Breaking Up—West River, c. 1925
Aldro T. Hibbard
(Falmouth, Mass., 1886—Rockport, Mass., 1972)
Oil on canvas, 30" x 36"

Winter scenes exemplified by this large painting are among the most loved and admired themes of Aldro Hibbard's works. Done in the Impressionist style that was popular in America in the early twentieth century, this landscape was mostly painted on-site in the West River Valley of Vermont, near the artist's home. In searching out his subject matter in the frozen woods and villages, Hibbard would load a sled with up to 50 pounds of paint supplies and equipment. Impressionists were known for experiencing some difficult working conditions in painting outdoors, but only Hibbard regularly endured the icy cold for his art. Here the painting done on-site is revealed in the convincing portrayal of the midday light of late winter on the snow, trees, hills and sparkling water. A range of brushstrokes effectively define these different elements: long and thin for the trees, broad and thick for the ice, and small and broken for the moving surface of the water.

Hibbard learned his style at the Massachusetts Normal Art School (now the Massachusetts College of Art) and the School of the Museum of Fine Arts, where he studied with such well-known painters as Frank Benson, Phillip L. Hale, and Edmund Tarbell (who is represented by a painting and a pastel in the College's Permanent Collection). The Museum School trained a generation of painters in the prevailing styles of Academic Classicism and Impressionism; Hibbard excelled in the latter. He received a traveling scholarship from the Museum School that allowed him to study in Europe from 1913 to 1916, where he came into direct contact with the works of the French Impressionists. He went on to teach at Boston University.

Hibbard found his subject matter not only in Vermont, but in the landscapes throughout New England and Canada. Summers were spent on either Cape Cod or Cape Ann, where he founded and directed the Rockport School of Drawing and Painting that was later named for him. The Permanent Collection includes another work by Hibbard, a small painting titled Cape Cod Marshes, Provincetown. These two Hibbard paintings are among a group of early gifts by alumni that form the original core of the Bridgewater State College Permanent Collection, now housed in a gallery within the Art Building.

Text by Roger Dunn, Professor of Art
Photo by Rob Lorenson, Assistant Professor of Art
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**On the Cover:** *Magenta’s Spirit*, by Dorothy Pulsifer (triptych - altar piece - front view). Back view shown above. This work has been inspired by altar pieces done on decorated panels which open to reveal the paintings within. Color used to illuminate these religious images often has symbolic meaning but its emotional impact and expressive force is usually constrained by tradition. In this triptych, Magenta’s emotional, expressive, and spiritual impact is as much the subject as is the more traditional suggested spiritual content.
I was sitting in a doctor's office recently and there was an advertisement on the wall asking patients to give their used eyeglasses to the poor in the less developed world. A woman next to me said rather angrily that we should be paying more attention to the needs of the people right here in America, instead of always looking overseas for a cause. At first I became a little irritated that she would be so unconcerned about the poor in far away countries, but then I began to think about how our enormous national wealth and individual prosperity sit side-by-side with glaring poverty and growing inequality. We have become a nation of stark differences between the haves and the have-nots.

One of the more visible tragedies of this boom period is the rise in the homeless population. Shelters, which house and feed those who have no place to go, are experiencing a sad boom of their own. The price of housing stock in many cities in this country has risen to the point where even the working poor find it difficult to meet rent payments. Many of the poor are doubling or tripling up in apartment houses in order to get a roof over their heads. But others who have no family or other personal networks find themselves knocking on the doors of the shelters every night.

Increasingly the homeless are mothers with small children and teenagers who have separated from their parents. Yes, the homeless person continues to match the stereotype of the rumpled vagrant who suffers from alcoholism, drug abuse and mental deficiency. But that is only part of the picture. Homelessness now includes those who are desperately seeking to find work and some financial stability so they can move out of the shelter.

At the heart of the homeless problem is the lack of affordable housing in the United States. In 1980 the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development produced more than 260,000 units of affordable housing. In 1997, however, that number had dropped to less than 77,000 units.

While this country was concentrating on building the dream homes of the middle and upper classes, the poor have found that there are less opportunities for them to experience that same dream. Moreover, with budget cuts in Washington and states and local communities fixed on high rise office space, convention centers, sports arenas and transportation projects, there has been little left in the public coffers to address the housing needs of those at the bottom of the economic ladder.

If there is an answer to homelessness, it lies in the private sector and the goodwill of Americans. Unfortunately, homelessness and affordable housing is not one of the highest philanthropic priorities of those with the means to donate from their excess. Giving to the homeless often must compete with charities associated with health and hospitals, educational institutions, religious organizations and various environmental concerns. Homeless shelters are forced to struggle for every available dollar and to justify that giving to the homeless is indeed a worthy use of charitable contributions.

Americans are without question one of the most generous and caring people in the history of this planet. But they have been lulled into a false sense of prosperity, thinking that everyone is being taken care of and that access to the bounty of this economy is available to all. In one sense everyone is being taken care of since the homeless shelters have become not just places to sleep and eat, but educational centers, detox facilities, job training sites and mini-hospitals. But being taken care of in an overcrowded shelter versus having a home are poles apart.

There is no right articulated in the Constitution that guarantees housing, but in this great country it seems so sad that hundreds of thousands of people spend time each day trying to find a place to sleep. Most eventually do, thanks to the shelters, but wouldn't it be far better if the public sector and the private sector made more of an effort to build homes for all Americans?

Michael Kryzanek is Editor of the Bridgewater Review and Chairman of the Board of the Brockton Coalition for the Homeless.
THE GLOBAL ELIMINATION OF LANDMINES: WHERE IS WASHINGTON?

BY CHRISTOPHER KIRKEY

In a much celebrated September 1994 address to the United Nations General Assembly, American President Bill Clinton challenged the international community to concentrate its efforts and move towards securing the global elimination of anti-personnel (AP) mines. Just over three years later, in December 1997, 122 countries gathered in Canada to sign the Ottawa Convention - formally titled the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and on their Destruction.

Despite widespread international support from a variety of states, international organizations and nongovernmental organizations, the United States opted not to sign the most significant agreement negotiated to date to eliminate AP mines. Why?

This essay will chronicle the evolving AP mine position of the United States - prior to, and particularly during the Ottawa Process of October 1996 to December 1997. The essay will review the reluctance of Washington to fully participate in the Ottawa Process, the decision to utilize the Conference on Disarmament (CD) as the most appropriate forum for AP mine elimination negotiations, and the announcement that America would commit to Convention negotiations in September 1997. Scrutiny will be paid to examining why the U.S. could not endorse the final text of the negotiated Convention.

U.S. AP MINE POLICY: PRELUDE TO OTTAWA

Much effort to restrict AP mines, albeit sporadic and less than fully successful, had been spent by the international community - including the United States - prior to the onset of the Ottawa Process. The 10 October 1980 Convention on Conventional Weapons (CCW) represented the first major breakthrough in an attempt to address the humanitarian horrors inflicted by AP mines. Protocol II of the CCW - Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Mines, Booby-traps and Other Devices - was by no means, however, a definitive solution. Public and private observers throughout the 1980s and early 1990s - in the face of ongoing and increased use of AP mines and AP mine accidents/deaths - found the 1980 Protocol to be increasingly ineffective. The CCW, it was recognized, failed on several counts including: the absence of adequate verification methods to ensure state compliance and enforce implementation; the absence of any meaningful political, economic, or military penalties to punish violators; the inapplicability toward domestic or intrastate conflict; the restrictive focus on land mine use (as opposed to production, stockpiling, transfer, etc.); and the lack of an effective mechanism to guarantee ratification and implementation.

Convinced that tougher measures were required to combat the myriad of problems stemming from AP mine use, the international community reconvened in 1995 at the Review Conference of the CCW. These meetings, held in Vienna and Geneva from 25 September-13 October and also in January 1996 and 22 April-3 May 1996, culminated in a revamped Protocol II - yet one that still failed to fully satisfy many states, international organizations, and non-governmental organizations alike. This sense of frustration led eight like-minded states (Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Ireland, Mexico, Norway and Switzerland), the
International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and the International Campaign to Ban Landmines (ICBL) to examine and develop a new diplomatic path for the elimination of AP mines. These discussions, which began on 19 January 1996, were ironically attempting to identify an alternative AP mine ban course of action, even as the CCW Review Conference continued. By the conclusion of the CCW Conference on 3 May 1996, Canada – arguably the most determined state leading the initiative for a more meaningful AP mine ban agreement – declared its intention to convene a multilateral forum in the latter part of 1996. The meeting would be designed to identify and implement a plan of action to meet this desired end.

For its part, the United States – which had played an active role in crafting the CCW Protocol revisions – was not yet prepared to participate in, let alone endorse, what would soon come to be known as the Ottawa Process. In the Spring of 1996, Washington was instead engaged in an internal policy review to determine the military use of, and need for, AP mines. This review, announced on 16 March 1996 and ordered by the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General John Shalikashvili, culminated two months later. The AP mine position of the United States, as outlined by the President, would include the following components:

1) a renewed commitment to seeking an international agreement to eventually eliminate all AP mines;
2) a commitment to eliminate all non self-detonating/self-deactivating (i.e., "dumb") AP mines from the U.S. arsenal by 1999 – with the exception of more than one million AP mines used to protect American and South Korean defense forces against a potential military attack from North Korea;
3) a decision to continue the use of self-detonating/self-deactivating (i.e., "smart") AP mines until such time as effective alternatives were designed to replace them or an international AP mine elimination accord was reached.

The summer of 1996 witnessed no substantive changes to the newly enunciated U.S. AP mine policy. Washington’s focus shifted to the question of whether or not to participate at the upcoming Canadian sponsored international forum on eliminating AP mines, scheduled to be convened in Ottawa. U.S. government officials met with Canadian representatives on several occasions to discuss the format, scope, purpose and intended outcomes of the Ottawa Conference. As one Department of State participant involved in the talks put it: We were well aware that a number of states – Canada, Austria, Norway and the like – were dissatisfied with the CCW Review outcome. The NGO community was even more frustrated by the May result. They viewed the upcoming Ottawa meetings in a redemptive light... as an opportunity to create a fresh start to rid mines from the world. Our concern at this time was ensuring that any declaration to emerge from Ottawa be non-binding on parties... A deadline to eliminate mines by say 2000 was from our perspective wholly artificial and inconsistent with past international negotiations and with our security commitments.

The U.S. ultimately agreed to attend the 3-5 October Ottawa Conference, titled “Towards a Global Ban on Anti-Personnel Mines,” as a full participant.

THE OTTAWA PROCESS & THE POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES

A. October 1996-August 1997: A Different Road Taken
The position taken by the U.S. at the Ottawa Conference was to underscore the central features of its May 1996 AP mine policy, while simultaneously insisting that despite an ongoing commitment to international negotiations to eliminate AP mines, it was unwilling to agree to any formal deadline. At the
conclusion of the conference, some fifty states, including the U.S., agreed to support the Ottawa Declaration. The declaration, essentially a statement pledging political cooperation, notably underscored the pressing need to undertake “urgent action on the part of the international community to ban and eliminate [AP mines],” by committing states “to ensure the earliest possible conclusion of a legally-binding international agreement to ban anti-personnel mines.” The terms and conditions outlined in the Ottawa Declaration were, for all intents and purposes, consistent with U.S. AP mine policy.

Canada’s Minister of Foreign Affairs, Lloyd Axworthy, surprised the world, however, when he announced on 5 October that it was Canada’s intention to convene an international AP mine elimination treaty signing conference in December 1997. This unilateral decision was not greeted with raw enthusiasm by the U.S. Karl Inderfurth, Deputy U.S. ambassador to the U.N. and a member of the American delegation offered the U.S. official response:

Clearly all of us attending this conference feel strongly about the subject, and this initiative put on the table by the Canadian Foreign Minister is one that we will look at... We’re not prepared to set a date, but we are prepared to start work immediately on an international agreement to ban land mines. If this can take place within that time frame and if our concerns can be met, we’ll be very supportive.

Clearly disappointed and somewhat frustrated by Canada’s actions, Washington reviewed its options in the Fall of 1996 for pursuing an international AP mine ban. A commitment to full participation in the newly launched Ottawa Process option was dominated by one overwhelming consideration: could an international agreement be negotiated that would effectively recognize, incorporate, and reconcile itself to America’s existing AP mine platform? Most observers in Washington believed this unlikely, particularly given the December 1997 deadline, but were not yet prepared to completely abandon the politically attractive Ottawa Process. An alternate possibility available to the U.S. was to seek international agreement through the U.N. sponsored Conference on Disarmament. The immediate drawback to the CD process was obvious to all concerned – as an international forum designed to address arms control, disarmament, and elimination issues, the CD utilized a consensual (as opposed to a majority type) decision making model. The probable net effect of this institutional mechanism would be to prolong the possibility of achieving an AP mine ban international agreement. On the other hand, the CD venue offered two attractive features not contained in the Ottawa Process. First, the Geneva-based Conference on Disarmament included several states whose signature and subsequent participation would be required if an AP mine ban were, from Washington’s perspective, to be truly effective. Several of these actors, including Russia, China, Iraq, North Korea, Syria and Israel were not participants in, and indeed publicly and privately dismissive of, the Ottawa Process. The second and arguably more compelling lure of the CD for the United States was the belief that no matter the time required, a final accord would capture the political realities and military necessities of America’s AP mine policy set forth in May 1996.

Washington’s preferred option for negotiating an international AP mine ban was announced on 17 January 1997. Much to the consternation of pro-Ottawa Process forces – which included various states, international organizations, nongovernmental organizations, and Congressional supporters, most notably Senator Patrick Leahy of Vermont – President Clinton stated that the U.S. would commit its focus and energy to the U.N. Conference on Disarmament.

The Conference on Disarmament, however, proved to be an exercise in futility for the U.S. Despite repeated attempts by American officials from January-June 1997 to include the AP mine elimination issue on the official agenda proceedings at the CD, success remained unattainable. Several contributing factors effectively created procedural roadblocks for the U.S., including continued support for the use of AP mines by some states, a distinct preference, by certain states, to address the AP mine issue through the Ottawa Process, and an insistence by other members that the CD needed to first and foremost address the need for international nuclear disarmament.

By June 1997 it was clear to Washington that the CD process would not bear fruit. From early July to mid-August, and in accordance with American AP mine negotiation policy guidelines established the previous January, the U.S. policy community engaged in an interagency review. The review was structured to address two issues: the lack of immediate progress and concomitant prospects for future success at the CD; and, the status of the Ottawa Process and whether, most importantly, to commit to join negotiations in the
Ottawa Process forum. The lack of results at the CD, interagency review officials noted, stood in sharp contrast to the positive momentum of the Ottawa Process. States, international organizations, and nongovernmental organizations were increasingly supportive of this effort, and had successfully engaged in a series of constructive AP mine elimination treaty-building conferences throughout 1997. With the completion of an initial draft treaty by Austria, actors involved in the Ottawa process met in Vienna (the 12-14 February Expert Meeting on the Text of a Total Ban Convention), Bonn (the 24-25 April Expert Meeting on Compliance) and Brussels (the 24-27 June International Conference for a Global Ban on Anti-Personnel Mines), to examine the necessary conditions and provisions to be contained in a final treaty. The Brussels Conference, ironically coinciding with the conclusion of the CD, produced a political declaration committing states – 97, not including the U.S., signed the declaration – to final negotiations in Oslo in September and a subsequent treaty signing conference scheduled for December in Ottawa.

The key decision of the interagency process – i.e., whether to participate in the September negotiations – was announced by President Clinton on August 18. While still committed to the CD as the forum of choice for seeking a comprehensive international AP mine ban treaty, the President acknowledged that the U.S. would participate in the Oslo negotiations. “The United States,” Mr. Clinton observed, “will work with the other participating nations to secure an agreement that achieves our humanitarian goals while protecting our national security interests.” Despite committing to Oslo, the position of the United States entering negotiations was clear: the U.S. would not be prepared to sign the Ottawa Process treaty unless significant modifications were made to the existing text to accommodate its AP mine national interests.

B. September 1997:
The Oslo Negotiations

Immediately prior to the commencement of negotiations on 1 September at the Oslo Diplomatic Conference on an International Total Ban on Anti-Personnel Mines, the United States dispatched a delegation to Geneva to meet with the Ottawa Process core group of states. The purpose of the meeting, requested by Washington, was to allow U.S. officials the opportunity to outline the negotiation positions that would be pursued by the U.S. at Oslo, as well as to express reservations about existing draft treaty conditions and language.

Five issues were of central concern to Washington:

1) the need for stronger verification procedures;
2) an exemption for continued AP mine use in Korea;
3) the right to continue to use anti-tank mines;
4) a suitable transition period for treaty compliance;
5) conditions governing the rights of states to withdraw from the treaty.

The first two weeks of the Oslo Conference witnessed repeated efforts by the U.S., in plenary sessions and smaller working group venues, to enlist support for its negotiation platform. Apart from the limited support offered by the United Kingdom, Australia, Japan, Poland, Spain and Ecuador for specific U.S. proposals, no progress was immediately discernible – except on the issue of verification. On this latter issue, the United States was able to generate broad-based support for a revised verification and compliance measure regime. Concerns abounded, however, on the American request for a Korean exemption. Most states, international organizations and non-governmental organizations rejected this demand outright, convinced that the granting of an exemption would lead other states to possibly demand similar considerations, thereby weakening the overall impact of the treaty. Many also believed that there was little to no military utility for AP mines in the case of Korea, and that suitable technological and strategic alternatives were available to the U.S. Attempts to classify smart mines and anti-handling devices attached to anti-tank and anti-vehicle mines as submunitions and not as AP mines were equally fruitless. A subsequent decision by U.S. negotiators to re-categorize these forces as anti-handles devices as opposed to submunitions met with the same negative result. A nine year transitional delay of entry-into-force for the treaty was likewise rejected by the overwhelming majority of states. American claims that an adequate transition period was necessary to develop, test, and integrate new military instruments to replace AP mines fell on deaf ears. Finally, the U.S position on treaty withdrawal – a 90 day notification period and the right of withdrawal if a state should be engaged in war – was not widely supported.

Confronted with the uncomforting realities of Oslo, the United States next opted to pursue two related avenues: it decided to reformulate its negotiation platform; and, to seek international support – spearheaded through the direct diplomatic intervention and efforts of President Clinton – for the new U.S. position. The re-configured American platform, which would be presented on 16 September at the Oslo Conference, no longer contained an exemption for Korea and instead focused on three issues:

1) a redefinition of anti-handling devices so as to permit the use of such weapons not physically attached but near anti-tank mines;
2) the right, for nine years, to defer compliance with specific treaty conditions; and,
3) the right to withdraw from the treaty if a state determined that it was, in keeping with the standards set forth in the United Nations Charter, a victim of armed aggression.
To win support for this package of proposals, President Clinton personally spoke with several political leaders, including Canadian Prime Minister Jean Chretien, South African President Nelson Mandela and British Prime Minister Tony Blair.

In an attempt to gain converts for the revised U.S. platform, the American delegation at Oslo — upon presenting its new negotiation positions on 16 September — requested, and was given, a twenty-four hour extension. The reconsideration — i.e., international accommodation of American AP mine interests — that Washington sought never materialized, and on 17 September the United States officially withdrew from the negotiations. The following day, the plenary session of the Oslo Conference formally voted to adopt the treaty.

In disclosing that the U.S. would not sign the Ottawa Treaty, President Clinton announced a series of accelerated national AP mine elimination and global demining initiatives. First, the President established a target date for eliminating the use of AP mines by the United States. The Department of Defense was instructed to “develop alternatives to antipersonnel mines” by 2003, and in the case of Korea, by the year 2006. Additional research funding would be made available to accomplish this objective. Second, David Jones, former Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, was appointed as special advisor on AP mine issues to the President and Secretary of Defense William Cohen. Third, a significant increase in U.S. funded and operated demining programs was set into motion.

C: September 1997 and Beyond

The final months of 1997 witnessed no fundamental shift in U.S. AP mine policy. Determined to once again proceed with AP mine elimination efforts at the Conference on Disarmament, the United States did not move — as some observers wishfully anticipated — to endorse the Ottawa Convention. The most notable development in U.S. policy during this period was in the area of demining. On 31 October, Secretary of State Albright announced the “Demining 2010” proposal, billed as “a major new United States initiative on a subject of widespread concern.” Highlighted by the appointment of Karl Inderfurth to the new positions of Special Representative of the President and Secretary of State for Global Humanitarian Demining, this program was established to rapidly facilitate global demining efforts, with an aim of achieving complete AP deployed mine elimination by 2010.

The Ottawa Convention signatory conference of 2-4 December 1997 — formally titled “A Global Ban on Landmines: Treaty Signing Conference and Mine Action Forum” — was attended by an American observer delegation headed by Secretary Inderfurth. Amid the effusively celebratory atmosphere, Inderfurth noted that “Canada had done a remarkable and important thing in trying to get the countries of the world to agree not to produce, deploy or sell landmines,” but nonetheless reminded conference attendees that, the United States did not sign this treaty. This is because of President Clinton’s concern for the safety and security of our men and women in uniform and the unique responsibilities the United States has around the world for the security of friends and allies, not for lack of dedication to our common goal of eliminating anti-personnel mines from the face of the earth.

As we approach July 2000, some 137 nations have signed the Convention, with 94 signatories also having ratified the text. Official American policy is to be AP mine free by the year 2006, thereby allowing the U.S. to sign the Convention. Much work remains, however, if this target date is to be met.

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DRESSING FOR SUCCESS: THE SUIT ON STAGE AND OFF

HENRY SHAFFER

“Fashion is gentility running away from vulgarity and afraid of being overtaken.” William Hazlitt

When we dress, we are transmitting signals about our state of mind: how we need to be perceived by others; how we express a personal desire, and if we are lucky, how we fulfill our most secret dreams. For better or for worse, it is this public display of the daily, private reckoning with our bodies, that is a source of intense anxiety. We never, ever want to look silly, stupid or foolish. With this in mind, it must be said that we generally dress to express affinity with a certain group. There is comfort in being accepted by others, and clothing is a tool of mutual positive reinforcement. Very few individuals have the ego necessary to flaunt all the accepted varieties of dress and fashion available to us today: what is perceived by the majority as rebelliousness in dress places the wearer in the ranks of an identifiable minority. This herd mentality is what gives any era its recognizable look.

During the past six months I costumed five different theatrical productions ranging in period from 1660 to the present. *The Scarlet Letter* takes place in the latter half of the seventeenth century, *The Magic Flute* was composed and first performed in 1791, *The Importance of Being Earnest* and *The Voysey Inheritance* were written and produced in 1895 and 1905 respectively, and *Six Degrees of Separation* premiered in 1992. While the caprice of women’s fashion over this time period proved to be a source of delight and wonder, and sometimes puzzling to re-create, the men’s fashions followed a stately path of evolution in technique and tailoring. The present day culminates in the triumph of the tailor’s art, the man’s suit, and it is this evolution, based on my recent experience, that I intend to trace.

The first important change in men’s garments occurred around 1200 AD. Men shifted away from the traditional draped and semi-fitted garments worn by both sexes in favor of more fitted clothing which revealed the leg. The length of men’s gowns underwent an evolution similar to what occurred with women’s hemlines in the 20th century: once the ankle was revealed, it was only a matter of time before the entire leg became fair game for display. Men began to experiment with cutting and shaping fabrics, designing garments that conformed to the body. Women’s fashions concentrated on what became three traditional feminine garments: a skirt which covered the legs, some sort of bodice, and veils or hats. The mini-skirt revolution in women’s fashion of the 1960’s occurred in men’s fashions approximately 700 years earlier. Knit hose did not appear until the time of Elizabeth I. Prior to that time, hose or stockings were cut in a number of different pieces contoured to the leg. A symbiotic relationship between technology and fashion came into existence. As tailors developed new ways of cutting, the fashions of the times reflected these advances. In retrospect, developments in men’s clothing at the end of the 17th century were crucial to the origin of the suit, and what came to be the “modern” look in men’s clothing.

By 1675, Paris had become the fashion capital of the European world and the year is significant in the development of Western fashion. Until that time, men were responsible for the design and construction of both men’s and women’s clothes. The measuring, cutting, sewing and fitting of garments were dominated by the tailor’s guilds, which had as much importance as other artisan and professional guilds, and were as male-dominated. Although professional seamstresses were hired to do the necessary handwork on seams, trims and finishing, and women were responsible primarily for shirts, underwear, household linens and children’s clothes, they were never permitted, much less trained, to participate in the more complex technology of patterning, cutting, and fitting garments. In 1675, a group of French seamstresses successfully petitioned Louis XIV for permission to form a guild of female tailors for the making of women’s clothes, thus becoming the first professional dressmakers. This split was to have profound consequences as women dressed women and men dressed men.
There is continual debate about an individual’s impact on fashion and the development of a definite style over a period of time. Some scholars are loathe to attribute any serious trends in style to one person. Others contend that these trends can be attributed to a specific person precisely because fashion depends so much on individual taste. At the center of this debate, not surprisingly, stands Louis XIV (in red high heels, I might add).

The design for The Scarlet Letter illustrated the debate. Both Dimmesdale and Bellingham wore similarly tailored garments. The costume consists of a shirt, breeches, waistcoat and frock coat and represents approximately fifty years of evolution and experimentation in men’s tailored garments. However, the frock coat itself was a fairly recent innovation for the period and is based on the kaftan. The West’s fascination for Eastern art and culture, or Orientalism, has a long history, and as colonial expansion by the European powers extended into Africa and the Near East, this fascination found expression in modes of dress. European men during the 17th century adopted the kaftan as a domestic garment, much like the modern bathrobe, but, for whatever reason, the cut and style of the garment found its way into formal, public dress. What differentiates Dimmesdale and Bellingham is the fabric, and this is where Louis XIV, Charles II, the French silk and the English woolen industries come into play. Charles spent his exile during the Commonwealth as the guest of Louis XIV (Charles’ mother, Henrietta Maria, was Louis’ aunt.) After the Restoration, Charles returned to London, having adopted the French mode of dress known as petticoat-breeches, which ranks high in the more outlandish developments of men’s fashion. The chronicles of that era, Samuel Pepys and John Evelyn, recorded the dress and manners of the Stuart court in great detail and were particularly fascinated by the rivalry between Charles and Louis in styles of clothing. Daily reports from the ambassadors in London and Versailles included among other things, precisely how the monarchs dressed throughout the day (this was a period when every moment had its function and every function required the appropriate attire). At one point, Charles appeared at court attired in an ensemble radically different from anything seen until then, essentially a three piece suit. The sensation was chronicled by both Pepys and Evelyn. From Pepys we have “This day the King begins to put on his vest ... being a long cassock close to the body of black cloth ... and a coat over it, and the legs ruffled with black riband ... and, upon the whole, I wish the King may keep it, for it is a very fine and handsome garment.” Evelyn remarks, “To Court, it being the first time his Majesty put himself solemnly into the eastern fashion of vest ... resolving never to alter it, and to leave the French mode, which had hitherto obtained to our great expense and reproach. Upon which divers courtiers and gentlemen gave his majesty gold by way of wager that he would not persist in this resolution.” Charles, obviously one not to pass on a bet and to make good on a dare, did persist. Louis was outraged at this and retaliated (Pepys again) “... in defiance to the King of England caused all his footmen to be put into vests, and the the noblemen of France will do the like; which, if true, is the greatest indignity ever done by one prince to another.” Upon such slights do empires rise and fall.

For the next hundred years, the French and English battled it out. British colonial expansion into the Near and Far East was to have profound effects on the world’s textile industries. Closer to home, while the Bourbons patronized the silk and lace industries in France, the English aristocracy promoted the wool industry and, by wearing wool, elevated it to the status it holds even today as the preferred fabric for men’s suits. One designer put it best: “Wool is so forgiving.” Wool is flexible and elastic. With the proper pattern, good cutting and stitching, wool can be steamed and carefully manipulated to fit the shape and movements of the wearer’s body without permanently buckling and rippling. Silk, on the other hand, has little or no elasticity and will wrinkle with every movement. The French styles, made in silk, dominated the fashion of court attire throughout Europe. The silk frock coats, waistcoats and breeches, with rows of buttons and buttonholes and applied embroideries created a lustrous, rippling surface.
Karen Krastel as Cecily and Kraig Swartz as Algernon in *The Importance of Being Earnest. The Peterborough Players, August 1999.*

with each movement of the wearer. But English aristocracy spent little time at court, preferring to reside at their country estates, where more utilitarian clothing was de rigueur. Coats, vests and breeches made of wool or leather were better suited to country life. The more subdued matte surface of wool stood in contrast to the shimmer of silk. Where silk began to be associated with intrigue and artificiality, wool was valued for its connotations of sobriety and righteousness. By the time of the *philosophe,* the emphasis in men's fashion reflected the respect and admiration for the natural man. The simple brown wool ensemble of Benjamin Franklin elicited the admiration of the entire French court. With the Neo-classical revival in the late 18th century, the emphasis on basic form rather than on surface illusion and the "rediscovery" of the male body, men's fashion adopted as its model the simple clothes of English country life. However, the French, even in the bloodiest days of the Terror, were still able to profoundly influence men's attire. For approximately four centuries, men wore hose and breeches, effectively wearing two different, form-fitting nether garments. The dreaded *sans culottes* liberated men from tight, constrictive hose and the accompanying breeches. Any woman can tell you about the discomfort associated with panyhose, and while hose and breeches continued to be worn into the second decade of the nineteenth century, they were effectively killed off as an integral part of a man's wardrobe during the French Revolution. The *sans culottes,* or literally "without underwear," represented by the laboring classes of French society, wore long, loose-fitting trousers facilitating ease of movement. A recognizable, and vocal, segment of society can influence fashion despite its status, and the fusion of the comfortable *pantalou* (which is basically what the *sans culottes* wore) with the frock coat and waistcoat of the English gentry became the model for men's fashion to the present day.

Where some might see a great levelling of society and men's fashion with the rise of the suit, others see an opportunity for greater variation and competition. Where some see the monotony of equality, others see the capacity for individual expression of taste and detail. The technological innovations of the textile industry included not only the cotton gin and the flying shuttle, but the development of the standard tape measure. Before 1820, tailors measured the various dimensions of their clients' bodies and marked them on a long tape for easy reference. Along the bottom of the pattern pages from Diderot's *Encyclopédie* is a key to matching up the crucial points of the garment for construction, similar to the distance scale on a map. All the consumer needed to do was match the individual's measurements to the key. One of the unsung heroes of consumerism is the anonymous tailor who realized that there was a striking similarity in some of his clients' measurements — and thus the ready-to-wear suit was born. It goes without saying that it was American tailors who seized on the capability for a mass market, and by the mid-nineteenth century it became increasingly difficult to distinguish the American gentleman from the American laborer. One element of fashion that has

Mary Beth Hurt as Ouisa and Richard Cox as Flan in *Six Degrees of Separation. The Peterborough Players, July 1999.*
not changed over the centuries is dressing for an event or a specific moment in the calendar — especially on a daily basis. The upper classes have always distinguished themselves not only in the quality of the fabrics or embellishments, but in their ability to change clothes throughout the day. What is worn in the morning at home is not appropriate for an afternoon social call which is definitely out of place at a formal dinner party. While the American shopkeeper may be able to emulate his betters in a ready-to-wear suit on a Sunday at church, that is the most he will be able to do. (It should be remarked that rented formal attire is a very recent phenomenon — and rented clothing is fraught with all sorts of perils.) The variety in men's attire in The Voysey Inheritance and The Importance of Being Earnest is indicative of dressing for the occasion. The banker and his clerk are dressed similarly for business — later in the play, the banker returns home to dress for dinner in white tie and tails which, it is assumed, his clerk would never do. By contrast, Algernon and Jack are dressed for the same task — to make love to a beautiful woman. Jack, however, is dressed for town. Algernon is dressed for the country. All are wearing variations on a theme and have the ability to look amazingly alike (Voysey) or extremely different (Earnest) as the occasion, and personal taste, demands. One of my favorite lines from The Importance of Being Earnest is Algernon's retort to Jack when he, Jack, says that he has to change his clothes — "Please don't be too long about it. I have never known a man who took so long to dress with such little result." To which Jack replies that, unlike some people, he is never overdressed. Algernon's response: "If I am occasionally overdressed, I make up for it by being immensely overeducated." All of this could be a designer's nightmare: is Jack poorly dressed? Doubtful. Is Algernon over-dressed? Possibly. Can lapses in judgement be attributed to a surfeit of knowledge, as Wilde would have us believe? It all depends on one's taste, which, of course, is always open to debate and illustrates an interesting phenomenon. Clothes or fashion rarely form the topic of male conversation. It is unusual to hear a man comment on another man's attire. Men are able to assess other men by their attire through a variety of subtle signs and signifiers, an unspoken, but recognized, code.

Consider the fact that Flan and Larkin in Six Degrees of Separation are wearing the same suit. Two women wearing identical dresses is potentially disastrous. Two men wearing the same suit reinforce each other. The men are able to individualize their attire by the choice of shirt and tie, of which there is considerable variety: Will the shirt be a solid or stripe? French cuffs or plain? How wide a tie is fashionable? Paisley or stripe? What remains constant is the shared language, the supported vanity, the sense of relief. That Flan and Larkin wear identical suits occurred more by accident and was not a conscious choice, due to the exigencies of designing for summer stock. Despite having the cachet of recognizable stars and professional actors, most summer stock theatres operate under very tight budgets. Fortunately, The Peterborough Players has a large stock of donated contemporary clothes from which to pull a show. That the costume stock would have two grey double-breasted suits to fit two wildly different body types (Flan is a 41 Long, Larkin is a 46 Short) attests to the universality of the suit, and that grey suit in particular, as part of a man's wardrobe. Flan and Larkin happily occupy the same space wearing the garment. The unspoken agreement telegraphs shared taste, shared values while maintaining a respect for individual choice. What could be better?

The future? Some fashion critics say that we may be moving towards an era of "Informality" due to the influence of athletic and children's wear on adult fashion. I am more interested in what Ray Kurzweil, the chronicler of artificial intelligence, has to say. By 2030, computers will have matched all the functions of the human brain, and by 2060 computers will be endowed with the capacity to feel emotion. The question that presents itself is not how will men and women dress in the future, but how will all members of the brave new cyberworld dress?

Henry Shaffer is Assistant Professor of Theatre Arts.
Despite its status as one of the classic American novels, *Huckleberry Finn* has always been a controversial book. Shortly after it was published in 1885, the Concord, Massachusetts, Public Library Committee decided to exclude Twain's novel from its shelves, dismissing it as "trash...more suited to the slums than to intelligent, respectable people." Warmly approving the library's decision, contemporary newspapers denounced *Huck Finn* as a "trashy and vicious" novel, whose characters and action were of a low moral level. Yet some early readers had words of praise: William Ernest Henley was delighted with the story, with its "adventures of the most surprising and delightful kind imaginable." Another early reviewer, Brander Matthews, admired Twain's technique, especially the "marvelous skill with which the character of Huck is maintained" throughout the novel; we see all the action through the eyes of a 14-year old country boy. Matthews also found *Huckleberry Finn* "fresh and original" and praised Twain's fertility of invention, humor and vividness. He also praised the depiction of Jim, declaring that "the essential simplicity and kindliness and generosity of the Southern negro have never been better shown."

In fact, the portrayal of Jim was to become a subject of intense controversy a century later. Not one of the late nineteenth century critics mentions the issue that has become most bitterly debated in our own time — the issue of whether or not *Huckleberry Finn* is a racist book.

Although Twain had prefaced his novel with a directive that it not be taken seriously, threatening to banish anyone finding a moral in *Huckleberry Finn*, readers continued to analyze it. In the late 1940's and 1950's two highly influential literary critics, T.S. Eliot and Lionel Trilling, pronounced *Huckleberry Finn* a masterpiece. For Trilling, it was "one of the world's great books and one of the central documents of American culture." A major component of this greatness, for Trilling, is the moral testing and development Huck undergoes. As they float down the Mississippi River on their raft, sharing adventures and narrow escapes, a bond develops between Huck and Jim. Yet while Huck comes to love and respect Jim, he is occasionally nagged by his "conscience," which tells him that he ought to turn Jim in. As a slave in the pre Civil War south, Jim is someone's property, and Huck firmly believes that he is morally obligated to report him. In the famous "crisis of conscience" scene, Huck decides to "do the right thing" and write to Jim's owner, Miss Watson, telling her where she can reclaim her missing slave. Then, reminiscing about their companionship on the raft, remembering Jim's generosity, "how good he always was," Huck changes his mind. Following his "heart," he tears up the letter, implicitly rejecting the moral code he has grown up with. Convinced that he is a hopeless sinner, Huck concludes, "All right,
then, I'll go to hell.” This is a wonderfully ironic scene: at the very moment when Huck is fully convinced of his wickedness, the reader knows that his good impulses have prevailed. From this climactic episode, as Trilling observes, the reader takes away a powerful lesson: that what appear to be “the clear dictates of moral reason” may in fact be “merely the engrained customary beliefs of [one's] time and place.”

Neither Trilling nor Eliot objected to the portrayal of Jim or to the use of the word “nigger.” In fact, Eliot found Huck and Jim to be “equal in dignity” and observed that Jim is “almost as notable a creation as Huck himself.”

Having been anointed as a masterpiece, Huckleberry Finn soon made its way into the classroom. Unlike more linguistically formidable American classics like The Scarlet Letter and Moby-Dick, Twain’s novel proved accessible to students at all levels. They responded to its humor and to its appeal as an adventure story. Teachers found that they could build on this positive response to draw attention to Twain’s social satire and Huck’s moral development. Entertaining and instructive, Huckleberry Finn appeared to be an eminently “teachable” novel.

By the late 1950’s, however, a new kind of criticism began to surface. Black parents and public school officials objected to classroom use of Huckleberry Finn on the grounds that the book was insulting and even humiliating to black students. Specifically, they objected to the inflammatory word “nigger,” which appears on almost every page, and to the portrayal of Jim and other black characters. They argued that Jim embodies the stereotype of the “darky”: he is superstitious and gullible, and often appears more childlike than Huck himself. As a result of these protests, some school districts removed Huckleberry Finn from required reading lists.

The protests have continued for half a century, and the book shows no signs of abating. Last year the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People again filed grievances to remove Twain’s novel from mandatory reading lists in public schools, arguing that “tax dollars should not be used to perpetuate a stereotype that has psychologically damaging effects on the self-esteem of African-American children.”

Supporters of Huckleberry Finn argue that anyone who reads the book carefully can see that Twain is in fact anti-slavery and anti-racist. Jim is, in fact, the best person in the novel: honest, perceptive and fair-minded, a loving father and loyal friend. In contrast, the white characters include, among others, Huck’s father, a child-abusing drunkard; the Duke and King, who are frauds and swindlers, and the Grangerfords and Shepherdsons, two feuding clans whose main purpose in life is the murder of as many of their enemies as possible. Thoughtful examination of Twain’s use of the word “nigger” can help teach students the importance of understanding the context in which a word is used. They will discover that, although clearly a derogatory term, “nigger” was not in Twain’s time the powerful taboo word that it is today. Judge Stephen Reinhardt, rejecting a lawsuit by an African-American parent, addressed this issue, writing that “Words can hurt, particularly racist epithets, but a necessary component of any education is learning to think critically about offensive ideas.”

Where do Bridgewater students stand in this debate? My “Writing About Literature” class read Huckleberry Finn and examined the controversy surrounding it. The class of 20 included only one black student, Colleen Roberts, who was placed in the potentially uncomfortable position of being spokesperson for her race.

The issue surfaced early in our discussions; as the class considered the impact of the word “nigger,” a student posed the obvious question: “Shouldn’t...”

Jim, believing that Huck is dead, thinks he is seeing a ghost. These illustrations by E. W. Kemble appeared in the first edition of Huckleberry Finn.
Huck and Jim find shelter in a cave.

Colleen, however, decided otherwise. She enjoyed and appreciated the novel; she saw that Jim was the book's most admirable character. She considered all the arguments. What it finally came down to, however, was that she found the book painful to read. She was angered by the fact that Jim was a mere sidekick to Huck and that "he didn't seem to mind having no vote, no say, during their adventures, in what to do next." She resented his being reduced to a clown, and, in the final chapters, a plaything for the amusement of Huck and Tom Sawyer. She felt disappointed that the relationship between Jim and Huck cannot continue. In addition to reaching a different conclusion from the white students', Colleen's paper was different in tone. For her, this essay was not an academic exercise; it was the outcome of an intellectual quest.

"While I cherish my friends who happen to be white," she wrote in her conclusion, "I realize the burning race issues of Huck's day have not gone away; they are just dressed in different clothes. Facing them and not lighting out to another territory is what I must do without bitterness."

One thing all the members of the class could agree on: Huckleberry Finn could be a difficult text to teach. As future teachers themselves, they weren't sure they could pull it off. Learning to think critically about offensive ideas, they agreed, is a noble goal, but teachers need to make careful judgments about which offensive ideas should be presented to classes of teen-agers. They could imagine a tense and emotionally volatile classroom, one that might be difficult to control.

The consensus was that it might be wise to reserve Huckleberry Finn for mature high school seniors or college students. In fact, some teachers appear to have reached the same conclusion. Shawn Oakley, a member of our class who had been working with a sixth grade teacher, reported that he had come across 30 copies of Huckleberry Finn in a closet at the back of the classroom. The books were covered with dust.

Barbara Apstein is Associate Editor of the Bridgewater Review.
Hadrian's Sun Bees
Photos taken on a warm day in Italy in the spring of '98 were used to produce this composite of images at the excavation site of the ruins of Hadrian's Villa, the largest and richest Imperial villa in the Roman Empire. The honeybee suggests the warmth of a spring day and the sweet honey colored lushness of the past.
Sarah's Girls
This image began approximately 14 years ago as a small pencil drawing done by my daughter. The charm and spontaneity of the shapes caught my imagination and I further developed it into a watercolor painting. The painting was scanned and manipulated to produce the print exhibited here.

These images bring together the computer as a tool for image making with the traditional artist's mediums of clay, glass, collage, photography and paint. The scanner offers the possibility of using artworks or objects completed in other mediums as part of the computer constructed image. All of these images represent an effort to fuse personal and universal meaning, content, design, and expressive color into a unified whole. The process is at times playful, at other times difficult and sometimes downright frustrating.

Each of these images has evolved through a multi-layered transformation process using a variety of media to achieve the finished product.

PhotoShop is the software used for all the prints shown. Work is done with a mouse or on a Wacom drawing tablet and printed on a 720C HP DeskJet printer. The resolution varies from 150 dpi to 400 dpi depending the intended size of the finished product.
Color Quartet
The color manipulation capabilities of the computer permit the artist to test out many possibilities. These flower forms were first done in Prismacolor pencils as an unfinished sketch. Computer manipulation allows each part of the quartet to now sing with its own color harmony.
Swaddled Infants

The façade of the Ospedale degli Innocenti in Florence, opened in 1445 as a foundling hospital, is decorated with a series of medallions, each with a baby in swaddling-clothes, completed in 1487 by Andrea della Robbia. A photo of one medallion is the basis for this print.

Dorothy Pulsifer is Associate Professor of Art.
SERVICE WITH A SMILE: CUSTOMER SOVEREIGNTY AND THE COMMODIFICATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

BY MICHAEL DELUCCHI

Do college students view higher education as an academic convenience store where a degree is received in exchange for tuition checks? In a recent essay for *Academe*, sociologist Robert Bellah portrays students who approach their education with the attitude that college is just another consumer marketplace. He describes "undergraduates who, in arguing about a grade, said to their instructors, 'I'm paying for this course;' as though they felt they weren't getting the value paid for." Bellah's piece is just one in a series of recent critiques by faculty of contemporary student culture. According to these faculty, consumer sovereignty in higher education conflicts with the goals of effective pedagogy. An undue emphasis on customer service inverts the professor-student relationship by vesting authority in students as customers. This "undermines the concept of merit by contributing to the pernicious idea that students are customers, to be served only in ways they find pleasing."

Scholars representing a variety of disciplines and academic institutions have written articles lamenting the prevalence of student consumerism on college campuses. This academic milieu is described as one in which students do not expect a higher education to involve effort, challenge, or constructive criticism. Rather, students expect to be amused, to feel comfortable and to put forth little effort, to be rewarded liberally for self-disclosure, whatever its quality or form, and to be given high grades in return for paying tuition and showing up.

Mark Edmundson, of the University of Virginia, describes students writing their evaluations of his teaching as "playing the informed consumer, letting the provider know where he's come through and where he's not quite up to snuff." Even faculty critical of this component of the evaluation process report adjusting their teaching styles in response to the customer orientation of today's college students. In an essay that sharply critiques this form of market driven campus culture, Glenn Altschuler, of Cornell University, concedes that he "like(s) the applause" and is "not above a song and dance to keep 'em in their seats."

Student consumerism, an attitude that treats the university as a place to meet preestablished needs, has become a concern for college faculty across the nation. However, much of what has been written on student consumerism in higher education relies on anecdotes and personal observations. In an effort to make an empirical contribution to this discussion, my colleague (Dr. Kathleen Korgen at William Paterson University) and I conducted a pilot study on student consumerism at a mid-size public university. In this project, we administered a questionnaire to assess the extent to which students approach college with a customer service orientation. We included questions that asked students: 1) if they believe paying for their education entitles them to a degree; 2) how likely they would be to take an "easy A" course; 3) if they believe an instructor should take into account the grade they "need" in a course; 4) who is responsible for their attentiveness in class; and 5) how much time they devote to course work.

WHERE AND HOW THE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED

Our sample was obtained from a mid-size (approximately 9,000 undergraduates) public university in the Northeast. The student population is ethnically diverse, and comprised predominantly of traditional-age students. Data was derived from student responses to a 41-item questionnaire administered during the spring semester of 1999 in several undergraduate social science courses. The survey asked students to rate their behavior and attitudes toward
learning, faculty, grades, and several other aspects of their college experience. We used data from 195 questionnaires, representing student responses in required and elective courses. Descriptive statistics for the sample appear in Table 1.

**STUDENT ENTITLEMENT**

Do students approach higher education as an academic retail outlet in which they believe payment of tuition entitles them to a degree? We explored this issue by asking students to respond to the following questionnaire item (scored on a 5-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree): “If I’m paying for my college education, I’m entitled to a degree.” Our results revealed that 42.5% of the students agreed with the statement, 22.8% were “unsure” and only 35.8% of the sample disagreed.

**GRADE ORIENTATION**

Are students more concerned with obtaining high grades than learning? Many students reported more interest in courses that result in high grades rather than learning. When asked “How likely would you be to take a course in which you would learn little or nothing but would receive an A?:” 45.1% responded they would definitely or likely enroll in such a course. Another 28.2% said they would be somewhat likely to choose such a course.

**ACADEMIC WORK ETHIC**

Traditionally, it is expected that students devote two hours of study time per week for each credit hour. Therefore, a student enrolled in twelve credit hours would be expected to devote twenty-four hours per week outside of class to reading, homework, and preparation. Despite being enrolled (on average) for nearly 13 credit hours per semester, over a third (37.7%) of the students reported studying five or fewer hours a week. In addition, more than two-thirds (69.6%) of the respondents spend 10 or fewer hours per week on their academic work. Interestingly, when we asked our respondents if there was a type of student(s) they wished they were more like, 59.7% (of those who responded “yes” to the item) expressed a desire to be more like the students “who are most concerned about studying” and “keeping up with course work ...” This finding is an indication that, at least on some level, students wish they had a greater commitment to their studies.

**THE CUSTOMER-Student**

Our findings from a survey of undergraduates at a public university, not unlike Bridgewater State College, buttress arguments concerning student consumerism in higher education. The results support the characterization of an undergraduate student culture that subscribes to the idea that higher education is a consumer driven market place. This may be most vividly demonstrated from the finding that over 42% of our sample believe that their payment of tuition “entitles” them to a degree. While one might argue that nearly as many (35.8%) do not feel “entitled,” the fact that four out of ten respondents do feel “entitled” is indicative of a marketplace ethos that fosters a demanding, consumerist attitude.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE (N = 195)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHARACTERISTIC</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (Mean)</td>
<td>23.8 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Female</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Nonwhite</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median Parental Income</td>
<td>$75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit Hours (Mean)</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Common Course Grade</td>
<td>C+/B-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Study &lt;=10 Hours per Week</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS REPORTING AGREEMENT WITH THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE STATEMENTS:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM</td>
<td>PERCENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I’m paying for my college education, I’m entitled to a degree.</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would take a course in which I would be required to do very little work but would receive an A.</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An instructor should take into account the grade I need in a particular course (for graduate school, financial aid, etc.).</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the instructor’s responsibility to keep me attentive in class.</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
"Grade grubbing," in which students seek high grades for minimum effort, is often cited as a symptom of the consumer orientation of contemporary college students. Our respondents appear to embrace this attitude. Nearly three-quarters (73.3%) of the sample indicated that they would (“definitely,” “likely,” or “somewhat likely”) enroll in a course that resulted in little or no learning if they were assured of an “A” grade.

Our second item on grades revealed that almost a quarter (23.6%) of respondents expect faculty to consider nonacademic criteria (e.g., financial and personal needs) in the assignment of grades. Consequently, when students do not receive the grade they are looking for, they are apt to simply demand it. Bellah’s anecdote of students arguing with faculty over grades with the refrain “I’m paying for this course,” characterizes this attitude.

A majority (53%) of respondents hold faculty responsible for their attentiveness in class. Why? Critics of consumerism contend that students expect to be entertained and protected in the classroom, rather than challenged. At home, if students do not appreciate the information they view on television, they can change the channel. While many college students (or their parents) pay a monthly fee for cable television, most pay considerably more for college tuition. Therefore, one would expect students to demand a level of “entertainment” from faculty commensurate with the price of tuition. Bellah relates a story of a student in the Stanford Business School who “shouted at an able young sociology instructor, ‘I didn’t pay $40,000 to listen to this bullshit,’ and then walked out of the class.” From a consumerist perspective, the student’s action is logical. As Bellah describes it, the student believed that, for $40,000, he deserved an instructor who would keep him entertained with information he found pleasing. In this environment, students balk at accepting the authority of either their instructors or the institution they attend.

The responses to our survey item on student study time are consistent with figures reported by the Higher Education Research Institute that found only 32% of first-year college students nationally spent at least six hours per week studying or doing homework, down from 44% in 1987. Our respondents reveal a lack of commitment to learning for its own sake. Moreover, students’ preoccupation with grades and minimal investment in studying, together with their self-reported most common course grade (C+/-), suggest that many students are able to attain a college degree while putting forth minimal effort.

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSE TO CUSTOMER-STUDENTS

Clearly, any conclusions based upon the findings of this study must be qualified by the limitations of the data. This project was conducted at a single institution, which may preclude generalizations to other undergraduate colleges and universities. Nevertheless, the results highlight some of the challenges facing higher education faculty and administrators in the 21st century.

Colleges and universities can do little to lessen the impact of customer-driven culture on students prior to their entry into higher education. However, institutions can do much to install motivation and intellectual curiosity once students arrive on campus. While our data reveal much about students’ consumerist approach to higher education, one finding suggests that students want to dedicate themselves more fully to their academic work. When we asked respondents if there was a type of student(s) they wished they were more like, a majority expressed a desire to be more like peers “who are most concerned about studying” and “keeping up with course work...” This result is an indication that, at least on some level, many of our students wished they took their studies more seriously.

High faculty expectations of students and student accountability to reasonable standards will do much to improve the work habits and desire for knowledge of many students. In order to strive toward this seemingly obvious goal, faculty must be protected (by colleagues and administrators) from student consumer backlash in the form of low teaching evaluations for rebuffing “grade grubbers” and demanding high quality work. Anthony Greenwald and Gerald Gilmore’s research on student evaluations of teaching led them to conclude that “If an instructor varied nothing between two course offerings other than grading policy, higher ratings would be expected in the more leniently graded course.” Greenwald and Gilmore suggest institutions that use student evaluations to judge teaching ability take grading leniency into consideration when determining the effectiveness of faculty.

BRIDgewater REVIEW
Ironically, many colleges and universities use evaluation forms that read more like customer/student-satisfaction surveys than assessments of teaching ability. Paul Trout has suggested that instead of “asking students to rate the professor’s stimulation of interest,” concern for students,” and “impartiality in grading”—categories that allow disgruntled students to make pinatas of their professors—evaluation forms should ask whether the course was demanding, whether performance standards were high, whether the workload was challenging, whether the grading was tough, whether the students learned a lot. Indeed, how can college educators expect students to respect both learning and the professors who teach them when they are asked to rate their instructors as one would evaluate the staff of a resort hotel?

Colleges and universities today must actively create and re-create cultures that reflect the value of higher education. In order to do this, the expectations for students and evaluations of faculty must reflect a belief system that honors and supports both learning and teaching. What better way to encourage students to become more like their learning-oriented peers than to provide them with high performance standards, a workload that is challenging, and a grading system that holds them accountable for their own learning?

*The New York Times* recently reported that market forces had begun to influence the academic standards of one of the nation’s more prestigious institutions: the undergraduate program at the University of Chicago. Long a bastion of academic rigor, the university, in response to students’ and parents’ expectations, plans to reduce its core curriculum and expand its recreation and service areas. Hugo F. Sonnenschein, the University’s president is quoted as saying: “The commodification and marketing of higher education are unmistakable today, and we can’t jolly dance along and not pay attention to them. One hears constantly from parents and students: ‘We are the consumer. We pay the tuition.’”

In terms of strict market logic, the desire (by administrators such as those at the University of Chicago) to please the student-customer is rational. The model of an economic transaction starts from a fixed preference in the mind of the consumer, who simply shops for the best way to fulfill that preference. Therefore, if colleges and universities are simply supplying a product, shouldn’t the consumer be sovereign? No! While material objects such as dormitories and student centers may be made more “customer friendly” the classroom should not be judged by such standards. The teacher-student relationship is not intrinsically an economic one. There can be no fixed preference in advance, because learning is an essentially creative and unpredictable process. Teachers are not mere transmitters of predigested information. There are no algorithms for teaching how to think about and act with information. Professors must have the freedom and authority necessary to motivate students to learn rather than merely focus on being entertained and receiving what they consider to be an acceptable grade. Grade inflation, poor study habits, and consumer-oriented faculty evaluation forms all work against this goal.

Colleges and universities cannot escape our increasingly consumer-orientated culture. They can, however, make it clear that students, the “customers” of higher learning, are not always “right” and actually must learn from their professors in order to receive their college degrees. In order to do so, faculty must have the power and respect to withstand the potential hostility of displeased students who go to college with the primary intention of buying a good time and a degree.

Michael Delucchi is Assistant Professor of Sociology.
Complaints about MCAS have come from many sources and have focused on a range of issues. Students, teachers, parents, school administrators, legislators and interested bystanders have all chimed in on the debate. How good are these objective tests at measuring what students have learned? Do MCAS tests actually measure the skills they claim to measure? Aren't there other things we want our schools to accomplish beyond the specific forms of information and reasoning that MCAS tests? Should we be trying to measure these things as well? If we make changes in our schools on the basis of these scores, will those actions improve things? Will such actions be fair? That is, will they reward and punish the appropriate people and programs? The stakes are high, and the potential consequences great.

Consider just one of the issues raised in the debate about MCAS. Do the scores on these tests really reflect differences in the quality of the schooling throughout the state? That is a critical question given the way the issue has been framed by the policy makers who would make changes on the basis of MCAS scores. They speak of "schools that fail," and propose that schools with low MCAS scores be subjected to a range of remedies which might include reductions in salaries for their teachers, provision of vouchers for students to leave such schools, and even closing "failing schools." The underlying premise is that schools that produce low MCAS scores do so because the teaching is bad.

This spring a private research firm conducted a study of MCAS scores in Massachusetts and found what so many critics of the testing sensed from the scores, but had not pinned down with hard numbers. The fact that MCAS scores have been high in wealthier school districts and low in poorer ones was a consistent and worrisome fact since the inception of the program of testing. It seemed reasonable to conclude that in our poorest cities and towns the schooling was inferior. The teaching staffs were overloaded with entrenched and incompetent teachers, and the life and creativity had gone out of the classrooms. Perhaps they needed some sort of "renewal," to use a currently popular term in education. Kevin Clancy, chairman and CEO of Copernicus, the company that did the study, reported on its findings in the Boston Globe. Here is what they found.

If you take all the MCAS scores produced in a given testing session, the variation in the scores between schools does, indeed, change with the wealth of the town in which the scores were produced. Consistently Weston, Medfield, Harvard and Wellesley outscored Brockton, Lowell and Chelsea. In fact, the research combined scores for five social economic factors and tested how they were related to MCAS scores. The five factors were:

1) Rate of welfare dependency – in this case, researchers used the percent of families receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children, or AFDC;  
2) Family structure – measured by the percent of families that had two parents;  
3) Family income – measured by the percent of families below the official, government poverty line which is currently set at less than $18,500 for a family of four;  
4) Race – measured as the percent of families that are white;  
5) Educational level – measured as the percent of families in which a member holds a college bachelor's degree or higher.

The researchers added these five factors together into a statistical lump and correlated them with the MCAS scores. What they found was that over 90% of the variation in MCAS scores of students was explained by the combination of these five factors. The statistical procedure they used to arrive at this conclusion is not as complicated as some people would think.
make it sound. When we try to explain problems like the extreme variation in MCAS scores, we should never, ever begin with the assumption that one factor is THE CAUSE. Personal experience and a great deal of research have taught us that in human behavior a number of factors are extremely likely to be contributing to a specific outcome. For example, consider how successful a person is in his or her career. Do not take seriously the person who claims his success is due to a single factor ("Work hard, my boy."), since lots of people work hard with no results. Other factors must be present for success to occur. Among them are intelligence, knowledge, educational level, educational prestige, social skills, contacts, health, luck, capacity for ruthlessness, honesty, luck and so on. So, when these researchers combined five factors and set them against the MCAS scores, they were trying to account for variation in the scores with more than one variable. To find these factors they sifted through a large number of variables before they settled on these five. They were chosen because they were the most efficient in explaining why MCAS scores were higher in some towns and lower in others.

Notice that if 90% of the variation in MCAS scores could be accounted for by these variables, that leaves just 10% due to other factors. You can speculate what such factors might be, but even if all of the remaining ten percent were due to differences in quality of teaching, it would be small in comparison with the 90% due to the social-economic variables identified by the research. How, then, should we use such findings? To begin with, it makes no sense to punish teachers for the fact that they teach in poorer towns. Their students come to class with a range of burdens imposed by social economic disadvantages and these harm their ability to learn. In addition, these poorer towns cannot afford the salaries and budgets that support the most effective educational programs, making the rate of learning worse yet for the students. In wealthier towns the children carry no such burdens when they arrive at school, and are given all the advantages of higher spending on their schools and greater emphasis on learning at home.

But MCAS is not worthless. It is merely misused. Rather than use MCAS scores to punish poorer towns for being poorer, this research proposed a realistic way to find the under-performing schools we may wish to either assist or punish. If advantages like those identified in this research so directly lead to higher scores on tests like MCAS, then we can expect that students in wealthier towns should score higher and those in poorer towns score lower. We should then set our expectations for the performance of students on a scale taking these advantages into account. So, in a wealthy town like Weston, their advantages might translate into an expected average MCAS score in the 95th percentile of schools while students in Chelsea might be predicted to score in only the 20th percentile. Simply plugging values for a given town into Kevin Clancy's model would yield predictors like this. An under-performing school then would be identified as one in which the MCAS scores are below those predicted by the level of advantage or disadvantage of living in the town. The Copernicus research discovered that by this formula, relatively wealthy Marblehead under performed while relatively poor Chelsea over-performed.

Before we decide to punish teachers in poor schools for the low MCAS scores of their students, we ought to identify the factors underlying student performance. If we paid doctors only if their patients stayed well they'd scream bloody injustice. They can't control their patients' genetic propensities for disease, or whether they take their medications, or whether they eat decently, can afford to live in safe and healthy homes, can read the labels on the bottles or are afraid of hospitals. Teachers should be held responsible only for the portion of students' educations over which they have control.

William C. Levin is Associate Editor of the Bridgewater Review
My research involves a body part you may never have heard of, a small but important part of the digestive system called the sphincter of Oddi. The sphincter of Oddi is a small muscular cuff named after the 19th century Italian scientist, Ruggero Oddi, who first studied it. Located at the junction of the common bile duct and the intestine, it regulates the flow of bile from the gallbladder into the intestine. Bile helps us to digest fats; inflammation of the sphincter of Oddi can lead to formation of gallstones and prevent proper digestion. Improper functioning of the sphincter of Oddi has been shown to be a major contributor to biliary disease, which affects approximately 20 million Americans and results in over 600,000 cholecystectomies (surgical removals of the gallbladder) each year.

How does the sphincter of Oddi know when to open and when to close? Although we know that the nervous system is involved, the exact mechanisms of its regulation are not entirely clear. As part of my doctoral dissertation research, completed in 1999 under Dr. Gary Mawe of the Department of Anatomy and Neurobiology at the University of Vermont College of Medicine, I examined the neural mechanisms by which the sphincter of Oddi is regulated. Working with guinea pigs, Dr. Mawe and I identified a neural connection linking a section of the small intestine called the duodenum with the sphincter of Oddi. Using a fluorescent dye that is transported along nerve fibers (called axons), we demonstrated that neurons located in the duodenum send axons to the sphincter of Oddi. Neurons work by releasing chemicals called neurotransmitters from their nerve endings. We expanded our studies of the neurons going to the sphincter of Oddi by determining what neurotransmitters they synthesize. Neurons in the enteric nervous system (the nervous system which controls the gastrointestinal tract) can be divided into separate groups on the basis of their chemical content. The technique of immunohistochemistry examines the neurons based on their coding patterns for different chemicals. As a result, scientists can determine the function of a given population of neurons based on the presence or absence of particular chemicals within the cell. Using immunohistochemical technique, we were able to determine the types of neurotransmitters the neurons in the duodenum send to the sphincter of Oddi. We determined that these neurons synthesize excitatory neurotransmitters, which cause the sphincter muscle to contract.

We performed additional electrophysiological studies to further examine this mechanism. These studies involved recording electrical activity from target neurons located within the sphincter of Oddi while stimulating axons passing into the sphincter from the duodenum. We demonstrated that the duodenal neurons sending projections to the sphincter of Oddi are capable of electrically activating neurons located within the sphincter. Activation of neurons in the sphincter of Oddi by neurons in the duodenum is likely to increase the contraction of this muscle, thus closing the bile duct pathway leading into the duodenum. Ultimately, it is likely to be demonstrated that the pathway we have identified is directly involved in the sphincter of Oddi's function. The reflex circuit is likely to play several roles in digestion, including (1) generating waves of sphincter of Oddi contraction and relaxation that allow bile to enter the duodenum, (2) notifying the sphincter of Oddi that food has entered the duodenum and that bile should be delivered to aid in digestion, and (3) limiting the entry of digested food from the intestine into the bile duct during periods of gut peristalsis or vomiting.

The CART grant I have received will enable me to return to Dr. Mawe's laboratory as a visiting researcher this summer to continue to explore the role that the nervous system plays in the functioning of the sphincter of Oddi. Having established the working hypothesis that extensive communication between neurons in the duodenum and neurons in the sphincter of Oddi is important for efficient upper gastrointestinal tract function, I hope to further elucidate the roles these circuits play in gastrointestinal physiology. Beginning in the fall, I also hope to establish a related research project at the College, providing research opportunities for undergraduate biology majors.
The subject of my research is sustainable development, recently defined by the World Commission on Environment and Development as development that “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” In recent years, activists on behalf of environmental preservation, economic justice, and democratic control of corporations have found common cause in the move toward sustainability. A sustainable society must be economically viable, environmentally sound, socially just, and locally controlled.

The search for indicators of sustainability stems from the belief that existing measures do not capture the true state of social, economic, and environmental health. For example, the most common of the measures currently used, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), is a measure of all goods and services sold within a country. Another measure, productivity, compares goods and services sold to resources used to produce them (i.e., outputs/inputs). Other measures include median household income and, finally, levels of employment. When each is increasing, we pronounce the economy robust and, therefore, the society healthy!

What these measures fail to do, however, is factor in issues of social justice, economic equity, or environmental sensitivity. Increased spending on prisons or on oil spill clean-ups contributes as much to the GDP as spending on education and healthcare, the development of wind-based energy technologies, or food relief to the victims of famine. The GNP is indifferent to the nature of goods and services sold.

While productivity figures could tell us how much non-renewable energy is consumed in the production of goods and services, they generally don’t. More often than not the figures we get are for labor productivity. As a result, they often signal the displacement of workers to lower levels of employment.

The quality of employment and the equitable distribution of wealth are not issues in standard economic measures. Serving burgers at McDonalds is as good as semi-skilled work in a metal fabricating shop. One hundred thousand people earning $40,000 each is the same as 100,000 people earning $30,000 each and one person earning $1 billion!

Realizing that growth alone does not guarantee a healthy society, activists in communities the world over have begun to create alternative indicators. These are relevant either to the economy as a whole, to specific regions, or to individual organizations. One such alternative is the Genuine Progress Indicator (GPI). In the belief that household and volunteer work contribute to the quality of life, the GPI assigns positive values to these but subtracts for factors that diminish that quality. Some of the latter include resource depletion and habitat degradation, loss of leisure time, the costs of crime, and any growing inequities in the distribution of wealth.

Regional Sustainability Indicators factor in such negative values as water consumption and traffic congestion, while positive indicators are generated by volunteer activity and voter turnout.

Efforts to judge the sustainability of individual organizations have also blossomed in the past year. Europeans, alarmed at the degradation of their environment, are demanding “green” products in the marketplace. Although a meaningful “green label” has yet to arrive, the ISO 14,000 series certification might serve that need temporarily. ISO 14,000 is a set of international standards for environmental sensitivity and social accountability that goes beyond the bottom line. Few in this region know of its existence or the impact that it will have on the marketplace. Before long, many consumers in Europe will refuse to buy products from companies that do not have this certification.

In order to further our ability both to gauge the performances of individual organizations and to compare them with one another, I have created a sustainability scale. Using the scale, an organization would receive a score based on a number of factors, including economic viability, environmental soundness in products and processes and commitment to the employees’ education and training. Each factor would be weighted to reflect its importance. The same scale could be used to rate sustainability at the regional, national and global levels.

I have been invited to present my work at the World Congress on Human Coexistence in a Responsible World at the Dawn of the Third Millennium, to be held in Montreal this July.
Suspicion of the presence of heavy metal pollutants in these waters was especially interesting to Curry since the College, using money Curry obtained in a 1998 grant, had recently purchased an instrument capable of measuring their levels. The instrument, called a graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrophotometer (GFAAS), is housed in the Chemistry Department and is used in research and in sophomore and senior-level instrumental analysis courses taught by Dr. De Ramos. Collaboration between Curry and De Ramos (and the involvement of chemistry students in the collection and measurement of samples) was a natural fit for the study of these pollutants. Recently their project received funding support from the Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching.

According to Dr. De Ramos, heavy metals such as cadmium, copper, lead and zinc have specific gravities greater than that of water and all have been found to be related to chironomid deformities in other studies. In addition these metals are especially good research tools for the study of pollution since they are toxic at very low levels or concentrations. (Measurements sensitive to concentrations of only a few parts per billion are termed “trace” amounts.) To study the levels of pollutants in the water, samples are taken from area river sites within a one mile radius in the Taunton River tributary system. The first sites were chosen because they were suspected to be likely places where pollutants would be found. Samples taken from upstream and downstream of a sewage treatment facility (Town River) and a car junkyard (South Brook) provided the preliminary indications of the presence of chironomid deformities. Another site several miles away and not close to any obvious source of pollution was sampled to provide a baseline for comparison of levels of chironomid deformities. This site yielded results that puzzled the researchers since it showed levels of deformity comparable to the earlier samples. This raised the possibility of more generalized findings of pollution, a problem to be addressed in the research. In a follow up study, Dr. De Ramos’ research group, comprised of undergraduate students, will begin sampling this spring after the water levels drop and continue sampling until October. Both water and sediment samples will be taken this time and treated to preserve them for analysis in the graphite furnace.

Pictured above left: deformed mouth and teeth of a chironomid. On the right are a normal chironomid mouth and teeth.
Measurement of the levels of heavy metals is accomplished by introducing very small, carefully controlled volumes of samples from the water and acid-dissolved sediment materials (typically 20 microliters, well less than a drop in each sample) into a miniature graphite tube called a furnace. The furnace is then set in a cradle in the spectrophotometer where it is electrically heated to temperatures between 1900 and 2500 degrees centigrade. The heat to be achieved is selected to match the level at which the specific metal being tested is known to vaporize. As the metals vaporize, they enter a shaft of light passed through the furnace and absorb some portion of the light. Comparison of the level of light entering the furnace with the level of light leaving it yields a measure of the level of metal in the small sample in the furnace. The greater the amount of metal in the sample, the more vaporized metal will be detected by the machine and indicated as a digital readout.

Research like this requires the combination of a number of elements to be successful. First, there must be people who are aware of the environmental and research issues. In this case, Kevin Curry is experienced in issues of environmental quality, especially as they relate to fresh water systems. He has already conducted a number of studies of water quality in local rivers and ponds. Tammy De Ramos has a background in the field of analytical chemistry, with an emphasis on the use of spectroscopic techniques in chemical analysis. She has used and taught with the college’s graphite furnace spectrophotometer for years and has received additional training in atomic spectroscopy in a 1997 workshop.

It is also necessary that resources be available. For this study the recent acquisition of the graphite furnace with funds obtained from the college’s Bridgewater Foundation was critical. While we often think of resources in terms of laboratory equipment, the more important resource is human. The time of Professors De Ramos and Curry must be made available among all their responsibilities as teachers and department members. In addition, the study depends on the availability of the students who collect the data, prepare and test samples of water and sediment, and contribute in dozens of other ways to the completion of the research.

This project is an excellent example of how academic research can serve a range of interests simultaneously. Not only does it advance knowledge in the purest sense of science, but it also serves as a learning laboratory for students and provides the larger community with information that is critical to its environmental and economic planning. While preliminary results do not show levels of heavy metals that threaten the health of the people who live in the community around the College, these trace elements are, like the tiny insects whose deformities mark the potential for trouble, the “canaries in the mine” that these researchers are the first to examine.
If you have ever attended a Bridgewater State College convocation or other official ceremony it is likely that Professor Steven Young of the Music Department was the organist. Although Professor Young attained full time faculty status in 1998, he has been a part time member of the Music Department since 1985. During his years at Bridgewater he has taken on a number of teaching, choral and performance roles along with giving occasional organ recitals, and of course becoming a permanent fixture at College events.

Currently, Professor Young has a broad teaching schedule. He is responsible for the College Choir, which numbers forty students, and the Chamber Singers, a more select group of students who form an a capella ensemble. Professor Young also teaches upper level courses in Music Theory and Form and Analysis, two courses which provide students with a knowledge of the rules of composition and the process of developing a musical composition.

When he is not working with the choral groups or in the classroom, Professor Young is involved with pursuing his passion, organ music. He has been the featured soloist in concerts throughout the northeast, including a recent performance in New York City at the Church of St. Thomas on Fifth Avenue. He is also the choir director and organist at St. Catherine's Catholic Church in Norwood, where he leads a group of thirty singers.

It is clear from conversations with Professor Young that he is deeply committed to the organ and to organ music. He stated that playing the organ provides him, "with the ability to mix and combine sounds and to play the works of some of the great composers like Johann Sebastian Bach and Felix Mendelssohn." During a walk through the Campus Center on any afternoon it is possible to hear Professor Young toiling away at the keyboard, giving his interpretation of the great organ masters such as Jean Guillou and Louis Vierne.

His love of organ music has influenced his academic research. He is at work on a project that began with a visit to Paris a few years ago. Using a grant from the Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART), Professor Young hopes to further his study of two French organ composers, Mailly and Guilmant, whose works have not been given proper attention. Professor Young is interested in not only writing on the work of these composers, but preparing a CD which will bring their work to a larger contemporary audience.

While Professor Young's research allows him to pursue his love of organ music, his heart remains in teaching. He is responsible for the First Friday Concert Series that the Music Department puts on at the Horace Mann Auditorium. The concerts are designed to enhance interest in music on campus. Professor Young also has become involved with chamber groups in local area high schools. He sees his involvement not only as a way of increasing interest in music, but also as a recruiting tool for potential music majors at the College.

His most formidable task, however, is taking a group of college students who do not possess prior music training and transforming them into a quality choir. Professor Young is the first to admit that it is a challenge to keep rehearsals interesting and the students focused. He often gives the students background notes on the composers and the history of the composition. He also selects a mix of music from little known American composers to pieces from other countries and other time periods. His experience with college students has been rewarding, as is evidenced by the smile that comes to his face when he discusses his work with the choral groups.

Music is an important part of a liberal arts experience. Professor Steven Young is hard at work providing a range of music opportunities for the students at the College. But if you do not have an opportunity to benefit from his teaching and choral direction, then remember, whenever you attend a College function and hear the powerful music of the organ, it is likely that Professor Steven Young is at the keyboard.
FACULTY PROFILE
Gail Price

Professor Gail Price of the Mathematics and Computer Science Department is a faculty member who wears many professional "hats." Professor Price is an engaging teacher with a particular expertise in computer programming languages. She is also the Chair of the Department with the responsibility of overseeing the Math and Computer Science curriculum and the nineteen faculty members who teach the courses. Finally, she is the lead negotiator representing Bridgewater in its contract talks with the Board of Higher Education. Like many faculty members at Bridgewater, Professor Price has learned the art of balancing many tasks.

As an instructor, Professor Price teaches the introductory course in computer science. Because of the heightened demand for computer science proficiency, Professor Price has turned her attention to the JAVA programming language, which has moved into the mainstream of computer science programming. During her upcoming sabbatical, Professor Price will enhance her knowledge of JAVA and develop courses that will be introduced to the students in the coming years.

Besides her work with advanced computer languages, Professor Price has developed an interest in working with young mathematics teachers at the elementary level. As part of a statewide math initiative called PALMS, Professor Price has worked with teachers to alleviate their anxiety over math instruction. She calls her approach Math By Discovery. Over the years, Professor Price has developed a number of techniques to help teachers overcome their phobia toward math, including hands-on experiments that have a math message. Professor Price has recently worked with a group of 45 student teachers at Wheelock College to sharpen their skills, and she will travel to Bermuda during the summer to conduct additional workshops.

At the heart of Professor Price's teaching philosophy is a commitment to make mathematics a subject matter that is not intimidating but rather a rewarding experience. She is also working with a CD program that will assist remedial math students in grasping essential concepts and procedures. This will be a self-paced program that the students can work with at home or at the computer lab on campus. During the summer Professor Price hopes to develop a pilot program for the CD and test it out on a group of remedial math students.

In many respects Professor Price's work as teacher and department chair come together in her work as contract negotiator. Professor Price is an active member of the Massachusetts State College Association (MSCA), which is the professional union representing the faculty and librarians at the nine state colleges in Massachusetts. The centerpiece of the Association is the contract that determines the rules, procedures and responsibilities the faculty and the administration of the colleges must follow during the life of the agreement, which is normally three years.

Professor Price is quick to comment that she is energized by her role as contract negotiator. As part of the contract process she is required to poll the faculty to elicit their concerns related to the professional climate on campus and their vision of what a future contract should include. The input of the faculty becomes the proposal that is presented to the Board of Higher Education. As with any labor negotiation, the Board of Higher Education has its own set of concerns and vision, which quite often is at odds with that of the MSCA. This is where Professor Price has learned the art of negotiation. She and her colleagues from the other state colleges participate in what has become a long and arduous set of meetings in which both the MSCA and the Board of Higher Education seek to fashion an agreement that is acceptable to both sides. This process is difficult and time consuming, but Professor Price is determined to represent the interests of the faculty. When completed, the contract is a huge document that addresses issues such as evaluation, governance, workload, promotion procedures and of course pay schedules. In recent years, new issues such as distance learning, property rights and post-tenure review have complicated the negotiating process.

While the negotiation process is often a frustrating experience as both sides seek to advance their cause, Professor Price remains excited about the process and privilege of representing the faculty in what is certainly a critical part of their professional life. Like most faculty, however, Professor Price remains focused on her teaching, but because of her unique experience as a contract negotiator she is always thinking of how she can improve the instructional atmosphere and rights of her fellow teachers at Bridgewater State and indeed throughout the Massachusetts State College System.
Heaney, translating Beowulf properly is a matter of tone. The epic’s virtually untranslatable opening word hwæt offers a case in point. Charles Kennedy’s 1940 version, the verse translation I used in college, opts to begin with Lo, a very literary equivalent to what sounds like a throat clearing or an after dinner belch. Heaney rejects the “conventional renderings of hwæt and observes that the ‘particle ‘so’ came naturally to the rescue, because in that idiom ‘so’ operates as an expression which obliterates all previous discourse and narrative, and at the same time functions as an exclamation calling for immediate attention.” Heaney, knowing the oral tradition of the epic, realizes the crucial need for attentiveness in the listener/reader.

Heaney’s attentiveness to the speech he had heard throughout his childhood in Ireland, the direct talk and inflections of men he calls “big voiced Scullions,” aids him in echoing “the sound and sense of the Anglo-Saxon.” Anyone who has attempted to translate Beowulf knows that Beowulf’s glory in battle is not always equaled by any translator’s glory in matching the poem’s sound with its sense. I spent a semester in graduate school translating the epic, a fun but fraught exercise, and so speak with some experience about the challenges posed by the alliterative and syllabic verse. The Farrar, Straus and Giroux edition of Heaney’s translation reprints the full Anglo-Saxon text on the verso page and thus provides even the inexperienced reader with some notion of the original poetry. It’s easy to recognize that the alliteration and syllabic beats of the original are difficult to reproduce in English without sounding artificially stilted and rhythmically uneven. The original Anglo-Saxon which, as I noted, retains remnants of an earlier oral tradition relies upon formula phrases or kenning, mnemonic devices to aid the bard’s or scop’s recall. I reproduce a brief passage in the original where Beowulf and his companions leave their “ring-proved ship” and journey to Hrothgar’s monster beset court:


Kennedy translates these lines as:

Then the Geats marched on; behind at her mooring, Fastened at anchor, their broad-beamed boat Safety rode on her swinging cable. Boar heads glittered on glistening helmets Above their cheek guards, gleaming with gold; Bright and fire-hardened the boar held watch

Over the column of marching men.

Kennedy says of his method that he has used “alliteration, both of vowel and consonant, flexibly and freely both within the line itself and, if it seemed desirable, as a device for binding lines together.” Nonetheless, the reader senses the heavy presence of the ‘glittered’ and ‘glistening’ and the somewhat too prosaic “over the column of marching men” with its reliance on prepositions to convey the beat. Heaney organizes his translation by a different principle, saying he has “been guided by the fundamental pattern of four stresses to the line, but I allow myself several transgressions. For example, I don’t always employ alliteration, and sometimes I alliterate only in one half of the line to permit the ‘natural sound of sense’ to prevail over the demands of the convention.” Thus he evokes the original as:

So they went their way. The ship rode the water, Broad-beamed, bound by its hawser And anchored fast. Boar-shapes flashed Above their cheek guards, the brightly forged Work of goldsmiths, watching over Those stern-faced men.

Here the positioning of ‘rode,’ ‘broad,’ ‘boar,’ ‘forged,’ and ‘work’ show Heaney employing the alliterative convention to advantage, constrained not by the...
single line but open to the sense and movement of the whole passage. Yet, the technical virtuosity of the translation would be insufficient to rekindle interest in Beowulf were it not accompanied by Heaney’s sensibility about the ancient heroes moving across a contested landscape. In his 1975 collection North appears a set of stanzas from “Viking Dublin: Trial Pieces”:

Come fly with me,
Come sniff the wind
With the expertise
Of the Vikings—
neighbourly, scoretaking
killers, huggers
and haggers, gombeen-men,
hoarders of grudges and gain.

With a butcher’s uplumb
they spread out your lungs
and made you warm wings
for your shoulders.

Old fathers, be with us.
Old cunning assessors
of deeds and of sites
for ambush or town.

The reader senses in his lines Heaney’s affinity not just for the older poetry but for the “old fathers” who retain and revitalize the memories that keep alive the grudges and fuel the revenges. As readers of Beowulf know, the narrative of the hero’s exploits pauses on a number of occasions to allow the scop to interpolate cautionary tales. After Beowulf’s defeat of Grendel, the scop recalls how Sigemund slew the dragon and how from this deed came renown and then trouble. Later, the scop rehearses the fight at Finn’s Hall and the fraternal betrayals that consumed the people in a blood feud. Heroic valor and glory inevitably yield to renewed care and darkness, to Grendel, to Cain’s kin, outcast and prowling beyond the light.

Heaney seamlessly weaves the scop’s interruptions into the epic and smoothly moves the narrative from Beowulf’s arrival among the Danes at Heorot Hall, to his defeat of Grendel, and the rejoicing that follows. “You have made yourself immortal/ by your glorious action,” Hrothgar tells Beowulf; “may the God of Ages/ continue to keep and requite you well.” Hrothgar leaves ambiguous whether the hero’s “glorious action” or God’s protection has conferred immortality; Beowulf suffers from no such uncertainty and, at his boasting best, claims that Grendel “has done his worst but the wound will end him./ He is hasped and hooped and hirpling [crawling, dragging a limb] with pain, limping and looped in it,” the hero figuring his physical prowess in verbal display:

Celebration and banquet, gifts of gold distributed to Beowulf and his warriors, then “sorh is geniwod,” sorrow returns in the form of Grendel’s mother seeking to avenge her murdered son, for monsters too must follow the blood feud’s code. Again, this time in the murky depths of the wood-land mere where even his sword fails him, Beowulf must confront a foe swollen with hatred. Beowulf prevails in a struggle of so long endurance that his waiting followers believe he has perished and have “abandoned the cliff top [wishing] without hope, to behold their lord.” The hero re-emerges from the mere, bearing for good measure Grendel’s severed head, and tells Hrothgar that now he “can sleep secure with [his] company of troops in Heorot Hall.”

More celebration, more lavishing of gifts, and after some well-meant advice on the seductions of power, Hrothgar allows Beowulf and his warriors to embark for their homeland where, after some years of service to his father Hygelac, Beowulf assumes the kingship and for fifty years “grew old and wise/ as warden of the land.” But suddenly, angered at the theft of a goblet from his treasure hoard, a dragon begins to ravage the kingdom. Beowulf hears the news and feels “unaccustomed anxiety and gloom/ [confuse] his brain.” Again, as the aged and careworn Beowulf prepares to confront this newest enemy, the scop interjects more stories of trouble and ill-fortune, this time of a father “who has lived to see his son’s body/ swing on the gallows.”

He begins to keen
and weep for his boy,
watching the raven
loathe where he hangs:
he can be no help.

The wisdom of age is
worthless to him.

Tempus edax rerum, or as Shakespeare was to write: “Devouring Time, blunt thou the lion’s paws/ And make the earth devour her own sweet brood.” The elegiac shadow darkens the epic, for “Such was the feeling of loss endured by the land of the Geats.” The dragon proves too powerful for Beowulf; his warriors retreat to safety; only Wiglaf assists the hero and manages to overcome the wyrm. Beowulf, knowing he has suffered a mortal wound, gives the gold collar of his friend office to the young hero Wiglaf, telling him “Fate swept us away, sent my whole brave high-born clan to their final doom. Now I must follow them.”

The epic closes amid dark forecasts of doom for the entire Geatish people who now have only the flames of Beowulf’s funeral pyre to push against the darkness.

Heaney, as I hope my synopsis implies, sees in Beowulf the struggles of a proud but beleaguered race, invaded by strangers, betrayed by kin and friends, heroically attempting to keep their history alive through chronicle and song. “In the coffered/ riches of grammar/ and declensions,” Heaney tells us in another of his poems,

I foundbán-hús,
it fire, benches
wattle and rafters,
where the soul
fluttered a while
in the roofspace.
There was a small crock
for the brain,
and a cauldron
of generation
swung at the centre:
love-den, blood-holt,
dream-bower.
Beowulf.

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John Joseph Enneking was among the earliest of American painters to adopt the style of the French Impressionists. His contact with the work of these artists dates from 1873-76 and 1878 when he was studying in Paris, the years in which the first highly controversial Impressionist exhibitions took place. This was the period in which the style found only a limited number of supporters, even among artists. Yet Impressionism was to remain Enneking’s primary approach to painting for the rest of his life.

Spring Scene is one of the finest examples of Enneking’s Impressionism, and comes from a series of spring landscapes with flowering trees done within the period spanning the 1880s into the early 1900s. The theme proved to be commercially successful. Here the May landscape is dominated by a flowering white apple tree on the left, juxtaposed against a smaller pink flowering tree. They are the keynotes in a composition of light colors, through which the unifying elements of pink and white are distributed. On the right, for example, the progression into distant space is defined by a smaller white tree and a pink shoreline beyond. Lush greens and turquoise blues complete the view of grass, trees, water and sky.

The subject, palette and technique are most closely related to the work of French Impressionist Claude Monet, with whom Enneking had painted while in France. The line of poplar trees that separate the foreground and background spaces in this painting recall the series of poplar paintings by Monet done only a few years prior to Spring Scene. Enneking’s thick impasto paint, applied in small strokes of the brush, also reveals the closeness of this Impressionist style to Monet’s. This brushwork is particularly thick on the flowering white tree, helping to establish its dominance in the composition. The blue shadows under the tree follow the Impressionists’ rejection of black and grey for shadows.

The locale in which this was painted could have been near the artist’s summer home in North Newry, Maine, or, more likely, within the Blue Hills region near his home in Hyde Park, now part of Boston. Enneking enjoyed the landscape of the Blue Hills so much that he was instrumental in establishing the Blue Hills as a protected reservation, and one of its parkways is named for him.

During his career, Enneking was well-known and successful in American art, exhibiting to critical acclaim, receiving numerous awards, and having his work acquired for collections in major U.S. museums. His obituary in American Art News (November 25, 1916) summed up the reputation he had attained:

For fifty years he has been a marked figure in the local art world, both by reason of his forceful and unique personality, and the high ideals in painting he set for himself. A splendidly honest, bluff, kindly man, engaged throughout his long life in an unending search for beauty and the ultimate truth of art—such was John J. Enneking.

This painting was given to the College by alumni not many years after the death of the artist, as a major gift of art, and it remains one of the most important works within the Permanent Collection, housed in the Art Building gallery.

Text by Roger Dunn, Professor of Art
Photo by Rob Lorenson, Assistant Professor of Art