The Gold Star Journal
Ten Year Anniversary Edition
2006
The Gold Star Journal
Ten Year Anniversary Edition
A Celebration of Ten Successful Years

As the sun sets on a decade of hard work and dedication that have made this publication possible, this years editors and Dr. Mabrouk, would like to take this opportunity to thank several members of the faculty and staff of the college for helping to make The Gold Star Journal a great success for ten straight years.

The Citadel Foundation
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For the great strides made in the past, and for the many years to come. We shall continue to endeavor to make the road less traveled, a rewarding one for generations of cadets and scholars for the many years to come.
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About The Editors

John H. Bergmans
John is a senior Political Science major from Saline, Michigan. He is the Commander of Lima Company and an Air Force scholarship cadet. John is an avid fly-fisherman and lover of all sports. During his time at The Citadel, he has been on the Dean’s List, Commandant’s List, President’s List and has earned Gold Stars. Following graduation in May, he will be commissioned as a Second Lieutenant in the United States Air Force. After serving in the armed forces, John would like to attend graduate school.

Matthew J. Harakas
Matt is a senior from Spartanburg, South Carolina who is majoring in English Literature with a minor in Leadership Theories. He is currently serving as the First Battalion Executive Officer, as well as the First Battalion Academic Officer. He is a member of the Alpha Phi Omega National Service Fraternity, the Inn of Court Law Society, and the Citadel’s Crew Team. He plans on attending law school in the near future. He is also a soldier in the Army National Guard and will take his commission as a Second Lieutenant upon Graduation.

James M. Russell IV
James is a junior Business Accounting major from Holly Hill, South Carolina. He is currently a sergeant in Oscar company. In his time here at The Citadel, James has earned Dean’s List and Gold Stars. Currently, he is president of the Finance and Investment Club, secretary of Toastmasters International, an inductee into the Sigma Delta Pi honor society, reciever of the Citadel Summer Scholars Program award and is active in many other activities on campus. Upon graduation, James hopes to work in the financial markets and to one day attain his MBA.

Timothy A. Devine
Tim Devine currently holds the rank of Cadet Command Sergeant Major, serving as the Regimental Sergeant Major to the South Carolina Corps of Cadets. He majors in History and plans on furthing his education in this field during his time in the military. Upon graduation, Tim plans to recieve a commission in the United States Army. While a cadet, Tim has recieved humerous scholarhips and awards. His accomplishments at The Citadel include President’s List, Gold Stars, Dean’s List, and Commandant’s List.
Welcome to the Tenth Anniversary Issue of The Gold Star Journal

With great pride, I present to you, the reader, the tenth anniversary issue of The Gold Star Journal (GSJ). This student-run journal appears annually for Corps Day to advance the academic prowess of our students through the publication of their cross-disciplinary, nonfiction papers that demonstrate effective research, critical thinking, and writing skills. The GSJ is made possible through funds from The Citadel Foundation and through the hard work of several cadets, who serve as editors. These individuals spend much time seeking submissions from classmates, selecting and editing exemplary papers, and designing the journal. The editors are always a fine group of people with whom to work. They make many sacrifices in order to publish the best possible product and to make their advisor and teacher proud. I have indeed been blessed this year, as in all past years, with a wonderful group of editors:

John H. Bergmans
James M. Russell IV

Matthew J. Harakas
Timothy A. Devine

I send my thanks and heartfelt appreciation to this year’s editors for their tireless energy and fortitude in this process. Thank you!

Since 1997, The GSJ has included papers from ten of The Citadel’s fourteen academic departments: Biology, Business Administration, Chemistry, Education, English, History, Mathematics and Computer Science, Modern Languages, Political Science and Criminal Justice, and Psychology. Thank you to the students who submitted papers this year. Competition was tough and in the end, six papers were selected, one each from chemistry and political science and two each from history and psychology. Brian Amen describes the predominant influence of Presbyterian beliefs on a political career focused on economic equity for all in William Jennings Bryan: The Uncommon Commoner. In Magnesium: A Vital Link in Biological Function, Anyanime Edem discusses the role of this macronutrient mineral in the performance of human organs. Wealth or Attractiveness: Preferences for Mate Selection describes Harris Ligon’s study of online personal advertisements posted to Yahoo for the dominating traits women and men consider when courting. In Failure of Leadership: Differences Between a War and a Campaign as Illustrated by the Gulf War of 1991, Alex Monte attributes the failure of The War to a focus on the symptoms of the problem as opposed to the problem itself. Catie Park presents two psychoanalyses of an artist through his paintings in The Personality Theories of Freud and Jung applied to Vincent Van Gogh. Matthew Henfey discusses the changes of the U.S. NSSO in his article entitled National Security Space: Safeguarding the Space Medium through Transformation, Technology, Integration, and Organization. These articles will cause the reader to pause, to think, to re-think, to grow, and maybe even to change as all good writing and research should do.

To the current Editors and Authors I extend my Congratulations on a job well done! To all individuals ever associated with The Gold Star Journal I extend my heartfelt thanks and appreciation for your work. Thank you!

Dr. Suzanne T. Mabrouk

Dr. Suzanne T. Mabrouk
Advisor and Founder of The Gold Star Journal and Professor of Chemistry
The Gold Star Journal
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William Jennings Bryan: The Uncommon Commoner

In 1896 William Jennings Bryan was a delegate from the state of Nebraska to the Democratic National Convention in Chicago. The party was divided over the issue of whether or not to reinstate silver as a backing for U.S. currency. At the convention, Bryan denounced the anti-silver forces and President Cleveland’s demand for a gold standard in what was probably his most famous oration. His “Cross of Gold” speech swept him to popularity in the Democratic Party and won him the nomination to be the Democratic presidential candidate. The climactic end to this speech forever left an impression of a politician inspired by the gospels to do good for humanity, and for those unfamiliar with “the Commoner” these are perhaps his most famous words: “Having behind us the producing masses of this nation and the world, supported by the commercial interests, the laboring interests, and the toilers of everywhere, we will answer their demand for a gold standard by saying to them: ‘You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns. You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold.’”¹ The silver-tongued orator, as Bryan was also known, then spread out his arms to imitate a man in the crucified form and received a rousing applause from the delegation that swept him onto their shoulders and carried him around as their hero. This speech provides a good example of Bryan’s use of religious parallels to the social issues of his day, and he made many others throughout his career. Bryan believed that the best tools for orations came from the Bible due to its popularity.² It was primarily William Jennings Bryan’s evangelical Christian background that set the tone for his political platforms during the Gilded Age.

Bryan’s career was driven by his Presbyterian beliefs. These personal beliefs carried over to his political thought and action. Bryan’s moral system was entirely based on his pious Christian background; he never drank, smoked, or visited a saloon in his life. And although he never forced his values on anyone, he tried his best to convince others of his views. Bryan cared foremost for his constituents- the “little guy.” He represented a largely rural population and he was convinced that the laboring classes were the most important people in society. While serving two terms in the House of Representatives and when shaping the Democratic political platforms, he defended the interests of the small farmer and fought against big business interests and the Republican Party’s attempts to aide Wall Street. He had quite a large following by the time his career ended.

William Jennings Bryan was born on March 19, 1862 in Salem, IL. With the growing dissent for Abraham Lincoln in Illinois, and its pro-southern sentiment, Salem was a Democratic stronghold, and so was the Bryan family.³ William’s father, Silas Bryan, was a political and ethical role model for his son. The senior Mr. Bryan was a judge who always observed a moment of prayer before opening court. He made sure to pray three times a day and regularly quoted the scriptures to juries before sentences were determined.⁴ At home, William was surrounded by the evangelical Christian morality that spawned in the Midwest at the mid-nineteenth century.

¹ Originally from Omaha, Nebraska, Brian is a senior and member of November Company. On top of his duties as Academic Officer, he also serves as a columnist for The Brigade, and the President of The Citadel’s chapter of College Republican Society. His column, “Amen to that” addresses recent political events and personalities from a conservative perspective. In May, Brian will receive a degree in History and plans on a career in politics.
century, and he followed his parent’s devotion to God throughout his life. The Bryans were always observant of religious morality, never colorful or charming.\textsuperscript{5} Mr. and Mrs. Bryan were of different denominational backgrounds and practiced their religions separately for many years. Mr. Bryan was a practicing Baptist while his wife, Mariah, was a member of the Methodist Episcopal Church. She remained a member until 1877 until she converted to the Baptist faith.\textsuperscript{6} Growing up, William and his siblings attended Baptist and Episcopal services, and young William used to say that the best part of having parents who belonged to different churches was that he got to attend Sunday school twice. When he was fourteen, Bryan joined the Presbyterian Church, and his parents did not dissent over their son’s decision since he was such an ardent Christian.

Bryan’s earliest ambitions were to become a farmer, a lawyer or a preacher. When he was twelve years old, his father ran unsuccessfully for Congress on the Democratic ticket and was strongly backed by the Greenback party in Salem.\textsuperscript{7} During his father’s campaign, William became very interested in politics. Bryan grew up an avid reader of the Bible and by the time he left for college he had a firm belief in what the proper role of government was supposed to be. Government, according to Bryan, should be used as an agent for “improving the lives of the farming and laboring classes.” This was the philosophy that directed his subsequent political career.\textsuperscript{8}

While a student at Illinois College, Bryan was an active member in Sigma Pi, a political debate society and it was here that his oration skills began to develop. Bryan was extremely energetic, more like a preacher than a politician when debating. He was by no means the most intellectually-gifted member of Sigma Pi. He did not have any sort of deeper insight as to how to cure the ills of the farming and laboring classes, but he did have a keen interest in how to use political parties as a device for solving these issues.\textsuperscript{9} Bryan’s childhood sparked his adherence to religious values, and his days at Illinois prompted his political platforms based off of cohesion of religious morality and progressive ideals. His thinking was rooted in the notion that politics, ethics, and religion were one in truth. It was his mission, as well as that of every good citizen, to make them a trinity in fact.\textsuperscript{10} For Bryan, the foundations of moral law laid within the ethical teaching of Jesus Christ, and applying the message of the gospels to political/social issues. Bryan took much more than an orthodox approach to these issues. He did not merely draw parallels from pages; he spoke directly from his heart. His approaches to the issues of his day were from a frontier prospective. He was “flexible, not orthodox; emotional, not rational; moralistic, not dogmatic; optimistic, not hopeless; patriotic, not sectarian.” This was the faith of William Jennings Bryan that would make him if not the last, certainly one of the greatest prophets of frontier democratic politics.\textsuperscript{11}

Besides drawing inspiration and direction from the Bible, Bryan was also a believer of the political concepts of Thomas Jefferson.\textsuperscript{12} Like Jefferson, Bryan was never connected with theological liberalism, especially in the teachings of evolution. His later involvement in the Scopes trial proved how adamantly opposed to the teachings of evolution he was. Rather, he was an advocate of social liberalism\textsuperscript{13} and could arguably be named
the founder of the modern Democratic Party. Bryan’s chief political interest lay in the development of character, not of personal gain, and was one of the strongest advocates for adoption of Populist platforms into the Democratic Party in the election of 1896. For the commoner, morality and ethics interested him much more so than theology. “Theological debates,” according to Bryan, “belonged to another age; the live issues of the modern world were ethical issues.” Bryan believed, as did Jefferson, that American society should remain simple and homogenous. He wanted America to remain a rural, rather than industrial society, urban and “stratified along class lines.”

After he graduated valedictorian from Illinois College, Bryan attended Union Law School in Illinois and graduated in 1887. Bryan moved to Lincoln, Nebraska with his wife Mary Baird in 1888. He moved after his law practice was falling short and a friend mentioned that Bryan might have better luck in Lincoln. Soon after his arrival, Bryan became active in Nebraska democratic politics. As was the case in Illinois, Nebraska farmers faced economic trouble that was putting them far behind their urban counterparts. Like his role model Jefferson, Bryan believed in the rights of humanity and that issues such as the tariff, prohibition, railroad regulation and the currency question were all critical issues besetting the rights of the common man. Bryan took a keen interest in helping the farmer and made this a cornerstone of his candidacy for the House of Representatives in 1890. In the nearly thirty years of Nebraska’s existence, no Democrat had been elected to the House of Representatives from the state. Initially, things looked dim for Bryan’s party when the Democrats lost the first district to the Republicans in a landslide victory in 1888. With Bryan’s growing popularity and involvement in the state democratic organization, and his grand appeal to the largely rural population of the area, he seemed a viable candidate for Congress during the next election.

In 1890, William Jennings Bryan was nominated on the democratic ticket to Congress for Nebraska’s first district. The contest between Bryan and James Sterling Morton for the nomination was hotly contested, but the Commoner emerged victorious. Bryan’s appeal was largely based on his platform to give more power to the people in several respects, which included the following: The direct election of senators, no more federal subsidies to big business, and a silver plank. At the time, United States Senators were not directly elected by their constituents. Rather, members of Congress nominated and voted on whom to send to the Senate. Bryan disagreed with this and aimed to change the electoral system of the United States so to allow direct election of U.S. Senators. Bryan also condemned federal financial assistance and bounties for big businesses as he felt that it was unfair practice and put rural workers at a tremendous disadvantage. Finally, and most famously, Bryan advocated the free-coinage of silver and helped write the silver plank into the Democratic Party platform in Nebraska which read, “We demand the free coinage of silver on equal terms with gold and denounce the effort of the Republican Party to serve the interests of Wall St. as against the rights of the people.” At the time, pro-bimetallism was a slowly growing force in the nation; and it caught Bryan’s attention in his first term. He met with fellow House members who took a pro stance on the silver issue, and he subsequently made the issue a priority to the nation.

“Silver,” as Robert Cherny explains in his article on Bryan’s “Cross of Gold” speech, was an argument aimed at changing the deflationary tendencies that had been besetting the nation since the conclusion of the Civil War. Since 1865, prices had fallen due to three major causes. First, agricultural production had become more efficient, which led to a persistent surplus in crops. When prices fell, farmers produced more and more crops, believing they would make more money off them; however, it just caused prices to fall even further. Second, the later half of the nineteenth century saw a major shift in population from rural to suburban/urban. Cities and towns contained business opportunities, not farms and more money shifted to urban businesses. Finally, the money supply did not grow...
along with the rising population of the U.S. What Bryan and other silver advocates believed, was that the government could stabilize prices by putting more money into circulation. According to the pro-silver forces, inflation occurred when currency grew faster than the economy; deflation, when currency supply did not keep up with the economy.\textsuperscript{21}

In 1894 there was massive unemployment in the United States, and the number of people who were intrigued by Bryan’s silver explanation for their situation increased dramatically.\textsuperscript{22} The money question had raged during the 1870’s, especially in 1873 when the government had demonetized silver in what was called the “Crime of ’73.” The issue submerged until the wake of depression in 1893. There were two groups who were energized by the money question: debtors and creditors. The prior consisted of farmers in the west and south that embraced the idea of an expanded money supply to get them out of financial trouble, and their numbers grew exponentially during the years leading up to the 1896 election. The later, consisted of bankers in the east that did not want debts paid on a devalued form of currency (silver).\textsuperscript{23} The Bland-Allison Act of 1878 set a compromise between the two groups and stated that the government would allow for limited coinage of silver and buy it at a ratio of 16:1 (silver to gold). With a ratio like this, it only seemed to make sense to Bryan and other “silverites” to produce more silver and therefore put more money into circulation.

The silver issue dominated the later half of the 53rd Congress (1893-1895) and President Cleveland called a special session of Congress specifically for the purpose of discussing the monetary question and offered Congress his course of action for getting the country out of depression. Cleveland’s plan called for the withdrawal of greenbacks and treasury notes that had been issued after the Civil War. Paper money or “greenbacks” was not well received at its introduction. Banks issued the notes stating that the individual had a certain amount ($1, $5, etc) of gold in the bank and could receive their gold when presented. Greenbacks were printed to substitute for gold when making purchases. Cleveland believed that by withdrawing these notes, or at least a good amount of them, the value of gold would go up, and prices would stabilize. Bryan disagreed. He believed rather that the issue at hand with the nation’s wealth was not an issue of the banking system or the existence of greenbacks. Rather, it was a matter of the amount of money in circulation, and the availability of that money to the rural population of America. According to Bryan, silver was the solution, which would lift the farmer out of poverty and put everyone on equal economic terms with each other. Bryan stated that, “Free government cannot long survive when the thousands enjoy the wealth of the country and the millions share its poverty in common.”\textsuperscript{24}

Bryan presented the silver question not merely as an economic issue, but a humanitarian one from a Christian perspective. Bryan’s sympathy to the struggling classes made him a hero back in Nebraska and it was in this same light that he would receive national acclaim in 1896 and 1900.

Bryan’s congressional career ended in the spring of 1894 after he made an unsuccessful run for the Senate in Nebraska. Temporarily out of politics, Bryan became editor-in-chief for the \textit{Omaha World Herald}, the state’s leading democratic publication. In 1896, Bryan was sent to cover the Republican National Convention in St. Louis. Upon arrival, he realized that the GOP was just as split over the money question as the Democrats were. Under Senator Henry Teller of Colorado, the silver faction of the GOP left the convention and formed the silver Republican Party. Teller then broke away from that faction and gave his support to Bryan and the silver Democrats.\textsuperscript{25} Bryan attended the 1896 Democratic Convention in Chicago, but as a delegate, not a reporter. In his book, \textit{The First Battle}, which discusses his association with the silver question and the 1896 campaign, Bryan mentioned that during the entire time he was at the convention, his total living expenses were less than $100, stressing to his readers that simple men such as himself were capable of a career in politics and it was not a career reserved for the well-to-do.\textsuperscript{26} It was there that Bryan made his famous “Cross of
Gold” speech on July 9 and was given his party’s nomination for the presidency. It was right around this time that a third party known as the “Populists” emerged as a party devoted to farming interests. Bryan was responsible for incorporating progressive Populist ideals into the Democratic platform of 1896 and won their nomination as well. Bryan’s campaign was focused primarily around the silver issue and it would win him the hearts of the rural population. Despite Bryan’s valiant effort of traveling the country, making more than a dozen speeches in a day and getting only a small amount of sleep each night, he lost the presidency to William McKinley in 1896.

The outbreak of the Spanish-American War in 1898 provides another example of how Bryan’s moral convictions and identification with the common man shaped his actions. Although he was a pacifist, Bryan was appointed a colonel in the Nebraska National Guard. Bryan never served in combat, but he raised a regiment of soldiers and went down to Florida to train. Being a pacifist, some may ponder why Bryan was involved in the conflict. While Bryan felt a real sense of “what would Jesus do?” and never resorted to violence simply for the sake of it, he viewed fighting for the independence of Cuba from imperial Spain as an important humanitarian issue, not just a political one, which demanded military intervention. Bryan spoke out against imperialism on moral grounds. During his second presidential campaign, Bryan argued against imperialism by claiming that he found no valid warrant in the Bible for it, and therefore it was an immoral practice.

In 1900, Bryan won the Democratic presidential nomination for a second time. The Democratic platform in 1900 contained the following planks: the platform condemned practices detrimental to labor, opposed Asian immigration, “underscored the contradiction between militarism and labor’s self-interest” and wanted a federal labor bureau which would prevent worker’s strikes. Bryan continued to make religious references in all his speeches telling stories about figures like Solomon who desired neither wealth nor poverty, just enough means to live comfortably. Other speeches were made about his own personal religious background and the influence of his parents on his moral standards. In one speech, Bryan defended the contradiction many saw in his progressive political agendas and his conservative religious views. He said, “Government is man-made and therefore imperfect. It can always be improved. But religion is not a man-made affair. If Christ is the final word, how may anyone be progressive in religion?” Despite a noble effort on Bryan’s behalf, he lost the election to William McKinley in 1900. Bryan ran a campaign based on anti-imperialism and the monetary issue. His opponents continued to attack his economic policies which caused him to lose in 1896 and again in 1900.

William Jennings Bryan was a true Christian statesman. He always had the interest of the common people at heart and fought for economic equality for everyone. Bryan told an audience in one of his campaign speeches that, “Abraham Lincoln said that the lord must have loved the common people because he made so many of them.” Some argue that Bryan was a powerful speaker; that his political influence was an imaginary force, nothing more. Bryan was a political crusader for human rights. His political fallacy was that he did not fully understand the roots of the economic hardship facing the country during his time. The change of American culture from a rural to urban population not a shortage of money in circulation was leaving the farmer behind. Despite his misunderstanding, William Jennings Bryan had a way of influencing a crowd. His popularity grew exponentially during the height of his career and he was a celebrity politician, arguably the first of this kind. His Presbyterian background caused him to apply the messages of the Bible to all aspects of his life, including his politics, and was always a Christian before he was a candidate.
Endnotes
5. Coletta, 5.
14. Szasz
17. Bryan, 41.
20. Cherny
21. Cherny
22. Werner, 50.
29. Glad, 76.
31. Bryan, as quoted in Herrick, 135.
32. Herrick, 244
34. Herrick, 131.

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Magnesium:  
A Vital Link In 
Biological Function

Magnesium is one of the most abundant minerals in nature. In human beings, it is involved in the activation of more than 300 enzymes and chemicals, making it one of the most important minerals in the body. The enormous role magnesium plays is little known to the population at large and attention is usually drawn to other minerals, such as calcium. Some of the many important biological functions of magnesium include digestion: energy production, bone formation, cell synthesis, activation of B vitamins, relaxation of muscles, and the function of the heart, muscles, adrenals, kidney, brain and the nervous system. If there is any deficiency of magnesium within the body, it could potentially interfere with these functions, and its toxic effect could result in a condition as minor as diarrhea or, in much more serious cases, death.

This intracellular nutrient typically comes from the vegetable kingdom, although it is also found in high amounts in seafood. A component of chlorophyll and essential for the process of photosynthesis, magnesium is the ‘iron’ central atom of the plant world. As iron is to hemoglobin, magnesium is to chlorophyll which is, the “blood” pigment of plants. Dark green vegetables, such as spinach, contain high amounts of chlorophyll, which in turn contain high amounts of magnesium. Most nuts, seeds, whole grains and legumes have high amounts of magnesium. Another important source of magnesium can be found in hard water, or water that contains ions, mainly of calcium $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ and magnesium $\text{Mg}^{2+}$. Both are acquired through contact with rocks and sediments in the environment.\(^1\)

Magnesium is very important because it enables other minerals to perform their functions. One such mineral is calcium. It plays an important role in the development and maintenance of bones and teeth. However, in order for calcium to perform its function successfully, it requires magnesium to assimilate into the body. About 65 percent of the body’s magnesium is contained in the bones and teeth, which act as a reservoir for magnesium in times of shortage. The remaining 35 percent of magnesium is contained in the blood, fluids, and other tissues. When too much calcium is consumed, magnesium is pulled from the other parts of the body in order for calcium to be assimilated resulting in magnesium deficiency. This can be caused when an overabundance of milk or dairy products is consumed. The ratio of calcium to magnesium is approximately eight to one. Any excess consumption of calcium increases this ratio, which in turn increases the condition. To prevent this, the suggested consumption ratio of calcium to magnesium is two to one. In order to function optimally, magnesium must be balanced in the body along with calcium, phosphorus, potassium, and sodium chloride. If this ratio is unbalanced, and a greater amount of calcium is absorbed into the vascular muscle cells than other minerals, it will cause contractions. This results in tighter and constricted vessels and higher blood pressure. However, with the proper ratio and intake of magnesium, this po-

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\(^1\) Magnesium: A Vital Link In Biological Function

Anyanime A. Edem

Anyanime is a senior chemistry major from Akwa-Ibom, Nigeria. Currently, she makes her home in Columbia, South Carolina. Upon graduation in May, Anyanime will continue to volunteer in the pharmacy department at the Medical University of South Carolina and hopes to eventually pursue a doctorate degree in pharmacy. Her paper discussing Magnesium and its effects on the body was a term paper for Dr. Smokey McAfee’s Advanced Inorganic Chemistry class.
A potentially dangerous condition can be avoided.

Apart from the effects of calcium, other factors affect the deficiency of magnesium. Compared to our ancestors, our diet and lifestyle is much different. Food is processed, which depletes mineral content by up to 80%. In particular, bottled drinking water is softened and many beverages are made from de-ionized water. Today, fruits and vegetables come from soils with lower levels of magnesium. Also, many people experience higher amounts of daily stress and less exercise than in the past, which contributes to lower levels of magnesium in the body. These deficiencies can lead to common health problems such as heart disease, cancer, diabetes, migraine, and eclampsia, a life threatening condition that causes convulsions and severe hypertension.

Another very common behavior that affects magnesium deficiency is consumption alcohol. Excessive amounts of alcohol produce ‘hangover’ symptoms, which is due in part to magnesium depletion. People who abuse alcohol are at high risk for magnesium deficiency because alcohol increases urinary excretion of the mineral. Low blood levels of magnesium occur in 30 - 60 percent of alcoholics and in nearly 90 percent of patients experiencing alcohol withdrawal. In addition, severe alcoholics who substitute alcohol for food will usually have extremely low magnesium intakes. Medical doctors routinely will evaluate the need for extra magnesium in this population.  

Stress is another important contributor to magnesium excretion. Stress can increase urination and result in temporary magnesium depletion that may make the heart more sensitive to electrical abnormalities. Magnesium is an ‘anti-stress’ mineral because it serves as a natural tranquilizer. It functions to relax skeletal muscles as well as the smooth muscles of blood vessels and the gastrointestinal tract. Unlike calcium which stimulates muscle contraction, magnesium relaxes muscular system.

The toxicity of magnesium is often overlooked. It is rarely seen because any excess is excreted in urine and feces. However, the symptoms of magnesium toxicity can occur if the individual’s intake of calcium is low. Symptoms of toxicity include muscle weakness, fatigue, sleepiness, and hyperekctibility and the state or condition of being unusually or excessively excitable. In extreme situations, magnesium overload can cause death.

Today, there is greater emphasis on physical fitness and exercising. Critical to this process is the utilization of glucose. Muscle fibers in the body absorb glucose (sugars) immediately or store it in the form of glycogen. While exercising, the stored glycoegen is broken down into glucose that then under goes a sequence of enzymatic reactions. These reactions can occur through aerobic or anaerobic mechanisms, but with the presence of magnesium, glucose is metabolized through the aerobic process. Without magnesium, glucose breakdown goes through the anaerobic mechanism and generates lactic acid, which is known to produce cramps and sore muscles. Therefore, magnesium enables the cells to maintain aerobic metabolism during exercise and decreases the formation of lactic acid and muscle cramping.

Magnesium, however, is not the only natural mineral with a positive charge. Other minerals with this property include: calcium (Ca2+), sodium (Na+), and potassium (K+). How is magnesium different from other positively charged minerals? Table I. displays the sizes of these cations. The magnesium cation is the smallest, allowing it to penetrate cell membranes easily, forcing other minerals to depend on magnesium in order to cross cell membranes.
Table I. **Radius of Select Cations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ion</th>
<th>Radius (Å)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Na$^{1+}$</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K$^{1+}$</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca$^{2+}$</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mg$^{2+}$</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current Recommended Daily Allowance (RDA) of magnesium is about 350mg for men and 300mg for women, except during pregnancy and lactation when it is roughly 450 mg. Many nutrition experts feel that the RDA should be doubled to approximately 600mg to 700mg daily. The average diet supplies 120mg of magnesium per 1,000 calories for an estimated daily intake of about 250mg. Unless absorption is one hundred percent efficient in an individual, the average diet would not produce adequate tissue levels of magnesium. For the determination of optimal amounts, both body size and activity level must be taken into consideration.

Magnesium is an extremely important mineral to the safe biological function of the body, but very few people are aware of the benefits and dangers associated with it. Deficiencies of this mineral are dangerous; however, they are easily correctable. Better education on nutrition is needed to ensure that one of the most important minerals in the body is fully understood.

**Bibliography**


National Security Space: Safeguarding the Space Medium Through Transformation, Technology, Integration and Organization

Matthew J. Henfey
Matt is a senior cadet and native of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Originally from Lima Company, he is currently serving as the 3rd Battalion Commander. In May, he will be commissioned in the US Air Force and begin his career as an Airfield Operator. While at The Citadel, Matthew has received a major in political science and a minor in Spanish. Henfey’s interest in national security affairs and Dr. Jack Porter’s class on National Security Policy, enticed him to write this paper on the role of space in national security.

Since the events of September 11, 2001, the best way to describe our national security organization’s posture within the United States is of transformation. Why have our intelligence and national security organizations had to transform? The answer is simple. As a unity of states and organizations, we are not as unified as one may have thought. The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 showed the intelligence and security organizations within the United States how dysfunctional and unorganized the agencies had become. Transformation within our intelligence and security organizations is of utmost importance, and that is what Donald Rumsfeld and the Department of Defense plan to do with the National Security Space Management and Organizational Initiative.

At the 2003 Military Communications Symposium in Boston, former Under Secretary of the Air Force Peter Teets, a subordinate of Donald Rumsfeld, gave a sweeping speech about the Transformation in National Security Space. In the speech, the Under Secretary (Teets, 2003, para. 6) told the story of a combat controller in Afghanistan who combined a horse, a laptop computer, a global positioning satellite receiver, and laser goggles to pinpoint a target location for a B-52 flying overhead to provide close air support for American ground troops. As the article (Teets, 2003, para. 7) articulates, that this combination of an ancient method of battle transportation, the horse, the B-52, and the more recent laser goggles, along with the space-based GPS to provide a whole new capability – precision Close Air Support (CAS) in rugged locales from 30,000 feet in the air. Our government, the Department of Defense, and more specifically former Under Secretary Peter Teets, have learned their lesson from the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001.

We must transform our organizations to be come fully integrated with a sense of ‘jointness’...transforming from a collection of Services that do their individual missions to a team of specialists who work together to ensure that the joint or coalition forces act as a synergistic whole (Teets, 2003, para.5).

The concept of transformation is an integral part of the national security space strategy. This strategy, whose cornerstone is to ensure America’s security through the medium of space, is composed of idealistic integrations, a plethora of technologically advanced systems, and the use of battlefield soldiers, marines, and airmen. In an article written by Technical Sergeant Jablonski (2004), he describes some initiatives that the Under Secretary of the Air Force plans to emphasize as part of the strategy:
Improving the planning and delivering of space capabilities to build and communicate a clear picture to as many people as possible in the least amount of time, producing innovative solutions to exploit the space medium in new and better ways to provide decision makers and war fighters with everything they need to guarantee the safety and security of the U.S. and its allies; and lastly, building space professionals through standardized education, training, and opportunities (Jablonski, 2004, para. 7).

According to Under Secretary Teets, “space systems and capabilities are vital to our national security” (Jablonski, 2004, para. 17). To further emphasize the importance of space as a vital national interest, Under Secretary Teets has vowed that the United States will not compromise on the issue. Donald Snow (2004), author of National Security for a New Era, defines such vital interests as matters whose outcomes are too important to be submitted to any superior authority and which must be guarded to the full extent of the state’s ability to do so (p. 51). For the study of national security policy, it is critical to realize the importance and rationale in declaring the space medium a vital interest. Simply stated, space is the greatest and most advantageous position from which to collect sound and reliable intelligence. There are few other means that one can use to collect information as from the space above. This strategy is no more than an evolution of the collection means in the days of oversized passenger balloons in the days of our past. As Italian Air Marshall and air and space theorist once said, “In order to assure an adequate national defense, it is necessary – and sufficient – to be in a position, in case of war, to conquer the command of the air.” The Department of Defense is applying this strategy and changing the wording from the “command of the air” to “command of space”. Although Douhet was an early twentieth century visionary in terms of the future of war, today’s advancements in technology are the keys to successfully administering the national space strategy – fulfilling Douhet’s prophesy.

**Technology**

We are investing in new methods of organizing, communicating, and sharing information to increase our awareness of the enemy, to predict the dynamics of the battlefield, and to assess the results of our operations (Jablonski, 2004, para. 24).

When Under Secretary Teets refers to ‘investing’, reward to devote as many resources as possible to advance our reach within the field of technology. Through these investments, Teets hopes to use the space medium to become better organized, communicate more efficiently, create greater capability to share information, and build upon what has already been done with satellites.

The Corona was the nation’s first photographic reconnaissance satellite system. It operated from August 1960, until May 1972. Ten years ago, in February of 1995, the results, findings, and images obtained by the satellite Corona were declassified through an executive order by former President Bill Clinton. Photos generated by this satellite were used to assist environmental studies, produce global maps and charts, and national security risks in the post Cold War era (NRO, 1995, para. 2). However, although the Corona’s imagery was powerful, it was somewhat crude by modern day standards. The resolution of the photography from the satellite Corona varied from 6 feet to 520 feet (NRO, 1995, para. 3). The Corona was revolutionary and trend setting, and history will prove this project to be a success.

Another famous and currently used satellite system is the Milstar. The Milstar is a system of
four satellites in geosynchronous orbit around the earth, the first being launched on February 7, 1994, aboard a Titan IV expendable rocket (AFSC, 2001, para. 2). The system is composed of three segments: space (the satellites), terminals (the users), and mission control on the ground (the application) (AFSC, 2001, para. 4). According to the Air Force Space Command, this system is defined: 

...a joint service satellite communications system that provides secure, jam resistant, worldwide communications to meet essential wartime requirements for high priority military users. The multi-satellite constellation will link command authorities with a wide variety of resources, including ships, submarines, aircraft, and ground stations (AFSC, 2001, para.1).

The Air Force Space Command (2001) notes that the Milstar is the most advanced military communications satellite to date.

The Milstar has proven successful in recent engagements. Former Under Secretary Teets (2003) gave much praise to the project during Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF), stating that:

...the secure and jam-resistant Milstar, our most advanced communications constellation currently in orbit, was used jointly by all of our military services in execution of their missions during OIF, and was dubbed the ‘work horse of the war’. It was used by the Navy to direct Tomahawk cruise missiles on the opening night of hostilities; it was used to provide the daily air tasking orders to all U.S. aircraft which involved well over 1,000 airplanes; and both the Marines and the Army relied on it to coordinate their rapid march to Baghdad (Teets, 2003, para. 8)

The Air Force Space Command (2001) likens the Milstar satellite to a “switch board in space”, that directs communication traffic from terminal to terminal anywhere on Earth, which in turn causes the requirement for ground controlled switching to become significantly smaller. It is able to process communication signals and link with the other Milstar satellites through links in space (AFSC, 2001, para. 3).

The Milstar is critical because of its ability to free up interoperable air wave space on the ground. With less electronic communication traffic on the ground and greater utilization of the space above, the ability to communicate is enhanced. “A key goal of Milstar is to provide interoperable communications among the users of Army, Navy, and Air Force Milstar terminals” (AFSC, 2001, para. 3). From the photographs of the Corona, to the successful battle management of the Milstar, it is safe to say that the continued advancement in satellite technology will remain paramount to our national security space strategy.

The technology within the special operations field is also expected to see investment increases. Dr. James Roche, former Secretary of the Air Force began a push for several technological improvements. In particular, there is a push to create ‘families’ of unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV) and remotely piloted aircraft to support land combat, improve a number of A-10 Thunderbolt II’s with sensor and system upgrades, new and more powerful engines, and service-life extensions, and lastly, create a short take-off, vertical landing variant of the F-35 Joint Strike Fighter for use in short take-off situations (Jablonski, 2004, para. 19).

With the combination of communication-based satellites, such as the Corona and the Milstar, along with well-equipped battlefield troops and technology, the national security space strategy is on its way to protecting the security of America well into the next century.
Integration

In the aftermath of September 11th, 2001, ground-based communication systems were identified as a main non-efficient factor in the government’s inability to coordinate a response to the four hijacked commercial airliners. Throughout the Department of Defense, the Intelligence Community, and Armed Forces, each organization was more concerned with their own interests then ensuring joint interoperability and capability. However, had an efficient system been in place, and had there been a greater amount of horizontal integration at the time, a coherent response could have been mounted.

Simply put, horizontal integration is the gathering of information from all sources: space, air, ground, and synthesizing that information in a central data bank that war fighters can draw from to satisfy their informational decision making needs. It is a matter of breaking down stovepipes and facilitating the synthesis of different types of information into a common operating picture. It means collecting all of this information into one database, with limited delay, available to commanders or planners, to pull the information they need to do their jobs and achieve the desired effects (Teets, 2003, para. 13 and 18).

However, this concept is not a totally new one. The idea of horizontal integration was first conceptualized in the Goldwater-Nichols Reorganization Act of 1986. After the Vietnam War, the executed operations were reviewed and evaluated. It was agreed that the military was not performing well and had to be restructured by the Senate. Military power and authority was moved away from the individual services and more towards ‘jointness’. It is obvious that a key aspect of communication must be horizontally integrated in order to accomplish a successful security strategy.

There are fifteen units that encompass our Intelligence Community and a number of sub-units for each. This causes several problems, including more than one chain of command and responsibility. It is obvious that this structure is inefficient and effective. Thus, in order to improve we need a visionary “communications network that transcends air, space, sea, and ground and allows the easy transfer of data to and from individual users” (Teets, 2003, para. 20). Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld and the National Security Space Strategy plan to make this integration through transformation and technology within the space medium. According to the Director of Air Force Public Affairs, Brigadier General Frederick Roggero (2005), “the Air Force has, in various stages of development, a national security vision, strategy, and plan which all respond to Secretary of Defense and Director of Central Intelligence guidance” (Roggero, 2005, para. 3). Through systems that will be based in the space medium, under the command of a single manager, we can be “provided critical surveillance and reconnaissance information to national decision makers and combat commanders” (Roggero, 2005, para. 5). To reiterate, space is a vital interest because it enables the U.S. to make decisions in and around “areas of high risk or denied access” without putting anyone in harms way (Roggero, 2005, para. 5).

Organization

In May 2001, Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld provided a major national security space management and organization initiative to Congress. In his announcement concerning the “importance of outer space and space activities to the security of the U.S. and its allies”, the Secretary highlighted how the National Security Space initiative would be organized as follows (Department of Defense, 2001):

1.) A Policy Coordinating Committee would be established with the National Security Counsel that would act as an interagency forum to develop, coordinate, and monitor implementation of the president’s policy guidance for space activities.
2.) As Secretary of Defense (SecDef), he would meet with the Director of Central Intelligence (DCI) regularly, while the Di-
rector of the National Reconnaissance Office (NRO), who plays a dual role as Under Secretary of the Air Force, would examine the Office of Space Reconnaissance and then report back to the SecDef and the DCI. The DCI and SecDef are to keep the defense and intelligence committees aware of all operations.

3.) The Air Force Space Command (AFSC) is responsible to provide the resources to execute space research, development, acquisition, and operations. The Commander of the AFSC is responsible for managing the space career field in accordance with the SecDef.

4.) The Department of the Air Force is the executive agent for space within the Department of Defense and in charge of planning, programming, and acquiring space systems.

5.) The secretaries of each military department are directed to enhance space professional military education and ensure our forces have direct understanding of how to integrate space activities into military operations.

Conclusion

The National Security Space Strategy was officially released in 2001 and is still developing in 2006. Our senior leadership is transforming the structure of our national security, and our technology, to develop communication devices throughout the space medium. As everyday passes, we continue to advance from our past failures. We are continually integrating our intelligence community to benefit our need for security. It was only a matter before the potential of space was realized. However, there was one man who foresaw this concept almost a whole century ago:

“In order to assure an adequate national defense, it is necessary – and sufficient – to be in a position, in case of war, to conquer the command of space”

- Giulio Douhet

References


Wealth or Attractiveness:
Preferences for Mate Selection

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Currently, Harris serves as the Regimental Human Affairs Officer. When away from school, Harris spends his free time surfing. Upon graduation, he will spend his time touring with the National Organization for Men’s Outreach in Rape Education “One in Four” Tour, which educates people on the prevention of sexual violence against women.

Abstract

This study primarily illuminates preferences between human mates. Specifically, members of four communities who posted personalized advertisements were examined and analyzed for preference toward attractiveness and wealth in the possible selection of a mate. Both males and females display similar partiality to probable mates that were attractive. Ironically, though, females exhibited a higher fondness for wealth than males. Past research has encouraged the concept that males traditionally focus on attractiveness over wealth and that females consider potential wealth over individual attractiveness.

Despite common generalizations and social norms, research has repeatedly displayed mate selection preferences in both male and female humans. Regardless of the factors involved in creating a study, researchers have concluded two consistent statements: men go for the looks, women go for the money. Trait desirability is often overlooked because of the tendency people have to maintain their individualism rather than accept their behavior and attitudes as normal for everyone (Myers, 2005). In many cases, this may be termed as the “matching phenomenon”, in which partners are chosen due to asset matching (Myers, 2005).

Daniel Buss and Michael Barnes applied this knowledge and produced the results of their 1986 study Preferences in Human Mate Selection. Utilizing 184 participants, they examined the questionnaire results of the couples answers regarding preferred characteristics among mates. Awkwardly drawing on Darwin’s On the Origin of Species, they pointed out that regardless of species, “Men may compete for elevation in hierarchies, and women tend to favor high-status men” (Buss and Barnes, 1986, p. 559). Across any species, there is a search for profitable reproductive traits. In humans, Buss and Barnes (1986), proposed that “women seek in mates those characteristics associated with power such as earning capacity and higher education” whereas, “Men, in contrast, … value physical beauty” (Barnes & Buss, 1986, p. 569). They went on to propose that these traits were also known as “reproductive cues.” Acknowledging the well-known concept that a woman’s fertility is linked to her age and health, youthful women are sought ought by men because they exhibit the ability to bear offspring (Buss and Barnes, 1986). In contrast, women seek different reproductive traits in men. They view a man’s capacity for reproduction as linked to his “immediate material advantages of offspring… acquired social and economical advantages… [and] qualities that contribute to earning power.” (Barnes & Buss, 1986, p. 569). David Geary
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Ten Year Anniversary Edition

(2004) elaborates on this, stating, “the children of culturally successful men have lower mortality rates than the children of other men. Even in cultures in which mortality rates are low, children of culturally successful men benefit in terms of psychological and physical health and in terms of longevity in adulthood” (Geary, Vigil, Byrd-Crave, 2004). Buss (1985) even references Dr. Glen Elder’s longitudinal study, pointing out that, “physically attractive females do marry males of higher socioeconomic status,” which serves to reinforce the idea that mate selection is simply a cultural extension of reproductive security (Buss, 1985, p. 49).

Alan Feingold of Yale University went on to supplement the findings even more. In 1992, he published the results of his study entitled Gender Differences in Mate Selection Preferences: A Test of the Parental Investment Model based on the meta-analysis of twenty self-reports and eight personal advertisements. Confirming the previous studies supporting evolutionary theories regarding mate choices, Feingold sought to re-establish the importance of Dr. Triver’s parental investment mode, in which it is noted simply that men are attracted to female mates through visual means because the physical appearance displays their ability to reproduce properly. Women, on the other hand, pursue factors ensuring their offspring the highest survival. (Feingold, 1992 and Geary, 2004).

Kristin Liv Rauch, a McNair Scholar from Pennsylvania State University, published Human Mate Selection: An Exploration of Assortative Mating Preferences in 2003. She points out that mate selection is not completely psychological or biological; but rather, societal norms can be just as important in mate selection. What she fails to report in her study of endogamy is that the preference means of females were higher than males on both preferences of education and of income. Not surprisingly, there are few studies that do not support the theory that men seek mates based on physical qualities and women prefer mates on the basis of socioeconomic potential. Therefore, it can be readily predicted that in this study, men will prefer attractiveness more than women; alternatively, women will prefer wealth more than men.

Methods

Participants

The two hundred participants in this study were two hundred online personal advertisements from Yahoo personals. Initially, the two hundred were split into four groups consisting of fifty each. Then, each of the four groups was assigned a geographical location and further divided in half, with twenty-five men seeking women participants and another twenty-five women seeking men participants (equaling fifty per group, with a total of four groups). Afterward, Yahoo personals were queried for the results of fifty personal ads from Charleston, South Carolina; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Portland, Oregon; and Denver, Colorado.

Materials

All of the data was viewed via the Internet through the Yahoo Personals website. The personal ads were then examined for words suggesting attractiveness and wealth. Wealth suggestive terms as defined in this study were: “rich, wealthy, prosperous, loaded, sugar-daddy, sugar-momma, money-bags, filthy-rich, affluent, well-off, well-to-do, deep pockets, moneyed, and an income of $80,000.” Additionally, attractiveness suggestive terms as defined in this study were: “hot, sexy, fine, appealing, pretty, beautiful, eye-catching, cute, handsome, striking, gorgeous, knock-out, voluptuous, dashing, good-looking, nice looking, stunning, adorable, irresistible, and fine-looking.” The data was then entered into a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet.

Procedure

Every person was assigned a value for data entry. Males were assigned the number 1 and females were assigned the number 2. Later, a 1 or a 0 was placed in the column under “Attractive-
ness” or “Wealth,” with a 1 designating a preference or a 0 designating no preference toward “Attractiveness” or “Wealth” in the advertisement. Then the data was entered into the SAS system for analysis.

**Results**

After the analysis was compiled, it was obvious that there was a strikingly significant preference among women toward wealth (versus the male preference for wealth). Surprisingly, there was not a significant preference among men toward attractiveness (versus female preference for attractiveness).

With respect to attractiveness, there was no significant difference between males and females. With a statistical mean of 0.54 for males seeking attractiveness and a statistical mean of 0.52 for women seeking attractiveness, it seemed there was very little difference, therefore $t(186) = 2.72$, $p < .05$.

In regards to wealth, there was a significant difference between males and females. The statistical mean of males 0.07 desiring wealth was much lower than the statistical mean of females at 0.21 interested in wealth amongst potential mates, thus $t(198) = 0.28$, $p > .05$.

**Discussion**

Although half of the results of this study do not support the hypothesis, the other half clearly do. There are many aspects that could have contributed to this occurrence, including the time period of study, the process of obtaining information, and, most importantly, the geographic location of the participants.

Other studies show consistent trends in mate selection regarding both males and females. This study, however, did not prove that men favor attractiveness in their mates at a significantly higher rate than women. This may be due to the fact that in the year 2005, the majority of people with access to a computer and Internet have relatively similar values and desires. Additionally, there was not as much visual exposure and extensive emphasis on looks in the 1980s as there is now in modern-day America.

Also in this study, the form of data collection was much different from other studies. Computers were solely used to collect, process, and report the information. Considering the simple fact that this study was limited to people who had access to a computer and the internet, there is some discrepancy with the external validity of the study. People utilizing online personal advertisements, as with any personal ads, may not have been completely honest, which would serve to further negate the validity of the results.

Additionally, all the geographic locations were metropolitan zip codes (29409, 19102, 97201, and 80012). People living in these areas may have a predisposition toward viewing attractiveness as equally important in a downtown atmosphere. This study did not include people from rural areas, where preferences may be different.

Moreover, confounds or limits could be found to exist within the words chosen to demonstrate the disposition of the participants. In many cases, participants may have exhibited a fondness toward or away from a certain trait but were ultimately qualified due to limiting factors.

In the course of a later study, more specific and accurate means for data collection should be used. More importantly, the sample should be much larger and much more varied than just Internet users from four metropolitan cities. As noted in some studies, variables of age and ethnicity should be considered to expand the external validity.
References


Failure of Leadership:  
The Differences Between a War and a Campaign as Illustrated by the Gulf War of 1991

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Alex is a senior history major from North Myrtle Beach, South Carolina. He is a member of Oscar Company and currently serves as Fourth Battalion Executive Officer. Following graduation, Alex will pursue a commission with the Marine Corps, and aspires to obtain a Masters Degree in history and Law. Alex’s paper entitled “Failed Leadership” was a final term paper in Dr. Wilmott’s History of Modern Warfare Since 1945 class, and analyzes the result of the First Gulf War and the implications it resonates for the current situation in Iraq today.

The Gulf War of 1991 was a great example of how a military campaign should be fought and won. However, it also serves as a poor example of how to completely conduct a war. There is a significant difference between a war and a campaign, something that American leadership in Washington did not understand. The United State’s policy makers did not comprehend the ultimate aim of the war, and they subsequently conducted it improperly. The intention of the Gulf War was focused at the symptoms of the situation, instead of the cause of the problem: The Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein. The coalition’s failure to dispose of Saddam and his regime at the conclusion of the war provided no real resolution to the problems from which the conflict had originated. Therefore, the decisions made in 1991 by American leaders failed to take into consideration the differences between a war with a solid and final resolution versus a campaign of mere military might.

On August 2, 1990, a total of 140,000 Iraqi troops, including two Republican Guard armored divisions, advanced virtually unchallenged and unopposed into Kuwait.¹ The Kuwaiti army was quickly brushed aside while the Emir and Crown Prince fled in black, bullet-proof limousines south to the safety of the resort city of Taif in Saudi Arabia where they would stay in a first class hotel for the duration of the crisis to come.² As a result of the Iraqi takeover and occupation of Kuwait, a swift decision was made by the UN Security Council, which passed resolution No. 660 on August 2, condemning the Iraqi action.³ Furthermore, it demanded a withdrawal of Iraqi forces from Kuwait and called for a negotiated settlement. Meanwhile, the United States had no plan of action against Iraq, and there was no plan for mobilization or deployment of troops and resources to the region. The U.S. was caught completely by surprise by the invasion of Kuwait as the U.S. was still celebrating the end of the Cold War.⁴ The apparent question at hand was, “How far would Saddam go?” Was he pleased with Kuwait? Or, would he continue south into Saudi Arabia in order to capture and control forty percent of the world’s oil?⁵ King Fahd of Saudi Arabia was unsure, and after numerous talks with President Bush, Secretary of Defense Cheney, and General Schwarzkopf, which outlined the vulnerability of Saudi Arabia against attack, King Fahd gave his consent for outside military forces to enter his country.⁶

The permission given by King Fahd to The United States for military assistance was all that President Bush needed. The first troops landed in Saudi Arabia on the 7th of August, 1990. The following day, President Bush made his famous “line in the sand” speech, and Operation Desert Shield was initiated. It would take at least three months
to deploy the US military forces needed in order to fully defend Saudi Arabia from invasion and another month of training before retaliatory action could be taken against Iraq. Consequently, American military leaders knew that the initial troops sent to Saudi Arabia were more a “token of U.S. resolve than a real threat to Saddam,” which prompted one aide to state that “Schwarzkopf was terrified about our vulnerability.”

It took some considerable time for the buildup of necessary military forces needed to defend Saudi Arabia against an Iraqi invasion. The troop buildup was a round the clock venture transporting needed equipment, soldiers, and supplies to Saudi Arabia. It was estimated that every twenty-four seconds an aircraft of troops or material was needed to land in Saudi Arabia for the build up. However, it was only feasible that aircraft could only land every thirty-eight seconds due to logistical problems. Concomitantly with the buildup of forces, President Bush built up international support and a coalition for the ensuing conflict to come. Eventually, twenty six nations would join in combined arms in a coalition against Saddam. Additionally, the UN was hard at work on the diplomatic front. On August 6, 1990, UN Security Council resolution No. 661 imposed mandatory sanctions on Iraq and Kuwait, and UN resolution No. 662 declared the Iraqi annexation of Kuwait void. Furthermore, on November 29, 1990, UN Security Council Resolution No. 678 authorized the use of force to expel Iraq from Kuwait in an almost unanimous decision by the council. As a result of these Resolutions, the U.N. deadline for Saddam to remove his troops from Kuwait was set for noon, Eastern Standard Time on January 15, 1991. The die had been cast for Saddam to extract his forces from Kuwait, and the wait began.

The UN deadline for the removal of Iraqi forces from Kuwait had come and gone on January 15th, and Iraq had not pulled forces out of Kuwait. As a result, President Bush opted for military action to be taken against Iraq. By this time, coalition forces were in place for battle against Iraq, and thirty hours after the passing of the UN deadline, Operation Desert Shield turned into Operation Desert Storm on January 16, 1991, with an opening salvo of tomahawk cruise missiles and stealth bomber strikes against Iraq. This was the beginning of the coalition plan to oust Iraqi forces from Kuwait. The six week air campaign against the Iraqi military would turn into the most effective air campaign in history. By January 29, General Schwartzkopf stated that Allied air supremacy had been achieved. At the conclusion of the air offensive, 90,000 tons of explosives were dropped on the Iraqi military, and the bill for the air war was estimated at $30 billion dollars.

The end for the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait began at 4 A.M. on February 24, 1991, when the ground war was finally launched. On February 27th, coalition troops entered Kuwait City, and on the following day, the war was over. In 100 hours of ground war, coalition forces had overwhelmingly defeated the Iraqi military. The ground offensive was used to complete the victory following the devastating air campaign. The destruction of the Iraqi military was immense and total: 63,000 Iraqi prisoners of war were in coalition hands. It is estimated that 100,000-120,000 Iraqi troops had been killed as opposed to the 266 American deaths and 75 Coalition dead. On March 3, 1991, a formal cease-fire was instated between coalition forces and the Iraqis. The Iraqi military lay in complete destruction at the end of the conflict and the war was hailed as a resounding victory for coalition forces. Yet, all was not as it seemed.

The 1991 Gulf War was deemed an unquestionable victory for coalition forces. However, it was merely a great campaign victory: not a total victory. There are several key differences between a campaign and a war. First, a war is more than a military campaign: war is across a wide spectrum of ideals. War has social, political, economic, and military aspects which must be considered. Second, wars do not produce simple, straight-forward victories. Third, a campaign does not explain a war because it is simply much
to narrow in scope as compared with a war. a war is more than a campaign. It was these three principles which the leadership in Washington in 1991 did not understand. They failed to recognize the differences between a war and campaign and this costly error would have grave consequences for the future.

The victory in the 1991 Gulf War was a great and victorious campaign, but not always does a campaign success ensure victory in war. The American school of thought had always been that if you fight and win battles, then you win campaigns. Furthermore, by winning campaigns, you then win the war. However, this concept does not always prove to be true. There have been numerous wars which states have won battles and campaigns but not the war itself. Moreover, this is a two-fold thought, and there have been cases where nations have lost battles, but won wars. A classic example of a state winning battles, but ultimately loosing the war, is the 1866 Prussian defeat of Austria. Another example of this concept is the French campaign in Algeria during the 1950’s. They had won on the battlefield, but they lost the war in the political arena. These ideas can also be applied to the 1991 Gulf War: victory was achieved on the battlefield, but the war was lost in the end.

The 1991 Gulf War was a resounding success on the campaign level, but failed in the end to achieve victory in the war. At the end of hostilities, there was no regime change, and so success had not yet been fully achieved. The military actions in the years following the coalition victory of 1991 were to secure the campaign victory that was achieved in 1991. Military operations against Iraq continued into the Clinton administration with operations like Desert Fox which continued to lock the campaign victory. Furthermore, the Clinton administration had instituted the policy of containment for Iraq by creating no-fly zones in the North and South of Iraq as well as instituting numerous economic embargos. This policy of containment obviously failed: in the three years following the 1991 war, military expenditures on missions to secure a continued victory had already surpassed the cost of the 1991 campaign. Additionally, military forces were sustained in the region and operations were still being conducted to protect assets in the area. Aside from military actions following the 1991 war, the Kurds in Northern Iraq and Shiite Muslims in Southern Iraq were encouraged to rebel against Saddam in the hopes that they would stimulate a revolution to overthrow him. As a result, the Iraqi Republican Guard quashed both rebellions easily partly because there was no support given to the Iraqi people by the United States or her Coalition partners. The United States had provoked the rebellions against Saddam, yet they gave no further support for them. On the matter, USMC Lieutenant General Bernard Trainor stated, “Our failure to support the Kurdish and Shi’a uprisings constitutes another lost opportunity to effect political changes in Iraq”. Ultimately, it would take another war in 2003 against Iraq to fix the mistakes of the Gulf War. In March of 2003, twelve years after the First Gulf War, American leadership realized the source of the problem, the regime of Saddam Hussein must be removed, in order to achieve total victory.

Wars cannot be measured by simple, straight-forward victories. The military campaign in 1991 was an astonishing success, but the war was left unfinished in the end. The UN mandate clearly called for the clearing of Iraqi forces inside Kuwait. Thus, “politics were to override military goals” and the final objective was never obtained. Furthermore, on the topic General Trainor states that, “Once we got back what we had lost [Kuwait], we became conservative and didn’t go for further gains [in example: regime change]”. However, the removal of Saddam by coalition forces could have been achieved even without the support of the UN mandate. The concern of the coalition falling apart and Arab forces not continuing the offensive to topple Saddam was unimportant, and the Arabs would have gone along with the United States. American military leaders should have been allowed to continue the
campaign all the way to Baghdad to topple Saddam from power in order to instate balance in the region instead of leaving the country in chaos. Machiavelli foreshadowed the American situation in the Gulf in a statement made in 1514 saying, “One must never allow disorder to continue so as to escape a war. One does not escape: The war is merely postponed to one’s disadvantage”. American policy makers simply did not understand that a final objective must be achieved in order to have complete victory. Hence, a little more than a decade later, the United States and her Allies would be forced to enter Iraq one more time. This time, there objective would be to topple the final objective: Saddam Hussein. However, it leaves us to wonder if the current situation in Iraq could have been avoided had American leaders sought a final and total solution to the Gulf War of 1991.

Endnotes
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The Personality Theories of Dr. Sigmund Freud and Dr. Carl Jung Applied to Vincent van Gogh

Mary C. Park
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When a person views the painting The Starry Night by Vincent van Gogh, they seem to instantly become enthralled into a world of mystery and fantasy. Viewing the stars swirling in the night sky produces a dizzying and euphoric effect. They then acknowledge this painting as one of the greatest masterpieces of modern art. The looming cypress in the painting can be found in southern France, while the elevated church steeple in the minute village situated at the foot of the mountain is a common scene from Holland. Van Gogh combined these two settings from memory and real life to intentionally create a lasting impression and to symbolize his deep religious feelings. The Starry Night is accredited as van Gogh’s most famous painting and was astonishingly completed while he resided in an asylum (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001).

Psychoanalytic theorists regard the visual arts as symbolic expressions of the unconscious. They interpret these symbols in terms of both personal and universal unconscious meanings. Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung would differ in their individual theories of the personality of Vincent van Gogh. However, they would both agree that his personality was strongly predisposed by unconscious determinants (Cloninger, 2004).

Vincent Willem van Gogh was born on March 30, 1853 to the Reverend and Mrs. Theodorus van Gogh of Brabant, Holland. He was named after their stillborn son born a year before. Freud would begin psychoanalyzing van Gogh, labeling him as pessimistic in the oral stage. Since his parents named him after their unborn son, he was ultimately doomed to live his entire life as an unsatisfactory replacement (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001). Van Gogh would be depicted as stubbor in Freud’s anal stage because he was never satisfied with anything. The phallic stage would define him as sad and isolated, creating the weak superego which would follow him the rest of his life.

He cared for his mom, but she favored the girls more than him after they were born. Anna Carbentus van Gogh came from an artistic background and was quite talented as well. She thought Vincent had a pleasant talent that might be useful someday but did not suspect that he would develop into a great artist. She even recalled him destroying two pieces of artwork he created as a child because she and her husband praised it more than his obstinate personality thought they should (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001). Freud would blame her for his personality. In his latency stage, van Gogh was forced to quit secondary school because of financial reasons. Vincent van Gogh’s childhood was full of traumatic events. He always seemed to fail at most of his tasks.
There was no evidence of relations with the opposite sex until he was twenty when he fell in love with the engaged daughter of his landlord. He later fell in love with his recently widowed cousin and stalked her for while. When he was twenty-five, he met a wealthy woman ten years his senior, and they quickly became engaged. Freud would claim Vincent unconsciously wished to seduce her mother from her father by this action (Cloninger, 2004). However, she poisoned herself the day before the wedding and was admitted to a hospital for a long-term recovery. After drawing for a while, he moved in with a prostitute who modeled for him. She and her children lived as a dysfunctional family with van Gogh for a short period of time. He could not support them, let alone himself, so he left. His weak superego produced the manic behavior which controlled all the events throughout the genital stage of his life.

Freud would claim that van Gogh’s intrapsychic conflict could be resolved by defense mechanisms. Vincent van Gogh possessed the defense mechanisms of denial, displacement, and isolation throughout his genital stage. He began a common cycle which would be the only consistent aspect of his life. He would leave home, travel, and find living arrangements and a job. He would excel at his work, but as soon as he made the slightest mistake, a different and horrifying personality would appear. He would then move to start all over again. Vincent would deny that he was ever in the wrong by displacing his problems on others. He would move back to his original home in Holland and then to Paris with his brother Theo on a number of occasions. Freud would characterize his adaptation and adjustment as unstable and suggest that he possessed cognitive distortions of his inability to complete simple tasks. Society viewed van Gogh as an ultimate failure. He was labeled as a loner in his earlier years, but once he became a man physically, he was an outcast. His previous failures, love losses, and his perspective on reality all caused him great anxiety. He was born biologically healthy, but his intense self-discipline system made him physically weak and unhealthy. Once he began drawing and painting, he lost the majority of his social skills. He focused on art and nothing else. He never held a real job once he started painting because he influenced his brother to give him money. His brother worked at a prestigious art gallery in Paris and had the means to support him. Vincent van Gogh eventually became a problem to his parents and community with his odd behavior, and he went on to live with his brother to pursue his artistic career in Paris.

Vincent van Gogh observed the new style of modern art in Paris and decided that in order to be successful he first had to transform his repulsive image. His brother helped him out by admitting him to a local art school. Two of the students he met there were Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec and Emile Bernard. He changed his colors from dull to bright. He combined short, aggressive brush strokes with pointillist and impressionist styles. Vincent loved the Paris nightlife and began partying with the other students. In his brother’s opinion, it was as if he had changed into a different person.

It was as if he had two persons in him---one marvelously gifted, delicate and tender, and the other egotistical and hardhearted. They present themselves in turn, so that one hears him talk one way, then in the other, and this always with arguments which they are now all for, all against at the same point. It is a pity that he is his own enemy, for he makes life hard not only for others, but for himself.

(Greenberg & Jordan, 2001)

Vincent moved shortly after having serious prob-
lems with his brother and continued with his life. Freud applied the term sublimation to most artists. Freud would claim Vincent began symbolically expressing his unfulfilled sexual motivation. His first series of art was composed of dark, gloomy paintings of peasants and landscapes. Through these, he expressed his desire to understand the less fortunate. An example of one of these paintings is *The Potato Eaters*. Then he went on to impressionism where he would produce images of the sadness in the world. He changed his style and began painting quicker because of his working conditions. For example, he was unable to spend ample time in the blistering cold so he would paint a fast impression (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001). His fourth series of work consisted of “The High Yellow Note.” He used mostly yellow tones along with his manic energy. He used the color yellow to express his deepest emotions. During this series, he produced his masterpiece *Vase with Sunflowers*. The flowers represented freshness. His meager living conditions took a toll on his overall health. He began having seizures and hallucinations. He even attempted to kill the person he was living with during one attack, and then went on to slice his earlobe off and give it to a woman at the bar. He had no recollection of these events. Van Gogh was hospitalized and then admitted himself to an asylum at the request of his family. He continued his paintings and produced the majority of them in the asylum. His painting *The Starry Night* symbolized his hate for organized religion. *Wheatfield with a Reaper* symbolized hopelessness and death. It consists of turbulent skies, crows flying wildly to the viewer, and a field of overripe wheat bisected by a road seeming to lead nowhere. The horizon seems to roll forward, as if the world is closing in with no escape (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001). Freud categorized this as Thanatos. He also painted *Red Vineyard* which was the only painting he ever sold during his lifetime. Vincent eventually left the asylum and moved in with a doctor who took care of him. His paintings continued to symbolize death. Vincent van Gogh became obsessed in feeling as if he was a burden to everyone and expressed a desire to die. He shot himself in the stomach and died two days later on June 29, 1890.

Carl Jung would have a different perspective on Vincent van Gogh’s personality than Freud. He would first categorize his overall individual difference as being an introvert. The majority of his life, he remained introverted, except for his time while living in Paris around the age of thirty. Jung would suggest that van Gogh never fully adapted to a mature, healthy lifestyle. He overused his ego and did not balance it with his superego. Whenever problems came in his life, he would always run, therefore, producing negative symbols. Jung would determine that van Gogh never developed rational thinking and concrete ideas. He carried a completely abstract and distorted perception of life. Society completely shunned him since he was a constant drifter. The cultures of Holland, France, Belgium and England did not merge during his time, and van Gogh did not stay in one place long enough to learn the culture. Society was also full of myths. The church in Arles wanted to extradite van Gogh back to where he came from because of his aloof personality. Vincent van Gogh had a very religious upbringing. He even aspired to preach at one point; however, he failed. His intense focus on religion forced him to later denounce organized religion as a whole.

Biologically, he inherited a healthy body and an average intelligence. The ways he led his life made him physically and mentally ill. Jung would not have based so much concern on van Gogh’s childhood. He would focus more on his individuation. Jung would ultimately claim that van Gogh’s personality developed due to changes during his adult years (Cloninger, 2004).

Jung focused more on his concept of the self when psychoanalyzing people. Vincent van Gogh rarely compensated for his conscious with his unconscious. Jung believed that consciousness is necessary for living, but it is not enough (Cloninger, 2004). Vincent denied his failure
and blamed other people for it. His own brother, who he mistreated, supported him and practically gave him a stable salary throughout his life. Jung would apply his transcendent function theory to van Gogh so he could account for all aspects of van Gogh’s life. Jung believed that van Gogh’s inability to accept unconscious tendencies creates his mental problems such as depression, anxiety, and hallucinations. Ego inflation was a trend overly practiced by van Gogh. This concept is not desirable in Jung’s opinion, and he felt it brought about negative consequences throughout van Gogh’s life. For example, he would become so focused on a particular task and ultimately starve himself from the basic necessities needed to survive. These restrictions caused him to be eccentric, groggy with piety, crazy, and desperately humiliated (Greenberg & Jordan, 2001). The world around him viewed him as having the persona of a crazy failure.

Jung would suggest that van Gogh had an underdeveloped anima. Vincent van Gogh was in no way chauvinistic but was not able to ever fully support himself. It would have been impossible for him to provide for a wife and children without a stable job and lifestyle. Jung may have thought that he would not be able to love and care for a child because he was so focused on himself. Vincent van Gogh, like all other people in the world, possessed a collective unconscious hidden deep in his mind. Jung would propose he possessed some archetypes. Vincent’s father represented Jung’s spiritual father. His father was an attractive preacher and came from a middle class family of educated preachers. Vincent’s mother symbolized Jung’s great mother. She represents positive and negative aspects of his life. She battled with Vincent’s unconventional ways sometimes, but she always unconsciously believed in her son’s future success. Vincent’s life was like Jung’s mandala symbol. His life went in repetitive cycles, but the final outcome was always unknown. Jung eventually would anticipate a more well rounded self. The collective unconscious had some negative aspects as well. Jung interpreted psychotic hallucinations as a direct express of the dangers of the collective unconscious. This aspect overwhelmed van Gogh to the point of epilepsy.

Vincent van Gogh fits precisely into Jung’s introverted psychetypes. He had his own style of introverted thinking and did not care what others thought of him. Vincent secluded himself from others due to his introverted feeling, but he did care about his family and those people that were less fortunate than him. Vincent possessed introverted sensations from the different experiences during times of his life. His introverted intuition allowed him to focus on possibilities, rather than reality—even if it was only for a brief period of time.

One would concur that Vincent van Gogh led an exceptionally unconventional life. Both Freud and Jung would differ some ways in their conduction of psychoanalysis. They both would observe that emotion was not consistent due to the lack of use of van Gogh’s unconscious. The two theorists would agree that he used painting to symbolize his oblivious desires. However, the imbalance between his ego and superego molded him into a lifestyle of irregular ways, endlessly causing problems to his surroundings. The overuse of his ego ultimately overwhelm him to the point of mental illness, causing him to take his own life.

References


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