With this issue of the Bridgewater Review we take a new step in the evolution of the magazine. Students from the Art department will take on the responsibility of designing the Review. Under the supervision of Professor Mercedes Nunez, each issue of the magazine will have a guest designer who will have the responsibility of creating a unique Bridgewater Review. This issue of the Review is designed by Jason Rallis, a senior from Halifax, Massachusetts. We at the Review are very pleased with Jason's work and feel he has a wonderful career ahead of him.
Some Lessons of Education Reform

It is now some ten years since the Carnegie Foundation issued its scathing attack on American education in its study *A Nation at Risk*. Since the release of the study, this country has been engaged in a seemingly endless debate over how to improve the education of our children. There have been national commissions setting targets of excellence, state reform movements restructuring curriculum and funding formulas, and local school districts trying desperately to deal with the wave of new ideas and new demands that rise with great regularity from superintendents, principals, parents, politicians and teachers. Almost everyone, it appears, has a solution to the problem and is intent on voicing that solution.

Having three children in public schools and a wife who is a public school teacher, I have been forced over the last ten years to pay more attention to the state of education and the proposals for reform. Although I don't want to be one of those knee-jerk education experts who simplify the problem and provide general solutions to complex issues, there are some observations about the state of learning in this country and the state that I feel need to be presented. Unfortunately, most of my reforms are not easily codified in law or implemented as a bureaucratic regulation. Rather, they are reforms that strike at the heart of our contemporary value systems and behavior patterns, and as a result may be the most difficult changes to bring about. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that when we talk about education reform, we are really talking not only about what happens in the classroom but also what happens at home, in the community and in our hearts and minds. With this in mind, here is my ten point proposal for education reform:

1. Money does make a difference. Those who claim that school systems can get by with less if they work harder and revamp the way they teach are simply wrong. Money buys more and better teachers, more and better equipment and more and better facilities.

2. What happens at home is a critical ingredient in a successful education. The argument that parents must be involved in their child's education is valid, but involvement may be most helpful as a means of encouraging the completion of homework, stimulating the learning process and supporting the professional objectives of the teachers.

3. The best education reform is to give teachers what they need to do the job, free them from the grind of all the administrative minutiae and demand only one thing - that they teach children.

4. Respect for teachers is a basic building block of a successful education. When students, parents and citizens recognize that teachers are vitally important to a thriving community, schools will begin to prosper.

5. Teachers must take that extra step to enhance their skills, try new techniques and develop a classroom environment that stimulates thinking and exploring. Every teacher need not be a candidate for the Teacher of the Year Award, but the classroom should be a place that students want to come to in the morning.

6. Students and parents must be in control of television, not vice versa. Television, used properly as a learning device and a means of entertainment, is a positive development in a society, but it has become a tool of passivity and diversion from the essential requirements of a solid education.

7. Work outside of school may be a necessity in some cases, but it should be only a last resort. Hours committed to schoolwork have been replaced by hours committed to earning power and consumerism. For reform to succeed, education must be valued above a new car or new clothes.

8. We should stop comparing our education results with those of the Japanese. Few people in this country would like to live like the Japanese. We can compete with the Japanese without losing our own identity and culture.

9. Going to school must be viewed as akin to having a job. Students should be reminded on a regular basis that what happens at school is serious business, essential not only for their well-being but for the advancement of their community.

10. The history of any institutional change points clearly to the fact that overarching "mega-reform" usually fails and that changing institutions on the local level - school by school - is the key.

Much has changed for the better in our schools over the last ten years, but as my list suggests, the drive for successful education reform depends to a large degree on how we as people redefine what is important and how we intend to make our cities and towns truly livable communities.
It is quite common these days to pick up a newspaper or watch television and hear about the effects of a particular food on our body. As a result of the emphasis on nutrition in our society, Americans have become increasingly health conscious and aware of how eating behavior contributes to overall good health. At Bridgewater, Professor Edward "Jack" Hart of the Department of Movement Arts, Health Promotion and Leisure Studies is deeply involved in raising the nutritional consciousness of the student body and the surrounding community.

With his background in health promotion, Jack has developed a number of programs to analyze eating behavior as a way of preventing a variety of diseases. Jack works with students in his courses and develops with them a dietary analysis. For example, last semester some students signed a contract in which they pledged to alter their eating behavior over a period of time and were consulted periodically to determine how well they were meeting their contract goals. Changes were then negotiated about their diet and Jack recommended ways in which they can reshape their behavior to avoid the health consequences of certain dietary patterns.

Over the years Jack has found some typical problems in terms of eating behavior. Male students have the most difficulty resisting foods with high animal fat, such as those juicy steaks. Female students, on the other hand, do not have trouble resisting steak but have problems in getting enough iron and calcium, nutrients found in foods such as steak and dairy foods. All students generally rely too heavily on the pizza and hamburger combination. Jack has found that recently some males at Bridgewater appear to be getting the message in terms of changing their eating behavior away from animal fats, while females at Bridgewater have not been as successful in meeting RDA's (Recommended Daily Allowance) for calcium and iron.

Jack's studies of eating behavior and cardiovascular disease are not only confined to the Bridgewater campus. He has conducted research with the United States Navy and regional day care centers to implement programs that stress dietary change. Jack is particularly interested in the day care centers and in helping the centers develop proper eating patterns early on in young boys and girls. It is a difficult task working with youngsters in light of the fact that television, advertising and the patterns of the parents often tend to negate the efforts of the day care center to stress proper nutrition.

Jack is somewhat encouraged by the fact that more people are conscious of the connection between what they eat and how they feel. Furthermore, the latest government regulations requiring labeling on food, plus the trend in the corporate sector toward wellness training, have reminded Americans about the importance of health behaviors. Jack, of course, is a realist as he recognizes that changing nutritional behavior is a lifelong process requiring constant self-control and education. Those who have ever attempted a diet know the difficulty of changing eating behavior over a sustained period of time.

Although it may seem simplistic, Jack firmly believes that those interested in changing their eating patterns and avoiding certain nutrition related diseases should be guided by the principles of balance and moderation. It is not so much avoiding certain foods altogether as it is consuming a balance of foods from a variety of food groups and understanding the risks and dangers of faulty dietary patterns. Jack is not opposed to the occasional Big Mac, cheese pizza, or juicy steak as long as they are part of a larger diet that includes chicken, fish, salad, vegetables and fruit. Also, Jack strongly recommends that diet goes hand in hand with regular exercise. At Bridgewater, Jack and his colleague Robert Haslam, who is involved with the exercise component of health promotion, work closely with students to emphasize the importance of the lifestyle approach to disease prevention.

In his eleven years at Bridgewater State, Jack Hart has developed a reputation as an instructor who has made a difference with his students and the community at large. Jack's work in health promotion and his aggressive pursuit of good eating habits have made him a recognized expert in the field of nutritional behavior. If the students at Bridgewater leave the college with a broader understanding of how diet affects health, it is because Jack Hart has used his considerable skills in nutrition and data analysis to make real the oft-used cliche - you are what you eat.
A Historic Accomplishment...

Photos by Bill Greene and Alice Cary
On November 21, 1990 - the day before Thanksgiving - Bill Irwin, 50, arrived at the base of Mount Katahdin in Maine's Baxter State Park, thus completing a walk of the footpath known as the Appalachian Trail. Irwin's goal of hiking the entire Trail began on March 8, 1990. His excursion through extensive wilderness in 14 states included 8 national forests and about 60 state parks and game lands.

Unlike most thru-hikers -- those attempting to walk the entire 2,144 miles of the Trail starting from Springer Mountain in northern Georgia to Mount Katahdin in one hiking season -- Irwin's accomplishment attracted a great deal of national attention because of his disability. Irwin, a chemist turned Christian counselor from Burlington, North Carolina, is the first blind person (light perception but lacks visual acuity) to ever complete the walking Trail.

The Appalachian Trail Conference (ATC) located at Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, maintains and manages the trail. Completed in August of 1937, the Trail has become known as the world's longest continuously marked footpath, and in 1968 was designated by Congress as the country's first national scenic trail. The Trail follows the crests of the Nantahala and Great Smoky Mountains of North Carolina, the Blue Ridge Mountains from North Carolina to Pennsylvania, and ends with the Berkshire Highlands and the Green, White, and Mahoosuc Mountains in New England.
Most Trail users are day-hikers or backpackers who take trips of several days or weeks. According to records kept by ATC, about 1000 hikers attempt the thru-hike each year but generally fewer than 200 succeed. Irwin was the last thru-hiker to complete the Trail in 1990, averaging 8.2 miles a day and finishing three and one-half weeks behind the next to last hiker of the year. As Irwin put it, “I was last by a landslide.”

**Alternative Resources Developed**

Unlike most thru-hikers, Irwin did not use the ATC’s *Official Guides to the Appalachian Trail* which contain detailed descriptions and topographic maps. Instead, his son, Billy, made audio cassette tapes containing information about the Trail from Georgia to the Delaware Water Gap in Pennsylvania, and Laurie Peele, an ATC staff member, volunteered to supply tapes for Irwin from the Water Gap to Mount Katahdin. The tapes, which reached Irwin by mail during the course of his journey, contained such pertinent information as mileage between major landmarks and streams, locations of shelters, huts, hotels, stores, post offices, bed and breakfasts, all-you-can-eat restaurants, and people on the trail who are friendly and welcome thru-hikers. Most information for the tapes came from two ATC resources: *Appalachian Trail Date Book* and *The Philosopher’s Guide: Tips for A.T. Thru-Hikers* (currently known as *The Thru-Hikers Handbook, 1991*).

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**Orient’s Adjustment**

The ATC discourages hiking alone. Irwin’s companion for the eight-month hike was a German Shepherd guide dog named Orient. Both Orient and a ski pole carried by Irwin were used to assist with orientation and mobility.

Guide dogs (seeing eye dogs) for the blind are taught intelligent disobedience. During their initial training they are taught to remain cool under adverse conditions and to disobey any command that will lead their owner into harm’s way. Orient was trained as a guide dog for three months before Irwin acquired ownership of the dog. Orient was taught to stop before any elevation or depression in terrain greater than a couple of inches, but this was not a realistic height for hiking the rugged terrain of the Appalachian Trail.

Through trial and error, Irwin coached Orient during the first week on the Trail to accept broader parameters of mobility. Initially, Irwin fell about 50 times a day. By the end of the first week, however, he reduced the number of falls to 25 a day. “If Orient had been unable to adapt to the adjustments in terrain,” commented Irwin, “the dream of hiking the Trail would have been greatly diminished.”

Rocks, cliffs, ledges, streams, and bridges were all formidable obstacles to navigate. Orient helped Irwin interpret conditions by changing the pace, hesitating, and placing his feet in a careful and deliberate manner. “It was truly a team effort,” explained Irwin. “There were times when Orient lost his footing and I could steady the leash attached to the dog’s guide harness before he fell and there were other times when Orient helped to prevent me from falling.”

Although Orient’s health was good throughout most of the trip, he did experience some difficult times. In the first few days of the trip, severe abrasions appeared on Orient’s front legs, caused by friction created by the guide harness and backpack. Irwin carried Orient’s pack for the next three weeks until the sores healed. Orient’s backpack contained about 20 lbs of supplies, including a high protein diet for working dogs.

On two additional occasions, Orient’s feet were traumatized, once due to ice conditions in the Smoky Mountains (a foot of snow that melted and glazed
over causing a sheet of ice). Irwin had to rest Orient in a lean-to for several days until the ice and snow melted and the feet healed. On another occasion in Pennsylvania, sharp shells cut Orient’s feet, requiring another five days of recuperation.

The Orient Express

Along the Trail, Irwin and Orient were known as the Orient Express by fellow hikers. This reputation was based on their ability to locate and follow the Trail. “I was able to read the Trail signs with my fingers most of the trip,” said Irwin. “The signs were cut deep into the wood with a router enabling me to deduce the names of the trails and mountains, direction and mileage.” The two areas where signs were not available were the Shenandoah Valley and Connecticut.

In the Shenandoah Valley the Trail signs were made of small metal strips with embossed letters too small to read and in Connecticut the signs were out of reach to prevent vandalism. Fellow hikers, who met Irwin in these regions, attached sticks to signs or posts along the Trail to point out directional changes at various junctions. To start off in the right direction each morning, Irwin would pitch the front of his tent pointing north.

“Orient developed a sense and feel for the Trail,” noted Irwin. “Many times he would get us back on the Trail when we got lost by picking up the scent of other hikers. About half way through our journey, I feel that Orient was also able to spot Trail markers known as blazers (white markers, 2” wide by 6” long, placed on trees just above eye level). Orient was also able to identify trail markers known as cairns (piles of rock) found along the alpine summits in the White Mountains of New Hampshire.” When Irwin did lose his orientation, he would blow a whistle and wait for another hiker to assist him; such help usually came along within several hours.

Many hikers helped Irwin and Orient regain their orientation and direction. There were scores of situations where the Orient Express would not have made it without the help of other hikers and park rangers.
“My boots took a harder beating than most hikers,” explained Irwin. “Since I could not see where I was putting my feet, sharp rocks, streams, and weather conditions helped to wear out seven pairs of boots.” Irwin also broke six ski poles and three pack frames during his 259-day expedition.

In any hiking situation, falls are anticipated. On occasions when Irwin fell backwards, he used his pack to help absorb the shock of falling. He preferred climbing uphill since falling down would be a shorter distance and not as traumatic. In Pennsylvania, Irwin broke a rib when falling on top of a rock, causing him to call a friend in Burlington to come north and carry his pack for a week.

The last 432 miles of Irwin’s hike through New Hampshire and Maine were the most difficult. The Trail becomes a pathway across the seven rugged and beautiful Presidential summits in New Hampshire. Much of the Trail is above the timberline and known for its Alpine elevation (above 4,800 ft), stark summits, gorges, boulder-strewn ravines, and water cascades. In Maine, the Appalachian Trail is considered the most remote because it leads through the greatest and most isolated wilderness in the Northeast.

During October the weather conditions were very bad. It rained all but three days and sometimes the wind reached 60 miles an hour with a wind chill of 48-70° below zero. The Appalachian Mountain Club (AMC) staff headquartered at Pinkham Notch, at the base of Mount Washington, was concerned about Irwin being in such adverse weather conditions for days at a time.

The AMC provided Irwin with a radio. Several times a day he called headquarters to inform the staff of his location and weather conditions. During this time, David McCasland, a writer and friend, accompanied Irwin. Irwin and McCasland assisted each other in their attempts to forge the many swollen streams caused by days of rain.

“I became hypothermic several times,” Irwin reminisced. “The terrain in the mountains was ice and snow covered. I had to walk with crampons (metal plates containing 1/2” spikes) strapped to my feet for two days. There were times when I could not untie my shoes, take the cap off my head, or feed Orient. At times I lost total control of my hands because I was so cold. McCasland’s assistance during this three-week period in the White Mountains made the difference between success and failure.”

Irwin spent one night with the staff of Mount Washington Weather Observatory because weather conditions prohibited him from making it to his intended destination before nightfall. Mount Washington (6,288 ft) is the highest peak in the northeastern United States.

The Home Stretch

While in the White Mountains, Irwin became concerned about his sixth pair of boots. The leather was showing signs of breaking down and coming apart at the seams. He was concerned about a possible “blowout” (the sole separating from the upper portion of the boot). When a blowout occurs, hikers will bandage the boot by tying a rope or belt around the boot for a day or two until new ones can be obtained.

Irwin did not want to challenge the Maine wilderness without new boots. Finding a size 14 boot for a backpacker, as opposed to a day hiker, in a short period of time is a formidable task. Irwin left the Trail in Intervale, New Hampshire to visit Peter Limmer & Sons, Inc., a small company that manufactures customized boots. Irwin heard of the company from other hikers on the Trail but he also knew there was a waiting period of one year to have a pair of boots made.

Karl Limmer heard of Irwin’s efforts to complete the Trail before the first heavy snow fall. Limmer agreed to make a pair of boots for Irwin because Limmer admired Irwin’s courage and resolve to continue hiking the Trail under the adverse conditions that lay ahead of him.

The “Limmer” boot uses a Norwegian weld. The construction is unique because, unlike most hiking boots, the bottom portion of the boot is flared out before being attached to the sole. This unique construction tends to create a better seal thus making the boot more resistant to water.

Irwin confronted considerable ice and snow during November. “My objective of finishing the Trail in one season would not have been realized without proper boots,” remarked Irwin. “My feet, most assuredly, would have become frostbitten.”

A 2000 Miler

Buzz Caverly, Superintendent of Baxter State Park, was concerned about Irwin completing the Trail. Caverly suggested that Irwin climb Mount Katahdin (5,267 feet), the northern terminus of the trail, before the weather prevented his ascent. Irwin left the Trail at Stratton, Maine (184 miles from Katahdin’s summit) and completed the hike of the mountain on October 24, returning to Stratton on the 25th. Four weeks later (November 21st), Irwin arrived at the base of Mount Katahdin, thus completing a journey of a lifetime and adding his name, as well as Orient’s, to the roster of accomplished hikers known as 2000-milers. On the day after Thanksgiving, the mayor of Millinocket, Maine, a community located just south of Baxter State Park, honored Irwin by asking him to ride in the Christmas Day Parade and awarding him the Key-to-the-City. Irwin returned home to complete a book about his travel.

One might think that Irwin has done it all - but he hopes to continue hiking and plans to tackle the Long Trail next, a 265-mile path that runs the length of Vermont along the crest of the Green Mountains.

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Nathaniel T. Allen: Social and Educational Activist

By Judith Stanton

N.T. Allen was one of Bridgewater’s most outstanding alumni. A free thinker in education, in women’s rights, and in the abolition of slavery, Allen was also a man of action who put ideas into practice. His greatest achievement was the creation of the Allen (West Newton English and Classical) School. Progressive in the purest sense of the word, this school was on the cutting edge of social and educational reform for almost fifty years.

The Allen school was private and non-sectarian with both day and boarding students. Some were from wealthy and elite foreign families; some were from free thinking families in the local area; some were orphans and some were the children of slaves from the South. Radical for its time, its goals were social and political as well as educational. Its goal was to educate the whole person — in body, mind and morals. Education of body and mind meant vigorous physical training for both sexes, and a careful application of “every advance that sane pedagogy made available.” The curriculum offered preparation in classics, science, business, and teaching, but its major goal was character development. Allen wanted to draw his students out, to help them analyze controversial issues, and to teach them to think for themselves.

The Allen school educated approximately four thousand students. A newspaper article marking the 100th anniversary of Allen’s birth listed Allen’s students as coming from every state and territory of the Union, from North and South America, from Europe and the Orient. In 1854, the year of its inception, the school received the first Cuban to enter a school in the United States, and in 1872 it received several of the first company of Japanese students to enter this country. One of these students was Tanetaro Megata of Tokyo, Japan, who performed the remarkable feat of learning the English language, fitting for college, and entering Harvard without conditions all in the short space of eighteen months. While Megata was a student at the Allen school in 1872, he gave the first lecture ever delivered in English by a native of Japan. Megata went on to graduate from Harvard Law School in 1874, and from the Boston School of Oratory in 1879. He returned to Japan to hold several important political posts.

One of the chief strengths of the Allen school was its curriculum. In addition to English, history, mathematics and languages, the Allen school was one of the first to emphasize natural sciences such as botany and geology. Horace Mann joked that when he moved his family to Antioch his children’s trunks were so heavy with mineral specimens they had collected with Allen that he should have charged Allen for the freight.

Nathaniel Allen came from good Pilgrim and Puritan stock. Born in 1823, Allen grew up in an era of new ideas and reform movements for which the intellectual drive and independent spirit characteristic of his family fitted him. Allen appreciated the importance of heredity, environment and lifestyle in his own development and in the development of his students. Allen said that three things go to make up a man’s personal character: heredity, training, and individuality. In terms of heredity Allen seems to have been extremely fortunate. The Allens were known for their mental acuity, their talents in music and for physical strength and endurance. For example Allen’s brother William, a farmer, machinist and close friend of Nathaniel P. Banks, a Civil War General and later Governor of Massachusetts, was famous as a runner. Allen himself was adept at wrestling and proud of his “uncommon” physical strength. After only two months of training he was able to lift 1150 pounds. Dr. Dio Lewis, the pioneer in physical education, said that Nathaniel Allen was the strongest man he knew. Strength however was not all a matter of muscle. His intellectual and professional responsibilities also made demands, and Allen stated late in his life that protracted work at his desk had also showed uncommon powers of endurance. Heredity was combined with the training in upright living as was demonstrated in Allen’s family. Allen’s father Ellis was a farmer all his life, but he was also an idealistic Unitarian who took the greatest interest in all moral reforms. Ellis Allen was an advocate of peace, temperance, women’s rights and the abolition of slavery. Ellis was a friend of William Lloyd Garrison, Samuel J. May, Frederick Douglass and other opponents of slavery who, white and black, visited his farm. Ellis read antislavery and temperance periodicals such as The Liberator and the Christian Register and discussed their contents with his family. He took his wife and children to reform meetings. Since all the Allens were talented singers, they were welcomed immediately as part of the group. William Lloyd Garrison wrote that he would always remember Ellis Allen as “one of the tried
and true of the old guard of Freedom, whose feet were planted on the Everlasting Rock, whose faith and courage never faltered as to the ultimate triumph of the righteous cause."

These childhood influences taught Nathaniel Allen to value the principle of human dignity and to fight for the co-education of blacks and whites. When he heard that three black students planned to enter Bridgewater in the spring of 1846, he joined their cause determined not to begin the term unless they were admitted. "Mr. Tillinghast," he said, "though an abolitionist thought it prudent to consult the Board of Education as to their entrance. I waited the results determined not to enter myself unless those were admitted. Consent was given but for some cause they did not remain." Later, in 1852 when Allen traveled in the South he was well enough known as an abolitionist so that he was harassed and his mail was opened by the Post Office. Allen was part of the bodyguard for Wendell Phillips and William Garrison, and his house in Newton was a stop on the Underground Railroad.

When Allen started his own school in 1854 there was much excitement over the fugitive slave law. The school expanded during the Civil War and Reconstruction and during this time black students were welcomed into the school and treated both in the classroom and in the boarding families in the same way that the white students were. Usually this worked well because the principals arranged it all as a matter of course, and the pupils and their parents accepted it by force of example. However, there were times when this philosophy raised the ire of parents. Allen met their opposition with firm diplomacy. One southern father, on learning that there was a black student in the school, went to West Newton with the openly avowed intention of compelling Allen to send the black students away by threats to remove his own son. The father, however, had been warned that "with Mr. Allen a principle was involved, and that he would be more likely to suffer every white parent to withdraw his child than to send away a single colored one." Allen met with the father and explained his position, and both boys were allowed to remain at the school.

During Reconstruction black officials in the South sent their children to this school, which was almost the only institution, if not the only one of its kind in the country, where they could receive higher education. The son of P.B.S. Pinchback, lieutenant-governor of Louisiana, and the daughters of C.C. Antoine of Louisiana and Robert Smalls of South Carolina, were educated at the Allen School among others equally well known, and there were many free black students at other periods, from the Bahamas and the West Indies.

Allen's contribution to the anti-slavery cause is illustrated in a letter to him from Frederick Douglass in 1882. Douglass, an escaped slave who had joined forces with the abolitionists, had been a visitor to Ellis Allen and Nathaniel had been well acquainted with him. Douglass spoke warmly of the Allen family: "I remember very well my visit to Medfield mall forty years ago. The world, good and bad, was then opening upon me with vigor. I shall never forget the kindness shown me by the dear Allen family -- Though I had much to contend with in the shape of prejudice and prescription, the sympathy and kindness I met among the antislavery people, your family among the number, was full compensation for all I had to endure of that sort."

Douglass spoke approvingly of Allen as a teacher, "I am glad to know that the school of which I have often heard in W. Newton is under your charge. I am sure that no harm can come to any from the lessons they learn under your care." He also spoke of his own yearning for education, "I have often regretted that my antislavery friends had not advised me to attend school for a while, before making a public speaker of me, but they were all too much in earnest to put down the slave power and abolish the 'scum of all villanies' to think much of schools or schooling for me. Upon the whole they may have persuaded the right course towards me. I have at any rate made use of their kind guidance respectable way in the world."

Allen was as much an advocate of progress in teaching method as he was in social values. In fact the same concern for human dignity which underlay his abolitionist views informed his procedures in the school room. The particulars of his training came once again from a combination of family influences and the Unitarian dedication to school reform.

Allen's observations of the learning process began with his own experiences as a student in the district schools of Waltham and Medfield. Allen developed a long account of his first school experiences in his Reminiscences, which he was writing at the time of his death in 1903. In Medfield he was taught "by men of varying teaching capacities. Sherman of Weston -- club feet -- with whose condition I sympathized -- a good man... cross eyed who believed in corporal punishment, he watched us during prayer throwing a ruler to those he saw out of order. This they were to take to him and receive a blow from him as he took it. Warfield, the most unfit for school management of any teacher of mine. The most foolish class of punishments he practiced - Holding out books at arms end -- Picking up bits of paper one by one (prepared by him evenings) scattered on the floor -- holding down nails on the floor, sitting under a desk etc." Exasperated by this lack of reason, Allen rebelled and bedeviled the teacher until he gave up. "Being full of fun and roguish, I did my full part in bringing matters to a climax and the school was closed."

After the unpleasantness of his school experiences in Waltham and Medfield, Allen was sent to Northboro to attend a school being taught by his older brother Joseph. His experience with Joseph influenced him profoundly. "I was taken to Northboro and attended the center school taught by brother Joseph. And what a change! Hon. Andrew D. White L.L.D. [later a President of Cornell] pronounced Joseph the best teacher he ever knew. Hundreds of other students myself included will affirm the same. In Joseph was seen a master mind, a genius. Wide awake creating enthusiasm and ambition to do the whole school of 60 to 70 pupils ranging from 10 yrs. to 20."

Early incidents helped form Nathaniel's ethics and ability to work with parents and school committees. Allen mentions Charles Hammond, "An old time teacher and manager of school including parents, pupils and school committee. Without much knowledge he knew human nature and common things. (He) managed schools without friction. Very shrewd and kept the regard and love of his pupils though not the deep respect which high moral traits alone can develop and retain. Mr. H. would train his classes and have the pupils repeat over
and over what they were to repeat to visitors and the School Committee at examination day as tho it was impromptu which the pupils knew was to deceive. With all this Charles Hammond had rare gifts as a successful teacher and awakener of an ambition in his pupils and their parents."

However, Allen soon found that he himself was not without some ethical conflicts. He used his Unitarian and family connections to obtain his first teaching position and cheated when he found himself unable to point a quill pen to the school committee’s satisfaction. The usually moral and conscientious Allen was shocked at his own behavior. He wrote just before he died that the shame of that deception had remained with him for 58 years.

That he would do well in his first position was apparent on the first day. He appointed two students to be charge of pointing all the pens and his good sense, his humor and his generally good intentions won his students. He said in his initial remarks to his students that it was his desire to make a pleasant impression and to show, "that their teacher was one with them in sympathy in their sports as in their studies etc. Learning that their teacher of the previous winter, Cousin Henry Plimpton, had left the school in disgust in the midst of the term, that during some noon day recess some roguish youth had placed upon the blackboard an enormously exaggerated drawing of the teacher's boots, I told them how unpleasant and disrespectful it was while their teacher's feet were no doubt large. Suppose you attempt to make a drawing of my nose. There would not be room upon the blackboard (the only blackboard in the room was but about two and a half by one and a half feet)." This brought a laugh as intended and the pleasant relations between pupils (consequently parents) and teacher was established and maintained to the end.

By 1844, Allen was teaching in Northfield, and it was there that he decided to make teaching his profession. His talents and his observations matured as he found himself free to work his own way: "I always ascribed my invitation to teach the large Center school that season to my reputation for athletic prowess and perhaps my singing... It was at Northfield that whatever aptitude I possessed as teacher and trainer of youth, establishing cordial relations with parents and the community developed themselves. Here among strangers to self or family I was free to work in my own way with entire sympathy of pupils, School Committee and parents. To brother Joseph's... peculiar and rare management of the interior of a school, discipline and methods of class recitation very great credit was due. Added to this was an earnest wish to carry into the school the principles of Horace Mann so far as they were made known to me through Uncle Joseph and the public prints. Having seen much though never brutal corporal punishment in schools when a pupil, with never good results, I was quite ready to sympathize with the statement of Horace Mann: 'Other things being equal the minimum of punishment is the maximum of excellence.' This maxim I have always believed in and worked for its attainment... in public and private I have stood with Mr. Mann in principle and have to a great extent practiced in accord with the theory."
Allen then goes on to explain why corporal punishment was such an issue. "Considering the universality of the custom of the infliction of corporal punishment in family and school and almost universal belief in its importance as an educational influence it is a gratification to recall my position on the above. Undoubtedly the 'Spare the rod and spoil the child' spirit mingling with the total depravity belief made it so difficult for the champions of Channing's more Christ like views to prevail. Another statement of Mr. Mann's made a lasting impression with me, 'As is the teacher so is the school'... Buildings - Textbooks, and Apparatus are useful but sink into insignificance compared with the teacher, Man or Woman..."

In August of 1845 twenty-one years old with eighty dollars in his pocket and a series of short teaching jobs under his belt Nathaniel Allen entered the Bridgewater Normal School. Allen was impressed by Nicholas Tillinghast and his assistant Christopher Greene. He described Tillinghast as "an all round gentleman, teacher and educator. He described them both as "two royal men admirably adapted to the work." Greene he described as one of the best teachers he ever had, and Tillinghast he said "inspired his students with admiration for his character, an embodiment of clearness, thoroughness, and exact truthfulness. Each Mr. T. and Mr. G. broad souled, liberal minded moral reformers. It was a liberal education to come under the influence of two such men. The system of instruction was thoroughness personified. Clear as sunlight."

Allen kept a detailed journal during his stay at Bridgewater. It included notes about the subject matter and comments about application of the subjects especially math to teaching. He seems to have been very clear about his professional goals. "Extremely interesting to us," he wrote, "were the new and original methods, analysis etc., the habit of independent thought. Perhaps two thirds of our class, the 17th, had taught previously so were somewhat mature in their development. Then as Mr. Mann's educational views were still unpopular with the Trinitarian clergy with rare exception the class of young persons who attended the Normal Schools were largely drawn from the more progressive [Unitarian] families.

These Unitarians were not all seriousness, however. Combining physical challenge with fun, they swan in Carver's Pond every morning at 5:30 a.m. from August to Thanksgiving, even when the pond was frozen around the edges.

The program at Bridgewater was one year long, and Allen finished in the spring of 1846. He then went to Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, New York. His letters from this period indicate that he was enthusiastic about science and a serious student. When he finished his courses he returned to Massachusetts to become head of the Model Department at the Normal school in West Newton (now Framingham State College). There he worked closely with Cyrus Peirce who had brought the Normal School from Lexington to West Newton. Peirce was an outstanding example of thoughtful philosophy, kind heart, practical method, and hard work. An examination of journals kept by students Peirce taught at West Newton shows many of the techniques used later by Allen, and it is clear that Allen learned a lot from Cyrus Peirce.

When the Normal School moved from West Newton to Framingham, Horace Mann advised Allen to start his own school in the now vacant building. Because his goals were more progressive to engender public support, Allen thought it best to make his school a private one, and so in 1854 he teamed up with the older Peirce as co-principal to found the English and Classical School. Peirce taught classics and philosophy and Allen taught English and the natural sciences. They also offered training in modern languages, drawing, and music. Tuition per quarter was $10.00 for the Common English Branches, $12.50 for the Higher English Branches, $15.00 for Music and the College Course. Modern Languages were $5.00 each.

When Peirce retired, Allen drew on the considerable talents of his family, particularly those of his brothers, who served as teachers and co-principals at various times. Over the years, sixteen members of the Allen family taught at the school. As many as 8 taught at one time, and together they served an aggregate of 255 years.

The curriculum sought to cultivate clear thought and exact reasoning and to teach the student to use his mind as a tool for life's work. To this end the Allens taught science, government, political economy, modern literature, ancient and modern history and current events in a day when most schools were limited to the classics, mathematics and English grammar. Each student was encouraged to study one modern language and one accomplishment, either drawing, painting or music. The Allens wanted to improve the teaching of English, so they experimented with new ways of teaching spelling, and taught their students to write by assigning written responses to the issues raised by the flood of controversial guest lecturers who visited the school. The students were also asked to keep journals which were collected and commented upon by the teachers each week.

In 1862 Allen announced his intention to start a kindergarten, and in 1863 he engaged Louise Pollock, a teacher thoroughly grounded in Froebelian methods, to be in charge. Mrs. Pollock wrote pioneering literature on kindergartens and organization, and later ran the kindergarden at the Normal Institute in Washington, D.C.

Students of all ages and all races at the Allen school lived in school families parented by the Allen brothers and their wives. They were encouraged to grow gardens and keep pets so that they would develop compassion and responsibility. As an extension of this philosophy Allen started an agricultural department at the family farm in Medfield.

In 1869 Allen was sent as an agent of the U.S. Commissioner of Education to evaluate the school system in Germany, a system which Allen decided was efficient but which created schools that were "government" not "public and common," and which could never put children in "possession of manhood as we understand true manhood to be." This manhood or citizenship was, in Allen's words, "a broad and intelligent freedom restrained only by those laws of ... country which are in accordance with the laws of God."

Nathaniel Allen worked hard for enlightened schools and an enlightened society. Unfortunately, when he retired the spirit of his school retired with him. True to form, however, he was industriously working at writing out his philosophy the day before he died on August 1, 1903.

Judith Stanton is Professor of English
Craig Cowles, the new chair of the Management Science and Aviation Science Department, is one of those faculty members who followed a long and winding road that fortunately ended at Bridgewater State College. After receiving his Ph.D. in Organic Chemistry at the University of Kansas and doing post-doctoral work at the University of Nebraska, Craig embarked on a career in the corporate sector. At a number of major firms, from the chemical manufacturer American Cyanamid in New Jersey to Darworth Corporation (the makers of the water repellent stain Cuprinol) in Connecticut, Craig honed his skills as an operations manager, one of the most demanding jobs in the corporate hierarchy. While with Darworth, Craig obtained his Master’s in Business Administration at the University of Hartford and so impressed his instructors that he was encouraged to take on teaching responsibilities. Needless to say, Craig was bitten by the teaching bug and saw the opportunity to share his years of experience as an operations manager with students.

With his interest in teaching and his background in the business world, Craig was a natural to come to Bridgewater in 1984 and become a valued member of the new management science program. Craig not only was an instant success in the classroom but began developing training programs for local businesses. Combining his past experience as a manager with his teaching skills, Craig constructed a number of programs at the Acushnet Co. in New Bedford and at Bay State Gas. He advised his clients on how they could better train new hires to perform their jobs and also retrain individuals who were being asked to take on unfamiliar tasks. With each training program, Craig developed a video and a handbook that helped the trainees through their orientation. The combination of the video and the handbook helped to simplify the training process and assured a more complete understanding of the task required by the employer. For example, at the Acushnet Company Craig, along with education colleague Charles Robinson, developed a manual that was appropriate to the educational level of the workers at the plant. By gearing the training program to the specific needs of the client, Craig was able to fashion a successful program.

Craig’s training programs, however, are not merely designed to improve the training process for corporate clients, but also serve as the basis of his classroom teaching. He is firmly committed to making classroom learning real and to ensuring that his students have a practical knowledge of the workplace. The experience he gains putting the training programs together is immediately brought back to Bridgewater so that students can be aware of how to become better managers and contribute to a more efficient and productive manufacturing process. Craig’s keen sense of what works and what does not work in corporate-labor relations has been valuable to management science majors at the college.

Craig’s next challenge at Bridgewater will be taking over as chair of the department. Already he has developed an ambitious agenda, including greater emphasis on outreach to the business community in southeastern Massachusetts. He believes that Bridgewater has much to offer the region in terms of training and consulting. Also Craig is interested in developing new programs in management, particularly a Master’s degree in management and a new undergraduate concentration in global management. Both programs are designed to prepare students in the region for the corporate challenges of the future.

Sitting and talking with Craig, one cannot help but be impressed with his energy and dedication. Like many of the faculty at Bridgewater, he is determined to prepare students for the ever-increasing demands of the business world and to use his experience as a basis for that preparation. The College and the region can only hope that Craig decides to continue serving his students and local businesses and not return to the winding road that started in Kansas.
Often, faculty members and librarians at colleges and universities work in relative isolation on specialized topics. Bridgewater is no exception. Correspondence and telephone conversations with colleagues across the country help, but personal contact is irreplaceable. At professional conferences papers that have been submitted, evaluated by peers, and accepted for presentation serve as the stimuli for debate and discussion that would be unlikely even in the largest and most specialized of universities. Informal conversations at book exhibits and in corridors outside meeting rooms are filled with talk about work accomplished and planned. It would be impossible to calculate the amount of research time it would require to accumulate the new information garnered at national meetings.

One of the first goals of the Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART) has been to help pay for professional travel by faculty and librarians of Bridgewater State College. In this issue of Bridgewater Review, we report on some of the travel CART supports, and on how the participants benefit from it. Some of the following projects have already been completed, while others are scheduled.

In early January of this year, Sandra Faiman-Silva of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology was able to travel to Cuba to take part in a conference held under the auspices of Hermanas. Hermanas, a multi-cultural collective of women based in Princeton New Jersey, works on issues of peace and justice. The conference made it possible for academics like Faiman-Silva to meet with people who were joining the faculty of a newly developed women's study program at the University of Havana. The intention was to help in the development of this program. Faiman-Silva's presence was sought largely because of her experience as a member of the women's study program at Bridgewater, and as an anthropologist who has studied how various systems of social stratification influence the lives of women in them. While in Cuba she conducted an educational workshop, consisting of a talk and discussion session, on her anthropological research.

Travel to meetings like this often allow the participant to learn outside the confines of the walls of the conference. In this case, Faiman-Silva was eager to learn about a country that has, because of political circumstances, been made to seem alien, and even demonic, to many Americans. Cuba is geographically very close to us, but we know relatively little about it. For Faiman-Silva, the chance to see some of the country first hand was especially important given the widespread collapse of socialism around the globe and the possibility that the same thing might happen in Cuba.

Karl Schnapp, a member of the English Department, was able to present a paper at the National Conference on College Composition and Communication in San Diego in April of 1993. Dr. Schnapp's presentation, titled "Education against plutocracy," (discussed in greater detail in the Research Note..."
teaching a composition course which was focused on how education works in America. As schools teach skills and knowledge, they also pass on to new generations the beliefs, values, information and intentions that operate the American society of their parents. In short, education helps to reproduce America from one generation to the next. Through their reading and writing, students in the course work to develop their critical thinking about this underlying ideology of education. Schnapp’s paper discussed the way this process worked.

In most schools, it is unlikely that more than one faculty member would be familiar with the issues raised in such a course. From Schnapp’s point of view, the value of presenting an academic paper is made clear when a faculty member gets to meet the few other people who are doing the same sorts of things. Conversations during papers sessions and afterwards stimulate new insight into familiar problems. In a sense, conferences create the “assignments” for academics.

In November of 1992 Lydia Gerhardt and Debra Waterman, who teach in the Burnell School on the campus, made a joint presentation at the National Association for the Education of Young Children in New Orleans. Their work was designed to illustrate a model they had used to teach about diversity in the classroom. Specifically, they had data from their classrooms that demonstrated the value of personal experience in helping children to grasp the meaning of similarity and difference among people. During the year of the most recent Summer Olympics, they conducted their own academic olympics, pitting their second grade classes against one another in learning competitions.

of Faculty Members

Each class focused on a country. Gerhardt's class studied England, and Waterman’s class studied Brazil. Each class was responsible for the investigation of 25 core topics such as the form of government of the country, its housing, food, dance, music, and geography. The classes used a number of techniques to examine these issues, such as performing plays, presenting readings of literature, contacting pen pals and demonstrating language differences. Videotapes of their activities were played at the conference in collage form. Their aim was to demonstrate the approach they had employed to teach about ethnicity, and to learn from the experiences of other presenters.

Paul DuBois of the Department of Movement Arts, Health Promotion and Leisure Studies received support for travel to a conference in Indianapolis on “Coaching America’s Coaches.” DuBois has, for a number of years, taken part in this national conference, serving as a leader of roundtable discussion groups. His talk focused on three topics: 1) methods of recruiting coaches at all levels, (community to Olympics), 2) how parents can best be oriented to their children’s sports programs, and 3) how to put into place coaching-education programs at the college level.

DuBois' attendance did more than allow him to lead these discussions. His yearly trips to the conference also allow him to catch up on what is new in the field. The informal discussions and contacts are extremely important at conferences like this. It was at this meeting that he became aware of several programs that have since been put in place at Bridgewater, including a program about coaching education for women.

Lastly, in February of 1993 Margaret Snook of the Department of Foreign Languages attended the Conference on Hispanic Languages and Literatures in New Orleans. Snook presented a paper which analyzed a short story by the Argentine writer Adolfo Bioy Casares. The paper, titled “Change and Autonomy in ‘Margarita o el poder de la farmacopea’ (Margarita or the Power of Medicine),” discusses issues of autonomy and relationships with others. The story is a fantasy in which a character searches for a unified sense of self, exploring the boundaries between the mind and body.

Snook has published four articles on Adolfo Bioy Casares and needs the responses of other experts to help with her larger project of a book on his work. The concentration of scholars of Hispanic literature increases the likelihood of finding people who will know what she’s talking about.

The work summarized here would be understood better if you had been able to attend the various conferences. This fact should illustrate the importance of such travel for scholars who work in specialized areas. The few discussed here are only a small portion of those who have been supported by grants from CART.
An alumnus of Bridgewater State College, Robert Ward also holds a masters degree from Boston University and a Ph.D. from Boston College. A member of the Art Department, Dr. Ward teaches photography at the college. He is an award-winning photographer who exhibits his work frequently and is often a juror at area art festivals and camera club competitions. Dr. Ward has studied at the Art Institute of Boston, the Maine Photographic Workshops, the Massachusetts College of Art, the New England School of Photography and the Rhode Island School of Design. He has studied the nude with French photographer Lucien Clergue and figure photography with Elizabeth Opalenik. Professor Ward has also worked in platinum and palladium with Craig Stevens.
Cottage on a Hill. North Truro, Massachusetts.

Dr. Ward photographs in both color and black-and-white and works in small and medium formats. He is currently shooting with black-and-white infrared film. This medium produces scenes with glowing highlights and dark skies. All of the images in this series have been photographed on infrared film.

Photographs by Robert Ward

The fifteenth century marked the commencement of two trends which signaled the end of the medieval era and the dawn of modernity: the emergence of centralized monarchies and the introduction of print culture. Both trends were gradual and in their infancy in the fifteenth century, but their successive paths of development were closely intertwined. Throughout the early modern era, monarchs with aspirations of imposing an absolute and uncontested authority on their often recalcitrant subjects utilized the "new art" (ars nova) of printing to realize their aims. Select printers became agents of absolutism, and the craft developed at the discretion and under the auspices of the royal governments of Europe.

The spread of printing by movable type after its introduction in 1455 by the Mainz publishers Gutenberg, Fust, and Schoeffer was dramatic and revolutionary. Itinerant German printers introduced the ars nova to Italy by 1467, France by 1470, Spain by 1474, England by 1476, and Scandinavia by 1482. By the turn of the sixteenth century, the European printing industry had produced approximately six million books in forty thousand editions, far more publications than had been issued by scribes since the fall of Rome.

The twin powers of church and state were both excited and unsettled by this revolution in communications. Printers, as new and conspicuous craftsmen utilizing mechanical means and possessing control over the "creation" and dissemination of ideas and information, quickly came under close scrutiny. While the term "free trade" is anachronistic before the eighteenth century, printing was subjected to particularly rigid regulations once the power and potential of the press was grasped by the governing authorities of fifteenth- and sixteenth-century Europe. Their aim was not merely control, but mastery. Early modern monarchs, in their quest for power over both their subjects and the church, were duty bound not only to regulate printed opinion but also actively to direct it.
oyal authorities rationalized and justified their strict regulation of
the press in several different ways. The first rationale was
derived from contemporary perceptions of the *ars nova* and its
practitioners. Tracts of the period depict printing alternatively
and conversely as both the "divine art" and the "devil's art."
These characterizations are not contradictory; royal theorists
asserted that while printing was God's gift, it was likely to be
abused by man if left to his own devices. Thus kings, possessing
both divine and patriarchal authority in their realms, naturally included the regulation
of printing among their prerogative powers. This justification is expressed well by a
seventeenth-century English broadside, which asserts, upon little basis of fact, that
"King Henry VI purchased the first discovery of the Art, and thereby became
proprietor thereof at his own charge, whereby the same came to be taught and used in
England, but for the printing of such matters only as the king licensed and privileged
and by the sworn servants of the king only, and in places appointed by the king, and
not elsewhere."

In both England and on the Continent, printers exercised their craft only as "sworn
servants" of their sovereigns. Unlike most contemporary artisans, they were subject
not only to the rules and restraints of the local guild but also of the national monarchy.
Printers constituted part of the public sphere, plying a craft that was both essential and
potentially harmful to the national interest. At no time was this more apparent than
during the Reformation. Due to its perceived role in disseminating Protestant rhetoric
and ideology, printing was tied either to the "furtherance of true
religion" or the spread
of "heresy," depending on the religious orientation of the commentator. Cuthbert
Tunstall, friend and confidant of Henry VIII, Bishop of London prior to the English
Reformation, and witness to Martin Luther's testimony before the Diet of Worms,
expressed the latter view succinctly when he asserted that "we must root out printing
or printing will root out us." Uniformity and conformity of religion and opinion were
essential prerequisites of absolutism; thus, a king with such aspirations was compelled
to bring the press under his control.

Royal governments utilized several methods of regulating the press both before and
after the Reformation, though clearly these constraints were intensified after 1517.
Licenses for publication had to be obtained from royal authorities or from new
publishing guilds chartered by and answerable to the crown. The number of master
printers per city and country was limited by royal dictates, as were their presses,
employees and apprentices. Regular searches were made by royal and guild officials
to ensure that conformity and compliance were in effect. Privileges, an early form of
copyright, were issued by monarchs for both individual titles and general classes of
publication like bibles, prayer books and grammars. In a like manner, the printers of
early modern Europe became not only royal agents, but royal dependents.

rom the arrival of the *ars nova* in their realms, early modern
monarchs appointed royal printers to cater to the needs of both
dynastic crown and national state, two interests which were
merged increasingly into one. Royal printers often played a dual
role in serving the crown's interests *vis-à-vis* the press. The
great Flemish painter Christophe Plantin was appointed the
"Proto-typographer" of Philip II, King of Spain and also ruler of
an empire encompassing the Low Countries, or the Netherlands
and Belgium, much of Italy, parts of France, and vast holdings in the New World. The
powers and responsibilities of Plantin's position were also vast: supervision of the
printing industry throughout the Low Countries, investigation of the competence and
religious orthodoxy of every printer working in that area, and the production and
distribution of all official publications, both of the king and of local governmental and
ecclesiastical authorities. These commissions made Plantin the most prolific printer of
the sixteenth century.

Official publications were both practical and polemical. Following the example of the
church, which first used the press to issue indulgences and episcopal instructions, kings
utilized printing to facilitate the business of governing before they experimented with
printed propaganda. The "King's Printers" of the Tudor and Stuart monarchs of
England, the Valois monarchy of France, and the Habsburg Holy Roman Emperors
and Kings of Spain issued series of proclamations, statutes, tax bills and receipts, currency standards, announcements, appointments, mandates, safe-conduct papers, declarations of war, peace treaties, summonses, legal notices, grants of fief, warrants of arrest, amnesties, pardons, bans against disturbers of the peace, provisions against the watering down of wine, and recognizances for alehouse keepers, to name just a few of the varied instruments of government. Some of these printed briefs resemble true forms in the modern sense, complete with “windows” or blank spaces in which particulars were written down by the royal representative. The rapid and constant production of legal and administrative documents allowed early modern monarchs to extend their reach over their realms. Royal dictates became more numerous and thus more authoritative; instead of being posted on the occasional tree, proclamations were now affixed to the doors of each and every parish church. Printing went a long way towards solving the logistical problem of communicating royal aims to the population at large, even if that population was largely illiterate. Descriptive illustrations often accompanied the printed text, as in a Tudor proclamation regulating currency, in which the margins contain woodcut pictures indicating legal coins.

Monarchs seeking absolute power were compelled not only to extend their reach, but also to enhance their stature. In this capacity as well the *ars nova* was a useful tool. Throughout the medieval era, kings had claimed divine-right authority, but never so assertively as in the first centuries of print. Sixteenth-century attempts to glorify the monarchy and foster a “cult of kingship” were tentative, subtle, and indirect in comparison to the more sophisticated and systematic royal propaganda of the succeeding century. A notable exception was the propaganda campaign launched by Henry VIII’s chief minister Thomas Cromwell at the onset of the English Reformation. This was a campaign designed to establish Henry as supreme head not only of the English state but also of the English church; thus, it was waged on all fronts and with all forms of print. Cromwellian tactics are illustrated well by the frontispiece of the 1540 “Great Bible” in which a Holbein illustration depicts Henry VIII handing the Word of God to Archbishop of Canterbury Thomas Cranmer and Cromwell, who in turn dispense it to the crowd surrounding them. There is no doubt that this graphic illustration of divine-right authority was viewed by a large sector of the English population, as Cromwell ordered this particular edition of the Bible, and no other, to be placed in every English parish church. Religious propaganda was inherently political in the sixteenth century; thus, monarchs followed the example of the Protestant reformers in disseminating “cartoons,” or printed woodcut illustrations, to advance their points of view. One famous Lutheran cartoon, *The Papal Ass of Rome and the Monk Calf of Freyberg*, depicted its title characters quite literally. Imagery as character assassination was more muted later in the century, though royal governments made use of similar cartoons to belittle advocates of opposing faiths, both foreign and domestic, and impress their ideology upon a broad popular audience. Through print, political activity became public in a modern sense, no longer the exclusive purview of privileged elites.

Perhaps the most popular form of royal propaganda in the sixteenth century were accounts of royal visitations, entries and tours. Publications like Richard Mulcaster’s *Quenes Majesties Passage*, a narration of an Elizabethan procession, and Abel Jouan’s *Recueil et discours du voyage de Charles IX*, an account of the royal tour of France undertaken by Charles IX and Catherine de’ Medici during the French Wars of Religion, were detailed, illustrated, and much in demand, the bestsellers of their day. Both tracts were sponsored indirectly by the respective crowns and published by their respective royal printers, and both authors employed the most glorious of terms to depict the royal personages. Accounts of royal entries commonly featured illustrations, presenting the sovereign with a golden opportunity to impress his personal presence upon his subjects in a revolutionary way. Previous to this application of the *ars nova*, royal portraits were viewed exclusively by those with access to court, but now all sectors of society could gaze upon the image of the king in all his glory. Royal iconography, perhaps the most effective form of propaganda in a largely illiterate society, emerged simultaneously with print culture. Histories written with crown sponsorship or encouragement constituted another form of royal propa-
ganda, albeit a more subtle one. Often tracing the evolution of England, France or Spain from feudal anarchy in the middle ages to order and prosperity in the present, such "historical" works fostered a fledgling nationalism by tying together inextricably the fates of monarch, nation, and people.

With the foundation laid, the seventeenth-century sovereigns could afford to be more explicit in their assertions of absolute authority. James VI and I of Scotland and England dispensed with the historians and apologists altogether and served as his own propagandist after he acceded to the English throne in 1603. In his Trew Law of Free Monarchies and his speeches before Parliament, many of which were quickly published by the King's Printer for distribution throughout the realm, James asserted his belief in the divine-right and patriarchal authority of the monarchy. James seldom refrained from advertising his belief that "the state of monarchy is the supremest thing upon earth. For kings are not only God's lieutenants upon earth, and sit upon God's throne, but even by God himself they are called gods." Despite, or perhaps because of, these bold claims and assertions, Stuart absolutism was defeated definitively by two seventeenth-century English revolutions. It was in France that both the propaganda and the politics of absolutism reached their height.

Cardinal Richelieu, chief minister of Louis XIII and de facto architect of French absolutism, believed the employment of "skilled pens" was an essential enterprise of the king, so that he might "have them write clandestine pamphlets, manifestos, artfully composed apologies and declarations, in order to lead (his subjects) by the nose." Richelieu's favorite vehicle of propaganda was the weekly Gazette of Théophraste Renaudot, the recipient of an exclusive privilege for periodical publication as "the journal of Kings and of the powers of the earth." The Cardinal supplemented Renaudot's propaganda initiatives by submitting copy, written by both his stable of "skilled pens" and himself, and performing wide-ranging editorial functions in order to paint the attributes and accomplishments of the sovereign in the boldest strokes and the brightest colors.

Subscribing to Richelieu's policy and following his example, successive royal ministers exploited all forms of printed material, including single-page broadsheets, pamphlets, full-length books, and the quasi-official Renaudot Gazette, to propel the stature of the monarchy to unparalleled heights during the reign of Louis XIV, the "Sun King," whose symbolic name, stamped on every royal publication, placed him at the very center of his subjects' existence. The king's powers and grandeur were transmitted beyond the narrow orbit of Versailles by printed proclamations and announcements informing the public of everything from declarations of war to royal births and directives ordering France's bishops to hold ceremonies of commemoration. By using the press not only to disseminate information and rhetoric but also to solicit a collective response, the king's private, dynastic interests became those of individual Frenchmen and the collective French nation. The propaganda that characterized and colored the reign of Louis XIV was not only forceful, ubiquitous, and multi-faceted, it was capable of sustaining itself. For in the words of Jean de la Chapelle, one of the Sun King's most able apologists, "it is an arrangement of Providence, which wanted to teach men that the heroic actions of Louis le Grand, somewhat similar to God's marvels, needed nothing more than the simplest mouths to publicize them." Of course the "simplest mouths" were fed by the produce of the press.

It was during the reign of Louis le Grand that the bilateral press policy of the early modern state reached its fulfillment; the printed word was both restricted and redirected to serve the interests of the public sphere, which were not coincidentally identical to those of the private king. For more than two centuries after the introduction of print, a steady procession of proclamations, pamphlets, and propaganda had articulated, defended, and enlarged progressively the royal prerogative, but the ars nova, now not so new, would not always be so easily mastered. With the death of Louis XIV in 1715 a new age dawned, one in which the press was utilized increasingly as an opponent, rather than an agent, of absolutism.

Donna A. Vinson is Assistant Professor of History
CULTURAL COMMENTARY:

USE THE ROD AND SPOIL THE CITIZEN

By William C. Levin

Some questions are sure-fire discussion starters in my classes. "Are genetic or environmental factors more influential in forming adult characteristics?" "What will be the eventual consequences of the current changes in gender relationships in America?" "Do cats act like that because they are too stupid to understand anything at all, or because they are too smart to care?"

Recently, I discovered a study which presented high quality data bearing on another hot topic; whether it is wise to physically punish children for wrongdoing. Because the data helped me make up my mind on the issue, I would like to summarize the research here. Perhaps it will help you, too.

The Consequences of Physically Punishing Children

Consider the motivation of parents who spank their four-year-old son for playing with matches in the attic. Presumably, they intend to make their home safer by preventing such dangerous play, and to make their child obey the rules of the home and the larger society. They may also hope that punishing the child will make him a better citizen of society as an adult. That is what we mean when we quote the biblical saying "spare the rod and spoil the child." But does their punishment accomplish these ends? Recent research on the subject by Murray Straus, a University of New Hampshire specialist in the study of family violence, runs directly counter to these commonly held American beliefs about the effects of physically disciplining children.

Straus cites data from the 1975 and 1985 National Family Violence Surveys to show that more than 90 percent of American parents physically punish their children to correct misbehavior. Figure 1 shows the reported rates of physical punishment of children for a 1985 national random sample of 3229 American parents. As you can see from the figure, almost all American families are reported to use physical punishment on their children who are between the ages of two and six; parents are permitted by law in all 50 states to physically punish their children. However, Straus contends that physical punishment of children has quite different consequences than Americans generally believe. It may produce obedience in children in the short term, but in the long run only increases the probability that they will engage in violent crime in adolescence and adulthood. To support this belief, Straus develops a theory he calls "Cultural Spillover Theory," and then cites evidence from a range of surveys which are consistent with the theory.

Cultural Spillover Theory

According to Straus, children learn about violence when they are punished by their parents, and that knowledge can be used in many ways. He claims that "Violence in one sphere of life tends to engender violence in other spheres, and that this carry-over process transcends the bounds between legitimate and criminal use of force." That is, parents who punish their children use violence with good intentions, such as teaching them that their behavior has endangered others, or that respect for authority is necessary for getting along in society. However, once parents have taught their children that violence has its uses, they no longer control how the lesson is applied. It is more than obvious to any American that violence also has its uses in a wide range of crime and deviance.

Straus' Evidence for the Theory

Straus was interested in demonstrating that where violence is approved of to achieve legitimate ends, it is also used in illegitimate behavior. In order to support this theory of Cultural Spillover Straus cites data from a number of studies. Here are five of the many specific findings of research which he uses to support his theory.
1) In the late 1980's Straus, along with colleagues Larry Baron and David Jaffe, tried to account for the large differences in the rates of rape and murder in various areas of the United States. In order to conduct their study they developed a measure which they called the Legitimate Violence Index. It was used to measure the extent to which people in a given state approved of using violence as a means for achieving socially legitimate goals ranging from disciplining children to punishing crime. They discovered a strong relationship between scores on the Legitimate Violence Index and rates of violent crime such as rape. That is, the more the people in a state approved of the use of violence for legitimate goals, the greater the rate of illegitimate violence in the state.

2) In 1987, using data from the New Hampshire Child Abuse Survey, Straus and David Moore published a study of the relationship between the legal and illegal use of violence. They found that parents in the sample who approved of physically disciplining their children for wrongdoing had a four times higher rate of child abuse than did the parents who did not approve of physically disciplining their children.

3) Straus examined the data from a 1972 study in which students were asked to recall events from their high school years, including the extent to which they had been physically punished by their parents and the amount of delinquency in which they had taken part. Again, the link between uses of violence (punishment by parents) and the extension of those lessons to illegitimate purposes (delinquency among the children) showed up in the data. The high school seniors who were physically punished reported having engaged in significantly more violent crime and property crime than did those who were not physically punished by their parents.

4) Data from the 1985 National Family Violence Survey also showed the operation of Cultural Spillover. The more the respondents had been physically punished as teenagers, the greater the likelihood of their committing violent acts outside their families when they became adults.

5) Working with John Schwed in 1979, Straus found that the legitimation of violence can extend beyond the family. The researchers examined the rates of physical abuse by parents serving in varying units in the military. They reasoned that the use of violence would be seen as more legitimate in combat than in non-combat units of the military. As predicted by Cultural Spillover Theory, they found that the reported rate of parental abuse was significantly higher among those serving in combat units than among those serving in non-combat units. And if you are thinking that this is just the likely consequence of parents spending so much time practicing for combat with varying sorts of weapons, Schwed and Straus also report that most members of combat units serve in non-combat jobs, such as "mechanics, truck drivers, and cooks."
What Now?

One problem I have in class is that the questions that interest the largest number of students are also, too often, the ones for which solid evidence is either impossible to find or so contradictory that we can draw no solid conclusions. In this case, it has always been difficult to find data to address questions about the consequences of physically punishing a child. In addition, I wonder whether people are really interested in learning anything that might change, or make up their minds, about issues like these. It sometimes seems that no data could be good enough to impress a person who has already taken a position on a controversial topic, whether that position is pro, con, or "nobody knows."

I wanted to show that solid data does exist, even in areas of controversy like this one, and Straus' work satisfies the most important criteria for useful social science data. It is carefully collected and analyzed, and it is expressed within a theoretical framework (Cultural Spillover Theory) which makes it understandable. Certainly no data is beyond criticism. In fact, Straus clearly acknowledges that the relationships he describes have not been shown to be causal. Look back at each of the six findings I selected from the study and you will find a pattern. In each case it is impossible to determine whether the legitimization of violence or the illegitimate use of violence came first. He acknowledges the need for long-term, controlled studies, which compare families which approve of physical punishment of children with those who do not. Which produces the less violent, less criminal offspring? For the time being, I am convinced by Straus' data that cultural spillover is one of the forces that is contributing to the level of violence in America.

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If you would like to read the original study summarized here, you can find it in the journals section of the Maxwell Library at Bridgewater State College. The citation is: Murray A. Straus, "Discipline and Deviance: Physical Punishment of Children and Violence and Other Crime in Adulthood," Social Problems 38 (1991): 133-154
The first of our reports on the J. Joseph Moakley Center for Technological Applications, which will be built on the campus of Bridgewater State College, described possible designs for the electronic classrooms it will house. This report will focus on plans for the electronic communication network, a new technological application with the potential to revolutionize the way we work with information, and with one another.

Electronic networking is the connection of computers, work stations and a variety of other equipment locally and over wide distances. In the story of the advance of human knowledge this does not sound exciting when compared, for example, with the discoveries of great thinkers like Charles Darwin, Marie Curie or Albert Einstein. But it can really stir your imagination once the scale of the potential impact of the technology becomes clear.

Imagine a world in which there is a great deal of knowledge about why things work as they do, but each bit of this knowledge is held by a different person, they do not know one another, and they are scattered all over the world. In addition, these people account for less than one percent of the population and they speak different languages. Clearly, this knowledge is worth a small fraction of what it would be if those who knew things were able to easily share information with one another and with the rest of the world. In short, disorganized knowledge is relatively worthless.

The first major advance in the organization of written information was the library. Today it is hardly an exciting concept. However, in the last three centuries B.C. it formed the core of the Hellenistic era, when, for the first time in Western history, a large scale attempt was made to collect in the libraries of Alexandria the recorded knowledge of the time. By modern standards access to the information was neither democratic nor widespread (for one thing, there was so little literacy), and the scale of the collection was small, but it fed the growth of a community of thought and creativity, which is still seen as a great leap in our intellectual and aesthetic history.

In the intervening two thousand years we have, of course, accumulated vast amounts of information in countless libraries, but the core of the collections is still paper volumes that we must travel to central sites to read. Since the early development of libraries and the invention of printing more than 500 years ago, our advances in the areas of organization of and access to knowledge have been of degree, not of kind. It looks like that is about to change with the development of the equivalent of one electronic, multi-media library. It will require no travel and, ideally, will be connected in the network so that any user will have access to any information in the system in any of a range of forms.

The development of electronic media, such as magnetic recording tape, video, computer storage on disk or tape, CD ROM and a host of others still being invented and perfected, has changed the way information is stored and transmitted. Virtually all newly acquired information in modern culture is produced in electronic form, and our accumulated knowledge is being translated into electronic form at a staggering rate. At first this merely meant that access to the information was easier for the small percentage of people who used the new technologies. But these technologies have now spread through the population so broadly that their mass application to the organization of information is imminent. Here is a sketch of how the system will operate on the network that is provided by the Moakley Center funding.
The Structure of the Electronic Network

Electronic equipment of three types will be linked in the Moakley Center and eventually across the campus: 1) voice, including telephone and cable lines, 2) video, including cameras, monitors and satellite communications and 3) data, including personal computers, large mainframe computers and network interconnections between them.

These connections range from the local (such as telephones and computers on the campus) to global (such as voice, video and data services physically housed, for example, in Japan). Because the connections are electronic, the physical location of the information is irrelevant and connections will be made by either Internet or satellite telecommunications. What matters is that the connections between the sources be made, and that the form in which the information is stored be accessible to the end user.

The system will be designed to connect the campus to essentially all the information networks anywhere in the world such as NEARNET (The New England Academic Research Network), Internet (connecting other networks run by various levels of government and companies such as IBM and Digital Corporation, and by other countries), the National Science Foundation network, NASA's networks, the John Von Neumann Supercomputer network and so on. You get the idea. Once you are connected, you are connected.

An Imagined example of how the network might be used

A Bridgewater State College faculty member sits in her office before a computer screen and keyboard. She wants to do some research and writing that will enable her to present a paper at a conference on the relationship between levels of education and crime and to teach a class on the same subject. She connects her computer to the network via fiber optic lines installed on the campus with funds from the Moakley Center grant. First she uses the data network.

Using terms common to various computer systems, she looks through a menu of choices and selects a data service run by the University of Chicago, which contains current information on educational levels around the world. The data is stored in computers, the location of which she need never know. She types in plain language requests for the average levels of education in twenty selected countries and downloads (brings from the source to her computer) the specified information to a file she starts for the final paper. (With the eventual installation of voice-capable equipment and programs on her computer, she will be able to make these requests by talking to the screen.) Next she connects to another data service, this one dealing with crime statistics, and imports data (such as rates of murder, assault, larceny and so on) for the same twenty countries.

Looking at the data for education and crime on the same screen now, she thinks she notices geographic and economic grouping in the information. It appears that the

Illustrations by Jason Rallis
closer the country is to England, the stronger the relationship between the levels of education and crime. (She finds lower levels of education to be associated with higher rates of crime.) So to examine this possibility further, she imports a graphic display of the globe from another data base and requests that the relationships she has calculated be placed on the map so that the stronger the relationship, the darker the shading of the country. Her guess is confirmed. The graphic display shows a clear pattern. But why should this be?

Now she begins to search the literature to discover if anyone else has found this relationship. Searches by subject, title and author are done on the screen, no walking to card catalogs or journal indexes. Among the references is one to a series of pictures from a visual presentation on the subject (what we used to call a film) dramatizing elements of her topic. She imports these images to her computer and integrates the pictures in her building report. She takes notes in her local text file on the sections of the presentation that she wishes to have put in digital form so it can be included in her paper and lecture materials.

Lastly, she sends messages by E-mail (an electronic form of communication over computer networks, like mailing a letter, only instantaneous) to a scholar at the United Nations who is working on a related issue. He sends back an E-mail message that afternoon along with a series of digital, high-resolution pictures recording both educational levels and rates of murder for every country in the world, yearly since 1950. These and the data she has generated are marked for reproduction as slides to be used in class and professional lectures.

Of course, these capabilities have many applications other than the one described here. For example, student advising, course selection and a range of other administrative tasks would become paperless and greatly simplified. At course selection time, a student could use any of the computer stations on campus to call up his or her record and the courses available and select the courses needed. The selections would appear on the screen when a faculty advisor called up the student's file.

Using the satellite communications of the system, televised conferences could be held on campus which involve faculty members, students, administrators, businesses, government agencies and so on. Any of the information available via the networks could be prepared for presentation at the conference, or even generated by request of participants during the event.

As with any new technology, the ability of individuals to understand its use or potential is limited at first. It takes years to be assimilated into everyday life. While the experts involved in the planning and design of the Moakley Center know a great deal more about how the new technologies can be used, even they cannot imagine the uses to which networks like these will eventually be put. What is clear, however, is that past limitations on the organization of information and access to it are about to be hugely reduced.
Two recent books receiving widespread attention and best-seller notoriety suggest, when read in sequence, that the women's movement is either being squeezed dry by male pressure or sucked dry by intellectually barren feminists. Susan Faludi's Backlash: The Undeclared War Against American Women and Camille Paglia's Sex, Art, and American Culture criticize the women's movement, albeit from quite different premises, for its failure to make and secure advances in women's rights and opportunities the movement likes to claim for itself. The oft-quoted Paglia (who, if she possesses nothing else, possesses a genius for epigrammatic one-liners) unleashes a verbal scud attack at contemporary feminists for refusing to recognize the elemental force of sex and the controlling power of the male ego. Sneering at the social constructionism that she sees influencing most schools of feminist thought, the notion that our gender identities are culturally, not biologically, constructed, Paglia argues that such ideas lead women who should know better into situations -- like date rape -- from which common sense would have protected them. Faludi, a more moderate voice, undertakes a thoroughgoing examination of how American society, through its mostly male-dominated media, fashion, and entertainment industries, has effectively blunted, and in some instances reversed, women's movement away from the home into the workplace.

In fact, Faludi's early chapter, "Man Shortages and Barren Wombs: The Myths of the Backlash," neatly dissects a number of economic and sociological studies conducted during the 1980s, which purported to demonstrate that women who remained single in order to pursue a career were quite likely to suffer depression, show signs of overstress, risk infertility, and condemn themselves, as they grew into their mid- to late thirties, to spinsterhood owing to an acute shortage of eligible men. The career woman who refused to accept the pattern of marriage, home and family, who subverted the order of things, would have to pay a penalty. As it turns out, Faludi might well have titled her chapter "Lies, Damned Lies, and Statistics," for as she probes into how the various studies were conducted, she finds skewed sampling, partial data, and controversial methodologies. The man shortage turns out not to exist. The poverty of divorced women, given wide circulation by Lenore Weitzman's The Divorce Revolution, is much exaggerated. One study concluded that the stress of full-time careers brought women to depression and led even to infarility. Faludi is able to show that women pursuing careers consistently evidenced greater satisfaction with their lives than women who remained home. Evidence that working women risk infertility simply does not exist. Nonetheless, when the reports were issued, the media seized upon and disseminated their conclusions. Shere Hite's Women and Love, wherein appears the much-reported man shortage, typifies the sort of study that Faludi faults for misrepresenting the problem and misleading the public. Even when the authors of some studies amended their original findings or reinterpreted their data using less controversial methods, the new and often less sweeping conclusions were never given the prominence of the earlier, more sensational findings. Faludi herself concludes that these studies advanced flawed hypotheses about the risks women were thought to bring upon themselves by stepping outside the home and entering traditionally male occupations. She contends that the greatest threat to women's well-being is the backlash that the reports produced.

By Charles Angell

Most of Faludi's study details how the backlash manifests itself through America's popular culture organs. "These so-called female crises," she writes, "have had their origins not in the actual conditions of women's lives but rather in a closed system that starts and ends in the media, popular culture, and advertising -- an endless feedback loop that perpetuates and exaggerates its own false image of womanhood." Her chapter on the Hollywood film industry, which can be cited as representative of Faludi's methodology, documents how several recent films consistently portray women as victims or psychotics, often brutally punished for any movement beyond a narrowly circumscribed role. Faludi describes how Fatal Attraction, originally an hour long screenplay written for British television and concerned principally with the moral issues of the husband's infidelity, became in the Hollywood version a stark portrayal of a woman deranged by lust and rage. The producers went so far as to add to the script -- she didn't appear in the British original -- a dutiful and patient wife to underscore the point that a woman driven by desire and scorned by a married lover would turn like a Fury on her own kind. The Hollywood version demands that the wronged but forgiving wife must finally slay this threat to her domesticity, emphasizing for the audience that no role exists for the older, single, career woman beyond that of a monster. The independent woman is a subversive woman. Film after film, Faludi tells us, transmits this message.

Backlash belongs to the large body of writing that chronicles how social institutions respond to the tensions produced whenever women seek opportunities and advancement commensurate with men. Working women often find themselves enmeshed not only by the expectations of a predominantly male workplace but also by an awareness that success requires simultaneous recognition and
repudiation of those expectations. Even Faludi inadvertently found herself enmeshed. In an otherwise straightforward Boston Globe interview, Joseph Kahn gratuitously noted that Faludi's hemline is fashionably above the knee.

But you need not tell her that we mentioned that. (13 October 1992, 61). We? Even when a woman, at least in her appearance, conforms to expectations, a man will make certain she remains aware of the constraints which hem her in.

No such constraints entangle Camille Paglia who likely regards hemming and hawing as immoral. Reading the articles, reviews, and addresses collected in Sex, Art, and American Culture compares to wrestling verbal alligators. Paglia, who Faludi claims was motivated to attack contemporary feminists out of the "simple spite" of an "embittered anti-feminist academic," has no truck with backlash notions. In her Globe interview with D. A. Denison, Paglia calls feminists "incredibly naive ... because they think men will change. [They] haven't changed a single man on the street. That's why some feminists think there's a backlash against them: because they are suddenly opening their eyes and seeing that they did not make the changes they thought they made." Paglia's contempt for feminist myopia underlies her controversial statements, included in the current collection, on date rape. "A woman going to a fraternity party is walking into Testosterone Flats," she argues, "full of prickly cacti and blazing guns ... A girl who lets herself get drunk at a fraternity party is a fool. A girl who goes upstairs with a brother at a fraternity party is an idiot. Feminists call this 'blaming the victim.' I call it common sense." Though Paglia makes explicit her condemnation of rape under any circumstances, she comes perilously close to suggesting that in some circumstances women provoke the sexual violation inflicted on them. This "she-asked-for-it" defense of anti-social, if not criminal, sexual aggression nearly validates the victimization and brutality women experience in so many of the movies Faludi criticizes. But Paglia, eager to condemn the sexual impotence of contemporary feminists, emphasizes the predatory and anarchic power of sex. "Pursuit and seduction are the essence of sexuality. It's part of the sizzle. Girls hurl themselves at guitarists ... The guys are strutting. If you love rock and roll as I do, you see the reality of sex, of male lust and women being aroused by male lust. It attracts women. It doesn't repel them." Paglia's enthusiasm for rock and roll, Mick Jagger particularly, and its smoldering sexuality undergirds her notion -- I hesitate to call it a theory -- that our popular culture icons, rock and film stars, represent contemporary society's incarnation of the ancient deities and their sexual license. Woody Allen and Mia Farrow reprise Tereus and Philomela. In this scheme of things, women for Paglia embody the chthonic, a favorite Paglia word meaning the realm of mistake and chaos, and its subversion of form and order, values she perceives as essentially male. It's this view that has Paglia enthusing about Madonna's polymorphous sexual role-playing.

Sex, Art, and American Culture includes the full spectrum of Paglia's ideas and opinions. Reading them one sees her for what she is, not so much an embittered anti-feminist, but a dedicated teacher with a love, as she said in her 60 Minutes interview, of performance. Her taking up the cudgels against academic feminists is part of her program for reforming higher education and eliminating those features like the demand to publish, the conference circuit, the toady to trendy ideas which overwhelm thought and creativity. She is an iconoclast and gadfly and does paint herself into what some would term untenable, others untenurable, positions. She's a furious read who, when read in company with Faludi, reminds us of the simple truth that so long as women are compelled to live lives of such ambivalence, their mouths of outrage will not be sealed.
GAIL PRICE

Some of the most rewarding aspects of teaching are the conveying of knowledge and the opening up of new horizons. Gail Price of the Mathematics and Computer Science Department is just one of those pathbreaking teachers. Gail is the Project Director of a summer enrichment program at Bridgewater State College entitled the SCI-MA Connection. With a two year $253,000 grant from the National Science Foundation, Gail has set out to bring the joys of mathematics and science to 40 sixth grade girls who otherwise might not be inclined to pursue an interest in a field dominated by males.

Gail is a firm believer that girls have been the victims of peer pressure and a general lack of support in the schools and at home in the areas of science and math. The more fashionable term to express this problem is gender bias and Gail is determined to use her grant to attack the problem head on. As someone who started out as an art major, only to find her true love in mathematics and computer science, Gail knows the problems associated with an educational process that does not support the science and math interests of young girls.

With her co-director, Professor Uma Shama, Gail Price reduced 500 applications for the summer program to 40 area girls to attend the six-week workshop at Bridgewater. The girls came from varied socioeconomic and racial backgrounds and were not associated with the gifted and talented programs in their schools. Rather, Gail was interested in bringing to Bridgewater what she calls "the second tier" student whose potential is sometimes overlooked and who would benefit from individual attention and encouragement. Once at Bridgewater, the students attended two classes a day and participated in a number of hands on and group learning experiences which helped them live science and math. Computer programs were used to enhance learning as the girls studied about physics and mathematics by constructing animated Lego buildings. There were also field trips and special sessions with female role models who had succeeded in the fields of science and mathematics. Gail also brought in the parents on a few occasions to participate in family math problem solving as mother and father and siblings worked cooperatively to find that elusive answer.

At the conclusion of the six weeks, the program was in many respects only beginning. Gail linked up each girl with a faculty mentor in her home school and monitored her progress and course selection. Gail's objective was not only to evaluate the progress of the girls but to begin a network among other girls for the appreciation of science and mathematics. As the program progresses, Gail hopes that the mentor program will increase the awareness of teachers, both men and women, of gender bias and the importance of encouraging young girls to enter the fields of science and math.

The success of the SCI-MA Connection can be seen in the fact that Gail is beginning to pore over 1,000 applications for this summer's program. With only 42 girls permitted into this summer's program, the selection process is quite competitive. Gail is also reapplying to the National Science Foundation for an extension of the grant for an additional two years so that a larger number of girls can benefit from the six-week immersion program.

As if the SCI-MA Connection program is not enough work, Gail is also heavily involved in a statewide $10 million grant to develop new science and math programs in neighboring communities. The PALMS program - Partnerships Advancing Learning of Mathematics and Science - is designed to link six colleges in Massachusetts with specific school districts, a local museum and business partners to strengthen the teaching of mathematics and science. Bridgewater is one of the six schools and Gail and her colleague, Professor John Marvelle, are working with the New Bedford School system to revamp their mathematics and science curriculum.

Gail Price's work with SCI-MA and PALMS is an example of Bridgewater's commitment to take the lead in the revitalization of education. Gail is excited by the progress achieved so far in advancing science and math skills for girls and is stimulated by the opportunities that the PALMS grant presents to develop new ways of learning. As Gail would be the first to admit, there is much that needs to be done and many obstacles that have to be overcome. But the initial steps have been taken and Gail is now moving forward quickly and with confidence to make the learning of math and science bias free and rewarding to all.
Although research studies demonstrate that no single method of teaching writing to college students is significantly superior to any other, many composition practitioners are recognizing that “cultural studies” may help students become more critical thinkers, stronger readers, and better writers. Karl Schnapp, who joined the English faculty this year, has developed an approach for teaching composition that aims at helping students develop a critical consciousness of power and its mechanisms -- how some interests are empowered while others are marginalized. He made a presentation on his classroom practices in April at the Conference on College Composition and Communication, the country's largest gathering of composition professionals. The conference was sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English.

In his course, Schnapp focuses students' attention on higher education for two reasons. First, schooling is something that all students have experienced, but all of them understand differently. These shared experiences make the composition class an ideal site to investigate the beliefs about education that students have grown to see as “natural” as well as the values and goals that drive higher education systems. Second, it is possible to see power at work everywhere in the educational system -- admissions procedures, the structure of academic communities, course offerings and content, classroom methods, student-teacher relations, and so on. Students engage in a critical examination of their own experiences and their assumptions about the purposes and practices of education.

The course opens with a reading of Brazilian literacy educator Paulo Freire's critique of the traditional teacher-student classroom hierarchy. For their first writing assignment, students invent a “problem-posing” writing class -- a course that makes students “critical coinvestigators in dialogue with the teacher,” as Freire suggests. Further readings for the course represent both traditional and radical positions (excerpts from John Dewey, Henry Giroux, Barbara Herrnstein Smith, Alfred North Whitehead, E.D. Hirsch, and Jerome Bruner), focusing on particular methods, contents, and purposes of education. Furthermore, students investigate surface features of education -- content, methods, degree requirements, etc. -- moving progressively closer to the assumptions and ideologies underlying education. Writing assignments ask students to explore the readings carefully, to reflect on their own experiences in light of the readings, and to speculate about courses and classrooms suggested by the readings.

In his conference presentation, Schnapp argued that this approach to teaching composition not only makes students better readers, thinkers, and writers, but also creates a classroom dialectic through which teachers and students can strive for “critical intervention” in the reality of the classroom and teaching and learning.
Women are entering the workforce in record numbers and a large percentage of these women are also mothers. It is estimated that mothers who work full time are also doing seventy-five to eighty percent of the household chores, a phenomenon known as the “second shift.” Overall, the demands and expectations for women are tremendous. The notion that women can and should “do it all,” perfectly, and without negative impact on health or well-being, is the “superwoman myth” which is perpetuated largely by the media and is clearly visible in advertising directed at women. Professor Ruth Hannon of the Psychology Department is currently researching the myth of the superwoman. Hannon’s investigation of advertising finds that images of the superwoman ultimately create dissatisfaction with whom one is by stressing perfection and by holding up standards of appearance and behavior which few can meet. One women’s magazine recently urged women to “Thrive Under Pressure” and devoted thirteen pages to teaching women how to do this by choosing the right clothes to wear, particularly making wise color choices. Other articles describe how to prepare gourmet meals in half the time for working women who want to keep their husbands happy. Still others promote the art of doing two or three tasks simultaneously like learning a foreign language while biking twenty miles on the exercise cycle.

Hannon feels that it is important to separate myth from reality. Women are engaging in multiple roles and research indicates that these women derive major benefits in the form of greater self esteem. The problem lies in the fact that while women feel better about themselves if they have varied roles, they also experience greater stress and anxiety, particularly if they have not renegotiated household chores.

In Hannon’s view, solutions lie in greater support for working women, both in terms of community resources and corporate programs, as well as in support for women as they renegotiate roles within the family. As women and men address these issues openly, the superwoman myth loses steam.

Hannon suggests that for those interested in exploring the superwoman myth and its implications for modern day society, the book by Linda Sanford and Mary Ellen Donovan, Women and Self Esteem and Arlie Hochschild’s The Second Shift will be most helpful.