Hamad M. AL-Marei

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Letters in Concert

Collection of work to tell it as it is

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Kuwait 1998

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حمد محمد المرعي

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(1971 - 1964)

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Letters in Concert

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Economic Growth of Kuwait 1900 - 1960

March 1964

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ECONOMIC GROWTH LOF KUWAIT.

A few words of introduction to the background of the
Kuwaitis is necessary before the subject offthe growth and
development of Kuwait is touched upon.

Kuwait is a small Arab state in the Middle East. It
has a socialist, limited monarchy form of goverment.

In its early days - 1800 A.D. and before - the population
was very few. The only source of wealth depended on the sea and
the small agriaultural land and pastures that existed around,
the oasis..

After the 1800's until World War I the population
increased and started looking some other sources lof wealth
Beside fishing and searching for pearls which thx were the
main sources in those days, the people turned to commercial
business with India, East Africa, and the neighbouring
countries and boat building. Kuwait after the 1900's
became a commercial port and trading and lboat building
industries increased and flourished.

The era from the 1900's until the 1960's could lbe
divided into three stages: the first from 1900 to 1918
the second from 1915 to thespresenthttuefrom 1145 to lthe
present time.

In the first stage, the economy of the country was growing,
income began rising, and social condition began improving.

The second stage was signified by the decline of bhe
pearl market because the Japanese cultivated pearls.
Merever the boat building industry lost its importance
because of the appearence of the big ships and steamers

around the area. Thus the economical activities were inactive, except for commercial trade.

After World War II, the third stage of the economical development began. With the decline of the pearl market, the search for oil started to give significant results.

In 1936, a company named Kuwait Oil Company (50% British Petroleum "Kuwait" Limited Company, and 50% Gulf Kuwait Company which is American) signed an agreement with the goverment to search for oil. The contract was limited to 75 years later extended to16 years in 1950, the goverment took 25% of the production and 50% of the profit after the posted price.

Another company, named the American Independent Oil Company, signed a contract in 1948 on the same terms as the former one and started searching for oil.

The search for oil was very successful, and the production in 1946 was 797,000 long tons and in 1948 was 2,185,000 long tons. The revenue from the oil produced in the first 4 years was about $15,000,000. Farther quantities of refined and distillated oil were produced and brought income into the country. The income began to increase.

Three other oil companies, besides the first two, started working in Kuwait. Those were as follows: (1) The Arabian Oil Company, a Japanese company started in 1958. The contract was for forty years, with 57% of the profit going to the goverment. (2) Kuwait Shell Petroleum Development Company ---1961. (3) Kuwait National Petroleum Company ---1961. 60% oil

60% of its stocks are owned by the goverment. 40% are owned by stock holders from the people.

The income from oil began to rise since 1946. The income in 1946 was $1,500,000; in 1955 was $280,000,000; 1964 was $660,000,000. This source of income has had its effects on the economic growth of the country.

In 1946 there wasn't a single company or bank that had a capital beyond $500,000. Today there is more than a dozen big investment companies and banks with initial capital in the millions. Some of them are:

1) National Bank of Kuwait, established in 1950 with a a capital of $3,000,000. Then increased to $10,000,000.

2) Kuwait Airways, established in 1953 with capital of $500,000. In 1955 the goverment bought 50% of the Company's stocks; and in 1960 the whole company was sold to the goverment, and the capitalws increased to $15,000,000

3) Kuwait Tankers Company was established in 1958and has a capital of $15,000,000.

4) Kuwait Investment Company which is 50% goverment owned, was established in 1958 with a capital of $180,000,000.

5) Commercial Bank of Kuwait was established in 1960 with a capital of $4,000,000.

6) National Industries Company which is goverment owned was established in 1960.

7) Credit Bank of Kuwait was established in 1960.

8) Kuwait Petrochemical Company was established in 1961

with a capital of $21,000,000 with shares (450) owned by
the goverment. The other 40% is owned by an Italian
Company and the remainder 2% is owned by stock holders
in Kuwait. This company is now in the process of liquidation
and is amalgamated with the Kuwait National Petroleum
Company.

9) Kuwait Transport Company which is 50% owned by the
goverment was established in 1962 with a capital of $0,
$1,000,000.

10) Kuwait Hotels Company which is 25% goverment owned
was established in 1958 with a capital of $3,000,000.

11) Kuwait Trust Bank was established in 1962 with
a capital of $30,000,000.

Morever, Kuwait is investing about $900,000,000 in
England (Kuwait Investment Board), and in the U.S.A.
(First National City Trust Company). The Arab-African
Bank with a capital of $90,000,000, $35% of this capital
is owned by Kuwait. The Kuwait Fund for Arab economic
development is a $300,000,000 govermental project
to give loans to the Arab countries.

Kuwait is a subscriber to the World Bank and owns
667 shares or the equivalent of $200,000,000. She is also
a subscriber to the International Finance Corporation
with $1,170,000, and to the International Development
Association with $30,080,000. Kuwait became a member of
the International Monetry Fund, in which her quota is
$50,000,000.

The increase of income which has come to the country
recently, has a lot to do with improvement of social

Facts and Figures   Facts

I. The fiscal year of 1961 - 1962
   1) Income: Oil income $492,000,000
            Customs and port dues 112,922,806
            Other sources 32,489,088
                          Total $537,411,894

   Foreign Trade:
            Import $305,700,000

   From: U.S.A.- 21%; Britain - 19%; West Germany - 9%;

   Japan - 9%; Others - 42%.

            Export:
               1)Oil: The equivalent tons to:
   U.S.S.A.& Canada 7%, Latin America 2.5%, Aden 3.9%,

         Malaya 3.1%, Australia 3.1%.
               2)$24,300,000 worth of goods to:
         Iran 42%, Saudia Arabia 19%, Iraq 15%, Others 24%.
   3) Expenditures:..................... $519300697.
      The budget was as follows:
Health, Education, Social Affairs, Broadcasting, and Television
Public Service..................................... $875,200,000
Development.. 008,000,000
Public Utilities.................................. 228956000006
Others.. 42,000,000
                                                   105,500,000

II. The fiscal year of 1964-1965
   1) Income.....................................$615,000,000
   2) Expenditure................................ 600,000,000

Kuwait's revenue and the oil production figures:

Year	Revenue	Oil production
1955	$300,000	54,000 long tons
1956	312,000	54,900
1957	330,000	58,000
1958	384,000	71,000
1959	480,000	71,000
1960	490,000	84,000
1961	498,000	86,000
1962	510,000	97,000

Prices of some commodities in Kuwait:

Kind	Amount	Price
rice	200.00 lbs.	$24.00
sugar	225.	31.00
tea	...6.00	5.50
cooking oil	40.00	9.00
potatoes	12 cans	1.50
tomatoes	12 doz.	.80
eggs	12 doz.	.80
bread	2.25 lbs.	.30
meat	2.25 lbs.	1.00
fish	1.00 lbs.	.60
gasoline	1000 gal.	.15
cigarette	1.00 pk.	.15
water	10000.00 gal.	4.00

The First Five Year Plan

The First Five Years Plan is a $2,100,000,000 economical and developmental project proposed for the years 1966-1970. Some of the main points of this plan are:

I. Increase the national income by 8.5% per year.
II. Increase the exports and decrease the imports.
III. Increase the productivity of labor.
IV. Raise the standard of living by increasing the income and the expenditure by 24% per person.
V. Diversification of the sources of income.

Thus by 1917 the gross national product should be increased by 42%. The fifth point is the most important, since Kuwait's income depends on oil.

In 1964 Kuwait attained the highest per capita income in the world; the annual national income per family was $30,000.

حمد محمد المرعي

النمو الإقتصادي في الكويت :
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مارس ١٩٦٤

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

The **Tudor** *Royal Family*

A Study of Imperial Europe

2

The Tudor Family

Hamad Al-Marei

History 102

credit

I. Background

    1. The Renissance

    2. The Reformation
       A. The Catholic Church
       B. Germany and Switzerland
       C. England
       1.English Scholars from Oxford University.
       2.Tudor's Monarchy

II. Tudor Family

    1. Henry VII

    2. Henry VIII

       A. Wolsey
       B. Break with Roman Catholic Church
       1. Reformation Parliment
       2. Supremecy Act

    3. Edward VI

       1. Duke of Somerset
       2. Duke of Northumberland

    4. Mary Tudor

       A. Catholic Reformation in Europe
       B. Return to Catholicism

    5. Elizabeth Tudor
       A. Completion of Reformation
       B. Peaceful Conditîons

III. England and Scotland

    1. Mary Stuart
       A. Plot to gain throne

IV. England and Spain

       A. Elizabeth and Phillip
       B. Armada

V. England and Scotland

    1. Irish Rebellions
    2. Defeat

Background

The Renissance as we are aware, was the big step toward our new civilation. The cultural, industrial and commercial progress that happened between the thirteenth and the sixteenth century put Europe in a condition for the struggle toward Nationalist, religious, and economic cases. Most important of it was Protestant Reformation, or the Protestant Revolution against the Papal State headed by the Pope, for politicial, economical and national cases. Germany, Switzerland, Northern Europe and England all turned to be against the Catholic Church.

Although the reformation in England was slower than, for instance, Germany or Switzerland, for one reason or another. The seeds of the reformation found fertile soil in Germany, Switzerland because politicial unrest there. England at this time was more politicially and socially stable.

The original blow against the Roman Church in England was not struck by a religious enthusiasts, like Luther or Calvin but by the head of the government. The Oxford reformers who served as pioneers of the renissance in England consists of English scholars of Oxford University. They were Thomas Linacre from Italy who was studying medicine. William Grocyn who had studied Greek in Italy and later taught at Oxford. John Colet, showed much interest in writings of Plato, later became dean of St.Pauls in London. The fourth, Thomas More, was the son of a lawyer , he later wrote the Utopia. A fifth scholar was Erasmus, who became a proffessor at Cambridge. His greatest work was the Praise of the Folly, a satire on the weakness of society and of the church. He also translated the New Testament into good Latin.

The Tudors and The Reformation

The Tudor period was one of strong monarchs and weak Parliments. The nobles had been weakened through previous wars, and even the church depended on the Tudors for aid. The support of the middle class toward their government was because of a grateful feeling for the general peace and commercial prosperity that seemed evedent then.

The leader at the beginning of this time was Henry VII, a grandson of the widow of Henry V and Owen Tudor. He disposed of several rival claimants to the throne. Two of them that were in line to sucession to the throne were Lambert Simnel, who by impersonation lay claim to the throne. The rebellion was crushed early. Another rival; Patrick Warbeck, also posed as a Yorkist leader and gained Scotch support, but he too, failed and was hanged. Henry VII then also disposed of another possible rival with a trumped up criminal charge. As a ruler Henry VII handled domestic affairs in good order, conducted a frugal government, conciliated or punished the dissatisfied elements, and encouraged commerce and industry along with colonization.

In Earlier periods of English history the feudal nobles dictated to the king on many occasions, but found that they could no longer do this since they now in the middle and lower classes. Henry VII rigidly enforced an Act of Parliment against cases concerning Livery and Maintenence, unlawful acts and various misconducts. The law later fell into

disfavor with the courts, but for the time it was used it
served the purpose.Another blow that was struck to the nobles
was the appointing of a Star Chamber, whose members were all
appointed by the king. He encouraged the lower classes, both in his
appointments and by his promotion of commerce and industry.

One of his first aims was to strengthen the authority
of the crown. He was able to do this by collecting taxes,
increasing the function of the Justices of the peace in local
courts. This was all part of a firm strengthening of the
central administrative system. The king seized lands of
those who opposed him, increased the customs duties and
made new agreements and carefully tended royal estates.

Henry VII pursued a conciliatory and cautious attitude
toward the church and early in his reign he recieved a
confirmation from the Pope to his title to the throne.
The Pope excommunicated several persons who offered a
threat to the king. The Pope also consented to many
ecclesiastical appointments of Henry's friends. He sought
to maintain peace with Europe, but made no attempts to revive
his rights to the French Throne. The king was also able
to make several marriage alliances during this time, through
the marriages of his son, daughter and sister who all
married into royal families. During this time the social
life declined, the nobles had difficulty holding their
financial and social standing. The middle classes were
prospering.

Henry VIII came to the throne while he was very young.
He has created a lasting impression on contempory writers.
A captivating person, he was proud and personally ambitious.
He showed remarkable talent toward languages and theology.

Early in his reign he entrusted many affairs of state to
Wolsey, who continued throughout the reign of the king.
During this time Wolsey was a cardinal and had hopes of
becoming a Pope. Henry VIII became known as a "Defender
of the Faith",at this time he had ordered the burning of all
of Luther writings. Henry and Wolsey both had maintained
their zeal for personal reasons. When a Papal vacancy
occured in 1523, Wolsey failed to be elected. He blamed
Charles V of Spain for his failure, thus began the broken
friendship between Spain and England. Charles won the
Battle of Pavia(1525) against the French king, and refused
to aid Henry in his efforts to regain Englands old posses-
ions in France. Charles also failed to marry Henry's
daughter and chose an Infanta from Portugal.

Henry VIII was becoming dissapointed with his wife
Catherine, who had not provided him with a male heir to the
throne. He tried to question the validity of the marriage.
This took much time and discussion between the Pope and
Wolsey who were in doubt and hesitating to annul a marriage
that had been sanctioned by a previous Pope. They finally
created a commision to investigate the matter. This was
headed by Catherine's kinsman, Charles V, of Spain. Henry
had lost all of his patience by now and secured an annulment
in one of his own courts, so that he could marry,Anne Boylen,
a lady-in-waiting from the Queens court.

These actions caused Henry to decide to make a break
with Rome unless the Pope yielded. He called Parliment
into session, this was called the Reformation-Parliment.
It stayed in session 7 yrs.(1529-1536), aiding him immensely
in completing his separation from Rome. The Act of Appeals

was passed which provided that now all English cases in-
vowling the clergy be tried in English courts. This act
also forbade the payments of annates or other money to
the Pope. Henry was made supreme head of the Church.of
England. The throne was settled on the heirs of Henry
and Anne Boylen. Although Henry led the English out
of the Catholic fold, he remained a catholic in many of
his beliefs. He continued to be a strong foe of "Luthernism"
and wrote the Ten Articles of Faith in 1536, to illustrate
his hostility and probably represent his own religious
ideas.

The king realized that the monestaries would remain
loyal to the Pope instead of to him. He wanted to acquire
their immense wealth for himself and set out to destroy
them. They were forced or persuaded to close by acts of
Parliment that made it impossible for them to remain open.
This action had aftermath of many problems during the
years that followed. The masses of lower classes were
resentful and staged many uprisings.

Henry had his wife,Anne, executed on a charghe of high
treason after she had borne him a daughter. He married
Jane Seymour, who died shortly after giving birth to a son.
Henry then married Anne of Cleves, without meeting her, he
had been told she was beautiful which was not true. He
soon annulled the marriage and took a fifth wife who he
charged with infidelity after she had been queen for fifteen
months. His sixth and last wife outlived him and remarried
after his death.

Henry's policies whether good or ill, severed English connection completely with the church of Rome. His sales of the monastic lands contributed to the successful severence. He encouraged naval construction and many regard him now as Father of the English Navy.

Edward VI, youngest son of Jane Seymour, was elected king when he was only nine yrs old. Since he was so young a regent was named. His uncle, the Duke of Somerset, became regent and headed a council of 16 members who governed England. He tried to aid Protestantism, and untie England and Scotland by force and to ignore the French.

Parliment repealed the Six Articles Act and decreed that no more heretics be burned. It is also provided for the confiscation of the chantries. The great nobles and wealthy landlords profited greatly, but the chantry priests were allowed to continue their grammar schools. A committee headed by Archbishop Grammer prepared a Book of Common Prayer, in which the first Act of Uniformity required all clergy to use it. The Duke of Somerset's inability to handle the economic struggle led to his downfall. With this downfall, the Duke of Northumberland was determined to rule in fact if not in name. Under his leadership the definitions for treason were enlarged, and more lands were seized. A Second Act of Uniformity was passed(1552) requiring all people to attend services and the clergy to use the Second Book of Common Prayer, which contained most of the new protestant materials.

After the death of Edward VI(1553),Northumberland sought
to continue the protestant regime by appointing Lady Jane Grey,
Henry's neice rather than his daughter who was Catholic.
Her name was Mary Tudor and she was finally crowned queen
after Northumberlands religious policies reacted against
him.

The new queen had been raised a Catholic, her religious
experiences had convinced her that her supreme mission was
to restore the Catholic faith to England. Mary's policy
harmonized with a movement which was then going in Europe;
The Catholic Reformation. Serious minded Catholics had
long recognized the existence of evils in their church and
the rapid spread of protestantism now stirred them to
greater activity. A great council met at Trent(1545-1563)
and restored its doctrines in unmistakeable terms, also
denounced protestantism,provided for the reform of
certian evils, and began the publication of the Index.
Another effective instrument of the Catholic reformation
was the Society of Jesus.

Many English people whosstill like the old forms of
worship were stirred by the monks and other disatisfied
elements. This led to resentment against their abolition.
Others were alienated by the extreme protestantism of Edwards
regime. Naturally the new Sovereign,Mary, was determined to
bring England back to its old religious moorings. Shortly
after the queen was crowned, Parliment repealed all the
laws of Edwards reign touching the religion, and on bended
knees recieved the Papal Legat who forgave England and
recieved her back into the Catholic Church. Mary wanted
to restore all the confiscated church property, but in this

she encountered so much opposition that she yielded.

The queen went about the work of restoring alters in the church. She replaced the married clergy with unmarried ones. She restored to heresy trials and to the burning of heretics who refused to reform. About 300 people met death at the stake during the reign. Some of the most prominent being Latimer, Ridley and Cranmer. These persuc- ations destroyed what popularity she had and the public opinion once more away from the Church of Rome. It is because of them that she is known as "Bloody Mary". After her death, her successor was her sister Elizabeth.

Although she was a child of a marriage which Catholic condemned and thence she was a protestant by necessity. She was neither bigoted or indeed very religious. To prevent a Catholic coalition against England became her first aim. She did this by flirting with Catholic princes, and extended secret aid to the revolting Netherlands. She desired to keep her country out of war so that it might return to prosperity. She wanted to untie her people in the support of the government and to uphold the prot- estant supremecy. Although England had become protestant, many Catholics remained there. The Anglicans labored under a disadvantage of not having a definite and well-established system of doctrine. Moreover, Calvinism was prospering under the Puritanism was gaining ground daily. Apparently the Queen herself favored Anglicanism, but She sought to avoid extreme directions having to persecute anyone was the least of her desires. The Parliment repealed the heresy acts of the previous regime and passed the Act of Supremecy. That law renounced the English allegiance to the Pope and recognized Elizabeth as the "Supreme Governer" of the church in England.

All government and church officials were required to take an oath of allegience to the new church head. Parliment also passed the Act of Uniformity(1559)which decreed that all church services should be held only according to to the Second Prayer Book of Edward VI, with some revisions. Mary's bishops lost their sees, and more protestant ones took their places. The act displeased many, especially the Pope, who denounced Prayer Books and forbade Catholics to attend the English church services.. The final act of the religious settlement was the adoption of the Thirty-nine Articles of Faith(1563) in which the phraseology was made purposely vague to avoid offending those who leanedtoward Luthernism and Catholicism.

Certian of the Prostestants wanted to purge the church of those practices that savored of Catholicism, and when they failed to secure their wishes in a church Convocation(1563), they began to hold meetings where the Prayer Book was not used. Another group of protestants wanted a Presbyterian, rather than an Episcipol form of church government; and in their "Admonitions to Parliment"(1572) they voiced their demands. A third group, the Separatists, demanded a strictly congregational government and objected to forms and ceremonies. The government took repressive action against these groups. It established a Court of High Commission (1559) and later enlarged its powers (1583) to enable it to try cases involving all Non-Conformists. Another act (1593) provided banishment for all who attended meetings of dissenters or who denied royal supremacy in church matters. At the close of Elizabeth's reign, Anglicanism had become firmly established, and its support was considered a patriotic duty. Both the Catholics and the Non-Conformists, hoever, continued to have many adherents.

Mary Stuart ruled Scotland after the death of her husband Francis II of France. Her French background alienated many, and her Catholic religion caused trouble for her and Knox. She married Darnely who was murdered by assiatan. She later married the Assasian, Bothwell. In the civil war she was captured and forced to abdicate in favor of her infant son. She escaped, rebelled, and was defeated and finally returned to England. The Pope added to the confusion by declaring Elizabeth unfit to hold the throne and excommunicating her. (1570) One attempt was even made to assinate her by Ridolfi. Later another plot by Babington and others to put Mary on the throne of England was uncovered, her implication in the plot sealed her doom. She was beheaded in 1587. Elizabeth sought to delay trouble by pretending interest in a marriage with Phillip II, accompanied by her, returning to Catholicism: but at the same time she was sending aid to Spain's rebeling subjects in the Netherlands. Phillip for his part aided in plots to place Mary on the throne of England, after her death he then claimed the throne for himself. To enforce his claim he sent 130 vessels against The British Isles; but the Invincible Armada suffered destruction at the hands of the elements and the British navy. This decided the war, and united England under Elizabeth, ended the Catholic threat, and marked the beginning of English naval supremecy.

The Irish remained Catholic and dissaffected. Parliment sent a body there to enforce the Poying's law. This added to the dissolution of the monestaries and the efforts to enforce Anglicanism made more trouble. Henry VIII had bribed them, Mary Tudor had restored Catholicism, Edward VI surpressed a rebellion

amd took more land from them. During Elizabeth's rule, the
Spanish once more stirred them to rebellion. Later an English
force under Lord Mountbatten defeated the Irish and their
Spanish Allies. After that, Ireland remained comparatively
quiet.

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عائلـــة الـ تيـــودور الملكيـــة
دراسة لأوربا الإمبراطورية

فبراير ١٩٦٨

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Aspects on social Organization
A Study of Social Stratification

March 1968

3

Aspects on Social Organization

By

Hamad M Al-Marei

Dr. Frank Vicroy
Social Organization - A491
University Of Louisville
Spring 1968

Aspects on Social Organization

Contents

I. <u>Symbolic Indicators</u> : -

Social Class position has many different behavioral manifestations. The individual in society selects from among these various behavioral manifestations several that serve him as indicators of social class position. These social class indicators of three different kinds. First indicator is the 'verbal evaluations'; the second indicator is the 'patterns of association'; and finally the 'symbolic indicator'.

In considering the issue that the persons at the very top of the status ladder often spend less freely and put up less 'front' than many persons who are a level or two beneath them. We are most likely to deal with the third social indicator, that is, the symbolic one. This symbolic indicator includes the possession and activity that the person uses to symbolize his class position. "It is very easy to ascertain the relative size of a man's house, the cost of his car, or the character & his residential neighborhood and to use any one or all of these as rough indicators of his social class position".[1] Moreover, according to Veblen. The Consumptions of these factors and utilizing it to indicate the state position could become very 'conspicuous'.

In connection to our problem, we need to relate these factors to our symbolic indicator. These are the emulation, impression, and showing off factors. First of all, the persons at the very top of the status ladder don't have to spend freely. That is because they, by definition and by fact, have made it to that position in the social strata. Society, by large, acknowledge this fact; and people who are associating with know already and have evaluated these according to that status. It is unnecessary for them to show off their prestige, wealth or the like.

Moreover, they do not want to give impression that they belong to the high status. This, more or less, would make them more respectful and thus solidify their position. Furthermore, conspicuous consumption, of any kind, is unnecessary. It is them who set the pattern, the behavior, the rules, and the 'style of life' in their society. And, finally, since we assumed that they are at the very top of the status ladder, emulation becomes meaningless. There is no status above them to emulate or compete with.

In the contrary, the persons who are a level or two beneath the ones at the very top of the status ladder often spend freely and put up more 'front' due to many factors. In the one hand, they spend more in order to possess more social indicators; they use them as front, and to give the impression that they are high in the social strata. They have to buy the expensive things to showoff their wealth. They have to pay more for their residential region in order to be considered as belonging to that region and its community. Moreover, trying to make their reference group and association pattern as ones of the upper status cost them high amount of materials. For example, affiliation to social clubs, participating in social parties or involving in the local politics. Actually, it is these social and symbolic indicators that they are trying to possessin order to prove their wealth, to show off their status and to give the impression for other groups. Vacationing yearly at the Virgin Isles, without the enough wealth, is just an imitation or emulation of the group above them.

It is not this group that set up the style of life. Thus they have to compete with those who are original in it. In selecting their materials and their references, they are very careful not to make any mistake and thus not to receed back-word in the eyes of the other people. This is due

to the fact that such things are not natural for them but mostly faked. It follows that the chief differences between the class at to top and the one below them is possession or lacking of "distinguished lineage" respectively. Hence, "for a variety of reasons, symbols are probably a cruder indicator of social class position than either verbal evaluation or patterns of association".[2]

(II) The Open and the Closed Social System:-

① The Closed Class system: -

" However it may have originated, a class system tends in time to become institutionalized; each of the several classes becomes accommodated to the others, the class lines grow increasingly sharp, the differences between the classes grow wider, and the memberships of each class becomes fixed".[3] Under such conditions, the social population is fully and permanently stratified. A system of closed classes, whether functionally effective or not, makes for a lethargic and stable society. For when status is detemined at birth and cannot be either lost or improved by the actions of the individual, there is little encouragement to exceptional endeavor.

In this kind of class system, we find the individuals very seldom if any, do more, or less, than is so demanded of them. Whether he worked or played, the aristocrat remained aristocrat. Furthermore, no matter how hard he labored, the serf could not escape serfdom. As a matter of fact, it is in part because of such system character that society remained on such a low level of social well being. Likewise, "it is in part because of the closed character of many classes in contemporary

India that the people of India are so lowly motivated and the society as a whole so inert and apathetic".[4] Here, we find that until the class barriers are fractured and it becomes possible for a man of lowly status to profit by individual's effort, such effort will not be forthcoming. Thus the members of the privileged classes will continue to enjoy their leisure, for they need not work and will not do so; and the ones, at the low level, would never work to better their status, and thus their social conditions, because there are no reward.

High achievement is almost nil; competition is lacking; and motivation is almost unexisted. Nevertheless, individuals, in such closed system are less frustrated, for they know they are 'predestined' to their present status. Hence, conflict and violence is less common, and also would mental problems. But, finally, dymanicity, reproductivity and innovation would be minimum. And social evolution is not to be hoped for.

② The Open Class System:-

Different than the closed class system, the open class structure is based upon achieved criteria. Here, "there is a complete freedom of association (at least theoretically) between the members of all strata, including intermarriage and equalitarian social relations".[5] This is to the contrary to what is mentioned in the closed class system. Membership in the upper class rankes a matter of competition and thus encourages individuals and families to exceptional endeavor. The open class system is therefor generally associated with a fairly high level of endeavor on the part of the whole social membership. This, however, does not mean, that the society is necessarily subject to constant

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change. For example, " in premodern China the classes, except for the relatively small nobility, were open. A peasent boy could rise by his exceptional scholarship to the class of mandarins, and a rich merchant could carelessly dissipate his wealth and become a common coolie. As a result there was a constant struggle of lower class individuals and families to rise in the class hierarchy and of higher class individuals and families to maintain their status. But initiative so canalized that it led to more endeavor rather than to carefully disturbing innovations". [6]

On the other hand, in post feudal western societies, competition for admission to the higher class ranks was not entirely canalized, and the individual could upon occasion improve his class status by invention or discovery. Hence, the openness of the classes was one phase of the dynamics of these societies. Thus the openness of the classes war an important factor, not only in endorsing competation and achievement, but also in promoting inventions and innovations.

In an open class system, competition, achievement al equal oppurtunity are the basis for social mobility. As a result, frustration is enhanced in the individuals when seeking a higher status. This frustration, in any case, would lend to a violent struggle within and between the classes. As an example for this is the Negroid race members in their struggle to be accepted in the open society of the U.S. This violent struggle, however, could not be of any disasterous results , as if it happens in a closed system.

In modern open societies, social status and social mobility is determined in part by material wealth, the man who hammers his way from poverty to riches is achieving a better living condition, and reducing one of the worst social diseases-which is poverty. Moreover,

in the process of rising in the social scale, he may displaces some of those who were born to positions of wealth and prestige but were incompetant and incapable of retaining the status that they had inherited; thus an evolutionary process is taking place.

On the other hand, the openness of classes is always limited by the fact that status at birth limits the opportunities of those born into the lower class to acquire the credential, educational, monetary, and other-wise, that are necessary for admission to a higher class; while those born into the higher ones acquire these attributes, more or less, automatically. "American class system is perhaps as open as that of any contemporary large society. Nevertheless, an individual born into a laboring class family starts with a tremendous handicaps in comparison with one who is born into an upper class family." This individual inherits poverty, ignorance, low motivation, and a low status from which he should rise if he is to be a member of a higher class; whereas, the individual born into an upper class family inherits wealth, educational oppertunity, strong incentives, and a status that needs only to be retained if he is to be a member of the upper class. This rigidity in the status structure in most of the times are reinforced by: "(a) the tight occupational structure, and (b) the association of ethnic origin with occupational pursuits".[7]

Thse limitations, nevertheless, are by no means hindering equal oppertunity of equality, education and wealth. These are the main characters of an affluent society, beside the common values and norms. Until such things are gained in the closed system, the matter of improving society from poverty to wealth, from an old superstitions and religious beliefes to a better ideologies that are required in any society to secular and pluralistic.

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(III) Social Mobility

In considering social mobility, we are dealing with the factors that determine the basis of social mobility, as well as the ones that are biologically related to the member. Such factors may be more or less different from culture to culture or from one stratum to the other. However, they are very important to be fullfilled, in order for a person to be mobile. These factors or processes of social mobility are the family, work organization, wealth, education, occupation, influence, and opportunity for changing. These factors are by no means an independent from each other, but are so interrelated or interacted with each other.

The family comes first in the life history of the individual and sets the stage for what will happen to him later in the process of social mobility. Family aspired its child in various coursers in the social life whether in occupation, education or the like. "Clearly," says Annan, "certain families produce a disproportionately large number of eminent men and women ... Schools and universities can so train young men, but such a training has a far stronger command over the personality when it is transmitted through a family tradition."[8] The familial influence on ability, character, and aspiration is always large; and the influence on education and occupation is very frequent in all societies.

The organized work factor is of no less importance than that of the family. To say that economically productive roles, involving varying amount of specialized knowledge and excutive responsibility, are important criteria of evaluation, is just to say that the work organization in which such roles are grouped and co-ordinate have an

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important bearing upon the process of social mobility. For a person to be mobile socially it is required of him to succeed in work roles and to achieve the responsibility of prestige of his profession or business so to elevate his social position.

The amount and quality of education is one of the factors that lead to success and achievement in the social starta. The persons are usually evaluated socially in terms of their profession or work beside other things. Such profession or work are the end result of education, at least in most cases. That is why family and wealth are of importance since they provide the child with the descent education necessary to elevate him in the social strata.

An other factor of importance in social mobility in many cases is wealth. For a person to be socially mobile, he has to have some access to wealth. It is the most effective mean of commanding the social resources necessary to enter into or learn a social role and thereby achieve its associated social class position. One of the ways to use wealth is directly as to buy more highly evaluated roles as in purchasing noble titles. Or, on the other hand, indirectly as to buy the education or environment that provides opportunities for access to more highly evaluated roles. Moreover, it could be used in purchasing land property; establishing a commercial or manufacturing enterprices; or purchasing of offices in the military or civilian branches of the government.

Symbolic justifications, as possessions and activities, are not of the least important. They both serve the member in society for the assignment of a social class position. The symbolic indicators are not in themselves the criteria of such evaluation, however, the functionally

significant roles, that the indicators play, are the criteria. Furthermore, unless these indicators are displayed by the individuals, who are seeking an upward mobility, there exists a lag in relation to the style of life and the class position. It could be a problematic to seek an upward social mobility while staying in the same community as the case of the "Starr" family [9]. It is very much of importance to belong to high-class clubs, to possess something that has certain values and qualities, and to have a residential area that is so fit with the individual's new position.

Political influence, furthermore, is a significant component in social mobility process. Occupying a governmental post or an office in a party will make the individual in the proper place to be of influence on society. "News-papers owners or editor, for example, can exchange their influence over the minds and feelings of men for a title or for a position in the government. And so can the lenders of ethnic, racial, religious, or other interest groups. "Social influence of many kind s can often be transformed into social mobility through intermediary exchanger for political roles highly evaluated".[10]

Finally, the last, but not the least, factor in our social mobility processes is the changing opportunity – structure. The importance of this factor could be conceived by the fact that changes in opportunity – structure vitally affect the process of social mobility by expanding or contracting the number of available social class position in different parts of the social stratification system. The opportunity – structure of a society may change as a result of internal and external factors that produce new opportunities either for one part of the class structure or for all parts of it.

To examine my mobility orientation, I just have to analyze my self according to the discussion above. The family I came from was in the lower-upper class. Well-educated, well secure and successful in business, they gave me the necessary aspiration to go seeking for education and to give me the encouragement to look forward for a better life. Planning to go through medical school (this is my own decision). They wouldn't hesitate to support me financially from their wealth, even though I would be a college graduate. Physicians are of a very high prestige and social position in my society. They have some word and influence in that community, just as well as the businessmen have. Income wise, it is very high for such a profession in such a community. My father is in business and the group, as well as my family, associate with are of the same position or higher. They are either in business, politics or governmental posts. That gave me much access to know them and communicate with them most of the times. Furthermore, to use them for future connections, if needed. For example, I would have an opportunity that my parents did not have in their youth, to associate with such group more freely, as in intermarriage or the like.

The symbolic justifications, in my opinion, were original and I hope it would be in my case in the future. I do most of my activities as I please without reference to my family or its tradition, however, but never absolutely went out to the extremes.

Furthermore, the opportunity structure in my society could be very easily fullfilled. As a modern country, with a tremendous wealth, Kuwait could find a place for any body in its posts. Moreover, since it is in a transition state, socially and politically speaking, the social classes are not very tight for any new comers. And the interclass

mobility is not of any difficulty. Finally, there is a factor that has been not discussed above which is ethnicity and religion. As far as my case is concerned, it is of no problem since I belong, ethnically speaking or religiously, to the same race or sect as the majority do. To conclude, I think, however not much attention I have given before, I consider my self a highly mobile oriented.

(IV)   Improvement of Social Class position:-

Assuming that the $ 500,000 is of any value – since it is a dependent on the standards of society, and that I am alone in the arena with no family connections and that I am determined to embetter my social class position, I shall base my discussion here. First of all, I should concentrate on increasing this amount of money, for one reason, that it would not diminish by large-scale consumption. This is the wealth factor. This could be done by possessing more and / or by investing it in some commercial stocks that have, or would be, of vital importance, economically speaking, in society. In the time being, if it is possible, I try to better my education or my children's, depending on what the case may be. Education is of much importance not only in climbing the social ladder, but to understand life as such. Further more, for an individual not to be inconsistent in the status, wealth should be accompanied by education. By bettering my education, or sending my children to a quality schools, I thus have achieved the first step in improving my social condition.

A third factor that is of importance beside wealth and education, is occupation. In seeking a good occupation, I would first have to see if I am in any prestigious and influential condition. My invested fortune, by this time, should being increased. My land holdings should have

given me a permanent position and prestige in the community. Furthermore, my stock holdings should be of influence in the socio – economic media.

If my expectations would come through, I'll try to seek some political post in some branches of the local government. Income, however, in the mean time, could not be high; neither could it be of much importance. Actually, it is a matter of time and an upward occupational mobility. In arriving at these steps, a problem here is raised. This is the problem of symbolic justification.

In considering that problem, the first thing I should do is to impress the people around me and attract their attention. This could be attained by possessing some materialistic symbols that are of quality in relation to my position. For example are housings, vacationing and any of the sort. My activities in the community, should not be limited to my work organization; but, moreover, affiliation to certain clubs, introducing some social parties and adopting a style of life that is most appropriate to my position, are of necessity here. But before doing any of the sorts. I rather change my community and the groups around me. This should be, by no means, a hard task, since I have the wealth, education, and occupation to back me up. To do that, I should change my residential district and my association group. Should that be achieved, the task of bettering my social position is almost completed. but not fully.

That task could be fully completed only by the acceptance of the others – that is, the upper groups to this new comer. This could be due to my ethnicity and religious affliation, or because of my personality and behavior. Nevertheless, by paying a great attention not to make any

mistakes, consciously or unconsciously, in adapting the new style of life; and by avoiding any conspicuousity in my consumption to any materials, my class position should be well established.

To this stage, the major requirements have been fulfilled and my major problems have been solved. Consistent I expect to be; my status position is, as I hoped, higher and better than it was used to be. The only thing to be worried about is to keep this condition in a continuous upward movement. For this reason, my family should provide the aspiration and encouragement for our children in order for them to be successful in their social status and social mobility.

(V) <u>Social Class Criteria of Evaluation</u>:

It is one of the most problematic issue, in fact, for a sociologist to find a society without stratification. Less we grant all opportunities for all individuals, at all times, a society will never be unstratified. If such a condition could exist, then our respected society would not only be unfunctional but inert as well. Not only that, but change and evolution could never occur. Nor should we hope for such a condition to exist. Sociogenic factor is not the only one to determine social strata, but there is the psychogenic and the biogenic ones that are of importance.

On these basis, even if we granted the individual an equal opportunity in seeking their higher education and occupying all kind of jobs without regard to their family connections, we would still have a stratified society. This is due to different reasons. First, granting the opportunity does not mean equality in achievement. Competition and achievement between the members, in most cases, are the basis for stratification in an open society. The evaluation system for social

classes, secondly, is also based on common forms and values between the people. That is to say, for some sets of rules in society.

In an open society, men are ranked higher or lower according to the value accorded their various roles and activities. People "rate one another as higher or lower, they treat one another as better and worse; in other words, they value one another on various scales". "Some of these scales are the area of occupation, the kind of specialization and the importance of work to society. Motivation and behavior of the individual could not be ignored on these scales. Motivations, performances and talents of the individual, whether in education, occupation, or any field of life, with granting equal opportunity or an inequal one, do affect the achievement of that individual and, hence, his evaluation. According to these factors, people tend to evaluate each other. In their study to compute the correlation of occupational rating in six countries (United States, Britain, New Zealand, Japan, Germany, Russia) InKeles and Rossi concluded that "despite the heterogeneity of research design, there exist, among the six nations, a marked degree of agreement on the relative prestige of matched occupations".[12] Accordingly, doctors and street cleaners may be equally functionally necessary for the health of society as a whole, but to the other component members of society the skills of doctors are likely to be more valuable." [13]

From the above, we could conceive that where knowledge and skill accumulate, as they do in any society, specialization and, therefore, differentiation seem inevitable. If thus we have common values and functional roles in a society, differential evaluation of some sort of stratification should have to result. However, let us further say that such evaluation is to be minimized. There are, nevertheless, other

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factors (or scales) exist as to limit our hypothesis of unstratified society. The acceptance of the group to the individual is one of their factors. It is a function of ethnicity, family background and birth lineage, wealth, religious and political affliation and all other symbolic justification.

Since every social role and activity in a society is evaluated in some respect, every role and activity of an individual is potentially a criterion of evaluation or a basis, by which his position in the system of social strata, is determined. "What one's job is, how handsomely one dresses, how much one knows, how well one plays games, how good a friend one is, how one practice religion, all these and a multitude of other social roles and activities are potentially basis of evaluation that may be applied to the members of a society in order to determined their relative position in the system of stratification."[14]

One of the important characteristics of modern industrial type of society is that no one, not even a few of the criteria of evaluation are predominant over the others. Eventhough, in conclusion, we grant an equal opportunity in education and occupation, the skill, knowledge, amount of responsibility (whether president or janitor), and the type and amount of education (whether at Harvard or Kentucky Southern) would serve as an inevitable criteria for stratification.

Conclusion

Society is to be acknowledged as a complex structure as the bodies of the organisms it constitute. It's units are the individuals just as the individual units are the cells (or even the molecules, atoms ... that make up that cell). Each is different from the other, but each is similar. It is them as a whole, in their differences, make up a functional structure. It is a function of dynamicity and evolutional change for a structure to be not inert. No matter how their mechanisms, and thus their functions, are different, it is only to serve the common purpose of the structure. Without the least important unit, this structure could never attain its dynamicity. For that reason, social stratification, just like biological stratification and chemical stratification, is inevitable and necessary. Ironically, it keeps the society as a whole equal with its common values and norms without disturbing the equilibrium of its structure.

NOTES

1) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; Pp 135-136

2) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification ; Pp 158

3) Richard T Lapiere, Sociology; p. 455

4 Richard T Lapiere, Sociology ; P. 456

5) Broom & Selznick, Sociology; p 207

6) Richard T Lapiere, Sociology; p.456

7) A.B Hurlingheads, "Trends in Social Stratification: A: A Case study", A.S.R. Vol. 17,1952, p.686

8) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p.360

9) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p.408

10) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p.411

11 Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p. 2

12) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p. 6

13) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p. 16

14) Bernard Barber, Social Stratification; p. 19-20

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حمد محمد المرعي

معالم حول التنظيم الاجتماعي

دراسة في الطبقيّة الاجتماعية

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Social Dancing

A Reflection of Female Dominance Over Male Counterpart

A Socio - Psychological Study in Authority of Male/Female Relationships

July 1968

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حمد محمد المرعي

الرقص الاجتماعي
إنعكاس لسيطرة المرأة على الرجل المراقص لها

دراسة اجتماعية ــ نفسيّة حول صاحب السّلطة في العلاقات بين الجنسين

يولية ١٩٦٨

△ ٤

Hamad M. Al-Marei

James Avery Joyce'

End of an Illusion

A Book Review and a Critical Study of the U.S. Foreign Policy of Alliances (NATO)

November 1970

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James Avery Joyce's

End of an Illusion

A Book Report by

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James Avery Joyce's

End of an Illusion

A Book Report by

H. Al-Marei

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The Author and His Work

Lawyer, economist, journalist, Mr. James Avery Joyce is presently a consultant to the United Nations. He has produced a dozen or more works that deal with international legal issues. His latest work is End of an Illusion in which he seeks to structure peace through a world organization. He directs a polemic against the alliance system and he argues with some justice that these systems were not meant to supplement the U. N. Part I describes the failure and futility of the alliance system. Part II outlines the means by which peace can be effected through a strengthening of the United States and the peace keeping managed through a world system.

Publisher: Bobbs-Merrill Co., New York
Pages: 274
Price: $8.95

INTRODUCTION

"The cold war alliances are falling apart, as any one can see." By this statement, James Avery Joyce, started his latest work, End of an Illusion. This work focuses on the theme that political military alliances are obsolete as instruments of peace and security. By creating NATO and the other alliances, we help in creating their Communist counterpart. This military "containment" is no longer valid as a policy. We are hampered in our thinking and approaches to peace because we are caught up in an ethno-social neurosis of "anti-Communsim". The essence of every military alliance is that it aligns one set of countries against another set, and is called "collective defense". There have been thousands of such alliances in the history of nations. They have nearly always finished up in the conquest or destruction of one side or the other, sometimes both sides.

Today, however, there are some big differences. Foremost among these is that, if present-day alliances were actually to "work" and did in real life what they were all supposed to do, the whole planet--or most of it--would disappear in radioactive dust. Nuclear weapons have much nonsense of the whole alliance business. More and more ordinary folks are beginning to grasp this fact, even while the military people are frantically thinking up vaster schemes of

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planetary death to replace the out-of-date ones.

But the military people themselves have shifted their ground to meet this growing sense of futility. They now talk most about 'deterence'. This means that the weapons themselves have become so devastating that no one dare use them and still hope to survive. So the threat to use them has to take place of the real thing. That is one of the basic differences between yesterday's and today's alliances. Today's alliances "cannot" work.

In order for us to structure peace, we have to rely on a world organization. The world has undergone vast changes in the last twenty years. Regardless of macroscopic objective data, only moral force that can be brought to bear on an issue that leads to conflict. It is the U.N that offers the greatest hopes for preventing and stopping wars, extending the concept of world parliamentary discussion and waging a "good war" against human misery.

Theses and Summaries

There are two theses mixed up in Mr. Joyce's End of an Illusion.
One is that the "cold war" was started by President Truman and his
advisors (some of whom, like Forrestal are mentally unbalanced).
In this thesis, the "illusion" of the title was the belief that those Soviet
actions which appeared to be aggressive were in fact simple responses
to aggressive gestures by the Americans. Such as the "Truman
Doctrine" and the creation of NATO. On the other hand, the second
thesis is that alliances such as NATO, CENTO, and SEATO are useless,
for their purpose, if not counterproductive. For example: NATO was
powerless against the attack on Czechoslovakia in 1968; and the one
positive result of any NATO plan so far has been to enable the "Colonels"
to seize power in Greece. In this thesis, the "illusion" is the belief
that regional alliances rather than the machinery of the United Nations
are appropriate means of keeping peace.

In his work, Joyce has stressed the deficiency of the political and
military alliances such as NATO, CENTO, and SEATO in their
structure and operation. The main post-war alliance, NATO, specified
the year 1969 (plus one year's notice) for its dissolution or revamping.
Nevertheless, NATO's present Secretary General has referred to it as
"timeless". Hence the crescendo of frantic efforts now being put forth

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by its erstwhile sponsors to justify it or, at least, to save as much as they can from the wreck and so fit together the pieces for some future use.

The American diplomat who is popularly credited with having conceived the "containment" of the Communist world in Europe is George Kennan, former Ambassador to Russia. A fellow diplomat, Harry Byoade, is said to have proposed a similar buffer-state policy to be applied to Asia. CENTO (then called Bagdad Pact) was envisaged as a block of Moslem states on the Southern borders of Russia and China, to act as a military "shield" for the U.S. Both these authorities firmly agree today--Kennan publicly and Byroade privately--that the buffer-state containment policy is unworkable and outmoded.

In fact, according to Joyce, when the NATO ministers met at Brussels at the end of 1967 to put forward to their governments a blue print for a revised NATO, following France's withdrawal from its so-called "integrated military structure", the New York Times made this salutary comment: "The NATO has lost an ally and an adversary. Now it is looking for a role!". Nevertheless, these were precisely the problems that NATO ministers did not--and perhaps could not--face at Brussels.

The SEATO is credited with defending the people of Vietnam. Since it started to do this, however, at least two million Vietnamese have died "terrible deaths or lost everything they had". Or, to make up for the deficiences of SEATO, it is claimed, might bring the

relatively backward nations of that area into a closer relationship with

Japan and India, and so put all of them--in the eyes of Washington--

in a strong position to deal with Communist China. Accordingly, the

U.S. President toured various capitals in pursuance of a short-lived

"Johnson Doctrine", labeled the Southeast Asia Associated States;

and while Vietnam peace-seekers were operating in the Spring of 1968,

Secretary of State, Dean Rusk, was even then presenting to the SEATO

Ministerial Council Meeting in Wellington, New Zealand, a yet more

excellent plan for establishing a *collective" security organization for

Asia and the "Pacific Region". But the U.S. President and the Secretary

of State were still chasing the "will-o'-the-wisp" of containment; while

Edwin O. Reischauer, a former Ambassador to Japan, declared quite

bluntly in March 1968: "once again, the chief concern in Japanese

minds is the threat to Japan of the American alliances, not the dangers

to Japan of an unstable East Asia".

When the Arab-Israeli war broke out in June, 1967, the influence

of the CENTO--set up to safe guard the Middle East--was precisely

nil. Similarly, "NATO is not directly and formally concerned with

Arab-Israeli conflict", said the Chairman of NATO's Political

Committee at the Brussels Meeting in November, 1967, and he added

sadly: "However, ... if we ever meant to be an auxiliary fire

brigade to help put down any explosive situation, we certainly in June

disappeared, as one member of our Committe said, in a cloud of dust".

Sensible people turned instinctively to the U.N. to get them out of the

mess and NATO out of its cloud of dust. When the two NATO allies,

Greece and Turkey, nearly went to war over Cyprus in December, 1967,

it was again the U. N. that stood between them.

In turning to China and the phenomenon of "containment" Mr. Joyce

has raised up tnis question: Where have the Western alliances taken

us since the U. N. Charter was signed? He then asserted that the U. S.

has ringed the Asiatic Mainland with bilateral and multilateral

alliances, all aimed at the containment of "Chinese Aggnession". These

include bilateral defense treaties with South Korea, Japan and the

Philippines; while Nationalist China is still protected by the Seventh

Fleet. Under SEATO, tenuous mutal security arrangements were

made on paper with Pakistan, the Phillipines, Thailand, Australia,

New Zealand, Britain, and France.

Moreover, to show up all their "local" efforts, directed solely

against the Chinese, the U. S. has for over a decade provided large-

scale military aid to India, South Vietnam, South Korea, and Nationalist

China. Four hundred American military bases and costly installations

stretch from the Bering Strait to Thailand. Year after year armed

American tleets patrol the Sea of North China's coast--even colliding

at times with ships in the Sea of Japan along the Russian coastline.

The "Pueblo" incident off North Korea in 1968 pointed to the powder-keg

characteristics of some of these skirmishes.

Despite their mounting threats of military intimidations, China,

Mr. Joyce concluded, is less isolated today than ever before. Peking

has already broken through many of the political and economic barriers raised against it. It has steadily improved diplomatic and trade ties with France and other Western powers and has closer ties today with Pakistan and Japan. In 1966 it imported from Western Europe no less than 25% over 1965 and its exports to Western Europe were no less than 36%. Most significant of all, in direct response to the Pentagon's open challange, the peasant dominated pre-Mao China has burst out of its age-long domination by the West, equipped with a thermonuclear arsenal of IBM's of rapidly increasing deadliness and range.

The best recuperation prospect for NATO, CENTO and SEATO-- it has been argued--is to develop the non-military cooperation of their members, especially in the economic fields. Thus an amorphous "Atlantic community" makes its recurrent appearance on the world stage if pleasing phantoms; that is to say, a "broader alliance" based on NATO, after it, and the others, have been crumbled.

Needless to say, in the long run--and generally in the short run too--only the U.N. can help all sides save their skins, as well as their faces. So, in addition to asking what goes on in the minds of statesmen who are sanguinely gathered around NATO's death-bed or who are trying to pump new life blood into SEATO or CENTO, we nave to ask a non-important question: Why not drop the alliance altogether and switch to the system of world security which was laid down in the U.N. charter?

Discussion and Analysis

Mr. Joyce no doubt intends it to be understood that NATO and other alliances are both unnecessary and useless. In fact, he succeeded much in asserting his views by his presentation of factual incidents and over-whelming quotations from reliable sources. However, his work seems to be of emotion rather than reason. Although it is divided into chapters dealing with current topics--nuclear strategy, regional alliances, peace keeping by the U.S. and so on--none of these is closely reasoned to a convincing conclusion, because Mr. Joyce is concerned only to present one side of the case. When he acknowledges the other side at all, it is usually presented by the intemperate outburst of one of the more reckless Americans or other officials. Events which might seem to undermine his thesis are treated with a breathtaking simplicity. Only the U.N. can solve the problems created by the Arab-Israeli War of 1967, a guess Mr. Joyce took--without mentioning that "the war was precipitated by a decision of the Secretary General of the U.N."[1] What the U.N. could have done, if anything, about the Soviet attacks on Hungary in 1956 and on Czechoslovakia in 1968 are questions which the book evades by pointing out that NATO was unable to do anything either.

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[1] Down With NATO, Times Literary Supplement, January 1, 1971, p. 675.

It is a fact, on the other hand, that NATO did not succeed in solving the problem and conflict of its own members. To be sure, one would raise the question of how much is done to Cyprus and the conflict of the two NATO members--Greece and Turkey. More also, the support of the U.S. (the largest and most influential member) for the present military regime in Greece which has been suppressing the freedom that NATO states that its members are determined to safeguard."[2] All this is being done according to the rule of "containment", to prevent Greece from becoming a Communist.country. Safe and sound across the Atlantic, General James A. Van Fleet was "extremely delighted" to hear of the army take-over in Greece. To him, "Communism" was equated with "neutrality"! This is indeed the mentality which drags the United States into Vietnams across the world."[3]

But one would wonder of what had been done to Hungary and Czechoslovakia and the Berlin Wall. Exactly nothing. Moreover, what kind of impression the members are getting from NATO and what is their reaction? Charles DeGaulle has once said, "I cannot permit U.S. protection any more on our soil--it is too dangerous!".[4] In this he exposed NATO as a bad defense.strategy and a vehicle of American

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[2] C. Makarezos, New York Times, May 6, 1967.

[3] New York Times, October 1, 1967.

[4] J. Swomley, "Naked NATO", Christian Century, Vol. 86, July 30, 1969, p. 102.

hegemony in Europe. If this is so, then what are the real expectations
for future strong and functioning alliances?

And if the principle of "containment" is a workable one, then what
is to be said about Russia in the Middle East and the Indian Ocean?
Was it NATO or CENTO that are keeping the peace then after the 1967
crisis? I could only agree here with Mr. Joyce in crediting the role
played by the U. N. since then. And the same thing could be said about
the recent civil war in Pakistan. Neither CENTO nor SEATO were able
to play any role to bring justice to the East Pakistan case. In fact,
they were almost paralyzed. This is probably the reason in making
Chester Bowles, former U. S. ambassador to India, to suggest that the
"Pakistan question be submitted to the U. N. Security Council"[5] but
not to either of the alliances.

The South Asian question would still be a complicated one.
Instability of the area, the Vietnam war and the case of Communist China.
It is even too complicated to be dealt with on the level of loose alliance
system, such as SEATO. It would be unjust to mention the problem of
Vietnam or the complicated political crisis of Southeast Asia, in this
short report. The question of China presently is filling the headlines in
every daily newspaper.

If the cleavage of Communist and anti-Communist is legitimate,
and if the purpose of SEATO in protecting its members from Communist
aggression is functional, is a case to be seen in the near future? Whether

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[5] C. Bowles, "Pakistan Question", New York Times, April 26, 1971.

to isolate Communist China or open the door for her in the field of world affairs, could be realized from the State Department's Secretary William Roger when he told SEATO conference recently that "American policy toward China must be carried out carefully and realistically. That such a policy presents the best long-term hope for the kind of Asia that the SEATO allies want, an Asia in which there can be different political systems!".[6] Or he may have meant different ideologies!

To his mind, the U.N. is the world's only hope and, while he admits to imperfections in the U.N., and hopes for its development along lines advocated by the United World Federalists, Mr. Joyce gives the organization credit for practically all the constructive action in world affairs since its founding. Anyone who has read the late Robert Kennedy's Thirteen Days will be somewhat surprised to "learn from Mr. Joyce that it was U.N. Secretary General U Thant who proposed the solution which all parties accepted."[7]

There is certainly substance in his view that Western governments should give the U.N. every chance to become an effective body. But it can not be said that he proves his case against the regional alliances which he so detests, though his disrespect for SEATO is intelligible. It can only be a matter for speculation what would have happened to the countries concerned if there had not been such alliances. No doubt

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[6] Louisville Times, April 27, 1971.

[7] J. Allison, "Creating Stability Out of Revolution", Saturday Review, Vol. 52, May 10, 1969, p. 52.

they would not have been invaded by the Red Army, but that is not to say that, for example, Italy or Greece or Iran would not by now be ruled by Communist governments. Possibly he believes that Communist governments would be better for these countries then what they now have; but if so, it would have been more honest to say so. "His implication seems to be rather that they would have been saved from Communism by the U.N. without any alliances".[8] This is a proposition open to the gravest doubt. Even allowing for the difficulty disentangling his argument from the extravagance of his language, in rebutting the case for NATO Mr. Joyce clearly overstates the case for the U.N.

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[8] Down With Nato, Times Literary Supplement, January 1, 1968.

CONCLUSION

End of an Illusion is an analysis of the present world complicated
alliances and foreign policies. It is full with documented facts and
quotations from works by others, many of them worth remembering.
It contains several appendices that included relevant U. N. charter
provisions and the text of NATO and SEATO agreements and a lengthy
reading list.

Mr. Joyce attempted with much success to show that the whole
alliance system such as NATO, SEATO, and CENTO are wrong,
outdated, obsolete, and dangerous. He further asserted that the
Cold War is a product of anti-Communist neurosis. Moreover, he
found that the principle of Communist "containment" does not work.
Finally, he urged for the support of the U. N. .In this he argues that
only through this world organization could conflicts be resolved and
peace might over-shadow our earth.

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جيمس آفري جويس

نهاية الوهم

مراجعة كتاب و دراســة ناقدة للسياسة الخارجية
الأمريكية حول التحالفات (نــاتـو)

نوفمبر ١٩٧٠

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Political Orientation of School Children in
France & the U.S.

An Analytical Study of Comparative Politics

6

POLITICAL ORIENTATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN IN
FRANCE AND U.S.: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

by

Hamad Al-Marei

I: The Study of French Political Socialization.

Thesis: Whether French socialization of children influence the
adults polarization along cumulative lines of cleavage.

Sample: 413 school children- public and private- age 10-14 yrs.
Mostly from middle-class; non farmers; 2/3 non manual workers.
Questionnaire was evenly divided between fixed choice and open-
ended; and dealing with various aspects of political information.

Problems with the study of French politics, France as a paradox.
1. Partisan identification 2. Conflict society 3. Study of
authority.

The Grenoble Study conducted by Charles Roig and Francoise Billon-
Grand in Grenoble 1964.

Findings

Presidency: low respond
Nationalism: identification with state rather than with political
system.
Patriotism: consensus was high.
Political figure: low respond
Tendance: not stable
Party Preference: no party identification.
Parochial   vs. state school: politically influencial.
Private schools inclined toward the Right
Authority: study does not clarify children's attitude toward
such item.

Conclusion: Findings do not appear to be what we would expect from
school children socialized in a society where adults are
said to be polarized along cumulative lines of cleavage.
This indicates the lack of socialization in French schools.

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Hyman, H. Political Socialization

CONTENTS

The electorate in France shows a profound ideological cleavage, more than that in the U.S. The study here is to show whether this stems from the child's political orientation. Findings suggested that the political orientation of the American elementary school children is higher than their French counterpart.

BACKGROUND

Political systems of every description continuously confront a problem crucial to their survival: how to program the younger members of the system for the political responsibilities they must one day assume; it exists in all societies in every historical epoch, and it embodies a learning process that stretches back to a child's first perceptions of the larger social world. How children learn the values that will guide their future behavior in politics, and what it is they learn, are questions with answers that vary from society to society. Societies likewise differ in the degree of explicit attention devoted to training the young for participation in politics. But whether the results are to fortify the existing political order or to prepare for the new, this process, which we may call political socialization, is so basic a function that it deserves the closest attention of those who would understand the probable future of any political system.

Systematic thought about political socialization first appeared in the writing of the ancient Greeks such as Plato and Aristotle. With the rise of Christianity, writings on political socialization became less rich. This might have been due to the concern on propagating the religious faith and more also that the moral man is the religious one.

Secular writers in the post-Reformation era had little to add to the theory of political socialization. It was only after Rousseau had emphasized, in essay after impassioned essay, that education decisively imparted social values to the impressionable child, that political philosophers once again directed their attention to the connection between the learning expression of the child and the ordering of political life in his society.

Two characteristic developments in contemporary civilization appear to ensure a non-sustained interest in the content and conse-quences of political socialization. The process of socialization has, in the first place, been rendered non visible and non determinate by the proliferation of formal schooling systems throughout the modern world. Closely allied with this development is a second, the spread of a participative ethos among the members of all modern political systems.

Whatever the reality of the distribution of effective power, political leaders of modern politics are under heavy pressure to derive the theoretical right to govern from the support that they, or the movement they head, allegedly enjoy from those who are bound by their decisions. The spread of the participative ethos could be observed in the shift in status of the non-office holder from "subject" to "citizen". In modern democracies, most notably, in such strongly populistic democracies, as, and to say the least, the U.S.A. and France, great importance is therefore attached to courses in civic education and citizenship training in the schools.

INTRODUCTION

The turbulence of French politics has long fascinated observers, particularly when comparisons have been drawn with the stability or, according to one's point of view, the dull complacency of American political life. Profound ideological cleavage in France, the occasional threat of civil war, rather strong voter turnout, the instability of governments and republics, and the rise and fall of "flash" parties, have all contributed to the impression of a peculiar intensity in the tenor of French political life. "No one denies that France is puzzling."[1] Here is a nation second to none in extravagant expressions of patriotism, but one that appears persistently over the years to have harbored substantial numbers of citizens who viewed favorably the prospect that whether constitution happened to be in force at the moment might be overthrown. A nation with achievements that might seem to be source of pride and satisfaction, but one that has had five republics, two monarchies, two empires, and a collaboratunist government in its accompanied area, since the demise of the old regime.

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[1] F. Greenstein and S. Tarrow, "Study of French Political Socialization: Toward the Revocation of Paradox", World Politics, Vol. 22, Oct. 1969, p. 96.

"In fact there is a 'paradox' in a tradition derived from a revolution which itself was a revolution against traditionalism."[2] One would suspect that revolutionary traditions are no more nor less "paradoxical" in, to mention some, the U.S. and Britian. But somehow the task of analyzing French politics seems especially likely to evoke references to "paradox". It is unlikely that the common French citizen devotes any greater portion of his attention to politics than does his American counterpart, and he may well give less. His behavior is constrained within a much different set of political institutions, and these differences have important consequences for the character of his political behavior, including the opportunity of closer articulation between any crystallized opinions he may hold and an appropriate party instrument. However, there is no striking evidence to believe that the French citizen, either through the vagaries of national character, institutions or history, is predisposed to form political opinions which are more sharply crystallized or which embrace a non-comprehensive range of political issues than do comparable Americans. One of the striking differences, nevertheless, at the level of the mass public is present which seemed more uniquely French than any other political system. There is a widespread absence of party loyalties, a phenomenon which can be empirically associated with peculiarities in the French socialization process. But turnout levels in France are

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[2] Ibid., p. 97.

indeed high relative to those in the U.S., suggesting that "in the politically indifferent strata of the electorate when non-voting is considered, political motivations are non-intense".[3] Demographically, French society differs from the American in the lesser urbanization and lower mean of formal education.

It is the purpose of this paper to show whether the school children (age 10-14 years) in France are more politically socialized than those in the U.S. The reason is to see how much reflections, and thus understanding, to comprehend the political system in both countries. Sources of information are from different studies and surveys that have been done in the 1960s in both countries.on school children. Categories of the questionnaires were based on presidency; political figures; qualities of the president; party preference and or identification; and patriotism.

Naturally, agents of socialization that attribute to the child political efficacy are not mainly from classroom, but the family, the peer group, mass media, and the environment as a whole. More also, so much is obvious, and yet, having acknowledged the importance of political socialization in this context, I assume ignorance, for example, which figures--parents, teachers, religious leaders, politicians, the writers for the mass media--most decisively contribute to the child's conception of the political world and his place in it. I

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[3] P. Converse and G. Dupeux, "Politicization of the Electorate in France and the U.S."; Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. 26; Sept. 1962, p. 2.

do not know how he balances traditional beliefs against modern

orientations, personal interests against dedication to the national

welfare, commitment to law and order against impatience to see

rapid social change; nor could I determine how salient national,

religious, and motivational categories remain in his thinking.

THE STUDY: SOURCES AND METHOD

The French study was carried out by Charles Roig and Francoise Billon Grand and done on 413 Grenoble children of age 10-14 years (equivalent to 6th, 7th and 8th grades in the U.S.) in 1964. Sample tends to be from middle class, non-farm, occupational backgrounds; 66 per cent reported non-manual paternal occupations, less than 10 per cent reported farming, and only about 25 per cent reported manual occupations. The paper and pencil questionnaire which was administered by school teachers rather than the investigators themselves, was about evenly divided between fixed-choice and open-ended questions, dealing with various aspects of political information and attitudes. Using this instrument and procedure, it was possible to establish a great deal about the political orientations of the French children. The American study was a lengthy one and was carried out by Robert Hess and Judith Torney in their cooperative research project No. 1078 of the University of Chicago. Due to the lack of an identical American study to the French one, I have selected the data from the cooperative research project that are parallel to those in the Grenoble findings. Having this in mind, I realize that if an identical study (in every aspect) was analyzed, findings would be somehow different but not to a great extent. Nevertheless, the hypothesis and the results

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that are presented here are fair enough to serve in showing the

general characteristics and the extent of political orientation of

elementary school children in both countries. In both studies,

political attitudes toward the President, his image as reflected in

the opinions of the youngsters, identification of political figures,

preference and affiliation to the political parties, qualities of the

political systems and patriotism were examined and analyzed.

THE STUDY: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The one aspect of the political system that children--even very young children--are certain to be aware of is the Presidency. It has been argued that the Presidency, because it is perceived so early and monopolizes so much of the child's initial learning, provides a basis for organizing further political perception and learning, and contributes to the adult's central vision of the political system. In France, as it would be in the U.S., it seems likely that, at least during the long tenure in office of its first incumbent, the Presidency had some of the same political socialization function. In the Grenoble study 97 per cent of the French children have named correctly DeGaulle as the President of the Republic; but no other political information was so widely shared.

Information of other aspects of the political system, in fact, was much less widely distributed than was information about the President. When it comes to identification of political figures, 87 per cent of the children have recognized DeGaulle as a political figure. (Table 1).

Table 1

DeGaulle	Pompidou	Guy Mollet	Pierre Mendés-France	Maurice Thorez	Salan	Zitrone
87%	82%	61%	22%	9%	55%	11%

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While it is axiomatic that children's political information is likely to be low, the poor recognition rate of such partisan figures as Mendès-France and Thorez (who were party leaders) and the identification of Salan and Zitrone as political figures raises the question of how low is the level of the Grenoble children's political orientation.

The phenomenon commonly referred to by that ubiquitous term in French political studies "tendance" is not clearly observed in the study. Apart from their inability to recognize Communist leader Thorez, the children were almost totally unable to name any leftist political figure such as Mollet and Mendès-France. Only 34 per cent responded at all. Table 2.

Table 2

DeGaulle	Pompidou	Salan	Thorez
14%	5%	5%	1%

Ironically, from this table, Thorez was mentioned by only 1 per cent of the children. If "tendance" were a stable aspect of French political attitudes, would it not be reflected in greater political information? In contrast to the French children, the Americans have highly performed in identifying the President's party. In the items where the names of Kennedy and Eisenhower appeared, 97 per cent have related Kennedy to the Democratic Party and 95 per cent have related Eisenhower to the Republican Party.

These findings, by and large, do not appear to be what we would expect from children socialized in a society whose adults are polarized along cumulative lines of cleavage. In contrast, with American children, for whom the President is not only a well known, but also a benign symbol, the mere 53 per cent of the Grenoble children who responded to a question about the qualities of the President of the Republic were somewhat to mention bad (29 per cent) than good (24 per cent) qualities. Findings of similar studies indicated that American children had always thought highly of the President. As a matter of fact, 60 per cent thought of him as "more honest" when compared with most men and 45 per cent that he "would care a lot" and about 64 per cent thought of him that "he makes sure the country is run well". These are certainly an indication of a very rich image toward the President. Could this be attributed to the Frenchman, "tensions between the desire to assert the 'uniqueness' of the individual and centuries-old experience with a centralized bureaucratic control of society have produced ambiguous attitudes towards authority."?[4]

Unlike the absence of agreement in evaluation of the President in the Grenoble study, consensus was the dominant theme in response to an item asking for the name of the individual who had done most. Out of the eight possible choices, 48 per cent chose Pasteur, on the face of it the most unpolitical figure on the list. There were very few

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[4]Henry Ehrmann, Politics in France, Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1968.

references of diverse "tendances" such as Golbert and Gambetta.
Only 20 per cent chose St. Louis and 12 per cent chose Napoleon.
Certainly the Americans who would respond to figures like Washington
or Jefferson would show much higher rate than the Grenoble children's
performance.

Consensus was also the dominant motif in response to questions
on patriotism. Of the French children, 74 per cent would like to live
outside of France "only briefly" or "never"; that 66 per cent think it
is proper for Frenchmen to be prepared to die for their country.
These results are "similar to those in a number of nations".[5]
Although there is no comparable information about the American
children, some studies have shown that 67 per cent of American
children have had positively responded to an item as answer the best
country in the world.

One striking finding in the French study is that only 55 per cent of
the children that responded to the 1784 Revolution chose "good" where
30 per cent (a high percentage for such an item) chose "evil". These
negative evaluations are surprisingly large on so fundamental an
aspect of a nation's past; we would just assume that in the U.S.
negative assessments of 1775 would be virtually nonexistent.

Major social regularities are sometimes maintained in important
ways by seemingly frail psychological threats. An impressive

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[5] Fred Greenstein and S. Tarrow, "Study of French Political Social-
ization: Toward the Revocation of Paradox", World Politics, Vol. 22,
Oct. 1969, p. 109.

instance of this is the effort on the American political system of
citizens "purely identifications". The University of Michigan Survey
Research Center has consistently found over the two decades that
75 per cent of the adult Americans profess a party identification.
Comparing these to the electorate in France, we find that the major
difference is that the frequency of party identification is dramatically
lowers in France than in the U.S. in this comparative study of the
U.S. and France. In their comparative study of the U.S. and France,
Converse and Dupeux found that less than 45 per cent of the French
respondents identified with parties, while another low 15 per cent
associated themselves with "tendances". But what accounts for the
low frequency of party identification cannot simply be seen as a
necessary consequence of a multiparty system. Fairly comparable
data from Norway, where six parties are prominent, show party
attachment "as widespread as those in the two-party U.S.".[6] Converse
and Dupeux found themselves turning for an answer to the French
political socialization process. They analyzed the recollections by
French and American adults of the prevailing partisan colorations of
their families during their childhood, and especially of their fathers!
party preferences. Of the Frenchmen and Americans who reported
knowledge of their fathers' party preferences, there was an equal

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[6] P. Converse and G. Dupeux, "Politicization of the Electorate
in France and the U.S."; Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. 26, Sept.
1962, p. 109.

likelihood of holding a party identification. But there were extra-
ordinary differences--much larger than most differences found in
surveys--between the two national populations in the ability to report
a paternal party preference: 86 per cent of the Americans and only
26 per cent of the French were able to do this.

The American studies all show party identification arising rather
early in childhood, taking at least its general shape, although not its
full intensity, for most children before adolescence. In New Haven,
with an item probably forces a fairly high level of response, roughly
60 per cent of the children exhibited party preference from age 9 through
age 13. In the national survey of American children conducted by
Hess and Torney at the University of Chicago, an item was used that
probably reduces identification with parties. Of the 4028 samples
only 18 of the children did not respond. (Table 3).

Table 3

Republicans	Democrats	Independent	Undecided	Ignorant
23%	32%	26%	13%	2%

On the other hand, the French Grenoble study showed a very low
response to either a party identification or even a party preference.
Of those who responded and have heard of such named parties, Table 4.

Table 4

Communist	Socialist	U. N. R.	M. R. P.
85%	52%	32%	43%

The high response to the Communist item is consistent with the generally known finding that the Communist-non-Communist cleavage is widely perceived by members of the French adult population. But the steep fall-off in awareness of the other three parties is an indication of the inability of the children in identifying their national parties. The comparability of American data is imperfect, but the differences are so gross as to be quite convincing: by age 10 the proportion of children in the American national sample who say they don't know what Democrats or Republicans are shrinks to below 5 per cent; and by age 13, the figure is below 2 per cent. Many more than 2 per cent of the American 13-year-olds would no doubt be hard pressed to provide an open-ended description of what "these groups" do, but we assume that the great bulk would at least advance the vague statements made by the few French children who did answer. (Parties exist to do "political things", to "take power", they aspire to "govern France".)

In evaluating the political parties, the incident, again, of non-response--43 per cent--is striking and well over the level we would expect in a population in which party identification is common. When the item was to name one or several good parties, the French non response rate was massive-- 79 per cent. We assume by the age of 10 or 11, half or more of a typical American sample would name the Democrats or Republicans--many of them naming both parties.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to compare the political orientation of the elementary school children in two western countries, the U.S. and France. Data were obtained mainly from two sources (but others were sighted) and were related as close as possible to obtain the findings. Analysis of the subjects' responses (whether it is positive, negative, or not at all) were in accordance to the different categories that were used. These are the Presidency; political figures; partisanship; authority; and finally, patriotism.

The French sample has always, if not most of the time, responded lower than the American counterparts to all of the mentioned above categories. Thus, I may conclude, these findings have supported my hypothesis that the French elementary school children have lower political orientation.

These findings could be the results of the different systems of political socialization, its quality, or its agencies. Moreover, we can attribute this to the history and the civic culture of the two nations. Finally, it is maybe due to the intrafamily political communication or the covert hostility of the French toward authority.

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التهيئة السياسية لأطفال المدارس
فرنسا والـولايـات المتحـدة

دراســة تحليليــة في السيـاسة المقـارنـة

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Political Orientation of the French Children and the Behavior of the Electorates

An Analytical Study of Dimensions in Politics

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POLITICAL ORIENTATION OF THE FRENCH CHILDREN
AND THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ELECTORATES

by

Hamad Al-Marei

POLITICAL ORIENTATION OF THE FRENCH CHILDREN
AND THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ELECTORATES

CONTENTS

PREFACE

This paper is divided in two major segments. The first phase is concerned with political orientation of the French school children (age 10 to 14 years). The second phase is concerned with the behavior of the French electorate and their attitude in their political life.

Data were collected from two major studies. One of them "The Study of French Political Socialization"-- known as the Grenoble study. It has been carried out by Roig and Billon-Grand in 1968 and was translated by Greenstein and Tarrow. The other study is titled "Politicization of the French Electorate in France and the U.S.", and was carried out by Converse and Dupeux in 1962. Other references have been sighted for inter-pretation and analytical purposes.

It should be clear that the purpose of this paper is not purely a study of socialization process. But is to find out the relationship between the pre-adult political orientation and the behavior of the adult electorate. Part III of the pa-per is concerned with this relationship.

BACKGROUND

Political systems of every description continuously con-
front a problem crucial to their survival: how to program the
younger members of the system for the political responsibilities
they must one day assume; it exists in all societies in every
historical epoch, and it embodies a learning process and attitude
shaping that stretch back to a child's first perceptions of
the larger social world. How children learn the values that will
guide their later future behavior in politics, and what do they
learn are questions with answers that vary from society to soci-
ety. Societies likewise differ in the degree of explicit atten-
tion devoted to training the young for participating in politics.
But whatever the results are to fortify the existing political
order or to prepare for the new, this process which we may call
political socialization, is so basic a function that it does
deserve the closest attention of those who would understand
the probable future and behavior of any political system.

Systematic thought about political socialization first ap-
peared in the writing of the ancient Greeks such as Plato and
Aristotle. With the rise of Christianity, writings on poli-
tical socialization became less rich. This might have been due
to the concern on propagating the religious faith, and more al-
so that the moral man is the religious one. Secular writers in
the post-Reformation era had little to add to the theory of
political socialization. It was only after Rousseau had empha-

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[...]ed, in essay after impassioned essay, that education decisively [...]parted social values to the impressionable child, that politi[...] philosophers once again directed their attention to the con[...] between the learning expression of the child and the or[...] of political life in his society.

[...] characteristic developments in contemporary civilization [...] to ensure a non-sustained interest in the content and con[...] of political socialization. The process of sociali[...] has, in the first place, been rendered non visible and [...] determinate by the proliferation of formal schooling sys[...] throughout the modern world. Closely allied with this deve[...] is a second, the spread of a participative ethos among [...] members of all modern political systems.

[...]tever the reality of distribution of effective power, [...]ical leaders of modern politics are under heavy pressure [...] the theoretical right to govern from the support that [...] or the movement they head, allegedly enjoy from those who [...] bound by their decisions. The spread of the participation [...] could be observed in the shift in status of the non-office [...] from the "subject" to "citizen". In modern democracies [...], great importance is therefore attached to courses in [...] education and citizenship training in the schools.

INTRODUCTION

The turbulence of French politics has long fascinated observers, particularly when comparisons have been drawn with stability or, according to one's point of view, the dull complacency of American political life. Profound ideological cleavage in France, the occasional threat of civil war, rather strong voter turnout, the instability of governments and republics, and the rise and fall of "flash" parties, have all contributed to the impression of a peculiar intensity in the tenor of the French political behavior. "No one denies that France is puzzling."[1] Here is a nation second to none in extravagent expressions of patriotism, but one that appears persistently over the years to have harbored substantial numbers of citizens who viewed favorably the prospect that whether constitution happened to be in force at the moment might be overthrown. A nation with achievements that might seem to be the source of pride and satisfaction, but one that has had five republics, two monarchies, two empires, and a collaborationist government in its accompanied since the demise of the old regime.

"In fact there is a 'paradox' in a tradition derived from revolution which itself was a revolution against traditionalism."[2] One would suspect that revolutionary traditions are no more nor

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[1] F. Greenstein and S.Tarrow, "Study of French Political Socialization: Toward the Revocation of Paradox", World Politics, Vol. 22, Oct. 1969, p. 95

[2] Ibid., p. 97

"paradoxical" in, to mention some, the U.S. and Britain. somehow the task of analyzing French politics seems espe- cially likely to evole references to "paradox". It is unlikely that the common French citizen devotes any greater portion of his attention to politics than does, for example, his American coun- terpart, and he may well give less. His behavior is constrained within a much different set of political institutions and their differences have important consequences for the character of his political behavior, including the opportunity of closer articu- lation between any crystalization opinions he may hold and an appropriate party instrument. However, there is no striking evidence to believe that the French citizen, either through the agencies of national character, institution or history, is predisposed to form political opinions which are more sharply crystallized or which embrace a non-comprehension range of poli- tical issues.

There exist a striking phenomenon at the level of the mass public, which seemed non uniquely French than any other political system. It is the widespread absence of party loyalties, a phenomenon which can be empirically associated with peculiarities of the French socialization process. Nevertheless, turnouts le- vel in France are indeed high.

Naturally, agents of socialization that attribute to child political efficiency are not mainly from the classroom, but the family, the peer group, mass media, and the environment as a whole. More also, so much is obvious, and yet, having acknow- ledge the importance of political socialization in this context, assume ignorance, for example, which figures--parents, teachers,

...gious leaders, politicians, the writers for the mass media--
...t decisively contribute to the child's, and therefore the a-
...t conception of the political world and his involvement in
... I do not know how he balances traditional beliefs against
...ern orientation, personal interests against dedication to the
...al welfare, commitment to law and order against impatience
...e rapid social change, nor could I determine how salient
...al, religious, and motivational categories remain in his
...king.

THE STUDY: POLITICAL ORIENTATION OF THE FRENCH CHILDREN

The one aspect of the political system that children-- e-
ven very young children-- are certain to be aware of is the Pre-
sidency. It has been argued that the Presidency, because it is
perceived so early and monopolizes so much of the child's initial
learning, provides a basis for organizing further political per-
ception and learning, and contributes to the adult's central
vision of the political system. In France, it seems likely
that, at least during the long tenure in office of its first
incumbent, the Presidency had some of the same political socia-
lization function. 97% of the Grenoble Children have named
correctly De Gaulle as the President of the Republic; but no
other political information was so widely shared.

When it comes to identification of political figures, 87%
recognized De Gaulle while 82% Pompidou, 61% Guy Mollet, 22%
Mendes-France, 9% Thorez, 55% Salan and 11% Zitrone. "While
it is axiomatic that children's political information is likely
to be low,"[3] the poor recognition of such partisan figures as
Mendes-France and Thorez (who were party leaders) and the iden-
tification of Salan and Zitrone as political figures raises the
question of how low is the level of the Grenoble Children's
information.

The phenomenon commonly referred to by that ubiquitous

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[3] Ibid., p. 106

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in French political "tendence" is not clearly observed in
study. Apart from their inability to recognize Communist
Thorez the children were almost totally unable to name any
political figure such as Mollet and Mendès-France. Only
responded at all. Of those, 14% perceived De Gaulle as a
5% Pompidou, 5% Salan, and only 1% Thorez. The irony
stemmed from the fact that Thorez was mentioned by only 1%.
"tendance' was a stable aspect of French political attitudes,
it not be reflected in greater political information?

en the question comes to evaluate the President of the
c, only 53% of the French children responded. Amazingly,
mentioned the President as 'bad' vis-a-vis. 24% as 'good'.
this be attributed to the French man's "tensions between the
to assert the 'uniqueness' of the individual and centu-
old experiance with centralized bureaucratic control of
have produced ambiguous attitudes toward authority."[4]

art from recognizing and identifying a political figure,
French Grenoble study showed a very low response to either
identification or even a party preference. Of those
onded and have heard of such normal parties, 85% Commu-
2% Socialist, 32% U.N.R. and 43% the M.R.P.

he high response to the Communist item is consistent with
erally known finding that the Communist-non-Communist
e is widely perceived by members of the French adult

Henry Ehrmann, Politics in France; Boston: Little Brown &
19_6, p. 78

population. But the steep fall-off in awareness of the other three parties is an indication of the inability of the children in identifying their national parties.

Two signs which unquestionably reflect mass electoral be-
havior in France provides a case in a point. Turnout levels
are indeed high, suggesting that, in the politically 'indif-
ferent' strata of the electorate when nonvoting is considered,
political motivations are more intense. On the other hand, it
is doubtful that the rise and fall of "flash" parties are paral-
lel symptoms of intense involvement. Rather, it seems likely
that such episodes represent spasm of political excitement in
unusually hard times on the part of the citizens when year-in,
year-out involvement in political affairs is abnormally weak.
Whatever contribut to these phenomena could also be seen in
the electoral process of France. Other less direct indicators
still doubt as to the high involvement of the French public.

In order to comprehend the French electorate psycho-poli-
tically, two major points have to be kept in mind. That poli-
tics in France is "puzzling" and that the task of analyzing
French politics seems especially likely to evoke reference to
"paradox".

First of all, party affiliation and preference in France
is looked upon as an evil except to the activist or elite. Se-
condly, political parties can arise or fall according to the is-
sues they stand for and try to establish. And finally, change in
the French political voters is widely apparent and, more or less
accepted as a normal phenomenon. In France, as compared to any

comparable western system, we find that the frequency of party
identification is dramatically low. Converse and Dupeux, in
their comparative study, found that less than 45% of the French
respondants identified with parties, while another low 15% asso-
ciated themselves with "tendance". But what accounts for the
low frequency of party identification cannot simply be seen as
necessary consequence of a multiparty system. Fairly comparable
data from Norwy, where 6 parties are prominent, show party attach-
ment "as widespread as those in the two-party U.S.."[5] Con-
verse and Dupeux found themselves turning for an answer to the
French political socialization process. They analyzed the recol-
lections by French adults of the prevailing partisan colorations
of their families during their childhood, and especially of their
fathers' party preference. Only 26% have knowledge of their
fathers' party preference. Thus it has been argued that the
French father is uncommunicative about his political behavior
before his children. This has been seen when large numbers of
the French willing to speak of their own party preference are
unable to give the father's preference of a generation before,
and explicit refusal to answer, while attaining 10% or more where
own partisanship is at stake are almost non-existent for pater-
nal partisanship.

It is not only that the French dissociate themselves from
party attachment, however,"but also rejected the notion of parties
with some hostility"[6] and aggressive when the discussion is to-

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P. Converse and G. Dupeux, "Politicization of the Electorate
France and the U.S."; Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. 26, Sep.
p. 11

Ibid., p. 10

their paty loyalty. Whether this is attributed to their
of shamefulness toward their parties; their hate toward
rity; their feeling that the party elites are exploiting
or just they lack interest in involvement are all deter-
factors. Nevertheless, the limiting party attachment
France refrain strong theoretical interest, as they seem so
usly linked to a symptom of turbulence which is clearly
an elite phenomena alone--the flash party and the availa-
of a mass base to bring it to existence. This brings
the French electorate pattern.

Times and again, it should be clear to any student of
tical behavior, that, however the French have a low degree
party identification or affiliation, their turnout at the
posts is extremely high. This might bring the conclu-
that the French electorate are more issue oriented rather
party oriented. In my opinion, however not decisive, this
be the case. For one reaon, that, while the French
ical elites are not intensive to party formations as instru-
toward policy goals, the fact remains that parties are split
shaped with relative freedom in order that the party may
present possible expression, not only of the politician's
on a single basic issue dimensions, but of the total
ration of positions adopted on cross-cutting issue dimen-
In other words, the French party system is geared to e-
encouraging to a multi-faceted ideological expression
too complex for most of the public to understand. With
understanding, it should be clear that the extreme ideolo-

[ ] fractioning of parties in France has few roots in the mass
[ ] lation, members of which simply pay too little attention to
[ ] tics to follow the nicer discriminations involved. Here, we
[ ] in struck by the fact that "the differences between active
[ ] mass are large in France."[7] From the extreme end, one might
[ ] to extrapolate to the sharp and rigid cleavage on policy
[ ] ers for which French elites are noted. More over, it has
[ ] argued that, in France "a serious candidate must try to
[ ] e a majority party for himself."[8]

[ ]ne important fact about the behavior of the French elec-
[ ]te remained to be discussed. It is the existence of a rigid
[ ]age on the voting pattern. First of all, there is a
[ ]age on ideological lines. Were the descriptions of party
[ ]ents to proceed simply in terms of a communist, non communist
[ ]ion, the proportion of self-classifications would advance
[ ]erably toward a high figure and would probably exceed that
[ ]ould be attained by other two-class divisions in France.
[ ]ly, there is a cleavage on issue and policy lines. It
[ ]be clear to anybody who observed the French elections of
[ ] 0's that the voting had followed a Gaullist, non-Gaullist
[ ].

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[7]
   Ibid., p. 21

[8]
   . Guldey, "French Presidential Election," _Political Studies_,
[ ], Je 1966

III. THE STUDY: SUMMARY AND INTERPRETATION

All behavior is of course dependent upon both structural and psychological determinants, but sometimes it is mainly the outer factor, and sometimes the inner, that are of analytic interest. However, finding a definitive terms for these factors are well beyond the scope of this paper; and all findings should be explanatory rather than conclusive. Nevertheless, it has been argued that the French bring distinctive configurations of political psychology (individualism, unwillingness to compromise, hostility to authority, etc.) into play in responding to their political world.

In part I, I have shown that the French children (age 10-14 years) are relatively not politically knowledgeable. We have investigated their attitude toward their President, political figures, political parties, and their national heroes. We also found out that only 55% of the children have said "good" about the 1784 revolution; 48% have chosen Pasteur as their national hero; and 24% have responded to the President as 'good' (and 29% as 'bad'). Moreover, most of children failed to identify their party preference or their parents' party. Here, analysts might point toward the socialization process of the school children. The influence of religion (revolution item); or emphasis on history (Pasteur); or the hostility towards authority (evaluation of President); or the elements of individualism all

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should be considered as responsible for such attitudes.

In Part II, I have shown that the French voters have inclined to identify themselves with parties but did split over ideologies or issues. More also, it has been shown that the father was not very communicable in terms of his party preference to his children. Other facts have indicated that it was unlikely that the French citizen devoted any greater portion of his attention to political matters.

Two points should be ascertained. First is the notorious attitude of the French toward politics. One description of a campaign incident should illustrate this view.

> As for democracy at work in political system, it is
> striking to see in a French political campaign that
> the election posters are posted in at night. Accor-
> ding to an antiquated ruling, they are officially il-
> legal, but they are tolerated if they are put up
> while the police isn't looking. This practice sums
> up the nature of the electoral process in France; it
> is tolerated and tinged with clandestinity, there is
> something shameful about it. It is as the French had
> not really felt the distinction that exists between
> a change through revolution and coup d'etat. 9

Secondly, the French have many times responded with this
phrase when asked about their party preference: "je n'y
jamais pensé."* The author of this paper, though direct talk
French people in the U.S. and France, have found the way
they look toward the parties. Most of the responses were that
the party elites are exploiting the masses for their own purposes.
In fact, this may explain why the French are issue oriented
rather than party affiliated.

Sanche de Gramont, The French, G.P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1969, p.468.

* don't remember

Neverthless, the fact remains that while the partisan man-
ner of relating to the political process makes little difference
in basic opinion formation, save for the extremely active, the
translation of their attitude to some kind of party choice seems
increasingly haphazard as party attachments become weaker. The
fact also remains that politics in France are turbulent and the
ideological cleavage is prominent, We only could recall the
'events' of May 1958 and the election that followed it. "How
then did a movement, which seemed early in May to involve the
total rejection of de Gaulle's style of authority and of the sub-
stance of his policies produce in the elections at the end of
June a massive majority, the largest France has ever known."[10]
Rather this could explain that since 1958, "France had only been
allowed to choose between de Gaulle and chaos"[11] could be only
manifested in the French behavior in future elections.

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دراســـة تحليليـــة للأبعـــاد فــي الســياســة

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Problems of the Professional in Bureaucracy

Conflict of Role and Alienation

Analytical Study of Problems in Public Administration

October 1971

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PROBLEMS OF THE PROFESSIONALS IN BUREAUCRACY:

A CONFLICT OF ROLE AND ALIENATION

By

H. M. Al-Marei

PROBLEMS OF THE PROFESSIONALS IN BUREAUCRACY:

A CONFLICT OF ROLE AND ALIENATION

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BACKGROUND

Organization implies the coordination of diverse activities necessary for effective goal achievement. Such coordination requires some mode of control over these diverse activities. Traditional bureaucratic modes of control differ significantly from the mode of control deemed appropriate by the professionals. Whereas organization tends to be structured hierarchically, professions tend to be organized in terms of a colleague group of equals with ultimate control being exercised by the group itself.

Within this perspective, we find that in the world of bureaucracy today, there exists a conflict between the two camps. One of the chief sources of such conflict is the sharp difference in perspective that individuals bring to organizational life. Indeed, it would be difficult and unreasonable to expect two occupational groups that are any more divergent in training and outlook than the administrators and the professionals who combine the world of modern bureaucracy. And yet each of these groups plays an indispensible role in the operations of every institution. Whereas, the administrators maintaining and serving the bureaucratic apparatus and the professionals exercising the skills with which the organization directly serves the community.

INTRODUCTION

"A number of studies have found that professional workers in formal organizations tend to develop two polar orientation patterns, a bureaucratic orientation pattern and a professional orientation pattern."[1] The bureaucrats tend to give primacy to agency policies and procedures in the resolution of conflicting expectations. The professionals tend to give primacy to the norms, values and expectations of their profession rather than to the particular organization and the administrator in their organization. "Professionalism is commonly defined as having the four ingredients of 1) specialized competence, 2) autonomy in exercising the competence, 3) commitment to a career in their competence and 4) influence and responsibility in the age of the specialized competence."[2] It includes those people who are called "specialists" or "experts." Administrators, on the other hand, "are those who supervise others and involved actively in allocating the resources of the organization and the decision making process."[3]

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[1]A. Billingsley, "Bureaucratic and Orientation Patterns in Social Casework," _Soc. Sci. Rev._, Vol. 38, p. 400.

[2]F. Goldner, "Professionalization as Career Immobility," _Am. Soc._, Vol. 72, p. 489.

[3]Goldner, _op. cit._, p. 489.

There is, however, a growing interdependence between the professionals and the managerials. This interdependence has created conflicts of role. It is this conflict that makes the theme of this paper. However, professionals and bureaucratic mode of organization share some principles in common, they rest upon fundamentally conflicting principles as well. "Kornhauser"[4] has suggested that most of the conflicts stem from the basic organizational dilemma of autonomy vs. integration.

It is to be seen that this conflict has created two major problems. On the one hand, this conflict created the problem of alienation of the professionals from their perspected organization. This alienation, on the other hand, made it impossible for professionals to be well responsive to the clientele of their organization.

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[4]Miller, "Professionals in Bureaucracy," Am. Soc. Rev., Vol. 32, p. 755.

STUDY AND SOURCE

This paper deals with the conflict between the administrators and the professionals or the specialist in a bureaucratic organization. It also points out the causes and sources that lead some of the professionals to be alienated in their own organization. An important point should be kept in mind is that the findings here are not to be considered conclusive and final, however. The reasons for that is the need that exists for more detailed and elaborate studies; a research design that is comprehensive enough for all categories of types of organizations and professions, and, finally, some due considerations to the related psychological factors that are effecting the elements of loyalty, authority and prestige of the given job or organization.

Three main studies were relaid on here by the author. Other studies and researches were referred to in order to achieve more elaborate and "general" findings. In fact, they were all related, to some degree, to the subject issue.

The three studies are as follows:

1) Professionals in Bureaucracy: Alienation Among Industrial
   Scientists and Engineers. Miller.
2) Bureaucratic and Professional Orientation Patterns in Social
   Casework. Billingsley.
3) The Young Professional in the Army. Bidwell.

1

STUDY I: Data were gathered from scientific and engineers personnel

employed in two divisions of one of the largest Aero-space companies

in the U.S. One of the divisions is engaged in the manufacturing

of military and other hardwares, including space craft at ICBMs.

The other division is a Basic Science Research Laboratory which

operates independently and its principle product is the scientific

and engineering information that are made available to the whole

organization.

> The two divisions then represent a sharp contrast in the nature
> of the work situation for the professionals involved. Profes-
> sionals in the Basic Scientific Lab share an environment more
> like that of the university, whereas professionals in the
> Aero-space Group are more representative of persons engaged in
> traditional research and development work and function primarily
> on staff personnel within the division.[5]

All subjects held the degree of M.A., M.S. or Ph.D. in science, en-

gineering, or mathematics. Procedures and measurements were designed

to obtain three issues. They are the work alienation of the pro-

fessionals; the organizational control over the professionals and

the professionals' incentive.

STUDY II. The study here was carried out on professionally trained

social caseworkers and casework supervisors in two voluntary,

> non-sectarian professional social casework agencies. The target
> agency, a child protective agency, specializes in the provision
> of family casework services on behalf of children who are ne-
> glected and abused and whose parents are unable or unwilling
> to provide the necessary care and protection of these children
> or voluntarily to seek agency help. . . . The comparative
> agency, a family counseling agency, specializes in the pro-
> vision of counseling services to families and adults who come
> voluntarily to the agency seeking help with inter-personal
> problem.[6]

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[5]Miller, op. cit., p. 758

[6]Billingsley, op. cit., p. 402.

The respondents were presented with six conflicting situations. They are as follows:

1) Client needs vs. agency policies; 2) client needs vs. professional standards; 3) client needs vs. community expectations; 4) agency policies vs. professional standards; 5) agency policies vs. community expectations; and, finally, 6) professional standards vs. community expectations.

STUDY III. This study was carried out on personnels who, by their civilian training, educational level and degree qualification, have obtained the title of "Professional" in the Army. It would be seen that the subjects were involved in a set of conflicts, in which inconsistent behavior was required of them by their headquarters and by their perceptive of themselves as professionals. Therefore, "while job performance was defined for these men according to the 'civilianized' expectations of the Army headquarters, role enactment in other sectors of the soldier role was defined by the general-bureaucratic expectations of the Army Company."[7]

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[7]C. Bidwell, "Professionals in Army," Am. Soc. Rev., Vol. 26, p. 369.

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

Conflict between administrators and professionals springs
in good part from a fixed difference in occupational perspective.
For the role of the administrator as "caretaker" of the organiza-
tion inevitably impels him to place a very high value on the estab-
lishment and preservation of orderly methods of operation. Work
flow must be carefully channeled to achieve dependability,
uniformity, and economy in the output of the institution. The
professional, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with
"getting on with the job," using his technical skill to furnish
the public with such services of which he is qualified. Discord
ensues since the housekeeping activities of the administrators
invariably restricts the free-wheeling way in which professionals
with rigid procedures constantly threatens to upset the tidy
routines established by administrators.

To speak of the administrator and the professional in this
way is of course to compare roles rather than persons. While in
theory these roles are complementary, organizational life is in
fact marked by pervasive and sometimes bitter disagreement between
the two camps. Nevertheless, this conflict has generated the
alienation phenomenon of the professionals from their perspective
organizations. This alienation would, undoubtedly, lead to less

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responsiveness to the service of the community.

In fact, what is stated above, is in consistency with the findings of the three previously mentioned studies. In the first one, Miller (STUDY I) has suggested that alienation from work was positively associated with degree of organizational control. The relation between the type of supervisor, it has been found, also aids in the conflict and contributes more to the alienation of the employee. This is to be applied to the "directive" (low rate of interaction and unilateral decision-making by the supervisor) type rather than other ones. Moreover, the difference in organizational structure were reflected in differences in the degree of work alienation experienced by the professionals. Also related to the degree of alienation is the degree of the organization encouragement among scientists and professionals in their freedom of research and professional atmosphere. Moreover, the difference in organizational structure were reflected in difference in the degree of work alienation experienced by the professionals. In his conclusion, Miller has reported that a

> striking differences were found in organizational structures
> of the Aero-space Group and the Basic Science Lab. In addition,
> degree of work alienation was found to be highly related to
> type of organizational unit, with Laboratory personnel experienc-
> ing a very low degree of alienation as compared with Aero-space
> personnel.[8]

In STUDY II the findings of Billingsley were of, more or less, striking difference to that of Miller. The type of organiza-tion that Billingsley has dealt with was related to its clientele more directly than that of the latter. Here the social caseworkers,

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[8] Miller, op. cit., p. 767.

and professionals they were, tend to develop a more bureaucratic pattern. In fact, "both the clients and the community have less influence than profession or agency in the orientation of these workers."[9] It was also apparent from the findings that the professionals were relatively more oriented to carrying out agency policies and procedures than toward carrying out their professional commitments, even when these are in conflict. Nevertheless, in his conclusion, Billinsgley has stated that "while this bureaucratic tendency is not over-whelming, the trend is in a direction opposite to that found in studies of other professional groups working in formal organizations."[10]

Finally, the role conflict of the professionals in the Army (STUDY III) took a different path than those mentioned above "extreme" cases. The role conflict—and their alienation—stem from different factors. First of all, the professionals in this case, found themselves, to some degree, being isolated from their civilian counterpart with their given prestige and self image. Secondly, the strict hierarchy of the Army organization, with no doubt, contributed to the degree of alienation. For the professional, work was to "involve not only the use of one's technique but also, and perhaps more important, the mandated professional prerogatives, especially freedom to set the conditions of work, to define problems and tasks, and to work then through to a solution on one's own terms."[11]

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[9]Billingsley, op. cit., p. 402.

[10]Ibid., p. 404.

[11]Bidwell, op. cit., p. 370

Finally, and most important, was the inconsistent behavior required of them by their headquarters supervisor and by the officers of the company. While headquarters expectation was that of a highly professional jobs, the Company exert on them a high pressure to follow the Army routines and requirements as those required of less qualified or professional enlisted men. The alienation increases when the professionals realized the powerlessness to change the requirements in the situation.

What can we generalize or summarize from the above discussion would, and only, be tentative. In fact, while the roles of the professional and the administrator are complementary, organizational life is in fact marked by pervasion and sometimes bitter disagreements between the two groups. And the conflict between superordinate and collegiate authority, however misunderstood, is real. This conflict in turn will put a strain on the organization and on the whole profession.

Two theories could be postulated here for a bureaucracy to be efficient and surviving. However, they are contradictory. One of them suggests that if a bureaucratic organization is to survive,

> its parts must somehow fit into or contribute to the over-all goal or purpose of the organization; this requires that some person, or group, have the acknowledged right and ability to make the decisions necessary to coordinate the whole into an organic unity.[12]

This could not be the case, however. Since it suggested a bureaucratic organization, which must include professionals to provide the skill at specialized abilities but who also tend to resist

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[12]W. Wardwell, "Social Integration, Bureaucratization and the Professions," Soc. Forces, Vol. 33, p. 357.

bureaucratization. Another suggestion would be to provide more autonomy to the professionals. Nevertheless, a more autonomy or less heteronomy would not substitute the fact of the bureaucratic centralization of authority. It should be noted, however, that neither suggestion, if carried alone, would solve the problem of coordination coordinating the diverse activities of the bureaucracy.

Indeed, the executive roles, although their function is coordinational integration, achieve it only in limited areas unless they are provided by the skills of the professionals. While the professional role is focused on more competent fields which the policies are converted into realities. Even though some of the administrators claim the title of "professional" to be on an equal terms with their subordinates.

CONCLUSION

Three bureaucratic problems have been discussed in this paper. Firstly, was the problem of the administrator vs. the professional in bureaucratic organizations. Secondly, was the development of role conflict as a result of such problems. Finally, was the alienation of the professional from their organization.

In researching these problems, three case studies were selected. They were concerned with the roles and conflicts of the professionals in an industrial organization, in casework agency; and finally in the army.

The findings have suggested that in most cases, the professionals tend to give primary to the norms, values and expectations of their professions rather than that of the organization. Moreover, their preference was to colleague-colleague (group of equals) relationship rather than the hierarchical mode of organization. Finally, it has been found that when a strict responsibility to the organization's policy framework exists, a tendency of less responsiveness to the clients (or public) develop.

The task of this paper, however, was never to suggest answers to the problems. In fact, it only to expose the problems of some of the aspects of modern bureaucracy. Indeed, how can an efficient bureaucracy world survive if it would not accomodate

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professionals, keeping in mind that the professionals play one of
the utmost roles in the modern world. To cite a few examples would
be the role of consultants and experts that are invited into an
organization. Should they be considered outsiders by the administra-
tors; then the responsiveness of the organization would be doomed.
On the other hand, it was apparent that the professionals tend to
resist the bureaucratic mode of organization. This might just
suggest that one of the major future problems of a public administra-
tion scientist to tackle with would be the professionals vs. bureau-
cracy. Indeed, in my opinion, that might happen if socialized
medicine in the U.S. should come into existence. How would it be
possible to get the physicians, who are highly professionals, into
the bureaucratic set-up?

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حمد محمد المرعي

إشكالات المحترفين في البيروقراطية
تضارب الأدوار وعناصر الإستبعاد

دراسة تحليلية في إشكالات الإدارة العامة

أكتوبر ١٩٧١

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THE MIDDLE EAST CRISIS

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE U.S. FOREIGN POLICY

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THE MIDDLE EAST CRISIS:

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE U.S. FOREIGN POLICY

CONTENTS

BACKGROUND

The question of Palestine is basically the result of the
immigration of Jews, mostly Europeans, into Palestine –
which had been inhibited by the Arabs for over thirteen
centuries – against the will of the Arab people, but with
British and later American and Western support. "It should
be made clear that the conflict is not between the Arabs
and the Jews, as commonly considered. It is a conflict bet-
ween the Arabs and other non-Zionists on the one hand and
the Zionist Jews and their supporter on the other." (1)

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(1) Mohd Mehdi   A Nation of Lions Chained   P. 57

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Chronology

I   History
     1. 1890 Establishment of the Zionist Movement in Europe
     2. 1914 the end of the Turkish rule in Palestine
     3. 1917 Balfour declaration

II   Population
     1. 1917 - 93 % Moslems and Christians, 7 % Jews
     2. 1920 - 11 % were Jews
     3. 1948 - 30 % were Jews

III Land
     1. 1920 - 2,5 % was owned by Jews
     2. 1945 - Jews had bought or otherwise acquired legal
               title to 3,56 %
     3. 1948 - Israel has in control of 80 % of the land

IV   Politics
     1. Nov. 29,1947 - U.N. Partition
     2. May 15, 1948 - End of British Mandate
     3. 1948 - 1949, First Arab - Israeli War
     4. 1956 - Israel
     5. June 5, 1967 - the Middle East Crisis

    This is just an outline of the 20th century development

regarding Palestine. The real issue, the detrilgs of the

hented arguments and battles and the hundred of conferences

and trenties that have been developed and redeveloped during

that time are well beyond the scope of this brief statement

of background. Moreever, the U.N. Partition plan resolution

is impact at the pressure ederted over many countries, that

were otherwise against the partition, would fill volumers of

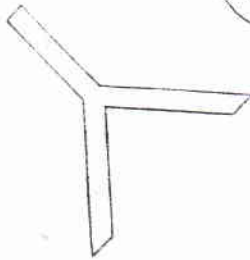literature and could not be discussed here.

INTRODUCTION

The Middle East Crisis, exemplified by the Arab-Israeli
Conflict, is and would stay, one of the most complicated
problems in Foreign Policy and International Relations -
Studies. The problem, however deep rooted, is simple. Never-
theless, the interaction of multi-numbered factors, the due
considerations to time and international environment and the
neurosis of the Cold War, have made the issue a world
which one rather than a regional and internal one.

It is not the scope of this short paper to treat the
issue as a whole. Nor it is the intention of the author to
emphasize, regarding this conflict who is "right" or who
is "wrong" or whether "two wrongs make a right". In fact,
the main purpose is to expose the problem on the light of
the new development and to postulate some considerations that,
in the long rund, might prevent a future one.

Another purpose is to aggue the role of the U.S. considering
the Palestine problem. Of course, the U.S. has been on the
scene for a long time. Actually, since Israel became a State.

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However, in my opinion, the U.S. Foreign Policy has been
so much biased and one sided. Furthermore, I have learned, du-
ring my stay in this country, that the American public -
which theoratically should have more to say in foreign
policy matters - is not only ignorant, but also mislead,
about the Validity of the Arab cause. The Zionist arguments
have been perpetrated by the American press so much that
every American has been familiar with the Zionist position,
and due to constant repetition, they have come to accpet
its validity. Would it not be logical to postulate by a
public - that is assured to be well informed - that there
is alsways another side to the river?

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Surprisingly few Americans are aware of the underlying
causes of Arab hostility towards Israel. Most feel the
hostility has its roots in some sort of historical anti-
Jewish feeling on the part of the Arabs, or is the result
of a virulent Arab nationalsm dedicated to the eradication
of a non-Arab state from an essentially Arab Middle East.
The fundamental cause of continued Arab hostility lies not in
the existence of the State of Israel, but in the extinction
of the Arab State of Palestine..

The "Palestine Question" became such when, in 1917, Zionist
aspirations for a "Jewish National Home" in Palestine became
a matter of British foreign policy - The Balfour Declaration(2).
The policy was subsequently incorporated in the terms of the
League of Nations agreement which established a British
Mandate over Palestine in 1923.

In articulating the idea of a "Jewish National Home" in
Palestine, both the Balfour Declaration and Article Two of
the Mandate specified in effect that implementation of the
policy should not prejudice the civil and religious rights

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(2) James Parkes, <u>A History of Palestine</u>, p 287

of the existing indigenous population which (3), at that time, was approximately ninety per cent Arab.

The stated purpose of the Mandate was to prepare Palestine for independence consistent with the "right of self-determination" of the Arab indigenous population. The comtemplated "Jewish National Home" within Palestine did not mean conversion of Arab Palestine to a Jewish state of Israel. Nor was it contemplated that the Arab population would be displaced to make room for Jewish immigrants. The "National Home" concept was one of a spiritual center for all Jews where they could live and worship in peace without fear of persecution. However, the Zionist ideologists, despite the terms of the Mandate, never gave up their baisc desire for Statehood as distinguished from a National Home.

Thus, a dilemma was created by the utter inconsistency between the Zionist and Arab aspirations - the former for an independent Jewish state of Israel and the latter for an independent Arab state of Palestine. There simply was no just and peaceful way to reconcile the Zionist desire for Statehood with the basic fact that, in order to fulfill the Zionist aspirations, a great injustice would be done to the Arabs of Palestine by denying them their right of self-determination and ultimate independence as defined in the Mandate.

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3) Alfred Lilenthal, What Price Israel p. 27

During the years between the First and Second World Wars, immigration increased the Jewish population to approximately onethird of all Palestinian inhabitants. The Arabs comprised the remaining two-thirds. According to United Nations figures published in 1947, ownership of land within Palestine was approximately ninetythree per cent Arab and seven per cent Jewish (4).

A crisis developed upon conclusion of World War II when thousands of European Jewish refugees sought to emigrate to Palestine in search of a new life after escape from the unspeakable Nazi horrors.

The Arabs opposed mass Jewish immigration not from lack of sympathy with the plight of the Jewish refugees, but from fear that the Zionist objective of increasing the Jewish population of Palestine to such proportions as to legitimize their claim that Palestine should be converted from an Arab state to a Jewish state. Actually, in the words of Rabbi Abba Hillel Silver speaking for the Jewish Agency for Palestine, telling the SS U.N. delegation what "the Zionist regard as truths victory! Unlimited immigration of refugee Jews into Palestine, creation of a Zionist State when Jews outnumbered

(4) Sami Hadawi, Palestine Loss of A Heritage   p. 18, 24, 50

the Arabs"(5). That is in fact, whatthhe Arabs have

most.

The Arabs could not resist the enormous pressures brought
to bear by world public opinion and the highly organized
and powerful Zionist organizations. Thus, in 1946 and 1947, mas-
sive immigration of Jews to Palestine, both legal and illegal,
resulted in rioting, terrorism and virtual chaos with which
Great Britain was unable to cope (6).

THE ROLE OF THE UNITED NATIONS:

In 1947, it fell upon the United Nations to seek a com-
promise of the conflicting interests of Arab,and Jew in
Palestine. After exhaustive studies under the above described
conditions, the General Assembly dopted a resolution to partition
Palestine into an Arab state and a Jewish state. The resolution
stipulated that measures leading to its implementation were to
be taken only after the Security Council considered the prob-
lems involved and proposed specific solutions. Regretably,
prior to such action by the Security Council, the Zionist
moved to assert control over the fifty-five per cent of

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(5) Times, May 19, 1947   p. 28
(6) Fawzi Abu-Diab, Immigration to Israel   p. 28

Palestine which had been allocated to the proposed State
of Israel in the United Nations' partition plan. The remaining
forty-five per cent had, of course, been allocated to the
Arab State of Palestine (7).

Hostilities broke out in 1947 when the Arabs attempted to
resist the Zionist efforts to unilaterally implement the
Partition Resolution before a definite plan had been adopted
by the Security Council and before the British withdrew from
the area. The Arab resistance was disorganized by contrast with
the Zionists and as a result of direct and indirect pressures
approximately 300,000 Arabs were displaced from their homes
in the proposed Israeli sector of Palestine to the proposed
Arab sector. Such massive displacement of the indigenous
population was not contemplated in the partition plan.
Although some Arabs left their homes voluntarily, it has
been well established that Zionist policy was directed towards
achieving an Arab exodus to make way for contemplated Jewish
immigration. (8)

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(7) Hawzi, op. cit.., p. 18, 25
(8) Lilienthal, op. cit., pp 72 - 73

Following the above described hostilities in 1947, a period of relative calm set in for several months. This erupted into renewed and more sustained hostilities when, upon British withdrawal from Palestine in May of 1948, the Zionists immediately proclaimed the establishment of the State of Israel. Although the issuance of such a unilateral proclamation was premature in light of the resolutions adopted by the United Nations, the United States, Russia and other nations immediately extended de facto recognition to Israel. The extension of recognition, together with the adopted but unimplemented resolution of the General Assembly regarding the partition of Palestine, represented the sole legal basis for the establishment of Israel in 1948. (9)

Such premature action by both the Zionists and those nations which extended recognition to Israel created further tensions. The Arab nations, relying upon the resolution of the General Assembly of the United Nations, did not extend recognition to Israel. In the Arab view, the Unilateral proclamation of the existence of Israel had no legal effect and represented an usurpation of Arab rights in Palesting.

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(9) F.A. Sayegh, The Record of Israel at the United Nations

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The Arabs declared war and renewed hostilities exercising

what they considered to be their right of self-defense.

The Zionists also justified their actions in terms of

self-defense. And the tragedy is that both were essentially

correct, depending upon which side on viewed the crisis.

The "war" which broke out in 1948 would not be considered

in any traditional context. What followed were largely a series

of relatively minor military engagements, only a few of which

involved organized military forces. Those engagements were

not dissimilar to the fighting which took place in 1947. (10)

The "war" was brought to a halt upon the signing of

armistice agreements in 1949 by the belligerents. Israeli

victories produced important military and economic advantages

for Israel. A total of one million Arabs had been displaced

to refugee camps outside the Arab territories occupied by

Israel after the cease-fire. Arab homes, land an untransportable

personal belongings were all subsequently integrated within the

Israeli economy.

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(10) New York Times, December 21, 1947; February 16 and 21,
     1948; 2 March and May 1 and 13; April 4, 10, 15, 17, 20, 22

PALESTINE REBUGEE PROBLEM

Upon conclusion of the 1949 armistice agreements, Israel controlled seventy-seven per cent of former Arab Palestine. The Israeli claim of "rights of conquest" made peaceful settlement of the dispute a virtual impossibility because the remaining unoccupied areas were not large enough to support a viable Arab State of Palestine. The Problem was not one of working out a settlement based upon Arab and Israeli rights proclaimed in the original U.N. partition plan, but one of dealing with conditions created by Israeli insistance upon retaining possession of all "conquered territory" to the permanent exclusion of the more than one million Arab refugees. (11)

Israeli integration of all parts of Palestine under her control, indeed even of the demilitarized zones, became a "fait accompli" shortyly after the signing of the Armistice agreements. Integration was completed despite more than nineteen United Nations General Assembly resolutions which reaffirmed the rights of the Arab refugees to repatriation or compensation, and reaffirmed Arab territorial rights in occupied Palestine.

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(11) Edgar O'Ballance, The Arab-Israeli War, 1948, p. 64

During the past nineteen years, the Arabs have thus been frustrated in any attempt to achieve peaceful implementation of the United Nations resolutions. This frustration has been the source of power of Arab extremists who claim that war with Israel offers the only hope of achieving justice. Israel has consistently refused to negotiate from any agenda which included the subject of repatriation or a return to the United Nations partition plan. Were the Arabs to have accepted the Israeli concept of negotiations, they would have had to concede the permanent extinction of the Arab state of Palestine. The Israeli's saw the only issue as one of providing some form of compensation for the refugees, most of whom remained in camps in hopes of some day attaining their goal and right of repatriation.

Even if the permanent extinction of Palestine were accepted, no Arab state can absorb the Palestinian refugees without enormous economic and political repercussions.

Israel has been able to define and enforce her national interests and nationalrrights unilaterally because of Israeli military strength. Thus, the Israeli position has been that they were justified in whatever acts they undertook to guarantee

their existence as an independent state, but action taken
by the Arabs towards defense of their rights in Palestine
constituted aggression. To the Arabs, the "status quo"
after 1949 meant continued denial of their rights.

The Arabs felt an overwhelming sense of frustration due to
their lack of power to enforce their rights and due to the
ineffectiveness of the United Nations. They came to believe
their only hope of achieving justice lay in a strong military
posture. Accordingly, they maintaines their legal status ass
belligerents and refused to recognize Israel. Arab moderates
were prepared to make peace but only if the United Nations
Resolutions were accepted by Israel. No Arab was prepared
to surrender to Israel's "fait accompli" or Israeli conquest.

Encouragement and support for repatriation of the refugees
was not limited to the United Nations. For example, President
Kennedy wrote to President Nasser on May 11, 1961:

"We are willing to help resolve the tragic Palestine Refugee
Problem on the basis of thepprinciple of repatriation or com-
pensation of properties.... I am pleased that the United
Nations' General Assembly recently underscored the necessity
to implement more rapidly its previous recommendations on the
refugee problem. In this connection, I wish to state unequivo-
cally that this Government's position is anchored and will
continue to be anchored in the firm bedrock of refugees, and
of active, impartial concern that those recommendations be
implemented in a way most beneficial to the refugees ...."

Thus the basic cause of continued Arab-Israeli hostility lies in the utter failure on the part of the United Nations, United States and other major powers to enforde the General Assembly resolusions upon which the Arabs have continued to rely.

THE U.S. ROLE

We must strive to articulate in more precise terms, the U.S. position with respect to the basic issues which divide the parties. We must also articulate what the U.S. is prepared to do to implement these policies. To do otheiwise is to abandon the responsibilities of constructive leadership and U.S. commitments made over a period of years.

The U.S. policies in the Middle East (regarding the Arab-Israeli conflict) have been affected by three factors. First of all is the internal considerations and the Jewish votingblock in Presedential elections. We can bring into the open the Baltimore Program. That Baltimore Program has been adapted in 1942 by the official Zionist Organization in the United States and called for:

1. Establishment of Palestine as a Jewish Commonwealth
2. A Jewish Army
3. Unlimited immigration (12)

It was in 1944 that Truman stood in support for that program because of fear of losing the Jewish votes.

Again, at the time of the U.N. partition of Palestine, the Jewish pressure in the lobbies and corridores of the U.N. was overwhelming. A N.Y. Times Correspondent has commented that "The General Feeling among the delegates was that, regardless of it Merits and demerits and the joint support given by the U.S.S.R and the U.S.A. the partition scheme would have been carried out in no other city than New York. The strength of the Jewish influence in Washington has been a revelation." (13)

Secondly, the Arab Course in the U.S. and other Western Countries is unjustly not popular. The Balfour Declaration, the Partition plan, ... etc. have no hearings whatsoever, to the Arab opinion or rights - not to mention self-determination. In fact - "the None-Arab world had tended to look upon the Palestine problem as a quarrel between Britain and the Zionist - as Arabs did not also live there". (14)

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(12) Middle East History, p. 204
(13) Ibid, p. 222
(14) Time, May 26, 1947 p. 31

Many Westernes still have that blind spot. In fact, the
U.S. weekly The Nation (May 19, 1947) issued a supplement
brilliantly summarized the Zionist case on Palestine, not
once suggesting that the Arabs have any cause to feel
betrayed at becoming a minority in their own land.

Finally, the Palestine crisis, has been - and so much -
governed by the international environment of the "Wold War".
The Arab-Israeli conflict is not any more as a regional
matter. In fact, and not surprisingly, it has been governd
by the Communist-Anty-Communist neurosis.

United States policy must not be dictated by internal
political considerations governed by an overwhelming
emotional sympathy for Israel, nor should it be governed by
popular reaction to evidence of present Arab hostility towards
the United States. The unfounded charges asserted by certain
Arab leaders regarding United States involvement in the re-
cent conflict should inspire efforts to reach greater under-
standing, not retaliation in kind further aggravating the
bitter feelings. The basic issues remain the same regardless
of such emotional factors, and appreciation of the just
grievances of all parties is required.

The United States holds the principal key to any possible negitated solution to the present crisis. Only the United States possesses sufficient influence with Israel to obtain peaceful conpliance with a request for withdrawal or other compromise proposal that ney be presented.

If the United States agrees to Israeli occupation of the "conquered territories" pending peace negotiations, the U.S. credibility regarding international commitments will be virtually nonexistent. To announce opposition to annexation of territory yet do nothing to prevent it is to mock public opinion and intelligence.

The Arabs signed the 1949 armistice agreements under assurances that their rights would not be forfeited (15). For nineteen years they waited for the United Nations to implement its resolutions and watched Israel annex the territories occupied after the 1948 war. In the face of the announced annexation of Jerusalem, concrete evidence of Israeli intentions to annex additional portions of the newly acquired Arab territories and overwhelming human suffering caused by displacement

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(15) U.N. Document GA/AH/356 of November 22, 1955.

of additional thousands of Arabs, the United States is
asking the Arab countries to recognize Israel and negotiate.
The United States professes to a desire for a peaceful and
just settlement, yet is participating directly in the recreation
of the precise conditions of 1949 which were the proximate cause
of the recent war. The U.S. is paying lip service to the con-
cept of an "equitable settlement" knowing that Israel is in
a position to virtually dictate its terms based upon present-
day military realities.

Thus, it is a temporary military solution which Israel
and the United States appear to be seeking. A military or
forced solution is a "prescription for war" in the truest
sence of Ambassador Goldberg's phrase.

If Israel were to withdraw from Arab territory upon the
condition that Israeli shipping rights and territorial integrity
would be internationally guaranteed, the following could
constitute a basis for achieving a negotiated settlement:

(1) The 1949 armistice demaraction lines should be
readjusted to constitute permanent boundaries and
to eliminate existing inequities to both sides, with
particular reference to the need to restore farmlands
and orchards to certain villages and towns which have
been cut off from their main source of livelihod for
years. New boundaries should reflect present economic
realities, but no recent Israeli territorial gains
should be recognized.

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(2) The United Nations must accept ultimate responsibility
for repatriation, resettlement and compensation 66 the
refugees. This should involve the possibility of
voluntary repatriation of a significant number of
refugees to certain parts of Israel, with particular
regard to the reuniting of severed family ties. A
substantial fund must be established by the United
Nations to eliminate economic hardship in resettlement
of the refugees in neighboring countries and to compen-
sate the refugees adequately for their losses. The
possibility of resettlement in other areas of the
world should be discussed as a possible option to the
refugees.

If the above basic issued can be resolved quitably, normal

relations between Israel and the Arab states would become

possible. The related problems of water distribution, whipping

rights, and the economic boycott of Israel would be capable

of solution once normal relations were established.

The hatred and bitterness generated by the conflict cannot

possibly be eradicated, even under the most favorable circum-

stanced of a negotiated and equitable settlement, for many

years, whether those emotions will gradually be dissipated by

constructive efforts towards the economic, political and social

development of the Middle Eastern nations under conditions of

peace, or fanned into a uncontrollable force to support a war

of revenge, depends essentially upon events which will take place

during the next several months.

PERSPECTIVES OF THE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The present situation in the Middle East makes it clear that meaningful progress towards a permanent and peaceful settlement of the Arab-Israeli crisis is unattainable without first resolving the fundamental issue of withdrawal of Israeli forces from Arab territories.

In the Arab view, neither U.N. rhetoric nor present Israeli military supremacy should operate to obfuscate the underlying causes of the crisis, nor to create new rights where none previously existed. They are prepared to accept now, as they have in the past, the concept of a negotiated settlement through the mediation facilities of the United Nations. But the Arabs will not accept the Israeli view that the recent military conquests must constitute the only framework within which peace terms may be negotiated.

Israel has indicated there will be no withdrawal until the Israeli concept of peace negotiations is accepted. The stalemate has been hardened further by the Israeli declaration that the issue of the annexation of Jerusalem is not negotiable. While professing a desire to negotiate political settlement, Israel is unilaterally proceeding to create a new Israeli defined status quo based upon present military supremacy.

There is no doubt that Israel is presently capable of
maintaining this status quo for the immediate future, unless
there is direct or indirect intervention from outside sources.
Effective intervention by the United Nations would offer the
most promising prospects for permanent peace, yet there is
nothing to indicate that the United Nations will serve as
much more than a rostrum from which Israel may announce uni-
lateral actions as a fait accompli, and from which the Arab
nations may voice their protests while remaining unable
to alter events.

The ending of the state of belligerency is the objective
of peace negotiations, not a precondition to then. Accordingly,
the Arabs cannot be expected to renounce their legal rights
as belligerents before there is a final agreement in which
peace terms are defined. Moreover, acceptance of any conditions
to Israeli withdrawal implies recognition of rights of conquest
which the Arabs are not prepares to extend. The present reality
of Israeli conquest does not operate to reduce belligerency,
but rather, creates additional tensions which will inevatably
result in renewed hostilities unless Israel is prepared to
accept a political rather than a military solutiion.

Ironically, the Arab approach to negotations is virtually
identical to that originally taken by the United States
prior to the outbreak of hostilities on June 5, 1967. The
Arab countries argue, as did Ambassador Goldberg on behalf of
the United States last May, that restoration of the "status
quo" is the first essential to peace negotiations.

Indeed, the United States must recognize the utter incon-
sistency between its policy announced in the United Nations
in May, prior to the hostilities, and its policy announced
on June 19 by President Johnson after the Israeli voctory.
Prior to the hostilities, Ambassador Goldberg stated to the
Security Council that "meaningful peace negotiations" could
not take place unless the Gulf of Aquaba was reopened to
Israeli shipping, therby restoring the "status quo ante".
The Ambassador went on to say that it would not be possible
to negotiate and explore the "underlying causes" of the Arab-
Israeli dispute in the tense atmosphere created by the closing
of the Gulf of Aquaba.

Following the Israeli military victory, the United States has adopted an entirely contrary position. The Ambassador announced in the United Nations that restoration of the "status quo ante" (i.e. the withdrawal of Israeli forces together with international guarantees of Israeli shipping rights and territorial integrity) constitutes a "prescription for war" and not a "prelude to peace" as had been suggested prior to the outbreak of war on June 5. Such inconsistency by the United States, particularly in light of positive commitments regarding territorial integrity "of all parties" does not enhance prospects for permanent peace.

The United States appears to stand relatively isolated in its view that the parties must negotiate directly, albeit with "third party assistance", the withdrawal issue as well as the underlying causes of the crisis. This position is superficially reasonable but is not tenable in light of past history and present reality.

Cognizance should be taken of the practical effects of the war shich causes the displacement of thousands of Arabs, thereby aggravating the endemic problem of the one million refugees from the 1948 war. The intolerable conditions of life for those remaining in the occupied territories is a reality which requires

consideration. The annexation of Jerusalem and other Israeli steps towards consolation of military gains create further tensions. Israel achieved an impressive military victory which she attempted to justify as a requirement of future military security. However, there is no justification for continued aggravation of the already overwhelming economic problems of the Arabs caused by the conflict. Israeli desire for military security is indeed justifiable but Israeli con-quest for economic and territorial enrichment is reprehen-sible.

The "Palestine Question" was sufficiently complicated prior to the closing of the Gulf of Aquaba and outbreak of hostilities. The death and destruction sufferd by both sides have added immeasurable to the problems of achieving peace in the area. But permanent peace is still within the realm of possibility provided new problems created by unjusti-fied unilateral acts of the parties are not tolerated of sanctioned by those nations having sufficient power and influence to prevent them.

CONCLUSION

The Middle East Crisis could not be solved without the
regard to the problem of the refugees. Moreover, we cannot
hope that a long lasting solution and eliminating the con-
flict in the area could be attained without eliminating
the Cold War elements in it. To quote what the Albanian
Foreign Minister has said in the U.N. in 1967 is to con-
sider a fact. He said that "The world had catagorically condem-
ned the recent meeting of the leaders at the U.S. and the
Soviet Union. The two states primarly responsible for the
situation in the Middle East." (16)

In fact, Ambassador Ball (former U.N. Ambassador) has
told me, when he was on a visit to the University of Louisville
in Fall 1970, that the Middle East Crisis has been complicated
by the atmosphere of the Cold War. More recently, Mr. Frank
Makaweitcz, (McCovern Campaigner) in his visit to the
University of Louisville (Nov. 11, 1971) said, what the U.S.
should do is to treat the Middle Eastern issue without due
regard to Cold War conflict.

But the context of the Argument is not the Cold War.
Rather it is the U.S. as world influencial leader and its
policy in the Middle East. One must not overnotice that
"It was only the U.S. which had the influence and power

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(16) James A. Joyce, End of An Illusion p. 56

necessary to weld the commission (U.N. Conciliation Commission 1947) into an effective organ of Conciliation. But like the French and the Turks, the American appears to have rated peace a secondary to the protection of their own interest." (17)
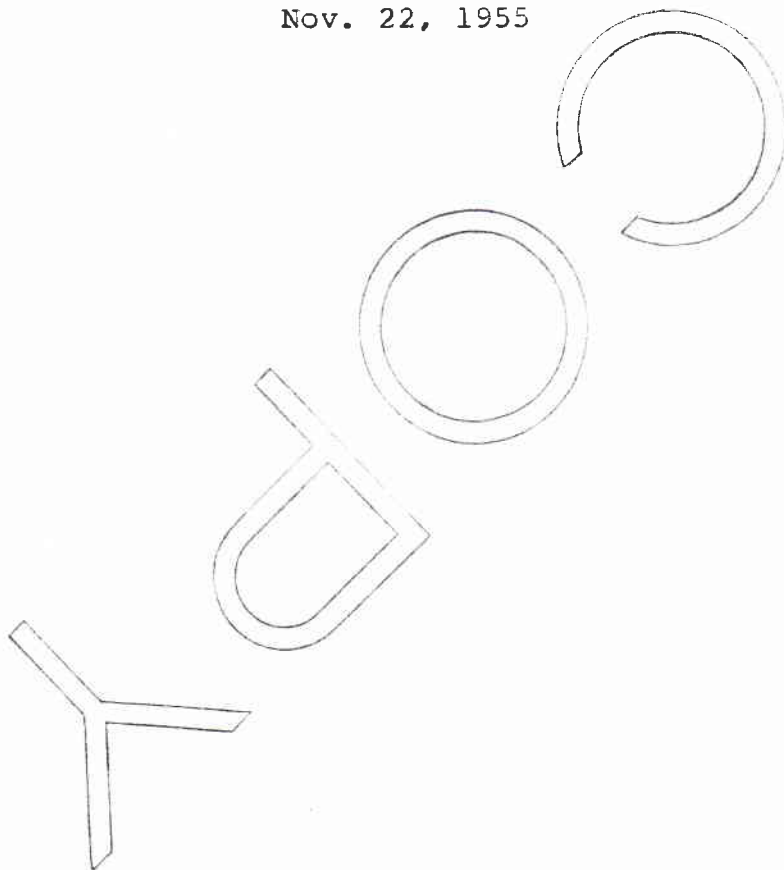
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(17) Ibid, p. 239

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حمد محمد المرعي

قضية الشرق الأوسط
السيـاسة المنحازة
دراسة ناقدة للسياسة الخارجية للولايات المتحدة الأمريكية

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قضية الشرق الأوسط

السياسة المنحازة

دراسة ناقدة للسياسة الخارجية للولايات المتحدة الأمريكية

نوفمبر ١٩٧١

٩

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

١) علوم إجتماعية وسياسية وعلاقات دولية وإدارة عامة

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

١) علوم إجتماعية وسياسية وعلاقات دولية وإدارة عامة

الأعداد : ١ ـ ٩

● ١٩٦٤ ـ ١٩٧١ ●

Hamad M. Al-Marei

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Stream of Conciousness*
Review of George Orwell's Hommage to Catalonia

A Study of Literary Style in Modern Literature

October 1966

△10

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* No copy Available

حمد محمد المرعي

التدفق التعبيري في الأدب *

قراءة في رواية حنين لـ كاتالونيا لـ جورج أورويــل

دراســة لأسـلـوب أدبــي في الأدب المعــاصر

اكتوبر ١٩٦٦

△ ١٠

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Personality

An Element of Naturalism in Literature

An Analytical Study in World Literature

September 1967

11

"Personality; An Element Of Naturalism In Literature."

Hum. 201, Intro. to World Lit.
Sec. L
Dr. Maurer

Hamad M. AL-Marei

The aspects of naturalism, since the movement have started in the middle of nineteenth century, were observed in most of the social, economic, and political realm of life. Thus it was not the exception to find such elements of naturalism were so prevailed in the literature of the period.

Naturalism in literature is a broad subject and beyond the concept of this paper. Therefore, I will try to narrow my discussion on that issue to one of its majorelements. That element is the personality in literature. It could be realized from the writings of many of the writers of that period as well as the contemperory o ones.

I might use the book Homage To Catalonia in presenting and discussing the above mentioned element of naturalism in literature. There may have been many writers whom thier literature was a demonstration of thier character and principles that they stand for. Therefore they have given thier literature a personality. But I found in George Orwell's writings, particularly in his book Homage To Catalonia, the most vivid example of naturalistic writing.

IN that book, Orwell presented us with a case. That case was the Spanish Civil War. In that war, Spain has been torn by the many powers that,by somehow or another, became the principlespowers of the war. They were the Communists, the Anarchists, the Revolutionists, and the so-called Civil Guards. Unamazingly, they all wre a

power-seeking groups; however, and astonishingly, they have related
and have iteracted together , at least for some time, during the
coarse of the war.

Orwell was a Communist. Whehahe jwantdthsightolnthaaSpenish
when fighting in the Spanish War. However, he was hoping to serve
with Communist (Socialist) militia. Nevertheless, when the war
took its shape, he has to change his coarse of conduct.

The Spanish Civil War , 1937-1939, was full of turmoil and
chaos. It was a political War rather than a military war. But
that was the subject of the book, not this paper.

Here, I like to present how Orwell's writings in that book
is an example of naturalistic literature. In Homage to Catalonia,
Orwell tolds us that we can understand our political and social
life, merely by looking around us. He tried to justify, in a vivid
description and a convincing way, the events that took place during
that war. Moreover, he reasoned them and gave his opinions and
views as a man who havemore involved in that experience. In that
way, he opposed all the opinions of the watchers and the " Intellegentia".

In considering that kind of literature, we consider the per-
sonality, the motivation, and the charecter of thier authers.
It was them who lived thier vision as well as wrote them, whom we
think as standing for something as men because of what they have
written.

It is that kind of literature that present sociaty in its

reality, attaching its problem from a constructive point of view, or glorifying its goodness. Moreover, It is in that kind of lite- rature that most of the readers found an answers to their questions of why andlãotße writer be writing and for what.

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حمد محمد المرعي

الشخصيّة

إحدى عناصر المذهب الطبيعي في الأدب

دراســة تحليلية في الأدب العالمي

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Evolution & Naturalism In Literature

A Literary Study in World Literature

12

"EVOLUTION AND NATURALISM"

Hum.201) Intro. to World Lit.
Sec. L
Paper No.3
Dr. Maurer

                              Hamad M. AL-Marei

Prior to Darwin, a **rigid distinction** existed in the mind of society between the world of matter and the world of life. Living things were held to belong to one order of nature, non-living things to another. TThe material world referred to one realm of existence, but man, mind, and morals, were viewdd as akin to spiritual world. In that period of history, namely the first half of the nineteenth century, man has not freed himself completly from theology, and the superstitions that were dominant in society. Society was not over with Victorian's ideas or Romaticism's doctrines. In fact, the scientific Revolution was just in its begining, and the Naturalistic Movement almost unexisted.

It was in that kind of society that Charles Darwin expected to find a great imact, by introducing the concept of Evolution in his work Origin of Species in 1859, on the peaple. That impact was created because the Doctrine of Evolution not only revolutionize science, but also man's concept of himself as well. Darwin's concept have explained man from a biological point of views as well as from a sociological ones. It provided man with a new facts and **evidence** to understand his nature and **his life.**

What is the Theory of Evolution and what **is its importance** and **meaning to us?**

To answer that question, wolumes of world be needed. Nevertheless, her I will try to discuss its basic concepts and

issues by using our common terminology and not dealing with the biological mechanism behind it.

First of all, the theory of Evolution showed, in a convincing evidence, that the existing animals and plants cannot have been soperately created in their present forms. They must have evolved from earlier forms by a slow transformation whether it was physiological, anatomical, or morphological. Moreover, it provided the concept of natural selection, which is the mechanism by which such transformation of organisms in all levels could and would automatically be produced. Furthermore, it was the rule of nature or environment to control the selection of the variants in their struggle for existence or their fitness for survival.

Finally, it should be noted that Darwin has applied his concept of Evolution, not only to plant or animal species - but also to man. In his work The Descent of Man (1871), he has attempted to show that the human race originally sprang from some ape-like ancestor, long since extinct, but probably a common forebear of the existing anthropoid apes and man.

We could understand now, from the above discussion of Evolution, how Darwinian synthesis permeated virtually every sector of thought. Obviously, from that concept, we came to a newethics, a new history, a new psychology, a new theology, and a new philosophy. It was a change in the whole structure, mechanism, and thought of man's relation to his nature and his society. In fact, man became more naturalistic in his tendencies and his concernes, because of his realization of his solid and factual relation to his nature and his environment.

Darwinism has conflicted with most of the social thoughts of the pre-Darwinian society. In theology, it has broken the idea of unchanging system, stressing the fact that our world is changing costantly. It has also considered the classical concept of the divine creation as unfactual. Furthermore, it has contradicted the Bible by stating that the Earth is more than 6000 years old. Above all, since the Scripture was composed of many books which have been written in different periods of time, its authors could have been affected by their indivisual and social experiences.

In philosophy, Evolution was concerned with many issues. First of all, it assured the reality of life and existence. Secondly, it stated that trueth oand knowledge could not be absolute or relative. To Evolution, trueth was whatever varefied by science and knowledge was whatever have been varefied byssci-ence. Finally, it proved that fact that the universe, and thus nature, are not unchanging; in the contrary, they are both dynahic.

Evolution has also changed the attitude of society toward the ethical and the moral issues. It has showed that they are flexable. Besides, it has stated that there could be no standard set of morality and ethics that would be universally applicable.

All those aspects of Evolution brought here to prove that man is part of nature and the surrounding environment. That fact have served man in understanding himself and his behavior. Evolution have opened a new fields for man to look at and study. Thus, it created a new interest in man to feel that he is a co-creator with God in making this life. The psychological, the sociological, the biological and the political fields of

interest are just few ones from many.

Above all, Evolution has contributed a new ideas and has created a new outlook at life. Many scools o thought were resulted from that theory. Existenshilism, Socialism, Realism, and Ethiesm are some of them. All these schools and others could be classified under the heading of Naturalism.

Darwinism have contributed to Naturalism in many ways. First of all, It made man to realise the reality of his existence. Secondly, it gave him his indivisuality and his personality. Thirdly, it assured him of his uniqueness and his equality with the other Human elements of society. Finally, and the most important, it made him to believe in progress and change.

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حمد محمد المرعي

التطور والمذهب الطبيعي في الأدب

دراسة أدبية في الأدب العالمي

سبتمبر ١٩٦٧

١٢

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Ibsen's **Doll's House**
Elements of Parents' Influence on Children

A Literary Study in World Literature

October 1967

13

Influence of Parents on Their Children as Appeared In Ibsen's A Doll's House

Hum. 201, Intro. to World Lit.
Dr. Maurer, Sec.L
Fall 1967
Paper No. 4

Hamad M AL-Marei

Influence of Parents on Their Children as Appeared In Ibsen's A Doll's House

Hum. 201, Intro. to World Lit.
Dr. Maurer, Sec.L
Fall 1967
Paper No. 4

Hamad M AL-Marei

In A Doll's House, Ibsen was concerned not only with the problem of woman's position in society, but also with the relation of parents-to-children at home. Thus, when Nora decided to leave her home and her lovers, she had the idea of understandig the society and also to be far from her beloved husband and children.

Nora, beside loving her husband Trovald, have loved her children as well or more. That love and that concern of her toward her children was mentioned throughout the play. The evidences on that are numerous. One of them is when she hided the Christmas tree so they would have more fun and surprises in Christmas eve. Secondly, she described the; to Mrs. Linde as the sweetiest and the loveliest ones. Finally, her continuous romping and sincere chattering with her darlings.

Nevertheless, that love to her children and that concerns was not considered as a barrier to her in leaving home. Was that because she is through of loving them?!. No, that could not be true. In the contrary, she left home because she loved them.

Nora did not realize the seriousness of her forgery before. When she started to realize that, a fear started to grow in her. She had feared that the very air her children breathed would be contaminated, as her husband told her. Moreover that fear was supported and solidified by Trevald's statement "that almost all cases of children delinquency can be traced to dishonest Mothers."

I could conclude that she had to escape home for two reasons.
The first one is her discovery that she was living in an 'imaginary'
home. She had realized that the mere loving of her husband and
her children was not enought in such a complex society. That
society, required the understanding of all the people involved,
in order that they would happily. Thus she had to leave home so
to understand the society. It is by then that she could make her
home more sacred and her marriage based upon a "spiritual communion".

The second reason is the one I am concerned with and like
to emphasize. It was her consideration that, being a demoralized
women, she might not be a good mother to her 'beloved and darling'
children. From th e first moment she realized her mistake of
commiting forgery, Nora started to retreat from seeing her children.
When she asked the nurse about them one time, Anna-Marei answered

> "The poor little things are playing with their Christ-
> mas presents; but-
> "Nora: have they asked for me?
> "Anne-Marie: They are so used to having Mamma with them.
> "Nora: I know; but,,you see, Anne-Marie, I wont be able
> to be with them as much as I used to."

She thought, for one thing, that her children would become
her dolls as she was her father's at first and then her husband's
doll. Above all, she realized that she was "certainly not fit
to teach" them. Thus, Nora wanted to be away from her children's
"atmosphere".

Finally, shalfrealized that the children would be"in better
hands than" her. As her mother entrusted her to Anne-Marie, she
entrusted her children to the same nurse.

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Shaw's <u>Heartbreak House</u> - Act I
Meaning of Names and Places in the Play

A Literary Study in World Literature

<u>November 1967</u>

14

حمد محمد المرعي

مسرحية بيــت الدّمي لـ إبســن :
عناصر تأثير الأهل على الأطفــال

دراســة في الأدب العـالمي

MEANING OF THE NAMES AND THE PLACES IN ACT I OF
B. SHAW's HEARTBREAK HOUSE

Hum. 201, Intro. to World Lit.
Dr. Maurer, Sec, L
Fall 1967-68
Paper No. 5

Hamad M AL-Marei

NAME	NICK-NAME	MEANING
Captain Shotover,	doty	having the mentality impaired with old age. Represents cultured and leisured Europe.
Ellis	ducky	darling
Dunn		insistent demand for payment of debt.
Hesione		Trojan princess of Greek methology saved saved from a monster by Hercules.
	Hush-abye	to suffer for or to pay for.
Hector		Trojan worrier; domineer.
Araidne		Greek legend, King Minos' daughter, who gave Theseus the thread by which he found h his way out of the Minotaur's labyrinth, he took her witn him, but later deserted her.
	Utter-wood	Utter: remote, unusual.
	addy	joining, uniting, combining.
	Paddy Patkins	Paddy: 1- after saint Patrick. 2- from pad, travel softly or on foot. 3-small heron of India.
		Patkins: from pat, exactly suitable.
Hastings		early fruit or vegetable.
	numskull	stupid.
Mazzini		from Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872), a patriot and revolutionist Italian.
	old-brute	brute: irrational; like animal; doesn't reason
	Bosun ahoy	Bosun: boatswain,. ahoy: hailing a ship.
Mangan		from manganese(Mn), an alloy used in industry
Randall		Rand: currency of S. Africa. all: entirely consumed.
Burglar		theif; to put the people on the discomfort of attending the court trials.
Marcus		Emperor of Rome.
	Darnley	Lord Darnley (1545-1567), second husband of Mary, the queen of Scotland.
Aberdeen		city in Scotland.
Othello		a Moor in the military service of Venice, husband of Desdemona, and protagonist of Shakespeare's tragedy Othello.

Desdemona	the wife of Othello in Shakespear's Othello.
de Rougemont	Rouge: from reddiish. mont: from monte, an abbreviation of mountain.
de Larochejaqulin	Lar: a tutelary god or spirit of the ancient Romans. oche: from ocher, a red or 'yellow' impure iron ore used as a pigment. jaquelin: the female name Jaquelin.
Mahatma	relation to Mahatma Ghandi of India. Also, refers to a person to be revered for high-mindedness, wisdom and selflessness.

NAME OF PLACE	MEANING
India	Britian's colonization of India.
Bohemia	place in Europe, near Czechoslovakia. Also refers to a place where life is unconventional.
Sussex	county in England.
Aberdeen	county in Scotland.
Zanzibar	country in East Africa colonized by Britian.
Claridge	

حمد محمد المرعي

مسرحية بيت تحطم القلوب لـ برناردشو
مغـزى الأسـماء والأماكـن في المـسرحية

دراســة فــي الأدب العــالــي

نوفمبر ١٩٦٧

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Tolostoy's Anna Karenina, Zola's Nana & Camus' The Stranger

An Analytical Comparative Study in World Literature

December 1967

15

'ANALYTICAL STUDY OF <u>ANNA</u> <u>KARENINA</u>, <u>NANA</u>, AND <u>THE</u> <u>STRANGER</u>.'

By
Hamad M AL-Marei

Hum. No. 201
World Literature.
Dr. Maurer
Sec. L, #1
Fall 1967
University of Louisville,
Louisville, Ky.

'Analytical Study of <u>Anna Karenina</u>, <u>Nana</u>, And <u>The Stranger</u>.'

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

"Every novel worthy of the name is like another planet, whether large or small, whish has its own laws just as it has its own flora and fauna,"[1] said Francois Mauriac, author of Therese Desqueyroux.

Whatever the novel, it is well to look sharp in the writer's planet. Each novel is the individual vision of an artist, his d direct impression of reality. Thus, to share his discoveries, we must look at the view he sees from his personal porthole. Nevertheless, it is a hard task, in analysing a novel or comparing it with other ones, to keep our mentality from being prejudice to one rather than the other. The greater the writer is, or the more qualified the novel is, the harder the task and the larger the s strain the analysist will undertake. Thus, I will say with great safety, that the purpose of this paper is not analytical of the sense of the word, nor it is a comparative. As a matter of fact, it is not more than a cross study of three great novels. This s study has nothing to do with the writer as such, nor it does say which novel is the best or which one is the worst. It is a study of what the writer is trying to achieve, and what kind of technique he uses to achieve his purpose through his writing.

Here, I am concerned with three novels. The first one is Tolstoy's Anna Karenina. Zola's Nana is the second one. The l last one is Camus' The Stranger.

＄ <u>Anna</u> <u>Karenina</u> was written during the period of 1875-1877 in
Russia by Lev (Leo) Tolstoy (1828-1910). Since this book was
written during Tolstoy's second period of his life, it was called
the prologue to his new life. The theme of the book ("which reflects
the begining of Tolstoy's development from Rousseauistic freedom
to Tolstoyism"[2]) is the calamities a women brings on herself and
others by following her emotions rather than her moral impulses.
This book, in comparison with some of his earlier work, appear to
contain some autobiographical elements.

Emile Zola (1840-1902), was a french writer; he was also the
author of the most famous book <u>Nana</u>. He is usualy considered the
founder and leader of French naturalism. The word is his own,
chosen because his method is similar to that used in the natural
sciences. This technique is a combination of minute and impersonal
observation and the experimental method used in science- "that
is, he (the novelist) should expose his sensibility to life and he
should work, as in a laboratory, upon the events and characters
provided by experience."[3] His book <u>Nana</u> was published in 1886.
It is a study of a prostitute and, moreover, a study of a milieu.
<u>Nana</u> is one book of Zola's series <u>The</u> <u>Rougon-Macquarts</u> (1871-1897).
This work was concieved in imitation of <u>Balzac's</u> <u>Human</u> <u>Comedy</u>,
and designed to trace the fortunes of a single family under the
Second Empire.

The third novel The Stranger was written by Albert Camus
Albert Camus (1913-1960). "Winner of the Noble Prize in Litetature
for 1957, he was a novelist, playwrite, and essayist, but above a

all a moralist."[4]   The Stranger (L' Etranger in French and The
Outsider in England) was published while France was a defeated
country, occupied by the oppressive German troops, with any hope
of liberation a long way off. It is a powerful novel which
attests to Camus' abilities as a master of controlled art and del
deliberately simple narration. It reveals the overwhelming emotinal
evidence of the absurdity of the attempt by the human mind to exp
lain the inexplicable world in human terms. "The bleak view of
life expressed in The Stranger caused Camus to be mentioned in
connection with Sartre and other existentialists, whose philosophy
in some respects resembles his."[5]

BACKGROUND

Emile Zola's <u>Nana</u>:

"Nana is the daughter of Gervaise, the alcoholic laundres
of the Macquart. Zola devotes one sentence to establishing the
connection and then ignores it."[6] At the start of the novel,
Nana is an actress. Admittedly she can neither act nor sing, but
her flamboyant sex appeal makes up for everything else. She
quickly becomes the most famous of the Parisian demimondianes
during the "luxurious and licentious" Second Empire. Nana spreads
ruin wherever she goes. She corrupts the Muffat family: the
Count is her slave, the Countess seeks consolation with other men,
the Countés daughter is married off to one of Nana's old lovers,
and even the Count's aged father-in-law winds up in her bed.
She destroys the Hugon family: Georges, a teen-age boy, commits
suicide for her sake and his brother Philippe becomes an embezzler,
leaving their mother broken with grief. She destroys Vandenvres,
who kills himself in the flaming ruins of his racing stables.
Those who do not die are left bankrupt.

Nana in her turn is victimized by those she love, like Fontan,
an actor who beats her, and Satin, "a bedraggled lesbian who tries
to drive other lovers away." Above all, she is ruined by her own
extravagance. China dishes and crystal scent bottles cramble at
her touch. She even throwsa handful of diamonds into a coal fire
to see if they will burn, and her servants make fortunes on what
she throw away. Her life is a swift 'crescendo' of waste and de
destruction ending in ruin and collaspe. She disappears from Paris

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for a time, and is supposed to be traveling in the East- Turkey
or Russia. When she finally reappears, she wasdying of smallpox,
and the men and womenonce loved her do not even dare to enter her
room.

Albert Camus' The Stranger:

Meursault- the Stranger- goes to his mother's funeral at a home
for the aged in Marengo. While there, he displays none of the con-
ventional gestures of grief. He returns to Algiers and the next
day goes to a swimming poolin the city. He picks up Marie Cardona,
whom he had once known briefly, takes her to a 'comic' movie, then
home to bed. He helps Raymond Sintes, a neighbor reputed to be a
pimp, in a plot to humiliate Raymond's Arab girl friend. Raymond
is arrested the following week for beating the girl and Meursault
gives evidence in his behalf. Meursault's employer offers him an
attractive position in Paris, but Meursault is not interested in
leaving Algiers. Raymond calls him at the office and invites him
and Marie to a friend's seaside cottage the following Sunday. He
also says he has been followed by two Arabs, one of them his girl's
brother, and he asks Meursault to watch out for them. When they
are leaving for the next Sunday, they notice the two Arabs watching
from across the street. Masson, Raymond's friend, welcomes them.
They swim and have lunch, then the three men go for a walk. They
meet the two Arabs and there is a fight (in which Meursault does not
take part) and Raymond is slashed. Later he and Meursault go walking
again and again they meet the Arabs. Raymond wants to shoot the
girl's brother but Meursault persuades him to hand over his pistol
and the Arabs slip away. They returneo the cottage and Raymond
goes inside to join the others. Meursault doesn't feel up to

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conversation in such heat and he again walks down the beach to-
ward the spring where they had last seen the two Arabs. He doesn't
expect to meet them and is surprised when he finds one of them thare.
The two men face one another for a time and Meursault is in agony
as the merciless 'sun' beats down on him. He steps closer and the
Arab pulls his Knife. Beads of perspiration blur Meursault's vision
and the sun's glare off the blade of the knife seems to pierce his
skull. He fires once, pauses, then sequeezes the trigger four times
more.

After his arrest, Meursault is interrogated by a migistrate
who seems more interested in his conduct at his mother's funeral
and his lack of belief in God,than he is in the killing of the Arab.
A lawyer is appointed for Meursault, a young fob who does not
understand his client's refusal to lie about himself. Marie visits
Meursault once in a large room full of noise; they are seperated
by about thirty feet. After a while, Meursault begins to think like
a prisoner and stops fretting about his loss of freedom. He spends
his days calling details bettrrfrom his memory. The concept of time
dissolves and he is surprised when a jailer informs him that he h
has spent six months in prison.

Through much of the trial, Meursault has the feeling that he
as a person is being left out, that the various officials are play-
ing a game in which he has but a small role. The Prosecution's
case is based on Meursault conduct at the funeral and his relation-
ships with Marie and Raymond, not the crime itself. He is accused
of being morally guilty of his mother's death, and the loathing of
the audience has obviously been fanned by journalists hungry for
Summer copy. Meursault's lawyer provides an incompetent defense
and the jury quickly brings in a death sentence. While awaiting

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execution, Meursault refuses to see the prison chaplain and racks his brain for a loophole, but then realizes there is none at all: death under the guillotine is certain. He also realizes that there isn't even the drama of mounting a platform, for one walks toward the ugly machine that sits on the ground.

The priest brages in without Meursault's permission and tries to convince the condemned that he should accept God before it is too late. Meursault refuses and the priest argues. Meursault suddenly erupts and, in a long reply, for the first time articulate thoughts that have been latant in his mind all along: death is certain for everyone and that is the only certainty, all are condemned, and the priest's religion can save no one. The only thing that m matters is the act of living- the perception and the experience of the physical world. He realizes, shortly before the execution, that he was and is a happy man, and he awaits the day of his execution with the hope that he will be greeted by a howling and angry mob.

IX

ANNA KARENINA

Anna Karenina, according to Phelps,"surely the most powerful novel written by any man of our time, and it would be difficult to name a novel of any period that surpasses it in strength."[7]

There must be some reasons, for the above description of Anna Karenina to be valid. Otherwise, that description could very likely be applied to many other good novels from the world of li literature.

What makes Anna Karenina so special could be inferred from the following elements: the theme of the book; the broad social background that covers three worlds; the type of plot of the story; and finally, but most important, the characters in it.

The theme of the novel is the calamities a women brings on herself and others by following her emotions rather than her moral impulses. But this, actually, is the general themes for there is not only one single important woman, but several important ones. Moreover, Anna Karenina, appeared not to be the main concerne of the author. Through this book, Tolstoy actually stated his real autobiography, in an epical form. The book, in conclusion, exposes the philosophy of the author and his ideas. "It reflects the continuing and growing distress of the author as he searched for the meaning of life."[8]

The author, in order to acheive his autobiographical goal, has to use an apropriate kind of plot. It is the double plot- the parallel-double plot, that was used in Anna Karenina. By that

method, Tolstoy acheived his goal of making Levin (Tolstoy) the
hero of the novel, while Anna, is the central symbolic figure.

Developing Anna Karenina in terms of its duality, the author
investigates two plans of human experiences: the personal and the
cultural. This allows him not only to provide insight into the
day by day experiences of human biengs, but to present a "panorama
of Russian life at that time."[9] To investigate that panorama of
Russian life, Tolstoy had to deal with three worlds. First, the
country estate which is Levin's world. Secondly, the court society
of St. Petersburg; this is the world of the Karenins and Vronsky.
Finally, Moscow as the world of the Shtcherbatsky family. The
author uses that world as a cross between the other two.

Two major threads in the story, told in alternating chapters.
Anna and Vronsky, Levin and Kitty. The threads are interwoven,
each of the protagonists meetings. Through these threads, the au-
thor not only exposes his philosophy of life, but also related it
to the social background of that time.

A   Anna and those around her derived their life experience from
the highly developed standards of urban civilization, while Levin,
on the other hand, is a product of the less rigid, individualistic
circumstances that obtain in the country. His values derived
from his deep-rooted attachment to his ancestral property, while
Anna'depend upon her social role as a high society matron.

The characters, in this book, serve as foils: Anna's death
and the birth of Kitty's baby; Vronsky's despair and Levin aspira-
tion. Moreover, Tolstoy's characters "leads to two lives one of
which consists in that which human spiritual evolution has added

to man."[10]   And this is very well represented by Levin and Kitty.

The author of <u>Anna Karenina</u> is subjective. Thus, he allows us to follow the inner mental and emotional process of his men and women. This could be contrasted to Zola's objectivity. Besides, Tolstoy uses the interior monologue. Each major character, through self-discourse, exposes his inner life by recapitulating his motivations, his previous experiences, his plans for further action. This interior monologue gives a verbal definition to the semi-articlate processes of a character's consciousness. Finally, by his uses of stock epithets and recurrent phrases, enables us to distinguish among the confusing number of characters. For example: Anna's dark curls and light-steps; Kitty's truthful eyes; and, Karenin's high-pitched voice.

The details in this book are so numerous as the characters are. However, these details are not complex cultural facts. But as it was, atoms of eexperience, "the indivisible units of imme-diate perception."[11]   Each one of them is so clearly the result of the author's own observations of humanity that the reality of the person or thing described strikes the reader with great force. Moreover, some of his details could be a theme for another novel.

Some of the devices the book contains are: strong anticipatory elements, (death of the railway guard early in the novel which p prepairs us for Anna's death); double plot; a clearly defined be-gining, middle and end. Finally, it contains some symbolic devices as: the train station and its symbolic value; the horse races as a working model of the Anna-Vronsky 's affair.

NANA

Anna Karenine was written as a study afd the two civilizations that were existed in Victorian Russia. The Stranger was written as a study of a philisophical concept thet was existed within a human mind not so far from our own present time. Nana, on the other hand, was written as a study of a milieu. It is a superb s study of the Parisian milieu during the Second Empire. It represents the chaoas and the confusion that brought the Empire to its destruction and then to its fall.

"Zola was a naturalist in theory but a symbolist in practice," [12] and Nana is just a continuation of his symbolistic writing. The technique he uses in this novel is a combination of minute and imp personal observations and the experimental method used in science. Tolstoy may share some of this description. Nevertheless, Zola's own usual procedures, in contrast to Tolstoy and Camus, is to begin not with a plot or characters, but with a certain cross-section of life which he wishes to portray. After that he selects some suitable characters and endows each with a simple traits. Thus, his characters in Nana, are often types or a mere representative of a class; they never do become interesting, complex, human individuals.

"Nana is the story of a prostitute," [13] that brought her own destruction and the destruction of others through her sensuality and her deficiencey in her morality. Nana, did not commit a sinful acts as Anna Karenina did, because her moral code did not include

the word'sin'. Neither did she bring any profit to the ones around
her as the aspiration that Levin and Kitty gained through the des-
piration of Anna and Vronsky in Ann Karenina. All what Nana br
brought was'destruction'.

The plot in Nana is merely a series of loosely related tableaus.
The whole story is centered, moreless, around Nana. In this, it
has a similarity with Camus' The Stranger. However, the latter
used the narration technique, while the former made his subjects
to contact directly with the reader, just as Tolstoy did in
Anna Karenina.

Zola's novel covers a single social background; but not as
small social background as we find in The Stranger. however, The
story of Nana took place in an environment that contained a con-
flicting social levels. This type of environment, we also found
in Tostoy's novel. To the contrary, Camus' novel dealt with a
narrow range of individuals, and hence, with society.

The characters are well chosen to represent that "in its way
to destruction" society. Probably, there are sixteen important
ones out of a major thirty. In Anna Karenina, we find about a d
dozen important characters, however, out of the mentioned one hundred
and seventy. In the contrary to the last novel , the characters
in Nana donnot represent the individuals, rather, they represent
a type of individuals. The Stranger 's characters are very small
in number, however, they have some important value of exposing
the single major character-oMeursault.

Nana, the very major character of the novel, is vulgar, un-
feeling, and barely literate. Her power over men is purely sensual.

We don't find the same character of Anna Karenina, because Anna
is romantic in her love, and morally cautios. Meursault's charac-
ter in The Stranger exemplifies by his feeling indifference toward
anything and everytbhhgg not in society alone, but in Life as a
whole.

Two important things that strikesthe reader of Nana. For their
importance, they should be studied in little detail. These are:as
follows: First, Symbolism in the novel; and secondly, the details
that Zola stated in some of the situations.

Symbolism in Nana could be cited here. First of all,is Zola's
description of Nana as a golden fly, glittering like a jewel, which
has been born on a dung heap and flies at palace windows, spreading
poison whenever its light. Secondly, the symbol of Nana's life
in her great luxurious bed, which Count Muffat has paid for it,
and his reward is that the first time he sets eyes on it, it is
occupied by his father-in-law, the Marquis de Chouard, an old man
whose sexual exertions have reduced him to a state of 'slobbering',
senile paralysis. Finally, the symbol in Nana's death of small-
pox instead of the more obvious syphlis. Zola chose smallpox pre
sumably because it is so disfiguring, and provided a strong contrast
 with Nana's former beauty. Furthemore, this is an ingenious
connection between NNana to die along with the Empire whose rotten-
ness she typified."[14]

This symbolism, beside representing Zola's power of imagi-
nation, represents the comedy that surrounds the novel. It is
also an evidence of the suffering that the subjects that these
subjects are going through.

The second element Arethbaddtaails that the author provides in describing the crowds of people. For instance, his description of a day at the races, when a horce named for Nana wins the Grand Prix. In this situation, Zola builds up his picture with an accumulation of details and scraps of conversation, shifting the scene often enough to create a sense of busy confusion, and skillfully increases the name of the winning horse.

Finally, we notice Zola's manipulation of the 'time' in the book. At the begining of the book, time is carefully observed, But at the end of the book, we notice that Zola was obliged to compress the passage of time. For example, Nana's child Louis, was born when she was sixteen, and yet, at the end of the book, he is still as a baby. Such confusion of time is to project the triumph of chaos.

THE STRANGER

"The basic philosophical issue with which this novel deals
is the confrontation of the absurd."[15]   Thus, if we could say that
all art is concerned with the difference between appearance and
reality, then we could certainly apply this to The Stranger.

This novel, unlike the first two, is a short one. Besides,
it is not crowded with ahgreat details of the subject as the last
two books have. The characters are not many, however, and there
are only three that have some major importance. All of the action
takes place in one city, Algiers, and even it has a narrow range
of social background. Nevertheless, The Stranger is a powerfull
novel which attests to Camus' abilities as a master of controlled
art and deliberately simple narration. "It reveals overwhelming
emotional evidence of the absurdity of the attempt by the human
mind to explain the inexplicable world of human terms."[16]

Meursault's character, the stranger, is the subject of the
book. It's theme is that of a man doomed because he refuses to
make the artificial connections between facts and feeling that are
dictated by society that makes its own truth. He had noticed the
details of life around him but censors the usual connection estab-
lished between them. Thus, unlike Anna Karenina or Nana,
The Stranger, explores one of the more important problem, that is,
the relationship between facts and truth.

The plot as well as the language of the novel is deceptively
simple. The auther is not playing games with us, but is letting
the very words used by the narrator tells us much about him that

could not be told effetively with direct narration. Here, we find
that the first person is used to give us an insider's view, to tell
us a story in the words of someone who knows what it is all about.
However we always look at Camus in the person of Meursault, never-
theless, the case is so different than that of <u>Anna Karenina</u> or
<u>Nana</u>. In the latter case, we know that Tolstoy or Zola are the
one who is talling us the story, not theirsubjects. Probably, for
this reason , we think that "<u>The Stranger</u> belongs in reality to
the catagory of narrative rather than to that of novel."[17]

There are eleven chapters in the book; however, the work
as a whole is composed of two parts of equal importanxe, The first
part makes us live beside Meursault a few of his days, and ends
with the murder. The second part makes us relive these same days,
but obliquely, through the proceedings of the court-depositions
of witness, indictment by the prosecuting Attorney- and outside
of Meursault.

Throughout these two parts, we find the Stranger lives only
in detached moments, a succession of present instants independent
of each other and cast back into oblivion once they have been con-
sumed. This discontinuity of time is marked in the narrative by
the discontinuity of the style. On the contrary to Tolstoy's o
and Zola's book, we find in Camus' novel that each sentence, like
each instante forms a whole, a small, homogenous and enclosed uni-
verse, attached by nothing what precedes, and drawing nothing in
its wake. A thing is no sooner started than swallowed up in sile-
nce. From the thing to the other, there is no logical articulation,
no relation. In their juxtaposition, there is no trace whatsoever
of some kind of spiritual ascendancy over reality. Moreover, there

is no consciousness interposes to organize this sensitive materials
translating it or submitting it to the psychological selection w
which stocks the memory, unifies it and orients it, projecting it
into the future according to an affective dynamism. As a matter
of fact, the narrator remains passive and his presence becomes
transparent. Here we énduntered a different case than that of
Anna Karenina and Nana. The personality in both nóvèhese last
novels are characterized by dynamism,; the characters are active
and talkative. We might even say that he, the Stranger, is pre-
occupied with remaining silence. "His phrasing does not appertain
to the world of speech, it has neither ramifications nor pro-
longation, nor interior structure... it is measured out in the rhy-
thms of a silent intuition."
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This dicontinuity afd the 'transparency' of The Stranger puts
us in contact with the pure reality in the crude state, where lurks
the absurd, to contaminate us. The awakening of the consciousness
will inevitably follow, and thus the objective of the author will
be achéèved.

In Anna Karenine, or even in Nana, we find the detailed des-
cription of the plces or the things. We also find the symbolic
devices. But in The Stranger, the detailes and the symbolic devi-
ces are not so numerous; however, there are some elements of symbo-
lism. First, there is thecelement of time where the author clearly
defined in the first part of the book. In the last part , however,
he suddenly ignored it. Dramatically, the first part of the book
is structured around certain specific time intervals; the second
part is structured arond certain kinds of events. Finally, there
is the theme of the sun ánd its heat that hameoccupied Meursault

during the funeral, the crime, and the trial. This theme provides the evidence of the author's stickness to the environment.

Finally, there is one element in this book that could not be ignored. It is the comedy and the human in its deepest meaning. We find, for example, Meursault, in the prisoners' box, listens to what is being said about him, as though, it concernes someone else; his absurdity emphasizes the absurdity of the miserable comedy in which his destiny is at stake and arouses a certain humor, which is perhaps the surest argument of The Stranger.

CONCLUSION:

    We could realize, from the previous discussion of these three novels, some elements that are common in them. Comparing these common elements would give us some of the sentimentallity of the authors who have written these novels. For example, both _Anna Karenina_ and _Nana_ are a sociological study of a socail environment and its units the family. Moreover, both novels had a tragic ending. This is an evidence of its naturalistic type of writing. It also showsuas the novels' authors divoree from Romanticism. Finally, Zola's symbolism in _Nana_ is a strong proof of his realism.

    The Stranger, also has a tragic ending, however, in a different sense. The Stranger does not bring his own-self destruction, neither does he bring the destruction of the others around him. The death sentence that was brought to him through the law offices was because of his nonacceptance of the existed codes of the Society. The book is more likely a psyco-philosophical study of the human behaviour in this complicated world.

    Finally, there are not any elements of romanticism in these three novels. Above all, we cannot cassify them andarchlassicism. They all deal with people in their real form within their real environment.

NOTES*

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*The Bibliography No. refers to the number of the book in the Biblilgraphy
 list on page 14.

حمد محمد المرعي

آنّا كيرانينا لـ تولستـوي، نانا لـ أميـل زولاً الغريب لـ ألبرت كامـو

دراسة تحليلية في الأدب العالمي المقارن

<u>ديسمبر ١٩٦٧</u>

△ ١٥

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

٢) آداب وفنون وثقافات

● ١٩٦٤ ـ ١٩٧١ ●

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

٢) آداب وفنـون وثقـافـات

الأعداد : ١٠ ـ ١٥

● ١٩٦٤ ـ ١٩٧١

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Hamad M. Al-Marei

Life Formation On Earth

the Elements, the Reactions, the Ways & the Means

July 1964

△ 16

حمد محمد المرعي

تكون الحياة على الأرض
العنـــاصـــر والتفـــاعلات والعمليـــات

يولية ١٩٦٤

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Population Explosion and its Control
The Catholic Dilemma

March 1966

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Background

Population explosion is one of the biggest issues of the day, if not the only one. What makes it so important is the fact that it does not affect one particular person or one particular country; on the contrary, it is a crisis that concerns the human race as a whole. It is one of the results of our new civilization; nevertheless, it is going to be, in my opinion, the one that will stop the the wheel of progress in the future. Considering all of its aspects and limitations, it is a problem that concerns the survival of humanity. It is a problem, some of the results of which are poverty, misery, a fight for food and room, and in a word chaos.

Let me show how this problem developed. In the language of figures, we see that in the time of Christ, which was the beginning of the first century, the world's population was 250 millions only. Going up in the time scale, by the year 1600, the population increased to 500 millions, twice that of sixteen centuries before. Some people would consider this to be a very small increase. *1850* The population at that time was 1,000 millions, or one billion. This means that in 250 years, the figure was doubled.

During the previous one hundred years, from the year 1850 to the year 1950, according to the previous rate of increase,

the population figure should have increased to one billion
eight millions, but this is not the story. The population
increased from one billion to three billions.

What caused such a sudden increase in such a short period
of time? Many factors are related to this increase, but not
a single one can provide an answer to this question. Unfortun-
ately, the most inclusive reason for the increase is the pro-
gression of civilization. How, though, could this happen?

Let us look to some of the aspects of civilization.
Civilization has made it possible for us to live comfortably
dn this planet. It has advanced to such an extent that it has
even defeated disease. Moreover, it has provided us with a
most healthy nutriment and a perfect environment. From this
we conclude that the death rate has been reduced and the birth rate
has been increased.

If the present rate of increase of 1.9% is maintained,
and the present population of three billion people continues
to propagate, then by the year 2000, the figure is going to
jump to six billions. Considering the fact that only one forth
of the earth's surface is land, and that many countries de-
pend on the soil of others for their nutriment, then what is
going to happen in the future? Experts say that only a few
countries will be able to support one per cent of the popula-
tion increase, and even this for only a few years.

Many solutions to the problem have been proposed, but they
are far reaching solutions, and none of them will work promptly.

Some of these suggestions are the utilization of marine and
pоolar materials for food and other organic macessities.
Even these suggestions are not practical, however, because
these materials are going to be diminished by large scale
consumption.

Since we are spending money and time to explore space
and planets, another suggestion would to inhabit one of these
discovered planets for the excess population. Unfortunately,
this suggestion overlooks the fact that if birth control is
not to be practiced on the earth, it would surely not be prac-
ticed on a space ship. If only one couple started the trip,
the number of progeny would be about two thousand at the end
of the trip. Thus it would be necessary to provide 85 million
space ships every year, each with a capacity of 2000 and at a
cost of several billion dollars or more per ship. Assuming
that the world could support a population of ten billions,
and that population growth continues at the present rate, in
seventy years it would be necessary to move 170 millions
each year.

The only logical and practical solution to the problem
of population explosion is to control and limit birth. Birth
control of all kinds is the only means of providing a decent
life for coming generations, and a means of human survival.

The population growth, however, was accepted by some people
as a natural thing and should not be limited. Three schools
exist today that oppose birth control. They are the Cornucopian

Economists, the Communist Ideology, and the Roman Catholic Church.

In this paper, I am going to narrow my discussion to the Ideology that is more involved in the existence and morality of society than any of the others, which is the ideology of the Roman Catholic Church.

Vatican Rule and Birth Control

From the discussion I have presented to show how serious is the issue of population explosion, it seems that there is no avoidance of limiting and controlling birth. Man's intelligence has developed to the point that he is now capable of controlling birth. There are four means available today. They are the abortion operation method, the rhythm method, the contraceptives, and the intra-uterine devices (IUD).

Since the abortion method is by no means practical, and the rhythm method is not a certainty, we are left with the other two methods. However, the Vatican has opposed the use of these last two methods on the grounds that they are unnatural and immoral.

In my estimation, religion is a creation of society. It is a constitution for the people which may be changed, interpreted, and amended with the passage of time. Natural law could be unnatural in a different time or a different place, and it is the people who, collectively, could decide whether interpretation of religion should take such a pattern; acknowledging that such a pattern would not conflict with the basic

ideas of the reasons for the existence of that religion.

How does the Vatican stand on birth control in general, and birth contraceptives specifically?

"At various earlier times in the history of the Church, it had been the common opinion of Catholic theologins that the only lawful purpose for initiating intercourse was procreation." This view, derived from the Stoics, was asserted by Clement of Alexandria, and adopted by Origen, played a guiding role in the Greek Church. It was also affirmed in the West by St. Ambrose, St. Jerome, and above all, by St. Augustine. From 1100 to 1680 A.D. the Alexandrian or Augustinian requirement of procreative purpose was dominant among Catholic moral theologins. It was only by the end of the fifteenth century that a sharp critique had been made of the dominant theory. Moreover, the Council of Trent in 1563, for the first time, spoke at a counciliar level about love and marriage after the controversy took its major shape; however, it did not relate it to intercourse. Yet, during the next century it became accepted that intercourse, in order to avoid incontinence elsewhere, was lawful; after all, this view had the implicit support of St. Paul in I Corinthians 7. At the same time, they were uneasy about pleasure as a purpose in itself, and the consciousness was that to seek pleasure only in intercourse, while excluding other purposes, was to commit venial sin. "Only at the turn of the nineteenth century was the idea advanced that the expression and fostering of love

could be recognized as the purpose of marital intercourse.
This idea has been carried on by Alois De Smet in his un-
Tridentine, by Dietrich Von Hilderbrand in his non- August-
inian insight, and above all by Herbert Doms. Finally, the
Vatican II confirmed and crowned this development of theolog-
ical thought by relating the coital expression of conjugal
love to procreation. But the argument did not cease at that
point, however. It only gave rise to broader and deeper
argument that the Catholic Church and the Vatican Council
had to discuss carefully. The argument went on in dealing with
the relation of the primary and secondary ends of marriage,
with the conjugal love and intercourse, and finally, with
the procreation purpose.

It was not until the 1930's that the Vatican modified
their rule about sex, when Pope Pius XI approved the rhythm
method. The Vatican has banned all mechanical and chemical
contraceptives ever since. Pope Paul VI said in October, 1966,
that the question of birth control was not open to doubt.
By that statement, he meant that the Vatican is still opposing
all artificial means of birth control.

Catholicism, by doing that, is basing its logic on a
religious, and only religious ground. Their opinion is that
artificial contraceptives are life impeding and immorality
spreading devices. Thus their argument has two sides. The
first deals with the naturality of the artificial contraceptives;
and the second deals with the morality of the society and the

affects of the artificial means.

In the words of Pope Pius XI, artificial birth control
is termed as "an offense against the law of God and of Nature".
To be more scientific, I will try to question how far natural
is the rhythm method. The rhythm method, as the artifialal
methods are, is a means of life impediment. To back my logic,
I say that the purpose of any action justifies its results.
Thus any sexual intercourse that is done under condition to
prevent giving birth should be termed unnatural and thus it
should be opposed by the Vatican, and the rhythm method is
no different.

AS a matter of fact, the birth control pill, biologically
speaking, does imitate nature - which occationally makes a
woman skip ovulation. "Moreover, birth control pills regulate
a womans monthly cycle so that she has her period every 26
to 28 days, as nature presumably intended." That was its
first major effect. To this extent, the pills are biologically
normalizing. The second major effect is to do something that
nature neither intended nor foresaw, and that is to prevent
the release of a fertilizable egg from the woman's ovaries
during the cycle in which the pills are taken, and thus
make it impossible for her to conceive. For that reason,
I think that the pill should be approved by the Vatican.

Vatican opposition to birth control is not based solely
on arguments relating to natural law. According to the
Catholics, there is every likelihood that artificial contra-

ceptives will be used largely by those for whom it was not intended, with deplorable affect on morals. Although, this argument is very important, nevertheless, it should be pointed out that any objection to the immorality of contraceptives must apply equally to the Catholic approved rhythm system. In fact, the chance of promiscuity is considerably greater with the rhythm method than with contraceptives, since it is easily available to anyone, married or unmarried. Finally, I believe that a moral choice is a decision between certain alternatives on the basis of the rightness or wrongness; it is not a compulsion to act in a certain way because of the fear of consequences. I think that the woman who refrains from illicit sexual intercourse only because of fear of detection is not a moral woman, merely a cautious one. Thus artificial means of birth control might reveal immorality, but it could not cause it.

Conversely, it should be noted that the absence of contraceptives does not guarantee either morality or prudence. It has been declared that 75% of all young girls will not be virgin in 1980. Whatever truth there may be in this declaration, it is not the whole story. Latin America, for example, is predominantly Roman Catholic, and Catholic influence has made contraceptives difficult to obtain. However, the highest rate of illegitimate births in the world are in Latin America. Moreover, in eight Latin American nations, more than half of all births are illegitimate. The lack of contraceptives does

not seem to create elevated standards of sexual behavior.

Whether the Vatican opposition to birth control is going to last long is a matter of controversy. Many Catholics in the world today are challenging the Vatican rule on the issue. In the United States, no less than 53% of American Catholic couples have adopted some other form of birth control other than the rhythm method. Sixty per cent of the Catholics in the Neatherlands are practicing contraception, most of them with the tacit approval of their parish priests. Poland is not the only country where there has been a "turn from the Church" because of birth control. Throughout Catholic Europe, birth rates are now lower than in the predominantly Protestant United States. In Jamaica and storngly Catholic Puerto Rico, the people have realized the importance of birth control and have adopted it. Finally, the majority of the 76 member body of the Pontifical Commission on Birth Control of Pope PaulVI of 1966 has agreed that it was time for a change - recommended abolishing the Roman Catholic Church ban on contraception. The evidence is still more against the Vatican opposition to birth control from men of science and experts of theology.

<u>Conclusion</u>

The problem of the population explosion is a vital one, and it is very discouraging to think of its magnitude. But there is hope. This hope could be realized if we Understand that, however reproduction is a private act, it is in no way a private affair. It has a far reaching consequences. In fact, it is "no longer can we defend excessive reproduction by saying 'well, they can afford it'; the question is 'whether society can afford it'.

I have learned, form the history of mankind, that every ideology is in contineous reform; it could be slow, but it is encouraging. In-here, I am sure that any body, including the catholic, would hate to see his grandchildren fighting miserably for a piece of bread and a foot of space. God's greatest gift is intelligence, and that human beings should not have to go on suffering for the sake of "Natural Law". In fact, we have to use that intelligence to redefine our laws and rediscover our nature through reason and not wait for God's revelation. "After all, is it not that 90% of all people are caused by accident".

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"The root source of a modern Christain morality is not so much the Bible or natural law as the consequences of what constitutes 'the good or welfare of man. In society and individually'".

Francis Simons,
Roman Catholic Bishop of Indore, India

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حمد محمد المرعي

الانفجار السكاني العالمي
اشكالات الكنيسة الكاثوليكية في تحديد النّسل

مارس ١٩٦٦

١٧

Hamad M. Al-Marei

The Lincoln Tower [Louisville, Ky. U.S.A.]: A Modern School in Architecture

July 1967

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Mrs. Payne
Hum. 202. Architecture

ARCHITECTURE OF THE LINCOLN TOWER

Hamad H. Al-Marei
Summer, 1967

Modern man is trying to simplify and unify all fields which are related to him. That attitude of Modern man is for the purpose of reducing his environment to its unified basic laws and theories. Thus, it will be easier for him to understand it better and utilize it for the maximum degree.

As any other analytical studies, architecture is one of the most developing and progressing fields. There is no doubt that man of the twentieth century is trying to make it simpler and unified to relate it both to the human environment and human needs.

Let us take an example of Modern architecture and try to analyse it to see how much sucess we have achieved in this field. Our example is the Lincoln Tower of Louisville, Kentucky.

The structure we are studying, is the home of the multi-million dollars Lincoln Life Insurance Company. So Lincoln Tower is the housing the offices of the company. Moreover, it serves as an advertising means to give the company more prestige, popularity in this metropolitan area.

As a modern built structure, The Lincoln Tower has freed itself from the cage-like building as the Seagram Building of Mies Van de Rohe in New York City. The structure of the Lincoln Tower is rather flat in its appearance and more horizontal in relation to the ground it rests on. It has a distinctive feature of being an organic architecture rather than an inorganic one. That feature appears from the three-

-2-

shape design. The highest floor has larger area than the lower ones,, All floors are suspended, from a **structural steel truss-work** above. which in turn being suported by a vertical structural core wall. The main body of the building also rests on a modular base of concrete.

The design of the building is being arranged to serve the maximum functions of the company's activities. The floors are column-free and are secluded from the unnecessary walls. The symmetry of the building is very well-balanced. The horizontal body of the floors is balanced with the perpendicular supporting column of the shaft. The circular decorative arrangements of the screens are so related to the angular arrangements of the squared divisions of the supporting structure. Beside serving as decorative and balancing means, the circular arrangement also supplies the shade for the excluded-from-walls-floors. Although, I believe that it emphasises the more decorative aspects, they are important and necessary to give the design its function as a tower and as a home for offices.

In relating the tower to its site, we come to a very important point; it is the coloration of the building. The building is located on a green land in the Blue Grass Country. However, the color of the building not only contrast the color of the landscape around it but it denies it. The pink supporting column conflicts with the yellow color of the main body of the building. Moreover, the yellow-pink color of the building in turn conflicts even more with the surrounding green landscape. I conclude from this that this type of contrast is to make the building to look different; thus, it attracts more attention

However, the feelings arouse by looking at the building could
not last for any period of time since such feelings would become
indifference. More harmonized colors could be used to relate
the building to its site rather than this angular desert-type
coloration.

Even though apart from the design that the building
gives a hollow box impression rather than what it meant to be
as a tower. The solidity and verticality of its structure
has been completely constructed in one side leaving the other
sides of the building plain horizontal. Here, we may take
the Research Laboratory of Johnson's Wax Company at Racin,
Wisconsin. This structure even though more spacious and
horizontal gives a real tower appearance.

The design accommodates practically all the activities
carried within it and around it. Floors that are spacious,
obstacle-free in nature, provide a free movement and wide
choices of offices arrangement. Light from the outside is
well provided because of the type of design that is being
used. Weather conditioning instruments are being minimized
through the utilisation of the ornamental fountains and ponds
at the base of the building. Moreover, the minimum amount
of pomp-type materials which are being used, the reduction
of decorative means, and above all the location of the building
give it more practical for the activities of the company.

It is featuring our modern age of the use of reinforced
concrete, the rational setting, the humanitarian outlook, and
the highly technical instruments we have developed. It was

F. L. Wright – father of Organic Architecture – the founder
of the Taliesin Associated Architects who can be given the
credit for this type of architecture.

حمد محمد المرعي

برج لنكولن [لويفيل ، كنتكي، الولايات المتحدة]
مدرسة حديثة في الهندسة المعمارية

يوليه ١٩٦٧

١٨

Hamad M. Al-Marei

History of Genetics
From Mendel's Work Until its Rediscovery
⇨ *1865 - 1920* ⇦

October 1967

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HISTORY OF GENETICS FROM MENDEL'S WORK

UNTIL ITS REDISCOVERY.

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Fall 1967-1968

History of Genetics From Mendel's Work
Until Its Rediscovery.

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INTRODUCTION

GENETICS is one of the few sciences of which the birth
date can be specified. It should have begun, of course, on
that February evening in 1865 when Mendel announced to his
fellow members of the Brünn Natural Science Society that he
had found some laws or principles underlying the process
of inheritence in plants. Actually, the investigations which
grew together into the field of Genetics, altogether they
stemmed directly from Mendel's discovery, did not take form
until after the dramatic and independant rediscovery of the
same principles by three European botanists in 1900.

Fifty years later, Genetics has become a many-sided body
of knowledge and method dealing with questions which are
recognized as of central importance in all efforts to understand
living matter-how it perpetuates itself through reproduction,
how it changes and adapts itself to its environment. Many
of its principles have turned out to have a general character,
so that not only do the rules apply to plants, as Mendel first
found, but to animals of all kinds; to man himself, and to
the whole world of micro-organisms, bacteria and viruses, re-
vealed since Mendel's time. What has been learned about he-
redity and variations has been found useful not only in learn-
ing more about biological problems, but in practical ways
too and agriculture, medicine, and society in general have
begun to share the profits from genetical research.

BACKGROUND

Practical knowledge of heredity precedes the dawn of history. The science and art of agriculture had to develope to a point where populations could not be relatively concentrated before civilizations could emerge from simple cultures. Practically all of our domestic animals and plants were tamed before writing was invented, and not only tamed but selectful, improved and so altered, that in some cases, their wild ancestors cannot be recognized. The great prehistoric importants which occured in our domestic flora and fauna could not have taken place in the absence of good breeding techniques; although the sound practices were generally imbedded in much irrelevant nonsense. The prehistoric farmer was like the character satarized by Voltair who claimed that "he could destroy a herd of swine very effectively by means of a proper combination of prayers, incantations and arsenic."[1] Crops would be planted in the proper phase of the moon, sacrifices would be much to the appropriate deities, and the seed would be selected with the greatest care. After a few thousand years this resulted in real progress and sometimes our modern plant breeders find it very difficult to improve further the varieties which have been bred and selected for thousands of years.

In spite of the fact that the existence of sex has been recognized in the date palm since about 2400B.C., and that the practice of caprification had a known sexual significance, the role of pollen in reproduction in general was not realized. Grafting, however, had a sexual symbolism and, through some

The description of the ceremony accompanying the insertion of the scion into the stock as described in the Nabateen Agriculture, makes this clear. Theophrastos describes grafting and budding very accurately and records that the seedlings from grafted trees do not breed true for variety. Florentinus (Ca. 220A.D.), gave directions for making citrons black by grafting them on apples, and red by grafting them on mulberries and pomegranates. The reported graft hybrid, produced by the citron on the orange was described by Diophanes (Ca. 350A.D.), Palladius (Ca. 375), and in the middle of the sixteenth century by the Spanish botanist Monardes (Tolkowsky, 1938).

In the Middle Ages, on the other hand, Al-Haj (Ca. 1160) reported that all his attempts to produce this hybrid failed. Other Arabian botanists were not so careful, however, Ibn Wahshya told how Kumqunts could be produced by grafting the orange on the olive. Abt-al-Latif (1162-1231) stated that when one planted the different citrus fruits near one another, one could obtain from the innumerable varieties, perhaps a true record of spontaneous hybrids, but he described also the banana as a hybrid produced by inserting the seed of the date palm into the Corm of the colocasia. Even Francis Bacon (1626) gave directions for producing these hybrids, but about this time a real secterial chimera was recorded (1644).

Animal breeding was also pursued with skill, and the end results were good. An example for that are the modern cattle, Bos taurus, and descended from crosses between B. primogenius and B. longiforns. The sterility of the mule was discussed briefly by Empedocles and Domocritus and in great detail by Aristotle. Rare instances of fertile mules were recorded by

Herodotus and Varro. Finally, mules were described by Colomella,
Pliny, and later by practically every medieval writer in nat-
ural history.

Human breeding has, also, a considerable place. In Ancient
Egypt, the Pharaohs married their own sisters when possible.
Uncle-niece marriages were common in Greece, and their off-
spring of mother and son (Oedipus and Jocasta) and father and
daughter (Cyniras and Myrrha) were depicted as exceptional
specimens, not at all degenerate.

The Greeks had some very rational ideas on heredity itself.
They knew that heredity was not a simple matter, and this
knowledge of heredity permeates both their poetic and scientific
literature. The tragedy of Euripides and Electra would illu-
strate their knowledge in the subject. In Rome, as well as
in Greece, it was common knowledge that a child would some-
times resemble its male parent, sometimes its female parent,
and sometimes both parents. Moreover, Plutarch and Lucretius
even noted that heredity often skipped a generation and that
the child would resemble one of its grandparents.

The peculiarities of heredity, the seemingly erratic
nature of the appearance and reappearance of recognizable
fruits led, of course, to much speculations. Aristotle, in
his attempt to explain its observed vagaries, cites, but do
not endorse, perhaps the first account of a particular mech-
anism for the transmission characteristics:

> There are some who hold that the semen, though a unity,
> is as it were a 'seed aggregate' consisting of a large num-
> ber of juices into one fluid, and then take off some of this
> mixture; in doing so he could take off not always an equal
> amount of each juice, but sometimes more of this and some-
> times more of that, and sometimes he takes some of one
> and nothing at all of another; So they say, it is with the
> semen, which is the mixture of a large number of ingrediates;

and in appearance the offspring take after that parent from
whom the largest amount is derived. (<u>Generation of Animals</u>-
769 a 25).[2]

That was about the 'ancient' thoughts and their knowledge
is heredity. In the past three centuries, great advances in
this field were realized. A great step from the realism of
speculation to the realism of reality was taken during the
latter part of the seventeenth century, when Van Leewuenhook
observed living sperms in the semen of various animals. A
short time later another scientist, Jan Swammerdam, developed
the preforration theory, which held that the development of
the embryo was actually only the enlargement of parts that
were already present in the sperm or egg.

During the eighteenth century, a Frenchman born in 1698,
Maupertuis, studied, experimented, and wrote of concepts of
heredity which were far in advance of his time. He reported
on a human pedigree showing polydactylism, and discussed
albinism in man and a color pattern in dogs. He also devel-
oped a theory of heredity somewhat like Darwin's pangenesis.
Bonnet, a contemporary of Maupertuis, developed the encasement
theory. He differed with Maupertuis on the idea of the seminal
particles uniting by pairs to form the body parts.

Lamarck and others discussed heredity in the eighteenth
century, and the theory of inheritance of acquired characters
came to light. In the latter part of this century, Wolff,
a German investigator, did an extensive work on the devel-
opment of the chick embryo and developed the theory of epigenesis.

In the first half of the nineteenth century, Darwin came
and disagreed with Lamarck. In an effort to find an explana-
tion for heredity and variation which would fit into his theory

of Evolution, he proposed the provisional hypothesis of pan-

genesis:

> According to this, every cell, tissue and organ pro-
> duces minute pangesis (gemmules); then are scattered through-
> out the body by the currents of blood or other fluids and
> conjoin to recreate those cells, tissues, and organs from
> whence they came. [3]

This theory of pangensis should bring us back the ages to

Anaxagoras and Hippocrates, which also was mentioned by Aris-

totle, Galen, and others.

Gregor Johann Mendel was born in 1822 in the village of Heinzendorf in northern Moravia-then a part of Austria, now in Czechoslovakia. In 1843 he was admitted as a novice at the Augustinian Monestery at Brünn; four years later he became a priest. In 1850 he took an examination for a teaching certificate in natural science and failed. "It has been suggested that the examining bourd was biased because he was a priest or because his scientific views were unorthodox; the plain fact seems to be that he was inadequately prepared."(4) In order to remedy this, Mendel spent four terms, between 1851 and 1853 at the University of Vienna. Some of his teachers were the famous researchers of that period as Doppler, Ettinghausen, Redtenbucher and the botanist Unger, an outstanding figure in the development of the cell theory.

After the summer term of 1853 at Vienna, Mendel returned to Brünn. At a meeting of the Vienna Zoological-Botanical Society in April, 1854, his teacher Kollar read a letter for him, in which he discussed the pea weevil (Bruchus pisi). In the following summer, Mendel grew 34 strains of peas; in 1855, he tested them for constancy. The following year, he began the series of experiments that led to his paper, which was read to the Brünn Society for Natural History in 1865 and was published in their Proceedings in 1866. That paper included two of the fundemental laws in the field of Genetics.

Before going to Mendel's paper, which included his discovery, some of his side activities should be mentioned very briefly. Mendel was interested in honeybees and was an active member of the local beekeepers society. It has been suggested

by Whiting and by Zirkle that he probably knew of the work of
Dzierzon on bees, and that Dzierzon's description of segre-
gation in the drone offspring of the hybrid queen may have
given Mendel the clue that led to his studies of peas.

From Mendel's letter to Nägeli, a professor of botany at
Munich-to whom Mendel sent a copy of his major paper of 1865-
it appears that he was very actively engaged in genetics stud-
ies on several other kinds of plants through 1870. For example,
he experimented with Hieracium, Cirsium, Geum, Mirabilis, maize,
and stocks. It was from his experiment on Mirabilis, which
he repeated in two different years with the same result, that
he had seen and understood the intermediate color of a hetero-
zygote and had made the appropriate tests to establish these
interpretations. None of these results were published at that
time.

After several preliminary trials he chose the edible gar-
den pea (Pisum sativum) for his subject. Varieties in cult-
ivation are distinguished by striking characters recognizable
without trouble. The plants   are habitually self-fertilized,
a feature which obviates numerous difficulties.

Following his idea that the heredity of each character
must be seperately investigated, he chose a number of pairs of
characters, and made crosses between varieties differing mark-
edly in respect to one pair of characters. The case which
illustrates Mendelian methods in the simplest way is that in
which heredity in respect of height was studied. Mendel took
a pair of varieties of which one was tall, being 6 to 7 inches
high, and the other was dwarf, 0.74 to 1.5 inches high. These
two were then crossed together. In peas, this is an easy

operation. The unbroken anthers can be picked out of a bud
with a pair of fine forceps, and the pollen of the plant chosen
for the father may be at once applied to the stigma of the
emasculated flower. The cross-bred seeds, thus produced, grew
into plants, which were always tall, having a height not sen-
sibly different from that of the pure tall variety. In our
modern terminology, such a cross-bred, the first filial gener-
ation is called F1. From the fact that the character, tallness,
appears in the cross-bred to the exclusion of the opposite
character, Mendell called it a 'dominant' character; dwarfness,
which disappears in the F1 plant, he called 'recessive'.

The tall cross-bred, so produced, in its turn bore seeds
by self-fertilization. There are the next generation, F2, when
grown up, they prove to be mixed, many being tall, some being
short, like the tall and the short grand-parents, respectively.
Upon counting the numbers of this F2 generation, it was dis-
covered that the proportion of talls-to-shorts exhibited a cer-
tain constancy averaging about three talls to one short, or in
other words, 75% dominants, and 25% recessives.

These F2 plants were again allowed to fertilize them-
selves and the offspring of each plant was separately sown.
It was thus found that the offspring, F3, of the recessives
consisted entirely of recessives. Further generations bred
from the recessives again produced recessives only; therefore,
the recessives which appeared in F2 are seen to be pure to the
recessive character, namely, in the case we are considering,
to dwarfness.

The tall F3 dominates when tested by a study of their
offspring, F3, proved to be of two kinds, instead of being

all alike as the case with the recessives. Thus, we realize here that: A) plants which gave a mixed F3 consisting of both talls and dwarfs, the proportion showing again an average of three talls to one dwarf, B) plants which gave talls only and are thus pure to tallness. Ratio of the impure (A) to the pure (B) plants was 2:1. The whole F3 generation, therefore, formed by self-fertilization of the original hybrid consists of three kinds of plants. First, the ones that are pure to tallness are homozygous in respect to this character. Secondly, the ones that are not pure are heterozygous and dwarfness. Finally, the ones that are pure or dwarfness are homozygous in respect to this character.

Mendel applied his method to the following seven distinct pairs of characters in peas and found that in each the inheritance was similar. These seven characters were: 1-height. 2-distribution of flowers on the stem. 3-color of unripe pod (green or yellow). 4-color of seed-skin (grey or brown; with or without violet spotting or white). 5-color of cotyledons (yellow or green). 6-shape of seeds. 7-shape of pod.

The most amazing thing about his experiment is that his ratios are consistently close to expectation the sampling theory would lead one to expect. For instance, yellow vs. green, his F2 number was 6022:2001-a deviation of 5 (from 3:1), whereas a deviation of 26 or more would be expected in half of a large number of trials, each including 8023 seeds. "Fisher shows that this same extremely close fit runs through all Mendel's data. He (Fisher) calculated that, taking the whole series, the chance of getting as close as fit to expectation is only

_____ ____ __ __ ____ ___ _____ __ __ ___ _____ __ expect

so close an agreement with expectation."[5]

The conclusion, which Mendel drew from these observations, is one which will suggest itself to anyone who reflects on the facts. This is his first law of inheritence, the law of segregation. His second law, which he also concluded, was that of the independent assortment. When two pairs of contrasting factors were studied together, Mendel found that they segregate independently of each other. A two-factor, or a hybrid, ratio was obtained in the F2 generation, with all combinations of alleles, as the factors may now be called, being realized in these proportions expected on the basis of random assortment. Bank-crosses of the heterozygous F1 plants to the homozygous double recessive verified the correctness of his assumption.

In 1865, Mendel communicated these results in his Pisum later to be published in the Proceedings of the Brünn Society in 1866. But they passed unheeded. Even his subsequent paper on Hieracium, appeared in 1869, met a similar fate.

The fact that the Brunn journal is rather scarce does not in itself explain why the work was not noticed. Such a circumstance has seldom long developed general recognition. "The cause is unquestionably to be found in that neglect of the experimental study of the problem of species which supervened on the general acceptance of the Darwinian doctrines."[6] The total neglect of Mendel's work is known to have been a series of disappointments to him. "He reported to have had confidence that sooner or later it would be noticed."[7]

In 1868 he was elected as Pralat of the Konigskloster. At the end of his life, a dispute with the government started as a result of the 1872's law of imposing special taxes on

religious houses. During this period, he fell into ill-health, contracting a chronic nephritis, in which he died January 6, 1884. His famous work remained to be rediscovered sixteen years later.

The period between 1866 to 1900 was dominated by the development of the theory of evolution that started from Darwin's publication of the Origin in 1859 and its implications. So far as heredity was concerned, it was largely a period of the production of theories. Nevertheless, several advances were made in the field which helped to make Mendel's results acceptable.

One of the outstanding figures of that time was the zoologist at Freiburg, August Weismann. It was during this period, that pangenesis was the accepted doctrine, which Weismann helped to replace. He published several works on the embryology of the fly Diptera during the period of 1862-1864. This work seems to have led to much of his later theories-especially the germ-plasm theory of 1863. According to his work, the germ line is the continuous element, and the successive bodies of higher animals and plants are side branches budded off from it, generation after generation. He recognized that in higher plants and in many animals the visible distinctness of the germ line only appears late in development and, in fact, that many cells still retain the potentiality of doing so. This idea was a fruitful one, however, since it led to an emphasis on the effects of the hereditary-genetic-material in the soma and to a minimizing of effects in the reverse direction. According to this theory, the body consists of two distinct

with the exception of the reproductive cells, and the germ
plasm, which is set apart from the time of early embryonic
development solely for the purpose of reproduction.

The germ-plasm theory, which should be mentioned, led
to a challenge with the inheritance of acquired characters
hypothesis, which had already been questionned by Der Bois
Raymound in 1881. For Weismann to disprove this hypothesis,
he carried out an experiment on mice. He cut off the tails of
mice for 22 successive generations and found no decrease in
the tail lengths at the end of the experiment.

Before 1870, the importance of the nucleus in the cell
theory, however had become evident, was not universally recog-
nized. With the observations of Hertwig (1875) and Fol (1879)
on the fertilization of the egg of the sea urchin, the role
of the nucleus in fertilization and cell division was placed
beyond doubt.

Hofmeister's experiments on the living cell of Tradescantia
in 1848 has called the attention for the existence of subnuclear
particles. He had clearly observed that the nucleus of the
spore mother cell resolves itself into bodies and that their
bodies separate in a definite manner so as to take part in the
formation of the daughter nuclei. In 1848, of course, the sign-
ificance of these structures of heredity was not known. These
early observations of Hofmeister and others on living cells,
however, should constitute one of the fundemental discoveries
in Cytogenetics, "that the cell nucleus may resolve itself into
microscopically discrete bodies," which we call chromosomes.
(8)

We should now turn our attention to some other advances
that were taking place in a related field. The perfection of

histological techniques and the compound microscope in the latter half of the nineteenth century ushered in the other important discoveries in cytology and cytogenetics. With the introduction of refinements, such as the killing and fixing, sectioning, staining, dehydration and mounting of tissues, it was possible to observe more minute and delicate structures. It was during this period that another fundamental discovery in the field of nuclear cytology was made. Flemming and Strasburger have shown in 1882 that the chromatic threads split lengthwise early in cell division. Van Beneden almost immediately followed up this discovery with the observation that the identical halves of these split chromatic threads separate and pass to opposite poles at anaphase, and each is subsequently incorporated in one of the two newly-formed 'daughter' nuclei. These discoveries have confirmed that the somatic cell division is accomplished by a process in which the chromosomes split lengthwise and the daughter cells recieve the same number and kind of chromosomes which the parent cell contained. It may be concluded from this that the important process of mitosis was thus described and understood.

Improved microscopic techniques were also largely responsible for a third fundemental advance in cytological knowledge. It had been known for a long time, that in some ways or another, the presence of a male gamete was required to initiate development in the egg. However, it was chiefly the researches of Hertwig (1875) and Strasburt (1877), which showed that the primary nucleus of the embryo results from the union of two nuclei, one from the egg, and the other from the sperm. The brilliant work of Van Beneden (1883-1887) on the round worm,

Ascaris, completed the picture by showing that the chromosome number is reduced to one half in sperms and eggs and that at fertilization the nuclei of the egg and sperm contribute equally to the chromosome constitution of the offspring and restore the somatic number. Thus, it has been shown, during this period, that sexual reproduction is characterized by the union of the reduced nuclei of male and female gametes to form the primary nucleus of the embryo, which as a consequence of such a union has the somatic number of chromosomes.

Roux, in his 1887 essay, argued that the linear structure of the chromosomes and their point-by-point division into equal longitudenal halves, were such striking and widespread phenomena that they must have some selective valvue. This, he suggested, lay in their effectiveness in assuming that each daughter cell received the same complement of chromosomal material. He saw this as a great argument in favor of identifying the chromosomes as the bearers, of the units of heredity. Besides, he specified that these are being arranged in a linear series- the visible slender strands of the dividing chromosomes. Thus, in his experiments on the fertilized egg of the frog, Roux layed the foundation for the concept that the hereditary units, or genes, are arranged in constant linear order within the chromosomes. However, the final cytological proof, did not come until much later, when the linear corresponcence between genetic loci and bands of the salivary gland chromosomes was shown by Painter, Bridges and others. Nevertheless, Roux concluded in 1883 essay, that at the second division process of mitosis does not lead to exactly equal complements of hereditary units in the daughter cells. This was the beginning

of the hypothesis that differentiation is due to somatic segration-the sorting out of hereditary elements at somatic cell division.

These ideas were at once adopted by Weismann, who elaborated them into an intricate theory of heredity and development. Accordingly, the chromosomes are the bearers of the hereditary materials. Weismann supposed that each chromosome remains intact in successive generations, and is simply passed on through the germ line from one generation to the next. Since an individual may resemble several different ancestors in one respect or another, he concluded that each chromosome carries all the hereditary elements necessary to produce a whole individual. De Vries, greatly influenced by Weismann, was unwilling to accept all of his conclusions. In his Intracellular Pangenesis (1889), de Vries developed a theory of heredity different from Weismann's.

De Vries pointed out that there are two parts of Darwin's hypothesis of pangenesis-the view that there are persistent hereditary units which are passed on through successive generations, and the view that these are replenished by 'gemmules' derived from the somatic tissues. He rejected the second of these views, but retained the first. Above all, he added an essential point, namely, that the units ("pangens") are each concerned with a single character, and that these units may be recombined in various ways in the offspring. It should be realized, that this was a clear approach to the Mendelian point of view, and helps to explain why, eleven years later, de Vries was one of the three men who discovered and appreciated Mendel's paper.

In <u>Materials for the Study of Variation</u> (1894), Bateson expressed the growing dissatisfaction with the view that selection was a sufficient explanation of Darwin's Evolution. This dissatisfaction with the then-current views, led Korschinsky, de Vries, and above all, Bateson to lay great emphasis on the importance of discontinuous variations. As a matter of fact, they overemphasized the distinction between the two kinds of variation; but the immediate result was to focus attention on sharply separable variations, and these were more easily susceptible of exact study.

From the above discussion of Weismann, de Vries, and Bakeson, it should be realized how the theory of pangenesis was put under question. Francis Galton, who was a cousin of Darwin, carried out an experiment to test that theory. He performed extensive blood transfusions between different strains of rabbits and found no effect on their descendants in either the first or the second generation. However, the experiment was not decisive, it served the purpose of putting a theory of one of the famous men under study. Moreover, Galton was interested in quantitation and his important role in the field of Genetics and Eugenics.

This period from 1866 until 1900 has prepared the atmosphere for Mendelism to reappear again. Mendel had forty reprints of his paper Pisum. He sent copies to Nägeli and Kerner; it was not known what happened to the other 38 copies. As was pointed out earlier, Mendel's work was no only unappreciated but completely ignored, either by his correspondence or by the

not exactly by accident thought of Mendel's paper, however, went on finding them.

Many geneticists have considered that the 35 year delay in the recognition of Mendel's significant discoveries is a remarkable event. Some attribute this delay to publication in an obscure journal; some to a lack of statistical knowledge among his contemporaries; some to the dazzle of Darwinism; others to the neglect and negative attitude of Nägeli, and still others to the inability of his contemporaries to appreciate his simple genius which was "ahead of his times". To some extent each of these interpretations has merit, but there is an aspect that could not be ignored. It is the personality and its importance as factual content in the development of a concept. Had it been Darwin, or Bateson, or any other person, the Pisum work probably would have been appreciated since its birth. Mendel lacked the abrasive aggressiveness of others. He was two humble to fight for his cause, to put his scientific ego in the forefront of his activities. If this is so, than "Mendel was the wrong man to discover Mendelism." For these factors, I think, that the science of heredity could have been started a long time before the 1900's.

Nevertheless, by his simple yet fundemental hypothesis, Mendel became one of those few in the group of great thinkers and discoverers who changed our "Weltanschauung," our ideas about the world and about the life of man: Copernicus-Newton-Darwin-Mendel.

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(7) Bateson, W., _Mendel's Principles of Heredity_; p. 332.

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(9) Carlson, Eluf Axel, _The Gene: A Critical history_; p. 246.

حمد محمد المرعي

تاريخ علم الوراثة

من أبحاث مندل إلى إعادة إكتشافها

١٨٦٥ ـ ١٩٢٠

١٩

Hamad M. Al-Marei

Malaria *and its Prevention in Africa*

the Means & the Obstacles

July 1968

20

MALARIA AND ITS PREVENTION IN AFRICA

by
Hamad AL-Marei

Dr. Covell
U-Louisville
Summer 1968

Malaria is a widely distributed disease at one time prevalent to a greater or less on every continent and on many islands of the seas. It's endemic presence is dependent upon a complex of environmental factors, favorable to the development of large numbers of vector (anthrophilus) mosquitoes, as well as to the plasmodia° causing the disease. Tempreture, particulary as it effects the development of the plasmodium in the mosquito, and tempreture combined with humidity as it effect the life of the vector, are critical factors. Futhermore, the distribution of Malaria is dependent upon the availability of water for mosquito breeding. Naturally, arid regions may be seriously be affected because of imperfection in irregation.

In Africa, mosquito have well found their perfect environment; therefore, Malaria become an endemic in many regions of Africa. In 'Wadi Halfa', in the Sudan, for example, we find that the disease was well known for a long time in the past. The reason for it's endemicity and spreading is the location of this region in tropical Africa. It is located on the Nile river, where the climate there is hot and humid; and health care is nil. Nevertheless, health agencies for the prevention of Malaria, especially after WWII, have been striving to control and eleminate the disease, and their accomplichment was more than what it hoped for.

The symptoms of the disease are commonly characterized by more or less regularly occuring febrile paroxysms. In most cases, there are three fairly-well defined stages. There are the cold stage (the chill) in which the skin becomes pale and the teeth may chatter. The second stage is the hot stage or fever, when the tempreture start rising during the chill. The third stage, or last stage in most of malarial cases, finally, is marked by the appearance of a general perspiration, the fever falls, and the tempreture approaches normal. The entire paroxysm may last but a few hours. The intervals, sometimes, may be repeated every 24 hours (Quotidian); 24 hours (Tertian); or every 72 hours (Quartan).

The pathogen of the disease in that African region is most likely to be <u>Plasmodium</u> <u>vivax</u>.It belongs to the class Sporozoa of the phylum Protozoa. This organism is blood-inhabiting microparasite, passing the principal portion of its° asexual cycle within the red cells (erythrocytes) of the host where it produces, with the aid of hemoglobin, a characteristic malarian pigment (melanin). According to Ross, "50 parasites in 1 cm. of blood; or 150,000,000 in a man 64 kilograms (142 pounds) in weight"[1] are the minimum number of the organism to cause the disease.

A good natural vector is <u>Anopheles</u> species which is freely and abundantly infectible by the several species of human plasmodia, offers a favorable environment for development of the sporozoite state, avoids loss of sporozoite in unsutable places, breeds successfully and abundantly, is a house invader, and takes human blood repeatedly. This <u>Anopheles</u> species is the <u>Anopheles Gambiae</u>, it belongs to the phylum Arthropoda, class Insecta, order diptera and family culiddae.

It is in this insect, and only in the female, where the pathogenic organism's sexual cycle (Mosquito, Ross or Sporogenic cycle) is completed. This cycle starts at the organism's gametes, goes into the zygotes and finally to give sporozoites. Thise sporozoites are finally introduced by the insect.

To control thise insect and to eleminate the disease, it is neussary to understand the life cycle of the insect. Anopheles gambiae has a complex Metamorphosis (Holometamorphosis). Mosquito eggs are deposited on the surface of quiet pools of water, a long the margain, or on the ground in depressions or among rubbish sites if the water is running or flooding. The one essential requirement is that all sites must be protected from wind and waves. If the eggs are not subjected to dessication, then the incubation period lasts only for several days; otherwise the embryo may emain clormant for a long period of time. The larvae grow rapidaly and under optimum condition, it may only require 7 days or less. It molts four times to be a pupa. This pupa stage is very short, usually from 2-3 days. Then the pupa becomes the adult mosquito. Longervity of all male adult may live for only a week or less. On the other hand, the female may last from 1-5 months.

Malaria control has to pass through many stage as the Methods were improved. In the endemic Africa region of 'Wadi Halfa', probably the best method of control is the eradication one. However, there are many related aspect in that region. Eradication programs and malaria control must take into consideration the broad aspects of the ecology of the disease it^r vector, and it^r victim. Russell formula $(X+Y+Z)$ b e p t i= Malaria Incidence, could very well express the said above. In this formula:

"X= human carrier; Y= mosquito vector; Z= human victim; B= biononics of man mosqutio; E= environment of man and mosquito; P= plasmodia, species, and strains; T= therapy and control measures; and I= the immune facturs in man and mosquito."[2]

"Moreover, transmission of plasmodia causing Malaria is dependent on having one of several anophelines in the reservoir."[3] Any mosquito is suitable that (1) ingest an infective dose of gametocytes and particularly repeated doses; (2) keeps close to dwelling; (3) lives long enough to mature viable sporozoites; (4) repeates it^s feeding on man; and (5) avoids loss of sporozoites in unsuitable sites. Malaria is present in varying degrees according to the continuity of contact between vecturs and man. "Persons become infected who expose their bodies to repeated inoculation of sporozoites"[4] Futhermore, "in order to procduce Malaria it is neassary not only that the Anopheles exist but that they are numerous". Ross estimated that Malaria would not continue to be endemic where the ratio of infeced anophelines to human was less than 40:1 per month."[4] Finally, there is the possibility that other vertebrates could be a reservoir for the Malarial organism. "Rodhain (1948) has shown that the chimpanzee is a suitable wild hust" for some of the vectors."[5]

In considering all the above aspects which is related to Malaria, we find that a complete eradication from any area is not probable if it is not possible. This is due to the fact that an area to be Malaria-free only when (1) no vector Anopheles is present; (2) vector is unable to feed 2 or more times on man; (3) vector dies before pathogen becomes infective; (4) a stable agriculture causes adecline in vectors; and (5) economy of the area is at a high level.

Thus it become time and material consuming to carry on such a method. Futhermore, it is impossible at least in the present time, especially if we are dealing with such a continent as Africa or any of its re- gions. And, if it becomes necessary to do so, the prospected health agencies may decline to deal with other important diseases by their concentration on Malaria.

The only practical and reliable method to control Malaria is to find a weak link in the mechanism or process of transmission. One of the weakest links in the transmission chain and of the one that especially limits the reservoir significance of a mosquito is the re- quirement that it must feed repeatedly on man. Various means have been proposed to prevent repetitive feeding, such as (1) screen and cloth barriers. (2) alternative hosts.(3) repellents and lethal agents by the uses of residual chlorinoted hydrocarbons.

In conclusion, the best method to be introduced in 'Wadi Halfa' to prevent Malaria is to follow some important considerations. Thise considerations are as followed: (1) elemination of all swamps. (2) canalization of water streams. (3) introduction of new methods of using water in agriculture. (4) informing the natives in a large scale about the endemic disease and how to prevent it. Finally (5),sanitation of all urban and rural places.

NOTES

1-W. Herms and M. James, <u>Medical</u> <u>Entomology</u>; P. 189
2-"   "   "   "   "   "   "   ; P. 200
3-W. Horsfall, <u>Mosquitoes</u>; P. 54
4-"   &   "   ; P. 54
5-"   "   "   ; P. 55

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حمد محمد المرعي

الملاريا ومكافحتها في أفريقيا

الإمكانات والصعوبات

٢٠

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

٣) علـــوم طبيعيـة وتكنـولوجيـا

● ١٩٦٤ ــ ١٩٧١ ●

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

٣) علـــوم طبيعيـــة وتكنـــولوجيـــا

[٥] دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية متنوّعة *

● لا توجد نسخة متوفرة   * باللغة الإنجليزية

حمد محمد المرعي

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

١) علوم إجتماعية وسياسية وعلاقات دولية وإدارة عامة

٢) آداب وفنــون وثقــافــات

٣) علــوم طبيعية وتكنـولوجيــا

الأعداد : ١ ـ ٢٠

● ١٩٧١ ـ ١٩٦٤ ●

حمد محمد المرعي

ألف باء .. ألف باء
حروفا في إنتماء

[٥]

دراسات وبحوث أكاديمية

الأعداد : ١ ــ ٢٠

● ١٩٦٤ ــ ١٩٧١ ●

حمد محمد المرعي

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حمد محمد المرعي

ن والقلم وما يسطرون

القلم ٦٨ ـ ١

آلف باء
آلف فيزياء
حروف في إنتماء

مجموعة الأعمال بلا تأويل للأقوال

حمد محمد المرعي

آلف باء آلف ياء
حروف في إنتماء

مجموعة الأعمال بلا تأويل للأقوال

الفهرس العام

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