The Western Kentucky University Student Honors Research Bulletin is dedicated to scholarly involvement and student research. These papers are representative of work done by students from throughout the university.
FOREWORD

As in past years, the 1989-90 edition of the Student Honors Bulletin represents a broad spectrum of Western student interest and expertise. I believe you will find in reading these papers that our students continue to be at the forefront of research and reflection regarding subjects of academic, national, and human interest and importance.

Seventeen different students, working under the guidance of fourteen different instructors, contribute to this edition. They write about fiction, health, social customs, politics. They represent a variety of opinions and suppositions-turned-conclusions; yet they retain an objectivity concerning their research that renders their conclusions well worth consideration. The quality of their research and writing is high, and they give all of us pride in being associated with them in this community of learning.

I want to commend both the authors of these papers and the instructors who encouraged them and submitted their work for consideration in this volume. Papers done during this school year will be considered for publication in the 1990-91 edition if they are submitted by May 31, 1990. All submissions will be welcome and given close scrutiny. I hope you will avail yourself of this opportunity to start your students on the path to scholarly publication.

James T. Baker, Director
University Honors Program
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FEMINIST LITERARY CRITICISM: EVOLVING AND BECOMING

Geraldine Mills

The field of feminist literary criticism is at least as multifaceted, multidirectional, and complex as the larger women's movement of which it is a part. Feminist criticism is a political, cultural, and sociological, reader-, writer-, and text-oriented approach to literature. A lack of clarity and definition seems to characterize this critical approach, due in large part to the wide variety of interest groups that form its membership, each espousing its interests and ideologies. This has created confusion and disagreement among practitioners; and, as a result, the feminist critical approach has been subject to criticism by some, and praise by others, for what is perceived to be a lack of firm theory and methodology. However, this fledgling critical practice is not without goals and direction; and, contrary to the views of some writers on the subject, theory and methodology, although vague, ill-defined, and constantly evolving, do exist within its wide parameters. A recent critical approach, its inception having been less than twenty-five years ago, feminist literary criticism is a rapidly growing and evolving field of endeavor, all-embracing in its theoretical and methodological outlook.

Feminism surfaced as an important political force in the Western world in the 1960s, aimed at liberating women from their inferior position in patriarchal society. Feminists perceive women as a subordinated species, composed of many classes, each having suffered some manner of oppression by man (Gilbert 857), and patriarchy, that societal model in which men hold the positions of power and authority, as the dictatorship of the male. The history of patriarchal dominance goes back to the third millennium BC, well before the writing of the Bible or Classical Greek mythology, both misogynist forms of literature whose phallocentric ideology became a model for the literature that followed (Lerner 239). Patriarchal society seeks survival through the maintenance of the androcentric status quo, and literature has played a significant part in its preservation.

Feminist criticism has become the academic arm of the feminist movement (Meese 73). Its rise as a legitimate branch of literary criticism began in the late 1960s or early 1970s. The modern feminist movement has sought to make women aware of society's patriarchal structure and their subordinate role in it. This awareness, termed "consciousness raising," is a major aim of feminist criticism (Katz-Staher 326). As women were becoming aware of their inferior societal posi-
ferred in such literature. She sees power as "the issue in
the politics of literature . . . " (xiii); because women's
input has been virtually excluded from the literature
which defines their identity, they have been rendered
"powerless." However, recognizing the potential power
in awareness, feminists see literature and criticism as
a means of raising the consciousness of both men and
women to an injustice. The role of the feminist critic is
to extend the political action of the women's liberation
movement to the cultural and academic domain (Moi
23). Feminist criticism aims to reinterpret and change
the world by increasing reader's understanding of
what they encounter in texts (Fetterly viii).

The actual practice of feminist literary criticism, its
theory and methodology, is difficult to pinpoint. Raman
Selden in his study, A Reader's Guide to Contemporary
Literary Theory, points out that he is unable to give
feminist criticism a position in his model of literary
criticism because "it is not an 'approach' in the sense
that applies to other kinds of theory. Feminist criticism
attempts a global re-interpretation of all approaches
from a distinctly revolutionary standpoint" (4). Indeed,
rather than fit into Selden's model, feminist criticism
seems to fit upon it, encompassing his entire model and
embracing all of its categories. Selden's term "revolution-
ary" seems both literally and figuratively appropri-
ate. Annette Kolodny uses the concept of revolution
as a metaphor in her essay on feminist criticism titled,
"Dancing Through the Minefield: Some Observations
on the Theory, Practice, and Politics of a Feminist
Literary Criticism." And she has not been alone in her
dedover to "dance through the minefield" of literary
criticism, seeking to give form to the nebulous practice
of feminist criticism; many attempts have been made
to define or direct a feminist critical theory. Because
this critical approach is constantly evolving and trans-
forming, feminist critics have avoided the adoption of
precise and rigid codes, fearing such a practice would
prematurely restrict feminist criticism's wide param-
eters (Fetterly vi-viii), and because they were reluctant
to adopt what they considered to be a masculine
tendency (Meese 135). Many feminist critics have
advocated an antitheoretical position in an effort to
avoid the "sterile narcissism of male scholarship"
(Showalter 181). But lacking a theoretical basis carries
with it an inherent problem; it leaves feminist criticism
open to attack by opponents who see the lack of theory
as a flaw. To remain without definable theory would be
to leave feminist criticism outside the mainstream
critical field in an inferior, less than legitimate, and
sometimes completely ignored position (Meese 136).
So, although a universally accepted body of theory may
be an elusive goal, most feminist critics today realize
the need to formulate a theoretical base; the debate
now centers on where to locate its roots. Some critics
seek a woman-centered, feminist-generated theory
while others advocated modifying those methods and
theories already in existence. A general overview of

the growth and evolution of feminist criticism seems
the most satisfying approach to examining the efforts
to develop a theory and methodology.

Virginia Woolf precedes the legitimate field of femi-
nist criticism by decades; and even though she is more
well-known as a novelist, she deserves mention as a
forerunner of the modern feminist critical movement.
Although she wrote approximately 400 critical essays
she was ignored as a critic by her contemporaries and
continues to be neglected in that role today (Bell 49).
Her unorthodox critical method, described as "creative,
appreciative, and subjective," resulted in her poor
reputation as a critic; today that quality of subjectivity
has come to be acknowledged as one of the character-
istics that differentiates women's criticism from the
"objectivity" of men's.

A female trespasser in the male realm of criticism,
Woolf remained aloof from all critical schools. Her
critical approach was sympathetic and without explicit
system. She invented the persona of the "common
reader," creating an amiable and unpretentious rela-
tionship with her audience (Bell 50), and she was the
first female critic to consider a sociological dimension
when analyzing women's writing (Selden 131). Woolf
departed from convention to give serious consideration
and special notice to female writers (Bell 57). But
because she never "developed a feminist stance" (Selden
136), she has been criticized by modern feminists for
not carrying her feminism into her novels and for
failing to create characters that present positive images
and models for women (Moi 1). Even though modern
feminist critics do not recognize Woolf's genius as a
progressive, feminist writer, she was "an important
precursor of modern feminist criticism" (Shelden 136).

In its earliest stages modern feminist criticism
followed the methodology termed "Images of Women,
described by Cheri Register as one of three distinct
subdivisions of feminist criticism. Early feminist critics
studied the major male-authored works accepted into
the literary canon and found that women were routinely
portrayed in a variety of stereotypical roles and situations.
Included among these are "the bitch-goddess, the
earth-mother, the patient housewife, [and] the fallen
woman" (Howe 266). In her book Sexual/Textual Politics:
Feminist Literary Theory, Toril Moi cites what she
calls the "two feminist classics" on the subject of
"Images of Women" criticism, Mary Ellmann's Thinking
About Women and Sexual Politics by Kate Millett. Moi
suggests that Ellmann's book was a source of inspira-
tion for this critical approach (32). Ellmann sums up
those attributes that have been ascribed to women by
male authors and critics: "formlessness, passivity,
instability (hysteria), confinement (narrowness, prac-
ticality), piety, materiality, spirituality, irrationality,
complacency, and incorrigibility (the shrew, the witch)
(Register 3). These stereotypical roles worked to
perpetuate the myths proclaiming women's inferiority
and contributed to women's subordinate position; they

also contributed to women's self-hatred (Cixous 878). In addition, Register notes that even positive roles and idealized stereotypes have had a negative effect of women, masking the actual social condition of women instead of raising consciousness (6). Millett's book, her best-selling doctoral thesis, focuses on those male writers who preach male sexual supremacy, Norman Mailer and Henry Miller in particular, and is credited with establishing the feminist critical approach as a serious critical method (Moi 24). Insisting that cultural and social aspects must be considered in order to understand a literary work, Millett staunchly opposed the New Critics; all feminist critics to follow share her view (Moi 24). Although "Images of Women" criticism had liberating effects, exposing the myths perpetuated about women in literature, this critical approach was short-lived. Feminist critics had become aware that a subject matter needed in order for their critical approach to advance on its own (Spector 3). and, beginning in the mid-1970s, feminist criticism began to focus upon women's writing.

The two other subdivisions of methodology detailed in Register's essay were observations of the practice of "phallic criticism" and the establishment of prescriptive standards for the production of feminist-approved literature (2). Feminist critics who studied the existing male-generated criticism of female authors found that it was subjective and biased and termed this practice "phallic criticism." These early feminist critics focused their dispute with this criticism on three basic allegations. Although male critics tended to ignore the writing of women, when they grudgingly admitted the literary value of a female-authored work, the phallic critics intimated that any artistic quality achieved had been an unconscious accident, insinuating that women could not consciously produce a work of artistic worth. Secondly, these critics seemed either unable or unwilling to transcend a writer's biological sex when discussing her work, judging it by conformity or lack of conformity to traditionally held notions of femininity and using descriptive terms connotative of female characteristics, such as shrill and crank. In equally unfair fashion, phallic critics tended to make androcentric the basis for universal statements (Register 8). Decades or centuries of a course of "phallic criticism" may be difficult to reverse, but such a goal is not impossible. Perhaps, as the field of feminist criticism matures, the goal of self-avowed feminist William Morgan will be met, and the feminist scholar will have trained her “male colleagues to read women’s texts with the same ease, sensitivity, and pleasure with which the Male Academy ... [has] schooled her in its texts.” (831). Until then she will have to remain alert to the practice of “phallic criticism.”

The approach termed “prescriptive criticism” by Register held brief sway as a critical method in the mid-1970s. At about the same time that Register’s essay espousing this methodology was being published, Annette Kolodny, described by Moi as one of the first feminist critics to break the theoretical silence, wrote her essay “Some Notes on Defining a Feminist Literary Criticism,” expressing her fear of just such an attempt at prescriptive practice (87). This dubious approach represented the “first assertion of feminist critical authority,” and was perceived by many writers and critics as an attempt at dictating guidelines for authorial and critical practice, and intrusion they had long feared (Meese 140-141). Although quickly abandoned as a critical approach, the guidelines offered by Register seem to represent some of the goals of feminist criticism and the women’s movement yet today. Register posited that literature should perform at least one of the following to be approved by feminist critics: serve as a forum for women; help to achieve cultural androgyne; provide positive role models; promote sisterhood; and/or augment consciousness raising (3).

Toril Moi suggests the 1980s will “mark the breakthrough of theoretical reflections within the field of feminist criticism” (70). Among those authorities whose works she concentrates upon in her book are Elaine Showalter, acknowledged by Moi as “one of the most important feminist critics in America” (75) and Annette Kolodny, referred to by Showalter as the most sophisticated feminist theorist (182).

In her essay “Feminist Criticism in the Wilderness” Showalter suggests that “there are two distinct modes of feminist criticism:” the feminist as reader, which she terms the “feminist critique,” and women as writers, an approach she terms “gynocritics” (182). The “feminist critique” approach, discussed in part as “Images of Women” criticism, not only seeks to identify and expose stereotypes in male-authored literature, it also seeks to liberate new significance and meaning from those texts. The feminist critic must remain attuned to the fact that while the male academy has been androcentric in choosing which literature would be included in the rather exclusive and sexist canon, much of what has been accepted remains nonetheless good literature. However, because bad ideas have frequently become good literature, it is the duty of the feminist critic to point out that sexism in literature makes a beautifully written work less aesthetically satisfying (Spector 2). The responsible feminist critic exercises her right to emphasize and elucidate those features of the texts that she considers relevant, the resultant interpretation often being quite different from those of male critics who studied the work previously.

As feminist criticism gained momentum, emphasis was increasingly being shifted from revisionary readings of the canon of acknowledged major writers to an investigation of literature written by women. Lacking a term for this critical discourse, Showalter invented “gynocritics.” Gynocritical studies look into the “history, styles, themes, genres, and structures of writing by
women; the psychodynamics of female creativity; the trajectory of the individual or collective female career; and the evolution and laws of a female literary tradition" (Showalter 184-185). Showalter suggests that the gynocritical approach to feminist criticism offers opportunities for a truly original and innovative theoretical basis unavailable in the practice of the “feminist critique.”

Moi refers to several important studies published at the inception of this second phase of feminist criticism. She credits Cheryl Brown and Karen Olsen with beginning the gynocritical phase of feminine research with the publication of their book Feminist Criticism: Essays on Theory, Poetry, and Prose. This work, a compilation of female-authored essays on questions of theory and articles on women writers, provided published female-authored critical writings for students and teachers of Women's Studies, helping to fill a wide gap in literary studies.

Three other gynocritical studies that appeared in the late 1970s are considered by many to be among the classics of feminist critical works; the writers of these studies share and espouse the belief that society has shaped women's literary perception of the world. Literary Women by Ellen Moers, although now dated, was a pioneer work in gynocritical study. It was followed by The Madwoman in the Attic by Sandra Gilbert and Susan Gubar. This collection of studies on nineteenth century women writers reveals the “palimpsestic” writing style characteristic of many female authors which uses benign-appearing surface designs to conceal deep-seated socially unaccepted levels of meaning. Gilbert and Gubar's theory, the “phallocentric myth of creativity,” accuses patriarchy and patriarchal texts of subordinating women's creativity (Moi 58). Elaine Showalter's A Literature of Her Own: British Women Novelists From Bronte to Lessing, is an examination of British women writers since 1840, which gives emphasis to those forgotten and neglected female writers of that period.

Showalter questions the wisdom of the reluctance of feminist critics to form a theoretical consensus. She urges feminist critics to claim their own theoretical ground, rooting their theory in women's experiences, and, while not endorsing a separatist stance, she sees more useable material in feminist theory and women's studies than in traditional androcentric literary theory. She urges feminist critics to find their own subject, their own system, their own theory, and their own voice (184). Showalter posits four models—biological, linguistic, psychoanalytic, and cultural—as those upon which theories of women's writing should be based, suggesting that each of these models not only represents a means of differentiating qualities of women writers and their texts but also a school of gynocentric feminist criticism (186-187).

Showalter notes that biological criticism is one of the most perplexing of the theoretical formulations of feminist criticism (187). Fearing a return to the oppressive ovarian and phallic theories which men had used to suppress women's achievements in the past, feminist theorists have rejected literal attributions of female biological inferiority, but have accepted metaphorical implications of biological differences. Literary works, once considered generated by the phallic authority's metaphorical penis, the pen now become the fruit of woman's metaphorical womb, her brain (Showalter 187). Biological imagery becomes important in feminist writing from this perspective (Showalter 189).

Linguistic theories of women's writing and criticism center around the issue of language usage—whether or not women and men express themselves differently linguistically. This debate has become one of the most exciting areas of gynocritics (Showalter 190); those in the field of feminist literary study are joining forces with those in the field of linguistics to research this theoretical area (Kolodny “Minefield” 5). Because our language is “male-constructed,” increasing attention is being directed toward the oppressive aspects of this influence on women's communication and creativity (Showalter 190). Kolodny has suggested that women have only expressed in literature that which they have been permitted to express, language rules, being different for men and women, altering the way which artists communicate their ideas (“Defining” 76-77). Literary analysts have identified and described a female style of writing which used repeated imagery, stylistic devices, and syntax (Showalter 193).

Kolodny has noted that contemporary women writers have developed two essentially feminine styles of treating female characters. They frequently invest their characters with “reflective perception,” a habit of mind in which characters inadvertently discover themselves or a part of themselves through participation in unplanned activities or situations (Kolodny “Defining” 79). A more complex and revealing stylistic device is “inversion,” in which traditional female stereotypes are inverted to expose the inherent absurdity, reveal a hidden reality, or connote their opposites (Kolodny “Defining” 80). The inversion pattern is sometimes used to structure the entire plot of a feminist work, denying the conventional expectation of a happy ending and substituting instead an unhappy, but no-less satisfying ending.

However, not all feminists agree that there are differences between men's and women's language usage. Minda Rae Amiran, a self-avowed “fighting” feminist, whose field is critical theory, suggests such innate differences are highly improbable (655). But however inhibiting a phallocentric language system may or may not be to women writers, Showalter does not see it as the area from which to base theories of feminist criticism (193), and Kolodny suggests that it would be absurd to do so (“Defining” 87). Instead, the most appropriate linguistic goal for feminist critics
seems to be examining the lexical and linguistic range available and acceptable for women's expression and working to extend it.

Psychologically oriented feminist criticism centers on the woman writer's psyche. This theory incorporates biological and linguistic theories into itself and proposes that the psyche, which has been shaped by the body, language development, and gender roles, is the origin of the difference between male and female writing (Showalter 193). Some feminists see psychoanalysis as a useful tool for their political approach, sparking renewed interest in Freudian theory. But Freudian criticism tends to center on the negative concept of a feminine lack—"penis-envy"—and feminist critics believe the problem goes much deeper than such a surface desire. Even French feminist criticism, essentially psychoanalytic (Showalter 186), angrily berates men's belief that women are merely "a hole fanged with desire for their penis" or that they seethe with jealousy for that "famous bit of skin" (Cixous 890). Rather, as Fetterly contends, women's sense of loss in a phallocentric society goes much deeper that Freud's concept of "a lament for a specific bit of flesh:" it is a sense of a loss of "personhood" (ix).

Showalter proposes that the most satisfying way to interpret the differences of women's writing is with a criticism whose theory is based on women's culture (197). A culturally based theory would be more complete, incorporating the other models into itself and interpreting them in social context; women's concepts of their physicality, their psyche, and their linguistic behavior all being linked to cultural forces. Race, class, ethnic background, and gender would be considered equally important as literary determinants in a culturally based theory, gender being the unifying force that pulls women together. Although the concept of women's culture continues to be a debated issue in the field of women's history, it is accepted as a theoretical model by feminists who seek a women-centered theory (Showalter 197).

However, not all feminist critics see women-centered theory as the answer to the theoretical problem. Many see promise in seeking out and refining existing critical theory to fit the needs of feminist criticism. Many existing male-generated methodologies hold potential as a means toward the ends that feminist critics aim to achieve. In her essay "Life Studies, or Speech After Long Silence: Feminist Critics Today" Sandra Gilbert acknowledges affinities for several of the "mainstream' critical isms" (862):

Like the structuralist . . . the feminist critic is trying to define the one paradigmatic 'story' that underlies the many, apparently diverse tales her culture tells her. Like the Marxist critic, she sees that story as a function of historically determined social arrangements. Like the Freudian critic, she believes that an understanding of the sexual component of these social arrangements is a key to understanding the story . . . (863)

Annette Kolodny and Elizabeth Meese agree with Gilbert's assessment of the potential promise in existing critical approaches, however, they differ in their terminology and application of those approaches.

In her "Minefield" essay Kolodny offers three propositions which she suggests form the "theoretical core" of current feminist criticism (16). First, she states that what is termed "literary history" is, in actuality, a fiction—the established literary canon being a man-made model (8-9); feminists seek to alter and extend literary history, drawing upon the "vast storehouse" of literary inheritance which will serve as a resource in remodeling literary history (10). Secondly, she suggests that "insofar as we are taught how to read, what we engage are not texts but paradigms" (10). The meaning derived from a text is obtained according to the reader's needs and desires and is in keeping with the critical assumptions held by the reader; reading tastes are determined by those types of literature and critical approaches that readers have been taught to enjoy. Our society has accepted the male-approved literary canon because it was foisted upon us by those who held authority; we have continued to render our critical approval primarily because we have been taught to do so. Kolodny's third proposal is that "the grounds upon which we assign aesthetic value to texts are never infallible, unchangeable, or universal . . . " (14). Feminist critics need to reexamine their aesthetics and the biases and assumptions that are part of the critical methods that shape those aesthetic responses.

Kolodny contends that feminist criticism has been able to alter the way in which society perceives and expresses itself through literature despite its lack of distinct system and program (17). She considers the lack of "systematic coherence" to be an attribute as well as a disadvantage, and suggests that although the methodological disarray leaves feminist criticism open to attack by its opponents, the resultant diversity places it securely among the pluralists. She defends feminist critics for using whichever critical methods prove most helpful in allowing them to liberate meaning from texts. Kolodny contends that a text's meaning is often determined by the aesthetic criteria used to "decode" it and suggests that the adoption of a pluralist stance will enable feminist critics to render a variety of interpretations from the same text. For Kolodny, this freedom seems particularly attractive for feminist criticism because it allows greater interpretive opportunity for the diverse group of feminist critics. She proposes a methodology of "playful pluralism, responsive to the possibilities of multiple critical schools and methods, but captive of none" which would inherit and modify the tools needed for literary analysis, reasoning that such an open approach would prevent overly
simplistic readings of the texts (19). Kolodny insists that pluralism is “the only critical stance consistent with the current status of the larger women’s movement” (20), explaining that the variety of groups incorporated into the women’s movement do not espouse a single shared ideology and would be unable to share a single critical theory or methodology. Adopting a restrictive theory would ignore the differences inherent in this diverse group and could work to segment the feminist literary community.

Whereas Kolodny proposes pluralism as the stance that will address the problem of feminist criticism’s diverse needs, Meese argues that pluralism tends to minimize rather than respond to those differences. She sees the advantages of Kolodny’s proposed “playful pluralism,” in particular the avoidance of having to develop a new theory and the refusal of having to declare a preference of the theory or methodology of one critical school over another. However, she also recognizes an inherent problem in Kolodny’s proposal; it limits feminist criticism to a reactive and revisionary practice whose procedures are governed by a male-dominated hierarchy of power. By adopting pluralism, feminist critics would be accepting a marginal role, once again out of the mainstream of criticism with the masculing hierarchy at the center of the critical world. In her book Crossing the Double-Cross: The Practice of Feminist Criticism, Meese suggests an “indefinite feminist de-centering,” or theory displacement (144). A de-centered approach is diverse and complex as opposed to a singular and simple “phallocentric” patriarchal absolute; it allows space for the variety of perceptions among feminists—no group would be denied a voice. By refusing strict codification, de-centering protects feminist criticism from the premature adoption of one theory or methodology over another and allows this approach the advantage of remaining in the “process of becoming” rather than permanent and established: unlike pluralism, de-centering is constantly evolving, taking “itself apart as it takes others into itself” (Meese 148). Meese accepts the proposal of borrowing the tools of existing critical schools, deconstruction in particular, and she extends the concept of deconstruction beyond literary works into the critical hierarchy itself. She sees the role of feminist critics as working to deconstruct criticism’s phallocentric structure while they work toward an androgynous structure, decentering men as the accepted critical theorists and masculine critical schools as the only accepted approaches. Meese suggests that feminist criticism’s refusal to construct a theory “could in itself be to create a theory ...” (144). She argues that in view of the multiform nature of culture, there will never be a “monovocal theory worth writing” (149), and that “there will never be a theory of feminist criticism; rather it will be a theorizing process, guided perhaps by an ethical dream of relationships between others” (150).

Judith Spector, editor of Gender Studies: New Directions in Feminist Criticism, shares Meese’s “ethical dream,” proposing gender criticism as the ultimate aim of feminist criticism, to which other current feminist critics elude, Meese and Kolodny among them. She considers feminist criticism an approach that will eventually transcend sex, a practice that will study literature written by both men and women and will speak to members of both sexes. Spector cautions that if feminist criticism continues examining only women-authored literature, it will remain a marginal and self-limiting critical approach. A specialist stance is not only a danger to the legitimacy of feminist criticism, it is also degrading and subversive to the women’s movement (Spector 4). Spector proposes three avenues for feminist critics to pursue: the study of works by both men and women; working to insure that academic curricula include works by both sexes and explore differences in sexual perspective, exposing and explaining literary sexism; and modifying English courses to include the teaching of the feminist critical perspective (6). She suggests that androgyny is a part of literary critical theory; it is the sentiment at the core of a humanistic critical theory and at one time was the basis of feminist study (5). She urges a movement away from specialization and back to humanistic basics. According to Spector, criticism must abide by only one rule—to recognize and consider gender-related factors that have a bearing on the critic’s perspective; not to do so would be “deceptive or less than objective” (7). Gender has a fundamental and complex influence on literature which critics must acknowledge. Gender studies, Spector’s term for an androgynous criticism, represents an appealing new direction for feminist criticism (8).

Feminist criticism has been and continues to be a growing and evolving field. Currently, it is in a second phase of growth, having gone from revisionary and revelatory interpretations of men’s literature to the study of the new genre of women’s literature, grown from the seeds planted by feminist critics. The trend seems to be toward a third phase, an androgynous criticism—one that transcends sexual issues and pays heed to gender-related factors. As Elizabeth Meese proposes, feminist criticism must be ethical if it is to follow its precepts to their projected end—the rigidity of a wrong. Paralleling the aim of the feminist movement to elevate women from their subordinate position to one equal with men, feminist literary critics seek to reposition women in the literary realm on a similarly equal footing. Their goals are many. Academic feminists hope to rediscover centuries of lost women’s writing and through an equal voice in the critical and academic world seek to admit those worthy women-authored works into the accepted literary canon. They seek to generate a genre of feminist literature that offers positive role models for women and to expose traditional stereotypical situations and roles for what
they are—myths aimed or inadvertently directed at maintaining the status quo of patriarchal society. Feminist criticism and literature should augment the process of consciousness raising, exposing sexism for what it is and what it has done to women. Consciousness raising should also promote a sense of sisterhood among women, helping to overcome the female self-hatred that has grown out of centuries of misogynist literature and patriarchal society. Feminist criticism will probably remain a radical mode for some time to come, but eventually men must be allowed into the field if the goal of true androgyny is to be achieved. In order to reach this end many linguistic and attitudinal changes will have to occur. And if the changes take place and androgyny is achieved, perhaps the ultimate goal of criticism will be reached—one that is truly humanistic (Kolodny “Defining” 92).

WORKS CITED


In his article, "How to Tame the Special-Interest Groups," Everett Carl Ladd discusses James Madison's viewpoint on special-interest groups—or what Madison referred to as "factions." As defined by Madison, a faction is "a number of citizens...who are united and actuated by some common impulse of passion, or of interest, adverse to the rights of other citizens, or the permanent and aggregate interest of the community." According to Madison people can act morally by acting selflessly, but special-interest groups cannot. He believed that, "A democracy must organize itself in such a way as to control the excesses of special-interest groups." Therefore, to protect the democratic republic, Madison introduced a federal system that divided power between national and state governments, and called for separation of powers and checks and balances among the three branches at the national level. This elaborate system would ensure that no single faction could gain control of or excessively influence the national government. Thus, the factions would be allowed to compete.

As Ladd indicates: "The Madisonian 'cure' did what was expected of it," for the national government remains decentralized and pluralistic. However, Americans are once again concerned with the excessive influences of special-interest groups. This "New-Factionalism" differs from the "Old Factionalism" of Madison's time; instead of having temporary groups of individuals, it has long-term organizations that have the money to ensure reelections—that is, the corporations. According to Ladd, because American political parties are "organizationaliy weak and undisciplined," candidates for Congress and other elected offices have become individualists. This has made it possible for special-interest groups to take their cases right to individual Congressmen. As a result, these groups are able to "establish close working ties with the subcommittee... in their areas of interest" as well as "develop strong links to the federal bureaucracy." Thus, we have the infamous "iron triangle." And as Gregg Easterbrook points out in his article, "What's Wrong With Congress?" because congressmen can never stop worrying about fund-raising for political campaigns, money can "buy individual congressmen's votes on a bill, or distort congressmen's thinking on an issue—normally all an interest group needs to achieve its ends." That is, the national government now serves the interests of organized industry, rather than that of the public. Thus, corporate capitalism has had a significant impact on the U.S. political system.

Corporate capitalism has also influenced the U.S. legal system. As Charles A. Reich indicated in his book, The Greening of America, "Law is supposed to be a codification of those lasting human values which a people agree upon." However law in the "Corporate State" is quite different from a codification of human values. This was apparent during the New Deal period which "produced law that fell into line with the requirements of organization and technology, and that supported the demands of administration rather than protecting the individual." Reich goes on to point out that federal regulation of economic activity is a second area where law was made to serve the "Corporate State." This is an area where one would expect control to be exercised over corporate power; however, "most regulation is either very superficial or does what the regulated industry wants to be done away." Thus, law functions as a tool of corporate capitalism by substituting efficiency for human values.

In his book, Habits of the Heart, Robert N. Bellah uses Thomas Jefferson to point out the difficulty of maintaining a democratic republic. Jefferson, a firm believer in the political equality of all men, said that political equality can only be effective in a republic in which all citizens participate: "The further the departure from direct and constant control by the citizens, he said, 'the less has the government of the ingredient of republicanism.'" And as Bellah points out, "the ideal of a self-governing society of relative equals in which all participate is what guided Jefferson all his life."

Yet we must abandon Jefferson's ideal democratic republic and move on to the reality of modern times. Then we must examine the forces that are available to counterbalance this transnational corporate capital power. What are these forces? In Habits of the Heart, Bellah discusses six visions of the public good: The Establishment vs. Populism, Neocapitalism vs. Welfare Liberalize, and The Administered Society vs. Economic Democracy. Of particular interest are the two visions we are moving toward today, The Administered Society versus Economic Democracy. As Bellah indicates, advocates of the The Administered Society envision "social harmony among different and unequal groups cooperating for the goals of improved individual security and widely shared economic growth," whereas "advocates of economic Democracy consciously worry about how to empower citizens to take part in the array of new integrating institutions that they, too, see as necessary to a more humane, as well as a more abundant future." And as Bellah goes on to point out,
"It is certainly possible that The Administered Society... would only tighten the hold of corporate business on our collective life and result in the administrative despotism that Tocqueville warned against," whereas Economic Democracy "continues the long struggle to bring the corporate economy under democratic control... ."

NOTES
2Ladd, p. 66.
3Ladd, p. 67.
4Ladd, p. 58.
7Reich, p. 118.
8Reich, p. 119.
10Bellah, p. 268-69.
11Bellah, p. 270.

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SUDDEN INFANT DEATH SYNDROME
Ken Graham

Every year 5,000 to 10,000 babies die tragically from an unknown killer. The scenario is similar from case to case. An apparently healthy baby is put into its crib at the usual naptime or bedtime; and later, when its parents return, the baby is dead. Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS) or “crib death” strikes an estimated 1 out of every 500 babies a year born in this country, making it the leading cause of death among infants aged 1 month to 1 year (Stewart and Freidman, 1987). This sudden, unexpected death, which usually cannot be explained by any findings at autopsy, appears first at 2 to 3 weeks of age, reaches a peak between 2 and 4 months, and is extremely rare after 1 year.

Literature indicates “that unexplained infant deaths have occurred since biblical times and are common all over the world” (Thompson, 1985, p.7). The exact cause of SIDS is not yet known; however, many parents in their grief and guilt have often felt that the baby might have suffocated in the bedding. But since research indicates that even newborns can remove a blanket placed lightly over them this possibility seems remote (Naeye, 1980). The medical world has been vigorously searching for the cause or causes of SIDS; however, the ultimate cause or causes remains a baffling mystery. In fact, Naeye (1980) reported that there are more than 100 theories on the origins of the mysterious lethal disorder.

John and Hood (1980) reported a possible link between vitamin deficiency and mild stress as a contributing factor to SIDS. Researchers discovered that when young chickens were deprived of the vitamin biotin and then exposed to mild stress (i.e., a missed meal, excessive heat or cold or a changed environment) they "suddenly and unexpectedly died” within 4 to 6 hours following the disturbance and removal of their food (p.379). These findings prompted the researchers to examine the levels of biotin in the livers of 35 human SIDS victims and compare them with other infants who had died of known causes. The researchers reported that the infants who had died of SIDS had significantly lower levels of biotin in their livers than those infants “who had died of explicable causes” (Johnson and Hood, 1980, p.379). In summarizing their findings Johnson and Hood stated:

The findings do not suggest that SIDS results from biotin deficiency alone, but we postulate that biotin insufficiency may leave the infant in a condition in which SIDS can be triggered by mild stress. (p. 379).

Schiffman (1980) and his associates at the Rutgers Medical School suggested that, at least in some cases, heredity may play a role in explaining the unexpected deaths of many SIDS victims. Schiffman compared respiratory responses between 12 parents of SIDS victims and 12 other parents with no history of SIDS in their families. None of the couples taking part in the research had any heart or respiratory problems. Both the control and experimental groups were given a test which measured their ventilatory response “to carbon dioxide (which normally triggers compensatory deeper breathing), as well as respiratory drive (increased effort in the presence of obstruction)” (p. 80). Results indicated that the experimental group's ventilatory response and respiratory drive were significantly lower (subnormal) as compared to the control group. The researchers suggested that “potential parents who evidence such lowered respiratory responses may be at increased risk to have children susceptible to SIDS” (p.80).

Research conducted by Naeye (1980) indicated a number of factors that correlated with the death of infants believed to have been victims of SIDS. These infants are more likely to have been premature or low-birth-weight babies, to have been in neonatal intensive care units or other hospitalizations, and to have had certain structural differences from normal babies that have shown up on postmortem examinations, particularly respiratory and cardiac differences. Other factors which seem more likely among SIDS victims were reported by Valde’s-Dapena (1980), who reported that SIDS victims were more likely to be males, to be later-born, to die during ordinary sleeping hours, and to succumb in cold weather. Their mothers tended to be younger, of lower mental capacity, smokers, and to have had fewer prenatal examinations.

In one study, parents who compared their SIDS infants with their other children said that these infants had less intense reactions to environmental stimuli, had been less active physically, became more breathless and exhausted during feedings, and cried in an abnormal way (Naeye, Messmer and Specht, 1976). These earlier findings have been substantiated by recent studies and seem to indicate that these babies may have been born with some defect in respiration, temperature regulation, digestion, neurological functioning, or the central nervous system (McKenna, 1985).

Research conducted at St. John's University by Efthymiou and Closson (1982) indicated that there
may be a link between SIDS victims and deficiencies in their immune system. After examining the lungs of numerous SIDS victims, Efthymiou and Closson (1982) reported that

Samples of lung tissue taken from SIDS victims contained certain antibodies that point to anaphylaxis—an acute allergic reaction. During anaphylaxis antibodies react with allergy—producing substances (allergens) to cause a wide range of severe symptoms—including a drop in blood pressure, difficulty in breathing and sometimes, suffocation. (p.8)

Based on these findings the researchers speculated that “SIDS victims may have deficiencies in their immune systems that impair their defense against allergens—some of them as common as dust, pollen or cow’s milk” (Efthymiou and Closson, 1982, p.8)

Bahari (1983) of the Deborah Heart and Lung Center in Browns Mill, N.J., suggested that “a faulty wiring job may be responsible” for many of the SIDS cases reported in this country each year. Her studies indicated that “infection or inborn anomalies in the heart’s electrical conduction system” may have led to the death of these SIDS victims (p. 344). Bharati (1983) suggested these findings after examining the hearts of 15 SIDS babies and eight other babies who had died from known causes. Her examinations revealed that

Muscle fibers that conducted the hearts contraction—causing electrical currents—were on the left side in eight SIDS hearts, a condition that was found in only one of the other hearts. It is usually central. Seven other SIDS hearts showed other abnormalities: in only one was the conduction system anatomically normal. (p. 344)

She concluded that these abnormalities may have “caused an abnormal heartbeat which in turn could have led to death” (Bharati, 1983, p. 344).

Another study conducted by Haque (1985) and two associates at the University of Texas suggested that asbestos found in the lungs of some SIDS babies may play a role in explaining their untimely deaths. Although most autopsies of adults indicate at least “pulmonary deposits of the flame-retardant mineral this was apparently the first report in babies” (Haque, 1985, p. 153). Haque (1985) and his associates examined the bodies of 17 babies who had died of SIDS or other known causes. They found asbestos in the lungs of 10 of the SIDS babies and one of the others. Some of these babies “had levels as high as adults with mesothelioma, a deadly form of cancer found in adults. Based on their research Haque (1985) and his associates concluded that

the preponderance of asbestos in SIDS babies shouldn’t be construed as a cause of SIDS. The SIDS babies may, for an independent reason, have encountered more asbestos, or that their lungs may have been less able to clear the mineral than those of other infants. (p.153)

Other theories which try to account for the cause of SIDS include: an imbalance of the hormone triiodothyronine (T-3) (Tilden and Chacon, 1981), blood imbalance—elevated levels of hemoglobin F (Greenberg, 1987), abnormally high levels of the brain chemical dopamine (Perrin, 1984), and faulty or improper functioning of the respiratory control center (Hunt, 1982).

Current research is focusing on several areas of interest in trying to prevent future deaths. One area of particular interest concerns apnea. Researchers have long suspected that apnea, cessation of air flow to the lungs, may be a key contributor in explaining the deaths of SIDS victims. In fact, apnea appears to be involved in all SIDS deaths. Studies indicate that all babies experience some hesitation in their breathing while sleeping; however, they begin breathing automatically without intervention or aid. For some babies, apnea occurs repeatedly and for long periods of time. These babies often need shaking and resuscitation to get them breathing again. These children have been labeled “near-miss SIDS” because they come so close to death (Thompson, 1983). Increasing numbers of parents of these babies are now using monitors which track not only their babies’ breathing but also their heart rate (Bower, 1986; Barnhill 1981). How are these “near missed SIDS” babies different from those babies who begin breathing on their own after apnea? Furthermore, why do these babies discontinue breathing and what can be done to reduce if not eliminate future deaths among these babies?

Research conducted by McKenna (1985) has sought to answer these as well as other questions concerning SIDS. He believes that an unexplored environmental factor—babies sleeping apart from their parents—may be a contributing factor in some SIDS deaths. McKenna (1985) began his work at the University of California Irvine Medical Center in 1985. Working with a team of sleep physiologists, pediatricians and pediatric neurologist, McKenna compared the breathing patterns of parents and children when they slept together and apart. Stewart and Friedman (1987) elaborated on McKenna’s hypothesis when they stated:

For nearly all of human history infants have slept in close physical contact with their mothers for the first year of life or beyond. Today it is only Westernized humans who sleep separately from their infants. Infants born with weakness in their breathing might be helped by hearing the sounds of their mother’s steady breathing. (p. 156)
Results of McKenna's (1985) research indicated that when mothers and children slept together, both the mothers and children began to breathe in harmony, even though babies normally breathe more slowly than adults (McKenna, 1985).

These studies and research seem to indicate that regardless of the suspected cause or causes of SIDS, it appears that apnea is involved in all SIDS deaths. However, except for the research conducted by McKenna (1985) there seems to be a lack of literature and research concerning these actual "near missed SIDS" babies and apnea. Consequently, because of this lack of research and literature, the researcher sees a need to conduct the following study.

It is hypothesized that "near missed SIDS" babies who sleep with their mothers or listen to recorded breathing of their mothers while sleeping will experience significantly less occurrences of apnea than "near missed SIDS" babies who sleep alone in silence.

REFERENCES

THE JAPANESE TEA CEREMONY

Kristi Ringley

The ideas behind the Japanese tea ceremony stem from respected Japanese ideologies. Although the tea ceremony is a respected Japanese institution linked to Zen Buddhism (Britannica 478), as Sen Soshtsu, the grandmaster of the Urasenke school of tea, said: “Tea is the practice or realization of religious faith, no matter what you believe in” (Anderson 478). Even though the tea ceremony of today is in danger because of social and profit motives (Seidensticker 91), N.J. Girardot, author of Myth and Meaning in Early Taoism, sums up how some practitioners of the tea ceremony still feel about the original purpose behind the tea ceremony: Practicing the tea ceremony is a way of “periodically recovering in this lifetime a condition of original wholeness, health, or holiness” (Anderson 478-479). The religious aspects of the historical development, the abuse of that religion, and the religious significance of all materials involved in the tea ceremony make the tea ceremony a principal component of ancient Japanese culture.

The history of ritual tea drinking is intriguing. In one popular myth, the discovery of tea is attributed to an Indian monk, Bodhidharma. The legend says that he stared at a blank wall for nine years before becoming a Buddha. Because he was bothered by sleep during these nine years, he supposedly cut off his eyelids and threw them onto the ground. They took root and grew into tea bushes which made a drink that kept sleep away (Leonard 101). The early Zen monks liked the tea more for its sleep-preventing qualities than for its taste or aroma (Leonard 101). They used tea as an aid to meditation and would pass a bowl of tea among themselves while sitting before a portrait of Bodhidharma (Fujioka 10). Participation in the first tea ceremonies was mainly by Zen monks who were using the tea as a mild stimulant (Turnbull 188) while paying respects to the first patriarch of Zen Buddhism (Britannica 597).

Participation in the tea ceremony by people other than monks was eventually encouraged by the monks because of their concern for the country’s safety (Fujioka 9-10). The civil war of the HigashiyamaPeriod and the flamboyant behavior of the people caused the monks to be concerned for their country. Because of this concern, some Zen aesthetic advisors from the monasteries of Kyoto gradually caused a reform in the behavior of the people through the tea ceremony (Fujioka 9-10). This change in behavior was seen in the development of the meticulous and formal rules of the ceremony (Embree 34). The development of the tea ceremony is attributed to Shogun Yoshimasa, who developed the ceremony more fully in his beautiful Silver Pavilion at Higashiyama (Turnbull 119-120). The monk’s reasoning behind using the ceremony to effect such a reform in behavior agrees with Sen Soshitsu’s purpose of ritual tea drinking. According to Sen Soshitsu, the purpose of ritual tea preparation and drinking is “to realize tranquility of mind in communion with one’s fellow men within our world” (Anderson 475). The religious overtones of the historical development of the tea ceremony are reinforcing to the idea of a religious foundation of the Japanese tea ceremony.

The religious tea ceremonies of the Zen tea masters differed from those of the aristocracy. The ceremonies varied in that the ceremonies of the Zen tea masters emphasized things that were not secular (Turnbull 189). For example, the developers of the tea ceremony stressed the following qualities during the ceremony: harmony between guests and utensils, respect among the guests and for the utensils, cleanliness, and tranquility (Britannica 597). The unworldliness of the original tea ceremonies is understood by considering the type of ceremonies held by Shuko, an original tea master. Instead of displaying wealth during the ceremony, Shuko minimized the elegance and emphasized qualities such as agedness and poverty (Varley 88-89). In imitation of Shuko’s ceremony, Sen Rikyu became a practitioner of a type of ceremony called wabicha. Being similar to the tea ceremony of Shuko, wabicha was based upon severe restraint, humility, and poverty (Varley 110). The simplicity and peace-orientated qualities emphasized by the early tea ceremonies of the Zen tea masters made the Japanese tea ceremony a significant religious symbol.

In contrast to the spiritual symbolism of the ceremonies of the Zen tea masters, the tea ceremonies of the aristocracy were not of the religious nature (Anderson 480). In actuality, the ceremonies of the aristocracy were often an abuse of the original ideologies behind the tea ceremony (Turnbull 188-189). An example of the abuse of the ceremony was the planning of assassinations during tea ceremonies (Turnbull 189). Even though the peaceful atmosphere of the tea room sometimes lessened the violent tendencies of the warriors (Turnbull 189), assassinations are known to have been carried out using plans made during tea ceremonies (Turnbull 188-189). Also, Hideyoshi, a Japanese general responsible for the unification of Japan and sometimes called “The Napoleon of Japan,” was known to have used the ceremony as a way to win
friends and influence people (Turnbull 188). The use of the ceremony for planning assassinations and manipulation of others for personal gain did not agree with the original intentions of the developers of the tea ceremony.

An additional abuse of the tea ceremony by the aristocracy was through the disregard of the frugality emphasized in the ceremony. Instead, it was used as an exhibition of wealth. For example, elaborate tea tasting contests were held with extravagant prizes as rewards (Anderson 80). In addition, ancient records document Yoshimasa's lavish ceremonies specifically and mention the negative consequences suffered by the country. An ancient record says:

A feast of a thousand delicacies was prepared for the flower-viewing excursion. The shogun's attendants were supplied with eating sticks of gold, while the other guests received sticks carved from scented wood and inlaid with precious metals. People ran about madly preparing their costumes. So great was the expense, they were forced to put all their holdings in pawn and to sell their valuables. Taxes were levied on people in the provinces and collection of the land and household taxes was pressed. Farmer and landlord suffered dreadfully. Without the means to continue planting and harvesting, they abandoned their fields and turned to begging and lived on whatever their hands and feet could bring them. Most of the hamlets and villages throughout the country reverted to uncultivated fields (Leonard 100).

Obviously, the Zen tea masters who originated the tea ceremony did not believe in such extravagance. Therefore, some of the uses of the ceremony by the aristocracy were abusive to the beliefs behind the first tea ceremonies.

Because of the beliefs from which the tea ceremony originated, the utensils used during the tea ceremony have great religious significance. The religious importance of all things associated with the tea ceremony stems from the ideas of yin and yang (Anderson 479-480), which refer to the five Taoist elements of wood, fire, metal, earth, and water (Anderson 479-480). Lu Yu, a poet who is called "the god of tea," frequently makes references to the principles of yin and yang in his writings which show a preoccupation with the correct integration of fire and water. The concern with the correct relationship of fire and water to utensils made of wood, metal, and clay shows a connection to the religious principles of yin and yang (Anderson 480). The utensils themselves are beautiful in a simplistic sort of way (Seidensticker 92) and, like the Raku ceramic pieces originated by Sen Rikyu, are often of a masculine style (Stincheicum 15). The simplicity of the utensils and their connection to the principles of yin and yang make the utensils religious symbols which are integral to the tea ceremony.

The tea house, like the utensils used, also has religious importance. The materials from which the tea house is made are chosen to give it an air of rustic, yet refined, simplicity (Britannica 596). The tea room is small, about nine square feet, and is preferably separate from the main house (Britannica 596). Also, the tea house door is very small, which symbolizes humility to the guests (Britannica 597). The small size of the tea house, simplicity of construction, and the humility represented by the small size of the tea house door all combine to give the tea house a peaceful, religious aura.

In conclusion, the tea ceremony is concerned with the practice of religious ideals with emphasis on appreciation of the simple things. This practice of religion, along with appreciation of the beauty of simple objects such as the utensils, can be understood by considering a quote by Kakuzo Okakura, a tea master. Kakuzo Okakura wrote,

Tea with us became more than an idealisation of the form of drinking; it is a religion of the art of life. The beverage grew to be an excuse for the worship of purity and refinement, a sacred function at which the host and guest joined to produce for that occasion the utmost beatitude of the mundane. The tea-room was an oasis in the dreary waste of existence where weary travelers could meet to drink from the common spring of art appreciation (utensils). The ceremony was an improvised drama whose plot was woven about the tea, the flowers, and the paintings (Okakura 43).

Because of the religious nature of the tea ceremony, to understand the actual purpose of the Japanese tea ceremony, one must first understand the underlying religious ideologies.

WORKS CITED

COOKIES AND SUCROSE

Janet Wimsatt

Sucrose—also known as cane sugar, beet sugar, and granulated sugar—is one of the most widely used sweeteners in the world today. It is a disaccharide which occurs most naturally in plants. Currently, sucrose is the most important sugar in the bake mix industry (5).

The texture, color, and much of the flavor of foods is dependent upon the content and level of sucrose. In a starch mixture, the sucrose is used primarily to sweeten the mixture, tenderize the starch structure by reducing the gluten strength, and to develop the color and texture. If not used in excess amounts, sucrose will keep the mixture thick. However, because of the tenderizing effect of the sucrose on starch, an excessive amount in a product will tend to decrease the thickening power of the starch (5).

It has been suggested that the taste for sucrose is a learned appetite. Those who habitually ingest a high sugar diet may have altered taste perception of sucrose (8). The taste of sucrose at lower levels may be masked by other strong flavors, strength of the stimuli before, or residual sweetness (1,4,6,7). This is why all ingredients must be considered when characterizing the sweetness of a product (6).

M.M. Givons and A. Goldman conducted a taste test with a variety of five tomatoes and found that 175 participants showed significant differences with respect to their ideal levels of sweetness. In this test the ideal tomato was sweeter than the test tomatoes (2).

In various studies using products made with sucrose as well as other sweeteners, sucrose was consistently the sweetening agent picked as being most acceptable (2,4,6,7). The purpose of this project was to examine acceptance levels, by college female students, of cookies made with various levels of sucrose.

Samples of sugar cookies made with five levels of sucrose were used for this evaluation consisting of a pre-test and three repetitions. The evaluations were conducted with female residents of a dormitory on the campus of a midwestern university. All evaluation sessions were conducted in the recreation room of the dormitory where light, temperature, and noise levels were controlled. Only panelists were allowed in the room during the evaluations.

The standard recipe for the cookies consisted of 54 grams of margarine, 54 grams of egg, 4 grams of vanilla, 193 grams of all purpose flour, 1 milligram of baking powder, 42 grams of 2% milk, and 112 grams of sucrose. The levels of sucrose were changed to 28 grams, 70 grams, 112 grams (the standard), 154 grams, and 196 grams of sucrose. All ingredients were pre-measured and the cookie with 28 grams of sucrose was made first, then followed in increasing order of sucrose, until all were made.

The cookie dough was measured with a #100 disher and a spatula to insure even amounts of dough with each cookie sample. To insure a uniform appearance of all the cookies, it was necessary to press the cookies made with 28 grams and 70 grams of sucrose. The cookies were baked on an ungreased 17x10 inch baking sheet in a 350°F oven. The standard cookie dough was baked for 14 minutes, while the other cookies were baked for varying amounts of time to insure uniform products. The baking times were 16 minutes for 28 grams, 15 minutes for 70 grams, 12 minutes for 154 grams, and 11 minutes for 196 grams of sucrose. All cookies were allowed to cool on a wire rack for 15 minutes at 68-72°F, then wrapped in plastic film and stored at 68-72°F for 2 hours, until the time for evaluation. All cookies were evaluated at 68-72°F.

Five different cookies were positioned on a precoded 9-inch white paper plate. Three digit codes were obtained through the use of a table of random numbers (3). They were placed on a table with 6 ounce styrofoam cups of water at room temperature. The panelists were instructed not to eat, drink, smoke, or chew gum for at least 45 minutes before the evaluations. As the panelists came into the room, they were verbally instructed not to talk and to take as much time as needed to complete the evaluations. They were verbally instructed to take a plate of cookie samples, a cup of water, and evaluation form, and a pencil. The evaluation form used was a five point Hedonic scale on which 5 = Very acceptable and 1 = Very unacceptable. Panelists were instructed to sit in the same place for all the replications. The panelists were asked to read the written procedural instructions and told to ask questions if they needed clarification.

The data showed some differences between the products. The mean value for the 154 grams of sucrose cookie were the highest scores for all characteristics. There was little difference between the mean values for 112 grams, 154 grams, and 196 grams of sucrose. However, 196 grams of sucrose in the cookie was evaluated a little higher than 112 grams of sucrose for sweetness, appearance, and overall acceptability. But it was rated lower on appearance. There was a mean value difference between 28 grams and 70 grams of sucrose and 112 grams of sucrose. The lowest mean values on all product characteristics were for the 28
grams of sucrose cookies. When the overall mean values were divided into major age groups of less than 22 years of age and greater than or equal to 22 years of age, there were noticeable differences between the evaluations. The overall acceptability of 154 grams of sucrose cookie was the same value, and the highest mean value, for both groups, with a slightly lower yet corresponding values for 112 grams and 196 grams of sucrose cookies. In appearance, 154 grams of sucrose cookie received the highest mean values for both age groups. Less that 22 years of age rated the 196 grams of sucrose cookie as being the same in appearance, while 22 years of age or older rated it as being slightly lower. Texture of the cookies was best in 154 grams of sucrose cookies, for less than 22 years, while 22 years or older evaluated the 112 grams of sucrose cookie as being more favorable. Sweetness of the cookie was ranked most favorably in less than 22 years of age in 196 grams of sucrose cookie, with a slight decrease for 154 grams, then decreasing progressively with sucrose levels. 22 years or older ranked 154 grams of sucrose cookie as being the most acceptable, with 112 grams of sucrose next, then 196 grams. There was a difference in the lowest scores as both age groups evaluated the cookies accordingly but the lowest mean values differed in that for 22 years of age or older the value was 3.1, and for less than 22 years of age, the value was 1.4. There were appropriate increases in mean values for 70 grams of sucrose cookies.

Overall, as the age of the participants increased, there was less difference in the acceptance of the cookies, and 22 years of age or older had a mean value comparable to at least neither acceptable nor unacceptable.

Since the samples of cookies were placed on the plates according to a table of random numbers, there was no reason to believe that sequence or presentation of the cookies had anything to do with the acceptance levels.

It is possible that the 196 grams of sucrose cookie was consistently evaluated lower than 154 grams of sucrose cookie in texture, appearance, and overall acceptability because of the excess sucrose. Excess sucrose in concentrations from over 20% of normal amount of sucrose tends to cause crystallization with a small volume and sugary crust (5). This was typical for the 196 grams of sucrose cookie.

Although there was a difference between the acceptance of less than the standard amount of sucrose to the standard amount of sucrose cookies, the opinion was that 154 grams of sucrose cookies was considered better than the other cookies by this panel of female college students.

NOTES

MUFFINS AND ASPARTAME OR SUCROSE

Linda Gilliland

Since its accidental discovery in 1965 the aspartame controversy has grown as has its popularity (7). Aspartame outsold every other available non-carbohydrate sweetener on the market during its first year of availability (6). Commercially, it is the most successful artificial sweetener.

Aspartame is considered safe at expected levels of consumption. Some individuals, however, have experienced symptoms that may be linked to aspartame ingestion in reportedly normally-consumed amounts (1,10). Studies regarding the safety of aspartame continue (9).

Many people want sweetened foods in their diets. A survey of diabetics showed that the vast majority include sweetened foods in their diets. Another study revealed that 72 of 100 mothers questioned indicated that artificially sweetened foods helped their diabetic children remain on their prescribed diets (5).

Regardless of the reasons behind the popularity of sweet foods, the desire for them is apparent. More and more individuals, including diabetics, the weight-conscious and those concerned about tooth decay, continue to demand a variety of artificially sweetened products (2).

Despite the popularity of artificially sweetened foods, a limited amount of information has been published about the taste and quality of various sweeteners. Even less information is available about sweeteners, including aspartame, in baked foods (8).

Research shows that aspartame decomposes when exposed to high temperatures. The manufacturers of this sweetener have conducted studies which show considerable but not total loss of sweetness in baked items. These items do not taste as sweet as those containing sucrose (4). A bitter aftertaste has also been associated with aspartame after exposure to high temperatures (8). This project was designed to investigate preference levels of bran muffins prepared with sucrose or various amounts of aspartame.

Twenty-eight students from a mid-south university participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 19 to 23 years. Three muffins were prepared with aspartame while one was prepared with sucrose. Each muffin measured approximately 1½ x 1 inch. Muffins were prepared following a traditional recipe. The only variation in the recipes were the levels of aspartame and sucrose. One muffin contained the amount of aspartame specified by the recipe. The aspartame was reduced by one-fourth in one muffin and increased by one-fourth in another muffin. The fourth muffin contained sucrose. All ingredients were nationally-known brand names. Each ingredient was the same brand name and was coded with the same manufacturer's number.

Muffins were prepared the day before the evaluation. Ingredients were mixed with a wooden spoon for twenty strokes. Batches of muffins were baked in the same oven at 375°F for 10 minutes. They were cooled to room temperature. Muffins were presented for evaluation at 68-72°F.

Muffins were sampled on three consecutive Wednesdays at 3:00 p.m. in the dining room of a building housing a student organization. After a training session, panelists evaluated the muffins at individual stations located around the room. The walls in the room were painted off white and the room had fluorescent lighting. Muffins were positioned on tables with beige formica tops.

One muffin from each of the four different samples was placed on a pre-coded white paper plate. The three-digit codes were obtained through the use of a table of random numbers (3). Panelists were instructed to rinse their mouths with 68-78°F water between samples.

A five-point hedonic scale was used for evaluation. Samples were scored for appearance, texture, flavor and overall acceptability.

Muffins prepared with sucrose received the highest mean values for all product characteristics. The product which received the second highest mean values in three out of four characteristics was made with 25% more aspartame than the standard. It is also noted that the muffins given the lowest mean values were prepared with the standard level of aspartame.

The products prepared with sucrose received higher mean values for appearance than all other products. The muffins with the second highest mean values contained 25% less aspartame than the standard. The lowest mean value of 3.6 for appearance was the product made with the standard level of aspartame.

Mean values for texture were highest for muffins prepared with sucrose. Muffins receiving second highest mean values were made with 25% more aspartame than the standard. The lowest mean value for texture was the product made with the standard level of aspartame, with a value of 2.9.

Muffins prepared with sucrose received highest mean values for flavor. Those made with 25% more aspartame than the standard received second highest values. Lowest values were received by muffins...
prepared with the standard level of aspartame.
Overall acceptability mean values were highest for products prepared with sucrose. Muffins made with 25% more aspartame than the standard received the next highest values. The lowest mean value for overall acceptability was received by the product prepared with the standard level of aspartame.

NOTES

The high incidence of coronary heart disease in America has led to recommendations for a diet modified in fat and cholesterol. Since one of the highest sources of cholesterol in the American diet is the egg yolk, the food industry has produced an egg substitute in order to lower cholesterol and fat. The egg substitute has a low fat content, and a higher polyunsaturated fat content than that of a whole egg. (3)

Egg substitutes have been evaluated in different ways. Substitutes have been tested by cooking methods such as pan scrambled in a double boiler, oil-in-bag in boiling water, pan scrambled in Teflon skillet, and cook-in-bag in a microwave oven. These methods of preparation were comparable. The ease in preparation should encourage and increase use. (2)

With increase use in egg substitutes, nutritional and consumer information may be important to the consumer. In an experiment with a panel of home economists, it was concluded that cholesterol and caloric information without explanation of possible benefits appear insufficient to change consumers’ preception of a fat-modified product. (5)

A sensory evaluation, using trained panelists, was conducted on liquid whole eggs and two commerical egg substitutes prepared as scrambled eggs and used in plain cake. The results showed that consumers, unlike the trained panel, failed to detect a significant difference between the egg substitute and whole eggs. The whole egg was preferred between the egg substitute and whole eggs. The whole egg was preferred by the trained sensory evaluation panel. (4)

Another study consisted of experiments with egg blends as a substitute for the whole egg. The results showed that these blends were acceptable for making scrambled eggs, custards, and cakes. However, lower proportions of the egg yolk in blends produced less acceptable products. (1)

Research has shown that a substitute can be successfully made for a whole egg. The need for Americans is to be educated by teaching alternative ways to lower cholesterol. Using egg substitutes is one way to do this. If consumers are exposed to the fact that they can use egg substitutes to replace a whole egg, cholesterol levels may be lowered. The purpose of this study was to examine the preference levels of high school participants in yellow cake mixes prepared with whole eggs and egg substitutes.

Whole eggs, Egg Beaters®, and Scramblers® were utilized as the egg components in a commerical yellow cake mix. A mixing time for each mix consisted of two minutes on high speed. The samples were baked in 2" muffin tins at 350°F.

A pretest and three replications (4) took place at approximately 2:00 p.m. on consecutive Fridays.

The 26 participants, 16 to 18 years of age, were juniors and seniors from a mid-southern rural high school. A seven point hedonic pictorial scale was used in the evaluation for color, aroma, texture, and overall acceptability. (4) The participants were instructed to evaluate the samples by checking a “thumbs up” hand signal which represented excellent or check other hand signals which represented descending evaluation rating.

The panelists were instructed to evaluate the prepositioned products from left to right and to make sure product codes matched codes on the evaluation forms. The three cake products were presented on precoded white paper plates. The participants were instructed to rinse their mouths with room temperature water after each product evaluation.

Mean values showed that the three cake samples scored above 5.0 in all characteristics. The characteristic of color averaged 5.4 with the egg and 5.6 with both egg substitutes. The values for aroma were the same. The mean value for flavor of the Scramblers® was slightly higher than that mean values for the egg and Egg Beaters®. The mean values for texture were 5.4 for the egg, 5.1 for the Scramblers®, and 5.3 for the Egg Beaters®. In overall acceptability the three products were the same.

All products were comparable. Mean values for characteristics were so similar that it could be concluded that the cakes were similar. The cakes can be successfully made with a whole egg or Scramblers® or Egg Beaters®.

Additional work with other products should be conducted to test acceptability for other products.

NOTES

The concern of Americans about sodium intake has brought about a greatly expanded market for products which are low or reduced in sodium. As a result the research to solve the sodium dilemma continues (2). One possible alternative is a NaCl/KCl mixture. Research indicates that a sodium and potassium mixture containing 50% KCl appeared to be as salty as NaCl, yet was bitter, therefore, limiting its use as a palatable salt substitute (5).

The unfortunate effects of the sodium and potassium cations that have been presented indicate that high sodium intake may lead to hypertension (1). However, a high potassium intake may increase the risk of hyperkalemia (7). This is especially true of those patients with impaired cardiac or renal functions whose medications include potassium sparing diuretics or drugs, since potassium will be stored rather than excreted (7).

Sodium and potassium chloride are both structurally and physically similar, therefore, lending similar properties in products (5). Sensory research using various salts and salt mixtures has been conducted on frankfurters by Hand, et al. (3). Data suggested that a salt seasoning containing 65% NaCl and 35% KCl was a satisfactory substitute to 100% NaCl in frankfurters (3). Investigators Fitzgerald and Buckley indicated that cheddar cheese salted with a sodium/potassium ratio of 1.0 on a molecular basis was found not to be significantly different to the control and was the best alternative to NaCl alone (1). Citric acid has been found to enhance saltiness in tomato juice and may prove to be a viable method of reducing sodium in that particular product (4). Results from Wyatt's comparison of sodium and sodium/potassium salt mixtures in canned green beans and corn indicated that vegetables can be processed with lower sodium content by using mixtures of NaCl and KCl (8).

The objective of this project is to examine taste preference levels for KCl salt substitutes and NaCl on popcorn.

One hundred thirty-three females in a living residence hall were surveyed for their preferences concerning salt and salt substitutes on popcorn. Ages of the participants ranged from 18-23 years with an average age of 20.5 years. Sodium chloride, a potassium/sodium chloride mixture, and a salt substitute containing 0 mg. of sodium were used. All were name brand products which are readily available to the public in retail grocery stores.

Popcorn of the same brand with the same manufacturer's code was prepared using the homestyle traditional stove top method with an aluminum pan. Batches were prepared on the premises the morning of the test day. A batch consisted of 1/3 cup of unpopped corn plus 3 tablespoons of 100% corn oil which yielded 6 cups of popped corn. Twelve batches of popped corn salted with the same salt were placed into large receptacles. The 12 batches per receptacle were seasoned with 10 1/2 teaspoons of a salt or salt mixture, then thoroughly mixed to facilitate approximate equal distribution of the salts on the popcorn. From these receptacles, the popcorn was divided into 1/4 cup samples.

Taste testing was conducted in the hall lobby during one day. Three 1/4 cup samples of popcorn at room temperature (68-72°F) in polystyrene cups on a paper plate, a polystyrene cup of water, and the survey instrument was handed to each participant. The cups were labeled with a 3 digit code which were obtained through the use of a table of random numbers (6). The three popcorn samples were placed on the paper plate in the 12, 4, and 8 o'clock positions and the participants were instructed via the survey instrument as to how to proceed.

Taste preferences were measured using a 7 point continuum scale with .5 point gradations. Extremes were labeled “high preference” and “low preference”. The midpoint was labeled “indifference.” Numerical scores were assigned by measuring the distance from the origin to the preference mark as indicated by the participant.

Mean values for 100% NaCl popcorn seasoning ranged from 5.2 to 5.1 with a combined panelist mean value of 5.0. Popcorn salted with the salt mixture of NaC1/KCl containing 50% NaCl was found to have a high mean value of 4.6 with a low value of 4.1. The mean value for all panelists combined was 4.2. Mean values for the popcorn salted with KCl salt substitute, which contained 0% NaCl ranged from 1.4 to 1.1. The mean value for all panelists combined was 1.3.

A difference of .5 was the largest difference found to exist between the ages of 18-23 for the same product, the popcorn seasoning containing a 50% NaCl salt mixture. Differences in mean values for all panelists combined concerning the various seasonings were calculated. Between the 100% NaCl popcorn seasoning and the 60% NaCl popcorn seasoning, a difference of 8 was found. A difference of 2.9 was found between the popcorn salted with the 50% NaCl salt mixture and 0% NaCl salt substitute popcorn seasoning. An even larger...
difference of 3.7 was found between the popcorn seasoned with the 100% NaCl and the popcorn seasoned with the 0% NaCl salt substitute. Mean values indicate preference for the 100% NaCl popcorn seasoning.

Sensory evaluation for various salts and salt mixtures has been conducted on foods in which the salts were incorporated within the product. Mixtures containing 35% KCl and 65% NaCl have been found to not differ significantly from controls in frankfurters (3). Scores for flavor and texture using a 1:1 mixture of NaCl/KCl were found to not differ significantly to controls for cheddar cheese (1).

Mean values for the 50% salt seasoning were all above the mean value of 3.5 on the 7 point preference scale. This indicates that a 50% NaCl salt seasoning may be used as a satisfactory substitute for 100% NaCl on products such as popcorn. It may well be difficult to find a salt substitute which is as preferable as 100% NaCl on products. Perhaps using even higher percentages of NaCl in seasonings containing NaCl/KCl mixtures may prove to be as acceptable as 100% NaCl seasoning, yet still allow for a reduction in overall sodium intake.

NOTES

CONFLICT AND SYNTHESIS IN
ROBERT PENN WARREN'S "BLACKBERRY WINTER"

Morris Grubbs

The winter of 1945-46 was, for Americans in general and for Robert Penn Warren in particular, a time of self-evaluation and retrospection. The young America, the "new Paradise" as it had once been called, had experienced a series of internal and external conflicts. Eighty years had passed since the Civil War, twenty-seven since the first World War, and mere months since World War II. The United States had just dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki; Japan had surrendered; the United States had felt a sense of victory. And yet, as Warren suggests in "Blackberry Winter: A Recollection," America was plagued by a "sense that the world, and one's own life, would never be the same again" (1). Indeed, what had been hinted at for some time was now evident: the "new Paradise" could no longer sustain its Edenic appeal. It had lost its innocence and was, partly because of its recent action of killing thousands of innocent people with a single bomb, just as guilty as its adversaries. Young America had now been formally initiated into the fallen world. It had experienced its own metaphorical blackberry winter, which it had felt before during its two previous wars and its Depression. But this particular cold spell had, like Warren suggests to his readers and like Old Jebb suggests to young Seth, a sense of profound permanence.

Out of this stormy tension came "Blackberry Winter." And like that of its protagonist, America's initiation engendered hope, for through its conflicts, the country had acknowledged not only the world's but its own inherent evil. The series of wars had led to a full exposure of what Melville in "The Conflict of Convictions"—a poem which Warren cites as an influence on the genesis of "Blackberry Winter"—called "the slimed foundations" of the world. Warren must have felt that this "new Paradise" had finally evinced, and by this acknowledged, its actual post-lapsarian—its fouled—nature. The wars had done to the country what the storm had done to Dellie's cabin in the story. And as a result of this exposure of "filth," America's image of itself and of the world was altered. The country was taught, as Guy Rotella points out about Seth, a "typical Warren lesson: the world is good and evil. Some chaos is inevitable; some order is possible" (3). Out of the conflicts with itself and with other nations, like the conflicts evident in Seth's world, came a synthesis of these two opposing forces. Such a unification, as John Milton pointed out in his Areopagitica, enables one to "see and know and yet abstain" (729). This is the doctrine, as revealed in Paradise Lost, of the "Knowledge of Good bought dear by knowing ill" (4.222). Milton argues that the only way the progeny of Adam and Eve (the third son of whom, after Cain murdered Abel, was interestingly, Seth) may fully comprehend "good" is by first, as Milton put it, sallying out and seeing the adversary (728). Herein lay the glimmer of hope for "our first parents" as they exited—with the serpent following them—Paradise, for America in 1946, and for Seth after he confronted the series of adversities culminating in his endless journey with the tramp.

Warren wrote "Blackberry Winter" sometime during the months following the end of World War II. With Melville's poem in mind, he must have been looking back over America's history, specifically at the great jolt the South experienced during and after the Civil War. These thoughts led him into a deep sense of personal nostalgia, as Charles Bohner points out:

Released suddenly from the concentrated work necessary to complete All the Kings Men and the critical essay on the The Ancient Mariner, Warren . . . found himself in a retrospective mood. Living in the heart of Minneapolis, a Northern city where snow was still falling in May, he was, as he said, "indulging nostalgia" in recalling the coming of spring in his native Kentucky and Tennessee. The chain of association sparked by those memories led to . . . "Blackberry Winter." (102)

This "masterpiece and one of the greatest stories in American Literature" (Bohner 102) was first published in November 1946 by The Cummings Press in an illustrated limited edition of 330 copies (Grisham 53). The following year, Warren published it in his first and only volume of short fiction, The Circus in the Attic and Other Stories, which included 12 short stories and two novellas. Although "Blackberry Winter" is placed second in the volume (which makes it the first short story following the title novella), the story was the last to be written and, as Warren professed in his essay about its composition, "the last story I ever shall write" (8). Accordingly, the last story (the second novella) in the volume, "Prime Leaf," was the first to be published (1931), and so a reversed image is revealed of the author's development over, as the book's authoritative note indicates, a sixteen-year period. Several of the stories are closely linked to his poetry (for example,
sharp parallels may be drawn between “Blackberry Winter” and two later poems, “Dark Night Of” and “Summer Storm, and God’s Grace”; others evolved into novels, as did, for instance, “Prime Leaf.” But some of the stories are also connected to each other: For example, “Blackberry Winter” and “When the Light Gets Green” are both “initiation stories” and are placed together in the volume; additionally, both “The Circus in the Attic,” which Warren wrote just prior to publishing the volume, and “Blackberry Winter” have a character named Seth. (Paul Runyon presents a good discussion of the implications of this connection, as well as other common threads running throughout the volume.)

When Warren wrote “Blackberry Winter” he had already written three novels and three volumes of poetry, had collaborated on a series of textbooks, and had published numerous other works. Warren was then in his early forties, perhaps experiencing a metaphorical cold snap of his own, and he found himself looking back to the springtime of his life, in the same way forty-five-year-old Seth does in the story. Warren writes of this point in his life:

I suppose I was living in some anxiety about the fate of the two forthcoming pieces of work, on which I had staked much, and in the unspoken, even denied, conviction that some sort of watershed of life was being approached. For one thing, the fortieth birthday, lately passed, and the sense of let down after the long period of intense work, could account, in part at least, for that feeling. (2)

Although Warren denies that the story is autobiographical, he does not deny its sense of parallelism. “I never knew these particular people,” writes Warren, “only that world and people like them.” And he adds that “no tramp ever leaned down at me and said for me to stop following him or he would cut my throat.” (8) This is not to say, however, that he did not know a similar tramp in his childhood.

Warren, through a sort of quasi-autobiographical admission, reaffirms the hopeful tone of the story’s ending by saying that, had such a tramp leaned down and threatened him, “I hope that I might have been able to follow him anyway, in the way the boy in the story does.” (8) From this extra-textual fact, we may surmise that the mature Seth’s admission of perpetually following the tramp is a positive recognition, suggesting not that Seth had turned to evil ways but, rather, that Seth had gained a full awareness of the coexistence of good and evil. By such an acknowledgement, as Warren asserts in “Knowledge and the Image of Man,” one may achieve the courage and clarity of mind to envisage the tragic pathos of life, and once he realizes that the tragic experience is universal and a corollary of man’s place in nature, he may return to a communion with man and nature. (187)

Warren suggests that conflicts, such as those which Seth—and, by extension, America—experienced, causes a disintegration of the sense of unity (by which he means between oneself, the world, and other men) which causes “separateness.” “In this process he discovers the pain of self-criticism and the pain of isolation,” explains Warren. “But the pain may, if he is fortunate, develop its own worth, work its own homeopathic cure.” Warren continues.

Man can return to this lost unity, and... if the foliage and flower of the innocent garden are now somewhat browned by the late season, all is the more precious for the fact, for what is now achieved has been achieved by a growth of moral awareness. (187)

This is the experience of the “fortunate fall.” In “O Happy Sin! Felix Culpa in All the King’s Men,” Mark Winchell explains that “spiritual rebirth can occur only after one has discarded the illusion of innocence and has accepted the full burden of a fallen humanity” (572). Out of conflict, then, comes a sort of synthesis, and out of synthesis emerges a reconciliation, a coming-to-terms, with one’s existence in the world. “For it is by evil,” asserted Milton in The Christian Doctrine, “that virtue is chiefly exercised and shines with greater brightness” (933).

Perhaps because of Warren’s “down-home” and compact treatment of such a universal theme, “Blackberry Winter” is his most anthologized story, and the one “most beloved by critics” (Runyon 123). A discussion of the story can be found in almost all books treating Warren’s fiction, and it has been the subject of several scholarly articles in the last ten years alone, indicating a steady rise in its popularity (see “Works Consulted” for a representative list). Some of the more important articles published since 1948 include Richard Davidson’s, which traces the development of the foot and hand imagery; Winston Weathers’, in which the setting, characters, and events are discussed in terms of myth; Floyd Watkins’, which offers both a brief discussion of the story’s progression toward increasing conflict and of its enigmatic ending; and Kenneth Tucker’s, which attempts to draw a parallel between the tramp and the medieval German legend of the Pied Piper. The most elucidating essay, however, is Warren’s own, “Blackberry Winter: A Recollection,” which he included in the 2nd edition of Understanding Fiction. He originally published this essay under the title, “Writer at Work: How a Story was Born and How, Bit by Bit, It Grew,” in the New York Times Book Review (1 March 1959). Several variant typescripts and versions of this essay are accessible, which help
illustrate how the essay itself "grew." Some notable books treating the story include Twayne's U.S. Author Series, in which Charles Bohner provides one of the more insightful explications of the story; Twayne's The Short Story in America 1900-1950, in which Ray West discusses its place in American short fiction; and Paul West's, a thin but helpful book, which sums up what seems to be the consensus among Warren critics: "'Blackberry Winter' is outstanding in the history of the genre as well as the most compact epitome of Warren's output" (34).

A brief analysis of some of the story's elements will illustrate the story's compactness. A blackberry winter is, as Bohner puts it, an "unnatural and unpleasant retrogression from the warmth of spring" (102). This is the title's literal meaning, that the day in the story is characterized by such a cold snap. But the title also serves as the story's controlling metaphor, and in this way it has an important figurative meaning as well.

Warren opens the story by focusing in on Seth standing alongside a comfortable fireplace, rubbing his toes on the warm hearth, "relishing" the heat. He is secure and happy within his home, which offers a contrast to the coldness, the misery, the death, and the evil everpresent—he will learn—outside. But he is astonished that anyone would deny him the right to go barefoot in June. His mother's insistence that he should put on his shoes is the first in a progressive series of "cold snaps" which Seth will experience throughout the day. The mother's command juxtaposed with the mature Seth's monologue on the nature of time serves to introduce the story's theme. This unit constitutes a sort of bookend which helps to hold the story together; the other bookend is in the form of a coda which reveals the characters' fate, the result of the passage of time.

Almost immediately following the introduction, the tramp, which, as Warren reveals, "had been waiting a long time in the wings of my imagination," enters the story. Seth sees him as he lifts his head to check his mother's "tone." Interestingly, the next sentence begins, "The fireplace was at the end;" taken figuratively, this suggests that an end is in view for Seth's warmth, his Edenic comfort. He sees the tramp through the "window on the north side of the fireplace..." which also suggests coldness coming toward warmth; but "north" has a connection with Satan, as well (see Isaiah 14.13 and PL 5.689). The tramp is following a path which joins the house to the river via the woods, all the elements of which, as weather points out, have strong mythological implications. Seth imagines the tramp (which he only refers to as "tramp" later in the story) coming "earnestly through the woods, headlong toward the house," which is perhaps an allusion to Satan being "Hurled headlong" out of heaven in Paradise Lost (1.45). The tramp, a symbol of ugliness, of evil, of the "trash" exposed by the storm, and of timelessness and universality with his "unmemorable face, which wasn't old and wasn't young, or thick or thin," invades Seth's world by entering the fenced enclosure of the farm. He fails even to acknowledge the two dogs, one of which is a bulldog, running fiercely toward him. As Albert Wilhelm points out, "despite the protests of the farm watchdog, the tramp enters the yard bringing with him city clothes, a switchblade knife, scars of past violence, and ultimately a sullen threat to the protective power of Seth's father." "As the protective wall is breached," Wilhelm continues, "Seth's curiosity about the outside world is simultaneously stimulated" (343). The tramp is—in keeping with the story's controlling metaphor—blackberry winter incarnate: he constitutes a figurative "cold blast" to Seth's perception of himself and of the world. The wintry storm and the tramp initiate a progression of conflicts.

Seth then watches the tramp methodically examine the bodies of the dead chicks and poult's drowned by the storm. Seeing their limp bodies upsets the youth, but it is the tramp himself that is so awful: "His way of looking at me made me so uncomfortable that I left the chicken yard." He leaves the tramp and walks, barefoot, to the flooded river where a crowd, including his father, has gathered to gaze at the destruction. Though he confronts the painful realities of poverty and death, this time in the form of a drowned cow floating down the river. (For a similar image in Warren's poetry see "Summer Storm (Circa 1916), and God's Grace" in which a "drowned cow bobbed down the creek" as "Raw-eyed, men watched.") The narrator points out that its home had been a "fenced-in piece of ground up the creek," and that "it had a yoke around its neck, the kind made out of forked limb to keep a jumper behind fence." Wilhelm points out that "just as these restraints have not insured the cow's safety, Seth himself cannot be protected from the pain of maturation" (344).

After leaving the bridge, Seth walks to Dellie's cabin and sees that the storm has "been hard on Dellie's flowers" and that the "water had washed a lot of trash and filth" out from under her house. This shatters his image of the black tenant family, who "were careful to keep everything nice around their cabin." As he enters the cabin, "dark," he says, compared to the daylight, he sees Dellie in bed and Little Jeb "crouched by the hearth." When Seth and Little Jebb become too loud while playing with toy trains, Dellie, suffering from the "change of life," slaps Little Jebb: shocked by such an act "by such a good-natured, grumbling Negro woman like Dellie," and realizing that he too could be slapped by his own mother, Seth flees from the cabin. Seth's flight leads him to the crib where old Jebb is shelling corn. Wilhelm describes the ensuing events:

As he enters he pulls "the door shut behind" him and notes that Old Jebb has the "kindest and wisest old face in the world." But instead of reassurance Jebb offers only predictions of apocalyptic doom, and Seth hangs "on the door, shiver-
Old Jebb’s explanation of “woman-mizry,” “Hit is the change of life and time,” combined with his following statement about their alleged blackberry winter, “Ain’t no tellin’ hit will go away this time.... Maybe hit is come cold to stay,” relates, by extension, part of the story’s overall theme; Seth’s life has changed—permanently, not temporarily—from warm innocence to cold experience.

Seth then retreats to the protection of his yard and finds the tramp still there. Seth’s dad pays the tramp and tells him to “Get off this place,” after the tramp uses the word, says Seth, “which they would have flaired me to death for using.” (Interestingly, Warren’s typescript clearly indicates that the word is “fuckin’,” but either Warren or his editors replaced it with a 3-em dash.) Seth then experiences his penultimate conflict of the day as the tramp reaches into his pocket “where he kept the knife.” Seth fears that the tramp may try to use it on his father, “but the hand came back out with nothing in it.” After following the tramp out of the drive and around the bend, “which cut the house from sight,” Seth attempts to draw him into conversation. The tramp stops, looks at him “dispassionately,” (like he did the dead chicks) and says, “Stop following me. You don’t stop following me and I cut your throat, you little son-of-a-bitch.” This threat is worse for Seth than any other because this one is more personal; it shakes him into a realization of his own mortality. Warren has Seth achieve this awareness through a series of death symbols, increasing in significance: the dead chicks and poults, the dead cow, the potential death of his father, and now his own potential death. The coda then reaffirms the mature Seth’s awareness of harsh change, the relentless passage of time, and death.

The essential line of imagery is that of contrasts: For example, warmth inside, coldness outside; the fact that Seth has always been able to go barefoot in June and then is told that he can’t; Seth’s vision of himself being absorbed into nature, and the tramp’s complete obliviousness to it; city clothes and country clothes; the tramp’s unworkecd hands and Old Jebb’s “calloused palms;” the tramp’s “black, pointed-toe shoe” and Seth’s dad’s “strong cowhide boots;” Seth’s sense of decorum and the tramp’s breach of it; life and death; poverty and comfort; hunger and abundance; compassion and dispassion; certainty and uncertainty about human relationships; cleanliness and filthiness; change and stability; time and timelessness; and ultimately, innocence and experience. For Seth, the result of all these contrasts is a kind of synthesis into maturity, into wholeness; he gains a more complete, a more experienced, awareness of adult reality.

The narrator’s admission that he “did follow” the tramp, “all the years” is a kind of synthesis of all the conflicts experienced on this June day and every day since. Like Adam and Eve, Seth’s confrontation with evil—in the form of the city tramp—led to his expulsion, in a sense, from the innocent Edenic world. Seth had to come face to face with evil for the same reason that God had to send Michael to reveal the “Tents of Wickedness” to disobedient Adam—to prepare and fortify him for the fallen world. But Michael also, in order not to leave Adam “disconsolate,” reveals the lives of Noah and Enoch as examples of “good.” The ideal knowledge, then, is the knowledge of good and evil. Everett Carter relates this idea to Warren’s canon, to American literature, and to Americans:

If Warren’s fiction is prophetic, man must and will accept the mixture of good and evil which is his past and his present, American writers will struggle to fuse romanticism and realism, symbolism and naturalism, and Americans in general must come to terms with themselves as neither exclusively a band of angels nor brothers to dragons. (12)

Certainly Seth, if he did follow the tramp and yet is able, after thirty-five years, to philosophize about his past in the manner revealed, has synthesized these conflicting forces. He emerges from the story a hero, for he is one, as Cleanth Brooks put it, “who knows the dragon exists.”

WORKS CONSULTED


THE TRANSMISSION OF NEGATIVE FEEDBACK: OBSTACLES, EFFECTS, AND SUGGESTIONS

Kim Buote

Providing employees with meaningful and constructive performance feedback is a crucial part of the performance appraisal process. Among its many functions, feedback is essential for such processes as learning, motivating, and goal setting by individuals in organizations (Cederblom, 1982; Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Matsui, Okada, & Kakuyama, 1982). In addition, employees often use the feedback to make internal cognitive comparisons with personal standards of performance (Ilgen & Moore, 1987). Yet despite its obvious importance, the task of communicating performance feedback to employees is one that few supervisors enjoy, or feel adequately trained to perform (Cederblom, 1982). This hesitance on the part of supervisors is especially pronounced when they must administer negative feedback to their employees (Baron, 1988).

The following review has four purposes: (a) to briefly outline the factors that contribute to supervisors' reluctance to administer negative feedback, (b) to review major research findings on the effects of both negative feedback and criticism on individuals in organizations, (c) to outline approaches that have attempted to improve the effective communication of feedback, and finally, (d) to list suggestions for future research.

As previously mentioned, supervisors are on the whole reluctant to deliver negative feedback to employees (Baron, 1988; Bernardin & Beatty, 1984; Larson, 1986). This reluctance may stem in part from the supervisor's concern for how the subordinate will react to the feedback (Larson, 1986). Moreover as Bernardin and Beatty (1984) have suggested, an additional concern for subsequent rater-ratee interactions may also account for the problem of rater motivation. These concerns are all substantiated by a number of research findings.

For example, in an investigation of interpersonal evaluating behavior, Jones (1966) found that evaluations tended to be reciprocated. Specifically, those individuals who received negative evaluations subsequently evaluated their raters in correspondingly negative terms. Similarly, Larson (1984) found that the inclusion of negative feedback during a performance appraisal interview often resulted in negative rater-ratee interactions, characterized by less favorable mutual regard. In view of such outcomes, it comes as little surprise that supervisors often desire to avoid a subordinate's negative reaction either by exhibiting inappropriate leniency in performance ratings or by simply failing to reprimand the employee (Fisher, 1979).

Unfortunately, failure to reprimand may subsequently result in continued substandard performance which in turn, may have long-term negative consequences both for the employee and the organization (Ilgen & Moore, 1987). Moreover, when managers finally do administer criticism, they often do so in a heightened state of emotional arousal that reflects a build-up of anger and frustration toward the low-performing employee (Baron, 1988). The negative feedback delivered under such circumstances is highly emotionally charged and destructive (Baron, 1986).

As Jacobs, Jacobs, Feldman, and Cavior (1973) have outlined, the process of transmitting and receiving feedback has a strong subjective component in that it arouses both emotional and cognitive responses. A number of studies have attempted to identify the effects, both emotional and cognitive, of negative feedback and criticism.

In a study that examined the effects of feedback on individuals in organizations, Ilgen, Fisher, and Taylor (1979) identified the sign of the feedback, that is whether it is positive or negative, as its most important message characteristic. In addition, they found that negative feedback was perceived and recalled less accurately than was positive feedback. The denial of the negative feedback was further attributed to the employees' unwillingness to accept unfavorable information about themselves. However, Ashford and Cummings (1983) noted that the tendency to avoid disquieting information was dependent upon various contextual factors.

For example, in a study that investigated the role of attributions in reactions to feedback, Liden and Mitchell (1985) found that employees preferred feedback that suggested an external cause of poor performance to feedback that attributed the employee's failure to internal, ability-related causes. In addition, subjects who received internal information regarding poor performance later reported lower ratings of intended effort on a future task. This last finding was also reported by Baron (1988), who suggested that such feedback serves to undermine the employee's feelings of self-efficacy and competence.

An additional factor that affects reactions to feedback is the amount of threat perceived by the employee (Kay, Meyer, & French, 1965). Continually apprising a
subordinate of his or her shortcomings was found to result in an increase in perceived threat and defensiveness, in addition to a decrease in later goal achievement (Kay, Meyer, & French, 1965). Similarly, Baron (1988) found that undergraduates who received destructive criticism of their work on an initial sorting task also set lower performance goals. Furthermore, Grelle (1978) reported a negative relationship between criticism and subordinates’ reported job satisfaction.

In summary, research has demonstrated that negative feedback, especially when delivered in the form of criticism or punishment, does little to encourage an improvement in job performance (Sims, 1980). Instead, the recipient of the negative feedback may misperceive or avoid the information. Such responses are especially prevalent when (a) poor performance has been attributed to internal causes, and (b) the employee has perceived a high degree of threat in the feedback situation. Finally, such feedback may serve to lower an employee’s feelings of self-efficacy as well as his or her goal-setting efforts.

Despite the potentially detrimental effects of negative feedback, such information is essential both for the promotion of organizational growth and for the direction of individual behavior (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). A salient concern among managers has been that of finding ways to effectively deliver feedback while minimizing any potential conflict. For example, in a study of managerial interest, Thomas and Schmidt (1976) found that those surveyed expressed the importance of understanding the sources and dynamics of conflict for purposes of implementing some form of anticipatory conflict management strategies.

One approach to lessening the difficulties and conflict associated with negative feedback involves the development of appropriate rater-training programs. (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984). In a review of rater-training programs, Bernardin and Buckley (1981) concluded that the anticipated encounter with the recipient of the negative feedback may be the source of the rater’s unwillingness or inability to deliver the feedback. More specifically, supervisors often feel that they will be unable to handle the subordinate’s reaction to the information. In order to strengthen supervisors’ expectations of self-efficacy with respect to such a task, the authors have suggested the implementation of mastery-based training programs. The program would involve the actual performance of difficult behavior in combination with newly acquired observational skills, verbal skills, emotional regulation strategies and relaxation techniques (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984; Bernardin & Buckley, 1981). A second approach to achieving the effective transmission of feedback involves attending to the specific characteristics of the feedback, including its timing, frequency and tone.

For example, Ilgen, Peterson, Martin, and Boeschen (1981) reported more favorable reactions and improved performance from employees when feedback was specific in nature, considerate in tone, and delivered on a frequent basis. More frequent feedback sessions for low-performing employees may also reduce the effects of negative feedback overload, which was previously reported to cause subordinate defensiveness (Kay, Meyer, & French, 1965).

Cederblom (1982) has also suggested that improved performance would be more likely to result from remedial feedback sessions that also included information on broad performance expectations.

Finally, from the perspective of punishment in organizations, Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) reported that punishment was most effective when managers were consistent in their manner of application, and when the punishment consistently occurred after every undesirable response.

Both mastery-based training programs and feedback delivery strategies will undoubtedly benefit from continued research on a number of related topics. For example, research on factors that affect the perception of feedback may prove useful for managers who wish to understand and regulate subordinate reactions, both cognitive and behavioral, to appraisal sessions (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). Similarly, Sims (1980) has underlined the need to implement experimental designs that would allow researchers to isolate the contextual factors that facilitate the transmission of negative feedback.

Futhermore, field studies on the topic of punishment may also provide managers with valuable information on the effects of remedial actions such as negative feedback. Such research might focus specifically on a number of independent variables, including the timing, scheduling, and intensity of punishment (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). In addition, the experimental designs of these studies might easily be incorporated into an organization’s training workshops, with trainees serving in either experimental or control groups. Trainees in the experimental group would apply newly learned principles of punishment, and both pre- and post-measures of the resulting employee behavior would be collected (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980; Sims, 1980).

Finally, useful information may also be derived from a knowledge of the conceptual links between human aggression, causal attributions and organizational conflict (Baron, 1984, 1985; Thomas & Schmidt, 1976).

The transmission of negative feedback for purposes of improving performance has been shown to play an important role in both organizational and employee development. Unfortunately, many supervisors and managers feel inadequately prepared either to deliver the necessary feedback, or to deal with any employee reactions which may result from the feedback session. Moreover, inappropriately delivered feedback, espe-
When delivered in the form of destructive criticism, may have a number of potentially damaging effects including poor rater-ratee interactions, decreased performance and goal setting, lowered feelings of competence for both the employee and the supervisor, and finally, decreased job satisfaction.

Continued research on mastery-based training programs, feedback delivery techniques, conflict management, and punishment approaches may yield suggestions and strategies which will serve to facilitate the effective transmission of negative feedback.

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In the tradition of courtly literature, the woman is regarded as the powerful one in a love relationship, holding a position of superiority over the male lover. She, in her exalted position, has total control over the lovesick man, who "becomes her vassal and protests absolute submission and devotion to her" (Dodd 11). The lover claims to be the woman's servant, completely in her power as evidenced by the suffering he endures for want of her: sickness, sleeplessness, chills and shivers, confusion and loss of speech in the presence of his beloved. His service and adoration of her is, in fact, often carried to the extreme of worship. Even the power of life and death is in the hands of the lady; as one of the lovers says to his lady in The Art of Courtly Love by Andreas Capellanus, "You are the cause of my suffering and the cure for my mortal pain, for you hold both my life and my death shut up in your hand" (45). However, this servitude and humility of courtly men and power and superiority of courtly ladies contradicts the social reality in which men had practically complete control of women and all aspects of their lives and women were "totally subordinate being(s) to be used, manipulated, and taught obedience" (Aers 184).

Although courtly literature appears to be a glorification of the lady, close examination of some works of this type reveals that the love relationship is depicted entirely from the male perspective. While it seems that the woman is in control of the relationship, it is the man who initiates and takes the active role in the romance. Joan M. Ferrante notes:

He selects the lady he loves or, to put it another way, he incarnates Love in a lady. Then he forms an image of her in his mind, attributes the qualities he values to that image, and worships or berates it, depending on his mood. (66)

It is particularly important to note that the lover himself is the active one, requiring no participation by the lady: he selects, incarnates, forms, attributes qualities he values, and worships or berates depending on his mood. The lady and her desires are conspicuously absent from this description. For instance, the lover in Guillaume de Lorris' The Romance of the Rose, upon seeing some rosebushes loaded with roses, "singled out one that was so very beautiful that, after (he) had examined it carefully, (he) thought that none of the others was worth anything beside it" (53). The lover later chooses to be manipulated by the God of Love, refusing to listen to Reason. Clearly, it is the lover and not the beloved who is making the decisions here. In fact, the woman, incompletely represented by the Rose, is hardly capable of being a controlling force in the relationship. Ferrante says of this scene:

The entire impulse to love comes from inside the lover—the lady is only a passive rose when he swears allegiance to Amors, even the arrows of her beauty are shot by the God of Love. . . . (109)

Further examination of courtly literature makes it obvious that the poets are concerned with the effect of love on the man. We are exposed to his inner conflicts, lovesickness, desires, and personal development. None of these aspects are dealt with from the woman's perspective. (One notable exception to this rule, Chaucer's Troilus and Criseyde, will be discussed later.) All courtly literature gives, in detail, a description of the lover's sickness and longing. The lover in The Romance of the Rose is seized by chills and shivers, his heart fails, he lies in a swoon, and he describes feeling weak as if from the loss of blood. He then describes the effects the God of Love's arrows have upon him. In all his self-centered concerns, the Rose seems to have been forgotten.

Indeed, the woman in most courtly literature, like the Rose in Romance, is not seen as a fully realized character. In The Lady in the Tower, Diane Bornstein says:

In the typical romance, little attention is given to the characterization of the lady, who exists mainly as a motivating force or source of inspiration for the knight. (9)

The main purpose of the lady is to provide motivation for the lover's action; it is not important that she play an active role in the romance. She is seen entirely through the eyes of the male character. Often in courtly literature, the male perspective results in a fragmented woman such as what we find in allegorical works popular in the Middle Ages. Women in allegories tend to be presented as abstract qualities. For example, the woman in The Romance of the Rose never appears as one complete character but is presented one attribute at a time—Resistance, Shame, Pity, Fair Welcoming. Often love and the lady become interchangeable to the lover. "The force of love that creates conflicts in the
lover operates through the lady. It is embodied in her to such an extent that she seems to be a personification of love” (Ferrante 66). The Rose in Romance is not the woman herself but a symbol of the woman’s love; however, the lover’s seeming confusion over the distinction between the woman and love is evident when he speaks of the Rose as if it were actually a woman.

In some instances, the woman is a mirror image of the lover himself. Rather than being a separate and complete person, the woman is, in the man’s eyes, “a mirror in which he sees his ideal self, what he might be. How he sees her depends on how he feels or how he thinks she is treating him” (67-8). The character and attributes of the lady are not so important as how the man feels. Love for the man is not an awakening to the beauty of the woman; it is an awakening of the lover to a fuller awareness of himself. This mirror-image idea is carried out in The Romance of the Rose when the lover gazes at his reflection in the fountain—this scene is a prelude to his discovery of the Rose.

Frequently allegorized or shown as a mirror image of her lover, the woman in courtly literature “rarely appears as a personality in the poetry,” but “remains indistinct in the background” (Dodd 12). We see of the lady only what the lover perceives to be significant—her beauty and then her coldness and aloofness toward him, aspects which are “exaggerated beyond all naturalness” (12) by the man since they are the forces which separate him from his goal. The character of the lady, then, begins and ends with the lover’s feelings toward her. Even when the tables are turned and the lady is the pursuer as in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, the poet concerns himself only with the man’s thoughts and motivations.

Despite the obvious lack of a feminine outlook in courtly literature, it was women who were the patrons of the form. Aristocratic women who presided over the courts of love, such as Eleanor of Aquitaine, Marie of Champagne, Adele of Champagne, Emmengarde of Narbonne, and Isabelle of Flanders, apparently “supported the literature of courtly love because it was ostensibly feminist” (44). Reality was not the objective these courtly ladies sought in their literature. David Aers says of the patronesses’ response to courtly literature:

Conventional romances offered a welcome escape from its audience’s world, not a painful and earnest examination of it. The formula of an outstanding knight committing his existence to the devoted service of a woman fulfilled a psychological need to create a more satisfying alternative to the real organisation of Eros and marriage in medieval society. (180)

Societal conditions were not in the woman’s favor during the Middle Ages, and the beautiful, exalted, and artificial lady of courtly literature must have been quite attractive to women who were accustomed to being considered part of a man’s property married more for her dowry than for her love. Eileen Power in her book Medieval Women expresses her belief that the lady of the Middle Ages must have read or heard romance poems “in much the same spirit in which the working girl of today, shut off from adventure, hangs rapt over romantic magazine stories” (36). Regardless of whether the idea of courtly love was merely a literary phenomenon or a real-life code-of-conduct, the objective for the courtly ladies must have been an escape from reality.

“Reality” for the medieval woman was that she was, in society’s estimation, inferior to and dependent upon man in every way. Even the upper class woman was “totally subordinate to man and to land, aristocratic marriages being primarily land transactions, and child marriages commonplace” (Aers 180). Society demanded that women be totally obedient and submissive to men. The male-dominated Church and aristocracy formed the contemporary opinion on the role of women. Church fathers exalted virginity, criticized marriage and “carnal union,” and exhorted women not to improve their appearance or, if they had natural beauty, they were told to “hide it so as not to tempt men” (Bornstein 15). The Church made clear that women should not change their appearance and should be models of chastity. The good Christian who adorns herself with virtues, remains subject to her husband, stays within her house, and occupies her hands with the distaff and spindle is a valuable partner in marriage. (15)

One of the restrictions of the aristocracy on medieval women was that a woman had no control of her dower as long as her husband lived and could in no way interfere with its management. A woman was like part of the land on her dowry—another possession to pass hands from one man to another. Only widows were entitled to the use of their dowries, making them “the most independent women in medieval society, both economically and legally” (114-15).

For all women, subservience “was considered the natural state of things rather than a mere social reality” (118). Restrictions applied not only to aristocratic women but to all classes of women right down to the peasantry. “Regardless of rank,” Bornstein notes, “every woman is told to be humble, modest, and obedient” (119). Wife-beating was considered a perfectly sound method of controlling disobedient wives. Girls were obedient to their parents, women to their husbands. In reality, women were significant only in their relationships to men as servants, lovers, wives, or mothers.

One can readily see that the ideals of courtly love in which the woman is all-powerful and the man her
servant contradict the social reality of medieval times. Courtly literature inverts the actual relations between subservient female and ruling male, placing the woman in a position of control. Eileen Power refers to this courtly standard as "little more than a veneer, a thin overlay covering and concealing wholly different modes of behavior" (27). Furthermore, courtly love itself "played a greater part in literature than it ever did in life..." (28). Aristocratic ladies may have found the idea of men totally devoted to their service quite appealing, but the literature did little more than provide a momentary escape from reality.

The game of courtly love allowed women some freedom in their relations with men and helped develop their influences as literary patrons... Yet all of this apparent exaltation of women gave them little real power... In many cases, the chivalric placement of women on a pedestal was a compensation for and a romanticization of their lack of power. (Bornstein 45)

The fiction of the courtly lover’s devotion to and worship of the lady became poetical convention in the Middle Ages. The man’s passion and lovesickness, as well as the woman’s power, were greatly exaggerated by court poets. In an essay on the medieval “game of love,” Richard F. Green suggests that “the notion of a man’s dying for love had become, by the end of the fourteenth century, a social fiction as well as a literary one” (205). Medieval noblemen were surely in no more danger of dying from unrequited love as we are today, but it seemed to have been important to them to appear to be dying for love.

The contradiction of courtly love and the social reality for women parallels the contradiction within the two main sources of opinion in the Middle Ages—the aristocracy and the Church. As mentioned earlier, the aristocracy praised women in its literature while “strictly subordinating them to the interests of its primary asset, the land” (Power 9). In the same manner, the Church was simultaneously renouncing Eve and all women as morally inferior and “elevating the Virgin Mary to the status of a cult” (Gies 37). Thus, the paradoxical view of women in courtly literature corresponds to the Church’s Eve/Mary view of women. Powers observes that

both Church and aristocracy combined to establish the doctrine of the woman’s subjection, a doctrine which was apt to be linked with the notion of her essential inferiority. On the other hand, both the Church and the aristocracy asserted, with no apparent sense of inconsistency, the counter-doctrine of the superiority of women. (19)

While most writers were following the accepted literary patterns by inverting the real medieval male-female relationship, Chaucer recognized the falsity of the courtly tradition in literature and exposed it in his Troilus and Criseyde. Aers says of Chaucer:

In Troilus he used the romance genre and the conventions of courtly literature to explore the anomalies between upper class literary conventions and realities, to explore the tensions between the place women occupied in society and the various self-images presented to them, and to imagine his way into the psychic cost for men and women in the relevant situation. (180)

Chaucer throws out the conventions of courtly love while at the same time he employs them in writing his own courtly romance. Troilus is the classic courtly lover, suffering sickness, sleeplessness, and loss of speech in Criseyde’s presence. He is utterly devoted to Criseyde and seems to be in her power. Yet we can see that Criseyde is essentially powerless. Indeed, Chaucer knows she is powerless and clearly points that fact out to the reader with his sympathetic treatment of Criseyde. Rather than follow the conventions of courtly love in his portrayal of Criseyde, Chaucer deals with the reality of her social situation, writing that

... of hire life she was ful sore in drede.
As she that yste what was best to rede;
For bothe a widewe was she and al lone
Of any frend to who she dorste her mone. (1.95-98)

From the beginning, Chaucer establishes that Criseyde is without a protector and must therefore take matters of her welfare into her own hands as best she can. One can more easily understand Criseyde’s later actions because Chaucer has been careful to make her vulnerable position know from the start.

Likewise, for the first time in courtly literature we find that the writer’s concern is with the woman—her thoughts, her actions, and the effects love has on her. We hear Criseyde thinking about whether she should accept or reject Troilus; we see her comic attempts to revive Troilus on the night of their love’s consumption; and we witness the effects Troilus’ love has on her—she relinquishes her independent status as a widow to be totally dominated by him. Unlike the Rose in The Romance of the Rose and the queen in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, Criseyde is a fully realized character that the reader is allowed to come to know through her thoughts, actions, and responses.

Throughout the poem, Chaucer places incidents which plainly show that Criseyde is powerless in a male-dominated society. In Book I, Criseyde approaches one of the most powerful men in the city.

Wel nigh out of hir wit for sorwe and fere,
In widewes habit large of samit broun,
On knees she fil biforn Ector a-doun;
With piteous voys, and tendrely weepinge,
His mercy bad, hir-selven excusinge. (1.108-12)

Here we find not the man on his knees before the
woman but the more realistic image of the woman
begging a powerful man for mercy.

A violent dream Criseyde has further exemplifies
her lack of power. She dreams that an eagle rends out
her heart with his claws and replaces it with his own
(2.905-11). Aers suggests that through this scene
"Chaucer shows us that although the dreamer feels no
pain she perceives herself as passive in the face of an
aggressive, dominating, and savage male" (186)—
certainly a contrast to traditional courtly literature.

Finally, Criseyde is to be given to the Greeks in
exchange for the prisoner Antenor. Criseyde has no
say in the matter; she is essentially a prisoner too,
although Hector, when speaking on her behalf at the
parliament, says "she nys no prisoner" (4.179) and that
they "usen here no wommen for to selle" (4.182). Still,
the fact that the men in her society have the power to
"exchange" her against her will shows that "because
Criseyde is a woman she has no different status than a
prisoner" (Aers 190). Similarly, one can see that
medieval women were like prisoners when they
changed hands in marital arrangements. Once again,
Chaucer emphasizes that the social reality women
faced contradicts the world of courtly love. By the time
Criseyde switches allegiance over to Diomede, one is
inclined to feel that, because of her position in society
and her lack of power, she has no real alternative but to
make the best of a situation she has been forced into by
the male-dominated society.

Chaucer’s ironic treatment of the courtly tradition
shows that he recognized the contradictions of courtly
literature and was concerned with exposing them and
presenting a more intellectual and imaginative analysis
of love. Psychologically and morally, Troilus and
Criseyde goes beyond the works of most court poets
who wrote formulaic romances according to well-
known conventions. Aers professes that Chaucer’s
work should have delivered us from "all abstract, one-
dimensional moralisms which blithely ignore social
realities and controls" (196)—precisely the components
of courtly literature. Whether we need to be “delivered”
from courtly literature is questionable—it is an
interesting and enlightening literary form that reveals
much about the times, even if we must look at it
suspiciously to see the true social implications. But
unquestionably Chaucer’s work served the purpose of
exposing social injustices rather than concealing them
in literature. Medieval women did not have control
over men or even over their own lives, and Chaucer’s
using the courtly form to expose the falseness of the
form is evidence of his literary expertise.

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Gabriel García Márquez's *Un día de estos* is political fiction, yet it does not focus on a particular historic act of violence. Instead, it gives the reader a sense of the fear and insecurity that permeates the society. According to George McMurray, García Márquez believed that the principal defect of the Colombian novelists of “la violencia” is their propensity to describe the brutalities of the conflict directly instead of the ambiance of terror it produced. He greatly admires Albert Camus's novel, *The Plague*, because Camus concentrates on the reactions of the healthy to the epidemic rather than on the ravages of the disease.

García Márquez wrote about the violence and fear caused by years of civil unrest. Two overriding political events had tremendous impact on the people of Colombia and García Márquez. Even though twenty years lapsed between the two events, they were closely related. They were the Banana Plantation strike in 1928 and La Violencia, a period beginning in 1948 and ending in the mid 60's.

In 1928, workers in the “Banana Zone” called a strike against the American owned United Fruit Company. Like most plantation workers in the Americas, their working conditions were deplorable. They demanded that United Fruit Company abide by Colombian labor laws and treat workers justly. United Fruit called for assistance from the military while the workers were waiting at the Cienaga train station for a management reply. The army opened fire. It is believed that 1,500 to 3,000 men, women, and children died that night and during the next week from reprisals. The army and government attempted to cover up the whole incident. They were quite successful until the return from Europe of Jorge Eliécer Gaitán, a lawyer and congressman.

Gaitán had a reputation for being a champion of the workers. He traveled to the coast to conduct his own investigation and found gross discrepancies between the official version and that of eyewitnesses. He presented his finding before congress, and the revelations shook Colombia. The army had been used to insure the status quo for a foreign company, with a total disregard for the good and safety of native Colombians. The government was completely discredited, and ministers were forced to resign.

Gaitán continued to be a powerful spokesman for the powerless and by 1946 rose to be the major spokesman of the Liberal Party. He was the Liberal presidential candidate and extremely popular among the masses. Tragically in 1948 Gaitán was assassinated and a full scale urban insurrection was unleashed in Bogota, known as the “bogotazo.” An estimated 3,000 people were killed in three days of rioting. The assassination of Gaitán marked the beginning of “La Violencia,” an extremely violent civil war between conservatives and liberals that lasted into the 1960’s.

Gabriel García Márquez was directly affected by “La Violencia.” In 1955 he became the roving European correspondent for *El Espectador*, a Bogota newspaper. The dictator Gustavo Rojas Pinilla closed *El Espectador*, along with other newspapers, in 1956. García Márquez was left stranded in Europe without employment or income. He chose, however, to live frugally, to travel, and to write. (Minta 50)

After the initial bogotazo, most of the violence took place in the rural areas where *Un día de estos* is set. The lines were clearly drawn in Colombian society; conservatives vs. liberals; rich landowners supported by the army vs. the poor and the peasants; and professionals, the mayor and former solider, vs. the poor dentist and his friends.

This is a short, understated story of a classic class struggle. The fact that it is understated requires the reader to use his imagination. The reader can feel the tension and hatred between these two opponents. The title itself gives the reader the idea that one of these days something is going to change. This unjust society cannot continue forever; and one day the powerless will have more control of their lives. Another clue to future change concerns the appearance of rain clouds, yet no rain appeared, maybe later.

The physical setting of the story is a poor, unkept dentist office. We are given descriptions of dusty spider webs and spider eggs and dead insects. There is a crumbling ceiling overhead, and buzzards are circling outside. These are symbolic motifs suggestive of the decadence of a society, a society caught in social strife and conflicting values.

There is a noticeable lack of conversation in the story. In a culture that emphasizes lengthy greetings, we are alerted by the brief, cold exchange between the mayor and the dentist. One senses once again that words are not required. Each knows the other through and through and realizes that they are on opposite sides in a life and death struggle. Pleasant greetings and trite conversation, even for a moment, have no place in this struggle. There is also a noticeable lack of
eye contact between the two adversaries. This illustrates a total lack of respect and regard for the other person.

The impoverished dentist represents the masses in Colombian society. His office is extremely poor and dull looking. He rises early and begins work. Even his striped shirt points to a society of imprisoned people, a people who are regulated, denied and poverty stricken because of injustice.

While working, the dentist peers out his window and notices buzzards flying overhead. This is an ominous warning to the dentist and reader alike that something unpleasant and possibly evil or tragic is about to happen. “La Violencia” was indeed a tragic time in the history of Colombia. It is estimated that hundreds of thousands died during the 20 year period. Most of the dead were civilians, very much like the dentist. There is a relationship between the scavenger buzzard and the mayor. The scavenger feeds off the weak and dying, while the mayor and the military prey on the marginalized in society.

An important instant in the story concerns the arrogant mayor demanding that either the dentist pull his tooth or he will be shot. The calmness of the response of the dentist is unexpected. Even though he acquiesces to the mayor this time, he is by no means resigned to his situation. “One of these days” the tables will be turned. The abscessed tooth has caused the mayor tremendous physical pain. It is obvious he is in agony. The dentist states that he must pull the tooth without anesthesia. Without giving explicit details, we can comprehend the suffering and also sense that the dentist is gaining some pleasure and revenge. He even says, “Here you will pay for 20 of our men.” Yet we realize that vengeance is only a token, a momentary act. Simultaneously the dentist experiences a moment of revenge, yet he is also able to have some compassion for an enemy by giving him a towel to wipe his tears. Here the dentist reveals his moral superiority when he shows kindness to an enemy. Not so with the mayor. We see no evidence of gratitude or human kindness. He can experience physical pain, but he is incapable of showing empathy toward others. Also, because the dentist resorts to revenge we learn that violence is accepted on both sides. One can see a vicious cycle of pain and retaliation operating in the society.

The mayor reveals the full extent of his power when he states that he and the city government are the same thing. That philosophy of power leaves few options for the powerless. They can take a fatalistic view of the situation or they can rebel. One examines the dentist’s attitude and finds no acceptance of the general’s authority. He is part of the struggle to defeat the major.

As the story ends we see the institutional power still intact. However, the conflict continues unresolved and is likely to erupt at any time in the future, as the title implies. When people’s lives are relegated to fear and abject poverty, it is only a matter of time before there is open confrontation. In order to be able to confront power, people must understand their social reality and have experienced a raised consciousness. The powerless have had some success in Latin America. Working as a group they have confronted the patron, the military, the foreign company and the government. This then is part of the story of Latin America. Gabriel Garcia Marquez, by exposing the tragedies of power and of powerlessness in a society, attempts to show us what leads to the participation of people in this struggle.

REFERENCES

AIDS: NUTRITION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

Suzanne Durfee

With the advent of modern medicine, developed nations have come to expect a longer life expectancy and freedom from uncontrollable plagues. In mid-1981, however, a viral disease of the immune system was first noticed in a population of homosexual men in New York City and California (1). Since that time, acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) has been subjected to hundreds of thousands of research hours and millions of dollars of research funds (2).

As of December, 1986, physicians and health departments had reported 28,098 patients (27,704 are adults and 394 are children) with AIDS (3). Of this total, 56% or 15,757 of the patients have died (3). Among adults, 93% of reported AIDS patients are male. Ninety percent of the males are between the ages of 20 and 49 and 63% are white, 22% are black, and 14% are Hispanic. Eighty-eight percent of the adult females with AIDS are between the ages of 20 and 49 and 27% are white, 52% are black, and 20% are Hispanic. Among children, 88% are less than 5 years old. Fifty-five percent are male and 20% are white, 57% are black, and 22% are Hispanic (3). Of the children, 79% have at least one parent with AIDS or at risk for developing the full-blown disease.

AIDS is a severely stigmatizing, lethal disease that puts at risk the health and survival of individuals within society (1). The fear of being revealed as an AIDS patient has contributed significantly to the underreporting of AIDS cases. Feldman and Johnson estimate that there are 50% more cases than are reported (1).

AIDS is best described as a viral disease of the immune system complicated by numerous other diseases and a rare form of cancer (2). In the spring of 1984, two separate research teams identified the viral agent as a retrovirus, an RNA virus that synthesizes DNA from RNA using reverse transcriptase. One group named the virus human T-cell lymphotropic virus type III (HTLV-III), and the other reported it as lymphadenopathy virus (LAV). In 1986, an international committee recommended that the virus be called human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).

The AIDS virus attacks the immune system by causing damage to the T-lymphocytes (T-cells). These are a group of white blood cells responsible for the body's defense against a broad range of microorganisms. The virus invades the T-cells and incorporates itself into the cell's DNA. When the T-cells are activated during disease, the virus reproduces itself and destroys the T-cell. The T-cell also releases the virus to enter other T-cells (2).

There are actually two types of T-cells: helper T-cells and suppressor T-cells. The helper T-cells stimulate other aspects of the immune system to operate while the suppressor cells prevent immune reactions from preceding too far. In the AIDS patient, a very drastic reduction is seen in the helper T-cells. This results in an overabundance of suppressor T-cells which further cripples the immune system. This encourages the invasion of opportunistic infections.

Death among AIDS-diagnosed patients is not due to AIDS but to the opportunistic diseases associated with AIDS (2). Over half the deaths are caused by Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia (PCP). Until recently, PCP was a disease seen in a small percentage of a very distinct patient population: those with congenital immune deficiency, those undergoing immunosuppressive therapy, or in some malnourished premature infants (4). Other deaths are due to such diseases as toxoplasmosis, cryptococcosis, cryptocosporidiosis, cytomegalovirus, nocardiosis, and mycobacterial respiratory disease. Most of these diseases are rare, and most were not considered fatal before the advent of AIDS (2). Another cause of death is Kaposi's sarcoma, a malignant cancer of the muscle and skin. Characteristic signs are bruises and lesions on the skin, especially the lower extremities (2).

AIDS is apparently transmitted through intimate contact with the body fluids of a victim (2). Homosexual men, 73% of reported cases, appear to contract the disease through sexual contact. Intravenous drug users, 17% of reported cases, acquire it from residual blood in contaminated needles (2). Hemophiliacs may be infected by transfusions of blood fractions used to provide anti-hemophilia factors.

Where, how, or why AIDS arose, no one knows positively. Some scientists theorize that AIDS originated in Africa, possibly among monkeys, and came to the United States through the Caribbean by immigrants or in imported blood (2). Some researchers have noted similarities between AIDS and protein-calorie malnutrition (PCM) (5-7). Jain and Chandra (5) hypothesize that some high risk groups have nutritional deficiencies as a result of their socioeconomic status. They show parallels between the immunological alterations found in AIDS and those seen in PCM. They suggest that those patients who are already subclinically immunodeficient may be unable to mount an effective response to the AIDS agent and could develop the full blown disease. Patients with good nutritional status may only
have chronic lymphadenopathy syndrome, inflammation of the lymph nodes, or no symptoms at all (5). Both Gray (6) and Jain and Chandra (5) suggest that the restoration of the nutritional state may be a useful adjunct to therapy for AIDS patients; and hyperalimentation, the administration of excess nutrients, could help reverse the progress of the immunodeficiency.

The complications of AIDS place its victims in a high nutritional risk category (8). Clinical symptoms of the disease include malaise, easy fatigue, fever, night sweats, unexplained weight loss, chronic diarrhea, shortness of breath, lesions of the skin or mucous membranes, lymphadenopathy, and opportunistic infections (9). The weight loss, chronic diarrhea, lesions, and infections are the most severe of the multitude of problems medical personnel must contend with in the nutrition care plan for the patient.

The nutritional status of patients with AIDS can be evaluated using established nutritional assessment techniques. Monitoring anthropometric measurements over time is well suited for these patients for they have numerous clinic visits and admissions (9). However, standard ideal body weight formulas are less valid for calculating percent of ideal weight than a patient's usual or pre-illness weight (9).

To estimate muscle mass and fat stores, arm muscle circumference, arm circumference, and triceps skinfold thickness can be compared to reference data (9). The measurements can be compared over time to determine if changes in fat stores and muscle mass are occurring. Serum albumin, total iron-binding capacity, and serum transferring values can be monitored to help identify changes in visceral proteins (9). Total lymphocyte count and hypersensitivity skin tests are not valid assessment tools since they reflect immune function which is altered in the disease (9).

Calorie expenditure can be estimated using Basal Energy Expenditure (BEE) equation (9). Estimated BEE can then be multiplied by a stress factor for enteral or parenteral nutrition, maintenance, or anabolism. Protein requirements can be based on grams per kilogram body weight or on kilocalorie to nitrogen ratio of at least 150:1 (9). Prolonged fever, a frequent symptom of AIDS, affects energy expenditure. A patient's metabolic rate increases 13% for each degree Celsius about normal (4, 9). Fever produces other nutritional considerations, such as anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and alterations in electrolyte balance (9).

Evaluation of dietary intake before and after hospital admission will provide useful information. Pre-admission dietary recalls may help in determining if patients were malnourished prior to diagnosis of AIDS (5, 6). The medical history and physical evaluations usually mention the presence of nausea, vomiting, esophagitis, anorexia, chronic diarrhea, and dehydration (9). Appropriate diet orders can be determined by considering the effects of these symptoms. After admission, daily calorie counts and nursing flow sheets can be used to compare actual nutrient intake to estimated requirements.

Although textbook information on nutrition and AIDS is rare, several articles have been published. Kotler et al (10) demonstrates that patients with AIDS suffer significant depletion of body-cell mass. O'Sullivan et al (11) report that during hospitalization AIDS patients had an average of 16% weight loss from admission weight. Garcia et al (8) find that, at death, AIDS patients had a mean weight loss of 11.8 - 7.6 kg from pre-illness weight. Chlebowski (12) explains weight loss and malnutrition seen in AIDS patients in terms of malabsorption, simple starvation, or altered metabolism, resulting in altered organ function and immune status, and in increasing mortality and morbidity.

Nutritional complications are present at various stages of AIDS. During the "asymptomatic period" few if any nutritional problems arise. However, the individual should be encouraged to practice good eating habits, to take a multiple vitamin/mineral supplement daily, and to maintain health and weight (9).

Nutritional problems, the duration and severity of them varying from individual to individual, most commonly appear during the "constitutional disease" (9). At this stage, an individual may experience constant fever, an involuntary weight loss of more than 10% of body weight, and chronic diarrhea lasting more than a month. Individualized nutritional intervention should be planned. A high-protein, high-calorie diet is routinely prescribed (9). When diarrhea is persistent, the patient may benefit from a fiber-, lactose-, and fat-restricted diet that includes a lactose-free supplement (9, 13). If dietary intervention is not effective for the diarrhea, parenteral nutrition may be necessary (9).

The many opportunistic infections and malignancies can lead to multiple nutritional problems. The pulmonary infections and Kaposi's sarcoma cause problems because of the dyspnea and coughing which inhibit oral food intake (9). Small meals, nutritious snacks, and liquid supplements can be used to increase oral intake. The opportunistic infections and malignancies can affect the entire gastrointestinal tract.

The actual intake of food may be a problem for AIDS patients. Problems range from shortness of breath and coughing inhibiting the intake to an unexplained neurological syndrome referred to as AIDS encephalopathy. The neurologic complications can cause confusion and dementia (14). The patient might not remember to eat or how to manipulate the eating utensils. There may be hand tremors, poor hand coordination, and difficulty in swallowing. Simplified meal trays with specialized eating utensils can aid the patient. Close monitoring and encouraging the patient are required (14). If swallowing is a problem, food consistency may be altered. In advanced cases, the
patient may need help in eating or a nasogastric tube might be inserted (14).

Oral and esophageal problems are common and may cause pain during eating, especially in patients with Kaposi's sarcoma. This often results in oral and esophageal lesions, sore gums, and difficulty in swallowing (14). Effective treatment is available but maintaining nutritional status is difficult until symptoms subside. Individual tolerance to foods must be determined when the patient experiences pain (14). Highly seasoned food, acidic foods, and extremes in temperature may increase irritation and be poorly tolerated (14). Fluids and blended foods minimize chewing and are easier to swallow. Nasogastric tube feeding may be necessary but may be intolerable if the patient has esophageal lesions (14).

Patients with gastrointestinal infections and diarrhea require a higher intake of energy and nutrients (14). Malabsorption of fat, monosaccharides and disaccharides, folate, Vitamin A, and Vitamin B-12 is known to occur in intestinal infections (9, 14). Infections such as Kaposi's sarcoma can be effectively treated, thus decreasing incidence of diarrhea and increase absorption. Others, such as cytomegalovirus and cryptosporidium, are more resistant to treatment. These can result in profuse diarrhea, 10-15 L/day, limiting absorption and causing rapid weight loss (9, 14). A detailed microbial workup should be conducted to determine the cause of the diarrhea. Dietary intervention for diarrhea is often unsuccessful when the small and large intestines are both involved (9). Modification with a lactose-restricted, modified-fat and -fiber diet may help the severity of the symptoms. If this is not effective, parenteral nutrition may be necessary (9). However, immunocompromised individuals are at an increased risk for infection associated with intravenous catheters (9).

Decreased appetite is a major problem in many AIDS patients (14). It may result from fever, infection, gastrointestinal symptoms, side effects of medications, and psychological and emotional issues. Small, frequent meals may be better tolerated than larger meals. Snacks and pitchers of juice can be left at the bedside to maximize caloric and nutrient intake. Nutrient-dense supplements provide the most nutrition in the least volume (14). Providing patients with meals on regular dishes instead of disposable ones can maintain food quality and promote the patient's mental well-being (14). The dietetic personnel should be encouraged to work with the timing of meals and medications and with encouraging the patient to eat (14).

The most important factor in the care of AIDS patients is to provide supportive and non-judgmental care to establish a trusting relationship (14). Nutrition treatment plans should incorporate the patient's wishes. Implementation of the plan involves daily monitoring and interaction with the patients to determine their response to the care (14).

Outpatient care is common with AIDS patients (9). The patient's physical strength and financial resources should be considered. Severe muscle atrophy, profound fatigue, and neurologic damage may interfere with the patient's ability to shop for and prepare food. Support groups, friends, and family members should be contacted when needed (9). No special precautions in kitchen care or food preparation are required (9). If the patient requires parenteral or enteral nutrition, a home-health agency should be provided with the information to help the patient (9). Financial resources must be considered if the patient is on support nutrition since it is very expensive (9).

Drug therapies, such as chemotherapy, aminoglycosides, amphotericin B, pentamidine, and azidothymidine (AZT), frequently cause nutritional side effects (9). The most frequently seen side effects are loss of appetite, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (9). Some patients will report taste alterations. The best treatment for these side effects is to work with the timing of meals and drug infusions. Small meals and snacks that are nutrient dense are important considerations.

Because a cure for AIDS is not known, afflicted individuals often try unproven or fraudulent nutrition therapies (9). Some restrict yeast-containing and high-carbohydrate foods to relieve Candida infections (9). Some follow macrobiotic diets in which protein-rich foods may be avoided (9, 14). In so doing, individuals limit foods which would otherwise provide energy and certain vitamins and minerals. Some AIDS patients take megadoses of vitamins and minerals using the rationale that if some is good, excess if better (9). To combat this misinformation, patients should be able to discuss their diet with dietetic professionals (9). The patient should not be discouraged from following a diet of his/her choice as long as it is nutritionally adequate (14).

When a patient is admitted to the hospital, many questions arise concerning foodservice precautions. Generally, no special precautions are needed (9, 14). Patients and foodservice personnel should follow good personal hygiene and sanitation standards. Appropriate food temperatures and sanitizing solution strengths are essential (9). Supplying food on regular dishes avoids compounding the patient's feelings of social isolation (9, 14). Disposable service is only necessary for those patients in strict isolation (9).

Nutrition problems that develop because of decreased immunity, opportunistic infections and malignancies, and treatment of all symptoms require assessment and individualized nutrition counseling for AIDS patients. The significant effect of AIDS on nutrition requires dietitians to play an integral role in patient care. Aggressive nutrition treatment may have a beneficial effect on response to other aspects of treatment and may help the patient with AIDS to maintain his/her quality of life and positive self-image.
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FRANCIS BACON AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

John Meyers

Circumstances of history and genetics combined to place a great man in the right place at the right time. The man was Francis Bacon; the place was London, England, a center of power and intellectual thought; and the time was the late 16th and early 17th centuries. Due to his having held high positions in government and due to his widely recognized intellect, Francis Bacon was in a unique position to promote a major change in thinking and learning. He was perhaps alone in having sufficient stature (Home xxiv) to challenge the Aristotelian school of thought which was so firmly entrenched in educational circles of that time. By considering the 17th century revolution in learning techniques and how it led to the methods of scientific inquiry in common use today, we can recognize the important contribution of Francis Bacon to the advancement of learning.

Through the centuries, the great thinkers have influenced the course of history by advancing various philosophies and systems of reasoning. As different philosophies have come to the fore, they have helped to shape the way people perceive things. "Like every other human endeavor, the ability to solve problems does not spring fullblown into a man's head. His way of thinking and his attitudes are molded by the times in which he happens to live" (Ruehlis 13). Thus, in Bacon's time, the prevailing deductive logic of Aristotle determined the general approach to learning. Deductive logic proceeds from an assumed general principle to the explanation of an individual observation or fact (Eiseley 10).

Most schools in Bacon's time were incredibly restrictive about the subject matter they would allow their students to consider. The emphasis was on exercises in formal logic and debating from Aristotelian textbooks, while ignoring other "vast spheres of knowledge" (Rossi 24). The opportunities for learning were further restricted by the secretive ways of alchemy and magic. Knowledge was hoarded, not shared. Also, the church conspired to prohibit disseminating, under pain of death or excommunication, any knowledge that church leaders felt would undermine support for their doctrines. An outstanding example was the persecution of those who wished to declare their discovery that the sun, not the earth, was the center of the solar system. In the book Francis Bacon: From Magic to Science, Paolo Rossi relates Bacon's own fitting summary of the situation:

Bacon says that education was "so managed that the last thing anyone would be likely to entertain was an unfamiliar thought," and anyhow, no one dared exercise his own judgment because "studies are confined to the works of certain authorities: a man who disagrees with them or raises awkward questions is censured as a disturbing and revolutionary influence." (42)

Also, in his New Organon, Bacon peremptorily un-masks psychological obstacles to learning "which block or distort man's perception of reality and their pursuit of truth," including "prejudices, illusions and emotional biases" (Patrick 28). He calls these illusions or obstacles "the Four Idols." Some of these illusions are common to all human nature in general (Idols of the Tribe); others affect individuals due to their training, raising, etc. (Idols of the Cave). Other illusions are promoted by imperfect or inadequate communication (Idols of the Market Place); and other illusions are passed on through religion, philosophy and history (Idols of the Theater) (Bacon, "Four" 380-381). Bacon concludes that all these idols must be "renounced and put away with a fixed and solemn determination" (Patrick 31), in order for an accurate study of nature to be made.

Against such a mountain of dogmatic ignorance and misconceptions, Francis Bacon turned the power of his great intellect. Like a breath of fresh air, his writings not only pointed out the illusions within the human mind which hinder learning, but also clearly showed the fallacy of trying to apply the deductive logic of Aristotle to all learning situations. Bacon also condemned the selfish tendency of alchemists and others to keep useful knowledge hidden, and he urged the separation of scientific studies from the smothering influence of the church. Because of his position and influence, Bacon could say what others dared not say. In doing so, he opened the door to a new way of thinking (Eiseley 16).

Having "opened the door," Bacon wanted to "commence a total reconstruction of sciences, arts, and all human knowledge, raised upon the proper foundations" (Green 132). A major tool for Bacon's proposed renewal of learning, inductive logic, is the process of inferring a general law or principle for the observation of particular instances. Bacon saw that the proper tool or technique was vital to discovering new truths about nature. This tool, a clearly defined scientific method of study, was more important than any single invention, as its use in cooperative studies would make possible a tremendous expansion of knowledge (Eiseley 9).
though inductive logic has been around since ancient times, Bacon brought it to the world’s attention as a learning tool of great potential. He “did systematize and make explicit the inductive process . . . which, largely because of Bacon, modern scientists use unreservedly” (Green 129).

Bacon’s technique was to collect known information about a topic, add new information from new experiments, compile and tabulate the results, conduct new (deeper) experiments, then by “due process of exclusion and rejection lead to an inevitable conclusion” (Patrick 25-26). This technique follows the inductive process from specific facts to general conclusions. Refinements have been made in the scientific method: Bacon, in some of his later writing (New Atlantis), added to his own procedure by suggesting the need for following up observations and experimentation with “greater observations, axioms, and aphorisms. Here, he did not clearly define the modern hypothesis, but it was implicit in such a system” (26).

Bacon sought the support of men of influence, including King James, Sir Edward Wotton and Cambridge University, in promoting the inductive method and in organizing a system for collecting scientific knowledge (Green 130). Although Bacon’s ideas did not gain the acceptance he wanted in his lifetime, “most of them have now been realized in actual practice” (Eiseley 31). His methods, once controversial, are now so commonly used that Bacon’s role in promoting them has been largely forgotten (32). Bacon’s vision of a state-supported system where each student cooperatively builds on the shared knowledge of others has become a reality (13).

The scientific method has come to include first the collecting of data through observation and experimentation, then the forming of hypotheses to explain the data, then, finally, the testing of the hypotheses with further experimentation. The emphasis is on the facts revealed by observation and experimentation, unlike Aristotelian logic which emphasizes the formal reasoning process itself and tends to discount physical observation.

If we probe deeper into the meanings, uses and limitations of inductive and deductive logic, as they compare or contrast with the “scientific method,” we are confronted with a veritable forest of conflicting ideas and semantic arguments which are far beyond the scope of this paper. The Encyclopaedia Britannica gives us a hint of the difficulties:

Clearly there may be different methods by which scientists gain knowledge in different fields of research . . . It is very difficult indeed and perhaps not very profitable to find a formula which will adequately characterize all scientific activity. For while some scientists are concerned all or most of their time with the making of generalizations from experience, others are concerned more with the elaboration of deductive systems in which such generalizations may be derived from hypotheses that cannot themselves be tested directly because they deal with un observable entities such as electromagnetic waves . . . (“Scientific”)

Rather than fall into a pit of fruitless philosophical discussion, let us rather appreciate the fact that Francis Bacon cut through the stifling theoretical cobwebs of the school of Aristotle (Rossi 43) and freed men to use an open-minded, common sense approach to learning.

There is ample testimony tracing the origin of today’s scientific research techniques to Bacon: “The fundamental principles laid down by him [Bacon] form the foundation of modern scientific method” (Bacon, “Essays” 4). “He was the first to coordinate and organize into a systematic doctrine all the elements of the inductive method, and to elucidate its application to the study and interpretation of the phenomena of Nature” (Home xxiv). However, it would be a mistake to give Bacon all the credit. He took the important first step, but others then built on his work, fine tuning it until the scientific method in its present form emerged.

There is scarcely any search for knowledge undertaken today which would not make use of the scientific method to some extent. The tremendous influence of Bacon has been acknowledged by many famous scientists and writers: Macaulay said of Bacon, “He moved the intellects which moved the world” (Green 179). Bacon’s praises were also sung by Tennyson, Descartes and Leibnitz (79). “Robert Hooke and Robert Boyle praised him [Bacon] without qualification and [after his death], he became the patron saint or presiding deity of the Royal Society” (Quinton 79). The Royal Society was an influential association of famous scientists and thinkers centered in London, which was formed as a direct result of Bacon’s writings (79).

Extensive criticism has been made of Bacon’s lack of sophistication concerning some scientific matters. Admittedly, he held to some of the old theories that have since been proven false (example: the earth-centered philosophy), and he made amateurish observations about some experiments. However, Bacon’s critics, in this case, may be like the boys who might laugh at an Einstein who absentmindedly stumbles during a thoughtful walk in the park. Their mockery reveals their own pettiness and ignorance as they have missed the whole point of Bacon’s genius. His was a genius, not for the careful observation and experimentation of the scientist, but a genius for understanding the basic thought processes and social factors affecting learning, and then using the light of reason to share his discernment with others. He saw that the learning process was being hindered by faulty logic and suggested a better way. He saw even beyond that, into the most basic learning instrument, the human
mind, and described the psychological fallacies which can lead men astray in their quest for knowledge (Bacon, "Four" 378). Knowing that his contemporaries lacked an appreciation of the world-shaking significance of his grand plan for the advancement of learning, Bacon had the foresight to preserve his ideas for the benefit of a wiser posterity. Much of our understanding of the world around and within us has come as a result of Francis Bacon's pointing the way. He gave us the outline of a powerful reserarch tool—the scientific method. It is up to us to put it to good use.

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THE 1988 PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARIES: SEARCH FOR BANDWAGONS

James Tracy Cowan

1.

Each presidential primary season, the term “momentum” becomes a catchword. All candidates, regardless of their standing, attempt to put a winning streak together so that they may capture the “big mo.” Various studies have attempted to demonstrate the effects of momentum, and many elections have provided that opportunity. Momentum has been especially important in recent years because of changes in party rules, election laws, and campaign financing. The intensification of media coverage, most importantly that of television, has also played a major role (Orren and Polsby, 1987).

Most studies of momentum have concentrated on post-1968 elections. After that election year, the Democratic Party made major changes in its nomination process. The most far-reaching change, as far as momentum is concerned, deals with delegate assigning. Delegates are now given on a proportional basis, thus giving all candidates incentive to try hard in every state in the effort to gain as many delegates as is possible (Orren and Polsby, 1987).

Another major change in the post-1968 period was effected by the federal government. The Watergate scandals were the impetus for new and stricter campaign finance laws. Limits on the amounts of contributions to candidates has forced them to start looking for money much earlier than in the past. More importantly, candidates must do well in the early stages of the campaign if they hope to continue to receive contributions. This can have a double-effect because if a candidate does not do well, he will not be able to get the necessary funds for a “media blitz” that might rejuvenate his campaign (Mayer, 1987).

Though the aforementioned factors are important, the most notable change that has occurred is the role of the media in the election process. Voters are becoming increasingly dependent on media sources, especially television, for their political information; and candidates are well aware of this fact. This has caused candidates to make planning and spending decisions based on media considerations. Because of monetary limitations, candidates now try even harder to get “free” media (Orren and Polsby, 1987).

The media has a special influence in primaries because voters have no party label to serve as a guide. The interpretations made by media analysts have a great influence on how voters perceive the candidates. Those running for office have found that they must do as well as the media analysts predict or face the risk of being considered a failure (Orren and Polsby, 1987).

The caucuses in Iowa and the primaries in New Hampshire have become very important in recent years, due to the fact that these are the first tests for the candidates. Achieving momentum in these states is now a serious concern for candidates (Bartels, 1985; Orren and Polsby, 1987) and it can be especially important for those who are not well-known (Orren and Polsby, 1987). The outcome in Iowa has a great effect in New Hampshire, and this can mostly be attributed to the impact that the media has in the process. A candidate’s success, or lack thereof, in New Hampshire is largely dependent on the media’s verdict on Iowa (Bartels, 1985; Orren and Polsby, 1987).

From 1972 to the present, the Iowa caucuses have been the first tests for the presidential candidates. Since that time, the contests in Iowa and New Hampshire have set the tone for the nomination process. In 1972, these contests showed that George McGovern had solid backing from anti-war activists and that Edmund Muskie’s support was weak (Mayer, 1987). In 1976, Jimmy Carter was probably the greatest beneficiary of the changes that have occurred. Victories in Iowa and in New Hampshire propelled him from an unknown to the position of Democratic nominee, though he actually finished second in Iowa behind the “uncommitted” category (Witoover, 1977). In 1980, George Bush improved his standing greatly by doing well in Iowa; but Ronald Reagan’s win in New Hampshire dashed his hopes. Both of the early states were of great importance to Gary Hart in 1984. His second-place finish in Iowa helped him to win in New Hampshire, and his standing went up 31% in polls after the primary while Walter Mondale lost 26% (Adams, 1987). This enabled him to have at least a chance at the Democratic nomination (Mayer, 1987).

It now seems likely that Iowa serves to weed out the weaker candidates and that New Hampshire is the first real battle between those that are left. Noteworthy, though, is the fact that the results in New Hampshire are affected by those of Iowa. There are now only eight days separating the contests in Iowa and New Hampshire, and this is important from the standpoint of momentum because time has an effect on it. With more time between the two, the effects of momentum might not be as great. The current trend, however, is to push the dates even closer together (Mayer, 1987).

Arguments continue to rage over the nomination
serve the function of providing tests for the qualities of the candidates. Others, like Polsby, claim that primaries are merely lotteries and that little knowledge can be gained from them. He also states that the media pushes the issue with expectations for the candidates (Polsby, 1983). At any rate, it seems quite clear that the media does play a great role in the presidential selection process in the United States. It is also clear that, at least in some cases, momentum plays a great role in determining who will win the respective nominations.

2.

The information on which I have drawn my own conclusions about the primary process was taken from three separate polls of Western Kentucky University students during the 1988 Spring semester. Questionnaires were distributed in Government 100 (Introduction to Political Science) and Government 110 (American National Government) classes. The survey was completed in the month of February.

These classes were chosen because they both fill General Education requirements and many students are enrolled in them for that reason. Therefore, it is likely that students from all academic fields will be found in these classes. As mentioned, three separate surveys were taken. The first was administered just prior to the Iowa caucuses. The second was administered just prior to the New Hampshire primaries. The final survey was administered just prior to the “Super Tuesday” primaries, which involved many states, but which mostly consisted of Southern states. The polling was conducted in this way so that each candidate’s standing could be judged before and after each contest.

Students were asked a wide variety of questions, with some questions being added to the subsequent surveys to determine whether or not they were following the results in Iowa and New Hampshire. Each questionnaire was coded so that each individual’s responses could be matched to the surveys that followed. This was done to determine how each person’s opinions changed, if at all. Of course, not all respondents completed each of the three surveys. It should also be noted that the questionnaires were not, and could not be, identified as to the person who completed them.

Standard survey questions such as party identification and ideology were asked. Also, two “litmus” questions were asked to determine respondent knowledge about public affairs. These questions asked if the students knew of which country Daniel Ortega is the leader and if they knew what Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev’s new policy of openness is called. Respondents were also asked how often they followed public affairs and watched television news. These questions can be related to momentum in some way. Several other questions were asked that were of little relevance to this topic. A total of 464 questionnaires were obtained from the survey.

The purpose of the surveys was to determine the presidential preferences of the respondents. In each survey, students were asked which candidate they most preferred in each party. They were then asked which was their overall favorite and how strongly they supported their choices. This was done so as to determine if preferences were solidifying over time.

Respondents were asked if they were strong in their support of their choices or if they thought they could change their minds. Respondents indicated on each questionnaire, and for both parties, that there was a good possibility that they might change their minds. They were then asked which party best represented their political views. Some observations are noteworthy. First, Jesse Jackson received almost no support from those who felt the Republican party best represented their national views. Secondly, Michael Dukakis’ and Richard Gephardt’s support increased, from Democrats and Republicans, in each successive questionnaire. Conversely, Gary Hart’s support decreased in both parties. Of the Republican candidates, the meteoric rise of Bob Dole’s support cannot be overemphasized. Among those who felt the Democratic party best represented their national views. Dole gained substantially until he was the favorite over George Bush by a percentage of nearly 3 to 1. Among Republicans, however, he was never able to get within striking distance of Bush. Also worthy of mention is the steady decrease in the number of respondents with no candidate preference. This was most noticeable among those who felt the Republican party best represented their national views.

Next respondents were asked to name the winner of the Democratic and Republican caucuses in Iowa, and these results were compared to their preferences of candidates in their respective parties. This type of comparison was an attempt to determine if a “bandwagon” effect had occurred, meaning that voters had decided to support a particular candidate because of his recent success. The most startling observations related to Richard Gephardt and Bob Dole, who were the winners in the respective caucuses. Both men received much more support from those who knew of their victories than those who did not. In this case, the bandwagon effect seemed to be quite strong.

In questionnaire 2, respondents were asked how often they watched network evening news programs, and this was related to their preferences for candidates. The most notable finding here was the large percentage of infrequent news viewers who had no preference among the Democratic candidates. This can be explained by asserting that people who do not follow the news are more likely to be apathetic. It does seem strange, however, that this was a factor only among the Democratic candidates and not among the Republicans. It should be remembered, though, the Democratic identifiers chose the Democratic candidates and
Republican identifiers chose the Republicans. Also worthy of mention is the fact that Gary Hart, Jesse Jackson, and Bob Dole received much more support from the more regular news watchers, while the opposite is true of George Bush. Respondents were then asked if they knew the country of which Daniel Ortega is the leader. Respondents were given a choice of answers. Nearly 78% of the respondents were able correctly to answer the question. They were asked to show Democratic and Republican preferences, which party respondents felt best represented their national views, and this was compared to those who did and did not know the country Ortega leads. Some things from these comparisons are worthy of mention. First, Michael Dukakis was more likely to receive support from those who correctly identified Ortega than those who did not; and this support was stronger among those who felt the Republican party best represented their national views. Bob Dole also received greater support from those correctly identifying Ortega, with the figures being near equal for both Democratic and Republican identifiers. George Bush, however, encountered just the opposite scenario, with those identifying Ortega being less likely to support him.

Respondents were also asked to name the policy of openness that has been initiated by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev. This question was also of the multiple choice type, but only about 51% could give the correct answer. Again Dukakis and Dole were stronger among those who correctly answered the question, with Bush again having the opposite effect. Among those identifying with the Democratic party at the national level, Albert Gore was less likely to receive support from those who correctly answered the question.

From the survey it was clear what trends of momentum were evident. Among the Democrats, it appears that Michael Dukakis and Richard Gephardt gained support as time passed. Gary Hart experienced a drastic nosedive. Among the Republicans, Bob Dole steadily gained ground, with most of his additional support apparently coming from those who had previously had no preference. For both Democrats and Republicans, the category of “None” fell sharply with each questionnaire.

There are several factors to consider when evaluating the properties of momentum in the election process. First, the theory behind the idea of momentum is that voters will come to prefer some candidate because of a bandwagon or “join the crowd” effect. For this to happen, voters must possess knowledge of the opinions of others. The results presented in this paper clearly show that, in some cases, momentum appears to have been a factor. This momentum had a negative effect on some candidates.

Secondly, there must be a consideration of who gains and who loses from the effects of momentum. The findings of this paper show that Richard Gephardt and Michael Dukakis seemed to gain from the downfall of Gary Hart. On the Republican side, George Bush lost ground to Bob Dole. It should be emphasized, though, that some candidates, especially the aforementioned, gained from the fact that respondents became more likely to indicate a preference rather than having none.

Finally, and most importantly, a consideration must be made of the long term effects of momentum in the presidential selection process. A candidate can easily gain momentum, but he can just as easily lose it. With the data of this paper, it is not possible to determine just what the long term effects will be because information is only available for the early stages of the campaign. There is no doubt, though, that momentum was generated by some of the candidates in the early stages.

The last of the surveys that were conducted was completed prior to the Super Tuesday primary. Thus, the changes that might have occurred among the Western students after the primary cannot be determined. It is likely, though, that the results would have been similar to those that have been obtained in polls that were taken after Super Tuesday.

The Louisville Courier-Journal conducted its “Bluegrass” polls during the primary season. These polls showed that Albert Gore had decent support in Kentucky, just as the student surveys showed. This can mostly be attributed to the “favorite son” syndrome because Gore was only able to garner support in areas surrounding his home state of Tennessee and not in any other areas. The Bluegrass Poll results also detailed the fall of Gary Hart and the rise of Michael Dukakis. Richard Gephardt was not able to gain the type of statewide momentum that he gained in the Western surveys. The Western surveys also differed in that George Bush gradually lost support in them, while he strengthened his position in the Bluegrass Polls.

David Broder (1988) cited polls from Richard Wirthlin that showed George Bush gaining 25 percentage points in the standings after his New Hampshire victory. This effect was not seen in the Western surveys. Broder states that Bob Dole had little to gain from his Iowa victory because he was already well-known.

A New York Times article of March 20 gave attention to the post Super Tuesday condition of the candidates. It stated that George Bush gained much from his overwhelming victory on March 8 and that he was sure to win the Republican nomination. The Democratic picture was less clear, though. Jesse Jackson was the only Democratic candidate who was well-known; and with the lack of a viable, well-known candidate, voters were choosing favorite sons. This was evident in the case of Albert Gore. Also, with no clear front-runner, there was no one for the others to rally against.
It appeared likely that the early cases of momentum would have little effect on the respective nominees to be chosen later in the process. The Iowa winners, Richard Gephardt and Bob Dole, fell by the wayside. Also, the second place finishers, Paul Simon and Pat Robertson, were not able to generate any lasting support. At the time of this writing, it seems likely that the third place finishers in Iowa, namely Michael Dukakis and George Bush, will take the respective nominations, with Bush being a virtual shoe-in. Despite their shortcomings in Iowa, both men were able to win in New Hampshire, thus allowing for the interpretation that momentum has become a factor since that time. Nonetheless, the effects of momentum are still not very strong. Bush was expected to do well in the South, so momentum cannot really be seen as a factor there. Also, Dukakis has suffered defeats in several contests since his New Hampshire victory.

Therefore, the verdict on momentum in the 1988 presidential campaign is mixed. In some cases, the effects seemed to be strong, while they were weak in others. The main effect, however, of momentum in this primary season is that it seems that it will have no substantial effect on the major issue: who will be the next president of the United States.

REFERENCES


GAY AND LESBIAN COUPLES

Jeff Felty

Since the early seventies, research on love has become an important topic of psychological investigation. Until recently, however, researchers have focused on heterosexual couples and ignored the millions of Americans who love partners of the same sex. It is true that homosexuals are a minority, but they are not an insignificant minority. The best estimate by sociologists and psychologists is that ten percent of the population is gay (Spong, 1986). This statistic would suggest that most families have at least one gay member in either their immediate or extended constellation (Spong, 1986).

Most psychologists agree that the family, as a social construct, is expanding to include more diverse forms (Poverny & Finch, 1988). Considering the estimates of the current gay population, one example of a different type of family is the lesbian or gay male couple, with or without children. In recent years, mental health professionals have realized the need for more adequate information on homosexual relationships. Consequently, this type of partnership has come under intense scrutiny.

There are many similarities between gay and heterosexual Couples. Peplau (1981) reported that most people want relationships with another person that are close and loving, regardless of their sexual preferences. Intimate relationships provide love, satisfaction, and security for both gays and heterosexuals. In another study, Felty and Graham (1988) found an overwhelming majority of gays and lesbians stated that they valued the confidence and sexual expression of an intimate relationship. Furthermore, in sexual interactions with a steady partner, homosexuals showed many similarities to heterosexuals. Peplau (1981) found that lesbians had sex with their partners about as often as did heterosexual women of their age in steady relationships, and that both lesbians and gay men reported considerable satisfaction in this area. With same-sex partners, however, individuals may be able to express their sexual preferences in relationships more fully (Peplau, 1981).

There are many myths and misconceptions about gay and lesbian relationships. Perhaps the most persistent is the belief that in gay relationships one partner adopts the role of “husband” and the other the role of “wife” (Peplau, 1981). Although heterosexual couples tend to adopt the traditional marriage model for their relationships, most gay men and lesbians reject marriage as a model for love relationships (Peplau, 1981). Instead, gay relationships tend to resemble “best friendships” with the added component of romantic and erotic attachment.

Current research suggests that lesbians and gay men espoused an ideal of egalitarianism for their relationships, wanting partners to share power and responsibilities equally (Peplau, 1981). Harry (1983) mentions two important factors that contribute to egalitarianism in gay relationships. First, neither partner supports the other economically since most gay couples are dual-career couples. Second, since gay couples are the same sex, there are no economic consequences of sex discrimination. Income does not give one person in the relationship greater power.

One major difference between homosexuals and heterosexuals does emerge in the area of sexual exclusivity. Peplau (1981) points out that gay men and lesbians rate sexual fidelity as somewhat less important than heterosexuals. However, the sources of sexual permissiveness may differ for lesbians and gay men. For the men, sexual openness may stem from the emphasis on sexual expression found in the traditional male gender-role socialization. For the women, it may be tied to feminist critiques of monogamy (Peplau, 1981).

Like those of heterosexual men, the relationships of gay men are often relatively short; in our culture, it is common for men to first respond to a partner sexually and then emotionally (Bell & Weinberg, 1978). Lesbians usually form more lasting relationships than do gay men, reflecting female socialization patterns; just like heterosexual women, lesbians have internalized the norms of combining love and sexuality (Bell & Weinberg, 1978). Thus it would seem that gender exerts a greater influence on the relationship than does sexual orientation (Peplau, 1981). Women’s goals in the intimate relationships are similar whether the partner is male or female. The same is true for the men. So the stability (perhaps even the entire character) of the relationship may depend less on whether the partners are heterosexual or homosexual than on whether they are men or women (Peplau, 1981). Another factor related to relationship stability among homosexuals is one’s religious orientation. Felty and Graham (1988) found that gay men and lesbians within a homosexual Christian community reported nearly the same degree of relationship stability. As with heterosexual men, gay men of the Christian faith may seek a more lasting relationship because of their religious beliefs.

In recent years, a major concern of gay men and
lesbians has been a lack of legal status for homosexual partnerships. Due to the inability of same-sex couples to enter into a legally recognized relationship, these families are placed under considerable personal, economic, and social constraints (Proverny & Finch, 1988). Because no state currently recognizes homosexual marriage, couples have been forced to devise individual solutions, such as wills and relationship contracts, to protect their claims to partner benefits (Findlen, 1988). However, the American Civil Liberties Union recently gave unprecedented public support to efforts to legalize marriage for gay and lesbian couples (Findlen, 1987). Legal recognition of gay relationships would provide previously unattainable protections, including insurance benefits, the option of filing joint income tax returns, visitation and next-of-kin rights when a partner is hospitalized, and survivorship rights when a partner dies (Findlen, 1987).

Another topic of recent debate involves child custody rights for gay men and lesbians. Proverny and Finch (1988) estimated that at least one-third of all lesbians are mothers and have children living in their homes. Accurate information on the prevalence of gay fathers who live with their children is virtually nonexistent. Despite this information, social policies and practices remain unsupportive of the gay family. To understand some of these constraining forces, Hitchens and Price (1979) identified the commonly held assumptions/misconceptions about lesbian mothers and gay fathers: they molest children and engage in sexual activity in front of children; their children will grow up to be lesbian or gay and will be confused about their gender identity; the presence of a lover in the home will be detrimental to the children. Even though no evidence substantiates these beliefs, many gay men and lesbians are denied child custody or visitation rights by the courts. Despite these constraints, homosexual men and women continue to raise children from previous heterosexual relationships as single parents or as co-partners with a partner (Proverny & Finch, 1988). However, legal protections for children, government services, and social supports continue to be a major concern for these couples.

As one can see, the realities of gay and lesbian relationships are quite different from the myths. The picture that emerges from the research is that homosexual relationships are often emotionally close and personally gratifying. Despite this knowledge, people will always be dissatisfied with a relationship, regardless of their sexual preference. For this reason, research on gay and lesbian couples will continue to spark the interest of mental health professionals.

REFERENCES


THE RITALIN CONTROVERSY: HYPERACTIVE CHILDREN AND MEDICATION

Penny Basham

Hyperactive children, who have perplexed and exhausted parents and teachers for many centuries, generally evoke negative reactions from society. Though they are often highly intelligent and imaginative, studies prove that overactive children tend to experience difficulties during their school years. Thomas Edison, for example, was continually in trouble throughout his childhood. Infuriated by his incessant questions, unbridled energy, and many experiments, Edison's teachers were probably relieved when his mother withdrew him from school and taught him at home. As a child Winston Churchill, another "bundle of energy," could not keep a governess. At one school, the exasperated teachers permitted the boy to leave his studies at regular intervals to run around the school grounds (Ross and Ross, 1976, pp. 1-2). Had these two great men grown up in today's world, they probably would have been placed on a psychotropic drug such as Ritalin or Dexedrine—the two central nervous system stimulants that are most often prescribed for hyperactivity (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 98). Though in some cases drug therapy is warranted and produces desirable results, there is substantial proof that many children are subjected to drug treatment simply because it is an easy way to maintain peace and quiet at home and in the classrooms.

Using drugs for behavior control in the classrooms first came to public attention in 1970 when it was reported that between five and ten percent of the children in Omaha, Nebraska, were being given drugs such as Ritalin for hyperactivity (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 20). This startling report, though it was later found to be fallacious (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 96), elicited a tremendous response from the American public. People began to take sides on this controversial issue. One group of people—those who did not like the old methods of control such as spankings and school suspension—supported the idea of medicating overactive children. Critics of the new treatment saw the medicines as "masks" that prevented the real problems, if indeed there were real problems, from being solved (Schrag and Divoky, 1975, pp. 79-80). Based on the two questions: 1) Do the Children who are prescribed medication really need it? and 2) Are the drug programs properly managed? this issue is no less controversial today (Gadow, 1986, p. 5).

As a result of the Omaha incident numerous publications have been written to establish guidelines for the use of medication as a treatment of hyperactivity (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 117). These publications stress a "conservative approach to the use of medication" (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 117). In addition, physicians are supposed to carefully evaluate the child and his surroundings, scrutinize alternative treatments, and monitor the drug program. It is a proven fact that many doctors do not follow these guidelines; in fact, many recommend medication for a child after only one consultation. Even more alarming is the fact that some doctors prescribe medication before they even see the child (Ross and Ross, 1976, pp. 117-118).

Maintaining that parents and teachers conspire to quiet rambunctious children by placing them in "chemical straight jackets," critics protest that treatment using medication is "taking the easy way out" (Gadow, 1986, p. 31). This seems to be exactly what many wealthy Atlanta parents did in 1986. In January of 1987, Georgia's Composite State Board of Medical Examiners and the federal Drug Enforcement Administration investigated allegations that a large number of Atlanta school children were receiving large doses of Ritalin instead of the counseling they needed. The drug officials became suspicious when they noticed large quantities of the stimulant drug coming across the state line. Checking the ZIP codes, the investigators found that forty-five percent of the sales were accounted for by pharmacies in a few wealthy suburbs of Atlanta. People began to surmise that Ritalin was the answer for teachers who wanted peaceful classrooms and parents who wanted successful children. According to Brian Conlan, a California social worker, medicating these children might make them more obedient but that in so doing the real problems were being overlooked. He used the analogy: "It's like putting someone on Valium to cope with a bad marriage." (Salholz, Washington, and Drew, 1987, p. 76)

In light of these facts, several issues need to be faced concerning drug behavior-modification programs. These include: 1) the risk of contributing to the drug culture by teaching the child to take pills as a way of solving problems, 2) the possible use of drugs for social control, and 3) the lack of documented evidence about both the long-term effects and the immediate side effects of drugs" (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 20). Critics of the program are justified in their concern. Many children and teenagers have learned that they need pills to function properly. This is shown by the fact that, during the nineteen seventies, school children
learned new words to old tunes: "I got my Rit-lin; you got your Dex. Slip us a pill; we won't be wrecks" (Schrag and Divoky, 1975, p. 81). Though there is no evidence that the stimulant drugs lead to addiction, they very often become "psychological crutches" (Feingold, 1975, p. 63) for troubled children.

In addition to harming a child's self-image, Ritalin has some serious physical side effects when given to children who do not need it. Some short term side effects are insomnia, anorexia, sadness, fearfulness, sleepiness, nail-biting, and social withdrawing. Knowledge of the long-term effects of these drugs is practically non-existent. The two major long-term risks that have been observed are increased heart rate and growth suppression. With regard to growth suppression, however, it has been found that after discontinuation of the medication, growth returns to normal (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 111).

Stimulant medication can have positive effects when used correctly. For example, increases in visual-motor coordination and motor steadiness generally result following doses of Ritalin or other stimulant drugs (Ross and Ross, 1976, p. 128). Studies also show that classroom behavior improves when medication is given to a hyperactive child. There are several stipulations to these improvements, though—the main one being that the medication does eventually wear off and the child returns to his usual rowdy self (Gadow, 1986, p. 57).

Many thousands of school children are labeled hyperactive by their teachers and parents. Only a small fraction of these children are actually "sick" enough to be put on medication. There are many success stories where children who had always been hyperactive calmed down significantly after adhering to a diet which eliminated all foods and drugs that were artificially flavored or dyed, as well as those that contained natural salicylates (Feingold, 1975, p. 9). According to F. D. Gadow, there is no evidence to support the idea that children treated with medication are better off than children who do not receive it. In light of the information, and lack of information in some cases, it seems to be an unnecessary risk to treat hyperactive children with stimulant drugs unless it is absolutely the last alternative.

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