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ETCHINGS
Inside Back Cover  
by Joyce Zavorskas

In September, Dr. Hugo D'Alarcao, a distinguished member of the Mathematics faculty died suddenly. A highly respected teacher and scholar, Dr. D'Alarcao served as a model for both his students and his fellow colleagues. To Hugo and the other distinguished faculty who passed away in the last few years — Murray Abramson, John DeLuca, Kathleen Ittig, Robert Larson, Robert McCurdy, Hazel Schopp, Richard Stafford and William Wall — we dedicate this issue of the Bridgewater Review.

FRONT COVER
Summer Dunes, 20" x 25", color etching by Joyce Zavorskas. Ms. Zavorskas, a resident of Eastham, received her M.A.T. in 1983 from Bridgewater State College. She has been a professional printmaker for the last thirteen years.

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BRIDGEWATER STATE COLLEGE  
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I have a friend who refuses to read novels. "Why should I waste my time on fiction when I could be learning about something true?" she asks. Her point of view has respectable historical precedents: Plato excluded Homer's poetic fictions from his ideal republic so that his citizens could concentrate on the life of reason and pursuit of truth instead of frittering away their energies on the passionate heroes of the Iliad.

Defenders of fiction have an argument almost as old as Plato's: Horace's characterization of literature as "dulce" (sweet, pleasurable) and "utile" (useful). In what way is fiction useful? The question has received a variety of answers. For one thing, fiction is a way of learning about distant times and places; with their fullness and particularity, novels often present a vivid picture of economic and social realities. Fiction also provides psychological insight into human motives and behavior: Freud frequently cited the writings of Sophocles, Shakespeare and others to illustrate such unconscious mental phenomena as dreams, slips of the tongue and, of course, the Oedipus complex.

Looking at the responses of a sophomore English literature class to one novel, D.H. Lawrence's Sons and Lovers, suggests that Bridgewater students also find fiction useful. Sons and Lovers follows Paul Morel as he grows from a boy to a young adult. Lawrence's depiction of Miriam, a young woman to whom Paul becomes deeply attached, provided one student, Ann, with an historical perspective about the ways in which women's lives have changed. Ann noted in her journal:

Miriam's choices in life are severely limited: she is expected to find a husband, and she has no opportunity for higher education or interesting work. Paul, who comes from the same social class, can have both.

Another Bridgewater student, whom I'll call Susan, found Sons and Lovers useful in a more profound way. In the novel, Paul Morel's parents, Walter and Gertrude, are unhappily married, and the fact that they are unsuited for one another is clear to the reader from the early chapters. Susan composed the following letter to the author:

Dear Mr. Lawrence: I have just finished reading Sons and Lovers and I would like to applaud you on a very realistic novel. I found out a lot about myself through the character of Mrs. Morel. I am engaged to a wonderful man, Danny. There is one problem, however: I expect too much from him. He is an auto mechanic but has the potential to be something better. As you said of Mrs. Morel's attitude toward her husband, "She could not be contented with the little he might be; she would have him the much that he ought to be." I also am never satisfied with Danny. Now, however, I can see that my ambition can only hurt the relationship instead of helping it.

My friend who won't read novels might argue that Susan didn't learn anything from Sons and Lovers that she hadn't already known, that she merely projected her unacknowledged thoughts onto Lawrence's novel. Yet it is clear that, because her insight was so disturbing, Susan might have remained unaware of these thoughts had it not been for her reading of Sons and Lovers.

I imagine Susan arriving at her insight gradually as she makes her way into the world. Lawrence has created and imagines the Morels' brief, romantic courtship, the long, painful disillusionment, the small lies, the chronic shortage of money, the quarrels and, finally, Walter's descent into alcoholism and his alienation from the rest of the family. As she slowly moves through Lawrence's world, Susan begins to identify with Mrs. Morel.

The usefulness of Sons and Lovers, then, as of any richly suggestive novel, depends on a certain readiness in the reader. Although Susan was the only student who focused on Mrs. Morel's unwillingness to accept her husband as he was, it cannot be said that she alone discovered a moral which Lawrence intended the story to have. The Morel family relationship is many-faceted, and readers' sympathies ebb and flow. The failure of the marriage is not the "fault" of one partner or the other, but a complex mismatching of feelings and expectations.

Reading Sons and Lovers may not lead to the discovery of truth in the sense that Plato would approve, but it was certainly useful for Susan. It gave her at 18, a relatively painless way of experiencing the emotions of a disappointed wife of middle age, and allowed her to acknowledge some painful personal truths.

About forty years before Lawrence's novel was published, the poet and critic Matthew Arnold argued that great literature has a fortifying quality, that it gives readers the energy and courage to confront the difficulties and confusions of the modern world. From our perspective, Arnold's claim may appear naively optimistic: today's most popular novels entice their readers with the possibility of escaping from reality rather than of confronting its difficulties. Nonetheless, there are still instances when literature can have the effect Arnold envisioned for it, providing readers with a way of interpreting and clarifying their own experience, with, in Arnold's words, a criticism of life.
The Other War in Central America

BY STEPHEN CALLAHAN

El Barrillo is a farming cooperative of 400 people in the shadow of the Guazapa Volcano thirty miles north of San Salvador. Its inhabitants eke out a bare subsistence farming, by hand, a few fields of beans, maize and melons. Like most Salvadorans, they are Roman Catholic, and their faith is as important to their survival as their work.

To get to El Barrillo, we drove north from the capital along the main highway to the town of Suchitoto, its buildings pockmarked by bullets and painted with revolutionary slogans, then west onto a dirt road descending into a jungle forest. At several points we were stopped by government soldiers, and we waited while they confirmed our written authorization to be in what is called a "conflicted area." As we chatted nervously with the young troops, I was reminded of Vietnam, not so much because of the jungle atmosphere as by the U.S. fatigue they wore and the M-16s they carried ... and the eerie smile of the combat soldiers. They belonged to the infamous Atlacatl Battalion which swept into the Guazapa area in January of 1986 in an operation code-named "Phoenix."

Operation Phoenix marked the beginning of a new strategy by the Salvadoran Army to pacify areas of guerrilla activity by depopulating the villages and destroying the land to deprive the guerrillas of support. In El Barrillo the houses and fields were burned and the villagers were rounded up and taken to a government detention center. During the sweep, many of the unarmed villagers, including women, were killed by government troops, and some fled to tunnels dug into the hillsides where they hid for weeks without food. From the detention center the villagers were released to a relocation camp run by the Catholic Church at San Jose de Calle Real, a sanctuary for peasants uprooted by the war, where they are safe from arrest by police and harassment by the army. This is no small measure of protection because arrest in El Salvador on suspicion of subsersive activity invariably means a confession induced by torture if necessary and unlimited detention without trial.

After a few months at Calle Real the people of El Barrillo decided to return to their village and reclaim their land and their lives. They did so at considerable risk in violation of military orders, and succeeded only because they were accompanied by church officials. They have built new houses and plowed new fields a few miles from their old village, and the military operations continue around them.

When we arrived at El Barrillo, a fire set by government troops raged down a nearby hillside, but our hosts seemed unconcerned. They spoke to us about everything but the war: the new irrigation canal they were building, the young girls who have been trained for perhaps a day or a week to be health workers, the "women's field" farmed by the women of the cooperative and always their faith, that they are part of God's plan. While they shared their food with us, we could see the evidence of malnutrition in the wide watery eyes of the children.

During the past several years the war in El Salvador has become the United States' war. We now pay the entire cost of the war, except for the food and salaries of the soldiers. Ambassador Edwin Corr left little doubt about the weight of American influence or the stake we have in winning the war. He felt that the tide of war had turned in favor of the Salvadoran Army and predicted that victory could be achieved in another seven years if we "stay the course." The FMLN rebels and what remains of the left in El Salvador after the years of death-squad killings are promoting a dialogue to end the war, but the ambassador expressed little interest in negotiations. Instead, he suggested that it is time for the rebels to lay down their arms and enter the political arena citing improvements in human rights and the political system.

While it is true that the death squads have been less active in the past few years, those responsible for the tens of thousands of killings still hold positions in the police and military and are unlikely ever to be brought to justice. As one human rights watcher put it: "There's been no improvement, just less killing." The rebels understand that to lay down their arms is suicide. Although there have been elections, President Napoleon Duarte's ruling Christian Democratic Party can generate little real support beyond that of the United States and the army. Slowly the United States is creating a new reality in El Salvador, but it is reality that has only the trappings of democracy and no real system of justice. The poor like those in El Barrillo have no political power and no prospect for economic opportunity. By imposing our will on the Salvadoran people, we may protect our interests in the short run, but the result will be an American protectorate which sacrifices freedom and justice for security. Visiting El Barrillo made that clear to me.

STEPHEN CALLAHAN, Associate Professor of Law, Suffolk University Law School
**ESSAY**

**ELECTING a President**

**BY DAVID SUDHALTER**

No other nation in the world devotes as much time and energy to electing a national leader as the United States. Every three years, with clocklike regularity, presidential candidates begin preening for what has to be one of the greatest tests of human endurance known to civilized man.

The signals are sent out to would-be supporters as the candidates get ready to appear before the TV cameras. Before you can say “Spiro Agnew” the media hype is on. Now we’re off and running towards a new election which will not be held for another thirteen months.

Capturing the White House is of crucial importance to both parties. The heady aroma of power, jobs and influence help create the competitive atmosphere of our presidential elections. Two important changes over the past six decades have profoundly altered our method of choosing presidential candidates. The first change has been the sudden and remarkable growth of the presidential preferential primary. The second change has, of course, been the federal funding of presidential campaigns.

Nominating and electing a president today is vastly different from what it was in June, 1924. At that time, the very popular Governor Al Smith (“The Happy Warrior”) was the favorite candidate of the northern city bosses. But Smith was a Roman Catholic and unacceptable to southern democrats, who made it clear that they would never support a Catholic candidate.

The convention became so deadlocked that it took more than 100 ballots in the sweltering heat of Madison Square Garden before John W. Davis, a compromise candidate, was nominated. Davis subsequently went down in defeat to Calvin Coolidge.

Until the nineteen sixties, almost all presidential candidates were chosen by their parties at national conventions. There were few state primaries, and those that were held provided very limited opportunities for citizen groups to voice their opinions.

**Bosses and established leaders hate primaries for a good reason; they are always, in any form, an appeal from the leaders’ wishes to the people directly.”**

—Theodore White

Today’s political conventions are no longer dominated by fat cats and machine politicians. Instead, the process is now dominated by the long and arduous procedure of being chosen by the voters in almost every state. The so-called presidential preferential primary has become the chief vehicle for the nomination of candidates.

It was not until the election of 1960 that radical change began in the way we select our presidential candidates. At that time another Roman Catholic, John Fitzgerald Kennedy, decided to throw his hat in the ring.

Unlike Al Smith, however, Kennedy faced an altogether different kind of challenge, for presidential primaries had become accepted by some sixteen states. So the issue was no longer going to be decided solely by tired delegates in a steamy convention hall. Instead, the voters were beginning to have an impact on the process.

Kennedy’s tour de force was remarkable. Realizing that, like Gov. Al Smith, he had two strikes against him, he set out on a barnstorming tour of the country.

His efforts at winning over delegates to the national Democratic convention culminated in a confrontation with southern Baptists in West Virginia. Kennedy’s candor won over the West Virginians and paved the way for his first startling show of strength by defeating Hubert Humphrey in that state. Nevertheless, the religious issue continued to plague Kennedy right up until election day. Hearing of accusations that a Kennedy presidency would mean that the Pope would rule the U.S.A. from the Vatican, Pope John XXIII joked, “Do not expect me to run a country with a language as difficult as yours.”
In the same year, Richard Nixon easily won the Republican nomination on the first ballot. Nixon failed, however, to win the support of much loved President Dwight Eisenhower who answered a reporter's query as to which important decisions Nixon had participated in when he was Vice President by saying, "If you give me a week, I might think of one."

Following Kennedy's untimely death, Lyndon Johnson's succession to the presidency coincided with the most unpopular war in American history. The result was a number of challenges by Senators Eugene McCarthy and George McGovern.

Again, the convention process was reformed as George McGovern, heading up what was known as the McGovern Commission of the Democratic Party, decided that women and minorities must be represented at future national conventions.

By 1968, President Johnson, reacting to the public criticism of the Vietnam war, announced he would not run for reelection. The ensuing campaign by Senator Hubert Humphrey saw another great change in the way we select presidential candidates.

The year 1968 was marked by a bitter battle between youthful anti-war protesters and the Chicago police. By contrast, the Republican nominating convention was almost a non-event, with Richard Nixon winning handily against Nelson Rockefeller in what was advertised as a battle between conservatives and liberals in the Republican Party.

The 1968 campaign was altogether different as a more popular and more confident Nixon announced a secret plan to end the Vietnamese war. This time, Nixon easily defeated the democrats who were in profound disarray after Chicago.

It was probably Richard Nixon who provoked the next major watershed of change in the way we select our Presidents. The Watergate crisis of 1972 not only caused the resignation and near impeachment of Nixon; it also caused Congress to rewrite the laws governing presidential elections. The 1968 campaigns also convinced the Democrats that reform of the party machinery and the process by which delegates were selected were of crucial importance. The McGovern-Fraser Commission was thus created to propose the reform of delegate selection to future conventions and to ensure that minorities and women would be represented. Henceforth, elections of delegates would be held in each congressional district. Primaries had now become accepted in 36 states and the voters in each state would now have a strong voice in the selection of delegates to the national conventions. Thus ended an era in which the process of selecting presidential candidates had been largely a private affair, funded by generous contributions from individual supporters.

The new era dawned in the shape of a law which created the Federal Election Commission. After Congress listened to testimony from Maurice Stans, who was the treasurer for Richard Nixon's CREEP (Committee to Reelect The President), it became obvious that the presidential election process must not become tainted by scandal. Revelations that money was
laundered in Mexico; that campaign money was unaccounted for and kept in old shoe boxes; or that foreign governments were contributing to an American President's campaign were shocking to the general public.

It had long been a matter of faith among liberals that presidential elections must not become victims of interest groups anxious to curry favor with the candidates. Rather, they argued, the process should be objective and not become a play thing of the powerful and the wealthy. For justification, the liberals pointed to the Watergate scandal and if that wasn't enough, dirty laundry was dragged out from the Johnson administration to demonstrate that no President can act in a disinterested fashion if he is a captive of the interest groups who financed his campaign.

Consequently, in 1971, Congress passed the Federal Education Campaign Act. This act has profoundly influenced the way in which we elect our presidents.

First, it created a federal election commission whose purpose was to regulate and act as a watchdog over the process. Second, it monitored the handling of campaign money (both the spending and the contributions). Third, it restricted the size of contributions so that the big spenders who formerly might have given a million dollars to a campaign, now could not give more than $1000 to each candidate. Finally, the act provided for financing of campaigns by the federal government.

The amount of money available is, by any standard, generous. For, in addition to individual contributions, presidential candidates can each receive up to $10 million for the purposes of being nominated by state primaries. The law allows for each candidate, nominated by his/her party, to receive $20 million and for each party to receive $2 million in federal funds.

The nomination procedures have had a drastic effect on presidential primaries. In order to qualify for federal matching funds, a candidate must first raise money from individual contributors. Only the first $250 of each contribution can be counted, so that each candidate must raise his/her funds from a rather large population. To be eligible, each candidate must raise at least $100,000 in 20 states. This, of course, automatically means a great deal of popular support must be engendered by the candidate.

The federal election law also allows for the creation of Political Action Committees, popularly known as PACs. These groups have become among the most controversial results of the federal election law.

PACs can receive as much as $5,000 per year from any individual. They can end up controlling millions of dollars in campaign funds. Although they are supposed to act independently of candidates, it remains to be seen how many and what kinds of influences come from the candidates themselves.

PACs are free to take out ads, sponsor fund raising shows, solicit by direct mail, and contribute to election campaigns. Their detractors feel that they wield too much power and influence on behalf of individual interest groups such as, for
example, the Teamsters Union or the National Rifle Association. Their supporters feel that PACs serve an educational function and make the candidates less dependent on government and party support.

At any rate, PACs appear to be here to stay and will undoubtedly remain a powerful influence in the coming election unless Congress decides to change the law.

So far, we have elected Presidents Carter and Reagan under the federal election law. A Federal Election Commission made up of a mixture of Democrats and Republicans must be given credit for keeping the process reasonably honest. The system is to be tested once again in 1987, and '88.

Rarely do we see a voter turnout in this country that exceeds 60%. Since 1968, voter participation in presidential elections has shown a disturbing downward trend, dropping as low as 53% in 1980.

New Hampshire has always wanted the privilege of holding the first presidential primary in the nation. The commercial and publicity advantages of such a move have proven to be a great boon to that state of little more than a million inhabitants. However, South Dakota is trying to get into the act by announcing an earlier date of February 23rd. If South Dakota carries through with its threat, New Hampshire will try to move its primary to February 16th.

As of January 1, 1988, candidates can begin receiving matching federal funds (if they have raised enough in the states) for the primaries. Four states still hold caucuses, which are party meetings not open to the voters at large. The first caucus will be held in Michigan by the Republicans on January 11th. The Iowa caucuses will be on February 15th, the Washington caucus March 13, the Alaska caucus, March 19th.

March 1st is the date of the Vermont primary, but March 8th dubbed "Super Tuesday," will see primaries in fourteen states: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Tennessee, and Texas. The last primaries will take place on June 7th in California, Montana, New Jersey and New Mexico.

Undoubtedly, by the time the sun sets on "Super Tuesday," one of two things will have happened: either one sure winner from the ranks of the Republicans and the Democrats will emerge victorious or the issue will have become so cloudy that the parties and the candidates will have to turn to their national conventions for the final answer. Thus, we could see a return to a brokered convention with interest groups, big city politicians and elitist leaders playing the major role in selecting the nominees.

One of the chief criticisms of the current primary system is that it is too time consuming and wasteful. Moreover, it encourages a bandwagon psychology, so that the first horse out of the gate tends to have a distinct advantage over the others. Suggestions have been made that we have a single national primary on one day; or that we might consider a few regional primaries taking place in the southwest, the northeast, etc. Other critics feel that the present system leaves the nomination largely up to the casual voters who have no real party ties and this tends to weaken the party system on which we so heavily depend, for a democratic way of life.

Already the image makers are hard at work. The first casualties - Hart and Biden - have already occurred and two very popular people - Lee Iacocca and Mario Cuomo have turned down offers to be candidates. Jesse Jackson, the first black to run for president has proven to be a solid attention-getter while a woman, Patricia Schroeder of Colorado, gave serious thought to becoming a candidate. Governor Michael Dukakis is trying to prove that a sitting governor can also run for the presidency. George Bush, who had become somewhat tainted by the Iranagate scandal, still is considered a front runner but he can feel the hot breath of Jack Kemp and Bob Dole on the back of his neck. In short, it promises to be a most interesting campaign year.

With American domestic and foreign policy at a critical and uncertain crossroads, will voters respond with their usual apathy or will they react with the spontaneous enthusiasm of old time election campaigns?

My guess is that unless the candidates display vigor combined with superb acting ability, the election year 1988 is apt to play second fiddle to meteoric financial news. Unfortunately, the voters will buy the image more quickly than they'll look at the substance. But so be it, and the parties must respond in kind.

1988 might also turn out to be another election year that reflects profound voter apathy in a country that prides itself on being the world's greatest democracy. Compared to our neighbor Canada, where more than 75% of its 25 million citizens turn out to vote in every national election, Americans run a poor fourth or fifth among the world's democracies when it comes to generating voter interest.

Rarely do we see a voter turnout in this country that exceeds 60%. Since 1968, voter participation in presidential elections has shown a disturbing downward trend, dropping as low as 53% in 1980. While it is true that some states have a much better turnout than others, the record is still quite dismal.

So let's hope that 1988 will be the year in which the voters will have a real choice over substantial issues and interesting, lively candidates to choose from.

In conclusion, the methods by which we elect our presidents, have undergone substantial changes over the last several decades. Government financing of campaigns, the creation of PACs, and the almost universal use of the state primaries to determine the nominees of each party, have put a different stamp on what used to be brokered conventions run by big city bosses in smoky convention halls. Certainly, more changes are going to come. Perhaps we shall one day see presidential campaigns that are only two or three months long.

DAVID SUDHALTER is Chairperson and Professor of Political Science. He received his Bachelor's Degree from the University of Mass. and his M.A. and Ph.D. in Political Science from Boston University. He also attended Johns Hopkins University and Brandeis University. Dr. Sudhalter has published a book (The Management Option) and writes a political column for the Suburban World newspaper chain.
Due To The Special Circumstances of CHINA...

ESSAY

BY NANCY LYNCH STREET

First I read the above title in the exchange program contract between Shanxi Teacher's University and Bridgewater State College. I pondered it for awhile, then dropped it. I would find out soon enough the "special circumstances of China." First, I had to get ready to go to China. Ultimately, the context of the phrase would enlighten me. During the academic year 1985-1986 I taught at Shanxi Teacher's University which is located in Linfen, Shanxi Province, People's Republic of China. Like the Chinese, I would soon learn the virtues of quietness and patience. I would listen and look and remember. Perhaps most important of all, I would make friends whom I shall never forget.

FROM BEIJING TO LINFEN

The Setting

The express train arrives in Linfen from Beijing in the early morning, around 8:30. One is always met at the train station if one is a foreigner. At least, during our tenure there we (the three exchange students and I) were met. This was in part a courtesy and in part because Linfen was, until February of 1986, a "closed" city. Closed, that is, to foreigners. Thus, it was not until we had family and friends visit from home that we saw other foreigners in the city of Linfen. On a daily basis, we were the only westerners in the city. To many of Linfen's 250,000 inhabitants we were curious creatures, too pale and with big noses. Shanxi province is in central China and prior to liberation (1930's and early 1940's) had been occupied by the Japanese. Following Liberation in 1949, the Chinese people in Shanxi had seen a few Russians, but prior to 1980, very few Westerners had entered the province. Linfen cannot be reached by plane and foreigners do not generally drive outside of the major cities; when traveling by car, foreigners hire Chinese drivers, for reasons which become obvious when one is in China. Thus, Linfen is primarily accessible by train. Located in a basin surrounded by mountains, Linfen housed a rather large community of political and academic exiles during the Cultural Revolution. Seventeen hours by train north to Beijing, eight hours south to Xi'an (home of the clay warriors found in the tomb of the Emperor Ching Shi Huang, first emperor of China), Linfen is thought to be an ancient capital of China (Yao Dynasty). In the twentieth century it is a thriving industrial city and agricultural center in Shanxi province. Currently, Linfen is also the site of the only teacher's university in the province, Shanxi Teacher's University.

The Setting

In this article, I want to focus on my understanding of "the special circumstances of China" as they relate to the evolution of education from the late 19th century to Liberation in 1949. I have attempted to discuss this aspect of Chinese life/history elsewhere and found it largely unintelligible to audiences unless they have some knowledge of certain demographic and political considerations. So it is with demographics and a general history that I will begin. I will briefly review the social, political and military chaos in this century in China prior to liberation. Following this, I will develop the educational perspective, utilizing Wang Shiqings' Biography of Lu Xun and the oral history given me by Shanxi Teacher's University Party Secretary Guo Pu, as well as data collected from my students there. This approach is created through the historical-critical method, from personal observations here and abroad; and finally, from days and weeks of talk and gathering oral history from students, colleagues and friends.

UNDERSTANDING THE SETTING

The Land and The People

China is slightly larger in land mass than the United States. This includes, in addition to mainland China, the territories of Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan. Mainland China has a population of well over a billion people (approximately 1,038,000,000). Population density is 280 persons per square mile. There are fifty-five minority groups but the primary population group (94%) is the Han. Only a small percentage of the people (approximately 50 million) live in the seven major cities. This is important to note as much of the information we receive from China regarding its living conditions, political developments and other vital data occurs and arises out of these cities—where only a small portion of the population dwells. Thus, nearly a billion persons live outside of these cities—and outside of these cities life is considerably different than what we view on the nightly news or in documentaries, from which we tend to glean our impressions of China. Real life in China is not in the "living color" of TV. In my experience, China tends to be dusty
brown, dotted with green terracing in the countryside. In towns and cities, the blue, army green and black clothing of the citizenry dominate the landscape.

Outside the cities, two-thirds of the land is mountainous or desert land dotted with tiny villages and small towns devoted primarily to agriculture. The cities are fed by these communities. Traveling by train from Beijing to Linfen or from Linfen to Kunming, one is overwhelmed by the vastness of the land, the scarcity of good soil and the clever, tenacious development of the land through the endless and circuitous terracing which utilizes every inch of ground to feed China's one billion plus people.

Looking at the map, you will see that China has many neighbors. To the north is Mongolia; to the northeast and northwest, the USSR; to the west are Afghanistan and Pakistan; to the northwest is North Korea. To the south, China is bounded by India, Nepal, Bhutan, Burma, Laos and Vietnam. The geography and proximity of neighbors suggest, at least in part, why both China and the USSR have strong standing armies. During the university's five-week break I traveled to Kunming, a lovely old city in the South—and just a few hours from the on-going border war zone. According to an army officer with whom I shared a train compartment for awhile, Kunming is the last supply center for the front lines. In Kunming itself, there was no hint of this. Instead (China is always ambiguous), I saw the Buddhist faithful from Nepal and Mongolia come to worship at the ancient Buddhist temples of Kunming, which I too had come to see.

GOVERNMENT AND IDEOLOGY

Mainland China is divided into twenty-two provinces, five autonomous regions and three cities: Beijing, Shanghai and Tianjin. These cities are directly under the central government. The central government is located in Beijing (formerly Peking). China is a socialist country under the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). The country has operated under this system since the liberation in 1949. The organs through which the people exercise state power are the National People's Congress and the local people's congresses at various levels. The National People's Congress is elected for a term of five years. Under normal circumstances, it holds one session each year. Power in Chinese society is vested in a number of offices and the Communist Central Committee. As I write this, the Chairman of the People's Republic of China is Li Xiannian, Zhao Ziyang is Premier and Deng Xiaoping is head of the Military Commission and Chairman of the Consultative Committee for the CCP.

The General Secretary of the Party has changed in the past few months in response to the student demonstrations in December 1986. Formerly the General Secretary was Hu Yaobang, Premier Zhao Ziyang now acts as both Premier and General Secretary. (His actual title is: The General Secretary of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party).

As to ideology, the Chinese remain committed to Marxist principles. During his 1982-1983 African tour to enhance Sino-African relations, Premier Zhao Ziyang announced the "Five Principles of Peaceful Co-existence" first articulated by former Premier Zhou Enlai. These principles serve as the basis for Chinese foreign policy. They are as follows:

First, we all oppose imperialism, colonialism and racism; second, we all oppose big power's domination over small countries and their power politics; third, we all stand for the preservation of world peace; fourth, we all stand for strengthening unity among the third world countries; fifth, we all deem it necessary to reform the unjust, unreasonable old international economic order.; (Beijing Review Foreign Affairs Series, 1983, p. 10).

In addition, Chinese policy, as formulated by the CCP asserts, "We shall never seek hegemony, not in any circumstances." This viewpoint is not merely for international consumption, but is the view articulated by the ordinary Chinese layperson, discussing China's past and future over tea in his/her home in Linfen or Beijing.

Although the monks had earlier persuaded him to remain at home, the monk Jian Zhen thought it over and decided he must try once again. In 748 A.D., together with the Japanese monks Rong Rui and Pu Zhao and thirty-five sailors, Jian Zhen set sail for Japan. Hoping to avoid the perilous waters encountered in other voyages, they first sailed south, rather than north. Reaching Hainan Island near the south of mainland China after drifting for fourteen days, Jian Zhen and the others thought they had reached Japan. They realized their mistake, but travel being difficult in those days, were forced to remain on Hainan Island for one year before setting sail to China.

HISTORIES

Literary and Oral

The Biography of Lu Xun

The Biography of Lu Xun (1880-1936) aids one in understanding the educational system prior to the revolutionary twentieth century. In The Biography of Lu Xun, author of The True Story of Ab Q and other famous literary works, we learn the following about education in China.

Children fortunate enough to go to school learned the works of Confucius and Mencius. Small children also read and memorized a small book called the Rhymed History (written by Wang
Shiyun in the Qing dynasty. An example of primary school material:

In the beginning was Pan Gu, Born of primeval void: He was the first to rule the world, The chaos to divide.

This is the Chinese version of the creation myth. In addition, students at the Three Flavour Study would also study the Hundred Surnames, Poems on Child Prodigies and the Five Confucian Classics:

1. Ching or Book of Changes;
2. Shu Shing or Book of History;
3. Shih Shing or Book of Odes, or Book of Poetry;

At the Three Flavour Study where Lu Xun studied in the latter part of the 19th century, boys started school at age six. In those days and prior to Liberation, the position of women in China was none too good. Most were not educated and of course, women of a certain class had bound feet—a phenomenon which one can still see in the streets of Linfen as very old women struggle to and from market on one-bound “lily” feet.

There were ten boys in Lu Xun’s class at the Three Flavour Study. Tuition fees were set at two yuan (about 66 cents in 1986) a solar term (about a fortnight). Passages from the texts were memorized and recited aloud, as they are today to a certain extent. This would then be followed by a lesson in calligraphy. A fortunate child might study at such an institution for six years. Following this, if needed, one could go on to the middle schools primarily run by westerners/missionaries. At these schools, students were taught a mixture of classical Chinese curriculum and western thought, to include other languages. Graduation money and/or influence were available, the deserving child might be admitted to the middle schools primarily run by westerners/missionaries. At these schools, students were taught a mixture of classical Chinese curriculum and western thought, to include other languages. Graduation from middle school might mean that the child could go on to university. I should point out that Lu Xun went to school in a relatively more stable time than the early 20th century when Mao and other revolutionary leaders were in school. Then and now, books from the west were in short supply in China, so if one wanted to learn western ideas, one had to go to a western-run school, or go abroad to school as did Sun Yat-sen, Zhou Enlai, Den Xiaoping, Chen Yi and others.

The mixed bag of influences which ran amok in China for the first half of the twentieth century created confusion, violent disruption of ordinary life, chaos, and ultimately, new directions in educational curriculum. Intellectuals/revolutionaries had a powerful effect on the course of China’s evolution to liberation. Looking back one sees that two distinct and opposing western ideologies contributed to the general confusions exacerbated by the Japanese occupation, the warlords and remnants of the Qing Dynasty. Nonetheless, during the long struggle in China, lasting for nearly forty years, Chinese students fortunate enough to attend school even sporadically, were educated utilizing many of the materials studied by their fathers before them. Depending upon which force was occupying a person’s village or province at the time, e.g., Japanese or CCP, the curriculum was adapted to incorporate the prevailing ideology of the occupying force. The following case study summarizes for me “the special circumstances of China.”

While at Shanxi, I asked for permission to interview the leaders in the University’s hierarchy. I was given permission and interviews were set up and interpreters provided for me. What follows is the interview I conducted with Party Secretary Guo Pu, shortly before he retired from his post at Shanxi Teacher’s University. The story which he told me illustrates, better than I can state, the impact of the social, political and military struggles upon education during the Party Secretary’s lifetime. This oral history also demonstrates what I heard everywhere I went: the strong commitment of the Chinese people to education and to the material and spiritual prosperity of their country.

GUO PU: SECRETARY
Shanxi Teacher’s University

As one Chinese remarked to me “Guo Pu is a living legend—my story cannot compete with his.” Guo Pu was born in 1918 in Lin Shi County, Shanxi Province, just two hours from Linfen by train, and started school in 1924 (during the short era of cooperation between the Goumindang and the CCP). He attended school intermittently from 1924 to 1936. Under the Nationalist government of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, he studied the books of Confucius and Mencius, as had his ancestors before him.

In this period, western influence was clearly felt in the education of an ordinary Chinese boy. After the Japanese invasion,
he had to give up school and had no middle school. He began teaching primary students and continued his studies on his own. From 1936 to 1939 Guo Pu worked as an elementary school teacher, studying and teaching in a normal school. In this enterprise he had the aid of two other young villagers. They worked at such subjects as psychology for elementary students, pedagogy for normal school teachers and teaching methods. With the full force of the Japanese invasion and occupation in 1937, education turned into national defense education. Students were urged to join the battle against invaders for love of country.

In 1939, the Communists urged people to join the 8th route army which grew out of the Red Army and was under the leadership of the CCP. Guo's role as an educator was needed by the Red Army as they set up schools wherever they went. At that time, China was divided into three distinct areas: Bases for revolutionary people (CCP), Guerrilla areas, Enemy occupied areas.

The Japanese were short of manpower and tended to occupy the cities. The Communists, following Mao Zedong's plan, occupied the countryside. Eventually, they would surround the cities and take them. Guo joined the Red Army and continued to work as an educator. Now his employer was not the Guomindang but the Chinese Communist Party. He worked for the revolution. In addition to teaching his regular classes, he taught revolutionary cadres at night.

From 1940 to 1945 Guo worked in this capacity. He was a section leader in charge of education in the Lingshan area. He taught courses in politics and in the fundamentals of guerrilla warfare. The aim of the education was broad. It was meant to educate the people and make them more politically conscious. The education was for young and old alike. The schools were also moveable schools. Everyone carried guns and when they left an area, they left land mines behind for the approaching enemy and also captured spies as they moved. Guo's students who finished in this school (some 300 persons) often went on to school in Shanghai and in Sichuan province. Many later became party leaders.

Guo Pu was then assigned to Yuancheng where there were two regiments of enemy soldiers. The Communists were short of manpower in this area and had only a few guerrilla fighters. His job was to train more. (Note: the Red Army was fighting its way through China during this period of time. Most of the "guerrilla fighters" were peasants who joined the Communist forces and many were uneducated. One of Guo's tasks was to train them as best he could in literacy in a short time, while also turning them into guerrilla fighters.)

From 1945 to 1947, Guo Pu was a Political Commissar. With aid his area was finally liberated (from the Japanese and the Guomindang). In Party Secretary Guo's opinion, the "democratic revolution" aimed at two things: "to drive the invaders out of China; and to be rid of semi-feudal institutions." The Party Secretary says, "On the whole, leadership has been and is correct, and what's more we don't deny we have taken a twisted road in the process. In 1978 (following the Cultural Revolution), at the 3rd Plenary Session, we came to realize the correct ideals and cultivate discipline. "We try to help them be conscientious and disciplined ideologically and in their studies." I then asked the Party Secretary about the aims and goals of this institution. He replied "the main task is to reinforce the middle schools in this province."

Continuing, Guo Pu said, "Education is the key to the four modernizations*. The key to success lies in our fine faculty members. We realize the close relationship between the achieving of the four modernizations and education for our youth. We are aimed at raising the whole nation's cultural level. To be more exact, if we have enough qualified teachers our educational program will be a success and that success will aid in achieving the four modernizations. The task is a strategic one."

With time running out, I then inquired what the Secretary was most interested in; what were his personal goals? He replied, "I believe in communism, patriotism and internationalism. I expect that we will achieve the four modernizations and that this success will make a great contribution to the entire world.

We think that there are three steps in achieving our goal: 1. By the end of this century, our national agricultural output will be twice what is now. At that time, our people will be better off. 2. By 2020, the standard of living will be the same as that for middle level persons in developed countries. 3. By 2049, the 100th anniversary of the People's Republic of China, our nation will be classified into the highest level as a strong socialist country with a high culture and high material status."

Concluding, the Party Secretary said: "I have worked in accordance with a quotation from our famous writer Lu Xun: 'You should have a deep hatred for the enemy and should work as an ox for the people.'"

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*Nancy Street is a professor of Speech Communication. She has a B.A. in History from the University of North Carolina and an M.A. and Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Communication from the University of Colorado. In 1983-86, she was the exchange professor from BSC to Shanxi Teacher's University.
Edward Hull CRUMP

A Political History

BY CYNTHIA CRANDLEMERE

What famous people do you associate with Memphis, Tennessee? Andrew Jackson? Elvis? Dr. King? Danny Thomas? Each has a Memphis boulevard named after him, as does Edward Hull Crump. Who was Crump and what did he do to and for the city? The answer is ... a lot. In the words of the old Memphis work song: "The cotton's up and the river's down, and Mr. Ed Crump — he runs this town."

E. H. Crump, Mayor of Memphis, was a political boss extraordinary. He controlled Memphis completely for the first half of the twentieth century. Before city governments were reorganized to meet the needs of the growing population, many urban bosses sorted through the political chaos and provided projects for public improvement and care for the poor. At the same time, most were lining their pockets as well as those of their cronies. For others, the main goal was power. While Crump pursued and then maintained his power, Memphis benefitted in no small way.

The year of Edward Hull Crump's birth, 1874, was a terrible year for the city of Memphis, Tennessee. Memphis, on the fourth Chickasaw Bluff of the Mississippi River, was in the process of being annihilated by yellow fever. Three devastating epidemics struck in the seventies killing eight thousand, mostly poor Irish, and causing many businessmen and merchants to flee for their lives. Memphis' population plummetted, taxes soared, and in January, 1879, its charter was repealed. He felt that the big city offered more possibilities for the future than did farming. Legend has it that he arrived in Memphis with no plans or money for a place to spend the night. James H. Malone put Crump on his reform ticket as a candidate for the Lower Legislative Council of the Board of Public Works. Crump won, in part due to the then novel use of extensive newspaper...
advertising, defeating a field of fourteen candidates.

Crump was disappointed with the lack of power he had in the Lower Council, however, and in 1907 he ran successfully for the Upper Council. To make himself known, he then staged and led a one-night-only raid on illegal gambling in the city. Not only was the raid no more than a dramatic grandstanding, but it was also the last time, at least according to Crump’s critics, that “reform” was heard of in the next half-century in Memphis.

In 1909 Crump became Memphis’ first mayor under the new commission government system. This marked the beginning of his long, paradoxical, and unusual relationship with the black population of Memphis. The purchasing of poll tax receipts and the wholesale carting of blacks to the polls is an old story in the South, not invented by Crump, although probably never used more effectively. Crump “voted” the blacks for many years, until his strong power base made it no longer necessary. Blacks would be picked up in wagons on election day, some actually from northern Mississippi or Arkansas across the bridge. For three decades, they were given poll tax receipts out of a large basket and told how to vote. On their way out of the polls the blacks were given a silver dollar, a barbecue sandwich, a coke, a watermelon, or a bottle of local whiskey. An old story claims that after registering for the World War II draft, a black Memphian was said to have complained, “Where’s my barbecue and Coke?” The practice of using poll tax receipts for vote fraud was continued until the tax was repealed in 1949.

Crump’s vital realization, made despite the deeply engrained plantation values of his youth, was that a black vote was worth the same as a white vote. As would happen again and again throughout Crump’s career, he would hold mutually contradictory opinions, exposing in this instance his profoundly ambivalent feelings about race relations. On the one hand, according to Alfred Steinberg, author of The Bosses, “To Crump, Negroes were childish, useful for hard, physical labor under strict guidance, and easily given to tragedy and murder.” On the other hand, however, although a segregationist, Crump did think that blacks were entitled to certain rights—to vote, if to his benefit, to be respected by the police, to have clean neighborhoods, and the use of the parks (“colored,” of course).

It appears that Crump did truly love people, although often in a paternalistic fashion, and that kindness generally tempered his racial attitudes. He was the first mayor of a Southern city to put blacks on the police force. He was also responsible for keeping the Ku Klux Klan out of Memphis, albeit for personal political reasons—they were a threat to the machine’s local power.

Throughout his career Crump built an incredible “intelligence network” which eventually gave him control of virtually all offices in local civic clubs, including the Garden Club. His other main bloc of support was the city employees who increasingly owed their jobs to him. The Mayor’s office enjoyed an enormous amount of patronage. There was no civil service as such and virtually every city employee owed his job to the whims of the mayor and his staff. In contrast to the stereotypical political boss, Crump would not allow the city employees to accept gifts, railroad passes or even free meals. He had all the city wagons painted bright butter yellow, so it would be obvious if anyone was using the vehicle when off duty. His personal honesty was unquestioned; he would not steal a nickel, just an election.

Crump won the mayoral election of 1909 by 79 votes, with a recount granting him an extra twelve. No story about Crump would be complete without the mention of the campaign song allegedly commissioned by Crump’s supporters, by the young (and some say the first) Blues band leader — W.C. Handy:

Mr. Crump won’t ‘low no easy-riders here
I don’t care what Mr. Crump won’t ‘low
I’m going to barrelhouse anyhow
Mr. Crump can go catch himself some air

Handy seemed to be implying that no one on Beale Street (the center of black life in Memphis) believed that Crump would carry out his “reform” campaign promises. The Crump machine did not object to the song, however, because its public performances were enjoyable, generating good will, and because Crump’s control of the black vote did not depend very much on “issues” anyway. Handy later changed the title to “Memphis Blues,” and it became a classic.

Crump won reelection in 1911, and at this time decided to broaden his power by combining the sheriff’s office with that of the mayor. His long-time enemy, a fiery Kentucky Irishman, C.P.J. Mooney of the local Commercial Appeal newspaper, was quick to inform Crump that state law barred individuals from holding two offices at once. When Crump announced that his close personal friend, John Reichman, would run for sheriff instead, Mooney revealed that Reichman could only run as a write-in candidate as he had declared his candidacy too late for inclusion on the ballot.

Reichman’s election appeared an impossibility, at least to Mooney, considering Crump’s and Reichman’s need for the largely illiterate black vote. It was at this juncture that Crump perpetrated one of the most cunning outrages of his long career and “unfolded before a startled Memphis the slickest piece of adult education in Southern history.” Crump sent dozens of his faithful, armed with chalkboards, into the black neighborhoods...
and taught the blacks to "Rite it Rick." Campaign workers patiently taught "e before i," and hung huge street signs with the name Reichman on them. Trucks toured the neighborhoods with Reichman's name on the side. Reichman won by 8,996 votes. It is said that "even today (1953) in Memphis there are Negroes who can spell only one word — Reichman — even though they cannot spell their own names."

Crump's machine was not built overnight—it took a decade of alliance building, all over the state, and several jostles for power. The "Red Snapper" had effective control of all the city's wards and a good administrative record. He kept the tax rate low, but did nothing about the vice and corruption.

which certainly kept away businesses. Paradoxically, he did toughen up on vice and corruption, but not until 1939—possibly as a result of the plane crash death of his youngest son and political heir, John, which many believed made Crump turn religious.

But now, in the early years of his mayoralty, Crump, although nearly a teetotaler, clearly and publicly refused to support prohibition. He correctly felt that Memphis did not want it; he also collected much political support from the saloon interests. In this instance, as in many others, he paradoxically showed himself to truly represent the will of his constituency while being a big city boss at the same time. It seems clear, particularly from reading some of his correspondence, that Crump sincerely and fiercely loved his Memphis and wanted the best for it—and if not the best, then whatever the people wanted. Phrases like "will mean big things for Memphis" run throughout his letters. Prohibition did hand Crump an early defeat when an ouster law that had been developed with him in mind removed him from the mayor's job on November 3, 1916, for "neglecting his duties" by not enforcing the law. The battle cry was "Put a Crump in Crump." Ironically, this had the long-term effect of teaching Crump that he could achieve even greater power behind the scenes, being less accountable to the public than he would be in an official, elected job.

In 1930 and again in 1932, Crump parlayed his ever-increasing political power into two terms in Congress, although, by his own admission, he did not much like being only a very small frog in a very big pond. Not a ground-breaking legislator, Crump's term in Congress is distinguished mostly by his strong support of every New Deal bill that came up. Such voting was in variance with that of most of his Southern colleagues because, as a rule, Southern Congressmen voted against what they saw as "radical" New Deal legislation. Crump's purpose, however, was to gain as many New Deal funds and programs as possible for Memphis and accompanying Shelby County. Franklin Delano Roosevelt is said to have always asked, when meeting someone from Tennessee: "Do you know my friend Mr. Crump?" He was aware that Crump could and did deliver the votes of the entire state of Tennessee to whomever was in Crump's political favor.

While he was busy running the city and all his officials, Crump also found time to create another business, a very profitable insurance and real estate corporation still active and thriving today as E. H. Crump Companies, run now by his sons and grandsons. It amazed his enemies that, although due to the size of his company, he could easily have underwritten all the city insurance, he "never did one cent of business with the city administration." Most city employees did, however, find it prudent to purchase at least some of their personal insurance from Crump and Company, Investment Bankers.

The "Red Snapper" continued to have absolute power in Shelby-Memphis for almost 50 years. In 1946, Time Magazine described him as "the most absolute political Boss in the U.S." Time continued:

"Since 1917 Crump has been responsible for the election of every Tennessee senator with the exception of five. He has consistently enjoyed a friendly governor and has usually controlled a majority of the delegates to the Legislature."

Crump was neither modest about nor unaware of his absolute domination of the area. In 1958 he commented:

I've never been defeated in my county of Shelby. I've been in politics thirty-seven years and have been elected nineteen times and have helped in sixty-four other elections without a setback here at home. I'll go to the bridge with my friends and I'll take 'em across the river and I won't let 'em drown. Go out and ask the folks.

For twenty years, he kept a card index of every white voter. He knew how everyone voted, and furthermore, because he controlled every public job, he could pressure city workers and their families to vote for whomever he chose. It was also true, however, that he often gave the impression of having more power than he actually did by supporting strong candidates.

Over the years Crump was able to discard some of the more objectionable of his machine's practices in keeping with Lincoln Steffens' thesis that clever politicians will give the people the government for which they create a demand. Crump wanted power, not money, a stance which allowed him to be a "benevolent despot." Combined with his sincere love for Memphis and its people, this new approach to bossism resulted in many projects that really helped the people and the city including an extended street-paving program, school and hospital construction, public park extension, harbor development and noise abatement activities. Crump provided Memphis with clean, economical and efficient "honest" government replete with everything by the right of choice. The people of Memphis gave Crump power.
Crump's power also lay in his ability to "talk the language of any group," so that individuals felt that he truly represented them. It was only the upper crust who did not love him; they viewed him as a foreman for their interests. He had an incredible memory for names and faces. In an interview with the author, Dr. John E. Harkins remembered meeting Crump on the street several times when he was a child. He reported that although his mother was a simple, unknown widow with five children, Crump always remembered her name and asked if the family was well. Dr. Harkins is quite sure that if the answer had been "poorly," Crump would have wanted to help alleviate the problem immediately.

Another source of Crump's control was the threat of his legendary temper. Three commonly told stories of retaliation against private citizens who expressed open dissent included that of Frank Thompson, a local undertaker who found his hearse’s being tailed and given summonses for traffic violations, and the wholesale druggist who failed to get police protection during a successful AFL strike at his plant, and another druggist who were searching all his customers as they left the store due to the alleged suspicion that he was selling narcotics.

A favorite example of Crump’s anger is the “mangy bubonic rat letter.” After the death of Crump’s enemy, C.P.J. Mooney of the Commercial Appeal, Edward J. Meeman of the Press-Scimitar took up the mantle of the editor who opposed the machine. He irked Crump many times, and in June of 1947 managed to earn this response: Crump accused Meeman, and the paper of “underhanded scheming treachery,” and called Meeman a “lying cur and worse than that.” He extended his vitriolic attack to Meeman’s contemporary Joe Hatchet of the Tennessean, “this mangy, bubonic rat...Yes, anyone could take a young mouse with baby teeth and run you both in the river. Hatchet has a low, filthy diseased mind. He lies by nature and tells the truth by accident.” In another letter of attack on the Tennessean, he used the word “rat” fourteen times and “liar” twenty.

Professor Gerald Capers, author of Our Fair City, suggests that Memphis viewed Crump as a sort of extra-legal city manager to whom they were happy to give over their power. He claims that many maintained that this strange procedure was only a superficial departure from the democratic process, and was also an expression of the will of the public. The public was also kept amused by Crump’s famous attempts at personal showmanship. There was Crump Charity Day at the fairgrounds, Crump boat rides on the Mississippi for shut-ins, cripples and orphans and charity football games at E.H. Crump Municipal Stadium. Crump made a distinction between “honest” and “dishonest” graft and took the advice of another Boss, the great pundit of Tammany Hall, George Washington Plunkett, who believed that a politician who stole was a fool since a man with political pull had so many grand opportunities that there was no excuse for stealing a cent.

The debate still rages today as to whether Crump did more harm than good for Memphis, but much good remains in this clean, attractive, people-minded city. Nothing lasts forever, however, and in the Senate campaign of 1948, that “bundle of calm,” Estes Kefauver, proved to be Crump’s undoing. Crump implied that Kefauver was the “darling of the Communists,” and labeled him deceitful and cunning as a raccoon. Kefauver replied that he might be a ‘coon, but at least he was not Mr. Crump’s pet ‘coon. He promptly donned a ‘coon skin cap and turned the whole matter to his advantage. When it was obvious that Kefauver was about to destroy Crump’s loyal local monopoly, discontented groups in Memphis rallied in support of Kefauver. Before much else could happen to Crump’s power also lay in his ability to weaken his machine, Crump developed a malfunctioning heart and diabetes. He died on October 16, 1955, just in time to make way for the other North Mississippi boy who made it big in Memphis. His name was Elvis Presley.

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**Personal Political Record of E.H. Crump**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Position/Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1902-1904:</td>
<td>Citizens Democratic ticket; Legislative, Senatorial and Flotterial Delegate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905:</td>
<td>Delegate to the Democratic Gubernatorial Convention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906:</td>
<td>Fire and Police Commissioner of Memphis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908:</td>
<td>Independent Delegate to the Shelby Delegation to the State Legislature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909-1915:</td>
<td>Mayor of Memphis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916-1923:</td>
<td>County Trustee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924:</td>
<td>Delegate-at-Large to the National Democratic Convention in New York City, Member of the Democratic Executive Committee of Tennessee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928:</td>
<td>Delegate-at-Large to the National Democratic Convention at Houston, Texas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930:</td>
<td>Congressman from the Tenth District, Shelby County, Tennessee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932:</td>
<td>Congressman from the Tenth District, Delegate to the Democratic National Convention at Chicago, Illinois.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939:</td>
<td>Mayor of Memphis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940:</td>
<td>Delegate to the National Democratic Convention at Chicago.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944:</td>
<td>National Committeeman, for Tennessee; Delegate-at-Large to the National Democratic Convention at Chicago.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948:</td>
<td>Delegate-at-Large to the Democratic National Convention at Chicago; Joins Dixicrats.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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CYNTHIA CRANDLEMERE will graduate with a degree in history from Bridgewater in May, 1988. In 1987 Cynthia was a recipient of the Centennial History Award given to the senior history major with the highest grade point average.
Two Poems
BY EAVAN BOLAND

THE PHOTOGRAPH ON MY FATHER’S DESK

It could be
any summer afternoon.
The sun is warm on
the fruitwood garden seat.

Fuchsia droops.
Thrushes move to get
windfalls
underneath the crab apple tree.

The woman
holds her throat like a wound;
she wears
mutton-coloured
gaberdine with
a scum of lace
just above her boot
which is pointed at

this man
coming down
the path with
his arms held wide open. Laughing.

The talk has stopped.
The spoon which just now
jingled at the rim
of the lemonade jug

is still,
and the shrubbed lavender
will find
neither fragrance nor muslin.

THE EMIGRANT IRISH

Like oil lamps we put them out the back,
of our houses, of our minds. We had lights
better than, newer than and then

a time came, this time and now
we need them. Their dread, makeshift example.

They would have thrived on our necessities.
What they survived we could not even live.
By their lights now it is time to
imagine how they stood there, what they stood with,
that their possessions may become our power.

Cardboard. Iron. Their hardships parcelled in them.
Patience. Fortitude. Long-suffering
in the bruise-coloured dusk of the New World.

And all the old songs. And nothing to lose.

Born in Dublin, Eavan Boland is one of Ireland's leading younger writers. She has published several collections of
poetry including translations from Irish, Russian, and German, and her most recent book is The Journey and Other
Poems, available from Carcanet Press, 198 Sixth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10013. Ms. Boland gave a reading at
the children of Bridgewater

"Let's see . . . what do I want?"

"Seventh inning chat"
by GINA GUASCONI

Gina Guasconi is a graduate of Bridgewater State College and is currently working on her master’s degree in Communication. Gina is a member of the Purchasing Department at the college and is a staff photographer for The Townsman newspaper. She has studied photography at Bridgewater State College and is now working on an exhibit of photographs of children which is being funded by a grant from the Bridgewater Arts Council.

"Sharing"

"Warming up"
Bavaria, but undoubtedly there was no impairment of his established privileges. Since it was clear that Frederick had supported Konrad’s rule as lord of the city, Louis accepted the situation as long as his share of the revenues was collected and paid into his treasury. The document contained the clear stipulation that the rights of the crown must be preserved and that Regensburg was to remain an imperial city under the care and supervision of the bishop, acting on behalf of the emperor. The result of the resolution was a disastrous blow to the hopes of the burghers for achieving autonomous rule. But there was not much they could do, for as long as the king, bishop, and duke cooperated effectively, it was impossible to create enough pressure to force important concessions. Bishop Konrad then organized a system to administer his newly won rights and privileges. His ministeriales were assigned important posts and granted extensive powers to act on his behalf, and as a consequence, the power, prestige and political competency of this class elevated it to the most prominent position among the burghers.

When Bishop Konrad died in 1226, there was a disputed election. Gottfried, the choice of the ministerales, was opposed by the papacy and in June 1227, the newly elected Pope Gregory IX announced that under his authorization members of the cathedral chapter in Bavaria, but undoubtedly there was no impairment of his established privileges.
Rome had conducted a new election in which Siegfried of Mainz had been selected, a move endorsed by Emperor Frederick. Upon his arrival in Regensburg, Siegfried continued to administer political authority through the ministeriales, even though their choice for bishop had been ousted.

It was the struggle for control in Germany between Emperor Frederick and his son Henry, who had been elected King of the Romans, which brought Bishop Siegfried into a prominent role in imperial politics. When the ambitions of the king led him to seek the support of the lower nobility and the imperial cities, his father was forced to intervene, relying on the loyalty of the great princes. In 1227, the emperor restored the office of Grand Chancellor of the Realm, vacant since 1224, by appointing Bishop Siegfried to the post. He was an excellent choice since in addition to being a trusted friend, he was a conservative politician and a strong supporter of ecclesiastical rule over cities, and thus had opposed efforts of the citizens of Regensburg to gain more political freedom. As chancellor and advisor to the emperor, Siegfried had great influence on imperial edicts, decrees, and legislation for almost fifteen years.

One of the first acts of the new chancellor was to persuade Frederick to grant a charter of rights to the burghers of his city. In a sense, the document was a reward for the staunch loyalty of the citizenry to the emperor during the power struggle with Henry, but additionally Siegfried had good reasons for wanting to have the rights of the burghers clearly spelled out. Because his only rival for control of the city was Duke Louis, who had sided with King Henry, it was in the interests of both bishop and citizenry to make it more difficult for Louis to legally extend his jurisdiction through royal favor.

Since Siegfried’s new duties as chancellor would often require his absence from the city on imperial business, an agreement with the burghers was needed to guarantee a peaceful and secure state of affairs at home. Important provisions of the document protected trade and commerce and granted the right of the city to raise taxes to build up defenses, subject only to the Bishop’s permission. The document did not significantly undermine episcopal control, but it was clear that power ultimately remained as an assignment of imperial authority and it was possible that, should the bishop be ousted in the future, the rights and privileges could be granted directly to the citizenry.

As the conflict between Frederick and Henry continued, the emperor finally lost patience and decided to intervene personally. He arrived in Regensburg on May 31, 1235 where he was warmly welcomed by the bishop and the residents and the city became his base of operations. Henry was taken into custody and replaced by his half-brother, Conrad. By 1236, Frederick was at the height of his power in Germany, a position reflected by the security of his agents and officials.

Frederick had become embroiled in a conflict with the papacy over the emperor’s efforts to dominate the Lombard city-states. Gregory preferred to have the communes retain a relatively independent status to weaken imperial control in Italy and was willing to use spiritual powers to gain his political goals. As soon as the emperor had returned to Italy, the pope authorized a papal legate, Albrecht of Beham, Archdeacon of Passau, to seek allies for the Holy See in Germany. Albrecht organized a confederation of secular princes against the emperor which caused much turmoil, disrupting the business activities of the merchants of Regensburg and other cities. Through all the upheavals, Bishop Siegfried and the citizenry remained loyal to the Hohenstaufen party. Eventually the league broke up with only Otto, the new Duke of Bavaria, remaining faithful to the pope.

Pope Gregory excommunicated Frederick and a propaganda war broke out as both emperor and pope sought support among Christian rulers and clerics. In Bavaria, Legate Albrecht put pressure on the clergy by requesting Duke Otto to summon a council at which all bishops would be ordered to proclaim and enforce the papal ban. Dissent broke out in the assembly, as some prelates were willing to obey, but others openly defied Albrecht by praying publicly for the emperor. The legate angrily excommunicated several obstinate churchmen including Bishop Siegfried who had not even made an appearance, although he had sent delegates.

There was a strong reaction in Regensburg where a majority of clerics and burghers continued to support the pro-imperial policy of their bishop. Legate Albrecht issued an ultimatum ordering that Siegfried either pronounce the papal ban or be removed from office. The bishop stalled by insisting that he see the original papal documents. In response, the legate demanded that the cathedral chapter proclaim the sentence against their bishop within fifteen days. But the chapter too defied Albrecht, justifying the refusal by asserting that the militant, pro-imperial attitudes of the populace made such an open declaration for the pope impossible.

New papal orders arrived in June, directing the superiors in the monastic houses of Regensburg to affix the bull of excommunication against Frederick and Siegfried on their church doors. A delegation of citizens warned the clerics that anyone attempting to proclaim the decrees would be imprisoned. A number of papal supporters, including some members of the chapter, fled from the city as the monks of St. Emmeram and St. Mang who defied the burghers were attacked by a mob of townspeople. It is understandable why the clerics backed down and refused to proclaim the spiritual punishments. Consequently, on June 21 Albrecht placed an interdict over the entire city. Bishop Siegfried, still hoping for a peaceful resolution, requested absolution by claiming that under existing conditions, it was impossible to comply with orders without incurring riots and possible bloodshed, but Albrecht remained unconvinced.

Outside the city, the legate continued his activity with such fanaticism that nearly half the bishops in Germany came under the ban of the church. Because of the enmity roused against his emisary, Pope Gregory begged Duke Otto to protect Albrecht while the emperor sent an order to the Duke to drive him out. Otto recognized the danger inherent in the turmoil and requested the pope to recall Albrecht, but without success. King Conrad planned a campaign against the Duke who, under pressure from Bishop Siegfried, the cathedral canons, and the townspeople of Regensburg, abandoned the pope and joined the imperial party. Frederick was willing to forgive and forget and the two men eventually became close friends.

The conflict between Frederick and the papacy continued in Italy after the death of Pope Gregory in August 1241. A conclave elected a successor, Celestine IV, who died a few days after his elevation and, because of the troubled conditions, another election was not held for almost two years. The new pope, Innocent IV, was a trained lawyer experienced in diplomatic missions and political intrigue. Frederick looked upon him as a kindred soul with whom he could negotiate, but received a shock when his emissaries were
not received at the papal court on the grounds that the pope could not deal with representatives of an excommunicated ruler. The emperor quickly realized his new adversary was a clever, calculating man who would pursue his political goals without thought to personal feelings or passions, which had often swayed the policies of his predecessor.

Lengthy peace negotiations between the emperor and pope were to no avail. Finally a church council in Lyons in June 1245 deposed Frederick and stripped him of all his titles and crowns.

Frederick was determined to fight for his survival and Innocent was just as determined to bring him down. The pope concentrated his efforts in Germany skillfully, using spiritual authority, political intrigue, and coercion. Even during the papal interregnum, Legate Albrecht had continued undermining imperial support among the ecclesiastical princes with increasing success as the archbishops of Mainz, Trier, and Cologne switched allegiance to the papal party. With the solid backing of the new pope, Albrecht increased the intensity of his campaign. As clerics who continued to support Frederick were excommunicated, deposed, or pressured into resigning, the vacancies were filled by papal supporters. At the same time, mendicant friars were sent to preach against the emperor in the streets and marketplaces of German cities.

Despite the turmoil, Bishop Siegfried and Duke Otto of Bavaria had remained loyal to the emperor. Even as the pope was issuing his proclamations against Frederick, the faithful chancellor was attending his lord in Vienna. But suddenly there came a severe jolt for the emperor; Siegfried unexpectedly announced his support for Innocent, followed by some of his loyal clergy and friends. Undoubtedly the primary cause of the break was the proclamation at Lyons, but the reason for the bishop’s change of heart cannot be clearly ascertained. He could not be accused of being an opportunist, since his rule as lord over Regensburg and as a political power in the Empire depended on the good will of Frederick and he must have realized the possible consequences of the risk he was taking. In earlier feuds between Gregory and Frederick, the emperor had consistently insisted he was not fighting against the church and papacy, but against an unworthy bishop of Rome. He might have convinced many of the validity of this assertion (including the bishop of Regensburg), but he could not hope to distinguish between the office and the incumbent a second time. Siegfried had attempted to act as mediator between the factions, but the latest events had made a compromise peace impossible. So he had to choose which master he would serve and adhered to his spiritual vows rather than his secular obligations.

It was this transfer of allegiance which caused an abrupt change in the political situation in Regensburg. Following a rebellion by the burgheers which forced the bishop into exile, a delegation visited the emperor in Italy to inform him of the tense situation. In retaliation for Siegfried’s betrayal, Frederick issued a document revoking episcopal authority over the city, ending nearly forty years of ecclesiastical rule and establishing an autonomous urban government. The citizens were authorized to elect a city council, burghermeister, and other magistrates from their own ranks. The bishop was still entitled to his traditional revenues, but his supervision over public affairs had ended.

Siegfried refused to accept his loss of authority, and with his allies, stirred up dissention. He placed the city under interdict forbidding the clergy from holding religious services or giving spiritual consolation to the burgheers. Some clerics defied the ban despite fear of the consequences. King Conrad intervened by promising that those prelates who remained in the city would be under his guarantee of security.

In March 1246, at the height of the conflict, Siegfried died. To ensure a favorable replacement, Pope Innocent authorized the new papal legate, Philip Fontana, to fill the vacancy by appointment, rather than allow election by the chapter. The choice fell on Albrecht of Poettenger, who immediately made it clear his sympathies were the same as those of his predecessor by announcing his intention to continue the ban against spiritual activities. The burgheers were enraged and a frenzied mob forced the new bishop to flee from the city; he remained in exile for almost seven years. The burgheers cared little about the bishop’s action as clerics loyal to the emperor continued divine services. The chronicles relate stories of violence, humiliation, and indignities inflicted on the minority of clerics and laity who demonstrated loyalty to the pope and bishop. Innocent heard of the outrages and ordered his legate to grant the people three month’s grace to repent, seek absolution, and change their ways. Should they remain obdurate, the legate was to join Bishop Albrecht in imposing excommunication and interdict over all residents. Any clerics who did not obey would be stripped of their benefices and prebends which would be reclaimed by the bishop. When the deadline had passed and the situation remained unchanged, the threatened punishments were declared in force. Not only was religious activity forbidden, but trade and commerce were hindered. Despite all efforts, the pope could not prevail and was forced to make concessions. Papal bulls were issued late in 1249 allowing some monastic orders to conduct services for selected burgheers behind closed doors. On January 31, 1250, the privilege was extended to the cathedral chapter and to the entire diocese.

The conflict broke into open warfare when Bishop Albrecht persuaded King Ottocar III of Bohemia to intervene on his behalf. The invading forces devastated the region and after the troops of Regensburg were defeated, the city almost fell to the enemy. King Conrad and Duke Otto came to the rescue and drove out the Bohemian army. Albrecht took up residence in his castle at Stauf where from his watchtower he could observe the movement of soldiers and merchants in and around the city. From this vantage point he continually sent out troops to harass the burgheers and seize their goods.

Emperor Frederick was ill most of 1250 and died in December of that year. On January 20, 1251, King Conrad issued a document that was very important in developing the independence of Regensburg. Drawn up at the request of...
the city council because of the insecurity of the times and the dangers which threatened the city, it required that all inhabitants of the city, including clergy and Jews, obey statutes and ordinances concerning security and defense passed and issued by the council. Under the provisions, town magistrates could legislate and enforce obedience to city laws. Since reference was made only to defensive measures, the authority could be interpreted as limited, but there was no provision for judicial appeal and the right to decide just what laws and ordinances were concerned with peace and security was left to the council itself. The chief enforcement officer mentioned in the document was the commander of the urban militia, who was responsible to the council. He had been in charge of the walls and moats and general defense, but now his duties expanded to the general enforcement of all laws and decrees since there was no real concept of a separation between civil and military powers. This document was a recognition of the independence and competency of the burghers and provided the crucial element by which Regensburg truly became an autonomous imperial city, free from the authority of both bishop and duke. The new freedom was not only reflected in political affairs, but also acted as a stimulus to increased trade and business prosperity.

With the departure of King Conrad a short time later, the council and burghers realized that without the royal presence, their position was weakened. To ease the tension, an agreement was reached between the government and the cathedral chapter under which exiled clerics and monks were allowed to return to their prebends and cloisters. The clerics in return renounced all claims against city and burghers for damages inflicted on the property of the diocese and monasteries.

Bishop Albrecht was not party to the agreement, and continued the war against Regensburg and Duke Otto. He finally realized the futility of the effort and in February 1253 negotiated a treaty with the city. The prelate agreed to forgive and forget all the indignities and damages he and the diocese had suffered and to drop all claims he had against the burghers. Albrecht refrained from political activities and devoted his energy to the restoration of damaged property. The only remaining threat to the peace was the lingering antagonism between the bishop and Duke Otto, but this too was resolved. Albrecht returned, the city government was functioning efficiently and its independence, which lasted over two centuries, was well established.

The participation of clerics in politics during the Middle Ages did not create the dilemmas inherent in modern social and community life. Since virtually all medieval Europeans were Roman Catholics, there was little dispute over moral and theological teachings as proclaimed by the church hierarchy. In today’s pluralistic societies where specific religious policies are not accepted by all members of the community, the politician-cleric is often accused of either attempting to force personal doctrinal views on all citizens or of supporting public policies which might be in conflict with his or her own faith. Despite these difficulties, a person who follows a religious calling does not surrender the privileges of citizenship, including the right to run for public office, but the nature of involvement might be subject to the regulatory authority within a religious organization or as a matter of individual conscience. Ultimately the voters make the decision, as they have the right to decide if a candidate’s moral or ethical views are important factors in determining whether that person should be supported in the campaign.

Regensburg, the magistracy and the burghers consolidated their independent status and protected themselves from princely challenges to their hard won status. Fortunately in the years following the granting of the right to organize their own government, the political situation had allowed them time to resolve their own problems without interference by a powerful prince. King Conrad, embroiled in the struggle between papacy and empire, had been inclined to extend, rather than impede the authority of the local government. Duke Otto of Bavaria, as a loyal supporter of Conrad, had not opposed or undermined royal policy, and following his death in 1253, the subsequent dissensions between his sons leading to a division of power decreased their ability to interfere in urban affairs. But the most important advantage was the seven-year absence of the bishop during which the citizenry had administered the city rule and established their own governmental institutions replacing the bureaucracy and the ecclesiastical ministeriales. By the time Albrecht returned, the city government was functioning efficiently and its independence, which lasted over two centuries, was well established.

DONALD L. KEAY is a professor of European and ancient history at Bridgewater State College. His doctoral thesis at Boston University was a study of political and social developments in the city of Regensburg, Germany from the 11th to the 14th century.
The RULES of the GAME

BY CHARLES ANGELL

The next Saturday afternoon that you venture to Swenson Field to cheer on the Bears against one of their New England Conference rivals, recall for a moment that small college football in New England and the East has had long and vigorous tradition. Even the cheerleading goes way back to the days of the first contests between Princeton and Rutgers. Back in 1869 Princeton played a rematch against Rutgers. The Tiger team hoped to disconcert the Rutgers offense by screaming rebel yells whenever Rutgers tried to advance the ball. The Princeton defense only winded itself trying to run and yell at the same time. Rutgers won. True cheerleading began at their next meeting when Princeton brought classmates to produce coordinated shouting. All the traditions in Eastern football have a long colorful history that go back to when the game more resembled today's soccer or perhaps rugby.

In fact, football as we know it began at Harvard. Other schools—Princeton, Rutgers, Columbia, and Yale—played the soccer-like game which prohibited the ball carrier from running with the ball when pursued. Harvard played by the so-called Boston rules which allowed the ball carrier to run with the ball until pursued. Harvard's style of play developed from its traditional 'Bloody Monday' scrum between upperclassmen and freshmen in the Yard. This loosely played football game saw more freshmen kicked than the ball, a style of play whichingers in some intramural play here at Bridgewater. Other schools refused to compete against Harvard as long as the Boston rules were used, and not until 1874, when McGill University in Canada came to Cambridge, did the Crimson find an opponent. Now McGill played according to Canadian rugby rules which allowed the ball carrier to pick up the ball and run whether pursued or not. Harvard liked this style of play, adopted the Canadian rules, and thus formed the essentials of what we know as football.

Yale, in 1875, followed Harvard's lead and their great rivalry began.

And what a rivalry it's been. We all remember the Harvard-Yale game of a decade or so ago when the teams played to a 17 all tie, Harvard coming from behind in the second half, allowing fans on both sides of the gridiron to claim the victory. One of the greatest Harvard-Yale games was fought on a beautiful November Saturday in 1913. Harvard prevailed 15-3 on the strength of five Charles Brickley field goals, drop kicked, as they were then, from behind the line of scrimmage. Harry Cross, sportswriter for The New York Times wrote of the Harvard team: 'The newsies' here tonight are not screaming about Harvard's triumph. They are yelling 'Wuxtra! Wuxtra! All about the New Haven wreck!' The New wreck is Captain Ketcham's team, exhausted, played out to the last ounce of human strength, and beaten decisively by Percy Haughton's big Crimson team, which showed itself to be one of the best-drilled football machines ever to tread a gridiron.'

Percy Haughton of Harvard established himself as one of the game's finest coaches. But it was Walter Camp, coach at Yale in those early days, who developed many of the rules that make football familiar to us. Camp proposed the scrimmage which allowed one side control of the ball and permitted planning offensive movements. The ball would change sides whenever one team scored. Princeton, the first school to try the scrimmage, quickly understood that retaining possession of the ball meant retaining an undefeated record. Against Yale in 1881 Princeton played the famous 'block' game. Yale controlled the ball for the entire first half, Princeton for the second; this boring stalemate allowed both teams to claim championship seasons and sent Camp back to his innovation book. What he proposed was a series of downs during which the offense had to move the ball or lose possession. After some trial and error, the 'down' system stabilized into the familiar ten yards in four downs.

Faced now with the necessity of advancing the ball or losing it, Princeton—sometime in 1888—introduced the U-formation, a moving triangle of players...
The U was a slow-moving formation. Harvard speeded it up and perfected it by developing the flying wedge, a great advantage to the heavier team. Alonzo Stagg, another great coach and working at Springfield College at the same time, saw that by placing his ends in the backfield to block, he could achieve flexibility and speed of ball movement. Stagg’s innovation quickly caught on everywhere, most especially with George Woodruff’s Pennsylvania Quaker teams, which used massed formations to compile an almost perfect winning record. But, the flying wedge also increased football’s violence to the extent that most teams believed that by pounding the opposition’s best player, the weaker players would lose heart.

During Pennsylvania’s 1905 meeting with Swarthmore, the Quakers committed what amounted to aggravated assault on Swarthmore star Bob Maxwell. A famous photograph, snapped at the height of one of the game’s roughest plays, showed Maxwell being gang tackled by the Quaker players. He had to be helped from the field, definitely bloodied and bowed. President Theodore Roosevelt saw the photo and announced to football’s ruling hierarchy that they either bring the mayhem under control or he would ban the game by presidential edict. Big sticks were (and are) OK in the White House but not on the gridiron.

Camp, whose innovations had inadvertently caused the mayhem, campaigned for the rule changes. Finally, watching Warner’s team practice the day before their game with the Crimson, Haughton protested the fairness of the pads. “It’s not against the rules” was Warner’s smug response. Next day Haughton and Warner met at midfield to select the game ball from the bag of balls. Warner pulled from the bag a football, dyed crimson. “No rule says footballs must be brown,” said Haughton whose team defeated Carlisle 17-0.

But don’t waste too much pity on Carlisle, for that small college fielded one of football’s greatest players, Jim Thorpe, perhaps the first of the modern running backs. Thorpe possessed speed and quickness in abundance. Let The New York Times reporter detail Thorpe’s dismantling of Army, led by halfback Dwight D. Eisenhower one November 1912 Saturday. “Thorpe went through the West Point line as if it was an open door; his defensive play was on a par with his attack and his every move was that of a past master. ...His catch [of a kickoff] and his start were but one motion. In and out, zigzagging first to one side then to the other, while a flying cadet went hurling through space. Thorpe wormed his way through the entire Army team. Every cadet had his chance, and every one of them failed. It was not the usual spectacle of the man with the ball outdistancing his opponents by circling them. It was a dodging game in which Thorpe matched himself against an entire team and proved the master. Lines drawn parallel and fifteen feet apart...
would include all the ground that Thorpe covered in his triumphant dash through an entire team." Thorpe went on to an equally brilliant professional career.

But don't feel too badly for Army either. Earl "Red" Blaik coached his share of Army powerhouses. And he was a disciplinarian. The story's still told about how Army during one contest was decimating its opponent in every phase of the game. Blaik sent in his third string with orders to take it easy and not humiliate the opponent. Even so, a cadet gathered in a fumble and raced unopposed for the goal line. Suddenly, remembering Blaik's orders, the cadet stopped and carefully placed the ball on the one yard line.

Football, in its early years, holds so many memories of great Eastern teams, their players like "Ducky" Pond of Yale and "Swede" Oberlander of Dartmouth who single-handedly wrecked the until then undefeated 1925 Cornell eleven.

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**New England Small College Players Who Participated in National Professional Football League:**


**New England Small College All-Americans**

John Hubbard, Back - Amherst, 1905; Ben Boynton, Back - Williams, 1917-1919

Little All-Americans (selection started in 1934)

**AMHERST**

Adrian Hasse, End, 1942; Richard Murphy, Quarterback, 1972; Fred Scott, Flanker 1973

**BATES**

Larry DiGrammarno, Wide Receiver, 1981
It's a game; it's fun. And I like to think that what it's all about is how the Times reporter summed up a 1907 Yale defeat at the hands of Princeton. "Each and every [Yale player] left the field feeling no disgrace in such a defeat, for Yale had proved herself made of the sternest stuff, had produced an eleven that every American can be proud of as an example of the highest type of young manhood, which in the face of every discouragement refuses to accept defeat while there is strength to fight, and by pure merit won over every obstacle, when experienced football men saw no chance of the Blue gaining victory."

Of course, if you don't like high sentiments about football, there's always the coach who said to his players "OK guys, line up alphabetically according to height."

CHARLES ANGELL, Professor of English

BOWDOIN
Steve McCabe, Offensive Lineman, 1977

NICHOLS
Ed Zywien, Linebacker, 1981

NORWICH
Milt Williams, Running Back, 1979; Beau Almoodbar, Wide Receiver, 1984

PLYMOUTH STATE

TUFTS
William Grinnell, End, 1934; Tim Whelan, Running Back, 1976; Mark Buban, Defensive Line, 1978; Chris Connors, Quarterback, 1979; Mike Brown, Offensive Line 1980

WESLEYAN

WILLIAMS

TRINITY
Micky Kobrosky, Back, 1935, 1936; Charlie Sticka, Back, 1955; Roger LeClerc, Center, 1959; David Kiarsis, Back, 1970; Pat McNamara, Flanker, 1978

39-8 Middlebury win. Since 1979, the game has been played for the Wadsworth Trophy. The trophy is named for a former Norwich Vice President and Commandant of Cadets, Colonel John B. Wadsworth, Jr.

In 1919 New England started its own Army-Navy series when the cadets of Norwich faced the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. They have opposed each other fifty-one times on the gridiron—series record—CGA 27, NU 23, Ties-1. This contest is played for a prize called "The Mug." The rivalry is best known as the "Little Army-Navy" Series.

The United States Coast Guard Academy fielded its first team in 1922. Coast Guard’s 1951 team coached by Nelson Nitchman was undefeated. Hall of Famer Otto Graham took over coaching reigns in 1959. Otto’s 1963 team went undefeated and went to the Tangerine Bowl. The Bears were defeated in their own bowl appearance by the Western Kentucky Hilltoppers, 27-0.

In 1960, several small college’s started football and were having difficulty finding a schedule. Athletic Directors, Hal Chalmers of Nichols College, Ed Swenson of Bridgewater State College and Dave Wiggins of Maine Maritime got together and organized the New England Football Conference. By 1987, the Conference has grown to twelve teams. The members are Holyoke Community College, Nichols College, Massachusetts Maritime Academy, Worcester State, Western New England College, Maine Maritime Academy, Fitchburg, Plymouth State and the University of Lowell. The twelve teams have been organized into two divisions, North and South, and a championship game between the two first-place finishers is scheduled for November.

Perhaps the highlight of the New England Football Conference was the 1985 season when Little All-American running back Joe Dudek of Plymouth State broke Walter Payton’s NCAA all-time touchdown record with 79 touchdowns. Plymouth State and Western Connecticut State were co-champions of the conference. Plymouth played in the ECAC playoffs, and Western Connecticut earned a berth in the NCAA tournament. One of the traditional rivalries which has developed in the conference is the annual battle for the Cranberry “Scoop” between Bridgewater State and neighboring Massachusetts Maritime Academy.

The most recent conference was formed in 1965 when the New England Small College Athletic Conference was created. This conference is run by the college presidents. The coaches in this conference are not allowed to go on the road recruiting and the teams are not allowed to participate in NCAA tournaments. The members are Tufts, Williams, Trinity, Wesleyan, Amherst, Hamilton, Middlebury, Bowdoin, Bates, and Colby. Small college football continues to grow in New England with many new teams joining the NCAA division III such as Worcester State and Fitchburg State. But the old traditional rivalries between Amherst-Williams, Trinity-Wesleyan, Norwich-Middlebury continue to flourish proving that college football can blend the old with the new.
Living at Bridgewater State College

the DRUG SCENE

A report of research study conducted 1984-86

BY GENEVIEVE FITZPATRICK

A 1986 employer survey reflects a new awareness of an old problem in the workplace. Forty-two percent of employers surveyed reported an increase in female employees' abuse of drugs including alcohol. Fifty-eight percent of managers reported an increase in cocaine abuse since 1981. In addition, this study shows a blurring of gender differences in drug use. It should come as no surprise that over one half the employers surveyed reported a reliance on drug testing procedures as well as the more benign approaches of education/counseling to contain the problem.

All of us spend a significant part of our lives in the workplace; clearly productivity and work satisfaction are important components of living the "good life." For these reasons studies such as the one initially cited are particularly worrisome. But the problems of drug use are not limited to the workplace. They occur in college as well, influencing grades and participation in the college's social network, and possibly leading to drug use after college.

Some research suggests that the most powerful predictor of drug use patterns in college and beyond college is the earlier onset of this behavior in elementary, middle and high school. Yet it is in college, in the supportive environment of campus life, that such habits are likely to be reinforced, fixed, and to carry over to later life.

All of these considerations served as a backdrop to a campus health and quality of life survey conducted at Bridgewater State College from 1984-86. More important, specific behaviors, such as drug use and abuse probably account, at least in part, for level of achievement, participation in the college social network and, inevitably quality of life. Quality of life is often elusive in practice as it is in concept. Among our initial tasks, then, was development of a working definition of quality of life. Since our study would require a representative sample of undergraduate and graduate students, to report their behaviors to us, we chose a definition that is both personal and practical... The concept of quality of life assumes that each of us has some specific criteria that describe the best possible conditions of living. Wellness is closely related to quality of life in that it is concerned with optimal functioning and the ability to adapt to a variety of settings. Thus, various health state indicators such as degree of stress and coping were selected as reflections of quality of life on the Bridgewater State College campus. Some variables seem so connected to quality of life defined in this manner that these were also selected for analysis. The major one for this study is the focus of this report; an analysis of the relationship of reported recreational and alcohol drug use to other factors related to quality of life.
The survey began with an extensive literature review comparing Bridgewater State College students to their counterparts in the United States. Illegal drug use, alcohol abuse and smoking habits dominate the literature as health issues confronting college students. Recent studies indicate that drinking and abuse of alcohol is a universal problem among all college populations. Studies of New England colleges and universities report that 95% of students use alcohol and 64% report using other drugs. Moderate to heavy use of alcohol is relatively common. The white male student is identified as the most frequent abuser of alcohol in some studies. It has been estimated that approximately 21 million college students smoke marijuana as a drug of choice. Studies about the effects of marijuana on academic achievement are contradictory while studies of alcohol and cocaine use seem strikingly similar to the general overview of marijuana use.

Studies of both regional and national samples. A cautious interpretation of the Bridgewater State College findings is that we are in an excellent position to develop early interventions of a preventive nature for all drug related behaviors. Our data show the extent of illegal drug use on this campus to be less than the national average and similar to figures reported for the legal drug alcohol. Specific findings of our study support this assertion.

**DRUG USE FINDINGS**

The Bridgewater State College Campus Study

Forty-three percent of the total number of questionnaires circulated were returned.

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<tr>
<th>POINT ONE</th>
<th>Those who agree with the statement that they use recreational drugs in moderation have significantly lower Grade Point Averages than those who disagree.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POINT TWO</td>
<td>There is a trend in the data that full time students report higher drug use than part time students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POINT THREE</td>
<td>Reported drug use is significantly lower in those who report they cope effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POINT FOUR</td>
<td>The older the undergraduate student, the less likely they report recreational drug use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POINT FIVE</td>
<td>The healthiest undergraduates report they do not use recreational drugs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 2**

Relationship of Recreational Drug Use to GPA, Full or Part Time Status, Coping Skills, Age and Health

A representative random sample was selected from the population of students at the college in the 1984-85 period. Figure 1 represents the demographic profile of the respondents. This profile is also a representative one in respect to age, grade point averages, class in school and other characteristics of the general student population at the college. In other words, the respondents are likely to be generalizable to the entire undergraduate student population. (See Fig. 1)

The survey questionnaire listed various illicit drug and alcohol use and asked respondents to indicate the extent to which they engaged in each. One of these items was deliberately worded to elicit valid responses in respect to use of illicit drugs. These drugs were referred to as "recreational" and the item used the word "moderate" implying to the respondent that he/she is in control of the drug rather than the reverse. In addition, "recreational" drug examples were given as LSD, marijuana and cocaine so that if a respondent was using only one of these, it would be difficult to sort out which one. Those who agreed with this statement were selected out and studied more closely. The results of this analysis were as follows.

Those who admitted to using recreational drugs reported that they coped with problems significantly less capably than nonusers of recreational drugs. While there are several possible interpretations of these findings, a cautious one might be that those who are having difficulty coping see recreational drug use as a workplace alternative for reducing their stress. Moreover, those reporting they did not cope well may, in fact, have been dependent on recreational drugs as an important coping strategy.

The younger the respondent, the greater the reported use of recreational drugs. This, with other findings, suggests that some younger students are gradually assimilated into the culture of the college campus with recreational drug use serving as one vehicle (among many) for such assimilation.

Respondents who scored highest on the health scale agreed that they used recreational drugs significantly less than those who scored lower. This finding is a common one in studies of drug usage among college students. That is, the healthiest students do not report consistent drug use patterns. Married members of the undergraduate respondent group reported recreational drug use to a significantly lower degree than nonmarried members.

Undergraduates reported a 28% rate of recreational drug use. It is possible that this would be a lower figure if one could control the effect of marijuana use, the most pervasively used drug in all undergraduate populations. A recent University of Michigan study noted a 17% use rate of cocaine in high school seniors. If high school figures are adequate predictions of college use, the 28% rate does have face validity. Moreover, in July, 1986, the University of Michigan reported a cocaine use rate of 30% in a national random sample of college students. Of interest is the close approximation of the 28% aggregate use figure reported by Bridgewater State College students. Cocaine and other drugs such as marijuana...
are included in this figure so that it would appear this local pattern is much below that of the national sample. Another significant finding in respect to recreational drug use is that the higher the GPA, the lower the number of students agreeing that they use drugs in moderation. This finding is similar to the trend on all state college campuses possibly because the brightest students in the state college student population tend to be those who are very task oriented and do not risk drug abuse.

The findings on recreational drug use were selected out for further analysis while the items on alcohol use were not since there is ample evidence that students at Bridgewater State College hold patterns of the society. In general, it is clear that drinking below age 21 is prevalent, that many students display behaviors that are unhealthy (that is drinking to excess) and that alcohol, the most socially accepted drug, will be a campus problem to be reckoned with for the foreseeable future. Figures 2 and 3 summarize findings about recreational drug and alcohol use as reported by respondents.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In research, as in life, asking the right questions is of key importance. In respect to the campus quality of life study, the question of least relevance is the extent to which drug use and abuse has invaded the Bridgewater State College campus. The more important question is how the Bridgewater State College student compares to his/her national counterparts. Clearly, the Bridgewater State College undergraduate population is very comparable to other college populations in respect to both illicit drug use as well as the use of the legal drug alcohol. In regard to the latter, it is a subtle irony of our nation's obsession lifestyles - a TV viewer, a newspaper or magazine reader. The problems of our youth clearly center around human sexuality, drug and alcohol abuse, crisis and stress, achievement at school and at work. It should be no surprise then that an investigation centered on a youthful population at a state college has suggested that they labor under the same pressures as their counterparts. What is extraordinary is that an alumni association cares enough about their students that a study such as this was funded.

The 14 recommendations of the study in respect to the drug use patterns identified focus on several early intervention approaches. For example, it is recommended that some entities on campus already serve a support function in primary prevention. Among these are the Women's Center and various programs of the student services component of the College. At this writing the College has already acted on some of these recommendations. A needed policy in respect to alcohol abuse had been developed and implemented. An important feature of this policy is a focus on habilitative rather than punitive responses to alcohol problems. Alcoholism is rightly perceived as a disease rather than a crime and outreach efforts focus on helping interventions such as restorative counselling.

At the outset of the study it was noted that a topic as complex as quality of life cannot be investigated in a simplistic way. This modest investigation offered neither absolute answers nor definitive solutions to the pervasive problem of drug abuse. Nevertheless, it is clear that our students are not so different from other state college populations and hold in common with them similar problems. As we look for support for our students, it is clear that Bridgewater State College is already providing many resources linked to quality of life. Thus, recommendations focus not so much on what we do not have in some form, but on the potential benefit of expanding and strengthening what is in place. Finally, in comparing our populations to those of other state colleges, this investigation's results reasonably argue that we are a bit ahead of most and at least equal to others in respect to quality of student life.

The entire 100 page study with quantitative analysis, bibliography and appendices is available to interested readers from:

GENEVIEVE FITZPATRICK
Health, Physical Education and Recreation Department
Maxwell Library, Room 314
Bridgewater State College
Bridgewater, MA 02324

FIGURE 3
Alcohol Related Questions

ITEM UNDERGRADUATE RESPONSE GRADUATE RESPONSE
1. Use alcohol moderately 58% Agree 71% Agree
2. Never drink and drive 58% Agree 56% Agree
3. Can enjoy a party without alcohol 58% Agree 85% Agree
4. Never drink without eating 44% Agree 53% Agree

GENEVIEVE FITZPATRICK, Professor of Health
American expatriate scene in Paris between the World Wars, when so many of our budding artistic heroes sought intellectual stimulation in the French capital. This migration is not particularly surprising however, as novelists, poets, composers and artists of former colonies have always returned to their imperial capital for spiritual refreshment even as they rejected political exploitation. To paraphrase Gertrude Stein, they seek what the capital offers or they hope the capital takes nothing away. But Paris excelled in its seductive powers, attracting an international circle of luminaries who apparently considered along with Thomas Jefferson that they had two homelands, the other being Paris. From Dublin came James Joyce, whose *Ulysses* would be first printed in its entirety by the American expatriate Sylvia Beach; Stravinsky fled to the USSR to premiere his early ballet scores under the baton of the French conductor Charles Munch; Spain lost Picasso to Paris and to the Americans Leo and Gertrude Stein whose Paris salons championed his early works.

Professor Ford, of the English faculty at Trenton State College, has written other works on this era; on this occasion he offers biographical sketches of lesser known expatriates. He suggests that their lives and works illuminate this era with comprehensiveness and depth, with fewer of the myth-making qualities which tend to obscure these years in works on more eminent persons. These four lives in Paris are no less interesting for being less studied than those of their better known compatriots.

The brash 'Futuriste-terrible' composer, George Antheil, managed to incense audiences in London, Germany and Paris while sponging off the Ladies' Home Journal heiress Mary Louise Bok. The rare critical successes he achieved in France, notably his *Ballet Mécanique* scored for sonorous hardware store tools and airplane propellers, did nothing to prepare for Carnegie Hall audiences, however. Their irritated jeers confirmed that the USA had not yet produced a worthy challenger to Stravinsky and Schoenberg (Antheil's avowed goal), the composer's preposterous antics notwithstanding. Critics indulged in their best punning antics notwithstanding. Their irritated jeers confirmed that the composer's music was a discordant mountain constructed from an indolent procrastination which finally resulted in friends' racetrack bets and lonely nights on Parisian park benches. Beset with these spiritual crises, Stearns became Wiltshire Tobin in Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises*: that literary "acclaim" was to contrast sharply with Stearns' job as the *Tribune's* horseracing columnist under the assumed name of Peter Pickem. The spacious lawns of Chantilly and the elegant crowds of Longchamps racegoers created in Stearns a "kind of soft haze of pleasant unreality" which prompted F. Scott Fitzgerald to suggest that he write for Scribner's an "Apologia of an Expatriate." Stearns finally admitted that he hated being an expatriate (impecunious or not) and returned to Depression, New York, where friends rallied to his assistance. He quickly published two books, *Rediscovering America* and *The Street I Knew*. In his 1938 *America Now*, Stearns turned optimistic about his homeland, the cycle of rejection-acceptance having come full turn in his successful remarriage.

The writer Kay Boyle, "the last of professor Ford's subjects, took pity on the apathetic Harold Stearns, washing his shirts, mending his socks and pressing his suits. Stearns became Wiltshire Tobin in her 1939 *Monday Night*, the chronicle for a writer outstanding in every way except that he had not written any books. Kay Boyle's career engages our attention in a way unlike the other three because her doomed marriage to a French engineer was the immediate cause of her trip to France. Her association with *Broom*, an international magazine of the arts, introduced her to the literary publishing world; her novel *Nightingale* was serialized in *This Quarter* whose tubercular editor, Ernest Walsh, was her mentor and the father of her first child. Her remarriage to Laurance Vail, a "true" dadaist and former husband of the art collector Peggy Guggenheim, brought her Vail's children and an almost bourgeois tranquility. Of Professor Ford's subjects, it is perhaps Kay Boyle who has achieved the most literary recognition and Ford applauds her desire to render the expatriate age in its most human terms, with equal shares of agony and triumph.

For all its distortions, the mythical quality of those Parisian expatriate years lingers in our current time. Kenneth, Saul Bellow's narrator in *More Die of Heartbreak*, has returned from Paris to the USA "where the action is." He refers to his father's decades abroad and claims that "No European could possibly have made such a success of European life." Could Professor Ford say as much of Antheil, Stearns, Boyle and Anderson?

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*BOOK REVIEW*

FOUR LIVES IN PARIS

BY HUGH FORD

North Point Press, 1987

The "Greatest Refreshment" In La Ville Lumiere

Janet Flanner's phrase describes the cultural ferment of the

Stanley Hamilton, Professor of Foreign Languages
book review

WITH THE BOYS:
Little League Baseball and Preadolescent Culture

By Gary Alan Fine
University of Chicago Press, 1987

I am a non-fan of baseball. I do not actually dislike the game, I just prefer others. But as a non-fan it amazes me that the game inspires interest and devotion at so many levels.

There are millions (literally) of those classic fans who follow their favorite teams, typically the local team, and go to as many games as possible. The more passive fan occupies the sofa with the ballgame droning on the television and experiences the game at an almost subconscious level. By contrast, the more active fan keeps statistics, actually cheers at games and may follow the progress of minor league teams. In extreme cases a fan may even play the game in a local league or just in the yard with the kids. For any of these types of fans the game is experienced at its simplest (some would say purest) level, namely, what happens on the field - that is who wins the game? Who made the great and critical plays? Who got caught swinging a cork-filled bat or throwing a greasy baseball? I have learned not to underestimate the seriousness with which such fans take the game, even when apparently asleep before the screen.

There is also a more abstract level of appreciation of baseball according to which the game is weighted with meaning. Often this is expressed by an individual who has fond memories of his or her playing days. However, the “meaning” variety of tandem goes well beyond personal memory all the way to national and even universal metaphor. Writers and intellectuals as distinguished as Thomas Wolfe, Roger Angell and Stephen Jay Gould have described baseball in poetic terms in which the playing of the game reveals something about the nature of success and failure generally or even about our national character or humanity. Wolfe, for example, has written of baseball as “a part of the whole weather of our lives,” and Tristam Coffin of the way that baseball “symbolizes something typical about American hopes and fears.” Pretty serious stuff for a game in which a great deal of spitting goes on. But now there is even more about baseball to consider seriously.

In the wide variety of ways the game has been appreciated and understood we can now add Gary Alan Fine’s absorbing analysis of the inside workings of Little League baseball. Fine is a sociologist and approaches the game from his (and my) professional perspective. But don’t let that put you off his way of seeing baseball. After all, you don’t have to love ballet to know that at times a play in the field can be balletic, and you don’t have to be a statistician to be impressed by a batting average approaching 400. You also don’t have to be a sociologist to appreciate that Little League baseball is an important training ground for teaching specific cultural lessons to American children (still mostly boys), and that any of those lessons are not apparent but generally acknowledged by the adults who organize and participate in these leagues.

For three summers beginning in 1974 Fine spent time with Little League teams in five communities, several of which were in the Boston area. (Fine was a graduate student at Harvard when he began the study.) He received the cooperation of league and team officials, and, over time, the confidence of a large number of the preadolescent players. Six nights a week, three months a year for three years he sat at games, among players on the bench or parents in the stands, and saw in more detail, and with more analytical detachment, that Little League baseball is a great deal more than a child’s game.

To begin with, Fine recognizes that Little League baseball is not exactly child’s play. It is organized sport which is structured and guided by adults. Adults arrange for the fields, equipment, schedules and, so far as they can control circumstances, establish the rules. By contrast, children’s play is designed by circumstances, establish the rules. By contrast, children’s play is designed by children without the assistance of adults. The participation in Little League ball of adults (I hesitate to call them grownups given the type of behavior which Fine sees exhibited by some of the parents and coaches) insures the teaching of many social lessons, only a few of which have to do with the physical skills of baseball.

For example, team members are taught how to follow complex instructions, how to concentrate in the face of many distractions, the value of winning and of playing by the rules (which sometimes conflict with one another), and the importance of sharing both credit and blame for game results. Fine places quotes and anecdotes generously throughout his study to illustrate such points. Thus, we learn that Little League teaches some of the lessons of work and work incentives to the players, as when one coach is quoted offering a dime for each hit his players make.

But Fine goes beyond the more obvious adult lessons of Little League baseball to show that the players have their own world of rules to which the adults are not privy. They make fun of the coaches and parents at times, leading them on, making errors intentionally or not paying attention. They also spend a great deal of time talking about the problem of girls. That is, they seem to be between interest in girls as girlfriends and annoyance with females generally. As Fine shows, the boys had numerous ways of proving to one another that girls are not allowed to intrude on the important business of baseball. A favorite put-down was to accuse a player who made an error of “being a girl” or of “spending too much time with your girlfriend.”

For readers who remember with fondness the few crystal clear moments of Little League heroism from a distant past, or who think of their own children’s involvement with the game in narrow terms, Fine gives us the gift of the more complex inside view. Beginning with Little League, many of us learned the lessons about baseball that allowed us to believe that the game exists at the level of myth in our culture. Now we can see exactly how our affection for the game became so thoroughly mixed with the lessons of social life learned in play.

William Levin, Professor of Sociology
BOOK REVIEW

CEREMONIAL TIME:
Fifteen Thousand Years on One Square Mile

BY JOHN HANSON MITCHELL

Warner Books, 1984

On the long drive home from class one evening in the Fall of 1985, I tuned in the car radio to WGBH’s “Reading Aloud” and was surprised to hear Bill Cavness reading an eloquent, intelligent discussion of Paleo-Indians, fluted points, and mastodon kills. He had chosen John Hanson Mitchell’s *Ceremonial Time: Fifteen Thousand Years on One Square Mile* (Warner Books, 1984) for reading that season. Subsequent readings covered the entire prehistoric and historic sequence, up to the present and even into the future, at a single New England location.

Mitchell, a naturalist writer associated with the Massachusetts Audubon Society, has chosen the section of Littleton, Massachusetts where he currently resides for his study. Reverting to a mid-nineteenth century designation for its euphony, he calls this area “Scratch Flat.” Through this peaceful landscape of rolling hills, ponds and streams, he marches a parade of characters derived from natural history, archaeological research, local history, folklore of both Native American and European cultures, and his own keen observations of places, people, and other lives both substantial and ethereal.

Mitchell’s theme is that linear time, as we observe it in our culture, is not the only way to observe the world. Though he claims always to have been aware of “moments on Scratch Flat when the past seems to me to be closer to the surface,” he has not allowed this to obscure details of the archaeological record.

As a 20th century naturalist, Mitchell is haunted by the sense of ecological fragility. He has personally observed the effects, over the past 12 years, of pollution and overindustrialization at Scratch Flat. But lurking behind this slow death are more dire potential ecocatastrophes: the possibility of nuclear war, and the nagging fear that we have not quite left the episodes of Pleistocene glaciation behind us. His discussion of nuclear winter and its probable effects links these two, yet manages somehow to achieve a measure of optimism even in the faces of such events — though not for the human population.

Mitchell’s book is not without its flaws, especially when viewed from the perspective of the archaeologist. Theories thirty years out of date (like the Adena dispersal) are presented as currently acceptable; the Archaic in particular is given short shrift; and (with the exception of a reference to Flagg Swamp Rockshelter) no organized archaeological excavations, professional or amateur, are mentioned. Mitchell’s reason for this omission is that no professional archaeologists have ever investigated the Nashoba Valley. At the time of his writing, this was literally true, although Tom Mahlstedt has since excavated at Reedy Meadow in Pepperell.

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transcendentalist by supposing (not
without some basis in historical fact) a
visit to Scratch Flat by Thoreau in 1853 to
visit Ralph Waldo Emerson’s mentally
retarded brother Bulkley.

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population.

Mitchell’s greatest success lies in his
descriptive ability, his uncanny knack of
making the reader feel ceremonial time by
evoking moods. His deep feeling for New
England landscape and ecology, as well as
a considerable gift for words, allows him
to reveal for us “that undiscovered country
of the nearby, the secret world that lurks
beyond the night windows and at the
fringes of cultivated backyards.” The
intellectual tradition into which
*Ceremonial Time* fits is very clearly that
of Thoreau’s journals; and Mitchell pays
his debt to the 19th century

flaw. It is not easy to distinguish the
factual from the fanciful in *Ceremonial
Time*. That works extraordinarily well as
art, but readers should not expect to find
absolute historical accuracy in this book.
Every historical fact Mitchell could glean
has been transformed into legend in order
to fulfill his artistic goal.

Despite these flaws, the book is a very
readable introduction to the prehistory
and history of southern New England. Sir
Mortimer Wheeler, one of the foremost
archaeological technicians of our century,
once wrote that “Dead archaeology is the
driest dust that blows.” Mitchell’s
*Ceremonial Time* excels in its ability to
dust off some of the facts we have been
accumulating over the years and breathe
some life into them — a task in which we
have collectively been somewhat remiss.
He makes our information understandable, both intellectually and
emotionally, to the average reader. This
should eventually have the effect of
broadening the base of public support for
conservation, both of cultural and natural
resources. John Mitchell’s real goal, as
expressed in the final chapter, is culture
change at the grassroots level: “All Scratch
Flat needs from America are three or four
things — all of them negatives.

Population control, clean groundwaters,
no nuclear meltdowns at Seabrook, and no
nuclear wars. Not much to ask, is it?

Then we can remake the world right here...
The model was created eight thousand
years ago, right here on Scratch Flat.” For
this goal, no matter how it may be
achieved, we can only express approval.

CURTISS R. HOFFMAN, Associate
Professor of Anthropology and
Chairperson of the Department of
Sociology and Anthropology

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One late evening in June a student who just scored a perfect exam approached me with a bewildered look and asked: "I know I gave you the correct answers, but I don't understand what I wrote". She was referring to the paradoxical nature of matter, an issue whose resolution shook the very foundations of science at the turn of the twentieth century and led to the establishment of Quantum Theory.

In our class discussions we had reviewed the great debates pitting established true believers on the particle nature of light against younger thinkers who supported its wave-like identity. The heavyweights in these debates included Einstein, Bohr and Planck, but it took DeBroglie postulated that, indeed, light had a dual particle-wave nature and that both matter and light are interchangeable. In the macroscopic world of Isaac Newton it was obvious to everyone that all matter occupied space and possessed tangible properties ("particle"), but in the submicroscopic domain of electrons and subatomic particles nature behaves differently. Or does it? This fundamental question forced scientists to remove all preconceived notions and think boldly that under certain situations light acts as a wave spread over a large region of space. Thus light (electrons) behave as both waves and particles, continuously being affected in their behavior by their environment.

Was my nineteen-year-old student buying this argument? "Only to pass your course", she admitted jokingly. Did I understand what I was explaining? Maybe. But I will admit that my comprehension of quantum mechanics improves incrementally each passing decade, just as my appreciation of Bach's organ music (both listening and playing) deepens annually.

As a parting comment I told the student that in our "real" (macroscopic) world we conceive matter predominantly as particle since its wave properties are exceedingly small. Conversely, some subatomic particles (photons) are so small that their behavior can best be explained as wave-like. Electrons fall between these two extremes and their behavior as waves and particles allows biologists to study the structure of tissues by electron microscopy.

The particle-wave paradox deepened in 1927 when Werner Heisenberg postulated the Uncertainty Principle bearing his name. He showed by elegant mathematical equations that, in the world of the atom, one cannot know precisely both the energy and position of an electron simultaneously. Philosophers were quick to apply this principle of physics into other disciplines and concluded that the very act of observation (experimentation) changes the "reality" of the observed object. Simply stated, the electron does not possess objective properties and my conscious act of observing it will somehow effect it. It was left to that great Dane, Niels Bohr, to synthesize these ideas into a comprehensive notion of complementarity. Each half of this paradox (wave-particle) is true, but each has a limited range of applicability and in a reciprocal manner. Bohr had studied the Chinese notion of yin/yang philosophy and set out to explain additional paradoxes in nature, using concepts of probability and relativity, rather than Newtonian physics or Aristotelian logic. In a memorable series of lectures on PBS television the mathematician-biologist J.J. Bronowski extrapolated Heisenberg's views into human affairs. His plea for tolerance and acceptance of races, religions, and cultures different than one's own was so very eloquent and moving; a triumph of natural philosophy over ignorance and prejudice.

We clearly observe paradoxes in the macroscopic world of health, economics and defense which often leave us perplexed and depressed. Modern medical science takes a Cartesian reductionist approach to the human body, viewing it as much like a wonderful mechanical clock. Too often we are overwhelmed by the financial cost of "treatment" of such dysfunctions as cardiac, cancerous and diabetic diseases. The understanding of cell biology and biochemical pathways should be augmented by achievement of harmony between mind and body, something the West can learn from the accumulated wisdom of Eastern philosophies. An emerging clue to the resolution of our health status is a shift of responsibility from physicians to individuals who practice preventive and holistic medicine through proper hygiene, nutrition and habitat.

On the economic scene the alternate ways of producing energy pose several dilemmas. With each "energy crisis" (based on fossil fuel prices) new sources of power sprout briefly. The most promising of these, nuclear reactors, has persisted long enough to demonstrate its darker image through the Chernobyl disaster. We must live in the shadow of immediate death by explosion or progressive degeneration of health from radioactive nuclear waste. Perhaps the ultimate paradox involves the multinational policies of producing nuclear weapons, all nations professing their desire for peace and justice. It is depressing to imagine the implications of "MAD" (mutually assured destruction) policies on a bright Sunday afternoon, but we have entered the nuclear age with a "no exit" sign behind us.

A final paradox involves life and the eventuality of death. If my devout grandmother's wish is to be realized, I shall forever be with her in heaven since I promised and succeeded in being a "good" child (that contract expired my later years). Without invoking theology/philosophy, nature does indeed strike a Mephistophelian bargain on this paradox too. There are certain bacteria which reproduce by cell division (asexual) and thus never "die". They have lived forever, alas with no awareness or differentiation. Lately, a billion years ago, the bargain included two inescapable phenomena we have come to take for granted: sex and death. Life and to invent sex (chromosomal pairing) to generate evolutionary changes, then complete the cycle through death. Some paradox...
Receding Tide
26" x 31"
color etching
by Joyce Zavorskas

Afternoon Walk
14" x 16"
color etching
by Joyce Zavorskas