm other research findings that success aligns with male-identified traits. In one study, for example, as income increases (an index of success) stereotypically male behaviors (*e.g.*, competitiveness, assertiveness, and individualism) increase while stereotypically female behaviors (*e.g.*, being nice, kind, and sympathetic) decrease.³

Fifth, these women, extraordinary though they were, were clearly products of the times in which they lived.

They followed shifting patterns with respect to marriage, for example. The early women presidents, like many early feminists, did not marry. Among the first four, only Hahn ever married, and she was widowed as a young wife when her husband died during World War II. The fifth, Hochmuth Nichols, did not marry until she was in her fifties, after her academic career was well established. Beginning in the 1970s, most of the presidents married (only two never married), but one married only after establishing a solid career, and two remarked specifically on the nontraditional nature of their marriages. Even the marriage that followed the most traditional trajectory, that of the last president of the twentieth century, Judith Trent, was for a time a commuting marriage, a powerful sign that American society still organized itself for one breadwinner and one stay-at-home spouse in a family. And throughout the twentieth century, many people in committed relationships were not allowed, by law, to marry. Significantly, as we will see, women presidents early in the first decade of the twenty-first century seem to differ little from the general population with respect to marriage.

Perhaps even more telling, of the twentieth-century women presidents, only Hahn bore children (although Taylor gained non-resident children through marriage and Trent adopted). Had these twentieth-century women presidents comprised a typical group of American women during these years, they would have produced between and twenty and twenty-two children, rather than one. Stated another way, these eleven women bore only .09 child per woman rather than the 2.0 to 2.2 children per woman that comprised the average during the twentieth century in the United States.⁴ With respect to both marriage and children, then, these twentieth-century women presidents seem to have faced hard-edged choices—to have a career *or* a marriage, to have a career *or* children. And they mostly chose careers. Significantly, ten years into the twenty-first century, the early dichotomous choice seems to have softened, with a career, a marriage, and children able to coexist: *both/and* had replaced *either/or*.

Nowhere is the relationship between the times and an individual president's life clearer than in the case of Marie Hochmuth Nichols. She was a pivotal figure, a hinge that linked the early Association with the later, the early women presidents with the later. Her career unfolded as Richard Nixon's "silent majority" grew restless, the civil rights movement gained power, and the women's liberation movement appeared. Her election and presidency unfolded during the political and social turbulence of the late 1960s, a turbulence that spilled over into the Association as "the discipline, still deeply rooted in the past, moved somewhat unsteadily into the future. . . ."⁵ She was the first woman to edit the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, the first woman president to be elected by a vote of the membership. At the time of her election, she was a well-known scholar, a faculty member at a Big Ten university, and a woman who did not feel herself discriminated against; plus, no woman had served as the Association's president for about ten years. As the public reaction to her presidential speech showed, however, neither she nor her ideas nor her presidency were embraced by all members of the Association. Part of her problem was that events threatened to overtake her by redefining the values on which she had based her life: scholarship was being re-envisioned, research universities were under attack, and a large body of women within the Association most definitely felt themselves discriminated against (a position that she had apparently embraced by 1973).

A truly extraordinary woman, a giant in the field, a prodigious intellect, Marie Hochmuth Nichols seemed to embody that common proposition—expressed as a complaint of early feminists—that only a truly exceptional woman, a woman like Marie Hochmuth Nichols, could attain professional distinction. But by the late 1960s feminists were arguing that quite unexceptional men succeeded all the time and that to end discrimination against women meant making it possible for as many ordinary women as ordinary men to succeed. Using that test, Marie Hochmuth Nichols offered no proof that discrimination against women had ended.

But her presidency was especially valuable for women in 1969, unfolding as it did just at the beginning of second-wave feminism. There was great symbolic power in her presidency, for her physical presence embodied proof that a woman could be president of the Association. (Before Hochmuth Nichols, the most recent female president had been Hahn in 1958; therefore, those entering the profession in the 1960s had never seen a woman lead the Association.) But her presidency was more than symbolic. She confronted, in publications and speeches, the contentious issues of contemporary culture and rhetoric's responsibility to that culture. Her willingness to attack popular ideas showed courage, and her authoritative voice assured that men as well as women would attend to her reasoned arguments. Through Hochmuth Nichols it could be seen that traits like intelligence, courage, and strength belonged to women as well as men, another valuable lesson for those recently captured by the ideas of second-wave feminism.

Sixth, a closely related but still separable conclusion: Women, when organized, can bring about change—that is, feminism works. The waxing and waning of feminism, of course, shows that these presidents were influenced by the times in which they lived. But it shows, perhaps even more importantly, that the health of feminism had an impact on women's acceptance in the Association. An admittedly crude tracking of the women presidents of the twentieth century points to the power of this conclusion. At the time of the Association's founding, women in the United States did not have the right to vote. With suffrage came new social

roles for women in the 1920s and especially the 1930s, when the Association's first two female presidents appeared. Shortly thereafter, the fervor that accompanied suffrage dissipated as the country's attention turned to a devastating, decade-long economic depression and then a series of wars, beginning with World War II and ending with Vietnam. During those decades, the Association established a pattern of a once-a-decade woman president. When second-wave feminism peaked in the late 1970 and early 1980s, the Association members voted in four women presidents, two of them serving back to back.* When the backlash against feminism hit, following the Reagan revolution and the emergence of rightwing talk radio in the mid and late 1980s, the Association responded with nearly a decade without a woman president.

But second-wave feminism had laid a foundation that produced perhaps irreversible effects in the Association. It increased the number of women in the profession and in the Association, and it established groups within the Association both to encourage research into sex and gender and to press for changes that would benefit women. Such changes increased women's influence within the Association. For example, following several elections that pitted a woman against a man for the presidency (where the woman lost), the nominating committee in the mid-1990s nominated two women, assuring another woman president before century's end. It seems clear in retrospect that the appearance of two women presidents back to back in the 1980s and the nomination of two women to run against one another in the 1990s signaled a strong move toward the normalization of women presidents within the Association. Indeed, it might be argued that the combination of Hochmuth Nichols's presidency and second-wave feminism enabled the unusually large number of female presidents who appeared in the late 1970s and 80s.

Seventh, these women's lives remind us how complicated names can become for professional women. Women who remain single (e.g., Maud May Babcock, Mary Yost) face no difficulty. But women who marry must make decisions about their identity, as signaled by their name. As we have seen, some (most? all?) married women publishing in the earliest journals chose to identify themselves through their husbands, identifying themselves either using their husband's both first and last name (e.g., Mrs. Charles M. Holt) or his last name only (e.g., Mrs. Alice M. MacLeod). Marie Hochmuth, marrying late, became Marie Hochmuth Nichols for the rest of her career.

Even among the later presidents, naming remained a negotiation of sorts. Beverly Whitaker had a well-established career under that name before she married; thereafter she became Beverly Whitaker Long, keeping the birth name visible so that her earlier contributions would not become disassociated from her. When she remarried after she was widowed, she adopted Beverly Long Chapin professionally, calculating that by this time, people knew her as Beverly Long. Patti Gillespie had the reverse challenge and made a

*Two women presidents—Long and Gillespie—served back to back in 1985, 1986. They were not elected back to back, for Don Ecroyd won election between them. When he died and was replaced by Brockreide, who also died, Gillespie assumed the presidency, serving Ecroyd's remaining term and then her own, 1987.

different decision. She married early and so began publishing under her married name, Patti P. Gillespie (the middle initial pointing to her birth name). When she divorced, she judged that her career was too far along to change her name and so she retained her ex-husband's name throughout her career. Let such relatively recent experiences alert young women entering their professions to give some thought to the names by which they choose to identify themselves.

Finally, the stories suggest a series of conclusions about women leaders and women's leadership more generally.⁶ "A leader is someone who has followers"; by that definition, these eleven women were certainly leaders.⁷ Leadership is "a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective steps to realize . . . [that] potential"; it is "authentic self expression that creates value"; it is simply "influence."⁸ By any of these definitions, these eleven women exercised leadership. Through their stories we see a growing acceptance of female leadership within the Association during the twentieth century, peaking between 1980 and 2000.

But how did their leadership become acceptable?

Accounting for this development cannot be certain, but at least three strong possible explanations suggest themselves. First, the number of women in the discipline increased significantly. For example, the number of Ph.D.s issued in speech roughly doubled between 1980 and 2000, with an increased proportion of the degrees awarded to women, so that, by 2000, about half of the Ph.D.s awarded went to women.⁹ During roughly the same period, the number of women in speech communication at ranks above entry level also doubled, from 364 to 772.¹⁰ These figures make clear, then, that the pool from which female candidates could be drawn grew significantly, and so did the number of female voters, who might be expected to support female candidates disproportionately. Second, the move from selection to election of Association presidents may have eased the way for women; that is, the full membership of the Association may have been more willing to elect a woman president than the Association's leadership (mostly male) was to select one. Third, the increasing numbers and so the visibility of women within the Association may have itself suggested—to some men as well as women—that women's leadership was acceptable, or, more progressively, was desirable. Alternatively, opposition to female leadership may have declined as those either unalterably opposed to women leaders or unable to envision women-as-leaders lost influence within the Association. In this regard, an observation by the physicist Max Planck may be relevant. Planck observed, "A new scientific truth does not triumph by convincing its opponents and making them see the light, but because rather its opponents generally die out and a new generation grows up that is familiar with it."¹¹ Perhaps acceptance in science and in associations happens the same way.

How did the environment of the Association enable the emerging acceptance of women's leadership?

Several of the eleven women presidents noted that their environment within the Association was more satisfying than the one in their own colleges or universities. We know

from other studies, too, that women's leadership within professional associations is more acceptable than women's leadership within the academy, which remains resistant in many ways.¹² We know, for example, that as late as 2000, advancement for women in the academy was slower than advancement for men—women still earned less, were significantly underrepresented at top-tier institutions, and received fewer national awards.¹³ Inasmuch as other research has proposed that association environments are, in general, more hospitable than academic ones, we can probably safely assume then that in communication, as in other disciplines, the Association was more welcoming to women than was their home institution.

Evidence suggests that our Association was an especially welcoming environment during the last two decades of the century. The argument is through indirection. One study proposed that the climate for female faculty members in communication improved in their host institutions during the century's last twenty years. The evidence for this proposition was that, in the 1980s, more than two-thirds of women faculty polled said that their departmental and university colleagues rarely sought their advice; by 2000, more than nine in ten said that such colleagues did seek their advice.¹⁴ If such a change was happening within communication units in the academy, which remains relatively inhospitable to women, then change within the Association was likely even more profound. It seems reasonable to suggest, then, that women leaders seeking outlets for their ambition might choose the Association over the university. At least one scholar has argued that women do not lead organizations the environment of which seems unsympathetic to them. It is probably significant, therefore, that none of the eleven women presidents of this Association was a president or vice president or provost of her university (one was an associate vice president). Yet many of these eleven women were presidents not only of this Association but also presidents and vice presidents of other professional associations. Such a contrast suggests a path for young women scholars seeking acceptance and recognition—and such a condition speaks well for the inclusiveness of our Association.

Finally, how did the leadership strategies of these eleven women compare with scholarly models of leadership?

Rosabeth Moss Kanter, a specialist in women's leadership, proposed that the organization that a leader creates is more important than the leader *per se*; such organizations, she said, avoid the dangers of the "heroic leader" by putting the decisions back down in the field, by "lower[ing] the center of gravity." For Kanter, good leaders are people who can shape good organizations, can create environments where others can both learn to lead and lead. Empowering people and enabling leaders are essential, she said, because "powerlessness corrupts," causing the powerless to "become passive" and to "stop taking risks."¹⁵

Judged by Kanter's criteria, the women presidents of the twentieth century of NCA would seem to model good leadership. The last six women presidents explicitly set as a goal of their presidency the opening up of the leadership of the Association; they tried to effect such changes through some combination of the bully pulpit, appointments to committees, and task forces charged with implementing changes. Whether because of training in leadership or

(more likely) personal experience, these women set about to create a more diverse organization, to change the nature of the organization in ways that would empower those who considered themselves (and were often treated by the Association as) powerless.

The five early presidents did not address issues of leadership directly, so far as we know, but we can infer that they too were committed to working with groups not in power. For example, all showed uncommonly strong commitments to students: Kramer helped a long-absent student make up work and get a first job; Hahn taught students “how to be professionals” and “who to know”; Babcock challenged them with vigorous exercise and Nichols with ideas. Babcock even opened a home for girls. Several, too, shifted the attention of the Association toward working with teachers: Prentiss sought better training for prospective teachers of speech; Kramer published essays about speech in journals of education; Hahn set up speech clinics to help children and to educate students to help children. The early presidents, then, sought to promote students’ success, to help troubled girls, and to improve teaching. Such priorities suggest that the first five presidents, like the last six, would concentrate more on shaping an Association than on accruing personal power.

Kanter offered another insight relevant to this discussion: she argued that good leadership was especially important when organizations were under stress; when times are good, she said, almost anybody can lead.¹⁶ It is probably significant, then, that most of the eleven women led the Association during times of high pressure, crisis, or imminent change: Prentiss and Nichols during times of social turmoil and (re)definitions of the field; Kramer and Hahn while new constitutions were being written or implemented; Blankenship and Long during financial crises; Prentiss, Blankenship, and Trent when circumstances threatened to derail conventions; and Gillespie when the unexpected deaths of the elected first vice president and then his appointed replacement brought her early to the presidency. That these women were leading the Association during often tumultuous times and that they seemed to embody the traits that Kanter associated with successful leadership strongly suggest that they were good leaders, that they adopted suitable leadership strategies.

We opened this volume with the story of the Cherokee men asking, “Where are the women?” This book was itself a partial answer to their question. But it was only a partial answer. Many details of these women’s lives remain to be discovered, exhumed from archives, and recorded from the memories of their still-living students. Yet even now, this volume could provide data for a number of useful comparative studies. How do the experiences of women leaders of NCA compare with those of women leaders in other professional associations? Or, how do the professional lives of these women compare with those of women leaders in business? in government? in educational institutions? Such studies might lead to different or stronger conclusions about women leaders and women’s leadership. Or, how do the professional lives of these women compare with those of the male presidents of NCA? Such a study might help us understand better the different pathways to leadership open to women and men, or their different styles of leadership. Thinking in a different way, the stories in this volume might provide the bases for performances of several sorts. Any one of

the stories could ground a one-woman theatre piece. Several combinations of stories could offer group performances—to introduce women to their foremothers, to introduce the Association to the varied research in the field, or to capture the contrasting styles and personalities of the women presidents. Any such piece—or any number of other possible performances drawn from the material—might form part of the celebration of the Association’s one-hundredth anniversary. Or thinking differently yet again, this volume might be useful in pointing a direction for similar kinds of studies. There are, for example, studies of other NCA members and groups that need to be undertaken. Untold yet are the stories of important groups within the Association. What is the history of the theatre division, and how did it come to remain in NCA after a separate theatre association was formed? other divisions? What contributions has the Black Caucus made to NCA? other caucuses? How has the Association responded to issues raised by these groups? How have the various awards served the Association and its members? This volume included the names of women who were leaders in the early Association, but these women are now forgotten. Who were they? What were their contributions? These and other hidden histories, once excavated, can enrich the Association’s twentieth-century history and enable other useful comparative studies. In sum, there is much work to be done, much needed research beckoning to those younger in the field than we.

Having begun this volume with a story, we end with a different one, as recounted by Amy Tan in *The Joy Luck Club*. When her mother dies, a young Chinese woman is encouraged to return to China to tell her stepsisters about the mother they shared.

“You must see your sisters and tell them about your mother’s death,” says Auntie Ying. “But most important you must tell them about her life. The mother they did not know, they must now know. . . .”

“Tell them stories of your family here. How she became success,” offers Auntie Lin.

“Tell them stories she told you, lessons she taught, what you know about her mind that has become your mind,” says Auntie Yin. “Your mother very smart lady.”

I hear more choruses of “Tell them, tell them,” as each auntie frantically tries to think what should be passed on. . . .

“I will tell them everything,” I say simply, and the aunties look at me with doubtful faces.

“I will remember everything about her and tell them,” I say more firmly. . . . What more can they ask? What more can I promise?”

We too promised—a beginning. There is much more to be told.

AFTERWORD:
Looking Forward by Looking Back

By Judy C. Pearson

President, National Communication Association, 2000

*Today's women
Born yesterday
Dealing with tomorrow
Not yet where we're going
But not still where we were.
Adrienne Rich*

Alan Kay observed, "The best way to predict the future is to invent it."¹ As we read the stories of the women presidents of the now National Communication Association over the past century, we learn that these women did not wait for events to unfold. They invented the future. Today we can learn about their lives, and we have the advantage of hindsight in that we can now observe patterns and detect differences. When these former presidents were living their lives, they had few role models and they learned lessons largely on their own. They were truly pioneers. In the last chapter, we learned about some of the characteristics of the women of the twentieth century.

What has happened in the beginning of the twenty-first century? I had the privilege of serving as the first woman president of the National Communication Association in the twenty-first century (six years after Judith Trent). In the early days of the twenty-first century, we have already seen similarities and changes in the women who occupy the officer roles. Most important, we have witnessed the unprecedented election of three women in a row to the presidency: Pearson was elected in 2000; Isa Engleberg was elected in 2001; Martha Solomon Watson was elected in 2002. In 2006, two women ran against each other and Betsy Bach was elected. Similarly, in 2007, two women ran against each other and Dawn Braithwaite won. Finally, 2008 found two women again running, and Lynn Turner was elected. Consequently, once more three women will again succeed one another in the presidency.

Women—at least white women—will, it appears, have more opportunities to run for the office of president of the National Communication Association in the future than they have had in the past. Such women will no longer need to wait a decade or more until they see another woman in office. Indeed, in the first decade of the twenty-first century NCA will have enjoyed women in the presidency five times, or 50 percent of the time. Although many of the earlier presidents ran in unconventional ways and sometimes without opponents, all five of the women of the twenty-first century ran the now-traditional way: Nominations came from the nominating committee, and the membership elected the president.

After the three women in a row—Pearson, Engleberg, and Watson—three men won the NCA presidency: H. Dan O’Hair was president in 2006, J. Michael Sproule occupied that position in 2007, and Arthur P. Bochner followed in 2008. But this trend did not continue, for Betsy Wackernagel Bach, Dawn Braithwaite, and Lynn Turner succeeded those three men.

What else can we learn from the most recently elected women of the twenty-first century? All of these women, like those of the twentieth century, are also white and middle class. The doctoral degrees of these women, like their immediate predecessors, are from Big Ten and related schools. Their research interests, too, mostly mirror the most recent six presidents and include interpersonal communication, rhetorical theory and criticism, and instructional communication. They too have provided the discipline with important discoveries and have reported them in research articles and books. Many of them have served in administrative roles at their respective colleges and universities.

The women of the twenty-first century, like their predecessors, have served in times of Association or disciplinary change. NCA experienced a serious fire in Annandale, Virginia, and then moved from the Annandale offices to downtown Washington, D. C., during the years of these women’s presidencies. The executive director of long-standing resigned during these women’s terms of office. The Association’s constitution and by-laws were modified, as well, allowing a greater number of people to serve in the governance of the Association.

One new trend is that all of the women presidents of the twenty-first century are married or have been married. And like the married women presidents of the twentieth century, the women of the first decade of the twenty-first have made different choices about their last names. Like Gillespie, Pearson kept her first husband’s name. Engelberg kept her original family name. Watson changed her name with each of her two marriages while Braithwaite and Bach each took their husbands’ names. Three of the five of us have children. While the six children of Paul Nelson and me raise the bar (and the average number of children per woman), Watson has two daughters, Bach has one son, and Turner one daughter.

What does the future hold for women presidents in the National Communication Association? The election of white women now begins to seem routine. Women—at least white women—will now probably run frequently and be elected regularly. The time of viewing such women presidents as unusual or noteworthy seems to be past. They have successfully entered into the leadership roles, and they are well integrated into the governance of the Association. Perhaps the twenty-first century will see the first women of color elected to the Association’s presidency.

The women who have served the Association are extraordinary women. Their dedication to the discipline, their energy, and their leadership skills set the standard for those who wish to seek office. Women will have many more opportunities to serve, and this book informs the process. The women of the twentieth century understood what Arthur C. Clarke articulated: “The only way to discover the limits of the possible is to go beyond them into the impossible.”² For young white women entering the profession and the discipline today, aspiring to the presidency of the National Communication Association is not an impossibility or even an improbability. The accomplishments of the women who have gone before have created an avenue for them. The accomplishment of the impossible now opens professional doors and, we hope, new possibilities for *all* women in the discipline.

Changing Names of Communication’s Professional Association

1914	National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking
1918*	National Association of Teachers of Speech*
1923*	
1946	Speech Association of America
1970	Speech Communication Association
1997	National Communication Association

²There is a discrepancy in the records. According to the papers of James O’Neill, the Association’s first president, the date was 1918, a date supported by a collection held in the library of the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater. But William Work and Robert Jeffrey, early executive directors, reported that World War I caused the cancellation of the 1918 convention and so the name change was not voted on until 1922, taking effect in 1923. For further discussion, see p. 18 and endnote 11, p. 141. Donald Bryant, in a boxed insert published in *Spectra* 6,1 (August 1970), seems to agree with the 1922 date, but he provides an incorrect name for the earliest Association, so we don’t consider the matter settled.

List of Twentieth-Century Women Presidents

Henrietta Prentiss (1876-1940)	1932
Maud May Babcock (1867-1954)	1936
Magdalene Kramer (1898-1978)	1947
Elise Hahn (1911-1995)	1958
Marie Hochmuth Nichols (1908-1978)	1969
Jane Blankenship (1934-)	1975
Anita Taylor (1935-)	1981
Beverly Whitaker Long (1936-)	1985
Patti P. Gillespie (1938-)	1986, 1987
Sharon Ratliffe (1939-)	1995
Judith S. Trent (1940-)	1997

Questionnaire Guiding the Presidential Essays

1. What was your placement in your family?
2. What was your parents' education?
3. Who or what influenced you in your youth?
4. What high school and college groups did you participate in?
5. What early performance experiences did you have?
6. Who or what influenced you late in life?
7. How did you choose our discipline?
8. What are your most important self-descriptors?
9. What offices did you hold in SCA/NCA before the presidency?
10. What were your special projects and individual goals during the presidency?
11. What was your age at the time of your presidential year?
12. What was your marital status during your presidential year?
13. What were your credibility problems, if any, as a leader within SCA/NCA?
14. What were your perceived strengths?
15. What was your university administrative experience?
16. What connections did you have with other women academics?
17. Who were your mentors?
18. What pathways led to your becoming an NCA officer?
19. Who were the other candidates when you were selected as a nominee, and how did that affect the nomination? the election?
20. Why did you decide to become a candidate for NCA president?
21. What do you see as the symbolic meaning of the presidency?
22. What did you intend to try to do as a president? How did you go about the task of accomplishing your goals?
23. How would you describe your scholarship and research interests? What do you consider your most outstanding contributions to the scholarship or research of the discipline?

Second-Vice-President Nominees, as reported in *Spectra*.

Women's names are in bold.

- 1956 - John Dietrich (elected), T. Earle Johnson
- 1957 - Kenneth G. Hance (elected), Orville Hitchcock
- 1958 - Ralph G. Nichols (elected), Hubert Heffner
- 1959 - Waldo Braden (elected), Frederick Haberman
- 1960 - Ernest J. Wrage (elected), Robert Clark
- 1961 - Robert T. Oliver (elected), Carroll Arnold
- 1962 - J. Jeffery Auer (elected), Douglas Ehninger
- 1963 - John W. Black (elected), Leroy Laase
- 1964 - Wayne C. Minnick (elected), William McCoard
- 1965 - Douglas Ehninger (elected), Richard Murphy
- 1966 - **Marie Hochmuth Nichols** (elected), George Bohman
- 1967 - Donald C. Bryant (elected), Wallace Bacon
- 1968 - William S. Howell (elected), Robert Nebergall
- 1969 - Theodore Clevenger, Jr. (elected), Malcolm Sillars
- 1970 - Robert C. Jeffrey (elected), James McBath
- 1971 - Samuel L. Becker (elected), Robert Cathcart
- 1972 - Wayne Brockriede (elected), Herman Cohen (fills in when WB resigns)
- 1973 - Lloyd Bitzer (elected), Gerald Miller
- 1974 - Wallace Bacon (elected), **Marcella Oberle**
- 1975 - **Jane Blankenship** (elected), James McBath
- 1976 - Ron Allen (elected), Gerald Miller
- 1977 - Malcolm Sillars (elected), Dwight Freshley
- 1978 - Robert Heimerl, Phillip Tompkins are nominated by the Nominating Committee
Anita Taylor mounts successful write-in campaign; the ballot contains three names; none receives a majority vote; Taylor elected in runoff with Tompkins
- 1979 - Frank Dance (elected), Herbert Simons
- 1980 - Ken Andersen (elected), William Brooks
- 1981 - John Bowers (elected), Gerald Mohrmann
- 1982 - **Beverly Whitaker Long** (elected), James Andrews
- 1983 - Don Ecroyd (elected), **Lucy Keele**
- 1984 - **Patti Gillespie** (elected), Will Linkugel
 Nov: Ecroyd Dies, Brockriede chosen to replace him; Brockriede dies; PG assumes the role
- 1985 - Michael Osborn (elected), Jessie Delia
- 1986 - Gus Friedrich (elected), James Fletcher
- 1987 - Mark Knapp (elected), **Carolyn Calloway-Thomas**

- 1988 - Dennis Gouran (elected), James Chesebro
- 1989 - Dale Leathers (elected), **Judith Trent**
- 1990 - David Zarefsky (elected), **Judy Pearson**
- 1991 - Bruce Gronbeck (elected), **Mary Francis HopKins**
- 1992 - **Sharon Ratliffe** (elected), James Applegate
- 1993 - James Chesebro (elected), Orlando Taylor
- 1994 - **Judith Trent** (elected), **Martha Solomon**
- 1995 - John Daly (elected), Charles Bantz
- 1996 - Orlando Taylor (elected), Keith Erickson
- 1997 - Raymie McKerrow, **Carolyn Calloway-Thomas** (tied first vote; McKerrow elected in second vote)
- 1998 - James Applegate (elected), **Linda Lederman**
- 1999 - V. William Balthrop (elected), James McCroskey
- 2000 - **Judy Pearson** (elected), Robert Ivie
- 2001 - **Isa Engleberg** (elected), Gerald Hauser
- 2002 - **Martha Solomon** (elected), Laurence Frey
- 2003 - H. Dan O'Hair (elected), Alberto Gonzalez
- 2004 - J. Michael Sproule (elected), Steven Beebe,
- 2005 - Arthur P. Bochner (elected), **Pamela Cooper**
- 2006 - **Betsey Bach** (elected), **Lynda Lee Kaid**
- 2007 - **Dawn Braithwaite** (elected), **Diana Carlin**
- 2008 - **Lynn Turner** (elected), **Sherwyn Morreale**

A revised constitution was adopted in 1954 and became effective January 1, 1956. It provided for succession to office by a second vice presidential nominee and election by ballot rather than at the annual meeting as previously done. This list is from reports of the nominating committees and identifications of persons elected second vice president from that date.

Foreword

- 1 bell hooks, *Teaching Critical Thinking: Practical Wisdom* (New York: Routledge, 2010), 53.
- 2 Joan W. Scott, *Gender and the Politics of History* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1988), 9.
- 3 G. E. Anzaldúa, *Interviews/entrevistas* (New York: Routledge, 2000), 242.
- 4 Gust A. Yep, "Toward the De-subjugation of Racially Marked Knowledges in Communication," *Southern Communication Journal* 75, 2 (2010), 171-175, and, for the quotation, 172.

Chapter One

- 1 Lisa Perry, "Cherokee Generative Metaphors," in *Hearing Many Voices*, ed. M. J. Hardman and Anita Taylor (Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, 2000), 221-233.
- 2 Karl Wallace, ed., *A History of Speech Education in America* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954); Robert Oliver, *History of Public Speaking in America* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965).
- 3 Jane Blankenship, letter to author, April 13, 2007.
- 4 Janet M. Hooks, *Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947), 34.
- 5 Mariam K. Chamberlain, "Historical Background and Overview," in *Women in Academe*, ed. Mariam K. Chamberlain (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1988), 3-12.
- 6 Barbara Woloch, *Women and the American Experience: A Concise History* (New York: Overture Books, 1996); Chamberlain, 4.
- 7 Herman Cohen, *The History of Speech Communication: The Emergence of a Discipline, 1914-1945* (Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1994).
- 8 Simone de Beauvoir, *The Second Sex* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952); Jack Kerouac, *On the Road* (New York: Viking Press, 1957); Betty Friedan, *The Feminine Mystique* (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1963).
- 9 For a good basic introduction to the full range of modern feminist theorizing, see Josephine Donovan, *Feminist Theory: The Intellectual Traditions*, 3rd ed. (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2000) or Maggie Humm, *The Dictionary of Feminist Theory*, 2nd ed. (Columbus: University of Ohio State University Press, 1995). Among the first to articulate developments of the 1990s as akin to a new "wave" of feminism were Rebecca Walker, ed., *To be real: Telling the truth and changing the face of feminism* (New York: Anchor books, 1995) and Susan Faludi, *Backlash: The Undeclared War Against American Women* (New York: Crown, 1991). Useful subsequent explorations of developments in feminist theorizing that provide some focus on communication perspectives include Charlotte Krollokke and Anne Scott Sorensen, *Gender Communication Theories and Analyses: From Silence to Performance* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2006) and Lana F. Rakow and Laura A. Wackwitz, eds., *Feminist Communication Theory: Selections in Context* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2004). One of the earliest to articulate the whiteness of twentieth-century feminist theorizing was bell hooks, *Feminist Theory from Margin to Center* (Boston, MA: South End Press, 1984), issued in a second edition in 2000.
- 10 Among the earliest to focus on the issues of language, including the role of naming, were Casey Miller and Kate Swift, *Words and Women* (Garden City, NY: Anchor Press, 1976; NYC: HarperCollins, 1991; updated edition by iUniverse, 2001); Mary Daly, *Beyond God the Father* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1973) and *Gyn/Ecology* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1978); Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley, eds., *Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1975) and their separately published annotated bibliography, *She Said/He Said* (Pittsburg, PA: Know, Inc., 1975). The issue quickly gained scholars' attention and resulted in rapidly expanding but widely scattered publications. This situation led to the establishment in 1976 of a networking newsletter, *Women and Language News*, compiled by a working group at Stanford. This publication soon became a journal edited by Cheris Kramarae and Paula Treichler at the University of Illinois and later Anita Taylor at George Mason University. It became affiliated with the newly formed (1977) Organization for the Study of Communication, Language and Gender. Since that time voluminous scholarship exploring connections among language, gender, dominance, difference, and communication has made its way into many different aspects of the field of communication and resulted in a large variety of publications.
- 11 Nomination data come from a review of announcements in the Association's newsletter of annual reports from the nominating committees and of election results and from a report compiled from a session at the 2007 annual NCA convention, "Telling our Herstory," chaired by Marlene G. Fine and Anita Taylor, November 15, 2007. Publications consulted include Jack L. Daniel, *Changing the Players and the Game* (Annandale, VA: SCA, 1995); William Work and Robert C. Jeffrey, eds., *The Past is Prologue: A Brief History* (Annandale, VA: SCA, 1989); various committee reports published in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech's* "Forum" from 1955-1964 and from *Spectra*, the Association's newsletter, from 1965-2008.

- 12 Herman Cohen, *The History of Speech Communication: The Emergence of a Discipline, 1914-1945* (Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1994); Lillian Conner, *Pioneer Women Orators* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954); Jack Daniel, *Changing the Players and the Game: A Personal Account of the Speech Communication Association's Black Caucus Origins* (Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1995); Karen A. Foss and Sonja J. Foss, "The Status of Research on Women and Communication," *Communication Quarterly* 31, 3 (Summer 1983): 195-204; Robert T. Oliver, *The Way It Was—All the Way: A Documentary Accounting* (Annandale, VA: National Communication Association, 1997); Loren Reid, *The Speech Teacher: A Random Narrative* (Falls Church, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1990); Loren Reid, "Fanfare for Fifty: A Brief History of the Central States Speech Association to 1981," *Communication Studies* 50 (Spring 1999): 13-22; William Work, "The Speech Association of America and the Teaching of Speech," *The English Journal* 53, 9 (December 1964): 647-650, 678; William Work and Robert Jeffrey, eds., *The Communication Association 75th Anniversary, 1914-1989: The Past is Prologue, A Brief History* (Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1994).

Chapter Two

- 1 Michelle Ballif, D. Diane Davis, and Roxanne Mountford, *Women's Ways of Making It in Rhetoric and Composition* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, with Routledge/Taylor and Francis, 2008), 1.
- 2 *Ibid.*, 11.
- 3 Judith Felson Duchan, "Founding Foremother Awards for Women Born in the 19th Century," A Five-Page Presentation at the American Speech-Language Association, New York, November 20, 2005, 1, www.acsu.buffalo.edu/~duchan/new_history/women_profession [accessed April 2008].
- 4 *Ibid.*
- 5 *Ibid.*, 3.
- 6 *Ibid.*, 4.
- 7 *Ibid.*, 2.
- 8 "Obituary," *American Speech Hearing Association Bulletin*, 20: 23.
- 9 Herman Cohen, *The History of Speech Communication: The Emergence of a Discipline, 1914-1945* (Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1994) is the basis for the discussion in this and the subsequent paragraph.
- 10 *Ibid.*, 49, excerpts part of this presidential address.
- 11 Although the date when the journal changed its name from the *QJPS* to the *QJSE* is settled as 1918, the date when the Association changed its name from the NAATPS to NATS remains murky. According to the papers of James O'Neill, held at Northwestern University, this change also came in 1918, a view supported by the library collection at the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater. On the other hand, William Work and Robert Jeffrey, eds., *The Speech Communication Association Seventy-Fifth Anniversary 1914-1989: The Past is Prologue, a Brief History* (Annandale, VA: 1994), 57-58, explain that the war caused the cancellation of the convention in 1918 and then date the Association's name change as voted in 1922 at the New York convention, to take effect 1923. The contradiction in the records is not critical to this book and so we will not attempt to resolve it.
- 12 Cohen, 33, 35; Thomas Benson, ed., *Speech Communication in the 20th Century* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1985), 324.
- 13 Yost as "first woman to publish" came from the journals themselves, whose publishing women are shown later in this essay.
- 14 Mary Yost, "Argument from the Point-of-View of Sociology," *The Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, 1 (April 1917): 1-18; Mary Yost, "The Functional Aspects of Argument" (Ph.D. diss., University of Michigan, 1917).
- 15 Katie N. Johnson, *Sisters in Sin: Brothel Drama in America, 1900-1920* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006).
- 16 Judith L. Stephens, "Gender Ideology and Dramatic Convention in Progressive Era Plays, 1890-1910," *Theatre Journal* 41, 1 (March 1989): 55.
- 17 Johnson, 83, for the plays; Stephens, 54, for the quotation.
- 18 Johnson, 2.
- 19 Stephens, 46.
- 20 *Ibid.*
- 21 Johnson for the plays; Johnson, 15, for the actresses.

- 22 Suzanne Bordelon, "Contradicting and Complicating Feminization of Rhetoric Narratives: Mary Yost and Argument from a Sociological Perspective," *Rhetoric Society Quarterly* (Summer 2005): 112.
- 23 Cohen, 56.
- 24 Yost, "Argument," 4.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 Cohen, 53-64, 73-74.
- 27 Yost, diss., 111.
- 28 Tom Dickson, *Mass Media Education in Transition: Preparing for the 21st Century* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2000), 65; Cohen, 67.
- 29 Suzanne Bordelon, *A Feminist Legacy: The Rhetoric and Pedagogy of Gertrude Buck* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 2007), 15-16, 45.
- 30 Cohen, 66-69; see also, Jane Donawerth, "Textbooks for New Audiences: Women's Revisions of Rhetorical Theory at the Turn of the Century," in *Listening to their Voices: The Rhetorical Activities of Historical Women*, ed. Molly M. Wertheimer (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1997), 337-356.
- 31 Jane Donawerth, "As Becomes a Rational Woman to Speak: Madelaine de Scudéry's Rhetoric of Conversation," in *Listening to their Voices: The Rhetorical Activities of Historical Women*, ed. Molly M. Wertheimer (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1997), 305-319, and, for the quotation, xvi.
- 32 The expression is from Robert J. Connors, *Composition-Rhetoric: Backgrounds, Theory, and Pedagogy* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1997), 44-45.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 Ibid., 66.
- 35 Lloyd Bitzer, "The Rhetorical Situation," *Philosophy and Rhetoric* 1 (January 1968): 1-14.
- 36 Yost, diss., 115; Yost, "Argument," 108.
- 37 Benson, 20.
- 38 Bitzer as quoted in Benson, 19.
- 39 Yost, diss., 115; Yost, "Argument," 108.
- 40 Bordelon, *Feminist Legacy*, 163-166.
- 41 Kenneth Burke, *A Rhetoric of Motives* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969), 20-23.
- 42 Ibid.
- 43 For bibliographies, see Benson, 307, 309, 323; Cohen, 40, and Karl Wallace, *History of Speech Education in America: Background Studies* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954), 502-504.
- 44 Bordelon, *Feminist Legacy*, 213-215.
- 45 For anthologies of early feminist scholars who we now understand were developing all aspects of communication as a discipline, I am indebted to Roxanne Mountford, "English 696: History and Theory of Women's Rhetoric," syllabus, University of Arizona, Spring 2007; Jane Donawerth, *Rhetorical Theory by Women Before 1900: An Anthology* (Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield, 2002); Joy Ritchie and Kate Ronald, eds., *Available Means: An Anthology of Women's Rhetoric* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 2001).
- 46 Bordelon, *Legacy*, 210.
- 47 Herbert Wichelns, *A History of the Speech Association of the Eastern States* (Mineola, NY: Speech Association of the Eastern States, 1959), 6.
- 48 I want to thank several contemporary colleagues for their contributions to the women teacher-scholars of a certain age, who had to make it in a man's world, in a discipline originally believed to be men's work: Karlyn Kohrs Campbell, *A Critical Study of Early Feminist Rhetoric*, vol. 1 of *Man Cannot Speak for Her* (New York: Praeger, 1989); in addition to her earlier cited works, Jane Donawerth, "Nineteenth-Century United States Conduct Book Rhetoric," *Rhetoric Review* 21, 1 (2002): 5-22; Jane Donawerth, "Poaching on Men's Philosophies of Rhetoric: 18th- and 19th-Century Rhetorical Theory by Women," *Philosophy and Rhetoric* 33 (2002): 243-258; Jane Donawerth, "Transforming the History of Rhetorical Theory," *Feminist Teacher* 7, 1 (Fall 1992): 35-39; Patricia Bizzel, "Opportunities for Feminist Research in the History of Rhetoric," *Rhetoric Review* 11, 1 (Fall 1992); Susan Kates, *Activist Rhetoric and American Higher Education, 1885-1937* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 2001); and Eileen E. Schell, *Gypsy Academics and Mother-Teachers: Gender, Contingent Labor, and Writing Instruction* (Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Heinemann, 1997).
- 49 Cohen, ix.

Chapter Three

- 1 Carroll C. Arnold, "Rhetoric in America Since 1900," in *Re-establishing the Speech Profession: The First Fifty Years*, ed. R.T. Oliver and M.G. Bauer (Mineola, NY: Speech Association of the Eastern States, 1959), 3-7, and for the quotation, 4.
- 2 Arnold, 6.
- 3 Ibid.
- 4 Henrietta Prentiss, "Our Speech Standards," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 14 (1928): 189.
- 5 Prentiss, "Speech Standards," 194.
- 6 Marjorie Dycke, letter to author, April 11, 1999.
- 7 Prentiss, "Speech Standards," 193.
- 8 Henrietta Prentiss, "Standardized Requirements in Teacher Training," *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* 12 (1926): 68-69.
- 9 Henrietta Prentiss, "The Training of the Voice," in *A Course of Study in Speech Training*, ed. Alexander M. Drummond (New York: Century, 1925), 67.
- 10 Henrietta Prentiss, "Speech Problems at Hunter College," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 16 (1930): 473.
- 11 Prentiss, "Speech Problems," 475.
- 12 Prentiss, "Speech Standards," 191.
- 13 Prentiss, "A Message from the President," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 18 (1932): 515.
- 14 Ibid.

Chapter Four

- 1 All materials for this piece were taken from the archive at the University of Utah. In addition to the publications and writings of Babcock, which are listed at the end of the chapter, the materials that were most helpful in writing the chapter were:
- The *Register of Maud May Babcock Papers*. Manuscript Collection (MS 83). Special Collections Department, University of Utah Libraries, Salt Lake City, 1997. (Includes "Content and Scope of Collection" and "Inventory," the description of contents of eight boxes).
- The Maud May Babcock Papers. Manuscript Collection (MS83). Special Collections Department. University of Utah Libraries. Salt Lake City, Utah.
- Correspondence with Madame Chiang Kai-shek, including a Letter to Babcock, March 5, 1938, Letter to Madame Chiang Kai-shek, April 19, 1938, Letter to Babcock, May 2, 1938.
- Dramatic Recitals and Interpretative Lectures by Professor Maud May Babcock.
- Brochure, including repertoire, lectures, and press clippings, n.d.
- Bower Aly, on behalf of attendees at the annual convention of the SAA, Babcock. Telegram, 1945.
- "Biography." Clipping. *Utah Alumnus*, May 1955.
- Joseph F. Smith, "Maud May Babcock 1867-1954." *The Speech Teacher* 11 (1962): 105-107; 304-307.
- Joseph S. Smith, clipping. "Maud May Babcock died December 31, 1954" in "Shop Talk." *The Speech Teacher* (n.d.): 211-212.

Chapter Five

- 1 Linda Lederman, letter to the author, November 1, 1999.
- 2 Anita Taylor, comments on earlier draft, 2005.
- 3 Jane Blankenship, comments on earlier draft, 2005.
- 4 Lester Thonssen, "Magdalene Kramer, 1898-1978," *Spectra* 15 (June 1979): 3. It seems fitting, somehow, that this obituary is on the same page as Marie Hochmuth Nichols's.

Chapter Six

- 1 Gene (Eugene) Hahn, telephone conversations with author, October 19, 1999, and November 30, 1999.
- 2 Laurie Schumann, e-mails to author, October 2, 1999, and November 21, 1999.
- 3 Herbert Richard Kabat, "Bare Fists Against the Shark," *Saturday Evening Post*, November 11, 1944, 17.
- 4 Elise Hahn, "An Analysis of the Content and Form of the Speech of First Grade Children," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 34 (1948): 361-366.

- 5 American Speech Correction Association, "Business Meeting," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 10 (1945): 7.
 - 6 Sara Stinchfield Hawk, "Notice," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 9 (1944): 362.
 - 7 Howard Grey, telephone conversations with author, July 27, 1999, and November 22, 1999. Other students, colleagues, and friends interviewed for this piece, not elsewhere cited, were Dawne Bernhardt, Clinton W. Bradford, Judy Greenstate, and Mary Huber.
 - 8 Eugene F. Hahn, "Compendium of Some Theories and Therapies of Stuttering," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 23 (1937): 378; Eugene F. Hahn, "Discussion of the Motor-Kinaesthetic Method of Speech Correction," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 25 (1939): 417; Eugene F. Hahn, "An Integration of Stuttering Theories," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 2 (1937): 87.
 - 9 "Directory," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 9 (1944): 79.
 - 10 Committee on Speech in the Elementary School, "Report," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 35 (1940): 351.
 - 11 Suzanne Shellaby, e-mail message to author, October 7, 1999.
 - 12 Information came from two sources, neither of whom wished to be identified. An appreciation to Hahn that appeared in *Spectra* after her death in 1995 quoted Robert Ringle, "a former UCLA faculty member," as saying that negotiations to locate a separate program in communication disorders had collapsed when the English department "began to divest itself" of areas such as speech communication, speech pathology, journalism, and linguistics (July 1996, 13).
 - 13 David Sigler, e-mail message to author, October 7, 1999.
 - 14 Grafton P. Tanquary and Eugene F. Hahn, *Public Speaking Handbook for a Beginning Course in Public Speaking* (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1939); Eugene F. Hahn, *Stuttering, Significant Theories and Therapies* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1943); Eugene F. Hahn, "The Motor-Kinaesthetic Method of Speech Training," *Journal of Exceptional Children* 6, 8 (1940): 288-292; Eugene F. Hahn, "Study of the Relation Between the Social Complexity of the Oral Reading Situation and the Severity of Stuttering," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 5 (1940): 5-14; Eugene F. Hahn, "Study of the Effect of Remedial Treatment of Frequency of Stuttering in Oral Reading," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 6 (1941): 29-38; Eugene F. Hahn, "Study of Relation Between Stuttering Occurrence and Grammatical Factors in Oral Reading," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 7 (1942): 329-335; Eugene F. Hahn, "Study of Relation Between Stuttering Occurrence and Phonetic Factors in Oral Reading," *Journal of Speech Disorders* 7 (1942): 143-151.
 - 15 Eugene F. Hahn, *Stuttering, Significant Theories and Therapies*, 2nd ed., prepared by Elise S. Hahn (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1956); John V. Irwin, Review of *Stuttering, Significant Theories and Therapies*, 2nd ed., prepared by Elise S. Hahn (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1956), *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 43 (1957): 324.
 - 16 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 38 (1952): 201.
 - 17 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 34 (1948): 507.
 - 18 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 42 (1955): 171, 181, 179.
 - 19 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 43 (1957): 189.
 - 20 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 45 (1959): 209.
 - 21 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 43 (1957): 189.
 - 22 Speech Association of America, "News," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 42 (1955): 171.
 - 23 Loren Reid, letter to author, September 15, 1999.
 - 24 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 43 (1957): 353.
 - 25 Laurie Schumann, e-mail messages to author, October 2, 1999, and November 21, 1999.
 - 26 Howard Grey, telephone conversation with author, July 27, 1999.
 - 27 Ibid.
 - 28 Gene (Eugene) Hahn, telephone conversations with author, October 19, 1999, and November 30, 1999.
 - 29 O'Connor, letters to author, October 15, 1999, and January 19, 2000.
- Chapter Seven**
- 1 Theresa (Mrs. Richard) Murphy, personal interview with author, 1999.
 - 2 Murphy, 1999.
 - 3 Richard and Teresa Murphy, "Retrospect: Speech at Pittsburgh Five Decades Ago," *ECA Newsletter*, January 1947, 10-11.
 - 4 Marie Hochmuth, "Speech and Society," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* 30 (1948): 17-33.
 - 5 Personnel file letters from a Mt. Mercy dean to the Department of Speech at the University of Wisconsin.

- 6 Donald C. Bryant, "On the Legacy of Marie Hochmuth Nichols," in memoriam speech on the occasion of her death, annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Minneapolis, MN, November 1978.
 - 7 Letters from the University of Wisconsin to the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
 - 8 Her first article was "Debating for Women" in *The Pennsylvania Speech Bulletin* in 1930. A prolific writer of scholarly articles, she wrote only one book, *Rhetoric and Criticism* in 1963. A list of selected publications appears at the end of Chapter Seven, above.
 - 9 Bryant points out how important was her becoming the first woman editor on the road to the SCA presidency, in "Legacy."
 - 10 Marie Hochmuth Nichols, "The Search for Excellence," *Spectra* 5, 1 (February 1969): 1-2.
 - 11 Marie Hochmuth Nichols, "Welcome," Speech Association of America Program, 1968, 1.
 - 12 Douglas Ehninger, "On Relevance, Relatedness, and Reorientation," *Spectra* 5, 1 (February 1969): 4-5.
 - 13 Marie Hochmuth Nichols, quoting Ehninger.
 - 14 Marie Hochmuth Nichols, "The Tyranny of Relevance," *Spectra* 6, 1 (February 1970): 9-10.
 - 15 Bryant, "Legacy."
 - 16 James Chesebro, conversation with author.
 - 17 Richard Enos, "The History of Rhetoric: The Reconstruction Progress," in *Speech Communication in the Twentieth Century*, ed. Thomas Benson (Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP, 1975): 28-41.
 - 18 An unpublished speech, "Rhetoric in an Age of Pessimism," by Hochmuth Nichols, from notes taken by the author, and "When You Set Out for Ithaca," *Central States Speech Journal* 28 (Fall 1977): 145-56.
 - 19 John H. Patton, "Marie Hochmuth Nichols: Voice of Rationality in the Hochmuth Tradition of Rhetoric and Criticism," in *Twentieth Century Roots of Rhetorical Studies*, ed. Jim Kuiypers and Andres King (Westport, CT: Praeger, 2001), 123-43.
 - 20 Richard Gregg, "Burkean Criticism," a special edition, Marie Hochmuth Nichols section, *Western Speech Journal* 21 (Spring 1957): 89-95.
 - 21 Gregg discussed aspects of her work and cited passages from her book, *Rhetoric and Criticism*.
 - 22 Nichols, *Rhetoric and Criticism*, 81.
 - 23 Ibid, 18.
 - 24 Roger Nebergall and Marie Hochmuth Nichols, "Two Windows on the Prospects of Rhetoric," *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 58 (1972): 92-96.
 - 25 Bryant, 1978, as part of his call for the submission of convention papers, in *Spectra*.
 - 26 The format of the three-hour seminar was lecture and question-answer, with group discussion. These were particularly angry days. The language was aimed at re-naming: note the "exercise of reason" replaced with a "hang-up."
 - 27 Books like *Rudy's Red Wagon* sold many copies without dealing with terms like "substance" and "purpose."
 - 28 "Purpose" and "ends," she thought, were omitted in behavioral science's model-making.
 - 29 Kathleen Hall Jamieson, "In Honor of Marie Hochmuth Nichols" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Washington, D.C., November 1983).
 - 30 Enos.
 - 31 Karlyn Kohrs Campbell, "In Honor of Marie Hochmuth Nichols" (paper given at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Washington, D.C., November 1983).
 - 32 Nebergall and Nichols, 92-96.
 - 33 Gregory Payne, letter to the author, 1999.
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Afterword

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