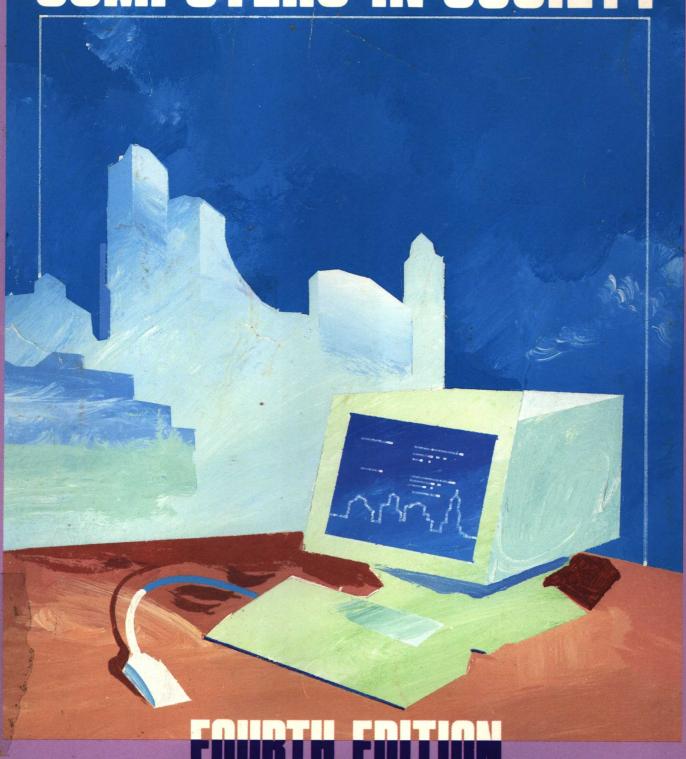
COMPUTER



STUDIES





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Fourth Edition

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In publishing ANNUAL EDITIONS we recognize the enormous role played by the magazines, newspapers, and journals of the public press in providing current, first-rate educational information in a broad spectrum of interest areas. Within the articles, the best scientists, practitioners, researchers, and commentators draw issues into new perspective as accepted theories and viewpoints are called into account by new events, recent discoveries change old facts, and fresh debate breaks out over important controversies.

Many of the articles resulting from this enormous editorial effort are appropriate for students, researchers, and professionals seeking accurate, current material to help bridge the gap between principles and theories and the real world. These articles, however, become more useful for study when those of lasting value are carefully collected, organized, indexed, and reproduced in a low-cost format, which provides easy and permanent access when the material is needed. That is the role played by Annual Editions. Under the direction of each volume's Editor, who is an expert in the subject area, and with the guidance of an Advisory Board, we seek each year to provide in each ANNUAL EDITION a current, well-balanced, carefully selected collection of the best of the public press for your study and enjoyment. We think you'll find this volume useful, and we hope you'll take a moment to let us know what you think.

We can only guess at how the ever increasing power, diversity, and pervasiveness of computers and other information technologies might affect the patterns of our individual and social lives. However, it is hoped that *Computers in Society* will complement students' technical understanding of computers by acquainting them with the philosophical, economic, political, social, and psychological dimensions of the so-called computer revolution.

Contributors to the fourth edition come from a highly diverse range of backgrounds. Their collective writings highlight a wide spectrum of issues and views about how the information age will or ought to unfold. For the most part, their writing styles are very understandable and require no special training in "computerese"—the unintelligible technical jargon that can be a barrier to becoming informed on computer issues. A glossary is included, however, for the few terms that may be unfamiliar.

Because of its social focus, this book is organized to reflect the major dimensions of society rather than various aspects of computing. The major themes of the book are economy, community, and conflict. Many of these themes are also examined in an international context. The final section looks at some of the philosophical challenges posed by emerging technologies.

Each reading has been selected for its informational value, but "informative" does not, in this case, necessarily imply correctness or validity. In fact, some articles are included simply because they offer an opposing view to that argued by another. *Computers in Society* is meant to generate rather than answer questions on how computers will affect society. Hopefully, such queries will serve to clarify issues, broaden perspectives, provoke curiosity, and stimulate informed discussion of and participation in the computer age.

Readers can have input into the next edition by completing and returning the article rating form in the back of the book.

Gethyn Schillenberg

Kathryn Schellenberg

Editor

Introduction



Unit 1

The Changing Economy

Five articles examine issues related to developments in robotics, computer networking, the globalization of the economy, the rise of the service and information sectors, and the decline of North American manufacturing.

_	the Reader ic Guide	iv
	oduction	2
	Science and the American Experiment, John Patrick Diggins, <i>The Sciences</i> , November/December 1987.	
	Professor John Diggins, a historian, relates how Newton's law of physics influenced <i>thinking about human nature</i> , social conflict, and power at the time of the American Revolution. Diggins argues that principles of Newtonian physics thus helped shape the United States Constitution.	
2.	1990.	8
	Western medicine has traditionally been viewed as an international science, with clear norms applied consistently. However, as Lynn Payer shows, medical practice reflects the national cultures of Western Europe and North America.	
	erview	12
3.	Why Japan Loves Robots and We Don't, Andrew Tanzer and Ruth Simon, Forbes, April 16, 1990.	14
	The United States lags far behind Japan in the use of <i>robots to</i> solve <i>practical problems</i> . In this article, the authors discuss economic, cultural, and demographic factors underlying the growing "robot gap."	
4.	Taming the Wild Network, Business Week, October 8, 1990.	18
	Communications networks are an indispensable component of modern business, but they also pose immense technical and management problems. This article describes some of these problems and the competition to supply "solutions" for taming wild networks.	
5.	Does Corporate Nationality Matter? Robert B. Reich, Issues in Science and Technology, Winter 1990-91.	23
	In today's global economy, money, technology, and state-of-the-art factories and equipment move almost effortlessly across international borders. In light of this reality, Robert B. Reich offers some policy suggestions concerning <i>the new global corporation</i> .	
6.	The Myth of a Post-Industrial Economy, Stephen S. Cohen and John Zysman, <i>Technology Review,</i> February/March 1987.	28
	Stephen Cohen and John Zysman challenge the perception that the U.S. manufacturing sector should be displaced by a "post-industrial" (service/high-tech) economy. They contend that to	
_	follow such a course would "risk the wealth and power of the United States."	
7.	Tying One On, Alan Morantz, enRoute, June 1989. Office automation in Canada is taking off. Advances in network	33
	integration, groupware, facsimile transmission, and telecommunications are redesigning office work. Not all changes are	

smooth or positive. Office automation can be expensive, resisted by workers, or poorly planned. It also raises concerns about "big

brother" and the electronic monitoring of workers.

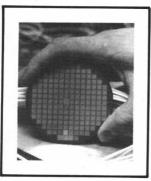


Unit 2

Overview

Employment and the Workplace

Four articles examine the changing skill requirements of the work force, the electronic surveillance of workers, telecommuting, and the "do it yourself" trend.



Unit 3

Social Interaction and Participation in the Information Age

Seven articles examine present and future implications of computing and other technologies for participation in social, economic, and political life.

8	1991.	42
	The popular belief that jobs are becoming more complex and skilled is challenged by Jack Gordon. He claims that <i>jobs are actually being deskilled</i> in too many cases. Suggestions on how and why work should be "skilled up" are presented.	
9	Invasion of the Service Robots, Gene Bylinsky, Fortune, September 14, 1987.	48
	Robots are moving beyond the factory and into "service" jobs that are too dangerous or boring for people. Some current and future applications described by the author include robots working in radioactive environments, working on the ocean floor, and assisting handicapped persons.	
10.	Telecommuters Bring the Office Home, Stuart Newman, Management Review, December 1989.	52
	Telecommuting to work has provided a wealth of opportunities for many people, but for others it has been a failed experiment. In this article, Stuart Newman discusses the benefits and pitfalls of telecommuting for workers and employers.	
11.	Do It Yourself, Brian Hayes, <i>The Sciences</i> , March/April 1991.	55
	Modern society is becoming increasingly "self-service." In this article, Brian Hayes speculates on some of the trend's potential effects in the workplace and other areas of society.	
_		
	erview	58
12.	Challenging the Myth of Disability, Alan Brightman, Educom Review, Winter 1989.	60
	There are close to 40 million disabled people in the United States. In this article, Alan Brightman describes the problems and needs of persons with disabilities, and argues that "when disabled children and adults are given access to computers, it becomes close how those given access to computers,	
13.	comes clear how these machines can, indeed, change lives." Hey You! Make Way for My Technology! David Lyon,	
	Technology Review, August/September 1987.	66
	Civilized behavior is predicated upon <i>human interaction</i> , not on a human interacting with an electronic extension of another person. According to David Lyon, rudeness is on the rise, and <i>consumer technology</i> is partly to blame for this decline in civilization as we know it.	
14.	The Doctor Is On, Lisa Davis, In Health, September/ October 1990.	68
	"Seek help from a psychotherapist these days and you could well end up baring your soul to a computer." Lisa Davis discusses some pros and cons to the rise of <i>computer therapy</i> .	
15.	Virtual Reality, Robert Wright, The Sciences, November/ December 1987.	71
	Researchers are developing technologies that will allow us to explore <i>fabricated "realities"</i> in the future. In this essay, Robert	

being able to escape to fantasy worlds of our own creation.

40





Ethical and Legal Issues

Seven articles look at various ethical and legal computing issues including information distortion, intellectual property rights, computer viruses, and the civil liberties of persons under investigation for alleged computer crimes.

16.	America's Ignorance of Science and Technology Poses a Threat to the Democratic Process Itself, Paul E. Gray,	74
	Chronicle of Higher Education, May 18, 1988.	
	A former president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology argues that because many important social, economic, and politi-	
	cal issues center around science and technology, illiteracy in	
	these areas is a barrier to informed participation in a democratic	

76

91

- 17. The Lesson Every Child Need Not Learn, Morris Shamos, *The Sciences*, July/August 1988.

 Morris Shamos argues that widespread *scientific literacy* is an ambiguous and empty goal. He contends that it is impossible to achieve and is not necessary to equip people for life in a scientific/technological society.
- 18. Debunking Computer Literacy, Ronni Rosenberg, Technology Review, January 1991.
 The goals of "computer literacy" include preparing students for future jobs, developing mental discipline, and creating informed citizens. Ronni Rosenberg argues that current computer literacy programs fail to meet these objectives, and suggestions are

offered about what "true" computer literacy would teach students.

Ove	erview	86
19.	Photographs That Lie: The Ethical Dilemma of Digital	88
	Retouching, J. D. Lasica, Washington Journalism Review,	
	June 1989.	
	J. D. Lasica discusses journalistic ethics in light of digital	

- photography, which now allows for much greater creativity as well as distortion of visual information.

 20. Warning: Here Come the Software Police, Janet Mason,
- Across the Board, October 1990.

 A good deal of "illegal" copying of commercial software takes place in the corporate world. And as Janet Mason points out, even firms that have policies against piracy are facing lawsuits and audits if their employees are caught with unauthorized copies of
- 21. Software Patents, The League for Programming Freedom, Dr. Dobb's Journal, November 1990.
 In this position paper, the authors argue strongly that, in most cases, software should not be patentable. They claim software patents offer little benefit to society and could put an end to the creativity that has driven the computer revolution.
- 22. Programs to the People, Simson L. Garfinkel, Technology Review, February/March 1991.
 Richard Stallman, president of Free Software Foundation (FSF), believes that companies that sell computer programs give their customers the choice of being criminals or bad neighbors, and he is determined to make software free. In this article, Simson Garfinkel discusses Stallman's goals and successes thus far.





Individual Privacy in the Information Age

Six articles discuss threats to individual privacy. especially those posed by the existence of large electronic data bases. Some legal and technical means of protecting privacy are also reviewed.

23.	Legally Speaking: Can Hackers Be Sued for Damages Caused by Computer Viruses? Pamela Samuelson, and Viruses and Criminal Law, Michael Gemignani, Communications of the ACM, June 1989.	109
	Two legal scholars discuss potential benefits and problems in bringing civil and criminal action against those who plant <i>viruses in computer systems</i> . In both cases the law is highly ambiguous and has not kept pace with technological developments.	
24.	Time Bomb: Inside the Texas Virus Trial, Edward J.	115

- 24. Time Bomb: Inside the Texas Virus Trial, Edward J. Jovce, Computer Decisions, December 1988. This article outlines the civil and criminal action against a disgruntled employee who planted a virus in his workplace computer
- 25. Closing the Net, Greg Costikyan, Reason, January 1991. 120 In this article, Greg Costikyan argues that some investigations of supposedly "illegal" uses of electronic bulletin boards have been overzealous and raise concerns that the freedom of the press may be in jeopardy.

verview	126
	120

- 26. Is Nothing Private? Business Week, September 4, 1989. Computers hold a great deal of data on individuals and much of it is largely unprotected by rules, laws, or codes of ethics. This article explains what types of computer data exist and why there are so many loopholes in the "right to privacy."
- 27. Read This!!!!!!! Jill Smolowe, Time, November 26, 1990. Direct-mail marketers are compiling and swapping computerized customer lists that they are using to flood consumers with junk mail. Because the lists provide increasingly detailed information about individual consumers, the practice is raising citizen concerns about privacy.
- 28. Prepare for E-Mail Attack, David Churbuck, Forbes, 139 January 23, 1989. Cheap communications are leading to information overload-

much of it is unwelcome and highly intrusive. But there are also new products to block uninvited intruders. 29. Absolutely Not Confidential, Clark Norton, Hippocrates,

142 March/April 1989. Medical records contain information that could damage reputations or result in the denial of employment or other benefits if inappropriately used. Yet, as the author clearly demonstrates,

there are serious flaws in protecting the confidentiality of medical

30. Our Chip Has Come In, The New Republic, June 12, 1989. Russia and China are current examples of how information technology, specifically television and the personal computer, encourages democracy. However, the author cautions, democracy seems to work easily only in select environments.

134



Unit

Computer System Reliability and Safety

Five articles examine potential dangers posed by electromagnetic fields and the implications of society's reliance on computer systems. Difficulties in producing reliable software are reviewed with emphasis on commercial, military, and medical applications. Recommendations for improving safety and reliability are also offered.

31.	Caller Identification: More Privacy or Less? Jeff John-	150
	son, The CPSR Newsletter, Winter/Spring 1990.	
	In this article, Jeff Johnson reviews the pros and cons of Caller	
	ID. Among other things, the service displays the phone number of	
	incoming calls. While this may aid consumers by reducing un-	
	wanted calls, critics claim the main benefits will go to large	
	organizations and that individual privacy may suffer.	

Ove	erview	154
32.	The Magnetic-Field Menace , Paul Brodeur, <i>MacWorld</i> , July 1990.	156
	Paul Brodeur discusses concerns over health hazards of electromagnetic emissions from computer display monitors. He claims the issue has been shrouded by "denial" and addressed with "incompetence." Nevertheless, he concludes that the "monitors may pose a very real threat," and reviews efforts to study and deal with the problem.	
33.	Premature Alarm Over Electromagnetic Fields, C. Andrew L. Bassett, <i>Issues in Science and Technology</i> , Spring 1990.	163
	Recent publicity has focused on potential hazards while ignoring the benefits of electromagnetic fields . This article adds balance to the debate by describing some therapeutic uses of such fields. The author also argues that "before we start regulating, we need better information on which to base policy."	
4.	A System On Overload, Evelyn Richards, <i>The Washington Post National Weekly Edition</i> , December 31, 1990–January	166

- 34. A System On Overload, Evelyn Richards, The Washington Post National Weekly Edition, December 31, 1990–January 6, 1991.
 Many sectors of society, such as the economy and the military, depend on the reliable operation of computer systems. However, Evelyn Richards describes a number of problems that are related to meeting the demand for the highly complex software needed to control vital systems.
- 35. Programmed for Disaster, Jonathan Jacky, The Sciences, September/October 1989.
 Software errors can imperil lives. In this article, Jonathan Jacky describes some of the more serious programming errors and offers suggestions on how complex, critical software could be made more reliable and safer.
- 36. Robowar, Gregg Easterbrook, The New Republic, February 11, 1991.
 Gregg Easterbrook offers a brief history of high-tech conventional warfare from World War II to Operation Desert Storm. He also offers an explanation of why the initial U.N. attacks on Iraq were so technologically successful.



Overview

Issues From the International Scene

Five articles examine issues related to computing in several nations, the technological and information gap between rich and poor nations, international competitiveness, and the global economy.





Philosophical Frontiers

philosophical challenges may arise at the cutting edge of technological achievements. The unit also examines a variety of ways computers might affect the way we

37.	Personal Computers and the World Software Market, Larry Press, Communications of the ACM, February 1991.	180
	The production and consumption of software is becoming increasingly global in scope. Larry Press describes recent developments in Latin America, Ireland, India, Eastern Europe, and the Far East.	
38.	Trujillo, Educom Review, Summer 1989.	186
	Scientific and technological advances in wealthy countries can bring economic problems to less developed countries. Ivan Trujillo describes the efforts of one university in Colombia to bridge <i>the technological and information gap</i> between rich and developing nations.	
39.	New Dimensions in Creativity, Geri Smith, <i>Américas</i> , Vol. 41(1), 1989.	191
	In describing the visual effects achievement of <i>Brazil's Globo Television network</i> , Geri Smith claims that, "nowhere in the world are television spectators treated to as much computer wizardry as they are in Brazil."	
10.	Américas, Vol. 41, No. 2, 1989. Geri Smith explains how and why a new generation of Latin American Indians is using <i>electronic documentation</i> to preserve age-old traditions and to protect its lands.	194
11.	Tough Search for Talent, Osman Tseng, <i>Free China Review,</i> December 1990.	197
	The Republic of China on Taiwan is striving to become a fully industrialized country. It has made dramatic progress toward that aim, but a limited pool of scientific and technical manpower could stall Taiwan's development.	
	rview	200
2.	Why Transplants Don't Happen Joel I Swerdlow and	202

Fred H. Cate, The Atlantic, October 1990.

43. Last Rights, Kathleen Stein, Omni, September 1987.

demand is needed.

a person, to have a mind."

There is an acute shortage of transplant organs and tissues. The authors discuss some of the cultural, political, and economic reasons underlying this dilemma and argue that, among other things, a better (computerized) system of coordinating supply and

Due to advanced life-support technologies, the classical definitions of death are no longer adequate. These developments,

writes Kathleen Stein, are giving rise to major social, legal, and moral issues and questions about "what it means to be alive, to be 178

206

212

44. Designing Computers That Think the Way We Do, Seven articles consider how new moral and William F. Allman, Technology Review, May/June 1987. Researchers are attempting to build machines that mimic the architecture of the human brain. This represents a radical shift in computer design and, according to the article, "might even change the way we think about thinking." perceive human nature.

45.		21
	Searle, Scientific American, January 1990.	
	"Can a machine think?" According to philosopher John R.	
	Searle, the answer is "No. A program merely manipulates sym-	
	bols, whereas a brain attaches <i>meaning</i> to them."	
46.	Could a Machine Think? Paul M. Churchland and Patricia Smith Churchland, Scientific American, January 1990. Paul M. Churchland and Patricia Smith Churchland present the	22
	thesis that the neural network computers currently under develop-	
	ment mimic the architecture of the brain and may be capable of	
	developing consciousness in the future.	
47.	Is Thinking Computable? Peter J. Denning, American Scientist, March/April 1990.	22
	Peter J. Denning discusses the debate regarding thinking com-	
	puters and reviews physicist Roger Penrose's book on artificial	
	intelligence. Denning concludes that Penrose and philosophers	
	John R. Searle and Paul and Patricia Smith Churchland, have, for	
	now at least, "bolstered our confidence in the belief that we [humans] are more than mechanical devices."	
18 .	Love Among the Robots, Melvin Konner, The Sciences,	23
	March/April 1987.	23.
	Developments in artificial intelligence are shrinking the intellec-	
	tual turf separating animals and machines. In this article, Melvin Konner reviews arguments about whether computers will ever	
	think or fulfill human emotional needs.	
alce	ssary	201
nde		235
	cle Review Form	24
	cle Rating Form	244
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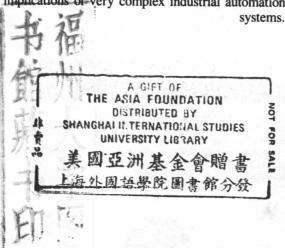
COMPUTERS IN SOCIETY

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Editor

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Kathryn Schellenberg received her Ph.D. in sociology from the University of Utah and is presently assistant professor of sociology at the University of Guelph in Ontario, Canada. One of her areas of scholarly interest is the social impact of technology, especially computing, and she has taught several sociology courses dealing with this subject. Ms. Schellenberg has also conducted several studies on computer-related topics, and her current research centers on organizational and labor implications of very complex industrial automation



Cover illustration by Mike Eagle

FOURTH EDITION

ANTHUR TETRIBLE



The Dushkin Publishing Group, Inc. Sluice Dock, Guilford, Connecticut 06437

Topic Guide:

This topic guide suggests how the selections in this book relate to topics of traditional concern to students and professionals involved with computers in society. It can be very useful in locating articles that relate to each other for reading and research. The guide is arranged alphabetically according to topic. Articles may, of course, treat topics that do not appear in the topic guide. In turn, entries in the topic guide do not necessarily constitute a comprehensive listing of all the contents of each selection.

TOPIC AREA	TREATED IN:	TOPIC AREA	TREATED IN:
Artificial	44. Designing Computers	Economic Issues	3. Why Japan Loves Robots and We
Intelligence	45. Is the Brain's Mind a Computer		Don't
	Program?		4. Taming the Wild Network Tiger
	46. Could a Machine Think? 47. Is Thinking Computable?		5. Does Corporate Nationality Matter
	48. Love Among the Robots		6. Myth of a Post-Industrial Economy 28. Prepare for E-Mail Attack
	in the second second		37. Personal Computers and the World
Automation	Why Japan Loves Robots and We Don't		Software Market
	6. Myth of a Post-Industrial	Education and	8. Skilling of America
	Economy	Training	16. America's Ignorance of Science
	7. Tying One On		and Technology
	11. Do It Yourself		17. Lesson Every Child Need Not Learn
Brazil	39. New Dimensions in Creativity		18. Debunking Computer Literacy
	40. Space Age Shamans	_	
Colombia	20 Anadomic Occas ti	Ethics	19. Photographs That Lie
Colonibia	38. Academic Computing: Los Andes Strategy		20. Warning: Here Come the Software Police
Crime	20. Warning: Here Come the	France	13. Sexy Computer
	Software Police		
	23. Legally Speaking 24. Time Bomb	Free Speech	25. Closing the Net
	25. Closing the Net		
	25. Closing the Net	Health and	2. Borderline Cases
Culture	Science and the American	Medicine	14. Doctor Is On
	Experiment		32. Magnetic-Field Menace 33. Premature Alarm Over
	2. Borderline Cases		Electromagnetic Fields
	40. Space Age Shamans		42. Why Transplants Don't Happen
.			43. Last Rights
Death and Dying	43. Last Rights		_
	48. Love Among the Robots	Human Nature	Science and the American
Democracy and	16 America's Impresses as Osissa		Experiment
Citizen	16. America's Ignorance on Science and Technology		2. Borderline Cases
Participation	17. Lesson Every Child Need Not		15. Virtual Reality
	Learn		43. Last Rights
	18. Debunking Computer Literacy		45. Is the Brain's Mind a Computer Program?
	30. Our Chip Has Come In		46. Could a Machine Think?
			47. Is Thinking Computable?
Dependence on Computers	Taming the Wild Network Tiger System on Overload		48. Love Among the Robots
	35. Programmed for Disaster	Information	27. Read This!!!!
Noobled.		Overload	28. Prepare for E-Mail Attack
Disabled Persons	Invasion of the Service Robots Challenging the Myth of Disability		34. System on Overload

TOPIC AREA	TREATED IN:	TOPIC AREA	TREATED IN:
Intellectual Property	21. Software Patents 22. Programs to the People	National Security	Does Corporate Nationality Matter?
International Relations	 25. Closing the Net 5. Does Corporate Nationality Matter? 6. Myth of a Post-Industrial Economy 37. Personal Computers and the World Software Market 38. Academic Computing: Los Andes Strategy 	Networks and Networking Privacy	 4. Taming the Wild Network Tiger 7. Tying One On 10. Telecommuters Bring the Office Home 25. Closing the Net 28. Prepare for E-Mail Attack 42. Why Transplants Don't Happen 26. Is Nothing Private?
Interpersonal	41. Tough Search for Talent 12. Challenging the Myth of		27. Read This!!!! 31. Caller Identification
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The) Military	34. System on Overload 35. Programmed for Disaster 36. Robowar		37. Personal Computers and the World Software Market41. Tough Search for Talent

Introduction

Computer "revolution" is a widely used term these days. It implies that society is undergoing a radical transformation. This was the view of the late British computer expert, Christopher Evans of Britain. In his thought-provoking book, *The Micro Millenium*, Evans argued that the societal impacts of computers in general, and personal computers in particular, would rival the effects of the Industrial Revolution that:

brought about immense shifts in all aspects of society, affecting the individual, his family, his neighbors, his domestic and working environment, his clothes, his food, his leisure time, his political and religious ideals, his education, his social attitudes, his life-span, even the manner of his birth and death. (1979:ix)

Moreover, Evans claimed the future is not one of our choosing. He stated that as we began to apply these powerful new tools to the tasks of bettering our lives, we set in motion a process that takes on an independent, unstoppable momentum. The best we may hope for is that we have enough time to anticipate and prepare for the future that will be thrust upon us.

There are those who disagree that a social revolution is underway. And even if there is a revolution, we, the people, will be pretty much in control of it. For example, in his book, *The Personal Computer Book*, poet Peter A. McWilliams argues that computers will no doubt have a dramatic impact on our lives and on society. But he also suggests that we are in command of our own fate when he states:

For the most part, personal computers will prove their worth to the extent that they fit into your daily life, not to the degree that you adapt your life to be more in step with The Computer Age. (1984:15)

Contradictory predictions about the implications of computing are hardly surprising since people operate from many different premises about society and human nature. We need to keep this in mind when we try to make sense of competing claims about the future. This is not easy since many of us are not even aware of our own assumptions about social life, or how they might differ from other people's views. Most of us take certain things for granted—we believe them so strongly we simply assume other reasonable and intelligent people see things the same way.

This disagreement between Evans and McWilliams basically reflects the difference between how idealists and materialists look at the world. Those who feel that idealism and free will govern societies are uncomfortable with the kind of claims made by Evans—that cultural, political, and

religious ideals can be influenced by technical innovation. They would argue that the ideals come first and are the foundation of society. Technical innovations are accepted or rejected according to whether they are in harmony with basic values. This assumption is implied in McWilliams's argument that computers are mere tools that people are free to use or avoid. Materialists on the other hand, insist that new technologies need not support any basic belief system. They maintain that if a technology can provide real material benefits such as greater wealth or longer life expectancy to society or to a powerful minority, it will be adopted. If some aspect of technology clashes with society's values and ideals, then the values, not the technology will be modified or abandoned. Clearly, Christopher Evans is in the materialist camp.

Social theorists and philosophers have debated for centuries over which of the competing social assumptions are valid. Like the rest of us, they continue to disagree about where the truth lies. For the past few centuries, there has been a growing tendency to look to "science" to settle these disputes. The first reading in this collection gives us some insight into how new scientific discoveries about physical nature shaped eighteenth-century views of social order and human nature. In "Science and the American Experiment," historian John Patrick Diggins describes the factionalism of post-revolution America and how Newton's laws of physics helped forge some ideological unity among the framers of the U.S. Constitution.

As Diggins' discussion also shows, scientific "truths" are subject to ongoing debate and revision. Moreover, science itself is, to the surprise of many people, very much shaped by social factors. A good example of this is modern Western medicine that is generally thought to be based on widely accepted scientific principles. However, as Lynn Payer illustrates in "Borderline Cases," medical practice in Western Europe and North America reflects differences in national cultures to a considerable degree.

Looking Ahead: Challenge Questions

Since medical practice varies from culture to culture, what kinds of problems (or benefits) could arise from the use of expert systems developed in other cultures?

If society has a choice about which technologies are developed and how they are used, then who should participate in making those choices? Should those with political power, wealth, or technical expertise assume the responsibilities of shaping our society? If everyone should have a say, how might we provide the opportunity for all to have their views and concerns taken into account?

SCIENCE AND THE AMERICAN EXPERIMENT

How Newton's Laws Shaped the Constitution

JOHN PATRICK DIGGINS

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In the winter of 1786, only ten years after declaring independence from England and four years after concluding the war that underscored that declaration, America was falling apart. The single thing the thirteen former colonies seemed to have in common was a penchant for squabbling among themselves. Religious differences separated the Calvinists of New England from the Baptists of the South. The economic interests of northern merchants clashed with those of southern slave owners. Border disputes were common and periodically led to skirmishes. Atlantic states such as South Carolina envied their landlocked neighbors' proximity to the public lands of the Northwest Territorities, and states such as New Jersey, with no seaports, were unhappy about paying import tariffs to New York and Philadelphia, whose harbors were well suited for shipping.

To make matters worse, the Articles of Confederation, ratified in 1781, had placed most of the nation's power with the states. Consequently, Congress was too weak to address broad domestic problems, the most troubling of which was a public debt of sixty million dollars, a legacy of the War of Independence. Small farmers, whose financial problems were especially acute, pressed state legislatures to issue paper money with which to pay their creditors. Though it undermined the value of hard currency, several states complied with the farmers' demands out of fear. And with good reason: when the Massachusetts legislature refused, armed bands forced a number of courts to halt foreclosures and imprisonment for debt. Though the rebels were soon subdued by state militia, their brief uprising, along with the other troubles brewing throughout the colonies, awakened leaders to the growing crisis: the confederation was on the verge of collapse.

At first, discussion about how to restore unity seemed destined to degenerate into bitter disputes, as well. A handful of former loyalists, who had opposed the war, and representatives of New England's upper classes called for a return to monarchy. Desperate and disgruntled, members of the military thought they could put the country back on course by installing themselves as its new rulers. But the most fundamental and far-reaching disagreement existed between the federalists, who desired a strong

central government, and the antifederalists, who were reluctant to relinquish even a fraction of state autonomy. Nevertheless, the gravity of the situation was sufficient to persuade the various factions to set aside their differences; Congress and every state save Rhode Island accepted the federalists' invitation to a general convention to revise the Articles of Confederation.

The fifty-five individuals who gathered in Philadelphia in May of 1787 constituted the most outstanding group of American statesmen ever to have assembled in one room. Representing Virginia was George Washington, a hero of the war; James Madison, one of the greatest political intellects in the country's history; Edmund Randolph, the state's governor; and George Mason, author of Virginia's bill of rights. From Pennsylvania came Benjamin Franklin, spokesman for the colonies in their debate with Great Britain about self-government, and James Wilson, an exceptionally gifted lawyer. And the New York delegation included Alexander Hamilton, a talented champion of centralized government.

The group proved to be as bold as it was brilliant. Scarcely had the delegates cleared their throats when Randolph presented fifteen specific resolutions (almost certainly authored by Madison), whose scope greatly exceeded the charter of the convention: included was a proposal to create a national authority with sovereignty over the states; rather than fiddle with the Articles of Confederation, they would begin again, to frame a new constitution. And of what would this constitution consist?

Besides freeing the colonies of England's control, the War of Independence had sundered America's ties to the governmental traditions that had dominated England until the eighteenth century. The framers now aligned themselves with the intellectual movement that had recently swept across Europe—the Enlightenment; they rejected the political ideas of the past, turning elsewhere for models after which to pattern government. One of the most important of these models was nature itself, whose laws were viewed as templates for social laws. And the interpretation of nature considered most valid during the Enlightenment was that offered by such men as Isaac Newton, the English physicist. True, the U.S. Constitu-

INTRODUCTION

tion represented the confluence of several intellectual, social, and political trends, but, of these, one of the most powerful and lasting was the growing popularity of science itself.

IN TURNING TOWARD SCIENCE, the framers spurned two traditions that had shaped political thought before the Enlightenment. The first was Christianity, which defined man's nature in terms of a spiritual destiny that lay beyond history. Whether that destiny was fulfilled by prayer or work, government was considered a divinely ordained institution to be obeyed as much for salvation as for maintaining social order. The second tradition was classical republicanism, a political system with roots in ancient Greece and Rome, as well as in Renaissance Italy. In its purest form, a republican government is one in which power is exercised by elected representatives who are directly responsible to a body of citizens. Classical republicans sought to elevate people into patriots devoted to civic virtue and felt that this could be achieved best when government officials lived close enough to their constituents to exhort them to correct behavior and, in turn, to be accountable to them. Thus, it was presumed that republicanism worked only for smallscale governments, such as those that existed in sixteenth-century Florence, Milan, and Genoa.

To many of the scientifically oriented thinkers of the Enlightenment, these traditions, emphasizing as they did the repression of self-interest in the name of church and state, were unrealistic. The chief architect of this critique was the Scottish philosopher David Hume. Taking Newton's empiricism as his model, Hume held that there can be no knowledge of anything beyond experience. He conceived of philosophy in general, and of political thought in particular, as inductive, experimental sciences. Sound government must be based on the science of politics—on the direct observation of human behavior.

Such observation led Hume to conclude that human nature is uniform, that, even in the face of social and economic differences, invariant rules can be drawn from men's actions. The most important of these is that, since reason is a slave to the passions, political thinkers must be all the more scientific because they cannot expect the people to be so. Noting that, for centuries, the condition of the human race remained miserable under religious and classical authority, Hume argued that the aim of government should be not to exhort citizens to attain grace or virtue but to accept man as a pleasure-seeking creature. Rather than leading to political instability, man's pursuit of material gain will induce productive work habits and thereby contribute to the creation of wealth and progress, as long as government is designed to offset opposing passions. This picture of mankind accorded well with the world view of eighteenth-century science, which was based largely on Newton's three laws of motion, in particular, the third: for every action there is an equal and opposite reaction.

Both Hume's ideas about government and Newton's outlook on nature came together in early American political thought. Hamilton, Madison, and the other framers were particularly impressed with Hume's essay "That Politics Be Reduced to a Science." From Hume they learned that if government concerns itself with institu-

tions and political structures, rather than with manners and morals, a rich and powerful republic need not succumb to corruption. The clearest and most forceful articulation of this lesson is found in A Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States of America, composed in 1787 and 1788 by John Adams, later to become the second president, and in The Federalist, a series of eighty-five essays by Hamilton, Madison, and John Jay, then the secretary of foreign affairs, which appeared in New York newspapers, in support of the Constitution, between October of 1787 and August of 1788. It is no accident that these documents, brilliant expositions of the political theory that underlies American government, are studded with the language of natural science.

A DAMS WROTE the Defence in response to French political thinkers who had criticized the American states for having governments whose branches were designed to reflect class divisions as a means of controlling them. Because postrevolutionary America had no monarchy, aristocracy, or peasantry, the French felt the country could dispense with its system of checks and balances and simply vest all authority in a single, national assembly.

Adams faulted the French for failing to realize that governmental abuse cannot be eradicated merely by entrusting power to an active citizenry. He argued that a strong executive branch was necessary to mediate between the rich and the poor, the powerful and the weak. Whereas the French believed that class differences could be abolished along with the executive branch, which remained for them a symbol of monarchal tyranny, Adams, like the skeptic Hume, was convinced that potentially explosive divisions of one kind or another would always exist in society and that democracy must be controlled to prevent the tyranny of any particular faction.

"All nations, from the beginning, have been agitated by the same passions," Adams observed. To him, there was only one solution to political power conceived as a force that expands until met by a counterforce: "Orders of men, watching and balancing each other, are the only security; power must be opposed to power, and interest to interest." Proof for the idea came from the classical mechanics of Newton (for every action, a reaction).

The laws of physics, as well as the maxims of geometry, were also used to support the political ideas in *The Federalist*. In number thirty-one, for example, Hamilton cited a variant of the laws of mechanics (the means should be proportionate to the end) to defend the constitutional clause that authorized the new government to make any laws necessary to carry out its objectives. (For example, the Constitution says that the government shall regulate commerce, but it fails to mention banking. Nonetheless, according to Hamilton, the government can create a banking system to regulate commerce.)

Elsewhere in *The Federalist*, Hamilton and Madison advanced the Newtonian principle that an effect cannot exist without a cause, to show why factions are inevitable. Since the differences that give rise to factionalism are "sown" into human nature, government should abandon any hope of abolishing the causes of factionalism and attend, instead, to the establishment of political structures that will counterbalance natural conflicts, thereby preventing them from erupting into civil strife. Extend-