韦晓亮，新东方的“小宝老师”，留留学网创始人，国内著名国外考试教学及留学规划专家，逻辑写作教学专家，主讲 GRE 写作、GMAT 写作、新 TOEFL 写作，留学文书写作，小宝老师的 GRE 写作，GMAT 写作是新东方的品牌课程，吸引了无数学生，小宝老师韦晓亮每年帮助几万名学生申请进入海外顶级大学，目前小宝老师的美国学生会俱乐部已经云集了 MIT、Harvard、Stanford 等一批顶级学校的高材生，他们在帮助和指导国内学生的留学申请。出版物:《GRE 作文大讲堂－方法、素材、题目剖析》《GMAT 写作论证论据素材大全》《GRE 写作论证论据素材大全》 《TOEFL 写作/口语论证论据素材大全》 《雅思写作论证论据素材大全》 《新东方 GRE 写作网络课堂》《新东方 GMAT 写作网络课堂》 。

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小宝老师创立的新东方留留学社区网 www.66xue.com

《新 GRE 作文大讲堂-方法、素材、题目剖析》

电子版

韦晓亮　编著

新东方
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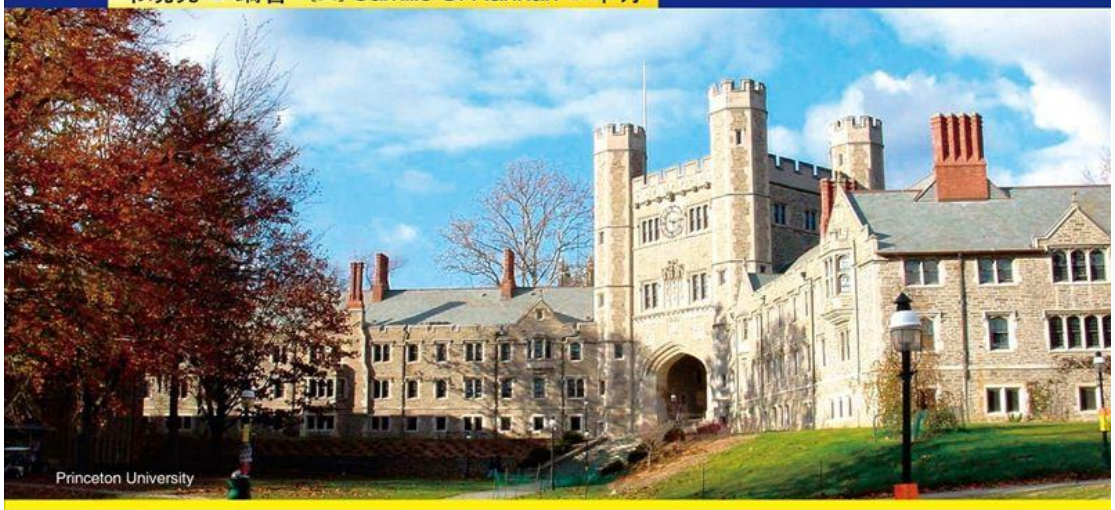
第三版

新GRE作文大讲堂

——方法、素材、题目剖析

韦晓亮 编著 [美] Camille G. Hannah 审订



- 详细阐述Issue和Argument写作策略与步骤
- 提供丰富的论证、论据素材，拓展思路
- 完整收录GRE写作官方题库，剖析题目要求
- 浓缩多年教学精华，指导考生高效备考

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读者以及学生的评价

《GRE 作文大讲堂》的含金量很高，特别受益于这本书的每一个 Issue 题目分析和论证概念，非常详细，非常有启发性。
——清华大学　王萌

《GRE 作文大讲堂》对于每一个题目的论证分析给我提供了非常受用的思考启发，同时每一个题目的【本题涉及的论证概念和论据素材】让我们每一个考生都能洞穿每一个 Issue 题目的内涵以及学会用英文怎么来表达这些内涵。
——陈露　GRE 作文满分考生

小宝老师的 GRE 作文课给我留下了极为深刻的印象，严密，充实，幽默。过瘾！期待还有机会听到小宝老师的精彩授课。
——新东方 G0018 学生　高旗

这本书的 Issue 论证论据工具箱给了我极大的帮助，同时 Argument 部分的驳论思路非常严密，操作性非常强，是一本非常全面、非常好的书！
——天津大学　方敏

一个优秀的老师，写出的一本优秀 GRE 作文著作，帮助无数学生获得了理想的分数，拿到了国外著名大学的 Offer。
——2008 年普林斯顿大学全奖获得者　清华大学　石同学
GRE 考分 710 + 800 + 5.5

序　言

初识韦晓亮， 是在新东方的一次教师聚会上， 看到一位长相英俊的小伙子坐在我的对面，自我介绍的时候， 我才知道他就是我听说了很久的韦晓亮老师。那时候晓亮已经是新东方很有名的 GRE 老师了。说到 GRE 教学， 每个教英语的老师都会感到有一点恐惧， 因为GRE 确实是最难教的一门课； 说到 GRE 的作文课， 大部分老师都避之惟恐不及， 因为那实在是让人望而生畏的一门课。但韦晓亮老师不但把作文课教好了， 而且学生更喜欢他率直甚至彪悍的性格和为人， 这是很了不起的事情。

后来， 通过和晓亮老师的交谈和接触， 我大概知道了他成功的秘密。总结起来有三点， 一是他的潜心研究精神， 二是他的谦虚好学， 三是他的教学天赋。对于有些年轻老师来说，英语教学是得到了皮毛而没有得到血肉， 很多老师教学技巧很好， 但实际功底不够深厚，更没有潜心研究的精神， 这样上课就很容易只有噱头没有实质。晓亮老师在教 GRE 之前，就对 GRE 作文的几百道题目、 每道题目的文化背景和思路都做了深入研究， 因此在课堂上就能够做到得心应手， 旁征博引。此外， 他的谦虚好学使他成为一名新东方品牌教师，我从他脸上看不到一点骄傲， 而是看到他继续借鉴研究、 不断学习其他老师的教学方法，使自己的教学精益求精。这种精神加上他自己的教学天赋和口才，以及富有磁性的嗓音，使他成为了一个受学生欢迎的老师。

收到晓亮的 GRE 写作书稿， 请我为他的《GRE 作文大讲堂——方法、 素材、 题目剖析》作序， 我很高兴， 也欣然接受。他耗时 3 年时间编著完成了 48 万字的书稿， 我知道这里面的辛苦和不易。要坐得住， 要思考， 要通宵难眠， 才能够完成这样一本很难写的书。我翻阅了整个书稿， 觉得本书是当今能够找到的 GRE 作文书中最具指导价值的图书之一。尽管还有不完美的地方， 但处处透露出了作者的思考和灵气， 再加上作者指导学生的实际经验， 这本书对于学生备考 GRE 作文， 就有了切合实际的指导意义，同时本书的学术性让本书还非常适用于那些想提高自己英文写作实力的读者们。

生活的路由两大内容组成： 生命不同阶段的目标和走向这些目标的过程。目标固然十分重要， 因为没有目标生命就没有了方向， 但走向目标的过程更加必不可少， 所有生命的精彩都是在过程之中走出来的。我们所能够真正体验到的永远是一时一刻的感动， 一草一木的芳香， 或对一人一事的刻骨铭心的记忆。目标就像是一座山的顶峰， 即使我们天天看着这座山的顶峰， 但是如果不采取行动去爬这座山， 所有一切精彩的故事将不会发生， 一路上所有的风景将跟我们无缘。当我们向顶峰迈开第一步时，我们就进入了生命的过程，我们生活的全部内容从此展开， 而目标已经静悄悄地沉睡在了我们心灵的某个角落， 只有当我们迷失方向时才清醒过来。

韦晓亮老师通过这本书的写作，体会了生命中实现目标的勇气和实现目标过程的坚定不移。我知道晓亮老师未来还会做出很多有意义的事情来。我想所有渴望出国留学的学子们， 所有即将赶赴各个考试阵地的考生们， 你们都能够从韦晓亮老师身上学到这些东西， 这不仅仅是学到书中对于 GRE 写作透彻的分析以及提供的文史知识，而是在这本书背后隐藏的一个人成功的真正本质： 努力， 执着， 和不知疲倦的勇往直前。

新东方教育科技集团董事长兼总裁

前　言

若干年来， 对于渴望出国留学深造的同学们来说， GRE 考试和 TOEFL 考试是必经之路，能否取得一个满意的 GRE 考试成绩是影响考生获得国外学校奖学金的重要因素之一。正是由于其在筛选人才上的无法替代的重要性， GRE 考试的难度令全球考生最为头疼。更让人头疼的是， 从 2002 年开始 ETS 对 GRE 考试改革， 将写作部分正式纳入 GRE 考试， 取消了原有的逻辑部分。这一举措使得原本就被喻为“上帝读的英语”的 GRE 考试， 更成为了“上帝也很难‘写’的英语”，GRE 作文成绩也成为 GRE 考试分数评估的最为重要的依据之一。同时，在 2011 年的 GRE 再次改革期，GRE 考试调整了很多关于 Verbal 和 Quantitative 的内容和题型，但是依然保持 GRE 作文题型的稳固不变以及题库的稳定，这些都反映了 ETS 以及美国大学对 GRE 作文部分的重视以及现行出题方式的高度认可，因此总体说，2011 年开始的新 GRE 作文部分基本没有变化。当然， 由于作文部分的引入， GRE 考试的难度有了一个大幅度的增加， 尤其对于写作功底较为薄弱的中国考生来说， GRE 似乎成为了飞越重洋中的天堑， 难以逾越。那么究竟 GRE 作文考试难度有多大呢？GRE 的作文环节都考查什么内容呢？如何有效地备考 GRE 写作呢？又如何提高自身写作能力呢？本书就这些长期萦绕在考生脑海中的疑问进行了全面地解答，希望可以通过本书消除考生对 GRE 写作考试的恐惧感， 也警示考生要认真全面地准备 GRE 作文考试。

本书从实际出发， 结合 ETS 公示的 GRE 写作考试的题库， 对于如何进行 GRE 立论文（Issue）和驳论文（Argument）的写作进行讲解， 书中提供了详细的英文论证语言、 论据支持、 文化历史背景以及名言警句。

全书共七章， 具体内容安排如下：

第一章 新 GRE 考试以及新 GRE 写作部分概述。本章详细介绍了 2011 年 8 月开始的新 GRE 考试整体的内容、特点、评分细则，同时详细介绍新 GRE 考试写作部分的考试内容、 特点、流程和环境， 并对 Issue 和 Argument 两个部分的题库进行了宏观介绍，同时提供了有效的备考计划和建议。

第二章 Issue 写作。本章详细讲解了 Issue 写作的特点及评分标准， 提供了 ETS 官方范文及各个等级的文章示例评价，并对 Issue 文章的写作步骤及文章结构进行了分析和讲解，同时给出了精彩的文章开头、 正文和结尾的英文段落， 以便于考生快速入手， 提高语言表达能力。

第三章 新 GRE Issue 题库及各个题目的论证概念以及证据素材。这一章是本书最为核心的章节， 也是占篇幅最大的一章。由于 Issue 是考生备考最花时间和精力的， 因此本章也是考生最需要重视的一章。现在的新 GRE Issue 题库 149 个题目看似很庞大， 其实很多题目的概念是交叉的、重合的， 甚至是重复的（按照 ETS 给出的官方题库）。第二节详细分析了 Issue 题库的所有题目。每一个题目都给出了【本题涉及的论证概念以及论据素材】部分给出了供考生参考的每一个题目涉及的“论证概念”和可以用到的“论据素材”。所有论证概念以及论据素材均来源于国外权威的社会科学以及自然科学论文、 微软大百科、 Wiki 百科、 大英百科全书， 以及 Economist、 Times 等权威期刊书籍。在编写本节时， 笔者详细地研究了每一个题目， 对于每一个题目的深层含义进行了探究， 查阅了大量的哲学、历史、 科技、 艺术、 法律等书籍， 由此提供了严密的论证和论据。之所以如此， 因为 GRE 写作命题本身蕴藏着丰富的文化信息， 反映了政治、 经济、 文化、 科学、 艺术、宗教等领域的某个侧面， 揭示了很多社会现象、 思维方式、 人生观以及价值观等。有人说， “一粒沙子看世界”， 笔者认为从这些题目中就可以窥见社会， 窥见人生。众多考生由于对文史、 哲学知识的匮乏， 在很大程度上无法理解文章题目， 从而无话可说、 无例

可举。这一恼人的现象将在读者认真阅读完此书并深入理解后得以改善。请读者注意， 本章第二节中对于 Issue 题库每一道题目的涉及的论证概念的分析需要同时结合本书第四章的论据以及论证工具箱来学习。

GRE 写作， 尤其是 Issue 写作对于论据的要求非常高， 因此对名人事例的储备和相关知识的积累是非常重要的。对考生而言， 要学会合理地发挥一个论据的最大功效， 要学会储备那些既有针对性， 又有灵活性的例子。什么意思呢？例如， 第三章给出了每一个题目论述的【本题涉及的论证概念以及论据素材】， 这些内容其实既是该题最具针对性的概念或者论据， 又可以用到很多其他题目中。

例如： William Harvey (1578-1657), English physician, who discovered the circulation of the blood and the role of the heart in propelling it, thus refuting the theories of Galen （注： 质疑精神的题目用到的有效论据）and laying the foundation for modern physiology（注： 过去对现在的影响的有效论据）. Harvey's De Motu Cordis subjected him to severe criticism by some contemporaries（注： 伟大的科学家总得不到当时的社会认可， 思想超前）, but this was more than compensated for by the later widespread recognition of his contribution.

如上所示的一个哈维的例子， 虽然只是短短一小段话， 但是段落中的三个不同的地方其实应对了 Issue 里最重要的三个主题（“质疑精神”， “参考过去， 参考历史， 过去对现在的影响”， “伟人思想超前于他们所在的时代”）的写作的例子， 而这三个主题加起来辐射了 GRE Issue 话题题库中的将近 49 个题目， 这种素材的性价比就太高了。因此， 考生要学会这样的总结， 这里只是启发， 后面对每一个题目都会给出题目所涉及的论证概念以及素材， 以使考生能掌握 GRE Issue 写作每一个话题的“题眼”和每一个题目背后的“概念”和“文化”。

第四章 Issue 写作素材及论证工具箱。本章第一节论据工具箱提供了 GRE Issue 写作中可以用到的典型论据。通过学习本节内容， 考生会对该怎么写论据、如何举例有清晰的认识。通过本节， 考生会了解到献身于扶助印度贫困无助和濒临死亡的人们的 Mother Teresa， 她于 1950 年建立了一个罗马天主教修女组织——慈善传教会，并于 1979 年获诺贝尔和平奖；南非黑人政治领袖 Mandela 从事反种族隔离活动的历程和历史意义； 美国国父 George Washington， 他开创了主动让权的先例， 为美国奠定了一个自由、 民主、 共和的体制保障等。而所有这些论据段落都直接有助于 GRE Issue 的 149 道题目的备考。第二节按照教育、科技、 政治、 文化、 历史、 法律、 哲学等分类， 提供了各大类话题经典的精彩论证，考生由此可以知道教育的目的、 美国教育的层次结构； 什么是法律， 法律的公正性应如何判断； 如何对待历史； 如何正确看待政府的权力； 什么是辩证的分析角度； 艺术的定义以及艺术的价值； 质疑精神的含义； 科技发展对于人类社会的利与弊等等。所有这些论证概念从权威性和学术性角度支撑着对 GRE 题目的分析，同时考生可以提高自己的英语表达能力， 并进行有针对性的分析， 提高论证能力。

第五章 Argument 写作。本章系统介绍了 Argument 写作的特点及评分标准，并提供了 ETS 官方范文及评析。需要强调的是， 本章第三节 Argument 各个逻辑错误攻击点的剖析及模板是本章的核心。对于 Argument， 考生最需要掌握的是 Argument 的七大类逻辑错误以及笔者提供的模板。Argument 写作模板中的各种典型逻辑错误的写法仅供考生参考。

正确的 Argument 备考方法是： 先模仿书中的模板， 然后进行改写， 这样才会有所创新，避免雷同。对于本章第三节 Argument 题库的题目分析， 是为了讲解各个逻辑错误而配套的真题实例分析， 笔者通过对 10 篇 Argument 文章的详细分析， 对每篇文章的逻辑错误进行深入完全地剖析， 并提供详细的范文， 以使考生可以完全领会 Argument 的逻辑错误以及相对应的攻击模板。通过 10 篇文章的讲解，考生将会发现新 GRE Argument 题库中所有 174 个题目几乎如出一辙， 每个题目的逻辑错误必然是 7 大类逻辑错误中的两个、 三个或者四

个， 套路非常固定。所有逻辑错误思维及语言模板， 加上 10 篇文章足以保证考生轻松指出题库中任何一道 Argument 题目的主要逻辑错误，同时用地道的英文写出有理有据的驳论文。
第六章 GRE 写作黄金句型。本章提供了 230 条 Issue 常用论证句型和 50 条 Argument 常用论证句型， 旨在提高考生的英语表达能力。
第七章 GRE 写作常用名人名言、 格言警句。本章提供了近千条 GRE 写作立论文和驳论文可用到的名言警句，这些都是针对 GRE 作文真题而精心摘录的。文章中引用到名言警句，对文章的语言和思想都起到升华和点睛的作用。
本书具有以下特点：
?涮全面性： 全面讲解 GRE 写作两大部分——Issue 和 Argument 的写作方法， 文章结构，题库中每一道题目的论证分析和论证概念、 论据素材。
?涮学术性： 揭示每一个 GRE 作文题目背后的学术概念， 补充学术概念地道、 权威的英文陈述。
?涮文化性： 书中对很多话题从哲学和历史角度去分析， 提供大量论证分析的英文表达及论据， 力求做到让考生在备考的过程中， 始终沉浸于思辨的海洋和文化历史的长河中。
?涮指导性： 汇集新东方 GRE 考试培训项目数年的教学精华及笔者在新东方讲台上多年的 GRE 写作的教学成果， 内容具有极强的指导性和操作性。
?涮针对性： 本书针对中国考生写作中的弱点， 全面提升考生的写作实力。
也许你不是 GRE 战士， 而是正在准备 GMAT 考试， 由于 GRE 和 GMAT 考试作文部分几乎具有全等性， 本书也是广大 GMAT 考生备考写作考试的最佳选择。关于各类出国考试的信息和英语教学资源， 考生还可以登录笔者的教学博客：http://blog.sina.com.cn/weixiaoliang。同时， 由于笔者也是新东方教育科技集团 GRE/GMAT 网络课堂的首席写作讲师， 考生可以结合网络课堂进行备考， 网络课堂的地址是：www.koolearn.com。
在本书的编写和出版过程中， 笔者得到了来自各方面的支持和帮助， 在此表示感谢。
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你要看到事业垂成，
必须努力向前， 不可休息，
决不可因疲乏而静止；
你要认清全面的世界，
必须广开你的眼界；
你要认清事物的本质，
必须审问追究到底。
只有恒心可以使你达到目的，
只有博学可以使你明辨世事，

真理常常藏在事物的深底。

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第四章　Issue 写作素材及论证工具箱

第一节　　论据工具箱

1. Bill Gates 比尔·盖茨

Bill Gates, born in 1955, serves as chairman of Microsoft Corporation, the leading computer software company in the United States. Gates cofounded Microsoft in 1975 with high school friend Paul Allen. The company's success made Gates one of the most influential figures in the computer industry and, eventually, one of the richest people in the world. When Bill Gates made his decision to drop out from Harvard, he did not care too much of the result. Gates entered Harvard in 1973, and dropped out two years later when he and Allen started the engine of Microsoft. Many people did not understand why Gates gave up such a good opportunity to study in the world's No. 1 University. However, as size comes power, Microsoft dominates the PC market with its operating systems, such as MS-DOS and Windows. Now, Microsoft has become the biggest software company in the world and Bill Gates has become the richest man in the world.

2. William Harvey （1578-1657）哈维

William Harvey （1578-1657）, English physician, discovered the circulation of the blood and the role of the heart in propelling it, thus refuting the theories of Galen and laying the foundation for modern physiology. Harvey's De Motu Cordis subjected him to severe criticism by some contemporaries, but this was more than compensated for by the later widespread recognition of his contribution. He also undertook research in embryology, set forth in Exercitationes de Generatione Animalium （Essays on the Generation of Animals）. The College of Physicians elected Harvey president in 1654, an honor he declined because of failing health. He died in London on June 3, 1657.

3. Mother Teresa 特蕾莎修女

Mother Teresa, winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, dedicated the majority of her life to helping the poorest of the poor in India, thus gaining her the name"Saint of the Gutters." The devotion towards the poor won her respect throughout the world and the Nobel Peace Prize in 1979. She founded an order of nuns called the Missionaries of Charity in Calcutta, India dedicated to serving the poor. Almost 50 years later, the Missionaries of Charity have grown from 12 sisters in India to over 3, 000 in 517 missions throughout 100 countries worldwide.

4. George Washington （1732-1799） 乔治·华盛顿

George Washington was the first president of the United States（1789-1797）and one of the most important leaders in United States history. His role in gaining independence for the American colonies and later in unifying them under the new U.S. federal government cannot be overestimated. Laboring against great difficulties, he created the Continental Army, which fought and won the American Revolution （1775-1783）, out of what was little more than an armed mob.

After an eight-year struggle, his design for victory brought final defeat to the British at Yorktown, Virginia, and forced Great Britain to grant independence to its overseas possession.

With victory won, Washington was the most revered man in the United States. A lesser person might have used this power to establish a military dictatorship or to become a king. Washington sternly suppressed all such attempts on his behalf by his officers and continued to obey the weak and divided Continental Congress. However, he never ceased to work for the union of the states under a strong central government. He was a leading influence in persuading the states to participate in the Constitutional Convention, over which he presided, and he used his immense prestige to help gain ratification of its product, the Constitution of the United States.

Although worn out by years of service to his country, Washington reluctantly accepted the presidency of the United States. Probably no other man could have succeeded in welding the states into a lasting union. Washington fully understood the significance of his presidency."I walk on untrodden ground," he said. "There is scarcely any part of my conduct which may not hereafter be drawn in precedent." During eight years in office, Washington laid down the guidelines for future presidents. Washington lived only two years after turning over the presidency to his successor, John Adams. The famous tribute by General Henry Lee, "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," accurately reflected the emotions that Washington's death aroused. Later generations have crowned this tribute with the simple title "Father of His Country."

5. Mandela 曼德拉

Mandela, the South African black political leader and former president, was awarded 1993 Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts to antiracism and antiapartheid. Nelson Mandela is one of the great moral and political leaders of our time: an international hero whose lifelong dedication to the fight against racial oppression in South Africa won him the Nobel Peace Prize and the presidency of his country. Since his triumphant release in 1990 from more than a quarter-century of imprisonment, Mandela has been at the centre of the most compelling and inspiring political drama in the world. As president of the African National Congress and head of South Africa's antiapartheid movement, he was instrumental in moving the nation toward multiracial government and majority rule. He is revered everywhere as a vital force in the fight for human rights and racial equality.

6. Beethoven 贝多芬

Beethoven, the German Composer, began to lose his hearing in 1801 and was entirely deaf in 1819. However, this obstacle could not keep him from becoming one of the most famous and prolific composers in art history. His music, including 9 symphonies, 5 piano concertos, several sonatas and so on, formes a transition from classical to romantic composition.

Beethoven combined the dramatic classical style of lively contrasts and symmetrical forms, which was brought to its highest development by Mozart, with the older tradition of unified musical character that he found in the music of J. S. Bach. In some early works and especially in his middle or heroic period, Beethoven gave voice through his music to the new current of subjectivity and individualism that emerged in the wake of the French Revolution （1789-1799） and the rise of middle classes. Beethoven disdained injustice and tyranny, and used his art to sing the praises of the Enlightenment, an 18th-century movement that promoted the ideals of freedom and equality, even as hopes faded for progress through political change. （His angry cancellation of the dedication of the Eroica Symphony to Napoleon Bonaparte reveals Beethoven's refusal to

compromise his principles.）

7. Daimler Chrysler 戴姆勒•克莱斯

Daimler Chrysler, one of the most successful automobile companies in the world, contributes significantly to the local employment of Stuttgart, Germany.

商业发展的合并合作模式日益强化

Industry developments of the late 1990s focused on joint international ventures among the strongest companies and global expansion into new markets. Globalization has made it increasingly difficult to identify an automobile as the product of one company or country. General Motors, for example, allied with Suzuki and Isuzu in Japan to sell several products internationally under GM nameplates. In 1998 Daimler-Benz AG merged with Chrysler Corporation but announced it would maintain Mercedes and Chrysler as separate brands. Ford acquired the automobile division of Swedish vehicle maker Volvo in 1999. A year later GM announced it would purchase a 20-percent stake in Italian carmaker Fiat, which also manufactures cars under the Ferrari, Lancia, and Maserati brands.

8. Hegel （1770-1831） 黑格尔

Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel was one of the greatest systematic thinkers in the history of Western philosophy. In addition to epitomizing German idealist philosophy, Hegel boldly claimed that his own system of philosophy represented an historical culmination of all previous philosophical thought. Hegel's overall encyclopedic system is divided into the science of Logic, the philosophy of Nature, and the philosophy of Spirit. Of most enduring interest are his views on history, society, and the state, which fall within the realm of Objective Spirit. Some have considered Hegel to be a nationalistic apologist for the Prussian State of the early 19th century, but his significance has been much broader, and there is no doubt that Hegel himself considered his work to be an expression of the self-consciousness of the World Spirit of his time. At the core of Hegel's social and political thought are the concepts of freedom, reason, self-consciousness, and recognition. There are important connections between the metaphysical or speculative articulation of these ideas and their application to social and political reality, and one could say that the full meaning of these ideas can be grasped only with a comprehension of their social and historical embodiment.

9. René Descartes （1596-1650） 笛卡尔

René Descartes （1596-1650） was one of the most important Western philosophers of the past few centuries. During his lifetime, Descartes was just as famous as an original physicist, physiologist and mathematician. But it is as a highly original philosopher that he is most frequently read today. He attempted to restart philosophy in a fresh direction. For example, his philosophy refused to accept the Aristotelian and Scholastic traditions that had dominated philosophical thought throughout the Medieval period; it attempted to fully integrate philosophy with the "new" sciences; and Descartes changed the relationship between philosophy and theology. Such new directions for philosophy made Descartes into a revolutionary figure.

10. Guglielmo Marconi （1874-1937） 马可尼

Guglielmo Marconi （1874-1937）, Italian electrical engineer and Nobel laureate, was known as

the inventor of the first practical radio-signaling system. He was born in Bologna and educated at the University of Bologna. As early as 1890 he became interested in wireless telegraphy, and by 1895 he had developed an apparatus with which he succeeded in sending signals to a point a few kilometers away by means of a directional antenna. After patenting his system in Great Britain, he formed（1897）Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, Ltd., in London. In 1899, he established communication across the English Channel between England and France, and in 1901 he communicated signals across the Atlantic Ocean between Poldhu, in Cornwall, England, and St. John's, in Newfoundland. His system was soon adopted by the British and Italian navies, and by 1907 had been so much improved that transatlantic wireless telegraph service was established for public use. Marconi was awarded honors by many countries and received, jointly with the German physicist Karl Ferdinand Braun, the 1909 Nobel Prize in physics for his work in wireless telegraphy. During World War I, he was in charge of the Italian wireless service and developed shortwave transmission as a means of secret communication. In the remaining years of his life he experimented with shortwaves and microwaves.

11. Henry Ford 享利·福特

Henry Ford's factory was so efficient that by 1926 a new"model-T" cost only $310, one-third the price of the original 1908 model. Ford Motor Company is one of the world's largest manufacturers of automobiles and the world's largest producer of trucks. Under the leadership of its founder, Henry Ford, the company implemented the assembly-line method of mass production and made cars affordable for middle-class consumers. Ford is the second largest automaker in the United States based on overall sales, trailing only General Motors Corporation.

12. TOSHIBA 日本东芝公司

Discriminating services may cause misunderstanding and unpleasant result. The best example is TOSHIBA, one of the largest Japanese companies. In 2000, the Company announced that among notebook computers it produced, one model had serious defect. Users in North America could choose either replacements with an upgraded model or full refund. However, no such offer for users in China. Chinese users were outraged at the company's discrimination and refused to use any of TOSHIBA's notebook computers. What the company lost is not only the temporary revenue but also the consumer's confidence, which contribute to the long-term success of the company.

13. Asia Economic Crisis 亚洲经济危机

The financial crash of October 1987 and the Asia Economic Crisis in 1998 demonstrate that the world's capital markets are more closely integrated than ever before and that events in one part of the global village may be transmitted to the rest of the village—almost instantaneously.

The East Asian Financial Crisis was a period of financial crisis that gripped much of Asia beginning in the summer of （July） 1997 and raised fears of a worldwide economic meltdown（financial contagion）. It is also commonly referred to as the East Asian currency crisis or locally as the IMF crisis.

The crisis started in Thailand with the financial collapse of the Thai baht caused by the decision of the Thai government to float the baht, cutting its peg to the USD, after exhaustive efforts to support it in the face of a severe financial overextension that was in part real estate driven.（neutrality disputed） At the time, Thailand had acquired a burden of foreign debt that made the

country effectively bankrupt even before the collapse of its currency. The drastically reduced import earnings that resulted from the forced devaluation then made a quick or even medium-term recovery impossible without strenuous international intervention. As the crisis spread, most of Southeast Asia and Japan saw slumping currencies, devalued stock markets and asset prices, and a precipitous rise in private debt.

14. OPEC 石油输出国组织

OPEC, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, is an international organization of eleven developing countries that are heavily reliant on oil revenues as their main source of income. Since oil revenues are so vital for the economic development of these nations, they aim to bring stability and harmony to the oil market by adjusting their oil output to help ensure a balance between supply and demand. In the long run, the stabilized out-put help to cease the problem of over-refining and over-utilization of oil energy.

15. Francis Bacon（1561-1626）培根

Sir Francis Bacon was an English lawyer, statesman, essayist, historian, intellectual reformer, philosopher, and champion of modern science. Early in his career he claimed "all knowledge as his province" and afterwards dedicated himself to a wholesale revaluation and re-structuring of traditional learning. To take the place of the established tradition （a miscellany of Scholasticism, humanism, and natural magic）, he proposed an entirely new system based on empirical and inductive principles and the active development of new arts and inventions, a system whose ultimate goal would be the production of practical knowledge for "the use and benefit of men" and the relief of the human condition.

At the same time that he was founding and promoting this new project for the advancement of learning, Bacon was also moving up the ladder of state service. His career aspirations had been largely disappointed under Elizabeth I, but with the ascension of James his political fortunes rose. Knighted in 1603, he was then steadily promoted to a series of offices, including Solicitor General （1607）, Attorney General （1613）, and eventually Lord Chancellor （1618）. While serving as Chancellor, he was indicted on charges of bribery and forced to leave public office. He then retired to his estate where he devoted himself full time to his continuing literary, scientific, and philosophical work. He died in 1626, leaving behind a cultural legacy that, for better or worse, includes most of the foundation for the triumph of technology and for the modern world as we currently know it.

16. Archimedes 阿基米德

Greek mathematician, born in Syracuse. In popular tradition he is remembered for the construction of siege-engines against the Romans, the Archimedes' screw still used for raising water, and his cry of eureka （"I have found it"） when he discovered the principle of the upthrust on a floating body. His real importance in mathematics, however, lies in his discovery of formulae for the areas and volumes of spheres, cylinders, parabolas, and other plane and solid figures. He founded the science of hydrostatics, but his astronomical work is lost. He was killed at the siege of Syracuse by a Roman soldier whose challenge he ignored while immersed in a mathematical problem.

17. John F. Kennedy （1917-1963） 约翰·F·肯尼迪

John F. Kennedy（1917-1963）, was the 35th president of the United States（1961-1963）, as well as the youngest person ever to be elected president. He was also the first Roman Catholic president and the first president to be born in the 20th century. Kennedy was assassinated before he completed his third year as president. His achievements, both foreign and domestic, were therefore limited. Nevertheless, his influence was worldwide, and his handling of the Cuban missile crisis may have prevented war. Young people especially admired him, and perhaps no other president was so popular. He brought to the presidency an awareness of the cultural and historical traditions of the United States and an appreciation of intellectual excellence. Because Kennedy eloquently expressed the values of 20th-century America, his presidency had an importance beyond its legislative and political achievements.

18. Joan of Arc （1412-1431）贞德

Joan of Arc, heroine, was the French resistance leader in the last phase of the Hundred Years War. The life of Joan of Arc must be considered against the background of the later stages of the Hundred Years War （1339-1453）.

A contemporary described her:“This Maid... has a virile bearing, speaks little, shows an admirable prudence in all her words. She has a pretty, woman’s voice, eats little, drinks very little wine; she enjoys riding a horse and takes pleasure in fine arms, greatly likes the company of noble fighting men, detests numerous assemblies and meetings, readily sheds copious tears, has a cheerful face... ”

19. Columbus 哥伦布

Columbus was an Italian mariner and navigator; he was widely believed to be the first European to sail across the Atlantic Ocean and successfully land on the American continent. Born Cristoforo Colombo, between August and October 1451, in Genoa, Italy. Columbus was the eldest son of Domenico Colombo, a wool-worker and small-scale merchant, and his wife, Susanna Fontanarossa; he had two younger brothers, Bartholomew and Diego. He received little formal education and was a largely self-taught man, later learning to read Latin and write Castilian.

20. Copernicus （1473-1543） 哥白尼

Copernicus was an Astronomer and founder of the heliocentric ordering of the planets. He was born on February 19, 1473, in Torun, Poland. He belonged to a family of merchants. His uncle, the bishop and ruler of Ermland, was the person to whom Copernicus owed his education, career, and security. Copernicus studied at the University of Cracow from 1491 to 1494. While he did not attend any classes in astronomy, it was during his student years there that Copernicus began to collect books on astronomy and mathematics. No“great book” of Western intellectual history circulated less widely and was read by fewer people than Copernicus’s Revolutions. Nonetheless, it has come to be considered a seminal text of modern astronomy.

21. Adam Smith 亚当·斯密

Adam Smith was an economist and moral philosopher. The Wealth of Nations, the best known of Smith’s writings, is a mixture of descriptions, historical accounts, and recommendations. The wealth of a nation, Smith insists, is to be gauged by the number and variety of consumable goods it can command. Free trade is essential for the maximum development of wealth for any nation

because through such trade a variety of goods become possible. Smith assumes that if each person pursues his own interest, as in a laissez-faire economy, the general welfare of all will be fostered. He objects to governmental control, although he acknowledges that some restrictions are required. The capitalist invariably produces and sells consumable goods in order to meet the greatest needs of the people. In fulfilling his own interest, the capitalist automatically promotes the general welfare. In the economic sphere, says Smith, the individual acts in terms of his own interest rather than in terms of sympathy. Thus, Smith made no attempt to bring into harmony his economic and moral theories, which he set out in The Wealth of Nations and Theory of Moral Sentiments, respectively.

22. Bill Clinton 比尔·克林顿

Born in 1946, 42nd president of the United States （1993-2001）, Bill Clinton was one of the most popular American presidents of the 20th century and the second president to be impeached. Clinton was the first president born after World War II （1939-1945） and the third youngest person to become president, after Theodore Roosevelt and John F. Kennedy. He was also the first Democrat in 12 years to hold the presidency and the first Democrat since Franklin D. Roosevelt to be elected to two terms. A moderate Democrat and longtime governor of Arkansas, Clinton promised to change not only the direction the country had taken under the two previous Republican presidents but also the policies of his own Democratic Party. However, Clinton's presidency was marked by unusually bitter strife with Republicans in Congress. In his second term, Clinton became the second president to be impeached by the U.S. House of Representatives, after admitting to an improper relationship with a White House intern. The Senate, however, defeated the impeachment articles and did not remove him from office. During Clinton's presidency, the country enjoyed the longest period of economic growth in its history. A graceful speaker, Clinton had a remarkable ability to connect with people, which enabled him to bounce back from defeats, scandals, and even impeachment. He left office with the highest voter approval rating of all modern presidents.

23. Faraday （1791-1867）法拉第

Faraday was a physicist and chemist; Born September 22, 1791, in Newington, Surrey. In 1825, he discovered benzene and became the first person to describe compounds of chlorine and carbon. He adopted the atomic theory to explain that chemical qualities were the result of attraction and repulsion between united atoms. This proved to be the theoretical foundation for much of his future work. The admiration of physicists for Faraday has been demonstrated by naming the unit of capacitance the farad and a unit of charge, the faraday. No other man has been doubly honored in this way. His name also appears frequently in connection with effects, laws, and apparatus. These honors are proper tribute to the man who was possibly the greatest experimentalist who ever lived.

24. Renaissance—Leonardo da Vinci 文艺复兴——达·芬奇

The motto of the Renaissance was "A man can do all things if he wills," and the man who fulfilled that motto more than any other was Leonardo da Vinci. Da Vinci excelled at portraiture, a new art form that depicted people as individuals. His painting of the Mona Lisa remains the most famous portrait ever done. But Leonardo was also a skilled architect and engineer, who designed a

submarine, helicopter and airplane, long before those inventions were ever built. Hundreds of drawings and thousands of pages in his notebooks attest to his interest in astronomy, anatomy, botany, geology, and above all mathematics. He was interested in city planning and sanitation and was reportedly a talented musician. Since the Renaissance, the term"Renaissance man" has been applied to others, who, like Leonardo da Vinci, excelled in many diverse fields. Thomas Jefferson is perhaps the best example. He, too, was a gifted musician and architect as well as botanist, philosopher, writer and third President of the United States.

25. Watergate 水门事件

Watergate, designation of a major United States political scandal that began with the burglary and wiretapping of the Democratic Party's campaign headquarters, later engulfed President Richard M. Nixon and many of his supporters in a variety of illegal acts, and culminated in the first resignation of a U.S. president.

The burglary was committed on June 17, 1972, by five men who were caught in the offices of the Democratic National Committee at the Watergate apartment and office complex in Washington, D.C. Initially, the break-in garnered little media attention. But persistent investigation by two reporters for the Washington Post, Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, eventually helped uncover a White House-sponsored plan of espionage against political opponents and a trail of complicity in attempts to cover up how the burglary was planned and financed. The reporters relied heavily on anonymous sources, including a key source who became known as Deep Throat. It was not until 2005 that Deep Throat was revealed to be W. Mark Felt, the deputy director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation （FBI） at the time of the Watergate investigation.

The Post's reports and those by other newspapers and media outlets eventually pointed to involvement by many of the highest officials in the land, including former U.S. Attorney General John Mitchell, White House Counsel John Dean, White House Chief of Staff H. R. Haldeman, White House Special Assistant on Domestic Affairs John Ehrlichman, and President Nixon himself. On April 30, 1973, nearly a year after the burglary and arrest and following a grand jury investigation of the burglary, Nixon accepted the resignation of Haldeman and Ehrlichman and announced the dismissal of Dean. U.S. Attorney General Richard Kleindienst resigned as well. The new attorney general, Elliot Richardson, appointed a special prosecutor, Harvard Law School professor Archibald Cox, to conduct a full-scale investigation of the Watergate break-in.

In May 1973 the Senate Select Committee on Presidential Activities opened hearings, with Senator Sam Ervin of North Carolina as chairman. A series of startling revelations followed. Dean testified that Mitchell had ordered the break-in and that a major attempt was under way to hide White House involvement. He claimed that the president had authorized payments to the burglars to keep them quiet. The Nixon administration vehemently denied this assertion.

26. Watt James （1736-1819） 瓦特

Watt was an inventor, born in Greenock, Inverclyde, WC Scotland, UK. He went to Glasgow in 1754 to learn the trade of mathematical-instrument maker, and there, after a year in London, he set up in business. He was employed on surveys for several canals, improved harbours and rivers, and by 1759 was studying steam as a motive force. In 1763-1764, in the course of repairing a working model of the Newcomen engine, he found he could greatly improve its efficiency by using a separate steam condenser. After other improvements, he went into partnership with Matthew

Boulton, and the new engine was manufactured at Birmingham in 1774. Several other inventions followed, including the double-acting engine, parallel motion linkage, the centrifugal governor for automatic speed control, and the pressure gauge. The term horse-power was first used by him, and the SI unit of power is named after him.

27. William Shakespeare （1564-1616） 威廉·莎士比亚

William Shakespeare （1564-1616）, English playwright and poet, was recognized in much of the world as the greatest of all dramatists. Hundreds of editions of his plays have been published, including translations in all major languages. Scholars have written thousands of books and articles about his plots, characters, themes, and languages. He is the most widely quoted author in history, and his plays have probably been performed more times than those of any other dramatist.

There is no simple explanation for Shakespeare's unrivaled popularity, but he remains our greatest entertainer and perhaps our most profound thinker. He had a remarkable knowledge of human behavior, which he was able to communicate through his portrayal of a wide variety of characters. He was able to enter fully into the point of view of each of his characters and to create vivid dramatic situations in which to explore human motivations and behavior. His mastery of poetic language and of the techniques of drama enabled him to combine these multiple viewpoints, human motives, and actions to produce a uniquely compelling theatrical experience.

28. Antoine Lavoisier （1743-1794） 拉瓦锡

Antoine Lavoisier （1743-1794）, French chemist, was considered the founder of modern chemistry. Lavoisier was born on August 26, 1743, in Paris and was educated at the Collège Mazarin. He was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences in 1768. He held many public offices, including those of director of the state gunpowder works in 1776, member of a commission to establish a uniform system of weights and measures in 1790, and commissary of the treasury in 1791. He attempted to introduce reforms in the French monetary and taxation system and in farming methods. As one of the farmers-general, he was arrested and tried by the revolutionary tribunal, and guillotined on May 8, 1794.

29. Plato（428-347BC） 柏拉图

Plato is one of the world's best known and most widely read and studied philosophers. Known as the student of Socrates and the teacher of Aristotle, he wrote in the middle of the fourth century B.C. His earliest works are regarded as the most reliable of the ancient sources on Socrates. His later works, including his most famous work, the Republic, blend ethics, political philosophy, moral psychology, epistemology, and metaphysics into an interconnected and systematic philosophy. It is most of all from Plato that we get the theory of Forms, according to which the world we know through the senses is only an imitation of the pure, eternal, and unchanging world of the Forms. Plato's works also contain the origins of the familiar complaint that the arts work by inflaming the passions, the ideal of "Platonic love," and the myth of Atlantis.

30. Sir Alexander Fleming （1881-1955） 弗莱明（青霉素发现者）

Sir Alexander Fleming （1881-1955）, British bacteriologist and Nobel laureate, is best known for his discovery of penicillin. Born near Darvel, Scotland, and educated at Saint Mary's Hospital Medical School of the University of London, he served as professor of bacteriology at St. Mary's

Hospital Medical School from 1928 to 1948, when he became professor emeritus. Fleming conducted outstanding research in bacteriology, chemotherapy, and immunology. In 1922 he discovered lysozyme, an antiseptic found in tears, body secretions, albumen, and certain fish plants. His discovery of penicillin came about accidentally in 1928 in the course of research on influenza. His observation that the mold contaminating one of his culture plates had destroyed the bacteria laid the basis for the development of penicillin therapy.
Fleming was knighted in 1944. In 1945 he shared the Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine with Australian scientist Howard Walter Florey and German-British pathologist Ernst Boris Chain for their contributions to the development of penicillin.

31. Louis Daguerre （1787-1851） 达盖尔（达盖儿银版摄影法的发明者）
Louis Daguerre （1787-1851）, French painter, is the inventor of the daguerreotype. He first worked as a scene painter for the opera. After achieving success in this art, Daguerre began to paint extensive panoramas, finally evolving（1822） the diorama, which attracted much attention. In 1829 he began collaborating with the French physicist Joseph Niépce. After Niépce's death, Daguerre revised and refined the process upon which they had worked. In 1837 he perfected the daguerreotype. This method of photography, which used metal plates, was the earliest widely-practiced form of photography.
Daguerreotype
Daguerreotype, the first practical photographic process, was announced at the French Academy of Sciences in Paris on January 7, 1839. A description of the process was not published until August 1839. The process, which was an early milestone in the history of photographic techniques, was a refinement of experiments conducted after 1814 by French inventor Joseph Nicéphore Niépce. Between 1829 and 1833, Niépce collaborated with French artist L. J. M. Daguerre, who continued to experiment with the technique after Niépce's death in 1833. Daguerre's significant improvements on the Niépce process, especially his use of a salt solution to make the image permanent, served as justification to Daguerre to name the process after himself.

32. Michelangelo （1475-1564） 米开朗基罗
Michelangelo （ 1475-1564 ）, Italian painter, sculptor, architect and poet, his artistic accomplishments exerted a tremendous influence on his contemporaries and on subsequent European art. Michelangelo's influence on his contemporaries and on later artists was profound. Mannerism was an art movement based on exaggeration of aspects of the style of Michelangelo and other artists of the late Renaissance. The mannerists were particularly drawn to the complex poses and elongated elegance of some of his figures. Later artists, including Annibale Carracci and Peter Paul Rubens, emulated the powerful strength of his figures but combined it with the graceful line of Raphael or the colors used by Titian, two of Michelangelo's contemporaries. But perhaps Michelangelo's greatest legacy to later artists is the image of the genius that he and those around him fashioned. Brooding, isolated, challenging, temperamental—these are the words that described Michelangelo's character and that we still use to describe artists seized by an inspiration that seems more than human.

33. Immanuel Kant （1724-1805） 康德（古典唯心主义创始人）
Immanuel Kant is one of the most influential philosophers in the history of Western philosophy.

His contributions to metaphysics, epistemology, ethics, and aesthetics have had a profound impact on almost every philosophical movement that followed him. This portion of the Encyclopedia entry will focus on his metaphysics and epistemology in one of his most important works, The Critique of Pure Reason. （All references will be to the A （1781） and B（1787） edition pages in Werner Pluhar's translation. Indianapolis: Hackett, 1996.） A large part of Kant's work addresses the question "What can we know?" The answer, if it can be stated simply, is that our knowledge is constrained to mathematics and the science of the natural, empirical world. It is impossible, Kant argues, to extend knowledge to the supersensible realm of speculative metaphysics. The reason that knowledge has these constraints, Kant argues, is that the mind plays an active role in constituting the features of experience and limiting the mind's access to the empirical realm of space and time.

34. John Calvin（1509-1564） 加尔文（法国宗教改革家）

John Calvin（1509-1564） is a French theologian, church reformer, humanist, and pastor, whom Protestant denominations in the Reformed tradition regard as a major formulator of their beliefs. His religious theories and teachings are collectively referred to as Calvinism.

Calvinism 加尔文主义的影响

Christian theology of the French church reformer was John Calvin. Calvin's Institutes of the Christian Religion （1536-59; trans. 1561） was the most influential work in the development of the Protestant churches of the Reformed tradition. Calvinism remains an important strain within Protestant thought. In the 20th century, the influential Swiss theologian Karl Barth placed great emphasis on the Calvinist doctrine of God's supremacy, beside which all human activity is seen as worthless.

35. Gregor Mendel （1822-1884） 孟德尔（奥地利遗传学家）

Gregor Mendel（1822-1884） was an Austrian monk, whose experimental work became the basis of modern hereditary theory. Between 1856 and 1863 he cultivated and tested at least 28,000 pea plants, carefully analyzing seven pairs of seed and plant characteristics. His tedious experiments resulted in the enunciation of two generalizations that later became known as the laws of heredity. His observations also led him to coin two terms still used in present-day genetics: dominance, for a trait that shows up in an offspring; and recessiveness, for a trait masked by a dominant gene.

Mendel's Laws 孟德尔（遗传）定律及其影响

Mendel's Laws were principles of hereditary transmission of physical characteristics. They were formulated in 1865 by the Augustinian monk Gregor Johann Mendel. Experimenting with seven contrasting characteristics of pure-breeding garden peas, Mendel discovered that by crossing tall and dwarf parents, for example, he got hybrid offspring that resembled the tall parent rather than being a medium-height blend. To explain this he conceived of hereditary units, now called genes, which often expressed dominant or recessive characteristics. Formulating his first principle （the law of segregation）, Mendel stated that genes normally occur in pairs in the ordinary body cells, but segregate in the formation of sex cells （eggs or sperm）, each member of the pair becoming part of the separate sex cell. When egg and sperm unite, forming a gene pair, the dominant gene （tallness） masks the recessive gene （shortness）.

To corroborate the existence of such hereditary units, Mendel went on to interbreed the first generation of hybrid tall peas and found that the second generation turned out in a ratio of three

tall to each short offspring. He then correctly conceived that the genes paired into AA, Aa, and aa （“A” representing dominant and “a” representing recessive）. Continuing the breeding experiments, he found that the self-pollinated AA bred true to produce pure tall plants, that the aa plant produced pure dwarf plants, and that the Aa, or hybrid, tall plants produced the same three-to-one ratio of offspring. From this Mendel could see that hereditary units did not blend, as his predecessors believed, but remained unchanged from one generation to another. He thus formulated his second principle （the law of independent assortment）, in which the expression of a gene for any single characteristic is usually not influenced by the expression of another characteristic. Mendel’s laws became the theoretical basis for modern genetics and heredity.

36. Joseph Lister （1827-1912） 利斯特（英国外科专家）

Joseph Lister （1827-1912） was a British surgeon, and his discovery of antiseptics in 1865 greatly reduced the number of deaths due to operating-room infections. Born in Upton, Essex, and educated at the universities of London and Edinburgh, Lister began to study the coagulation of blood and the inflammation that followed injuries and surgical wounds. In 1861 he was appointed surgeon of the Glasgow Royal Infirmary in a new surgery unit designed to reduce gangrene and other infections, then thought to be caused by bad air. Despite his efforts to keep surgical instruments and rooms clean, the mortality rate remained close to 50 percent.

Believing infection to be caused by airborne dust particles, Lister sprayed the air with carbolic acid, a chemical that was then being used to treat foul-smelling sewers. In 1865 he came upon the germ theory of the French bacteriologist Louis Pasteur, whose experiments revealed that fermentation and putrefaction were caused by microorganisms brought in contact with organic material. By applying carbolic acid to instruments and directly to wounds and dressings, Lister reduced surgical mortality to nearly 12 percent by 1869.

Lister’s discoveries in antisepsis met initial resistance, but by the 1880s they had become widely accepted. In 1897 he was made baron by Queen Victoria, who had been his patient.

37. Louis Pasteur （1822-1895） 巴斯德

Louis Pasteur （1822-1895） was a world-renowned French chemist and biologist, who founded the science of microbiology, proved the germ theory of disease, invented the process of pasteurization, and developed vaccines for several diseases, including rabies.

Pasteurization 巴斯德高温消毒法

Pasteurization is the process of heating a liquid, particularly milk, to a temperature between 55° and 70° C （131° and 158° F）, to destroy harmful bacteria without materially changing the composition, flavor, or nutritive value of the liquid. The process is named after the French chemist Louis Pasteur, who devised it in 1865 to inhibit fermentation of wine and milk. Milk is pasteurized by heating at a temperature of 63° C （145° F） for 30 minutes, rapidly cooling it, and then storing it at a temperature below 10° C （50° F）. Beer and wine are pasteurized by being heated at about 60° C （140° F） for about 20 minutes; a newer method involves heating at 70° C （158° F） for about 30 seconds and filling the container under sterile conditions.

38. Thomas Jefferson （1743-1826） 杰斐逊

Thomas Jefferson （1743-1826） was the third president of the United States （1801-1809） and author of the Declaration of Independence. He was one of the most brilliant individuals in history.

His interests were boundless, and his accomplishments were great and varied. He was a philosopher, educator, naturalist, politician, scientist, architect, inventor, pioneer in scientific farming, musician, and writer, and he was the foremost spokesman for democracy of his day. As president, Jefferson strengthened the powers of the executive branch of government. He was the first president to lead a political party, and through it he exercised control over the Congress of the United States. He had great faith in popular rule, and it is this optimism that is the essence of what came to be called Jeffersonian democracy. Jefferson swore his hostility, he said, to "every form of tyranny over the mind of man." During his lifetime he sought to develop a government that would best assure the freedom and well-being of the individual.

Declaration of Independence 独立宣言

Declaration of Independence, was the document in American history used by the 13 British North American colonies to proclaim their independence from Great Britain. The Declaration of Independence was adopted in final form on July 4, 1776. It can be divided into three parts: a statement of principle concerning the rights of man and the legitimacy of revolution, a list of specific grievances against England's King George III, and a formal claim of independence.

The document transformed the colonists' struggle with Great Britain from a defense of their rights as Englishmen to a revolution aimed at overthrowing the existing form of government. It did not establish a structure of government and should not be confused with either the Articles of Confederation or the Constitution of the United States. For the American colonists, the declaration was an announcement to the rest of the world that the colonies were independent from Great Britain; it also provided a rationale for this action. The goal was to solidify internal support for their struggle and to encourage external assistance from European powers such as France.

39. Sigmund Freud （1856-1939） 弗洛伊德

Sigmund Freud （1856-1939）, Austrian physician and neurologist, was the founder of psychoanalysis. Freud was born in Freiberg（now Príbor, Czech Republic）, on May 6, 1856, and educated at Vienna University. When he was three years old his family, fleeing from the anti-Semitic riots then raging in Freiberg, moved to Leipzig. Shortly thereafter, the family settled in Vienna, where Freud remained for most of his life. Although Freud's ambition from childhood had been a career in law, he decided to become a medical student shortly before he entered Vienna University in 1873. Inspired by the scientific investigations of the German poet Goethe, Freud was driven by an intense desire to study natural science and to solve some of the challenging problems confronting contemporary scientists.

Psychoanalysis 精神分析学说

Psychoanalysis refers to the name applied to a specific method of investigating unconscious mental processes and to a form of psychotherapy. The term refers, as well, to the systematic structure of psychoanalytic theory, which is based on the relation of conscious and unconscious psychological processes.

40. Edward Jenner （1749-1823） 詹纳

Edward Jenner （1749-1823） was a British physician, who discovered the vaccine that is used against smallpox and laid the groundwork for the science of immunology.

Smallpox, a major cause of death in the 18th century, was treated in Jenner's time by the often-fatal procedure of inoculating healthy persons with pustule substances from those who had

mild cases of the disease. Jenner observed, among his patients, that those who had been exposed to the much milder disease cowpox were completely resistant to these inoculations. In 1796 he inoculated an eight-year-old boy with cowpox virus; six weeks after the boy's reaction Jenner reinoculated him with smallpox virus, finding the result negative. By 1798, having added similarly successful cases, Jenner wrote An Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of the Variolae Vaccinae, a Disease Known by the Name of Cow Pox, a tract in which he also introduced the term virus.

Jenner encountered some public resistance and professional chicanery in publicizing his findings, and he experienced difficulties in obtaining and preserving cowpox vaccine. Nevertheless his procedure was soon accepted, and mortality due to smallpox plunged. The procedure quickly spread through Europe and to North America. Three-quarters of a century later, the French chemist Louis Pasteur, drawing on Jenner's work, set the course for the science of immunology and the discovery of modern preventive vaccines. Jenner died in Berkeley on January 26, 1823.

41. Voltaire（1694-1778） 伏尔泰

Voltaire's contradictions of character are reflected in his writings as well as in the impressions of others. He seemed able to defend either side in any debate, and to some of his contemporaries he appeared distrustful, avaricious and sardonic; others considered him generous, enthusiastic, and sentimental. Essentially, he rejected everything irrational and incomprehensible and called upon his contemporaries to act against intolerance, tyranny, and superstition. His morality was founded on a belief in freedom of thought and respect for all individuals, and he maintained that literature should be useful and concerned with the problems of the day.

42. Copernicus—Galileo—Kepler—Isaac Newton 哥白尼、伽利略、开普勒、牛顿

Copernicus （1473-1543）

As we have seen, one result of the new spirit of discovery of the 15th century was a new way of looking at the sky. This began with a Polish astronomer Mikolaj Kopernik （better known as Nicolaus Copernicus）. He came up with a system, perhaps borrowed from Aristarchus of Samos, that the Sun and not the earth was at the heart of the solar system. Until that time, the prevailing wisdom was based on the system devised by Claudius Ptolemy and the physical structures suggested by Aristotle. This involved the use of as many as fifty-five concentric transparent or crystal spheres all rotating around the earth at varying speeds, carrying along the various heavenly bodies. Because these explanations had become a part of Scholastic science, the Church of Rome, the only authority that mattered, tended to favor this view of the universe as the only acceptable one. This was no doubt in part because it tended to place man at the center of a perfect （round） universe permeated by the presence of God.

Copernicus was born on February 19, 1473, in Torun, Poland. He was educated at various universities, incuding several in Italy among which the University of Bologna. In 1518 he began his seminal work, On the Revolutions of the Celestial Spheres, which was finished by 1530 although not published until 1543, just before his death. In it he suggested that the earth rotates daily on its axis and revolves yearly around the sun. He also argued that the other planets circle the sun, and that the earth wobbles on its axis like a top as it rotates. Understandably he didn't completely throw out the old system. His theory retained some features including the solid, planet-bearing spheres, and the finite outermost sphere bearing the fixed stars. But he threw out enough. At a stroke, he took man out of the center of the universe and made him part of the

heavenly realm. If you were a god-fearing catholic in the 16th century you can see the problem. First of all it would tamper with the notion that man was the crowning achievement at the center of God's creation and secondly it would place him squarely in the domain reserved for the Almighty himself. Sacrilege!

Galileo Galilei （1564-1642）伽利略

Now it was all well and good to speculate about how the universe worked but could you prove it? That was a task undertaken by the next suspect in our tale. Galileo was born in Pisa, Italy on February 15, 1564. After a life spent on various ventures including several teaching posts, work on a pendulum and the study of falling bodies, he begins working with a new device, a telescope. First he studied the moon and discovered that in God's perfect universe the surface of this body was not divinely smooth and even but rough and textured. Next he discovers what he decides are four little satellites or moons orbiting Jupiter. Then he spots what would later prove to be the rings around Saturn. All these observations make the idea of a perfect universe with smooth perfect bodies more and more difficult to defend. Next he discovers the most damning evidence yet when he notices that the planet Venus goes through phases just like the moon. For this to occur, Venus could not possibly be attached to a "crystal" sphere circling the earth. The only logical explanation had to be that the earth and Venus both circled the Sun. In 1611 he begins to study sun spots which had already been observed by others. After Copernicus' theories and the observations of Galileo and others have been common knowledge for some time, in February of 1616 the Inquisition in Rome finally takes formal notice of the fact "that the proposition that the Sun is the center of the universe is absurd in philosophy and formally heretical and that the proposition that the Earth has an annual motion is absurd in philosophy and at least erroneous in theology." Even now very little happens officially and Galileo pretty much carries on as before. A friend and patron of Galileo is elected Pope Urban VIII. The latter even bestows a small pension on Galileo's son. Finally in June 1633, after what can only be described as a tragic comedy of errors, Galileo is formally charged by the Inquisition and forced to recant his views and is condemned to house arrest for the rest of his life.

Johannes Kepler （1571-1630）开普勒

One can only speculate about all the political maneuvering that must have taken place around this whole sorry chapter of man's journey into the light. In the rest of Europe, both Copernicus' and Galileo's writings had not gone unnoticed. A number of people had begun to do their own research. One of these was a German by name of Johannes Kepler. By about 1592 Kepler accepted the Copernican system having learned about it from his instructor, Michael Maestlin. Then a rather fortuitous event occurred. In 1600 he was invited by Tycho Brahe, the famous eccentric Danish astronomer, to Prague to become his assistant and calculate new orbits for the planets from Tycho's observations. I say fortuitous because Brahe had amassed the largest collection of astronomical observation data ever assembled. When Brahe died in 1601 Kepler inherited the lot. In 1610 Kepler heard and read about Galileo's discoveries with the telescope. He quickly composed a long letter of support and fired it off to Galileo which by all accounts was greatly appreciated. Then, later that year, he obtained the use of a suitable telescope and set out to confirm all the observations that Galileo had reported. Then in 1619 he published the work for which he is best known. In it, he describes his ideas about the true elliptical shape of the orbits of the planets. Up till then, Copernicus' belief in circular orbits was still accepted at least by those who agreed with the Copernican system to begin with. Having at his disposal, all of Brahe's highly accurate

charts of the movement of the stars and planets, Kepler was able to show that elliptical orbits most closely fit the facts. Meanwhile all was not well for anyone not completely in tune with the prevailing theological mood in Rome and even in Austria and Germany, Protestants were having their problems with expulsions or worse. Because of these and other difficulties Kepler died, somewhat impoverished, in 1630, 12 years before Galileo's death. Astronomy meanwhile, had made some gigantic strides. For the next and final player in this little drama we turn to England.

Isaac Newton （1642-1727）牛顿

What had been achieved so far was a clean break from the rather fanciful "crystal" spheres that had been official scientific theory, to a universe which was beginning to look more and more like a giant machine. What was missing was any kind of theory that could successfully explain how this newly minted solar system could actually function. It fell to Isaac Newton to fill in that part of the puzzle. Newton, a mathematician and physicist and arguably one of the foremost scientific intellects of all time, was born into a poor farming family at Woolsthorpe in Lincolnshire, England on December 25, 1642. He was not a good farmer and so he was sent to Cambridge to study to become a preacher instead. Most people know that he became something else entirely. During his life Newton studied and was responsible for an unbelievable amount scientific and mathematical insights. These ranged from the study of optics, motion, leading to his famous three laws, developed the differential calculus （some say along with Gottfried Leibniz） and more importantly for our discussion, universal gravitation. To understand how that could solve the puzzle, we have to sidetrack a little. In order to explain planetary motion, two forces were needed. One was continued motion in a straight line and the other was some force constantly tugging at the planet which would cause it to curve inward into the elliptical path Kepler had discovered. The straight-line bit was explained by Newton's first law of motion.

43. Jean Jacques Rousseau （1712-1778） 卢梭

Jean Jacques Rousseau （1712-1778） was a French philosopher, social and political theorist, musician, botanist, and one of the most eloquent writers of the Age of Enlightenment. Although Rousseau contributed greatly to the movement in Western Europe for individual freedom and against the absolutism of church and state, his conception of the state as the embodiment of the abstract will of the people and his arguments for strict enforcement of political and religious conformity are regarded by some historians as a source of totalitarian ideology. Rousseau's theory of education led to more permissive and more psychologically oriented methods of child care, and influenced the German educator Friedrich Froebel, the Swiss educational reformer Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, and other pioneers of modern education. The New Heloise and Confessions introduced a new style of extreme emotional expression, concern with intense personal experience, and exploration of the conflicts between moral and sensual values. In these writings Rousseau profoundly influenced romanticism in literature and philosophy in the early 19th century. He also affected the development of the psychological literature, psychoanalytic theory, and philosophy of existentialism of the 20th century, particularly in his insistence on free will, his rejection of the doctrine of original sin, and his defense of learning through experience rather than analysis. The spirit and ideas of Rousseau's work stand midway between the 18th-century Enlightenment, with its passionate defense of reason and individual rights, and early the 19th-century romanticism, which defended intense subjective experience against rational thought.

44. Thomas Malthus （1766-1834） 马尔萨斯

Thomas Malthus（1766-1834）, British economist, was born near Guildford, Surrey, England, and educated at Jesus College, the University of Cambridge. Malthus became curate of the parish of Albury in Surrey in 1798 and held this post for a short time. From 1805 until his death, he was professor of political economy and modern history at the college of the East India Company at Haileybury.

Malthus's main contribution to economics was his theory of population, published in An Essay on the Principle of Population （1798）. According to Malthus, population tends to increase faster than the supply of food available for its needs. Whenever a relative gain occurs in food production over population growth, a higher rate of population increase is stimulated; on the other hand, if population grows too much faster than food production, the growth is checked by famine, disease, and war. Malthus's theory contradicted the optimistic belief prevailing in the early 19th century, that a society's fertility would lead to economic progress. Malthus's theory won supporters and was often used as an argument against efforts to better the condition of the poor.

The writings of Malthus encouraged the first systematic demographic studies. They also influenced subsequent economists, particularly David Ricardo, whose "iron law of wages" and theory of distribution of wealth contain some elements of Malthus's theory. Malthus's other works include An Inquiry into the Nature and Progress of Rent （1815） and Principles of Political Economy （1820）.

第二节　　论证工具箱

工具箱一: Philosophy

1. Egoism

In philosophy, egoism is the theory that one's self is, or should be, the motivation and the goal of one's own action. Egoism has two variants, descriptive or normative. The descriptive （or positive） variant conceives egoism as a factual description of human affairs. That is, people are motivated by their own interests and desires, and they cannot be described otherwise. The normative variant proposes that people should be so motivated, regardless of what presently motivates their behavior. Altruism is the opposite of egoism. The term "egoism" derives from "ego," the Latin term for the English word "I". "Egoism" should be distinguished from "egotism," which means a psychological overvaluation of one's own importance, or of one's own activities.

2. Epistemology

Epistemology is the study of knowledge. Epistemologists concern themselves with a number of tasks, which we might sort into two categories.

First, we must determine the nature of knowledge; that is, what does it mean to say that someone knows, or fails to know, something? This is a matter of understanding what knowledge is, and how to distinguish between cases in which someone knows something and cases in which someone does not know something. While there is some general agreement about some aspects of this issue, we shall see that this question is much more difficult than one might imagine.

Second, we must determine the extent of human knowledge; that is, how much do we, or can we, know? How can we use our reason, our senses, the testimony of others, and other resources to acquire knowledge? Are there limits to what we can know? For instance, are some things unknowable? Is it possible that we do not know nearly as much as we think we do? Should we have a legitimate worry about skepticism, the view that we do not or cannot know anything at all?

3. Pragmatism

Pragmatism was founded in the spirit of finding a scientific concept of truth, which is not dependent on either personal insight （or revelation） or reference to some metaphysical realm. The truth of a statement should be judged by the effect it has on our actions and truth should be seen as that which the whole of scientific enquiry will ultimately agree on. This should probably be seen as a guiding principle more than a definition of what it means for something to be true, though the details of how this principle should be interpreted have been subject to discussion since Pierce first conceived it. Like Rorty many seem convinced that Pragmatism holds that the truth of beliefs does not consist in their correspondence with reality, but in their usefulness and efficacy.

4.Realism

Realism（philosophy）, in philosophy, is a term used for two distinct doctrines of epistemology. In modern philosophy, it is applied to the doctrine that ordinary objects of sense perception, such as tables and chairs, have an existence independent of their being perceived. In this sense, it is contrary to the idealism of philosophers such as George Berkeley or Immanuel Kant. In its

extreme form, sometimes called naive realism, the things perceived by the senses are believed to be exactly what they appear to be. In more sophisticated versions, sometimes referred to as critical realism, some explanation is given of the relationship between the object and the observer that accounts for the possibility of illusion, hallucination, and other perceptual errors.

In medieval philosophy, the term realism referred to a position that regarded Platonic Forms, or universals, as real. That position is now usually called Platonic realism. In Plato's philosophy, a common noun, such as bed, refers to the ideal nature of the object, which is conveyed by its definition, and this ideal nature has metaphysical existence independent of the particular objects of that type. Thus, circularity exists independent of particular circles; justice, independent of particular just individuals or just states; and "bedness," independent of particular beds. In the Middle Ages, this position was defended against nominalism, which denied the existence of such universals. Nominalists asserted that the many objects called by one name shared nothing but the name. Compromises between these two positions included moderate realism, which claimed that the universal existed in the many objects of the same type but not independent of them, and conceptualism, which held that the universal might exist independent of the many objects of that particular type, but only as an idea in the mind, not as a self-subsisting metaphysical entity.

5. Idealism

Idealism is the epistemological doctrine that nothing can be directly known outside of the minds of thinking beings. Or in an alternative stronger form, it is the metaphysical doctrine that nothing exists apart from minds and the "contents" of minds. In modern Western philosophy, the epistemological doctrine begins as a core tenet of Descartes that what is in the mind is known more reliably than what is known through the senses. The first prominent modern Western idealist in the metaphysical sense was George Berkeley. Berkeley argued that there is no deep distinction between mental states, such as feeling pain, and the ideas about so-called "external" things, that appear to us through the senses. There is no real distinction, in this view, between certain sensations of heat and light that we experience, which lead us to believe in the external existence of a fire, and the fire itself. Those sensations are all there is to fire. Berkeley expressed this with the Latin formula esse est percipi: to be is to be perceived. In this view the opinion, "strangely prevailing upon men", that houses, mountains, and rivers have an existence independent of their perception by a thinking being is false.

6. Rationalism and empiricism

Rationalism is any view emphasizing the role or importance of human reason. Extreme rationalism tries to base all knowledge on reason alone. Rationalism typically starts from premises that cannot coherently be denied, then attempts by logical steps to deduce every possible object of knowledge.

Empiricism, in contrast to rationalism, downplays or dismisses the ability of reason alone to yield knowledge of the world, preferring to base any knowledge we have on our senses. John Locke propounded the classic empiricist view in An Essay Concerning Human Understanding in 1689, developing a form of naturalism and empiricism on roughly scientific （and Newtonian） principles.

7. Nihilism

Nihilism is the belief that all values are baseless and that nothing can be known or communicated. It is often associated with extreme pessimism and a radical skepticism that condemns existence. A true nihilist would believe in nothing, have no loyalties, and no purpose other than, perhaps, an impulse to destroy. While few philosophers would claim to be nihilists, nihilism is most often associated with Friedrich Nietzsche who argued that its corrosive effects would eventually destroy all moral, religious, and metaphysical convictions and precipitate the greatest crisis in human history. In the 20th century, nihilistic themes—epistemological failure, value destruction, and cosmic purposelessness—have preoccupied artists, social critics, and philosophers. Mid-century, for example, the existentialists helped popularize tenets of nihilism in their attempts to blunt its destructive potential. By the end of the century, existential despair as a response to nihilism gave way to an attitude of indifference, often associated with anti-foundationalism.

8. Objectivity and Subjectivity

The terms “objectivity” and “subjectivity,” in their modern usage, generally relate to a perceiving subject （normally a person） and a perceived or unperceived object. The object is something that presumably exists independent of the subject’s perception of it. In other words, the object would “be there,” as it is, even if no subject perceived it. Hence, objectivity is typically associated with ideas such as reality, truth and reliability.

The perceiving subject can either perceive accurately or seem to perceive features of the object that are not in the object. For example, a perceiving subject suffering from jaundice could seem to perceive an object as yellow when the object is not actually yellow. Hence, the term “subjective” typically indicates the possibility of error.

The potential for discrepancies between features of the subject’s perceptual impressions and the real qualities of the perceived object generates philosophical questions. There are also philosophical questions regarding the nature of objective reality and the nature of our so-called subjective reality. Consequently, we have various uses of the terms “objective” and “subjective” and their cognates to express possible differences between objective reality and subjective impressions. Philosophers refer to perceptual impressions themselves as being subjective or objective. Consequent judgments are objective or subjective to varying degrees, and we divide reality into objective reality and subjective reality. Thus, it is important to distinguish the various uses of the terms “objective” and “subjective”.

9. Pacifism

Pacifism is the theory that peaceful rather than violent or belligerent relations should govern human intercourse and that arbitration, surrender, or migration should be used to resolve disputes. Pacifism is as much an element of Western thinking as is the notion of Just War Theory, the argument that the state may legitimately or morally bear arms. While most people accept the necessity of war, conscientious objectors （or martyrs in much of European history） have often been accorded a special recognition for their moral bravery in refusing to take up arms.

The philosophical study of pacifism requires examining a variety of aspects of the broad proposal, as well as an investigation as to its consequences. Pacifism relates to war as well as to domestic injustices and repressive policies. It can be studied in terms of its coherence as a deontological, or intrinsic, value as well as in terms of the beneficial effects it seeks. Examination of the broad theory draws our attention to a vast range of possible ethical meanings and issues that the

committed pacifist or critic must consider. The doctrine of absolute pacifism is first dealt with, before turning to an examination of the more flexible doctrines of conditional pacifism and "pacificism".

工具箱二: Social Problems

1. Problems of Poverty and Work

Many myths and stereotypes—and many theories—exist about the poor and causes of poverty. Sociological explanations for poverty focus on societal needs and social forces. In one view, poverty is an outcome of longstanding conflict between haves and have-nots; in another, poverty is actually functional for society. Structural arrangements, such as official unemployment and the stipulation of a poverty line, have the effect of limiting opportunities and justifying social inequality. Thus, poverty is perpetuated through class discrimination and unequal opportunities for upward mobility. Programs and policies for addressing problems of poverty and work, such as the social welfare system and affirmative action, are themselves problems.

Poverty is an outcome of longstanding conflict between haves and have-nots and a structural arrangement of inequality, thus, the poverty is perpetuated through class discrimination and unequal opportunities for upward mobility. Indeed, the modern society has strived to improve people's lives by establishing the social welfare system and performing some other affirmative actions.

2. Problems of Racial and Ethnic Inequality

Economic and political inequalities in any country arise from over-concentrations of wealth and power. Imbalances in the distribution of power can lead to a lack of political representation in government of some groups, the creation of power elites, the loss of personal freedom and civil liberties, and abuses of authority, of which genocide is an extreme example. Imbalances in the distribution of wealth can lead to the loss of economic opportunity and social mobility, the creation of a permanent underclass, and conditions of illiteracy, unemployment, homelessness, hunger, and disease. The social problems caused by economic and political inequality are a threat to global security.

3. Gender Inequality

Social and institutional contexts for sex discrimination in American life have included the workplace, occupations, wages, income, housing, banking, health care, toys, school, education, employment, consumer marketplace, military, media, religious organizations, and home. Despite a century of social change stimulated by the feminist movement, gender inequality persists, for example, in problems of sexual violence and exploitation and in issues surrounding gender orientation and homosexuality.

4. Aging Society and Inequalities of Age

The so-called "graying of America" has called attention to inequalities of age and the difficulties of caring for growing numbers of elderly in American society. Age is a source of social problems because the very young and the very old may be more vulnerable than other age groups in society. Problems of the elderly, for example, can include poverty, financial insecurity, dependency,

isolation, social and political inequality, victimization, and lack of access to adequate housing and health care.

5. Problems of Racial and Ethnic Inequality

No one doubts that racial and ethnic prejudice and discrimination are sources of grave social problems in the U.S. and in any society. Social contexts for prejudice and discrimination include beliefs about racial purity or superiority, ethnocentric views, stereotyping and labeling, physical and social segregation, economic competition and exploitation in a split-labor market, and institutionalized inequality. Problems of racism persist despite a civil rights movement of more than 50 years and major social change. Other issues in pluralistic societies such as the U.S. relate to the question of giving greater emphasis to diversity or to the assimilation of diverse groups.

6. Crime, Violence, Drugs, and the Criminal Justice System

Many social problems involve the concept of deviance in relation to a society's system of social control. These problems overlap significantly because the social and cultural factors that contribute to deviant or antisocial behaviors are complex and deeply interrelated. Juvenile delinquency and street crime, for example, may be linked to youth gang and organized crime activities; the availability of guns, alcohol, and drugs; poverty, unemployment, and lack of economic opportunity; racism; family instability and domestic violence; school failure; and the influence of mass media. Issues within the criminal justice system itself add to the social problems of crime, violence, and drugs.

7. Problems of Families and Family Violence

Families today face changes and issues that affect marriage and the family as a social institution. Some of these issues include family instability, divorce and child custody, spouse and child abuse, gender issues, gay and lesbian families, and issues surrounding reproduction, including reproductive technology, adoption, and abortion. In addition, problems in family life affect individual and group behavior in ways that contribute to other social problems. For example, economic conditions that force both parents to work full time outside the home without affordable child care can lead to child neglect and a host of subsequent social problems.

8. Problems of Health, Illness, and Health Care Delivery

The bioethics of transplants, genetic screening, gene therapies, reproductive technologies, physician-assisted suicide, and euthanasia are among the many issues of health and medicine today. Decreasing access to care and rising costs of care are major problems. In the U.S. health care increasingly is provided on a for-profit basis only by the health maintenance organizations, hospitals, pharmaceutical companies, and insurance companies on which health care access, delivery, and quality depend.

9. Problems of Education

In the U.S. today, problems of education relate to funding, teacher quality and the status of the teaching profession, student academic performance and standardized testing, racial imbalances and equal educational opportunity, and the curriculum in relation to labor force needs and global competition. New problems, such as teacher shortages, overcrowded and unsafe schools, and

unequal access to educational technology join other perennial issues in education such as gender bias and the bilingual education debate. The educational system as a social institution and individuals' educational experiences and levels of attainment are key factors in addressing other social problems.

10. Environmental Quality as a Social Problem

Environmental problems arise both directly and indirectly from people's social institutions, social behavior, and cultural values. Conditions of population growth, affluence and poverty, technological and industrial development, domestic and international economic activities, and patterns of consumption all affect the use—and abuse—of land, energy resources, and natural resources such as plants and animals, as well as the quality of soil, water, and air. Top problems of environmental quality today include deforestation, global warming, biodiversity loss, and hazardous waste. The solutions to these and environmental problems involve social change.

11. Problems of Population, Immigration, and Urbanization

Population problems are defined by the numbers and distributions of people within a physical area and by the movements of people within and between areas. For example, overpopulation of an area can contribute to food shortages, and migrations between areas can lead to inter-group conflicts. Demographers relate population statistics to sociological variables such as age, gender race and ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, and sociologists use this information to study the effects of population problems and policies. In the U.S. problems include, for example, the decline of cities, segregated neighborhoods, homelessness, and illegal immigration.

12. Problems of Social Change: Media and Technology

Technological change associated with industrialization and modernization has created vast challenges as well as benefits. Changes that began with mechanization and automation have led to stockpiles of weapons of mass destruction, genetic engineering and biotechnology, robotics, and the globalization of electronic telecommunications. These developments continue to change the world in which we live. Social problems of technological change range from unemployment and the loss of personal privacy and control, from ethical dilemmas to social inequality, and from cultural lag to cultural colonialism. What new social transformation awaits even a postmodern world?

13. The Problem of Homeless People

Homelessness continues to be one of the most important problems facing America. The most recent national population study said about 170,000 people do not have a place to live in. But some experts say about two million people in the United States have no homes. They say officials who count the population cannot find many people who live on the streets. Experts say homelessness is a temporary crisis for most people. But it is a continuing condition for others.

工具箱三: History

1. The importance of history

History as a mirror is used to represent a study of the past—a study not only of great heroes of

history who successfully worked through moral dilemmas, but also of many ordinary people who provided lessons in courage, diligence, or constructive protest.

2. The Importance of History in Our Own Lives

These two fundamental reasons for studying history underlie more specific and quite diverse uses of history in our own lives. History well told is beautiful. Many of the historians who most appeal to the general reading public know the importance of dramatic and skillful writing—as well as of accuracy. Biography and military history appeal in part because of the tales they contain. History as art and entertainment serves a real purpose, on aesthetic grounds but also on the level of human understanding. Stories well done are stories that reveal how people and societies have actually functioned, and they prompt thoughts about the human experience in other times and places. The same aesthetic and humanistic goals inspire people to immerse themselves in efforts to reconstruct quite remote pasts, far removed from immediate, present-day utility. Exploring what historians sometimes call the "pastness of the past"—the ways people in distant ages constructed their lives—involves a sense of beauty and excitement, and ultimately another perspective on human life and society.

3. History Contributes to Moral Understanding

History also provides a terrain for moral contemplation. Studying the stories of individuals and situations in the past allows a student of history to test his or her own moral sense, to hone it against some of the real complexities individuals have faced in difficult settings. People who have weathered adversity not just in some work of fiction, but in real, historical circumstances can provide inspiration. "History teaching by example" is one phrase that describes this use of a study of the past—a study not only of certifiable heroes, the great men and women of history who successfully worked through moral dilemmas, but also of more ordinary people who provide lessons in courage, diligence, or constructive protest.

4. History Provides Identity

History also helps provide identity, and this is unquestionably one of the reasons all modern nations encourage its teaching in some form. Historical data include evidence about how families, groups, institutions and whole countries were formed and about how they have evolved while retaining cohesion. For many Americans, studying the history of one's own family is the most obvious use of history, for it provides facts about genealogy and （at a slightly more complex level） a basis for understanding how the family has interacted with larger historical change. Family identity is established and confirmed. Many institutions, businesses, communities, and social units, such as ethnic groups in the United States, use history for similar identity purposes. Merely defining the group in the present pales against the possibility of forming an identity based on a rich past. And of course nations use identity history as well—and sometimes abuse it. Histories that tell the national story, emphasizing distinctive features of the national experience, are meant to drive home an understanding of national values and a commitment to national loyalty.

5. Studying History Is Essential for Good Citizenship

A study of history is essential for good citizenship. This is the most common justification for the

place of history in school curricula. Sometimes advocates of citizenship history hope merely to promote national identity and loyalty through a history spiced by vivid stories and lessons in individual success and morality. But the importance of history for citizenship goes beyond this narrow goal and can even challenge it at some points.

History that lays the foundation for genuine citizenship returns, in one sense, to the essential uses of the study of the past. History provides data about the emergence of national institutions, problems, and values—it's the only significant storehouse of such data available. It offers evidence also about how nations have interacted with other societies, providing international and comparative perspectives essential for responsible citizenship. Further, studying history helps us understand how recent, current, and prospective changes that affect the lives of citizens are emerging or may emerge and what causes are involved. More important, studying history encourages habits of mind that are vital for responsible public behavior, whether as a national or community leader, an informed voter, a petitioner, or a simple observer.

工具箱四: Education

1. The Aim of Education

Education developed from the human struggle for survival and enlightenment. It may be formal or informal. Informal education refers to the general social process by which human beings acquire the knowledge and skills needed to function in their culture. Formal education refers to the process by which teachers instruct students in courses of study within institutions. The proper aim of education is to promote significant learning. Significant learning entails development. Development means successively asking broader and deeper questions of the relationship between oneself and the world.

2. Two Fundamental Assumptions That Underlie Formal Education Systems

Two fundamental assumptions that underlie formal education systems are that students（a）retain knowledge and skills they acquire in school, and （b） can apply them in situations outside the classroom. But are these assumptions accurate? Research has found that, even when students report not using the knowledge acquired in school, a considerable portion is retained for many years and long term retention is strongly dependent on the initial level of mastery. One study found that university students who took a child development course and attained high grades showed, when tested 10 years later, average retention scores of about 30%, whereas those who obtained moderate or lower grades showed average retention scores of about 20%. There is much less consensus on the crucial question of how much knowledge acquired in school transfers to tasks encountered outside formal educational settings, and how such transfer occurs. Some psychologists claim that research evidence for this type of far transfer is scarce, while others claim there is abundant evidence of far transfer in specific domains. Several perspectives have been established within which the theories of learning used in educational psychology are formed and contested. These include Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Social Cognitivism, and Constructivism.

3. The Teacher's Role

Given the undeniable importance of classroom experience, sociologists have done a considerable amount of research on what goes on in the classroom. Often they start from the premise that, along

with the influence of peers, students' experiences in the classroom are of central importance to their later development. One study examined the impact of a single first-grade teacher on her students' subsequent adult status. The surprising results of this study have important implications. It is evident that good teachers can make a big difference in children's lives, a fact that gives increased urgency to the need to improve the quality of primary-school teaching. The reforms carried out by educational leaders like James Comer suggest that when good teaching is combined with high levels of parental involvement the results can be even more dramatic.

Because the role of the teacher is to change the learner in some way, the teacher-student relationship is an important part of education. Sociologists have pointed out that this relationship is asymmetrical or unbalanced, with the teacher being in a position of authority and the student having little choice but to passively absorb the information provided by the teacher. In other words, in conventional classrooms there is little opportunity for the students to become actively involved in the learning process. On the other hand, students often develop strategies for undercutting the teacher's authority: mentally withdrawing, interrupting, and the like. Hence, many current researches assume that students and teachers influence each other instead of assuming that the influence is always in a single direction.

4. What Effects May Politics Have on Education?

The learners in our society, should be knowledgeable about what effects politics may have on education. Such education may be well influenced by politics as power （from whoever may be in power）. Power would be one of the two dimensions to the curriculum and power as domination is bad and removes justice. In such discussion we may remind that this curriculum was done in three versions with considerable change between the first and the last version. The vision of schools that should remove streaming and education should be inclusive and comprehensive has been "masked" in the last version due to political reasons. To conclude, in this new curriculum it is not the case of having the objectives listed at the beginning and then simply a description of how each should be achieved, but it is clearly seen that the vision and philosophy of the curriculum are consistent throughout. This shows that great planning has been involved in the design of this document.

5. The Definition of Knowledge by Aristotle

"We suppose ourselves to possess unqualified scientific knowledge of a thing, as opposed to knowing it in the accidental way in which the sophist knows, when we think that we know the cause on which the fact depends, as the cause of that fact and of no other, and, further, that the fact could not be other than it is. Now that scientific knowing is something of this sort is evident — witness both those who falsely claim it and those who actually possess it, since the former merely imagine themselves to be, while the latter are also actually, in the condition described. Consequently the proper object of unqualified scientific knowledge is something which cannot be other than it is."

6. Motivation of Learning

Ideally, motivation should be intrinsic. Students should want to study the subject for its own sake or for the sense of accomplishment in learning something new. Since many students are not intrinsically motivated, however, extrinsic rewards can sometimes offer a first step toward

increased motivation. Human beings experience all three of these motivational states at one time or another. Teachers must acknowledge the experiences of these motivational sets in the classroom and implement individualized instruction in order for students to encounter learning at its highest quality. In order to tailor our instructional practices toward developing intrinsically motivated students in the classroom, the use of extrinsic rewards must be carefully analyzed and measured.

7. Education and Training

To understand the nature of the liberal college and its function in our society, it is important to understand the difference between education and training.

Training is intended primarily for the service of society; education is primarily for the individual. Society needs doctors, lawyers, engineers, teachers to perform specific tasks necessary to its operation, just as it needs of society so that the work of the world may continue. And these needs, our training center the professional and trade schools fill. But although education is for the improvement of the individual, it also serves society by providing a leavening of men of understanding, of perception, and wisdom. They are our intellectual leaders, the critics of our culture, the defenders of our free traditions, and the instigators of our progress. They serve society by examining its function, appraising its needs, and criticizing its direction. They may be earning their livings by practicing one of the professions, or in pursuing a trade, or by engaging in business enterprise. They may be rich or poor. They may occupy position of power and prestige, or they may be engaged in some humble employment. Without them, society either disintegrates or else becomes an anthill.

The difference between the two types of study is like the difference between the discipline and exercise in a professional baseball training camp and that of a gym. In the one, the recruit is training to become a professional baseball player who will make a living and serve society by playing baseball; in the other, he is training only to improve his own body and musculature. The training at the baseball camp is all relevant. The recruit may spend hours practicing how to slide into second base, not because it is a particularly useful form of calisthenics but because it is relevant to the game. The exercise would stop if the rules were changed so that sliding to a base was made illegal. Similarly, the candidate for the pitching staff spends a lot of time throwing a baseball, not because it will improve his physique—it may have quite the opposite effect—but because pitching is to be his principal function on the team. At the gym, exercises have no such relevance. The intention is to strengthen the body in general, and when the members sit down on the floor with their legs outstretched and practice touching their fingers to their toes, it is not because they hope to become galley slaves, perhaps the only occupation where that particular exercise would be relevant.

In general, certain courses of study are for the service of society and other courses are for self-improvement. In the hierarchy of our educational system, the former are the function of our professional schools and the latter are the function of the college of liberal arts.

8. Big Challenge of Current Education

Today the big challenge of education is change. Such rapid change is happening because of technology and science. Information and skills that an individual may learn or “possess” become outdated quickly and the person becomes obsolete as discussed during the recent lectures. The new NMC has included such change as part of its vision. Besides clearly stating such awareness at

the introduction, it has been discussed in a section on its own under the topic of an educational answer for the cultural, social and economic challenges. Today the keyword is lifelong learning. Living in the 21st century, being described as The Learning Age, means that knowledge and learning today are a very temporarily thing. This makes the traditional knowledge of education invalid. The principle function of schooling is not in producing pre-existing relation of production any more.

We have the possibility for education as itself a potential force for change in society and culture. Such ideas are changing and need to change the way the learners learn. Teaching computer or IT could be a typical example where the rate in which subject content changes is extremely high due to the technological improvement. It would be useless to teach a particular computer program say Microsoft Word in itself if by the time the pupils leave school the program learned （and examined） will be changed, outdated and scraped out from the market. The aim instead is to learn how to learn, as by the time the pupils are out of school, they should be able to cope with the new changing technology. While teachers should put students in situations where they can practice their skills, they need to teach various skills such as how to think. The idea of University where one would “acquire” a packet of knowledge and use it for the rest of life is today outdated and invalid.

9. The Necessity of Central Curriculum

Central curriculum is more economical than provincial curriculum. For making an entire course, a lot of money and time are spent. Also, experts related to education participate in this process. In central curriculum, only one making procedure goes through. In addition, for preparing a class of the curriculum, teachers can share many parts of the curriculum and get some help from another teacher who has professional knowledge. However, if provincial curriculum may be made respectively, a large amount of economic losses are produced.

Additionally, central curriculum provides wider view than provincial curriculum. The course before college is important in education system in this respect that students learn basic knowledge of whole life including individual growth and socialization. Comprehensive central curriculum, in addition, let students select objectively their major of college. In more technical terms, if they don’t consider fully all subjects, they tend to select their college major according to just interest or bias. Consequently, they can have views of narrow academic fields.

工具箱五: Science and Technology

1. The Importance of Science

During scientific investigations, scientists put together and compare new discoveries and existing knowledge. In most cases, new discoveries extend what is currently accepted, providing further evidence that existing ideas are correct. For example, in 1676 the English physicist Robert Hooke discovered that elastic objects, such as metal springs, stretch in proportion to the force that acts on them. Despite all the advances that have been made in physics since 1676, this simple law still holds true. Scientists utilize existing knowledge in new scientific investigations to predict how things will behave. For example, a scientist who knows the exact dimensions of a lens can predict how the lens will focus a beam of light. In the same way, by knowing the exact makeup and properties of two chemicals, a researcher can predict what will happen when they combine.

Sometimes scientific predictions go much further by describing objects or events that are not yet known. An outstanding instance occurred in 1869, when the Russian chemist Dmitry Mendeleyev drew up a periodic table of the elements arranged to illustrate patterns of recurring chemical and physical properties. Mendeleyev used this table to predict the existence and describe the properties of several elements unknown in his day, and when the elements were discovered several years later, his predictions proved to be correct. In science, important advances can also be made when current ideas are shown to be wrong. A classic case of this occurred early in the 20th century, when the German geologist Alfred Wegener suggested that the continents were at one time connected, a theory known as continental drift. At the time, most geologists discounted Wegener's ideas, because the Earth's crust seemed to be fixed. But following the discovery of plate tectonics in the 1960s, in which scientists found that the Earth's crust is actually made of moving plates, continental drift became an important part of geology.Through advances like these, scientific knowledge is constantly added to and refined. As a result, science gives us an ever more detailed insight into the way the world around us.

2. The Place of Technology in Modern Society

The place of technology in modern society is a subject of continuing controversy. Key issue includes not only the impact of technology on quotidian life but also the need to control the development and uses of technological innovations so that they benefit all aspects of community.

3. Positive Effects of Technology

Many technological developments during the last century have helped reduce human suffering. Consider, for instance, technology that enables computers to map Earth's geographical features from outer space. This technology allows us to locate lands that can be cultivated for feeding malnourished people in third-world countries. And, few would disagree that humanity is the beneficiary of the myriad of 20th century innovations in medicine and medical technology—from prostheses and organ transplants to vaccines and lasers.

The 20th century technological innovation has enhanced the overall standard of comfort level of developed nations. The advent of steel production and assembly-line manufacturing created countless jobs, stimulated economic growth, and supplied a plethora of innovative conveniences. More recently, computers have helped free up our time by performing repetitive tasks: have aided in the design of safer and more attractive bridges, buildings, and vehicles; and have made possible universal access to information.

4. Negative Effects of Technology

For every new technological breakthrough that helps reduce human suffering is another that serves primarily to add to that suffering. For example, while some might argue that physics researchers who harnessed the power of the atom have provided us with an alternative source of energy and invaluable "peace-keepers", this argument flies in the face of hundreds of thousands of innocent people murdered and maimed by atomic blasts, and by nuclear meltdowns. And in fulfilling the promise of "better living through chemistry" research has given us chemical weapons for human slaughter. In short, so-called "advance" that scientific research has brought about often amount to net losses for humanity.

Technological development has already brought about environmental problems. Many things these

days cause pollution such as cars, air conditioners, refrigerators, factories, etc. All these things together can cause a pollution problem in the society today. Refrigerators and air conditioners are a problem to the zone because of the liquid called Freon—when these liquids are released from damaging the machine, it releases a gas that breaks down the zone layers. In addition, cars also can cause a lot of pollution because of the carbon monoxide it produces. This would cause the air to be bad, cause global warming, and would also cause acid rain.

5. The Impact of Computer

Computers have been around for years and help a great deal at home and in the workplace. You can find anything online from a new or used car, tickets to your favorite football game, or even just chatting with some friends so you don't have to tie up the phone line all the time. There is a webpage for almost anything that a person can think of. All you have to do is type in a specific word that you are looking for and the computer will find it for you.

The workplace is an important place for a computer as well. Nowadays almost every company consists of a few computers to perform basic tasks for the company. Even a small company such as a local pub may have a computer to do all the cashier calculations. Computers are beginning to take over the workplace and are making less jobs for people. Computers can solve problems and do mathematical things so a person doesn't have to.

6. Information Age

As we reach the year 2008 and the next phase of the Information Age, it's easy to forget that just 20 years ago, the Information Age was stuck on its launching pad. The Internet was unknown to nearly everyone except university researchers; TV was still patting itself on the back over cable success; films were searching for the next big thing; music was sold at record stores. Now, television and computers are colliding and millions of channels are on the horizon; films are bigger, clearer and cheaper to make; and music, more than any other industry, is using the Internet to market itself. HDTV will soon be rolling into homes, delivering a wider screen and digital picture. Television is on the brink of major changes that may forever alter the way we live. It should all happen with the inevitable switch from analog to digital technology. The world of television and entertainment is poised for explosion, and that explosion comes about because television becomes digital, says Andy Lippman, associate director of Massachusetts Institute of Technology's （MIT） Media Lab. It's one of the premiere technology think tanks in the world.

7. Internet

The Internet was conceived in the 1960s as a tool to link university and government research centers via a nationwide network that would allow a wide variety of computers to exchange information and share resources. The engineering challenges were manifold and complex, beginning with the design of a packet switching network—a system that could make computers communicate with each other without the need for a traditional central system. Other challenges included the design of the machines, data exchange protocols, and software to run it. What eventually grew out of this endeavor is a miraculous low-cost technology that is swiftly and dramatically changing the world. It is available to people at home, in schools and universities, and in public libraries and "cyber cafes."

The Internet is not owned or controlled by any company, corporation, or nation. It connects people

in 65 countries instantaneously through computers, fiber optics, satellites, and phone lines. It is changing cultural patterns, business practices, the consumer industry, and research and educational pursuits. It helps people keep up to date on world events, find a restaurant in Oregon or a cheap flight to Paris, play games, and discuss everything from apples to zoology. It has marshaled support for human rights in suppressed nations, saved the life of a child in Beijing, and helped a man in Iowa find a lost family member in Brazil.

8. Electronics

Electronics provide the basis for countless innovations—CD players, TVs, and computers, to name a few. From vacuum tubes to transistors to integrated circuits, engineers have made electronics smaller, more powerful, and more efficient, paving the way for products that have improved the quality and convenience of modern life.

9. Electrification

Widespread use of electric power has been one of the greatest sources of social change in the 20th century. It influenced the course of industrialization by allowing us to build factories farther from the sources of power, making large-scale manufacturing possible. It changed the face of cities in terms of growth and population, helped farmers increase production through labor-saving machinery, and contributed to a more highly educated populace, liberated from the drudgery of manual chores and labor.

Mass electrification in the United States required the expertise of thousands of engineers. Among them were pioneers who recognized that the natural resources of fossil fuels, water, and sunlight could be turned into electric power; and others who learned how to build the machinery to convert those resources to electric power. Still others learned how to transmit that power over wires and into our houses, barns, offices and factories. Their efforts allow us to awaken to an electric alarm, turn on the lights, toast bread, and use any number of electrical appliances or devices to prepare for the day.

10. Medical technology

Advances in the 20th century medical technology have been astounding. Armed with only a few instruments in 1900, medical professionals now have an arsenal of diagnostic and treatment equipment at their disposal. Artificial organs, replacement joints, imaging technologies, and biomaterials are but a few of the engineered products that improve the quality of life for millions.

11. Automobile

The automobile may be the ultimate symbol of personal freedom. It’s also the world’s major transporter of people and goods, and a strong source of economic growth and stability. From early Tin Lizzies to today’s sleek sedans, the automobile is a showcase of the 20th century engineering ingenuity, with countless innovations made in design, production, and safety.

12. Spacecraft

From early test rockets to sophisticated satellites, the human expansion into space is perhaps the most amazing engineering feat of the 20th century. The development of spacecraft has thrilled the world, expanded our knowledge base, and improved our capabilities. Thousands of useful

products and services have resulted from the space program, including medical devices, improved weather forecasting, and wireless communications.

13. Petroleum

Petroleum has been a critical component of the 20th century life, providing fuel for cars, homes, and industries. Also critical, petrochemicals are used in products ranging from aspirin to zippers. Spurred on by engineering advances in oil exploration and processing, petroleum products have had an enormous impact on world economies, peoples, and politics.

14. Nuclear Technology

The harnessing of the atom in the 1940s changed the nature of war forever, offered a new source for electrical power generation, and improved medical diagnostic techniques. The awesome and compact power of nuclear arms has transformed the military arsenals, strategies, and psyches of nations around the world. It has also greatly improved the range and comfort of submarines, and had a significant impact on peacetime activities. Nuclear technologies have stirred emotions and controversy, but the engineering achievements related to their development remain among the most important of the 20th century.

15. Laser and Glass Fiber

Pulses of light from lasers are used in industrial tools, surgical devices, satellites, and other products. In communications, highly pure glass fibers now provide the infrastructure to carry information via laser-produced light—a revolutionary technical achievement. Today, a single fiber-optic cable can transmit tens of millions of phone calls, data files, and video images.

工具箱六: Ideas

1. Dialectic Analysis

Dialectic, in philosophy, is a method of investigating the nature of truth by critical analysis of concepts and hypotheses. One of the earliest examples of the dialectical method was the Dialogues of Greek philosopher Plato, in which the author sought to study truth through discussion in the form of questions and answers. Another noted Greek philosopher, Aristotle, thought of dialectic as the search for the philosophic basis of science, and he frequently used the term as a synonym for the science of logic.

2. Concept

Concepts are of central importance to an overall theory of cognition and the mind. Our thoughts, especially those that express or involve propositions, are analyzed and distinguished from one another by appeal to various facts involving concepts and our grasp of them. Similarly, our linguistic utterances that express propositions also express concepts, since concepts are normally thought to be closely related to, or even identified with, the meanings of entities like predicates, adjectives, and the like. Our understanding and interaction with the world also involves concepts and our grasp of them. Our understanding that a given thing is a member of a given category is at

least partly in virtue of our grasp of concepts, and so are our acts of categorizing. Such capacities involve our knowledge in an essential way, and thus such philosophical issues regarding our epistemic capacities are tied to issues about concepts and their nature. There may be some features and capacities of the mind that do not involve concepts, but certainly the vast number of them do, and thus the task of identifying the correct general theory of concepts is significant to the philosophy of mind, philosophy of language, cognitive science, and psychology.

3. Skepticism

Skepticism refers to the philosophic position holding that the possibility of knowledge is limited either because of the limitations of the mind or because of the inaccessibility of its object. It is more loosely used to denote any questioning attitude. Extreme skepticism holds that no knowledge is possible, but this is logically untenable since the statement contradicts itself. During the Renaissance the influence of ancient skepticism was reflected preeminently in the writings of the 16th-century French philosophical essayist Michel de Montaigne. The greatest exponent of modern skepticism was the 18th-century Scottish empiricist philosopher David Hume. In his Treatise of Human Nature （1739—1740） and An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding （1748）, Hume questions the possibility of demonstrating the truth of beliefs about the external world, causal connections, future events, or such metaphysical entities as the soul and God. The 18th-century German philosopher Immanuel Kant, while attempting to overcome Hume's skepticism, denied the possibility of knowing things in themselves or of achieving metaphysical knowledge. In the 19th century, the German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche denied the possibility of complete objectivity, and thus of objective knowledge, in any field. The 20th-century American philosopher George Santayana, claiming to have taken Hume's skepticism a step further, maintained, in his work Skepticism and Animal Faith （1923）, that belief in the existence of anything, including oneself, rests on a natural, but irrational impulse. Elements of skepticism may be found in other modern schools of philosophy, including pragmatism, analytic and linguistic philosophy, and existentialism.

Philosophical skepticism

In philosophical skepticism, pyrrhonism is a position that refrains from making truth claims. A philosophical skeptic does not claim that truth is impossible （which would be a truth claim）. The label is commonly used to describe other philosophies which appear similar to philosophical skepticism, such as "academic" skepticism, an ancient variant of Platonism that claimed knowledge of truth was impossible. Empiricism is a closely related, but not identical, position to philosophical skepticism. Empiricists see empiricism as a pragmatic compromise between philosophical skepticism and nomothetic science; philosophical skepticism is in turn sometimes referred to as "radical empiricism."

Philosophical skepticism originated in ancient Greek philosophy. One of its first proponents was Pyrrho of Elis （c. 360—275 B.C.）, who traveled and studied as far as India, and propounded the adoption of "practical" skepticism. Subsequently, in the "New Academy" Arcesilaos （c. 315—241 B.C.） and Carneades （c. 213—129 B.C.） developed more theoretical perspectives, by which conceptions of absolute truth and falsity were refuted. Carneades criticized the views of the Dogmatists, especially supporters of Stoicism, asserting that absolute certainty of knowledge is impossible. Sextus Empiricus （c. A.D. 200）, the main authority for Greek skepticism, developed the position further, incorporating aspects of empiricism into the basis for asserting knowledge.

Greek skeptics criticized the Stoics, accusing them of dogmatism. For the skeptics, the logical mode of argument was untenable, as it relied on propositions which could not be said to be either true or false without relying on further propositions. This was the regress argument, whereby every proposition must rely on other propositions in order to maintain its validity. In addition, the skeptics argued that two propositions could not rely on each other, as this would create a circular argument （as p implies q and q implies p）. For the skeptics such logic was thus an inadequate measure of truth which could create as many problems as it claimed to have solved. Truth was not, however, necessarily unobtainable, but rather an idea which did not yet exist in a pure form. Although skepticism was accused of denying the possibility of truth, in actual fact it appears to have mainly been a critical school which merely claimed that logicians had not discovered truth.

Scientific Skepticism

A scientific （or empirical） skeptic is one who questions the reliability of certain kinds of claims by subjecting them to a systematic investigation. The scientific method details the specific process by which this investigation of reality is conducted. Considering the rigor of the scientific method, science itself may simply be thought of as an organized form skepticism. This does not mean that the scientific skeptic is necessarily a scientist who conducts live experiments （though this may be the case）, but that the skeptic generally accepts claims that are in his/her view likely to be true based on testable hypotheses and critical thinking.

Common topics that scientifically-skeptical literature questions include health claims surrounding certain foods, procedures, and medicines, such as homeopathy, Reiki, Thought Field Therapy （TFT）, vertebral subluxations; the plausibility of supernatural entities （such as ghosts, poltergeists, angels and gods）; as well as the existence of ESP/telekinesis, psychic powers, and telepathy（and thus the credibility of parapsychology）; topics in cryptozoology, Bigfoot, the Loch Ness monster, UFOs, crop circles, astrology, repressed memories, creationism, dowsing, conspiracy theories, and other claims the skeptic sees as unlikely to be true on scientific grounds.

Most empirical or scientific skeptics do not profess philosophical skepticism. Whereas a philosophical skeptic may deny the very existence of knowledge, an empirical skeptic merely seeks likely proof before accepting that knowledge.

4. Decision by Consensus

Perhaps the most fundamental difference in management style between the Japanese and most other countries lies in the area of decision-making. Westerners often find the Japanese method of making decisions to be aggravatingly slow. Few realize the very different thought processes and procedures that are going on.

Westerners tend to make major decisions at the top, in board meetings, among department heads, and the like. They then pass the word down the line to managers and others, to implement and carry out the decision. The Japanese do the opposite. Their system, commonly known as ringi, is the corporate version of “government by consensus.” Decisions are not made “on high” and handed down to be implemented. Rather, they are proposed from below and move upward, receiving additional input and approvals after deliberation through all levels of the company.

5. Competition or Cooperation

Competition is indispensable in any democratic society in that it not only provides an equal opportunity to make the best of talented persons but also prevents the phenomenon of nepotism, at

least to some extent. Talents nowadays are able to present their versatility and specialization so that many higher achievements which were inaccessible due to fewer chances can be gained, as long as their knowledge is professional adequately. Moreover, drastic competition serves to expedite the development and modernization of society than ever before as well. So in this sense, it is undoubtedly that competition play a significant role in benefiting our society.

However, too much emphasis on the positive role of competition will surely obscure the drawbacks it might hold, such as some phenomenon caused by ill competition. How would it be if there is no sound institution system, just let the market economics be a totally free one? All of us can imagine what the real conditions would be without government's interference: Illegality, adulteration, even commotion caused by trivial conflicts. To prevent such negative influences, the government should take part into the economic activities and exert a direct control in macro level rather than stand by.

Actually, there exists an inseparable relationship between cooperation and competition. If the concepts of cooperation and competition are extended to a social level and are analyzed in economic perspective, more often than not, competition can best illustrate itself in diverse ways when it comes to the level of individuals or companies, the former focus on personal development through intense competition against other rivals, while the latter aim at the most possible financial profits among the other homogeneous enterprises. However, in a group with similar target, things are different. The priority becomes efficiency as a whole that both individuals and companies will soon thrive. Therefore, we cooperate with others to be more competitive, while we compete for a better environment for cooperation, thus continuous improvement can be obtained.

工具箱七: Mass Media

1. Impacts of Mass Media

Radio and television were major agents of social change in the 20th century. Radio was once the center for family entertainment and news. Television enhanced this revolution by adding sight to sound. Both opened the windows to other lives, to remote areas of the world, and to history in the making. News coverage changed from early and late editions of newspapers to broadcast coverage from the scene. Play-by-play sports broadcasts and live concerts enhanced entertainment coverage. For many, the only cultural performances or sports events they would ever hear or see would emanate from the speakers or the screens in their living rooms. Each has engaged millions of people in the major historical events that have shaped the world.

If people could look at the sky and see how it is organized into frequency bands used for different purposes, they would be amazed. Radio waves crisscross the atmosphere at the speed of light, relaying incredible amounts of information—navigational data, radio signals, television pictures—using devices for transmission and reception designed, built, and refined by a century of engineers.

Key figures in the late 1800s included Nikola Tesla, who developed the Tesla coil, and James Clerk Maxwell and Heinrich Hertz, who proved mathematically the possibility of transmitting electromagnetic signals between widely separated points. It was Guglielmo Marconi who was most responsible for taking the theories of radio waves out of the laboratory and applying them to practical devices. His "wireless" telegraph demonstrated its great potential for worldwide communication in 1901 by sending a signal—the letter "s"—in Morse code a distance of 2,000

miles across the Atlantic Ocean. Radio technology was just around the corner.

Immediate engineering challenges addressed the means of transmitting and receiving coded messages, and developing a device that could convert a high-frequency oscillating signal into an electric current capable of registering as sound. The first significant development was “the Edison effect,” the discovery that the carbon filament in the electric light bulb could radiate a stream of electrons to a nearby test electrode if it had a positive charge. In 1904, Sir John Ambrose Fleming of Britain took this one step further by developing the diode, which allowed electric current to be detected by a telephone receiver. Two years later, American Lee De Forest developed the triode, introducing a third electrode （the grid） between the filament and the plate. It could amplify a signal to make live voice broadcasting possible, and was quickly added to Marconi’s wireless telegraph to produce the radio.

Radio development was hampered by restrictions placed on airwaves during World War I. Technical limitations were also a problem. Few people had receivers, and those that did had to wear headsets. Radio was seen by many as a hobby for telegraphy buffs. It would take a great deal of engineering before the radio would become the unifying symbol of family entertainment and the medium for news that was its destiny.

In the mid-1920s, technical developments expanded transmission distances, radio stations were built across the country, and the performance and appearance of the radio were improved. With tuning circuits, capacitors, microphones, oscillators, and loudspeakers, the industry blossomed in just a decade. By the mid-1930s almost every American household had a radio. The advent of the transistor in the 1950s completely transformed its size, style, and portability.

Both television and radar were logical spin-offs of the radio. Almost 50 years before television became a reality, its fundamental principles had been independently developed in Europe, Russia, and the United States. John Baird in England and Charles Jenkins in the United States worked independently to combine modulated light and a scanning wheel to reconstruct a scene in line-by-line sweeps. In 1925, Baird succeeded in transmitting a recognizable image.

Philo T. Farnsworth, a 21-year-old inventor from Utah, patented a scanning cathode ray tube, and Vladimir Zworykin of RCA devised a superior television camera in 1930. Regularly scheduled broadcasts started shortly thereafter, and by the early 1940s there were 23 television stations in operation throughout the United States.

Shortly after World War II, televisions began to appear on the market. The first pictures were faded and flickering, but more than a million sets were sold before the end of the decade. An average set cost $500 at a time when the average salary was less than $3,000 a year. In 1950 engineers perfected the rectangular cathode-ray tube and prices dropped to $200 per set. Within 10 years 45 million units were sold.

A study of how human vision works enabled engineers to develop television technology. Images are retained on the retina of a viewer’s eye for a fraction of a second after they strike it. By displaying images piece by piece at sufficient speed, the illusion of a complete picture can be created. By changing the image on the screen 25 to 30 times per second, movement can be realistically represented. Early scanning wheels slowly built a picture line by line. In contrast, each image on a modern color television screen is comprised of more than 100,000 picture elements （pixels）, arranged in several hundred lines. The image displayed changes every few hundredths of a second. For a 15-minute newscast, the television must accurately process more than 1 billion units of information. Technical innovations that made this possible included a screen

coated with millions of tiny dots of fluorescent compounds that emit light when struck by high-speed electrons.

Today this technology is in transition again, moving away from conventional television waves and on to discrete digital signals carried by fiber optics. This holds the potential for making television interactive—allowing a viewer to play a game or order action replays. Cathode ray tubes with power-hungry electron guns are giving way to liquid crystal display （LCD） panels. Movie-style wide screens and flat screens are readily available. Digital signals enable High Definition Television （HDTV） to have almost double the usual number of pixels, giving a much sharper picture. The advent of cable television and advances in fiber-optic technology will also help lift the present bandwidth restrictions and increase image quality.

2. Instant Messaging

Instant messaging offers real-time communication and allows easy collaboration, which might be considered more akin to genuine conversation than e-mail's "letter" format. In contrast to e-mail, the parties know whether the peer is available. Most systems allow the user to set an online status or away message so peers are notified when the user is available, busy, or away from the computer. On the other hand, people are not forced to reply immediately to incoming messages. For this reason, some people consider communication via instant messaging to be less intrusive than communication via phone. However, some systems allow the sending of messages to people not currently logged on （offline messages）, thus removing much of the difference between IM and e-mail.

3. Information Source of Mass Media

In an industrialized economy where consumers demand information on numerous worldwide events unfolding simultaneously, they argue that this task can only be filled by major business and government sectors that have the necessary material resources. This includes mainly The Pentagon and other governmental bodies. A symbiotic relationship arises between the media and parts of government which is sustained by economic necessity and reciprocity of interest. On the one hand, government and news-promoters strive to make it easier for news organizations to buy their services; they provide them with facilities in which to give journalists advance copies of speeches and forthcoming reports schedule of press conferences.

On the other hand, the media become reluctant to run articles that will harm corporate interests that provide them with the resources that the media depend upon.

This theoretical relationship also gives rise to a "moral division of labor", in which "officials have and give the facts," and "reporters merely get them". Journalists are then supposed to adopt an uncritical attitude that makes it possible for them to accept corporate values without experiencing cognitive dissonance.

4. Effects of TV Violence on Children

As technology improves and the amount of violent entertainment increases, images become more graphic and result in a more realistic portray of violence. Television viewing affects children of different ages in different ways. While a child may spend many hours in front of a television set at an early age, the programming has little effect. At the age of two a child will imitate the actions of the live model, example a parent more than a model on television. However by the age of three the

child will begin to imitate the TV characters. The attitudes toward television drastically change over a child's life. When researching the effects of television various points need to be taken into consideration, certain issues effect people in different ways, for example pornography. However, most parents do not realize that whether aggression is presented in a realistic way or in a cartoon, it makes no difference to a child who has a difficult time differentiating between the two.

5. The Fourth Estate

The term Fourth Estate refers to the press, both in its explicit capacity of advocacy and in its implicit ability to frame political issues. The term goes back at least to Thomas Carlyle in the first half of the 19th century.

Novelist Jeffrey Archer in his work The Fourth Estate made this observation: "In May 1789, Louis XVI summoned to Versailles a full meeting of the "Estate General". The First Estate consisted of three hundred clergy. The Second Estate, three hundred nobles. The Third Estate, six hundred commoners. Some years later, after the French Revolution, Edmund Burke, looking up at the Press Gallery of the House of Commons, said, 'Yonder sits the Fourth Estate, and they are more important than them all.'"

6. Mass Media and Individual Privacy

Ethical restraint would set guidelines for journalists and protect individual rights. The first issue would be to set objective and universal guidelines so that there would be no debate over who sets the ethical code. The problem would be enforcing these guidelines. The Radio Television News Directors Association and the Society of Professional Journalists both have ethical codes, which include respecting those whom you are reporting about and keeping confidentiality. Those ethical standards are not enforced and so some do not follow them. Some people believe in free speech at all costs. Free speech without restraint causes public outcry and violates people's civil rights like their right to privacy. The difficulty is that people see any form of restraint as censorship and then claim that the government will begin running our lives and making our decisions. If the ethical standards agreed upon were universal they would satisfy everyone and if the journalists would follow them there would be no need for government intervention.

7. News Values

News values determine how much prominence a news story is given by a media outlet, and the attention it is given by the audience. Boyd states that: "News journalism has a broadly agreed set of values, often referred to as newsworthiness...".

News values are not universal and can vary widely between different cultures. In Western practice, decisions on the selection and prioritization of news are made by editors on the basis of their experience and intuition, although analysis showed that several factors are consistently applied across a range of news organizations.

A variety of external and internal pressures influence journalists' decisions on which stories are covered, how issues are interpreted and the emphasis given to them. These pressures can sometimes lead to bias or unethical reporting. Achieving relevance, giving audiences the news they want and find interesting, is an increasingly important goal for media outlets seeking to maintain market share in a rapidly evolving market. This has made news organizations more open to audience input and feedback, and forced them to adopt and apply news values which will attract

and keep audiences. The growth of interactive media and citizen journalism is fast altering the traditional distinction between news producer and passive audience and may in future lead to a deep-ploughing redefinition of what “news” means and the role of the news industry.

8. Free Speech and Ethical Principle

The first amendment to the constitution guarantees the right of free speech and of the press. Unfortunately, some individuals have used this right to protect themselves from litigation when they produce material that is pornographic, hateful or when they use ethically questionable methods when reporting a story. The government has attempted to intervene through passing laws and imposing regulations. The problem with placing restrictions on free speech is that the question of who will decide what is appropriate and what is not will inevitably be raised.

There are two positions when debating this issue：1） protect free speech even though some people abuse it or 2） freedom of speech does not outweigh the need for ethical principles. Two of the ethical dilemmas facing the media today are the conflicts of freedom of the press versus individual rights, and the right of the press to refuse to reveal their sources.

The media has often claimed that the public has a right to know, but they do not limit that right to know to a certain area of public concern. Reporters have written stories on the sexual lives of movie stars claiming public interest but simply because the public is curious does not mean they have a right to know. Certainly, most people would not want their entire life story being printed as public knowledge and subject to ridicule.

9. News Embargo

Embargoes are typically used by government or corporate representatives working in publicity or public relations, and are often arranged in advance as part of a formal or informal agreement. Sometimes publishers will release advance copies of a book to reviewers with the agreement that reviews of it will not appear before the official release date of the publication. Complex scientific news might also require advance notice with an embargo. Governments also have legitimate reasons for imposing embargoes, often so as to prevent news reports being an unfair or undue influence over votes in legislative bodies. Artists’ names and locations of performances are sometimes embargoed pending the official announcement of the scheduled performance tour. Sometimes publicists will send embargoed press releases to newsrooms unsolicited in hopes that they will respect the embargo date without having first agreed to do so.

News organizations sometimes break embargoes and report information before the embargo expires, either accidentally（due to miscommunication in the newsroom）or intentionally（to get the jump on their competitors）. Breaking an embargo is typically considered a serious breach of trust and can result in the source barring the offending news outlet from receiving advance information in the future.

工具箱八: Art and Culture

1. The Definition of Art

Art is the product of creative human activity in which materials are shaped or selected to convey an idea, emotion, or visually interesting form. The word art can refer to the visual arts, including painting, sculpture, architecture, photography, decorative arts, crafts, and other visual works that

combine materials or forms. We also use the word art in a more general sense to encompass other forms of creative activity, such as dance and music, or even to describe skill in almost any activity, such as “the art of bread making” or “the art of travel.” Art history is the study of works of art in their historical context.

Styles change through time and artists introduce new materials, techniques, subject matter, and purposes for art. Art historians study such changes and use them to determine the chronological periods and approximate dates of art works. A work of art can reflect the historical period or context in which it was made by representing society’s assumptions about people, by depicting customs or rituals, or by showing us what was thought beautiful, ornamental, or fashionable. In addition to these aspects of art, art historians study the lives of artists, including their training and practices. Art historians answer fundamental questions about art objects, such as: Who made the work? When was it made? How was it made? What was its purpose? What did it mean?

2. The Importance of Art

Art is usually a criticism of the world as it is and a vision of the world as it might be. A characteristic of good art is that it engages individuals in a very deep and personal way, and in ways that may not be shared by every member of a group. The purpose of art is to find a way to wake people up who are going through their lives sleepwalking and say: “Stop it. You can’t walk past this. This is your life.” Artists have to be able to function in society and say there are basic human values that must be, that cannot be shortchanged, or else we won’t have a society. Art is an invitation to become part of something that is larger than us. The arts are connected to being a grown-up. In order to be a grown-up, one has to be able to envision other lives as real, other possibilities as real. When we don’t have the arts, a very important part of us begins to starve and our humanity begins to dwindle.

3. The Function of Art

Art has an effect on the individual and on a particular culture in a society. Psychologically, art enhances life by adding beauty to our surroundings. It is a source of pleasure and relaxation from the stresses of life. Socially, art plays a number of different roles by virtue of its capacity to embody symbolic significance to its audience.

Art fulfils a number of important social functions. It is used to communicate the various statues people hold. It can play a role in regulating economic activities. And it is almost always a means for expressing important political and religious ideas and for teaching principles that are valued in society. These and other social uses of art function to preserve the established social organization of each society.

（1） Status Indicators

One of the social functions of art is the communication of status differences between individuals. For instance, gender differences in body decorations and dress are typical of cultures throughout the world. Age differences may be similarly indicated. Puberty rituals often include tattooing, scarification of the body in decorative designs, or even filling of the teeth to between children and adults. Social class differences in complex societies also involve aesthetic markers such as the clothing people wear and the kinds of artworks they use as decorations of their homes. According to Sahlins, social and economic class, age, and gender differences are noticeable even in the kinds of fabrics people’s clothing is made from. For instance, silks in most societies are predominantly

worn by women, especially those who are part of the upper classes and those who are middle-aged.

（2） Economic Functions

Economic life, by virtue of its practical importance to our survival and to our standard of living, can sometimes be a source of conflict between groups that must carry out exchange with one another. Sometimes art, perhaps because it is valued for its nonutilitarian qualities, can play a role of maintaining harmony in such settings. This was one of the functions of the Kula Ring exchange of ceremonial necklaces and armbands among islanders such as the Trobrianders and Dobuans.

（3） Religious Functions

Much of the dramatic and emotional impact of religion derives from its use of art. Religious rituals everywhere include song and dance performances, and the visual arts function to heighten the emotional component of religious experience in all parts of the world, by portraying important scenes and symbols from religious history and mythology. In some cultures, art and religious ritual are inseparable. For instance, among the Abelam of Papua New Guinea, all art is produced for use in rituals.

（4） Didactic Functions

Art is often employed as a means for teaching important cultural ideas and values. For instance, hymns in Western religion express theological concepts and encourage the support of specific religious values. Daniel Biebuyck has analyzed the use of art to embody moral and ethical principles by the Lega people of Central Africa. Lega ethical ideals are codified in figurines of humans and animals made of ivory, pottery, bone, wood, and wickerwork. The figurines are used in the initiation and training of men into prominent positions within Lega society. Each of these statues is associated with one or more aphorisms, a concise statement that alludes to a general ethical concept. For instance, one figure is a carved stick whose top is slit so as to suggest an open mouth... The object illustrates the saying, “He who does not put off his quarrelsomeness will quarrel with something that has the mouth widely distended.” （In other rites this idea may be rendered by a crocodile figurine with widely distended jaws.） The aphorism alludes to the disastrous effects of quarrelsomeness and meddlesomeness.

Thus, Lega figurines were not only works of art; they were also devices for teaching important moral principles to each new generation. At the same time, their ownership by older men who had achieved initiation into the highest levels of society functioned to perpetuate respect for the moral wisdom of the leaders in the established social hierarchy.

（5） Political Functions

Art often functions to legitimize the authority of government. Mount Rushmore, in South Dakota, memorializes four American presidents who were selected for their symbolic association with messages about values of individualism and democracy. The statue Mother Russia commemorates the enduring will to survive of the Russian people. The British Crown Jewels, by virtue of their artistry and the symbolism of precious stones that originated throughout the Commonwealth, celebrate the value of the institution of the monarchy. And the ornately carved Golden Stool of the Ashanti of southern Ghana, with the distinctive myth of its supernatural origins, reinforces the legitimacy of the Ashanti king and the unity and stability of Ashanti society.

As a statement about the legitimacy of governmental authority, art is a conservative force in society. In this role, it is intended to elicit loyalty and to stabilize society and its political system. Governments also sometimes deliberately employ this aspect of art as propaganda urging public

action that supports official policy. Thus, propagandistic art embodies both didactic and political functions.

4. Federal Support to Art

One idea is that culture makes us a better society; Federal support is needed to prevent our decline into cultural barbarism. Another idea is that the free market fails to provide outlets for the higher forms of art. A third idea is that the United States has been deficient by lagging behind European governments which support the arts as a matter of course. There is also the myth of the starving artist—if we neglect to support the arts, we will be condemning another van Gogh or Mozart to a wretched existence. It is also generally recognized that many highly talented artists lack commercial aptitude, and this leads to an argument that the public has a responsibility to support them.

5. Intercultural Prejudices

When culture meet, people may have little understanding or appreciation of groups whose ideologies and adaptive strategies differ from their own. People grow up under the nurturance of their group and learn to fulfill their needs by living according to their group's culture. As people learn their way of life, they generally identify themselves as members of the group that has cared for their early needs and has taught them the rules for living. Simultaneously, they generally develop positive feelings toward this reference group and its behaviors. Often, the training of children in the ways of the group is communicated expressly by contrasting them with the supposed behaviors of outsiders: "Other parents may let their children come to the table like that, but in our family we wash our hands before eating!" Such expressions teach children the patterns of behavior expected of group members, but they also communicate a disapproval of outsiders.

In complex societies with large populations and many competing groups, prejudices between groups within the society may become a common element of daily experience, varying from good-natured rivalry to direct antipathies. In the United States, we may think of our own state as "God's own country," our politics as the only rational way of doing things, or our religion as the only road to salvation. Even such group symbols as hair length and style of clothing have served as grounds for suspension from school, unified those in public demonstrations, and caused interpersonal violence.

The attitude that one's own culture is the naturally superior one, the standard by which all other cultures should be judged, and that cultures different from one's own are inferior is such a common way of reacting to others' customs that it is given a special name by anthropologists. Ethnocentrism, centered in one's ethnos, the Greek word for a people or a nation, is found in every culture. People allow their judgments about human nature and about the relative merits of different ways of life to be guided by ideas and values that are centered narrowly on the way of life of their own society.

Ethnocentrism serves a society by creating greater feelings of group unity. When individuals speak ethnocentrically, they affirm their loyalty to the ideals of their society and elicit in other persons of the group shared feelings of superiority about their social body. This enhances their sense of identity as members of the same society and as bearers of a common culture. A shared sense of group superiority—especially during its overt communication between group members—can help them overlook internal differences and prevent conflicts that could otherwise decrease the ability

of the group to undertake effectively coordinated action.

For most of human history, societies have been smaller than the nations of today, and most people have interacted only with members of their own society. Under such circumstances, the role of ethnocentrism in helping a society to survive by motivating its members to support one another in their common goals has probably outweighed its negative aspects. However, ethnocentrism definitely has a darker side. It is a direct barrier to understanding among peoples of diverse customs and values. It enhances enmity between societies and can be a motivation for conflict among peoples whose lives are guided by different cultures.

Ethnocentrism stands in fundamental conflict with the goals of anthropology: the recognition of the common humanity of all human beings and the understanding of the causes of cultural differences. To many students, much of the appeal of the field of anthropology has been its intriguing discussions of the unending variety of customs grown out of what, from the viewpoint of the uninitiated, may seem like strange and exotic, unexpected, and even startlingly different values. A people's values generally make perfectly good sense when seen and explained in the context of their cultural system as a whole. Yet, it is often difficult to make sense out of another cultural tradition because its symbolic meanings may be so different from one's own. While negative reactions to the customs of another society may, therefore, be expected, they should be guarded against by the student of anthropology.

6. Culture Shock

Anthropologists who engage in fieldwork in a culture that differs from the one in which they grew up often experience a period of disorientation or even depression known as culture shock before they become acclimatized to their new environment. Even tourists who travel for only a short time outside their own nations may experience culture shock, and unless they are prepared for its impact, they may simply transform their own distress into a motive for prejudice against their host society.

7. What is Culture?

Culture is a complex term that consists of so many things. At the base of culture, one would find people who live in social groups and share a way of living which separates them from other human groups. A culture may include rituals, religion, economic systems, language, a style of dress, a way of cooking, and a political system. People who share a culture typically follow the same rules and form a social society.

Culture is not inherited, but must be learned and shared. A culture can also change and adapt to the needs of a society. Culture can help humans survive in this ever-changing globe. Many members of a culture develop a feeling of superiority over other cultures and can become ethnocentric. Some societies, like the United States, are multicultural and consist of many diverse cultures. People can also develop self-identity within a culture and may have culture shock if they are exposed to a new and confusing culture different from their own.

There are also several levels of culture. On the material level, a culture has an economy that provides a way to produce and exchange material goods in order to survive. A material culture provides humans a way to feed, shelter, and clothe themselves. On the social level, a culture gives humans a way to organize themselves. Social culture involves kinship and family. It also gives societies a work life and political structure. The last level of culture involves the ideological. It

gives a group of people a unique way of thinking about beliefs, values, and ideals. All of these different aspects of culture give humans an understanding of how the world works and how they live and act in their own environment.

工具箱九: Politics

1. Political Science

Political Science is the systematic study of and reflection upon politics. Politics usually describes the processes by which people and institutions exercise and resist power. Political processes are used to formulate policies, influence individuals and institutions, and organize societies.

Many political scientists study how governments use politics. But political scientists also study politics in other contexts, such as how politics affects the economy, how ordinary people think and act in relation to politics, and how politics influences organizations outside of government. The emphasis upon government and power distinguishes political science from other social sciences, although political scientists share an interest with economists in studying relations between the government and economy, and with sociologists in considering relations between social structures in general and political structures in particular. Political scientists attempt to explain and understand recurrent patterns in politics rather than specific political events.

2. Political Parties

Political Parties, are organizations that mobilize voters on behalf of a common set of interests, concerns, and goals. In many nations, parties play a crucial role in the democratic process. They formulate political and policy agendas, select candidates, conduct election campaigns, and monitor the work of their elected representatives. Political parties link citizens and the government, providing a means by which people can have a voice in their government.

3. Political Party System

A political party system consists of all the parties in a particular nation and the laws and customs that govern their behavior. There are three types of party systems: （1） multiparty systems, （2） two-party systems, and （3） one-party systems.

Multiparty systems are the most common type of party system. Parliamentary governments based on proportional representation often develop multiparty systems. In this type of electoral arrangement, the number of legislative seats held by any party depends on the proportion of votes they received in the most recent election. When no party gains a majority of the legislative seats in a parliamentary multiparty system, several parties may join forces to form a coalition government. Advocates of multiparty systems point out that they permit more points of view to be represented in government and often provide stable, enduring systems of government, as in most of contemporary Western Europe （where every system, including Great Britain, has at least three and usually five or six significant parties）. Critics note, however, that multiparty systems have sometimes contributed to fragmentation and political instability, as in the Weimar Republic in Germany （1919—1933）, the Fourth Republic in France （1946—1958）, and Italy after World War II.

In a two-party system, control of government power shifts between two dominant parties. Two-party systems most frequently develop when electoral victory requires only a simple plurality

vote, that is, the winner gets the most votes, but not necessarily a majority of votes. In such a system, it makes sense for smaller parties to combine into larger ones or to drop out altogether. Parliamentary governments in which the legislators are elected by plurality voting to represent distinct districts may develop party systems in which only two parties hold significant numbers of seats, as in Great Britain and Canada. Advocates of two-party systems believe they limit the dangers of excessive fragmentation and government stalemate. However, in the United States, which separates the powers and functions of government between executive, legislative, and judicial branches, it is possible for one party to control the legislature and the other to control the executive branch. This frequently has led to political gridlock between the Republican Party and the Democratic Party. Opponents of the two-party system also believe that in time the two parties increasingly tend to resemble each other and leave too many points of view out of the political process. These factors may alienate voters and lead to low turnout in elections. See also United States （Government）: Election Process and Political Parties.

A single-party system is one in which one party nominates all candidates for office. Thus there is no competition for elected offices. The only choices left to voters are （1） to decide whether or not to vote and（2）to vote“yes”or“no”for the designated candidate. Single-party systems have characterized Communist Party governments and other authoritarian regimes. They have become much less common since Communism collapsed in Eastern Europe and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics （USSR） between 1989 and 1991. Surviving Communist states, most notably China, North Korea, and Cuba, do continue to enforce the rule of a single party. International financial pressure has also reduced the number of single-party systems in developing nations. Funding agencies such as the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development （also known as the World Bank） often insist upon a competitive party system as a precondition for granting loans or aid to these countries. Defenders of single-party systems point out that they provide a way for nations to mobilize and direct the talents and energies of every citizen toward a unified mission or purpose. This advantage appeals to leaders of some nations that possess limited human and material resources. However, single-party systems limit the political freedoms and choices of citizens.

4. Political Impact on Economy and Business

Some business cycle analysts, including statistician Edward Tufte, have argued that politics plays a major role in the business cycle. These analysts believe that elected officials manipulate monetary and fiscal policies in an effort to win reelection. According to this viewpoint, as a presidential election approaches, officeholders seek to stimulate the economy with reductions in taxes, increases in government spending, and decreases in interest rates. The elected officials do this because they believe voters, enjoying the favorable economic conditions, will reward them by reelecting them to office. But in the process they may be stimulating an expansion that cannot be sustained and so may lead soon to a contraction.

5. Political Impact on Education

Political leadership has affected the education systems of many countries in the 20th century. In the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics （USSR） under Communism and in Germany under the leadership of National Socialism, totalitarian systems of government imposed strict guidelines on the organization of national education systems. Many other countries during the 20th century,

including the United States, have sought to balance control of their education systems between the federal government and local governments or private organizations. Most countries in the 20th century have also taken steps to increase access to education.

6. Reciprocity

Reciprocity, in international relations, is the policy, usually formalized by two or more countries signing a treaty, of granting equally advantageous treatment to another country or countries. The most common types of reciprocal treaties occur in the following areas: commerce, in which trade concessions are granted by each country to the other; copyright; naturalization; and extradition, when a fugitive from one country is found in another and is returned to the country of origin.

7. Questions and Answers About American Politics

Q: Why do so few Americans vote in national elections?

A: Only about 50 percent of American voters cast ballots in presidential elections and less than 40 percent do so in congressional elections. Some people argue that state registration procedures discourage voting; some believe that holding the election on a weekday when most people are working discourages it. However, public cynicism and apathy seem to be the principal culprits. A lot of people apparently believe that it will make no difference in their lives who wins the election, that their one vote doesn't matter, and that all politicians are the same. Complacency tends also to be greater in good times, when people are satisfied, than in bad times, when they are hurting, unhappy, or just plain mad.

Q: Why do candidates from the Democratic and Republican parties often take similar stands on so many issues?

A: The Republican and Democratic parties are broad-based, mainstream parties. They have maintained their longevity and dominance in American politics by taking positions within the mainstream of public opinion. And the American public as a whole tends to be politically moderate, not ideological or extreme. When the parties have nominated ideological candidates for president—such as Republican Barry M. Goldwater in 1964 and Democrat George McGovern in 1972—they have not done as well as when they have nominated mainstream candidates. One exception was Republican Ronald W. Reagan, who was elected president in 1980 despite his strong ideological views, not because of them.

Q: What does a president do in his capacity as chief executive?

A: As chief executive of the United States government, a president oversees the execution of the laws Congress enacts. In this role, presidents preside over the executive branch of government. They nominate—and with the advice and consent of the Senate—appoint the top political officials who serve in the executive branch. These officials include the secretaries of the 14 departments and their deputies and assistants, as well as the administrators of the executive agencies, such as the Social Security Administration.

Presidents can issue executive orders to their subordinates to perform certain ministerial jobs in a certain way. For example, President Ronald Reagan issued an order to forbid federal officials who worked at federally funded clinics to discuss abortion. President Bill Clinton repealed that order. In 2000 Clinton issued an executive order to all executive branch officials prohibiting them from discriminating against a person in hiring or promotion because of that person's sexual orientation. Executive orders have the force of law, but they can be overturned by an act of Congress or

rescinded by presidents.

Q: What can a president do as commander in chief?

A: As commander in chief, the United States president is the civilian head of the military. Toward the end of World War II, President Harry S. Truman gave the order to drop the atomic bomb. The president can issue orders to U.S. armed forces, such as the 1990 order George Bush gave to deploy American military in the Persian Gulf and, later, to remove Iraqi forces from Kuwait. During the 1999 North Atlantic Treaty Organization（NATO）air strikes against Serbian forces in Kosovo, President Clinton indicated which targets were permissible for U.S. forces and which were not.

Q: How is policy coordinated in the executive branch of the United States government? Who coordinates it?

A: The Office of Management and Budget （OMB） coordinates most administration policy through its three major processes: budgetary review, legislative clearance, and regulatory review. In this capacity the OMB acts as the president's surrogate, his executive branch facilitators, and the "cops" who make sure that the administration speaks with a single voice: the president's.

The budgetary review process in the executive branch occurs over a nine-month period beginning in late April or early May and continuing until the president's budget is finished and presented to Congress by the first Monday in February for the fiscal year that begins on October 1 of the same year. The departments are given guidelines and are expected to formulate their budgets in terms of these guidelines. The OMB reviews their formulation and makes decisions. There is a short period for appeals to the president and then the budget is finalized.

In legislative review, the executive departments and agencies must submit certain things to the OMB for approval prior to the time they send this material to Congress. This material includes positions they wish to take on pending legislation, prepared testimony they have been invited to give to Congress, and any legislative proposals that they would like to see enacted into law. The OMB coordinates and controls the final product, although there may be give-and-take between the departments, agencies, and the OMB. But as the president's surrogate, the OMB has the last word.

People in the OMB work closely with the policy people in the Executive Office of the President （EOP）. The top OMB officials are housed in the same building—often on the same floor—as the policy staff. The top OMB people are political appointees; the analysts are civil servants.

Regulatory review is a process that began in the Reagan administration, whereby departments and executive agencies are required to submit any major regulations they wish to put forth to the OMB prior to the official announcement of the regulation in the Federal Register. The OMB then determines whether the proposed regulations are necessary, cost-effective, and consistent with the president's program. No major regulation can be issued unless it meets these three criteria as determined by the OMB.

Q: Why is the electoral college, rather than direct popular election, used to elect U.S. presidents?

A: The electoral college was designed by the framers of the U.S. Constitution as an indirect method of presidential selection. The framers did not have a great deal of confidence in the ability of the common people to make such a decision. The framers believed that electors—who probably would be better educated than average citizens—would make independent judgments, choosing candidates who were the most qualified, not necessarily the most popular. Once the political party system developed in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, electors became agents of their parties. Their votes reflected their partisan loyalties, not their own considered judgment.

Q: What is the difference between the White House and the Executive Office of the President?

A: The White House is one of 12 offices and two residences—the president's and vice president's—in the Executive Office of the President（EOP）. The EOP was established in 1939 by President Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

In addition to the White House office, there is the Office of Management and Budget （OMB）, which has about 550 people. It is the largest EOP office and one of the most important. Most of the people in the OMB are civil servants. They help prepare the budget, coordinate legislation, oversee management activities, and review department and agency regulations before they are issued.

Other EOP offices include the three policy councils: domestic, economic, and national security. Also in the EOP offices are the president's science adviser, the office of the United States trade representative, the office of drug policy and prevention of abuse, the vice president's staff, the council on environmental quality, and the office of administration.

Approximately 1,700 people work in the EOP. The most important officials who do not have White House offices are situated in the Old Executive Office Building next to the White House and the newer OMB building on 17th Street in Washington, D.C.

Q: How well did Franklin Delano Roosevelt prepare Harry Truman for the presidency?

A: FDR did little to prepare Truman for the presidency. As a compromise choice for vice president at the 1944 Democratic convention, Truman had virtually no executive experience except running a haberdashery that went bankrupt. Prior to being vice president, he had been a senator from Missouri.

In fact, after he was sworn in as vice president, Truman never had a one-on-one meeting with President Roosevelt, although he did attend several sessions with others. He was even unaware of the development of the atomic bomb at the time he became president.

Ironically, Truman in turn did little to prepare his own vice president, Alban Barkley of Kentucky, for the job should something have happened to Truman. Eisenhower was the first to involve his vice president, Richard Nixon, in the policy-making circles of the Eisenhower White House. But even Nixon did not have an office in the West Wing of the White House. His office was across the street.

Q: What are the different roles first ladies have assumed?

A: First ladies have assumed three roles: social hostess, social and educational spokeswoman, and policy adviser and advocate. The first role, both social and ceremonial, is the oldest and the one that every first lady has performed since Martha Washington. It involves greeting and meeting guests at official functions at the White House, such as state dinners; accompanying the president on international and national visits; and taking part in the social and ceremonial activities that are part of the trip. The social hostess role also involves exercising some influence over the decor and management of the White House.

The second role—that of spokeswoman for good causes—began with Lou Henry Hoover, wife of Herbert Hoover. She was an advocate for the Red Cross. Jackie Kennedy was instrumental in the renovation of Lafayette Park across from the White House and in the emphasis she placed on cultural and international activities. Lady Bird Johnson had a beautification program. Betty Ford spoke out on women's issues and later on drug rehabilitation. Rosalyn Carter was concerned with mental health and its treatment, and Nancy Reagan advocated a "Just Say No" policy on drugs. Barbara Bush was concerned with literacy. Hillary Rodham Clinton focused on issues of family

values and human rights.

One of three first ladies who were involved with policy matters was Edith Wilson, after her husband was incapacitated with a stroke in 1919. It is alleged that Mrs. Wilson made decisions for the president and put his signature on official documents. Eleanor Roosevelt influenced her husband on issues of health, civil rights, and women: It was through her pressures that President Roosevelt appointed the first woman to the Cabinet. Hillary Rodham Clinton, the first spouse to be given an office in the West Wing of the White House, was involved behind the scenes on a variety of issues. She took a very public role in her support of the president's health-care reform of which she was the principal adviser and policymaker.

Q: What do former presidents do? Do they have to work or do they get a pension?

A: Former presidents can do almost anything they want. When Richard Nixon left the White House, he wrote books on foreign policy. Gerald Ford played golf, joined corporate boards, and made speeches—frequently for large fees. Jimmy Carter built up his presidential library, particularly its humanitarian fund. He has been active in a variety of charitable causes and has acted as an international mediator. Ronald Reagan made a few speeches but was basically forced into retirement because of his illness, Alzheimer's disease. George Bush has done a variety of activities, including writing and speaking. Bill Clinton plans to write, give speeches, and work on his presidential library. He will probably participate in a variety of business-related activities, as well as perform the social functions of a Senate spouse.

Q: What is the history of the U.S. president's budget?

A: Congress established the requirement for an executive budget in 1921 with the enactment of the Budget and Accounting Act. Prior to that time, executive departments and agencies went directly to Congress for their annual appropriation, and the president had no formal role in the budget process.

From 1921 to 1939, a budget division operated from within the Treasury Department, coordinating the cycle for the preparation of the annual presidential budget and its presentation to Congress. In 1939 Franklin Roosevelt got legal authority to create the Executive Office of the President and moved the Bureau of the Budget into that office, where it has remained ever since. In 1970 President Nixon enlarged the agency's functions to include management improvement in the executive branch and changed the name of the office to The Office of Management and Budget（OMB）, which is its current title.

OMB has about 550 people working for it. Most are career civil servants. There are about 20 political appointees who serve at the pleasure of the president. They include the director, deputy director, five program associate directors, and the heads of various offices.

Q: How long do presidential transitions take and how much do they cost?

A: Officially, transitions take 75 to 77 days—the time from the election to the inauguration. Unofficially, they last longer. Often begun quietly during the campaign, transitions last until the administration is staffed and begins to function. In 2000, because of the Florida election controversy, the official transition lasted only 36 days. However, George W. Bush let it be known during the campaign who would handle transition matters: Clay Johnson, Bush's chief of staff when he was governor of Texas. Once the election was determined, Johnson became the executive director of the transition and Dick Cheney became the official head.

Congress has enacted legislation to help pay the costs of transition. The newly elected administration received $5 million for expenses during the transition. The General Service

Administration provided office space and computer facilities. In addition to these official expenses, there are the costs of the inaugural activities: the dances, parade, and other festivities, which includes outlays for food, music, overtime wages for police, and building rentals. These costs are paid for by voluntary contributions and ticket sales.

Q: Would other forms of government such as socialism work in the United States? If so, what would have to happen in order for that to work?

A: Socialism is an economic system in which the government controls certain principal industries and distributes resources to the society as a whole. We have had socialist communities, but no socialist government in the United States of which I am aware. However, there has been a persistent conservative Republican reaction to the big-government, domestic programs that began in Franklin Roosevelt's administration and continued through Lyndon Johnson's. Some of these critics believed that Clinton's health-care proposal to the Congress would have fit into the "socialist" category.

Socialized medicine would be a system like the Canadian system in which all citizens are entitled to benefits and the costs are paid for by tax and other government revenues. The closest we have come to a socialized system in the United States is Social Security, a pension system run by the government for the benefit of retirees who meet the criteria of having paid into the system for a certain number of years. Medicare and Medicaid are also social systems.

Our country seems to be moving in the direction of the private sector for social benefits, not the government. President Bush would privatize some of Social Security; the Republicans wish to have Medicare as one of a number of health insurance forms; and the others would be operated by the private sector. Although we could theoretically have greater government control of the economy and distribution of social benefits without changing the Constitution, such a situation does not seem likely as long as there is so much public mistrust of government and those who work in it.

Q: What is the Office of the Pardon Attorney?

A: It is the job of the pardon attorney to review appeals for pardons and clemency and to complete a report for the president, through the attorney general, that describes the case, the court decision, the judgment, and the opinion of law enforcement officials as to the merits of the appeal.

Q: Why do political parties in the United States have less influence over candidates and policies than they once had?

A: Political parties in the United States have lost influence over their candidates largely because of the reforms they made in nomination processes beginning in the 1970s. Primary elections and caucuses have replaced the selection of presidential and congressional candidates by party leaders. Primaries and caucuses allow rank-and-file party members to participate in the selection of their party's nominees. Thus candidates for the nomination appeal to their party's electorate, not to the party leadership, to become the nominee. Candidates run on their own record and promises, not necessarily on the party's. It is natural that they would try to redeem these promises once elected. Today's political parties stand for what their elected officials stand for and not the other way around.

Q: Why does the cost of political campaigns seem to keep rising?

A: A variety of factors account for the rising cost of campaigns. Media advertising, which has become the primary way to communicate with voters, is expensive, more so now than in the past. The proliferation of primaries, elections to select a political party's nominees for public office, has

added to the money game. Now most candidates have to run in two elections, one for the nomination and one for the general election, rather than just one.

Another reason for the increase in expenditures has been the new, and expensive, technology used by candidates: public opinion polls, direct mail, computerized voter lists, targeted messages, and other tools. More candidates are funding polls to determine their strengths and weaknesses. Weaker party organizations at the grass-roots level mean that candidates must either pay for professionals to do the work or build their own organization, both of which incur considerable cost.

The use of soft money to circumvent the limits placed on campaign contributions has made campaigns more expensive. In addition, money spent by interest groups and political parties on issue advocacy, which entails pushing a particular policy or position and associating it with a candidate, has played a role.

Other factors that have pushed campaigning costs up include the decline in voter turnout （more money has to be spent just getting people to vote）; the prosperity of the country （as people become wealthier, they have more money to give and spend on elections）; and the move toward “constant campaigning,” in which campaigns never cease, from the moment of election to reelection. Given these factors, total campaign expenditures are going up, up, and up with no end in sight.

Q: How is it possible for a U.S. president to get elected without winning the highest number of popular votes?

A: The presidential election is decided in the electoral college, in which states give their electoral votes to the candidate who wins the popular vote. It is a winner-take-all system that awards all of a state’s electoral votes to a single candidate. Since there is no proportional representation, losers get nothing. Thus a candidate who loses the popular vote by a narrow margin in the large states—those that have the most electoral votes—and wins by a large margin in the middle-sized and smaller states may win the popular vote but fail to win a majority of electoral votes.

In the 2000 presidential election, Democratic candidate Al Gore lost to Republican candidate George W. Bush, even though Gore won the popular vote. Such a result has occurred just twice before in American history, both in the 19th century: the election of Rutherford B. Hayes in 1876 and the election of Benjamin Harrison in 1888.

Q: How does the public evaluate the president?

A: In general, the public employs three criteria when they evaluate U.S. presidents. One relates to external condition and events. If these are favorable—if the economy is strong, for example—and if presidents can demonstrate some responsibility for contributing to these conditions or events, then they tend to get credit for it, probably more than they deserve. The opposite is true as well. Presidents get more blame than they merit if conditions and events are unfavorable.

A second set of judgment criteria used by the public are “in agreement” measures. People tend to evaluate presidents more highly when they agree with them philosophically, ideologically, and politically. Conservative Republicans who opposed a strong role for the national government in domestic affairs supported President Ronald Reagan far more than did those who had different beliefs and loyalties. Similarly, most Democrats remained loyal to President Bill Clinton throughout his presidency. But as Clinton adopted and pursued moderate, traditionally Republican positions such as free trade, some Democrats, including organized labor, mounted a major movement to oppose free trade and the President’s pursuit of it.

The third group of factors that the public uses when assessing presidents are personal traits and behavior. The presidency as an institution demands strength, boldness, decisiveness, courage, empathy, knowledge, communicative skills, and honesty, to name a few desirable qualities. Some people want the president to set a good example, to be a model for the nation, a person whom its citizens respect. Presidents who demonstrate these desirable characteristics are viewed favorably as individuals, even if their policies may be criticized. Presidents who appear to lack these qualities, which may be demonstrated by their behavior, are viewed more critically on a personal level. This happened to Bill Clinton, who had high job approvals but much lower personal approval ratings in his second term in office.

Q: Are public expectations of U.S. presidential leadership unrealistic?

A: You bet they are, but it is not the public's fault. Presidential candidates make hundreds of promises, propose many and sometimes conflicting policies, and rarely prioritize courses of action. They also give the impression that if they are elected, they will redeem their promises and achieve their policies—not like the other guy.

But the U.S. Constitution was not designed to promote the dominance of one branch of government; it was designed to prevent that dominance by separating powers among the different branches. Nor did the framers of the Constitution envision a large policy-making role for the president; they saw most public policy-making as emanating from the U.S. Congress, not the president.

The public expects that if there is a problem the president will propose a solution; if there is a crisis, the president will manage it; if there is an international confrontation, the president will protect American lives and interests. Yet most problems, crises, and international confrontations cannot be resolved solely by the president. Rather they are the product of many factors and events, some of which may be in the president's control, but most of which probably are not.

For example, the public expects the president to fix a broken economy—one that is stagnant, inflated, or depressed. But presidents cannot do so alone. Congress, the Federal Reserve System, and the private sector all contribute to a solution, much as they may all have contributed to the problem in the first place. Expectations of presidential leadership demand too much from a single person and that's unrealistic.

Q: Do U.S. presidents have any judicial powers?

A: The U.S. Constitution regards the president as a court of last resort. In much the same manner, the British monarch, in bygone days, could make a final decision to reverse or support the judgment of subordinate officials. A president can pardon those accused of federal crimes, as Gerald Ford did when he pardoned his predecessor, Richard Nixon, for crimes that he committed or may have committed as president. A president can grant clemency, as Bill Clinton did for several people who had been convicted and jailed for their involvement in terrorist activities intended to demonstrate support for the independence of Puerto Rico. A president can provide amnesty, as Jimmy Carter did for those who had violated the Selective Service Act and refused to serve in the Vietnam War. All of these presidential actions generated political controversy, but they did not raise questions about the president's authority to do as he did.

The president also has authority to instruct the attorney general, the chief law enforcement officer of the U.S. government, to investigate, prosecute, and appeal lower court decisions. Sometimes presidents will have some discretion in how the attorneys general execute a court decision as well.

Q: Is it possible for a person with a mental illness such as manic depression to be elected

president?

A: The Constitution does not state that people with a medical or mental illness cannot be elected president. It would be up to the electorate to decide whether a person was mentally fit to be president.

In 1972 the Democratic vice-presidential nominee, Thomas Eagleton, had a condition that resembled manic depression. When that condition became public, he was forced to resign as the Democratic nominee. Now, almost 30 years later and with modern medicine, I am not sure whether he would have resigned or let the people decide.

Q: How does a president's personality affect his decisions? Are certain types of personalities better suited for presidential leadership?

A: As much as we may deify a president, he is a human being with feelings and emotions like the rest of us. If he is sick, irritable, angry, or tired, it is likely to affect his decision-making. A president's character is important. It indicates the amount of ambition, integrity, and people skills that he possesses.

Bill Clinton, who served as president from 1993 to 2001, is known for his ambition. He has said that he wanted to be president ever since he shook the hand of President John F. Kennedy as a junior in high school. During his presidency, Clinton's integrity was called into question by his attempt to conceal an intimate relationship with White House intern Monica Lewinsky, a scandal that resulted in Clinton's impeachment. Some members of the Republican Party alleged that the president lied about his relationship with Ms. Lewinsky under oath, an action that constituted a violation of the presidential oath he took to "preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." Clinton's Democratic defenders, however, claimed that his integrity was best revealed by his desire to work hard for the good of the country. Everyone agrees that Bill Clinton has great people skills. Republicans think Clinton uses those skills to manipulate people; Democrats say that Clinton genuinely likes people and wants to help them.

Psychological characteristics also affect a president's governing style and worldview. Ronald Reagan was comfortable delegating considerable responsibility to others while Jimmy Carter was a hands-on president. Presidents Reagan and George Bush saw the world in terms of good （the non-Communist world） and bad （the Communist world）. Clinton saw the post-Communist world as more nuanced, with finer shades of distinction.

President George W. Bush has good people skills, but he is not known as a deep thinker or a detail-oriented policy expert as Vice President Al Gore and Clinton were. His style is to delegate to others. It remains to be seen how he views the world.

Q: Which 20th-century president was the most popular?

A: Only since the administration of Franklin Delano Roosevelt have public opinion pollsters conducted scientific surveys to assess presidential popularity. These surveys, which have greatly increased in number, sophistication, and scope, use public approval of the president as their basic measurement of presidential popularity. The question is, Do you generally approve or disapprove of the job the president is doing?

Since the administration of Dwight D. Eisenhower, the Gallup poll has been calculating average yearly approval ratings for presidents. The highest approval ratings, all above 70 percent, were recorded for John F. Kennedy and Lyndon Baines Johnson after they took office, and for Eisenhower at the end of his first term. The lowest approval ratings, all below 40 percent, went to Gerald R. Ford after his pardon of Richard Milhous Nixon, Jimmy Carter at the end of his

administration following the failed rescue operation for U.S. hostages held in Iran, and George Bush during the 1992 recession. It is interesting to note that at the end of the Persian Gulf War, Bush's approval rating approached 90 percent. His drop in approval was the steepest on record. Bill Clinton's approval rating was much higher in his second term than in his first and reached its highest point after he was acquitted by the Senate in his impeachment trial.

It is harder to measure popularity after presidents leave office. Harry S. Truman's popularity rose significantly, Nixon's remained low, and Kennedy's fell somewhat. Ultimately it is the academic historians and political scientists whose interpretations and reevaluations determine a president's legacy and place in history, not the general public.

Q: Does the U.S. president serve important psychological or symbolic functions?

A: The U.S. president is head of government and head of state. As head of government, the president proposes and implements public policy. As head of state, the president represents the country, meets with foreign leaders, presides over ceremonies, manages crises, and communicates and interacts with the people. In both capacities, the president personifies the government. By doing so, he gives people an uncomplicated way to evaluate government performance.

The president also satisfies the needs of some people for a larger-than-life figure, a charismatic leader, a helmsman to steer the ship of state—particularly in bad times—and an empathetic and caring ruler in times of disaster. People want a common person with uncommon traits as their president, a person of the people but one who towers over them, a public servant, policy maker, political leader, and royal-like figure all rolled up into one.

Q: What is the history of the president's State of the Union address?

A: George Washington gave the first State of the Union address. It was a formal occasion; Washington traveled to the Capitol by a horse-drawn coach and presented the speech just as the British prime minister would give the speech to the king or queen with the lords in attendance. John Adams followed Washington's lead, but Thomas Jefferson, who was not a good public orator, sent his speech to Congress to be read by the clerk of the House of Representatives. Over the years this practice continued with the address becoming in effect a report on what the departments and agencies had accomplished in the last year.

Woodrow Wilson resumed the practice of giving the State of the Union message himself. It became a more political address. Harry S. Truman is the father of the modern State of the Union address. He is the first to use it to present his legislative program in 1948, a practice that his successors have followed. He is also the first to have it televised across the country and to give it during prime time in the evening.

Today's State of the Union message is a collaborative effort that takes several months to create. Government departments and agencies are asked for their input, the White House coordinates that input, and the speechwriters go through several versions in conjunction with the president, chief of staff, vice president, and other advisers. The president often rehearses the speech several times before he presents it to Congress in late January or early February. Bill Clinton reputedly made changes in the address in his car ride from the White House to the Capitol.

Q: What is the function of the president's cabinet? Who may belong to the Cabinet?

A: With the development of policy councils in the White House, the Cabinet's role as an advisory body to the president has been diminished. Not since the Eisenhower administration has the Cabinet served in this capacity.

The Cabinet no longer functions as an effective advisory body because it has become too large,

too diverse, and too leaky. All department heads and the vice president are automatically members of the president's cabinet. In addition, there are other administrators that were traditionally given cabinet rank and thus were invited to Cabinet meetings: the United Nations ambassador, the Environmental Protection Agency administrator, and the U.S. Trade Representative.

The primary function of the Cabinet as a collectivity today is nothing more than to pose for a group picture at the beginning of the administration. Individually, cabinet members have considerable authority within their respective departments. By tradition the Inner Cabinet—the attorney general and the secretaries of state, defense, and treasury—have the greatest prestige and presumably the greatest influence with the president. Other cabinet members' influence stems from their personal relationship to the president.

Q: How is policy made in the presidency? Who makes it?

A: Since the 1960s, policy councils have been established in the White House to formulate priorities for presidential policy. John F. Kennedy was the first president to set up a national security operation within the White House, which he used to keep himself informed and involved in foreign policy and national security affairs. Lyndon Johnson expanded this office and used it as a primary advisory group for the war in Vietnam. Johnson also established a domestic counterpart in the White House to help him design and coordinate his Great Society program. Richard Nixon enlarged both councils under the direction of Henry Kissinger for national security and John Erlichman for domestic policy.

All presidential councils were in charge of developing and coordinating major presidential initiatives. Gerald Ford added an economic policy board that became the forerunner of the economic councils that have functioned since Ronald Reagan's administration to formulate major economic policy.

Each of these policy councils is headed by an assistant to the president and a deputy assistant, both of whom work in the West Wing of the White House and are included on its payroll. The rest of the staff, anywhere from 25 to 100 people, have their offices in the Old Executive Office Building next to the White House and are on the Executive Office of the President （EOP） budget.

There are also councils on space and technology and environmental affairs, and they are part of the EOP.

Not only do these councils develop policy for the administration, but they also incorporate the resources of the executive branch departments and agencies, respond to congressional initiatives and legislative changes to the president's proposals, and brief the president for major speeches, meetings, and events in which these policy issues will be discussed.

Q: What presidential program （Monroe Doctrine, Four Freedoms, New Deal, or other program） has had the most impact on American society?

A: Programs that have the greatest impact are those that change the course of public policy. They are usually preceded by an era in which the contemporary policy has not produced a satisfactory consequence—hence, the pressure to change and the public's receptivity to change.

In the domestic area, Treasury Secretary Alexander Hamilton's Report on Manufactures is usually cited as the building block for America's initial economic growth, while Abraham Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation freed slaves in areas outside of Union control. Later constitutional amendments prohibited slavery, protected the rights of newly freed people, and penalized states that prevented their citizens from obtaining due process and equal protection of the laws.

It wasn't until the 20th century that this growth started producing social conditions that had an

adverse effect on society. Thus, the need and demand for government to begin to regulate this activity. Theodore Roosevelt's Square Deal Program and Woodrow Wilson's New Freedom program contained regulatory, antitrust, and conservation measures. During the Great Depression, Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal policy helped involve government in the economy and made the president the manager—a role that presidents must still play. Lyndon Johnson's Civil Rights and Great Society programs extended the reach of government to the protection of civil liberties and the redistribution of economic resources to those who were most needy.

More recently, Ronald Reagan's conservative agenda sought to limit the role of the government in domestic affairs, reduce its regulatory activities, and cut back on nationally run social programs. This agenda put an end to the era of liberal, big government. The Republicans' Contract with America would have taken this a step further had Clinton not vetoed some of its more strident proposals. Nonetheless, the welfare reform and the removal of farm subsidies were two Republican proposals that Clinton supported.

In foreign policy, George Washington's warning to his fellow Americans not to engage or become embroiled in entangling alliances held for most of the 18th and 19th centuries, although the Monroe Doctrine did carve out an area of hegemony for the United States within its own hemisphere. In the 20th century, America began to get more involved in foreign affairs and international politics. Theodore Roosevelt was primarily responsible for the building of the Panama Canal, and Woodrow Wilson led the country into World War I with the hope of making the world safe for democracy. But he failed to lead us out of it, as the Senate refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles, the treaty that ended the war and established the League of Nations. Franklin Delano Roosevelt led us into World War II to fight Nazism in Europe and Japan's military conquests in Asia. Harry Truman's containment policy recognized the danger posed by Communism, first in Europe, then in China and in the rest of Asia. Dwight Eisenhower's mutually assured destruction （MAD） recognized the power of nuclear weapons as a deterrent to war. Since the end of the Cold War, there has not been one overarching policy, other than human rights and democratic principles, that has guided U.S. foreign policy.

Q: Have the rules governing presidential succession changed over the years?

A: New laws and constitutional amendments have affected presidential succession. In 1947 Congress enacted the Presidential Succession Act, which delineated the line of succession after the vice president, in the following order: speaker of the house, president pro tempore of the Senate, and cabinet secretaries in order of the creation of their respective departments, beginning with the secretary of state.

The 25th Amendment stipulates the procedures for the vice president temporarily assuming the presidency if the president is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, as well as the procedures for terminating the vice president as acting president when the president is able resume his duties and responsibilities.

Another provision of the amendment states the procedures for filling the vice presidency should it become permanently vacant through death, resignation, or succession to the presidency. In such cases, the president would nominate a new vice president who would then have to be approved by a majority vote of each house of Congress.

Q: Are the most popular U.S. presidents the most effective leaders?

A: Popularity and leadership do not necessarily go hand in hand for U.S. presidents. Popularity stems from heroic stature, good times, and the ability to satisfy the wishes of the people at the

moment. Leadership involves goal setting, public education and mobilization of the populace, and a vision beyond the here and now. Most importantly, to exercise leadership, a president needs a crisis. Bad times are good times for the exercise of presidential power, unless the president is blamed for the bad times. The American constitutional system of separated powers and checks and balances inhibits strong leadership most of the time and especially during good times.

Q: How did presidents communicate with the American people before radio and television?

A: Before radio and television, there was not a lot of public communication between the president and the American public. What little there was occurred in newspaper accounts of them, as well as in campaign speeches and other presidential addresses. Presidential candidates did not run their own political campaigns for office until the end of the 19th century. Their parties ran campaigns on their behalf.

The most effective way to reach the public prior to radio and television was through newspapers. Beginning in the 20th century, the White House became a focus of media attention. Several large newspaper chains assigned reporters to cover the president. William McKinley was the first president to have an official press secretary; he also gave formal interviews to media representatives. Teddy Roosevelt was the first president to give reporters a room in the White House—something that all of his successors have likely regretted. Roosevelt encouraged them to follow him around the country and to report on his speeches and activities. So did Woodrow Wilson.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt was the first president to use radio on a regular basis to reach the entire country with his so-called “fireside chats,” which he gave once or twice a year. Dwight D. Eisenhower was the first president to allow television cameras into his press conferences, although the coverage was not live. Transcripts were released after the conference. John F. Kennedy had the first live press conference and the first to be televised to Europe via satellite.

Q: Why can’t U.S. presidents get their way with Congress most of the time?

A: Each member of the U.S. Congress is nominated and elected by a specific constituency. Each member owes his or her principal allegiance to that constituency, not to the president. Most members, in fact, earn a larger share of the vote in their particular legislative districts than the president does, when both are elected at the same time. Why then should these members follow the president’s lead?

Under the U.S. Constitution, presidents have very limited authority when dealing with Congress. They can say no to Congress with conviction. Only about 4 percent of all presidential vetoes have ever been overridden. But presidents have much more difficulty persuading Congress to say yes to their proposals.

Presidents must first get a bill introduced in Congress, then get it sent to supportive Congressional committees for consideration, and then try to prevent some committee members and lobbyists who do not like the proposed legislation from adding crippling amendments or scuttling the bill entirely. Then presidents need a favorable rule for consideration in the House of Representatives followed by a majority vote.

In the Senate at least 60 votes（out of 100 total） are needed to break a filibuster if the opposition decides to engage in one. If the bill passes in different forms in the House and Senate, a conference committee is needed to work out the details, which must be approved by a new vote in each house. Throughout this process, presidents must work to build public support to provide members of Congress with political cover, if they need it, to vote for the president’s proposal.

It is difficult enough for a president to do all this when his party controls both houses of Congress. But when this is not the case—which has been most of the time since 1968—these tasks become nearly impossible. Often, the most favorable result a president can hope for is a great battle; multiple, public compromises; and an incremental solution. The most unfavorable result is no movement on the proposal at all.

Q: Do U.S. presidents have too much power on foreign policy matters?

A: If U.S. presidents have too much power over foreign policy, it is only because the U.S. Congress chooses not to exercise its constitutional powers or is unable or unwilling to do so. A treaty initiated by the president requires a two-thirds vote of approval in the Senate to win authorization; it can require a vote in the House of Representatives as well if legislation to implement the treaty is required. The president's diplomatic appointments must also receive Senate approval. Congress and Congress alone has the power to declare war, fund the military, and maintain rules regulating the armed forces.

Q: How have presidential candidates and presidents used the Internet?

A: The use of the Internet is a recent phenomenon. It began in the 1990s. George Herbert Walker Bush was the first president to have a computer terminal, but he did not use it very often. In 1993, Bill Clinton authorized a White House Web site. By the end of the Clinton administration, that site contained much of the official data of the Clinton presidency, from presidential speeches to press briefings and conferences, executive orders, proclamations, and legislative actions. It also noted all presidential activities. The site has an easy-to-use search engine and links to the rest of the government.

Both Clinton and Republican candidate Robert Dole had campaign Web sites in 1996, but they paled in comparison to the 2000 sites that were used by all presidential candidates. These sites were used to present candidates' positions on the issues, raise money, mobilize volunteers, and generate enthusiasm for the candidacies and campaigns.

Q: Do U.S. presidents have too much or too little power?

A: For some people, the answer to this question may depend on whether they support or oppose what the president wants to do! In general, presidents have more power in foreign affairs than in domestic affairs; they have more power in times of crises than in ordinary times; and they have more power to say no in general, and to the U.S. Congress in particular, than to say yes. They have some power to influence the composition of the Supreme Court, if there are vacancies, but much less power in affecting how and what the Court decides.

Given the public's desire for strong presidential leadership, the many roles we expect presidents to perform, the promises presidential candidates make to get elected, and the needs of the governmental system for a policy initiator, coalition builder, and if successful, a policy implementer, presidents do not have too much power. Most of the time they have too little power.

When Dick Cheney, elected vice president in 2000, was chief of staff for Gerald R. Ford in 1976, I asked him if he liked his job. He said, "I love it." I then asked him what he liked about it: the power, the interaction with the president and other prominent people, or the impact he could have on world and national events. "It is everything but the power," he said. "When you are on the outside, looking in, the White House seems like such a powerful place. But when you are on the inside, looking out, all you are aware of are the constraints."

Q: Should presidents seek to be moral leaders, or should they focus on concrete policies, such as the nation's economic well-being?

A: The U.S. president performs a number of roles. Chief policy-maker is one of them, but setting a good example is another. We need direction from the president, but we also like to look up to the president. Setting a moral example is part of the president's job. Yet, if the impeachment of President Bill Clinton tells us anything, it is that most Americans would rather have a strong leader in the White House—someone who can fix the country's policy problems—than a saint. President Jimmy Carter would have been reelected in 1980 if the American people wanted a moral leader. At the time, however, most people wanted the economy to improve and the American hostages in Iran released.

Q: Why have some presidents been more successful with Congress, and what accounts for their success?

A: Presidential success with the United States Congress varies primarily with four factors, only one of which is subject to much presidential control. These factors are: the conditions, the partisan composition of Congress, the type of policy, and the popularity, legislative, and communicative skills of the president.

Presidents have more success with Congress in times of crisis and when their partisans control both houses of Congress. Presidents have more influence in foreign policy than in domestic policy. They usually have more influence if they are popular and persuasive in the public arena, have a strong reputation in Congress, and understand the intricacies of the legislative process.

The most successful legislative presidents in the 20th century were Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Lyndon Baines Johnson, and Ronald Reagan. All were able to get their domestic programs enacted into law—programs that had a major impact on the country in the decades that followed their presidencies.

Most presidents are successful in saying no. Less than 5 percent of all presidential vetoes have been overridden. It takes a two-thirds majority in both houses of Congress to override a presidential veto.

Q: Does the public have a right to know about the personal lives of candidates who are running for high political offices?

A: The news media has answered this question with a collective "yes" by making personal information about political candidates available. Such information tends to increase the size of the news media's audience, since personal lives and behavior seem to be more interesting to more people than are detailed discussions of issues and policy. Many scholars would say that private information should be available only if it is relevant to a person's performance in office. Was information about President Bill Clinton's relationship with White House aide Monica Lewinsky relevant to this performance? Democrats and Republicans disagreed in their answers, but people on both sides were interested in what the president did, which is why the press kept reporting such material.

Q: Do former presidents still receive protection from the secret service?

A: Former presidents get a nice pension plus secret service protection for life. Their spouses also receive protection, but their children do not. Former vice presidents also get protection if they desire it. Richard Nixon is the only president who voluntarily gave up his secret service protection—he hired private security guards.

Q: Has the study of the U.S. presidency changed in recent decades?

A: There has been a lot of interest in and research on the presidency. Scholars have utilized a variety of methods in studying the office. They continue to use case studies to illustrate how

presidencies work and make decisions. They have also incorporated organization theory to look at the structure, functioning, and processes that occur within the institution.

Ever since Richard E. Neustadt's book, Presidential Power, was published in 1960, scholars have been concerned with the scope and limits of presidential influence. They have sought to measure this influence in a variety of ways: quantitatively, by analyzing congressional voting behavior, looking at presidential popularity, and evaluating presidential vetoes and executive orders; and qualitatively, by looking at decisions, speeches, and actions through case and comparative studies. Some have even attempted to use formal modeling, such as game theory, to discern rational decision-making and its consequences.

Q: What are swing voters and how can they affect election outcomes?

A: Swing voters are people who may cast ballots for either major political party. They tend to be people with weak or no partisan affiliation, people who vote more for the person than for the parties. Usually, they are people who pay less attention to campaigns, have less information about the issues, and are less confident that they will vote at all. Frequently, swing voters will make up their minds later in the campaign about whether to vote, and if so, for whom.

In close elections, swing voters can be the deciding factor in determining the outcome. That is why candidates tend to direct their appeals to these voters in the hope of winning their votes. In the 2000 presidential election, for example, public opinion polls indicated that many of the swing voters were located in the Midwest. Both Democratic candidate Al Gore and Republican candidate George W. Bush directed much of their advertising and personal campaign activities to this section of the country.

Q: What needs to be done during the transition from one U.S. presidential administration to the next?

A: The most important task during a transition is to begin the appointment process for the new administration. When a new president takes over, he has about 6,700 executive appointments to make. About half of these are for part-time positions, such as those of members of commissions and boards. Of the full-time appointees, 1,200 require Senate consent. These include department secretaries, agency heads, ambassadors, U.S. attorneys, and all the deputy and assistant secretaries and administrators. Most of the political appointees who help the president by serving in the White House or in other Executive Office of the President（EOP）offices do not require Senate consent. In addition to getting his people in place and rewarding those who helped him win the election, the new president must meet with "official Washington," especially members of Congress, to discuss his legislative priorities, and he must be in touch with world leaders who wish to congratulate him and who want to know of any changes in U.S. foreign policy. The new president must interact with the media, which will report his every move and decision, as well as delve into family and personal matters. Finally, he must display a "presidential presence" by reaching out to his opponent's supporters while placating his own. A major public relations campaign emanating from the White House usually reinforces this presence and also emphasizes policy.

Q: What do vice presidents do?

A: The vice president has only two functions that are spelled out in the United States Constitution: to preside over the U.S. Senate and vote in case of a tie, and to take over the functions of the president if the president is temporarily or permanently disabled. In addition, vice presidents travel abroad on behalf of the president and the country; they make political speeches and raise money for their party; they get involved as advisers to the president and are regularly briefed on domestic

and international affairs; and they may be given special assignments.

Vice President Al Gore was involved in many policy areas during the administration of President Bill Clinton. He supervised the administration's appointments for positions having to do with the environment; he was in charge of a national performance review that aimed to make government leaner and more efficient; and he took the lead in high-tech and Internet matters. He did not invent the Internet, as he is often quoted as saying, but he did help the government get up to speed on it: He got the departments and agencies to use it to communicate to the public and got the White House to put all its official papers and speeches on its Web site.

Q: How large is the White House staff and what is its annual operating budget?

A: The size of the White House staff varies with the president. The actual number of full-time employees budgeted to the White House is determined by the U.S. Congress, as is the amount of money appropriated to running it. During the last several presidencies, there have been about 400 people who are considered members of the president's White House staff. The annual budget for running the White House is in the neighborhood of $60 million. But that's not all.

There are a lot of people who work in the White House but are on the budgets of other departments and agencies. The military aides and personnel who serve in the White House are paid by the armed services. Secret Service and uniformed service are formally attached to the Treasury Department and paid for out of its budget. The people who have custody of the public papers, maintain the grounds and the building, lead the tours—even those who oversee the computer and telephone systems—are all paid for out of separate budgets from other federal departments and agencies.

Finally, the White House often has specific needs for policy development or implementation. These needs can be met in the short run by assigning to the White House civil servants who work in other parts of the government. In general, these civil servants, often requested by name or by expertise, are detailed to the White House for specific assignments that range in length from several months to years. So the White House staff is much larger than it seems, and running it is more expensive than it appears to be.

Q: How is the White House organized?

A: How the White House is organized reflects the way individual presidents do business as well as the continuing needs and expectations that presidents fulfill. In general, the White House staff numbers about 400 people who are budgeted to the White House and about 100 to 200 people who are detailed to it from departments and agencies for special assignments. These people are roughly divided into three groups: policy, public relations, and personal staff.

The three major policy groups—economic, domestic, and national security—are each headed by an assistant to the president and a deputy assistant. The assistants and deputy assistants have offices in the White House. The rest of the staffs are located in the Old Executive Office Building. During the administration of Bill Clinton, these policy staffs reported to an assistant chief of staff, who reported to the chief of staff, who reported to the president.

There are five outreach offices that are intended to serve the president's principal constituencies. The office of communications, including the press secretary, speechwriters, and researchers, serves the public. The office of legislative affairs serves Congress, while the office of public affairs serves interest groups. The office of intergovernmental affairs serves state and local governments, and the office of political affairs serves the president's political party. Under Clinton, these outreach offices reported to another assistant chief of staff.

The rest of the staff helps the president with his day-to-day activities, including appointment scheduling, travel planning, personnel issues, legal issues, correspondence, and other matters. On paper, these staffs report to the staff secretary who serves the president's chief of staff. In person, the chief of staff or his or her assistants may be directly involved.

The chief of staff has four functions: run the White House, advise the president, act as a liaison between the president's Cabinet and Congress, and oversee and react to the political environment in which policymaking occurs. The chief of staff usually meets with the president every morning, as does the national security adviser. The vice president also has an office near the president's in the White House, as does the vice president's chief of staff. The First Lady and her staff are located in the East Wing of the White House.

Q: From what I've read about the daily life of a US President, it sounds like a lot of work and intense stress, without a hugely rewarding salary, or—often—the ability to effect the changes they hoped for upon entering office. What is the draw for a politician to want to be president? Do many presidents actually enjoy the job while doing it? Did any recent President, whom you are aware of, regret getting elected?

A: The presidency can be hard work and involve long hours and great stress. Whether or not the job gets to a president greatly depends on the individual's personality and approach to the job. By contemporary standards, Reagan did not work extraordinary hours and slept well at night. George W. Bush does not seem to overtax himself and so far has not let the job get to him. On the other hand, his father and Bill Clinton worked all the time. Clinton loved it: the attention, the challenge, the adulation, and the impact he made. His tough time has come since he has been out of office.

The job can be frustrating because there is a great gap（which presidential candidates have helped enlarge）between what the public expects, what the presidential candidate has promised, and what the president can actually deliver. Our system of government was not intended to be dominated by one institution, much less one person. The government consists of three branches and literally millions of elected and appointed offices and public servants.

Q: If a woman is elected president, what impact might it have?

A: The election of a woman to the U.S. presidency would have a more symbolic than tangible impact on the presidency and national politics. It would be viewed as a coming of age for America, a fusion of the nation's inspirational words, aspirations, and deeds. It would be a nail in the coffin of bigotry, the ending of informal qualifications based on gender, race, and religion, all of which bear no relationship to the exercise of leadership skills and the ability to be a good president.

8. Human Rights

Human rights have been defined as "basic moral guarantees that people in all countries and cultures allegedly have simply because they are people. Calling these guarantees "rights" suggests that they attach to particular individuals who can invoke them, that they are of high priority, and that compliance with them is mandatory rather than discretionary. Human rights are frequently held to be universal in the sense that all people have and should enjoy them, and to be independent in the sense that they exist and are available as standards of justification and criticism whether or not they are recognized and implemented by the legal system or officials of a country."（Nickel, 1992:561-2） The moral doctrine of human rights aims at identifying the fundamental prerequisites for each human being leading a minimally good life. Human rights aim to identify both the necessary negative and positive prerequisites for leading a minimally good life, such as

rights against torture and rights to health care. This aspiration has been enshrined in various declarations and legal conventions issued during the past fifty years, initiated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights （1948） and perpetuated by, most importantly, the European Convention on Human Rights （1954） and the International Covenant on Civil and Economic Rights （1966）. Together these three documents form the centrepiece of a moral doctrine that many consider to be capable of providing the contemporary geo-political order with what amounts to an international bill of rights. However, the doctrine of human rights does not aim to be a fully comprehensive moral doctrine. An appeal to human rights does not provide us with a fully comprehensive account of morality per se. Human rights do not, for example, provide us with criteria for answering such questions as whether telling lies is inherently immoral, or what the extent of one's moral obligations to friends and lovers ought to be? What human rights do primarily aim to identify is the basis for determining the shape, content, and scope of fundamental, public moral norms. As James Nickel states, human rights aim to secure for individuals the necessary conditions for leading a minimally good life. Public authorities, both national and international, are identified as typically best placed to secure these conditions and so, the doctrine of human rights has become, for many, a first port of moral call for determining the basic moral guarantees all of us have a right to expect, both of one another but also, primarily, of those national and international institutions capable of directly affecting our most important interests. The doctrine of human rights aspires to provide the contemporary, allegedly post-ideological, geo-political order with a common framework for determining the basic economic, political, and social conditions required for all individuals to lead a minimally good life. While the practical efficacy of promoting and protecting human rights is significantly aided by individual nation-states' legally recognising the doctrine, the ultimate validity of human rights is characteristically thought of as not conditional upon such recognition. The moral justification of human rights is thought to precede considerations of strict national sovereignty. An underlying aspiration of the doctrine of human rights is to provide a set of legitimate criteria to which all nation-states should adhere. Appeals to national sovereignty should not provide a legitimate means for nation-states to permanently opt out of their fundamental human rights-based commitments. Thus, the doctrine of human rights is ideally placed to provide individuals with a powerful means for morally auditing the legitimacy of those contemporary national and international forms of political and economic authority which confront us and which claim jurisdiction over us. This is no small measure of the contemporary moral and political significance of the doctrine of human rights. For many of its most strident supporters, the doctrine of human rights aims to provide a fundamentally legitimate moral basis for regulating the contemporary geo-political order.

工具箱十: Law

1. What is Law?

Law is a system of rules usually enforced through a set of institutions. It affects politics, economics and society in numerous ways. Contract law regulates everything from buying a bus ticket to trading swaptions on a derivatives market. Property law defines rights and obligations related to transfer and title of personal and real property, for instance, in mortgaging or renting a home. Trust law applies to assets held for investment and financial security, such as pension funds. Tort law allows claims for compensation when someone or their property is injured or harmed. If

the harm is criminalised in a penal code, criminal law offers means by which the state prosecutes and punishes the perpetrator. Constitutional law provides a framework for creating laws, protecting people's human rights, and electing political representatives. Administrative law relates to the activities of administrative agencies of government. International law regulates affairs between sovereign nation-states in everything from trade to the environment to military action. "The rule of law", wrote the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle in 350 BC, "is better than the rule of any individual."

2. The Development of Law

Law develops as society evolves. Historically, the simplest societies were tribal. The members of the tribe were bonded together initially by kinship and worship of the same gods. Even in the absence of courts and legislature there was law—a blend of custom, morality, religion, and magic. The visible authority was the ruler, or chief; the ultimate authorities were believed to be the gods whose will was revealed in the forces of nature and in the revelations of the tribal head or the priests. Wrongs against the tribe, such as sacrilege or breach of tribal custom, were met with group sanctions including ridicule and hostility, and, the tribe members thought, with the wrath of the gods. The gods were appeased in ritualistic ceremonies ending perhaps in sacrifice or expulsion of the wrongdoer. Wrongs against individuals, such as murder, theft, adultery, or failure to repay a debt, were avenged by the family of the victim, often in actions against the family of the wrongdoer. Revenge of this kind was based on tribal custom, a major component of early law.

3. Functions of Law

Law serves a variety of functions. Laws against crimes, for example, help to maintain a peaceful, orderly, relatively stable society. Courts contribute to social stability by resolving disputes in a civilized fashion. Property and contract laws facilitate business activities and private planning. Laws limiting the powers of government help to provide some degree of freedom that would not otherwise be possible. Law has also been used as a mechanism for social change; for instance, at various times laws have been passed to inhibit social discrimination and to improve the quality of individual life in matters of health, education, and welfare.

4. Why Do We Need the Law?

If we did not live in a structured society with other people, laws would not be necessary. We would simply do as we please, with little regard for others. But ever since individuals began to associate with other people—to live in society—laws have been the glue that has kept society together. For example, the law in Canada states that we must drive our cars on the right-hand side of a two-way street. If people were allowed to choose at random which side of the street to drive on, driving would be dangerous and chaotic. Laws regulating our business affairs help to ensure that people keep their promises. Laws against criminal conduct help to safeguard our personal property and our lives.

Even in a well-ordered society, people have disagreements and conflicts arise. The law must provide a way to resolve these disputes peacefully. If two people claim to own the same piece of property, we do not want the matter settled by a duel: we turn to the law and to institutions like the courts to decide who is the real owner and to make sure that the real owner's rights are respected.

We need law, then, to ensure a safe and peaceful society in which individuals' rights are respected.

But we expect even more from our law. Some totalitarian governments have cruel and arbitrary laws, enforced by police forces free to arrest and punish people without trial. Strong-arm tactics may provide a great deal of order, but we reject this form of control. The Canadian legal system respects individual rights while, at the same time, ensuring that society operates in an orderly manner. In Canada, we also believe in the Rule of Law, which means that the law applies to every person, including members of the police and other public officials, who must carry out their public duties in accordance with the law.

5. The System of Law and Justice

The law is a set of rules for society, designed to protect basic rights and freedoms, and to treat everyone fairly. These rules can be divided into two basic categories: public law and private law.

Public Law

Public law deals with matters that affect society as a whole. It includes areas of the law that are known as criminal, constitutional and administrative law. These are the laws that deal with the relationship between the individual and the state, or among jurisdictions. For example, if someone breaks a criminal law, it is regarded as a wrong against society as a whole, and the state takes steps to prosecute the offender.

Private Law

Private law, on the other hand, deals with the relationships between individuals in society and is used primarily to settle private disputes. Private law deals with such matters as contracts, property ownership, the rights and obligations of family members, and damage to one's person or property caused by others. When one individual sues another over some private dispute, this is a matter for private law. Private suits are also called "civil" suits.

6. Legal Pragmatism

Legal pragmatism is a theory critical of more traditional pictures of law and, more specifically, judicial decision-making. The classical view of law offers a case-based theory of law that emphasizes the universal and foundational quality of specifically legal facts, the meticulous analysis of precedent and argument from analogy. Legal pragmatism, on the other hand, emphasizes the need to include a more diverse set of data and claims that law is best thought of as a practice that is rooted in the specific context at hand, without secure foundations, instrumental, and always attached to a perspective. A pragmatic stance towards jurisprudence offers many philosophical challenges to more traditional descriptions of the legal domain.

7. Punishment

Punishment involves the deliberate infliction of suffering on a supposed or actual offender for an offense such as a moral or legal transgression. Since punishment involves inflicting a pain or deprivation similar to that which the perpetuator of a crime inflicts on his victim, it has generally been agreed that punishment requires moral as well as legal and political justification. While philosophers almost all agree that punishment is at least sometimes justifiable, they offer various accounts of how it is to be justified as well as what the infliction of punishment is designed to protect—rights, personal autonomy and private property, a political constitution, or the democratic process, for instance. Utilitarians attempt to justify punishment in terms of the balance of good over evil produced and thus focus our attention on extrinsic or consequentialist considerations.

Retributivists attempt a justification that links punishment to moral wrongdoing, generally justifying the practice on the grounds that it gives to wrongdoers what they deserve; their focus is thus on the intrinsic wrongness of crime that thereby merits punishment. “Compromise” theorists attempt to combine these two types of theories in a way that retains their perceived strengths while overcoming their perceived weaknesses.