We, the editors of the 2009 *Gold Star Journal*, are honored to dedicate this edition to the hard working men and women of the former Print Shop, which has sadly been lost in our current economic hardships. In previous years they were the unsung heroes and the capable backbone of each journal. Each year, we started our process by meeting with them to discuss the physical appearance of the journal. Throughout the design stages they would advise us on our layout. Finally they would publish a professional looking journal for us and our readers. They were involved in every step of the process, and our gratitude is immeasurable.

We dedicate this year’s journal to them, and we say thank you for all the excellent advice, time, energy, interest, and care that you gave us during the course of our relationship. Every member that worked at the Print Shop was incredibly kind and helpful, and we felt respected and welcomed even though we knew we were taking time away from their other work. To those of you who helped us, thank you again from the bottom of our hearts. In a sense, each journal has been a dedication to your hard work and kindness. In this edition, we wanted to take the opportunity to formalize our appreciation.

Many thanks to the following:

Roger D. Brownlee Sr.
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Raul Meadow
Kenneth J. Nimmich
Patricia A. Pate
Ann A. Pierpoint
Dianna Rich
Vernelle B. Rivers
About the Staff

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Leon Hontz is a senior from Atlanta, Georgia and is the F-troop Academic Officer. He is a Political Science and Spanish major, with a minor in East Asian Studies. Leon is a member of Sigma Delta Pi and Pi Sigma Alpha. He has received Dean’s List seven times and Gold Stars on three occasions. Upon graduation, Leon will be commissioned as a Second Lieutenant in the United States Air Force and will attend Intelligence Officer School in Goodfellow, Texas.

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Dr. Suzanne T. Mabrouk
Dr. Mabrouk has been teaching at The Citadel since 1993. She earned her A.B. in Chemistry with a minor in Mathematics in 1980 at Wheaton College, Norton, MA and her Ph.D. in Organic Chemistry in 1994 at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA. Her favorite Citadel activities include advising the editors of The Gold Star Journal and teaching organic chemistry. She enjoys working with wood on the lathe and scroll saw, making personal care products, and cooking.
A Letter From the Editors

We, the Editors, welcome you to the 2009 edition of The Gold Star Journal. Established in 1996, this will mark the 13th year of the journal, which was founded by Dr. Suzanne Mabrouk with the intention of showcasing the exemplary scholarly nonfiction works of the students at The Citadel. The Gold Star Journal continues in its purpose as a means to display these high quality works to an audience outside of the standard classroom environment.

In order to represent the diverse academic environment at The Citadel, The Gold Star Journal selects works based on a wide variety of topics stemming from several academic fields of study. This year’s Journal begins with The Importance of the Written Word by Martin Periola, an interesting glance into the modern vernacular and its function in modern society. The field of biology is well represented with the detailed study of opium in Poppy Paradise by Tyler Gardner, and Trey Williams’ A Brief History of Infectious Disease Control. The pieces Gender-Based Violence in Darfur: An Epidemic by Matthew Millard and The Current Status of Oil and Politics in Iraq by Ashley Petersen are sure to give some excellent insights into two critical forces in the modern political world. Frankie Dioguardi offers some keen observations into the disappearance of one of antiquities greatest wonders in Alexandria as a Cultural Center, and Nathan Otto explores the dangerous futures held within modern fiction in his work Dystopian Societies in Modern Literature. The essays published in The Gold Star Journal provide an interesting, informative, and diverse source of knowledge; the quality of these papers reflects the caliber of academic excellence that some cadets have allowed The Citadel to foster within them. We hope that you thoroughly enjoy this year’s selections as well as the included photographs that were taken by editors Tom Sullivan and Leon Hontz while abroad.

We, the editors of the 2009 Gold Star Journal, recognize that this publication would not be possible without the uncompromising support of several individuals and organizations across campus. Most importantly, we thank Dr. Suzanne Mabrouk for her unrivaled patience, unflinching dedication, and her persistence and determination that were the driving forces behind this year’s edition. We also thank The Citadel Foundation for providing the necessary funds, cadet Darron Raines for his stunning photograph that graces our cover, Mrs. Ruthi Ward, and Mr. Kevin Metzger. Finally, we thank the authors of the featured papers, whose exertions and rare insights exemplify the true purpose of this publication, to showcase the excellence in academic works generated at this institution.

Taylor David Gilliam

Leon Edward Hontz III

Thomas James Sullivan III

Charles Jerry Williams III
The Gold Star Journal
2009

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The Importance of the Written Word

Marttin E. Periola

Marttin is a sophomore English major from San Diego, CA. He is an active writer in the Brigadier, a poetry editor in the Shako (a literary magazine), and an active member in Toastmasters. He has been awarded a four year Army ROTC scholarship, William H. Hartzog Scholarship, and Dean’s List for two semesters.

An American immigrant from a Jewish ghetto of Austria, Felix Frankfurter, once said of the written word,

“All our work, our whole life is a matter of semantics, because words are the tools with which we work, the material out of which we work, the material out of which laws are made, out of which the Constitution was written. Everything depends on our understanding of them.”

The written word certainly made an impact in Mr. Frankfurter’s life who initially immigrated to the United States speaking not a trace of English but studied immensely and went on to Harvard Law School. He graduated with one of the best academic records from his 1906 class and, ultimately, served as Associate Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court for 23 years. This quote certainly serves as a key to understanding his success that good writing is an extremely important asset to have in the modern world. In today’s modern society where the preferred mode of communication is electronically-based such as cell phone texting, Instant Messenger, and e-mails, the art of writing is quickly facing its imminent extinction. The days of writing simple letters to friends and family are becoming rare. Communication is impersonal where the usual energetic greeting is reduced to the common text message of “Gr8 2 C U.” Where is the feeling of happiness in that? The electronic way of communication does not allow unique personal expression where spontaneity is the spice of life. Also, people’s writing is getting progressively worse as we move in to the 21st Century because the way that people write today reflects the way they communicate also. Since the vocabulary of modern society is littered with acronyms and slang words, many people struggle to write quality essays because they do not practice good writing habits in their daily lives. Thus, good writing nurtures excellent communication skills and opens a creative channel of personal expression.

In the military aspect of the Corps of Cadets, superb communication skills are extremely important. From a leader’s standpoint, good communication gets things rolling. It motivates, inspires, and gains trust in subordinates. No subordinate, be it a Squad Sergeant, Clerk, or Knob is going to trust in a Company Commander who bumbles and mumbles his words. Excellent writing skills will help with communication skills because it challenges the brain to group similar ideas into a thesis and pick supporting ideas to prove that thesis. Therefore, developing good habit of structuring ideas in this way will benefit one’s speaking. Clearly stating a main message then having support points could be easily understood by subordinates rather than stating ideas all over the place with the thesis.
being lost. The Sergeants would be turning to each other, snickering, saying, “What did he say?” or just completely ignore the Company Commander. Knowing that this could be one of the consequences of poor communication is horrifying especially in the real military when poor communication can result in failing to complete a mission. As a result, quality communication skills are very useful.

Spontaneity is the spice of life. Such an inspiring mantra, but do we apply this in our own lives? Sure it could be said that party-hopping or scoring with a beautiful Southern Belle could add excitement to a typically boring weekend. But, those are the aspects of life that are not of concern. How about giving a poem to someone that reaches one’s deepest affections? Or experiencing the sheer joy of reading a hand-written letter from a distant mother who lives in California? Writing opens avenues of personal creativity and expression that are definitely lost in typical e-mails and text messages. Often times, e-mails and text messages seem to be robotic and without any sort of emotional connection or feeling. Granted, in the professional and business world, e-mail is a medium for fast communication. However, as part of our everyday lives, hand-writing is an intimate form of communication that is not found in the common electronic form. For example, in Lord Byron’s poem “She Walks in Beauty” the first stanza amazingly captures how a woman would look to a man who is in love with her:

“She walks in beauty, like the night
Of cloudless climes and starry skies;
And all that’s best with dark and bright
Meet in her aspect and her eyes:
Thus mellow’d to that tender light
Which heaven to gaudy day denies.”

The language in the stanza itself is beautiful. Lord Byron compares the woman to being like a twinkling, starry night and her eyes to having heavenly light. The emotion contained in this little stanza could not be matched to the robotic expression of a typical text message such as “U R HOT!!” Thus, within Lord Byron’s poem, there is personal expression and personal connection all enveloped in this one stanza. Writing poems is one medium of expression. But still, the point is that writing can open a creative outlet and can serve as a means for personal connection.

Skilled writing is soon becoming a lost art, a fact which is highly alarming. Edgar Allen Poe once said, “I would define...the poetry of words as the rhythmical creation Beauty” which is absolutely true. In a world filled with acronyms and slang for communication, the beautiful act of communicative writing is dying out. Without developing skills in writing throughout one’s daily life, one does not benefit from the opportunities that come from effective communication and personal expression that are the fruits of skilled writing. If this generation and those to come cannot obtain these abilities, they could be lost in the static of modern communication for the rest of time.

Bibliography


The Human race has the ability to manipulate the surrounding habitat to better its chance for survival and diminish pain and suffering. In his ever changing and often perilous environment, man wishes to grasp something that remains constant. The effect of consuming substances or engaging in reoccurring activities often gives a conscious mind a sense of well-being, normality, or reassurance. None of man’s discoveries would have the positive yet potentially damaging consequences as opiates and their derivatives.

“Opiates are defined as any of the narcotic alkaloids found in opium and their derivatives” (6). Opium is derived from the seed pods of the opium poppy, and the first recorded usage over six thousand years ago is documented in Sumerian texts discovered in the cradle of civilization, Mesopotamia. The ancient Sumerians called opium “Hul Gil,” or the joy plant, for its pain relieving properties. The reported effects of this joy plant were next passed on to the Egyptians, where production and consumption were witnessed on a previously unimaginable scale under the rule of King Tutankhamen. From the Egyptians, the Greeks were soon to acquire this new-found pleasure and the spreading transpired throughout much of the ancient world until it seemed as if the sun never set upon cultivated poppy fields. The Macedonians, under the leadership of Alexander the Great, would further find uses for the opium poppy, both medicinal and recreational.

“Hippocrates was one of the first doctors to abolish the supernatural cure, and acknowledged opium as a useful narcotic for treatment of internal diseases, diseases of women, and epidemics”(1). Various military conquests led to many wounded soldiers, and the sedative properties of the opium plant were of great use for pain relief and recreationally as a morale lifter. The Greeks introduced opium to Persia and India, while simultaneously the Egyptians spread their renowned poppies to China through Arab merchants. The Chinese fascination with the drug led to claims of opium containing drinks as being “fit for Buddha.” In 1020 A.D, Avicenna of Persia quotes “opium as the most powerful of stupe facients,”(1), clearly for opium’s unsurpassed medicinal effects (1). For nearly two centuries, opium use disappears from European record and much of this can be attributed to the Holy Inquisition and its reference to anything associated with the East as being linked to the devil. Around 1500 A.D, Portuguese traders become the first to deviate from traditional oral consumption and shift towards the more infamous technique of smoking opium. At the height of the reformation, Paracelsus referred to his opium-containing black pills as “stones of immortality.” In 1601, Elizabeth the 1st sent ships to acquire the finest Indian opium to be transported back to England, and shortly after, opium became the number one commodity in British trades with China. Englishman Thomas
Sydenham’s laudanum was a combination of opium, sherry, herbs, and wine, and it became a popular medicinal remedy for numerous ailments. By the 17th century, opium was being exported to England from China at an alarming two-thousand chests per year. The scientific community continued to document opium’s medicinal uses, and Linnaeus became the first person to classify the plant as Papaver somniferum in Genera Plantarum circa 1753. The scientific method and the rapid emergence of technology would soon lead to new derivatives of the plant and potency on a far greater scale.

Opium’s reputation as being the greatest pain reliever ever observed, sparked the interest of drug companies and the scientists they employed to find better and more effective ways of harnessing the plant’s powers. In 1802, Puderborn, Germany witnessed the creation of the first opium alkaloid derivative when Friedrich Sertüner isolated Principalium somniferum, termed morphine. Believing that opium had been tamed and perfected, morphine was referred to as “God’s own medicine.” Morphine is the most abundant alkaloid in the opium seedpod and constitutes approximately 15 percent of the total mass. This led to an increased demand for the new wonder drug, and the Merck Company of Darmstadt, Germany began the first commercial manufacturing of morphine. In 1843, Dr. Alexander Wood carried out the first intravenous injection and noted that this method of delivery was approximately ten times as potent when compared to ingestion. A new derivative was synthesized in 1874 by Englishman C.R. Wright; diacetylmorphine, or heroin as it is commonly called, was found to be three times more potent than morphine. “Heroin comes from the German word for power, heroisch, or heroic, and its substitute methadone, originally named dolophine comes from the Latin word dolor, meaning “pain” and fin meaning “end”. Alas, the “end of pain” had arrived”(5). Heroin is the most fast-acting of all opiates, and when injected it reaches the brain in approximately twenty seconds. Heroin mimics the action of natural chemicals, endorphins, produced in the response to pain and for this reason has the analgesic effects. This alkaloid derivative released by Bayer in 1898 would become the best selling drug of all time. The extreme relief delivered by heroin however was not the only effect witnessed by its users. The term “junkie” was derived from addicts who stole junk metal to support their cravings for the drug. The internal struggle of the junkies would not be the only problem arising from opiate use, and reformation would soon lead to conflict.

Increased Chinese export of opium led to problems arising at home with addiction, and 1729 marked the first prohibition on the sale and smoking of opium without a medical license. In 1799 emperor Kia King banned opium completely, and this enraged the largest opium importer, the British East India Company. “Following demands from the Chinese commissioner for foreign traders to surrender their opium supplies, the British sent warships off the coast of China, starting the first of three Opium Wars and concluding with China’s defeat in 1841”(4). In 1878, Britain passed the Opium Act which limited usage to medicinal use only. In America, attention was being brought to the opiate trade as well, and in 1890 the U.S. government installed the earliest law-enforcement legislation on narcotics, taxes on opium and morphine. The Year 1905 marked the complete banning of opium by the U.S. Congress, and several drug regulations soon followed. The
Harrison Narcotic Act of 1914 required doctors who prescribed narcotics to be registered and pay a tax. The first drug agency, the U.S. Treasury Department narcotics division, was founded in 1923, and a black market of trading and selling stemmed from these pressures. World conflict and specifically the war in Vietnam saw new delivery methods that were faster and less noticeable to agencies. In response to large numbers of drug abusers nationwide and this being viewed as a societal threat, President Nixon founded the Drug Enforcement Administration (D.E.A.) in 1973. The local assault on the U.S. opiate market would be carried over to foreign policy in the decades to come.

Conflict in the Middle-East cannot only be attributed to terrorism, but drug trafficking as well. "Disasters attract attention...The global expansion of drug trafficking, the controversy and cost of drug wars, and decline of American inner cities have all contributed to a growing interest in drug history and policy"(3). Afghanistan has been the world leader in opium poppy production for that last several decades, with up to ninety percent of total opium stores coming from the country. This was locally fought by Taliban leaders for the last ten years, but U.S. removal of the Taliban regime has lead to a surge in production again. The void left in the opium market was soon to be filled by two emerging dope-supplying countries. The most recent street terminology for this conflict classifies the two new strains of heroin as being “Mexican mud” or “China white.” These sites of production are likely to be the new battlegrounds for the war on drugs.

The impact of opiates and their derivatives permeates economic, religious, cultural, and national boundaries. From internal addiction to national budgets, the repercussions of opium and its alkaloids have far exceeded the early proponents of “God’s own medicine.” Although problematic, the powerful medicinal effects of opiates and their derivatives remain unique in their anti-anxiety, antidepressant, and pain relieving qualities.

Bibliography


Gender-Based Violence in Darfur: An Epidemic

Matthew C. Millard
Matthew is a political science and English major. He is from Guntersville, AL. He is not only Papa company commander but also PB honor representative. He has received Dean’s List seven times and Gold Stars three times. He is a member of Phi Sigma Alpha, Phi Kappa Phi, and writes for The Brigadier.

Overview

Gender-based violence (GBV) is of particular concern to the world community. In conflict zones such as the Darfur region of Sudan, it is at epidemic levels. Though it may initially appear to be an easy problem to grasp, the underlying causes, initiatives, and changing scope of the matter are far from being simple matters of rape or abuse. The nature of rape and other violence perpetrated against women in Sudan is continually shifting as the conflict transforms with internal dynamics. Though normally used elsewhere on the level of singular male dominance, it is quickly becoming a weapon of war against an entire people. Refugees International says “rape is an integral part of the pattern of violence that the government of Sudan is inflicting upon targeted ethnic groups in Darfur.” There are numerous issues that are associated with the current problem. Issues include the nature of women in Sudanese societies and groups, incongruencies in law, the actions of the global community, and addressing the situation as it is developing. With such a vast problem, many solutions are required to remedy the problem at both the macro and micro levels.

Defining Gender-Based Violence

Knowing the internationally accepted definition of violence perpetrated against women is vital to understanding the normative values of the world community. One must also, however, understand the definition of such acts within Sudan itself, in order to understand the shear importance of such violent acts.

Created by the United Nations, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee defines GBV as “an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person’s will, and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females.” Given the nature of this definition and the presence of the word “umbrella,” this standard is very broad. It leaves much wiggle room for nations around the world to define the role of women. Gender-based violence can be anything from rape to sexual harassment and assault to trafficking to forced prostitution. But recognition of an international norm is essential to establishing a cohesive effort of a multi-national force in Darfur.

Perhaps a more concise definition of sexual violence may be found from the World Health Organization, which defines it as “any act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic women’s sexuality, using coercion, threats of harm or physical force, by any person regardless of relationship to the victim, in any setting, included but not limited to home and work.” This definition covers many of the varying aspects of abuse the women can and
do endure. It covers trafficking, physical acts, and threats of abuse. This comes with the understanding that violence against women occurs in many different forms.

Sudanese customs and law currently preclude any internationally recognized standards for the treatment of women in Darfur. The internal division of the Sudanese people into different ethnic groups inhibits a universally-accepted definition of sexual violence. The black/Arab population is just one macro manner of defining the situation, with 52% being black and 39% being Arab. Under Sudanese law in The Criminal Act of 1991, rape has occurred when someone “makes sexual intercourse, by way of adultery, or sodomy, with any person without his consent.” Though it appears to be a concise definition, there are many aspects which leave it wanting in its protection of women. Namely, the requirements to meet this definition are an enormous burden. There are other such charges that are also found in Sudanese penal law, such as sodomy, indecent and immoral acts, and adultery. Adultery is an offense punishable by whipping or stoning in Sudan. Where the offender is married, the punishment is death, whereas it is 100 lashes if unmarried. This criminalization of adultery complicates the prosecution and investigation of rape accusations in Sudan.

The ultimate issue at hand regarding the law is the imposition of sharia, or Islamic holy law, on individuals. The government of Sudan is devoutly Islamic in nature, though not all of its residents practice Islam. Even within Islam, there is some belief that the standards of sharia should not be imposed, as it often is. For instance, Zeniab Osman al-Hussain wrote from Cairo on Sudanese women that “women's international rights and freedoms are consonant with the holy teachings and the religious values that require women’s equality with men.” The stance of the Sudanese government is the frequent source of much of the problem. It is often at the micro level, with judges or police officers, that sharia is imposed, not at the national level.

The Extent of the Problem

The extent of the problem in Darfur is immense, with millions of displaced people and years of war compounding the situation at many different levels. Some may argue that sexual violence is just part of the chaos of war. According to Kathleen Cravero, Assistant Administrator of the UNDP and Director of the Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery, violence against women is a security problem, especially when “it is a method of war, a tactic to humiliate communities and prevent their recovery.” The numerical aspect of the ongoing violence is difficult to obtain because the government “practice(s)... harassing and even detaining members of organizations that try to report such statistics.” Furthermore, due to the nature of events in Darfur and the refusal to enforce laws, “for every rape that is reported, as many as 10 to 20 may go unreported.” This is an overwhelming number of cases that have not even been addressed. Underreporting is an issue directly related to the intimidation and mistrust factor. It will take specific steps to ensure that such violence is actually reported. Those groups most often targeted are from the Fur, Zaghawa, Masalit, Berti, Tunjur, and other non-Arab tribes. These groups do not hold political power and find it difficult to obtain advocacy when reporting GBV or other crimes.

Rape as a Weapon

Rape is used as a weapon of violence in Sudan. The UN International Commission of Inquiry claims the Sudanese government
uses Janjaweed and its military apparatus “as a deliberate strategy with the aim of terrorizing the population, ensuring control of the movement of the IDP population and perpetuating its displacement.” ICC prosecutor Moreno-Ocampo “hinted he could prove that the highest levels of the Sudanese government deployed the entire state apparatus to attack civilians.” Furthermore, “during the rapes, perpetrators not only beat their victims, they also taunt them with racial slurs and statements related to rape, such as ‘I will give you a light-skinned baby to take this land from you.’” It is obvious these acts are no “ordinary” or isolated crimes of rape.

The changing nature of the conflict in Darfur has caused the nature of rape to become significantly altered from its initial conception. Refugees International characterizes the activity as occurring in two phases since the initial hostilities began in 2003. In the first phase:

Rapes were part of the pattern of attacks on villages by the Sudanese military and Janjaweed. After a village was bombed and shelled, the government forces entered the villages and separated women and girls from the males. The women and girls were then gang raped and subjected to brutal physical and verbal abuse.

The International Criminal Court has begun investigating the brutal acts that have occurred in Darfur. Chaired by Luis Moreno-Ocampo, the investigation team and court have already handed down indictments and arrest warrants. One of those individuals is Ahmad Harun. According to Moreno-Ocampo, the first-phase was coordinated by Ahmad Harun. Harun was the Sudanese Minister of State for the Interior and is now the Minister of State for Humanitarian Affairs. This is the ministry tasked with helping displaced persons. It is one of the terrible ironies of the situations in Darfur that this man is charged with helping them. He has yet to be turned over to the ICC for trial.

This initial “standardization” in technique became outdated, however, as more people became displaced and moved into internally displaced persons (IDP) camps. Then began phase two. In an effort to keep their male family members from being killed, women and girls venture outside IDP camps in an attempt to make money, gather firewood, water, or do other necessary chores. As a result, many of these women are systematically raped or violated in other ways. Even within the confines of some IDP camps, individuals are raped at an alarming rate.

**Cases of GBV**

Characteristic of phase I, the attacks initiated on February 8, 2008, only illustrate the involvement of the government and Janjaweed militias in the crimes committed in Darfur. These numerous attacks were carried out in a similar fashion, with aerial support (most likely government), ground troops, and Janjaweed militia.

In Abu Suruj, aircraft falsely painted in UN colors and symbols over flew the town. This was followed by the insertion of Janjaweed militia into the town, accompanied by government troops in green and gray vehicles. Most of the women were allowed to take their children and some necessities as men were killed.
Though it is unclear if there was any sexual violence that occurred in this instance, it shows strong proof of an alliance between government forces and Janjaweed militia.

In an almost carbon-copy attack on the village of Sirba, the “UN reported that the attackers raped at least 10 women and girls.”

This initial phase one style attack was also accompanied by looting and burning. Many men who are of military age were also shot. This is characteristic of many attacks in Darfur. In these “raids” on villages, rape often accompanies other crimes, such as looting and murder. This shows a concerted effort and willingness to wage war on civilians and of escalating violence. While other crimes were committed, rape occurred in conjunction with it.

In Silea, an attack happened on the same day as in Abu Suruj and Sirba. Human Rights Watch even claims that here “many of the reported attacks took place during robberies by soldiers or militia.”

One witness claims that militia came into her home and shot her, killing the baby she carried, because she resisted. She was then told to leave and take nothing. In a later incident, two government soldiers are accused of raping an 11 year old girl after she returned to retrieve some possessions.

These attacks were followed by three days of fighting around Jebel Munn. The recent attacks of this past February only highlight the situation as it is occurring in Darfur. According to Human Rights Watch, “there was no apparent rebel military presence in any of the towns that came under direct government attack” (except Jebel Mun).

These attacks, then, were a coordinated assault against civilian population centers.

Perhaps one of the most well-documented cases occurred in the Abu Sakin region of Northern Darfur. Human Rights Watch claims that government soldiers and Janjaweed based in Um Sayalah “abducted eight women and girls, brutally raped at least three, and forced them to walk back to their village naked.”

Cases in the second phase have been targeted around IDP camps, where hundreds of thousands of women are left virtually unprotected. The common method is “small groups of armed men, often in military uniforms, intercept the women and girls in isolated areas, insult them by calling them “slaves”... and beat them with whips, sticks, gun butts, or their hands, and then rape them.”

In one UN cited example, a militiaman stopped two women from the Fur tribe and asked what tribe they were from. He then took one at gunpoint, forced the others to leave and brutally raped her.

In another attack in December 2007, a man of Arab descent lured two girls into the woods on the pretext of helping them find their lost donkey. He then raped one of the girls as the other returned to the camp.

In an attempt to quell the number of attacks, the AU has established “firewood patrols” to accompany the women as they leave the camp and provide security for them. In one camp, however, there was a marked increase in the number of attacks on individuals on the days that the AU did not provide security for those women who left the safety of the camps.

In most instances, the attackers cite the woman’s (or girl’s) skin color or ethnic group. In the two cases above, the ethnicity of the victims were established. In another
documented rape incident, an Arab told a woman “you black people are not allowed to take wood from here” just prior to his raping her.\textsuperscript{32} In another incident, the justification was “we stopped all the Massalit from coming to this area. How come you dared to venture out this way?”\textsuperscript{33} It is quite obvious, even to the casual observer, that such acts of violence perpetrated against women are used as a weapon of war to control the groups they wish to oppress. An observer in an IDP camp has made the assertion that “in this society, if you rape one woman, you have raped the entire tribe.”\textsuperscript{34} This provides enormous psychological damage to the individual, family, village, ethnic groups, and society. In one town alone (Kabkabiya), there were “10 cases of rape and sexual assault in September 2007.”\textsuperscript{35}

The government/Janjaweed factor is not the only group that has confronted the women of Darfur. Women have also been subject to attacks from former rebel groups who were made legitimate with the peace in southern Sudan. These have occurred while women were outside IDP camps or traveling.\textsuperscript{36} Many of these are SLA (Sudanese Liberation Army) rebels who attack ethnic groups that associate with opposing alliances.\textsuperscript{37}

Another area of concern has been “homegrown” in the IDP camps. Sexual violence has increased even amongst those groups who are being targeted. These have occurred “with the infiltration of armed men and weapons” into the camps.\textsuperscript{39} This domestic violence may be attributable to the dissolution of traditional social values and norms for the various ethnic groups. Translated, this may be yet another “symptom of war” on the weary Darfuri people.

Compounding the problem of assault from government and Janjaweed militia are the attacks by UN or AU peacekeeping personnel. This is a serious matter that requires immediate and swift action. These troops are placed in the region with a specific mandate and task and to violate the trust of the Darfuri people severely hampers their credibility and ability to assist those in need. Overall, the Secretary-General reported that some 29 cases of misconduct were reported in 2007 for peacekeepers who acted inappropriately.\textsuperscript{40} These cases were subsequently handed over to the Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS) for the necessary actions to be taken.

**Incongruencies with Law and Enforcement**

“Police are part of the problem.” -statement of survivor of attempted rape\textsuperscript{41}

Key to justice anywhere are clear laws and investigative practices and standards that allow for the uniform enforcement of a state’s laws. Moreno-Ocampo characterizes the current situation in Darfur as a “crime scene,”\textsuperscript{42} partially due to these factors. It is vital knowledge to anyone working with victims of gender-based violence to understand the laws, policing principles, and the justice system.

Sharia, or Islamic holy law, is in force in much of Sudan. This is often relevant in the decision-making process for a rape victim and whether or not they will report the rape to police. Though not mandated by aw, the high standards used to prove sharia are often imposed at lower levels.

An illustration of the culture of the Sudanese government may be found in their 2003-2004 policy to obtain proper attire for university girls.\textsuperscript{43} The government allocated
many resources to procure the acceptable garments from China, spending some 5.5 million dinars for 300,000 pieces of the garment. The government then charged 1500 to 5000 dinars for the women to purchase the garment, which was compulsory. This was much more than the average Sudanese woman was able to afford.

Another example of Islam weaved into the decision-making fabric of Khartoum is the issue of female circumcision. The president of Sudan, Omar al-Bashir, “criticized the calling for the prevention of female circumcision.” This painful practice is largely condemned throughout the world as a brutal practice of domination over women.

Those who oppose the current interpretation the government has of sharia are proponents of the rule of law. Zeniab Osman al-Husain, who wrote the Charter for the Sudanese Women in the 1990’s, says “the laws of Sudan must be cleared of all forms of discrimination against the women’s rights and legitimate freedoms.”

Worthy of noting is the composition of IDP camps. Most people in IDP camps are from rural areas, with “little or no education.” Noting this, many of those from villages are taken advantage of in the judicial system. For instance, participants at a CEDAW workshop in Cairo noted some congruencies between Sudanese law and CEDAW directives. The problem is that much of this equality takes place in cities, not rural villages. In fact, in rural culture “men control everything, especially in the villages due to the women’s lack of awareness. To assist the women, continuous efforts must concentrate on women’s education, awareness campaigns, and development.”

The fact is that there exists a fundamental difference in the application of laws, often favoring certain ethnicities, the rural/municipal divide, and the male population. For instance, under sharia, four males are required as witnesses for an accusation of rape to be considered. Though Sudan officially uses the common law model, there is often a fundamental flaw in the justice system: inexperienced judges often impose the requirements of sharia, not the penal code, to cases of rape. The Islamic crime of zina, or adultery, requires swift punishment under part XV of The Criminal Act of 1991. Zina is often defined as adultery in courts where four credible male eye witnesses do not exist to a crime of rape. In actuality, it is engaging in intercourse outside of marriage. This represents a failure of the Sudanese judiciary and other government entities to present a clear distinction between rape and adultery. As a result, some Sudanese women have been tried for adultery when they accuse a man of raping them. For instance, “on February 13, 2007, a court sentenced a twenty-two year old Darfuri woman to death by stoning for committing adultery.” Less than a month later, another woman was sentenced to death for the same “crime.” Many Sudanese judges, however, have called for reforming the rape laws of Sudan, in order to make justice more attainable.

Other options exist, such as charging the individual accused of rape with a lesser crime, such as gross indecency or immoral acts, under Section 15 of The Criminal Act of 1991. This amounts to being a “slap on the wrist” to offenders who brutally attack women and are executing a policy of the state.
The issue of inexperienced judges is also of grave concern. Many do not understand gender-based violence and the special circumstances it entails. Furthermore, “judges decide rape cases along their own biases, sometimes judging a woman based on the way she is dressed.”

It is important to note, however, that most accusations of rape do not make it as far as the judicial system. In fact, the Sudanese Ministry of Justice reported that only 20 cases of rape had been tried in Darfur in 2007. The numbers for 2006 were even less impressive: 10 cases in 2006, resulting in seven convictions, one dismissal, and three still pending. Many are stopped before they can make it past the reporting or investigation phase. Taking into consideration the enormous burden to prove that the crime of rape has occurred, women “fear the consequences of reporting their cases to the authorities and lack the resources needed to prosecute their attackers.”

A major issue is the lack of police presence in rural areas and in IDP camps. Police are available, like the AU troops who accompany women on “firewood patrols,” in only limited numbers. Furthermore, women expose themselves to more sexual violence when they venture to police stations to file reports of rape. The sheer enormity of rape cases and other acts of violence inhibits those officers who actually investigate allegations of rape. In most cases, police fail to properly investigate or even initiate investigations into accusations of rape. In a Human Rights Watch report, it has been noted that often police will not register cases unless they are disclosed within 24 hours (of which no such statute exists).

Harmful investigative practices are inextricably tied to the law and inexperience of investigators. Article 48(I)(c) of the Criminal Procedure Act of 1991 is supposed to standardize police investigative procedures for serious crimes. One problematic area has been the issues related to filling out “form 8,” which is required for any persons filing a police report for a violent crime. Sudanese law required a form 8 to be completed with police prior to seeing a doctor about the rape. Doctors who did otherwise could face severe penalties, including imprisonment. As a result, “doctors are scared to mention... that a woman’s injuries are consistent with rape because we have no protection from National Security.”

In an effort to address the outcry over form 8, the Minister of Justice refined procedure for investigating rape, permitting medical attention to be received first. If the victim wishes to pursue recourse for the offending party, she must still file a form 8. If, however, a rape prosecution does not begin within three years, the allegation is dropped. Accusations have also been made that most police do not assist victims in filling out the form, which can be complicated to someone who is unaccustomed to the form, is a recent victim of rape, or is illiterate. This represents a fundamental failure in policing practices and sensitivity to women who have been victims of GBV.

Individuals have also been highly critical of the information contained on form 8. The document only contains information such as “a recent loss of virginity, bleeding, or presence of sperm and it does not provide for a comprehensive medical report.” Furthermore, forensic evidence such as DNA testing is available only in Khartoum. Even as
such, DNA testing is very expensive and with the limited number of police officers, such procedures would prove expensive and time consuming (that is, to say, if police wanted to pursue the investigation.)

Another issue involving medical care is that it is unclear if a “physician may legally provide emergency contraception or terminate a pregnancy for a rape victim.”\(^{77}\) Clarification needs to be made on this topic, as most women who are victims of rape are often confused and must know where the law stands on this issue.

Policing practices in Darfur are, at best, an ill attempt to conduct a thorough investigation. Blatantly put, “policing failures relate to a lack of resources.”\(^{78}\) The police in Darfur, outnumbered as it is, do not have basic equipment such as “vehicles, telephones, paper, (and) pens.”\(^{79}\) Conducting a serious investigation of any crime is a near impossibility, even more difficult if the government itself is involved or is indifferent to what is transgressing in a war-torn region.

Another prevalent topic regarding the investigation of GBV is the issue of military personnel involved in the sexual violence activity. It is often difficult, if not impossible, to investigate or prosecute those members of the military who are accused of rape. In Article 3 of the National Security Forces Act (1998) “no civil or criminal proceedings shall be instituted against a member or collaborator for any act connected with the official work of the [National Security] member, save upon approval of the director.”\(^{80}\) The same is also true for police officers, which is spelled out in a similar fashion.

After much outcry, this law was amended by presidential decree that an investigation could proceed against military or security personnel if the permission of their commanding officer was first obtained.\(^{81}\) It is unlikely, however, that any commander would be willing to permit an external investigation of one of his men, if the investigator even pursues an accusation. If it is true that such violence against women is state policy, then it is most likely that commanders will take orders from higher to not permit an investigation or would stonewall any actions.

There have been several changes in prosecutorial and investigative standards in Sudan by the government. Whether or not most of these changes represent the façade of change is up to dispute. Despite all of the efforts of Khartoum, Human Rights Watch maintains “the government has not yet made serious efforts to deter or stop soldiers or militia forces from committing sexual violence or ensuring accountability for those who do.”\(^{82}\)

One change has been a government program entitled the National Action Plan on Combating Violence against Women, with oversight from a special unit within the Ministry of Justice called the Unit to Combat Violence against Women and Children.\(^{83}\) Human Rights Watch and Refugees International have labeled both of these efforts as superficial and not addressing relevant issues in the protection of women from gender-based violence. There has not been “serious efforts to deter or stop soldiers or militia forces from committing sexual violence or ensuring accountability for those who do.”\(^{84}\)

Humanitarian organizations have also been continually assaulted in Darfur. As mentioned earlier, Ahmad Harun is now Minister of State for Humanitarian Affairs, the governmental organization that regulates humanitarian efforts in the whole of Sudan. With his indictment for 51 counts of war crimes, there has been a serious blow to the
credibility of the agency he heads, which has a virtual monopoly on assisting the people of Darfur. His ministry, along with other government agencies and the military, has continually barred the assistance the international community has sought to give Darfur.

The Humanitarian Aid Commission has been able to severely limit the amount of good that NGOs can perform. For instance, new legislation keeps many NGOs from receiving funds by outright denying them permission to receive funds. It has also been reported that the government has “dispatch(ed) government-affiliated individuals and organizations to attend these meetings to influence their policies and report to the HAC,” including policies regarding rape.

In fact, the government can even completely shut down NGOs that continue to be a problem to them.

The UN has continually been affecting what is happening in Darfur and has provided the lifeline between the international community and the war-torn region of Darfur. With advent of new mandates, UN peacekeeping forces have had a large impact on the course of events (even though problems persist about troop strengths.)

At issue have been accusations of abuses by peacekeeping forces, especially against women. In response to 29 allegations of misconduct, two cases were reviewed by the Office of Internal Oversight for 2006. In an attempt to curb misconduct, “newly deployed civilian staff, military observers, and police personnel received briefings on United Nations policy of zero tolerance for sexual exploitation and abuse.” Even amid these efforts, accusations arose over sexual exploitation at UNMIS personnel in Juba.

Regarding these accusations, UN protocol was updated in resolution 61/1291 that contributing countries are responsible for jurisdiction over their forces/personnel who commit any acts which are illegal, including the UN’s zero-tolerance policy on rape and GBV.

What to do: Managing the Problem in Darfur

The president of Sudan went on international television in March 2007 and refuted thousands of accusations of rape by saying “it doesn’t exist.” When the leader of a nation says such a bold statement as this, yet has recently created bureaus to deal with such problems, there is certainly denial of what is occurring in Darfur. Little will change in Darfur until the Sudanese government accepts what is happening there as fact and adheres to international action. By stemming the curb of GBV, holding others accountable, putting in place helpful measures, and educating people about GBV, such ends will be met much more quickly. Taking all of these factors into consideration, the enormity of the problem facing peacekeeping forces is an immense load to bear.

One of the top priorities in Darfur right now is the police force and their procedures. Based on available data, the police are completely overwhelmed by the sheer volume of cases reported. Not having the essential policing equipment or skills necessary will inhibit the quality of justice in Darfur. In order to combat the problem, police forces must “allocate sufficient resources” to address
the problem of GBV. Without the equipment to address the problem, one can not focus on the issues at hand.

Kathleen Cravero also offers an interesting idea: offer incentives for police and peacekeeping forces who address the issue of GBV/rape while deployed in Darfur. Such incentives can come down through the direct chain of command, both at the macro or micro scale. Individual unit commanders can offer a myriad of incentives, or official, standardized policy can become established at the top of the mission for recognition of those who address GBV. This policy would mirror current actions often taken up in the business community.

Cravero also mentions that increased action is needed by special units specifically geared to combat GBV. This unit should focus solely on addressing issues around GBV and would be better prepared to combat the problem. With experience, these units would be able to establish patterns, know how to best deal with victims, properly investigate, and coordinate with government and NGO organizations. Coordination is often a problem in any situation or profession, and by having a specialized unit that confronts GBV, police would be able to better network with their counterparts.

Perhaps one of the most innovative solutions to addressing the problem is a large number of female police officers. This would provide many solutions to persistent problems. These women should be properly schooled as to the current situation in Darfur and the culture of the people who are often targets of the abuse. Primarily, a large number of female officers would be more likely to address the issue of GBV for what it is: a weapon of war and a scare tactic. The presence of women would also encourage more women to come forward with accusations of rape. This is vital to reaching a solution in Darfur. If victims do not come forward, then nothing can be done to stop the problem. Furthermore, the appearance of women in an authority position may help to bring attention to the issue in the international community.

Proper investigative techniques are also essential. Knowing the law (or adhering to it) has appeared to be the problem with many of the Sudanese police officers in Darfur. Proper training should address the procedures for investigating GBV and the special issues that surround it, especially rape. Preservation of evidence is crucial, particularly medical evidence. Though some accused rapists may claim a woman committed adultery and was not raped, they would have a difficult time refuting evidence that is well-gathered. For instance, officers should note (and record) any bruising or other evidence of forcible rape.

Of utmost importance is gender-based sensitivity training to all involved in peacekeeping. With these mechanisms in place, early warning may be achieved to help predict patterns of GBV and to stem the tide. Understanding the cultural norms of the different groups, notably the Fur, Zaghawa, Masalit, Berti, and Tunjur tribes is essential to success of the mission.

Handling victims of sexual violence requires certain skills. Being polite and helpful to individuals or even being able to talk to them in their own language can go a long way towards establishing trust. It has been noted that some AMIS staff members did not treat victims well and would visit them at inappropriate times and places.

Coordinating involvement of locals in IDP camps and in villages is also an essential
element of success in the mission. If police and peacekeepers network with those who have been victims of GBV or community leaders, they are more likely to be able to address the relevant issues. Networking is a crucial skill that civilians, police, and peacekeepers must obtain while deployed.

Also crucial to the prevention of GBV is an increase in “firewood patrols” around IDP camps. As mentioned earlier, government and Janjaweed troops attack more fiercely on days that AU troops did not provide patrols. An increase in these patrols and setting times to coordinate with displaced people are of paramount concern. This is an issue which must be conceived at the operational level, whereby the patrols can become more effective. Rotating the patrols amongst the peacekeepers is vital, too, so that more patrols may be completed. Some organizations claimed that AU troops did not coordinate with the persons inside camps or with NGOs, nor did they conduct sufficient route planning.

Important to ensuring that women in Darfur have a stake in their future is preparing them with skills necessary to continue living once peace has returned to Darfur. These can include basic domestic tasks or more advanced training. Such training could include “leadership, management, finance, land tenure, communication, peace and security to promote their entry into state institutions.” This training/interaction could involve leaders in the community or larger groups, if applicable.

Though the problems that face women in Darfur are far reaching, they can be overcome with implementation of meaningful change. Gender-based violence is never an easy task to fix, especially where it is used on a grand scale as a weapon of war. The efforts put forth by a combined scope of military, police, and civilian personnel can significantly alter the course of events in this war torn land. Learning from the mistakes of the AU, the Sudanese government, and the culture of those groups targeted will improve the situation for the next generation of women in Darfur.

Footnotes

2. Ibid, 19.
3 Ibid.
6 Ibid, 17
2007.  2.
20 Ibid.
21 Ibid, p 3.
23 Ibid.
24 Ibid.
30 Ibid.
38 Ibid, p 5.
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45 Ibid.
46 Ibid, 7.
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69 Ibid.
70 Ibid, 6.
71 Ibid, 5.
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73 Ibid, 8.
76 Ibid.
77 Ibid, 6.
79 Ibid.
81 Ibid.
83 Ibid, 1.
84 Ibid, 2.
86 Ibid.
87 Ibid.
89 Ibid.
90 Ibid.
93 Ibid, 15.
95 Ibid.
The Egyptian city Alexandria’s significance in world history is as the city where Greek, Muslim, and Egyptian cultures met and blended to form one of the first true centers of culture and learning. Jewish, Egyptian, and Greek cultures blended with perfection to produce the epitome of Hellenism. Picture the city in all of its marvels: the architecture, the bustling and chaotic markets, and the jewel of the portside city, the library. Packed with nearly a million ancient scrolls of various subjects, the wonder of this apex of intellectual advancement is obvious; less clear are the reasons for its mysterious disappearance. In fact, the sudden vanishing of this massive library has links to Julius Caesar, Aurelian, and a possible Muslim invasion. It is truly a marvelous and puzzling subject to delve into, especially as it occurred at the verge of this behemoth city’s golden age (305-246 B.C.E.) (Forster 26).

Alexander the Great began building his empire with the conquest of Persia and soon moved his mercenaries south to Egypt, liberating the once Persian-ruled kingdom in 332-331 B.C.E. Welcomed freely there, the city that is now known as Alexandria was created. Its importance as an invaluable trade port was recognized immediately and Alexandria grew at an extremely rapid rate. Alexander the Great, even with his intellectual abilities, trusted the urban design of the main portions of the city to Dinocrates, a Greek architect and a close friend. After the immediate construction of his city, Alexander left for further conquest in the east, never to return alive (Forster 48).

Due to its designated purpose as the main intermediate between Greece and Egypt, the city grew very rapidly. Within a century of its construction it grew larger than Carthage, and a few centuries later it was the largest city in the world, second only to Rome. Its coastal location attracted fisherman and pirates, which in turn brought wealth quickly to the Nile River Delta. Alexander’s death presented a succession problem that was ultimately solved by the splitting of his empire into separate parts, with Ptolemy chosen to lead Egypt and Alexandria. This, in the year 305 B.C.E., marked the beginning of the Ptolemaic Dynasty that would last until the end of the reign of Cleopatra VII in 30 B.C.E., and began the golden age of Alexandria. With the uprising of the Hellenistic period came the rush of culture into the city. As with all cases, people, once civilized, naturally divide themselves into classes based on various aspects including wealth and religion. Alexandria was such divided into sections: the Brucheum, which was marveled as the royal quarter, the Jewish quarter, and the Rhakotis, which became mainly inhabited by Egyptians. What was incredibly unique about this city was that each quarter of the city had not only its own culture, but architecture and art as well.
The Hellenistic period began after Alexander’s kingdom had been split and marked a time in which Greek ideals and culture spread across the globe. The Greek’s influence was seen everywhere, from the political ideals to social opinions. In most cases, this change was also brought about with the use of the Greek language as a primary form of communication, which only assisted in the spread of Hellenism due to the standardization of dialect. Thoughts, ideas, and information could be passed freely from region to region in the language of the Greeks because there was usually a guarantee that the people in a city had access to a Greek translator or simply could speak the language themselves.

In ancient Alexandria, under the Ptolemaic dynasty, several notable changes occurred. For possibly the first time in any culture, the newcomers to a society replaced the existing upper-class citizens. Greeks, with their intellect and revolutionary new culture, became the aristocracy in Alexandria and headed the city’s premiere institution, the library. The architecture of the two cultures merged together to form one of the first fusion styles, with Greek columns and Egyptian materials. However, one of the disheartening truths about this society was that it showed the immediate decline of Egyptian values. In fact, the last ruler of the Ptolemaic dynasty, Cleopatra VII, was 100% Egyptian born Macedonian, a direct descendant of the inbreeding between Alexander’s highest ranking officials.

It is evident that Jews were present when Alexander first came to Egypt and remained a considerable portion of its population as the years passed. Although they were scattered throughout the city, evidence suggests that they experienced more political freedom when situated amongst their own people. Immediately upon the rise of Ptolemy, the Hellenistic culture began to influence Jews in Alexandria. The normally humble Jewish synagogue architecture slowly began to grow, and more extravagant interiors suggest more of a Greek temple surrounding than that of a Jewish temple. In fact, one synagogue is said to have looked like a large basilica, a Roman structure. However, one society can not influence another without being influenced itself. The Holy Torah was translated into Greek as their cultures meshed even more during the rule of Ptolemy II (283-246 B.C.E.). These “Hellenized” Jews were not less reverent than their forefathers, but rather worshipped in a separate style. The Jewish quarter was not the wealthiest of the sections of Alexandria, but certainly not the most poor (Destiny). The Rhakotis was the Egyptian-dominated district of Alexandria, believed to be the original city on which Alexandria was formed. This port fishing town was chosen as the spot that Alexander wished to start his new city, and Dinocrates incorporated the coastline in his plans. With minimal space demolished in this small town, it became the haven for the few Egyptians that disliked the Greek influence within their country, as its original architecture remained unscathed and its people sheltered from the Greek lifestyle. Ultimately, this area became the slum section of the city, due to the fact that with the Greek influence came the Greek wealth. The ghetto now stood where the people chose not to accept the Greek change rather than the area where people had been persecuted.

The Brucheum was the royal district known for its wealth and lavish lifestyle.
Diplomats, millionaires, and decorated generals all chose to make their home in the heart of the Brucheum. Among this area stood several extremely important buildings, including the museum, library, and the palace of the Pharaoh. During the reign of Ptolemy II (283-246 B.C.E.), the Library of Alexandria was opened, with hundreds of thousands of scrolls to its name. In a city such as this, the fact that a library had been opened with such a mass amount of information was key to the advancement of these people. The Greeks, the Egyptians, and the Jews, each with their own marvelous intellectual progressions, could now meet and share information freely and openly. Jews embraced the political philosophy of Aristotle, Plato, and Socrates, as the library provided the room necessary for translation of these important documents. The library was essentially the basis for the change in culture of the people of Alexandria at this time. Hellenistic society, combined with all three society’s individual values, created a unique sense of advanced intellectual significance and a heightened sense of cultural awareness (Parsons 212-13). The importance of the Library of Alexandria to western society is quite clear. Besides serving directly as a source for the countless Greek and Egyptian scholars situated in the surrounding city, it became the center of a culture. Just as the ziggurat became the center of life in ancient Mesopotamia, the library in all of its glory stood as the hub for Ptolemaic Hellenism and a beacon of light for scholars across the globe. That is, until it was destroyed.

There are several theories involving the disappearance of one of the largest and most important structures of the ancient world. What surprises most scholars is the fact that there is little documentation surrounding the cause of the destruction. It was as if one day the library was flourishing and the next it was gone, without cause or reac-
tion. There are several plausible theories explaining the disappearance, but peculiarly enough, they are hundreds of years apart.

In the year 48 B.C.E., Julius Caesar’s conquests led him to Alexandria. In the following battle with Ptolemy XIII, Caesar was forced to strategically burn his own ships in the harbor of Alexandria. In a strange moment of fate, the winds kicked up and a firestorm which raged through the Brucheum and torched the Library with thousands of manuscripts. However, the document recounting this tale, written by Greek historian Plutarch, could have been misread as the Greek words for “library” and “stack of scrolls” were very similar. Therefore, the fire could have raged through the Brucheum and actually just torched a large store of scrolls, a tragedy incomparable to the loss of the gargantuan Library (Parsons 122).

Another plausible theory is that the Library was destroyed during the attacks from Roman Emperor Aurelian during 270-275 B.C.E. He had come to Alexandria to stop revolts lead by the Palmyran Queen Zenobia, and took a majority of the contents of the Library to Constantinople to adorn his new capital. This theory is plausible but is more than likely another representation of the destruction of the Library by Caesar. Another valid theory is that in the year 391 A.D., the Christian Emperor Theodosius made a decree that stated that all pagan temples in the world would have to be destroyed. The Patriarch Theophilus of Alexandria complied with this ruling, and obliterated the Library because it happened to be connected to the Serapeum, a temple of Greek alignment. An important realization regarding this situation is that Romans were attempting to destroy pagan religious artifacts, not scrolls of knowledge. Although collateral damage to the manuscripts was almost inevitable, their com-
plete and deliberate destruction would not be as plausible.

The final theory regarding the destruction of the Library of Alexandria is that in the year 642, an army of Muslims invaded after the Byzantine Empire suffered a loss at the Battle of Heliopolis. The caliph Umar encouraged the destruction of the library, and the books were burned to provide heat for the baths of the soldiers for over six months. This, however, is discounted as mostly untrue; it was regarded as a story to show that Umar was a harsh ruler and make other Muslim rulers seem much less cruel (Parsons 150).

Although the true cause is unclear, it is evident that the most reasonable explanation for the Library’s disappearance was the accidental burning of the books by Caesar. Later historical accounts tell of Marc Antony presenting thousands of scrolls to Cleopatra from the Library of Pergamum, close to Alexandria. This demonstrates that the Library of Alexandria was an important part of Cleopatra’s life, and that it had been wrecked relatively recently. Alexandria served as much more than its purpose as home to a great library; it became the center of a culture and the hub of intellect for an entire region. The meshing of three cultures was something that had never been done before peacefully, and its impact on the future of the western world is undeniable. The most likely cause for the destruction of the library is clearly the incident involving Caesar and the accidental fires. None of the other explanations seem as plausible and are not supported as well with historical evidence. Ultimately, Alexandria and its library proved to be one of the most important places in the world with a legacy long outliving its original renown.

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The Current Status of Politics and Oil in Iraq

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The very nature of a developing world necessitates the utilization of greater amounts of oil annually. The greater demand for oil has made the current conflict in Iraq the source of much speculation. For example, the United States has great demand for Iraq’s oil. The US consumes over 25% of Iraq’s exported oil (Malinowski, 60). Everyone wants access to Iraq’s oil reserves, to include Russian, Italian, Malaysian, French, and Chinese firms, often seemingly at the expense of the Iraqi people (Malinowski, 60). The questions surrounding Iraq’s oil can be examined based upon known oil reserves, the divisive impact that they are having upon the competing ethnic groups in Iraq, and potential solutions to developing Iraq’s oil industry and dispersing the oil revenues. Iraq’s oil supply and ability to combat Western influences who are hoping to exploit its resources will have dire consequences for both Iraq and the global economy at large. Oil is not a renewable resource, and the supply in Iraq, although seemingly endless, will eventually run out.

In order to fully examine the oil industry in Iraq, one must first examine Iraq’s economy in general and the impact that oil has had on it. Iraq’s oil output capabilities dramatically decreased in 1991 when the United Nations instituted the Oil-for-Food Program in response to the Gulf War. According to “Geographic Perspectives: Iraq,” by Jon Malinowski, prior to the war “the Rumaila oil field near Basra was producing 1.4 million bbl/d and the Kirkuk oil fields 900,000 bbl/d. This level of output fell to approximately 300,000 bbl/d in 1991” when the Oil-for-Food Program was enacted (Malinowski, 59). As a result of the program, Iraq was legally able to export 2.29 million bbl/d of oil through the United Nations. According to the plan, sixty percent of the revenues generated went directly to humanitarian aid, in the form of food and medicine. An additional thirty percent was directed towards the Compensation Commission, and the remaining ten percent financed the United Nations mission in Iraq (Malinowski, 59). Malinowski suggests that this was the “extent of Iraqi economic activity, and Iraq could not legally export any commodity without permission from the United Nations” (Malinowski, 59). Since oil was the only legal export, Iraq’s economy was forced to adapt, and made the oil industry its main focus.

Because oil has been the main export for Iraq for the past seventeen years, the question exists as to how much oil there is in
Iraq and where it is geographically located. There is no definite answer to these questions and much has been left up to speculation. The Energy Information Administration (2001). estimates that Iraq “has a proven oil reserve of 112 billion barrels and an estimated 215 billion barrels of probable oil in the currently unexplored geomorphic formations” (Malinowski, 58).. Yet the United States Geological Survey suggests that Iraq has somewhere between 120 and 130 billion barrels of oil. They place the number of proven oil reserves at 78 billion. BP, who base their data on figures from the Oil & Gas Journal, actually estimate Iraq’s proven oil reserves at 113 billion, and that is not accounting for undiscovered oil (Horn, 111).

Even the number of oil reserves in Iraq is not definitively known. The oil in Iraq is predominantly located in the north, near Kirkuk, and in the southeast in the Basra region (Malinowski, 58).. The natural gas surrounding Basra and Kirkuk alone account for 70 percent of Iraq’s natural gas reserves (Malinowski, 57).. These estimates from the Energy Information Administration place Iraq as the second-largest oil reserve in the world. Only Saudi Arabia supersedes Iraq in estimated oil reserves (Malinowski, 58).. The Oil and Gas Journal estimates that Iraq’s oil “would correspond to almost 11% of total world oil reserves” (Horn, 111).. It is also believed that these estimations by the Energy Information Administration are rather modest and that Iraq is thought to have “deeper oil-bearing formations located mainly in the Western Desert region,” yet it is not for certain because this region has not yet been fully explored (Horn, 111).. The main reason for this lack of exploration is due to both the conflicts in Iraq since 1991 and the United Nations sanctions that were imposed upon Iraq as a result (Horn, 111).. To create and maintain an effective oil economy, it must first be determined how much oil actually exists and then how to divide and disperse the revenues produced.

The status of Iraq’s oil refineries and industrial technology inhibit the development of its oil industry. Before Iraq can maximize on its abundance of oil, it must first promote and develop its ability to extract and refine the oil. The disregard, neglect, and damage that have resulted from over twenty years of conflict in the region have taken their toll on the oil institutions in Iraq (Malinowski, 57).. Malinowski espouses that “Iraq has a limited oil refinery industry, capable of producing 400,000 barrels per day (bbl/d). of finished petroleum products (EIA, 2001).. Out of Iraq’s ten refineries, Baiji North and the Basra, Daura, and Nasiriyay plants in the south are operating around 100,000 bbl/d. Because of the small quantities, it is mainly refined for domestic consumption” (Malinowski, 57).. So, although Iraq has these bountiful resources, they are not able to effectively utilize them to their advantage. As the article “Iraq Could Have Twice as Much Oil as Estimated” illustrates, “of Iraq’s 78 oilfields identified as commercial by the government, only 27 are currently producing. A further 25 are not yet developed but close to production, and 26 are not yet developed and far from production” (Crooks/Negus, 1).. Iraq has not been capable of developing its refineries, making them effectively neglected.

One of the main problems affecting Iraq’s oil fields have been water breakthroughs and corrosion problems, particularly in the oil fields in southern Iraq (Horn, 113).. An additional problem that must be ad-
dressed is Iraq’s lack of spare parts for old or broken equipment. Iraq has also been victim to a lack of access to new oil exploration, extraction, and refining technologies. Iraq oil production “is being maintained at a high level with outdated techniques (e.g. water injection), which can damage the fields and thus lead to future production losses” (Horn, 113). New technologies such as horizontal drilling have yet to reach Iraq’s oil fields (Crooks/Negus, 1). A third quandary that must be addressed is that of the transportation of oil. The pipeline that runs between Iraq’s northern and southern oil fields was repaired in 2001, but it is very unlikely that it has been restored to its maximum carrying capacity as of yet. Reopening the Basra pipeline in addition to the Kirkuk-Ceyhan pipeline would also significantly increase Iraq’s transport capabilities to Turkey (Horn, 114). These challenges must be faced by Iraq’s new government in order for its oil industry as well as its economy to flourish. These dilemmas must be handled effectively because they impede the development of Iraq’s main export.

Not only has the dilapidated state of Iraq’s oil industry had drastic effects for its economy, but so has the American invasion of Iraq. The war has yielded dramatic and devastating results for Iraq’s economy. Saddam’s regime was Iraq’s greatest employer. So, with the overthrow of the government, thousands of Iraqis were out of work, to include soldiers, police and other government employees. The unemployment rate rose to 60%! To add insult to injury, prior to the invasion Iraq had a foreign debt of $50 billion in addition to a predicted $35 billion that it owed to the Gulf Arab nations which financially supported Iraq in its war with Iran (Sorenson, 224). The war in Iraq compounded the problems faced by Iraq’s economy. Since the invasion, the oil industry in Iraq has consistently been the victim of sabotage. Since March of 2003 there have been approximately six hundred pipeline attacks (Francis, 17). It is estimated that these attacks rob Iraq of nearly 400,000 bpd which is nearly 10% of daily output (Rowly, 1). The Iraq-Turkey pipeline has been a particular favorite for attacks (Problems for the Iraqi Oil Industry, A17). The attacks detract from Iraq’s developing economy, yet are seen as gaining retribution on the enemy, mainly the United States. To build up the oil industry though, the attacks must be stopped and security for the pipelines, refineries, oil fields, etc. must be increased.

Another effect of the war in Iraq has been the decrease in the output of oil. On average, “oil provides 95% of Iraq’s national income, making the recovery of the country’s oil sector critical to reducing the United States’ military and economic burden” (Problems for the Iraqi Oil Industry, A17). In 2004, Iraq was only producing 2 million barrels of oil a day, this was 20% less than before the war. In 2005, however, this amount was raised to 2.5 million barrels per day, but then decreased again to 2.2 million barrels per day as a result of allegations of misconduct on the part of KBR (American contractor, subsidiary of the Haliburton Corporation), the Army Corps of Engineers, and also Iraqi workers (Sorenson, 225). Oil output has since arisen to a consistent 2.5 million barrels per day, but there is hope that Iraq can increase its daily output “to between 4 to 4.5 million bpd by 2010, using its own capital and technical resources” (Rowly, 1). A greater goal foresees production levels rising to 6 million barrels per day, but in order to do so would require the aid of foreign oil companies (Rowly, 1). If the right economic and political climate existed in Iraq, the output level could be increased to as much as 8 million barrels a day estimates two CGES experts (Francis, 17). These are lofty goals for an occupied nation that has not de-
veloped a comprehensive means for dealing with the revenues produced from oil. There is no question that the war in Iraq has greatly impacted the economy. As seen in 2007, the per capita income was close to $1900, which is significantly lower than most Arab nations. Unemployment still remained high, at around 25-30%, accompanied by an inflation rate of 50% (Sorenson, 225). The restructuring of Iraq’s oil industry is the key to combating these economic difficulties since oil is the main source of Iraq’s national income. It is vital that Iraq address the sorry state of its oil industry and therefore its economy.

The new Iraqi government stationed in Baghdad is charged with finding the solution to the problems of Iraq’s oil industry. Their job is made even more difficult because of the government’s “inability to work out its internal differences, with government ministries often controlled by competing parties” (Problems for the Iraqi Oil Industry, A17)...

There is a new Draft Oil Law being proposed to the Iraqi Parliament that espouses revenue sharing. This proposal is endorsed by President Bush as a means of uniting the Sunnis, Shiites, and Kurds since they all want their share of the oil revenues (Chaddock, 1)... Yet the Oil and Gas Law is actually being criticized because of beliefs that it will only deepen ethnic and religious divisions within the country, not to mention “solidifying and calcifying communal factions by moving away from nationally-based control of the oil economy to a regionally and locally controlled oil industry” (Mahdi, 11)...

Decentralization is seen as a way to give regional and local governments control and also to empower the Iraqi citizens themselves.

The law has four main goals according to Kamil Mahdi in “Iraq’s Oil Law: Parsing the Fine Print,” they elaborate on:

1. The need to divorce government from running the oil industry and to commercialize its operations, leading to the application of strict financial constraints on the national industry and the setting of ambitious performance targets that are expected to drive the industry towards partnership with major international oil companies.
2. The separation of presently utilized oil resources and existing operations from unexploited proven oil and gas reserves, making future development and production the domain of the private sector, particularly foreign companies, with or without Iraqi partners.
3. Rapid growth of crude oil output levels with simultaneous plans to restore existing capacity and double it within seven years.
4. Gradual privatization of wholesale and retail petroleum products, and distribution and service activities, with future refinery expansion left to the private sector and foreign companies” (Mahdi, 14).

The new government is looking to privatize the oil industry in order to promote foreign investment. Still, there are problems with the bill. The wording within the bill is exceedingly vague especially in regards to revenue sharing. The bill states that “Oil and gas are owned by all the Iraqi people in all the regions and governates,” but there are conflicting interpretations as to “whether all the oil and gas is jointly and equally owned by the Iraqi people or not” (Mahdi, 16)...

The Kurdistan Regional Government believes that the sharing of revenue pertains only to the region and is in the process of trying to make agreements with foreign investors. These proposed contracts place investors in a precarious situation as well. Companies can go ahead and make agreements with the Kurdish Regional Government, but by doing...
so they risk alienating relations with the government in Baghdad which has not approved such arrangements. Estimates place the quantity of oil in the Kurdish region at 3% of Iraq's total oil. Smaller companies are vying for these contracts with the Kurdish government with the belief that they can turn a good profit with 3% and that it's better than nothing. Bigger companies are holding off and waiting to get their hands on the other 97% (Crooks/McNulty, 28). They want to insure that their investments are legal and approved by the Iraqi government. In the meantime, these companies are "building relationships, training engineers, and carrying out technical studies for free, in preparation for the day when they might be able to operate" (Crooks/McNulty, 28). The idea of regional control over oil also has negative implications considering that although some regions are rich in oil, others are exceedingly poor in oil (Mahdi, 17). The problem arises that the oil-poor regions want their fair share of the oil revenues too. The dispersal of oil revenues also fall along ethnic lines. The Kurds want the rights to the oil contained in their lands and the Shiites want control over the oil in their regions (since they have the most oil on their lands), yet this would leave the Sunnis with virtually nothing because the three provinces in which they compose a majority do not have oil, or very little (Blanche, 14). Revenue sharing nationally would benefit the Sunnis, but is not supported by the Kurds or Shiites.

Another challenge to the Oil and Gas Law is a question of whether effective management can occur at the regional or local levels. Mahdi delineates five problems with decentralizing the oil industry. First, these smaller governments do not have the capability nor competence to effectively negotiate with international corporations. Second, grouping oil interests nationally is more effective from a managerial standpoint: it encourages citizen participation, promotes governmental transparency and accountability. Third, oil fields cross over regional and national boundaries, so there is no cookie-cutter regional division of oil. Fourth, in order to develop the industry there must be a coordinated national plan to effectively exploit the natural resources taking into account economic and environmental considerations. Fifth, the industry needs to be incorporated in the economy; otherwise a type of rentier economy is likely to arise (Mahdi, 18). It is important for Iraq to formulate a strong national government or it risks becoming a typical "petro-state," in which large revenues culminate in an unstable government (Lawson, 206). The new Iraqi government has a huge task in front of them in trying to decentralize the oil industry.

Although Mahdi does not support the decentralization of the oil industry, many people do. Experts believe that directing the funds created by the exportation of oil down to regional and local governments would prevent the national government from mis-spending the monies accrued from "royalties, taxes, or auctions" (Lawson, 206). Directing the funds down to the local or regional level would enable these municipalities to utilize the money as they see fit. Regional and local governments are closer to the civilian population in their area and have a greater knowledge of what their particular civilians, industries, etc. need. Allocating the funds to such smaller governments would enable these governments to use the money where it is needed most and will have the greatest impact. Spending the revenues at the national level has the potential to encourage favoritism for oil-rich regions over oil-poor, or even to favor ethnic groups who hold a majority in Parliament. Decentralization is seen as a way to give regional and local governments control and also to empower the Iraqi citizens
themselves. Dispersing oil revenues at the local and regional level would “put the country’s wealth directly into the hands of Iraqis, to remove discretionary authority from the national government, and to force the government to rely on taxation for income—which would force it, in turn, to report and justify its expenditures” (Lawson, 206). Decentralization of the oil industry to the local and regional echelon has the potential to empower the citizenry as well as these smaller governments. The citizens would be more able to directly participate in their government and hold their government accountable for their expenditures.

Another facet of the Iraqi oil controversy is the would-be impact of privatization of the industry as expressed in the proposed Oil and Gas law. Compared to its oil-rich Arab neighbors and current offshore developments, Iraq exercises relatively low production costs. According to HIS estimates, they are currently less than two dollars a barrel (Crooks/Negus, 1). For this reason, in addition to the abundance of oil reserves in Iraq, foreign investors are attracted to the potential of developing Iraq’s oil industry. According to the article “Oil Production in Iraq: Decline or Upswing,” due to “the favorable geological conditions and the resulting low production costs, many foreign oil concerns have been endeavoring for years to win concessions for oil extraction from as yet undeveloped fields” (Horn, 115). Countries interested in the development effort include companies from China, France, Russia, Italy, and Great Britain (Horn, 115). The possibility and potential for large profits is too great for these companies to pass up. Internationally known companies such as BP, Shell, Exxon, Conoco-Phillips, Total, and Lukoil have all shown interest in investing in Iraq (Shah, 58).

Three main types of contracts are being proposed in dealing with foreign investment. These include buy-backs, production-sharing agreements, and service contracts (Shah, 58). Larger, international oil conglomerates favor the adoption of production-sharing agreements. As Saeed Shah illustrates in his article “Scramble for Iraq’s Oil Begins as Troops Start to Pull Out; Business Analysis,” the production-sharing agreements are favored by large oil companies because “they allow the foreign company to book the reserves. Buy-back contracts typically require upfront investment from the international company, with a guaranteed rate of return to repay the money” (Shah, 58). These production-sharing agreements are thought to reward international companies for taking on risk, as with Iraq due to both internal, sectarian conflicts and the US occupation (Chaddock, 1). Yet within the Iraqi Parliament there is much opposition to these production-sharing agreements, especially with western countries. They are thought to reward these companies too much. There is concern that the new Oil and Gas law is far too concerned with promoting foreign investment at the expense of the Iraqi people. The law does not adequately address revenue sharing but is more concerned with setting up a legal framework for investment (Chaddock, 1). But the problem remains that “Iraq’s oil industry badly needs new investment, and oil companies are reluctant to go into Iraq without a legal framework that ensures that the contracts they sign will be respected by future Iraqi governments” (Chaddock, 1). Another concern with the bill is that the Iraqi government will give away Iraq’s primary natural resource too cheaply (Francis, 17). Due to the continual debate over issues such as privatization, revenue sharing, decentralization, etc. the proposed Oil and Gas law has yet to pass in Iraq’s parliament.
Alternative solutions to the problem of Iraq’s oil have also been proposed. One of the more radical proposals is by Nancy Birdsall. Birdsall states that Iraq “will face daunting challenges in dealing with their surfeit of oil and their deficit of education” (Birdsall, 58). She believes that Iraq currently lacks the tools and mechanisms of an effective free market, such as the rule of law and personal property rights (Birdsall, 59). Throughout Iraq’s history, the revenues accrued by the sale of oil have allowed the national government to create “patronage-based jobs in its civil service and state-run enterprises” (Birdsall, 58). Yet a job market such as this detracts from an effective education system that will now prove crucial if Iraq is to participate in the global economy (Birdsall, 59). Iraq needs to create a job market in which Iraqi citizens can compete in the international market and this cannot be accomplished without greater emphasis being placed on education and training.

Birdsall proposes that the national government “literally sign away its access to oil revenues for long enough to establish transparent politics and build accountable institutions” (Birdsall, 60). She proposes that this signing-away could be accomplished through monitoring by the United Nations. Although radical, these measures would ensure that the national government creates institutions that are accountable to the Iraqis and that the revenues generated are not being wasted. She believes that in order to avoid a virtual giving-away of Iraq’s oil, the government should create a high marginal tax for all of the revenues generated by oil exporters (Birdsall, 60). Birdsall believes that “the tax distribution would create taxable income, encouraging development of a broad-based tax system and giving citizens a tool to make their government accountable” (Birdsall, 60). Her main goal is to emphasize the “remaking of a public education system and the rapid creation of employer-based skills and training programs” (Birdsall, 61). Birdsall’s proposal is a bit extreme, but it does bring up an important issue, that of the job market in Iraq. The Iraqi government in Baghdad will need to generate a more marketable work force than what currently exists in the region if they hope to introduce Iraq to the global market. Basic job skills as well as more technologically advanced skills will be necessary in order to provide investors with a legitimate pool of prospective employees to draw from. As it stands now, the job market in Iraq is fairly limited due to the Saddam regime.

There are many flaws in Birdsall’s theory. First of all, the Iraqi government is not going to sign away its rights to oil revenues in order to give itself time to develop the proper institutions that it would need to be able to effectively manage the industry. To think that the government would is unrealistic. Second, now is the time for the Iraqi government in Baghdad to assert its authority and ascertain its legitimacy. Relinquishing power by signing over its rights to oil, even to the United Nations, would be seen as a sign of weakness and incompetence. To be viewed by the Iraqi people as weak would be very detrimental at this critical point in time because the new, developing government is under close scrutiny by its constituents. Now more than ever, the government needs to assert that it is exercising control and is not just a puppet to the United States or other western powers. Still, although Birdsall’s theory is not altogether realistic, she does bring up some valid points regarding the rise of the job market.

Another proposal to the problem of what to do with revenues generated by the exportation of oil has been espoused by Thomas Palley. He expands upon a theory by Steve Clemons that suggests the forma-
tion of national oil funds and that annually dividends be evenly dispersed among the citizens of Iraq. This proposal is similar to the oil fund that has been instituted in Alaska (Palley, 94). Palley states that from its beginning, 25% of all oil revenues should be distributed to the citizens in the form of this dividend. He also recommends creating a second fund that would allocate partial oil revenues to the regional and local level governments. Palley claims that providing equal distribution to the municipalities would minimize the sectarian and civil strife that can result from unfair monetary distributions (Palley, 95). Additional benefits of a national oil fund with annual dividends are that it would “empower citizens to take charge of the process of economic growth” and “give citizens an incentive to engage in democratic politics” (Palley, 96). Citizens of Iraq would benefit from a sense of ownership and investment in their government if such a fund were created. This dividend could be an added incentive for them to monitor their government and to hold it accountable in order to safeguard their investment. A national fund would also limit the corruption that typically accompanies oil economies by “precommitting a portion of oil revenues to public payout [that] would leave less in the hands of government officials that could be stolen” (Palley, 97). Palley does recognize that measures must be taken to ensure that people are not claiming nonexistent persons in order to get more of the dividend (Palley, 97). A national oil fund would also encourage greater efficiency in the oil industry since everyone in the country would have a vested interest in it. Additional benefits include the development of greater domestic demand as well as a credit market (Palley, 98). There are numerous advantages to a system such as this that would encourage citizen participation in their democratic government.

There are also potential problems with Palley’s assessment. One is that people would start to rely on the dividend as their main source of income. Palley claims that this is unrealistic because the dividend would not be great enough to support a person as an income. Instead, it would only be seen as a supplement to people’s income (Palley, 100). Another challenge is that oil dividends would detract funds away from Iraq’s decrepit infrastructure. Yet Palley questions the new government’s ability to take on these kinds of investments anyway. He also believes that the citizenry themselves have dire economic needs and that the dividend could make a sizeable difference. A third challenge to Palley’s proposal is that these dividend-payments could encourage a political culture that is in opposition to the government, which could be detrimental in Iraq since the government is in the developing stage (Palley, 100). But Palley emphasizes that a dividend system would encourage greater political involvement, not opposition. Another concern is that of the impact a national oil fund would have on population growth in Iraq. The thought behind this concern is that people will start to have more children in order to get their share of the national oil fund in the form of the annual dividend. Palley suggests that this problem could be easily avoided by limiting the dividend pay-outs to only adult citizens. This age limit makes more sense anyway because they would be the only ones with the ability to be politically active and able to exert pressure on the government (Palley, 101).

A last concern that was not addressed by Palley is that of how to get the Iraqi government as it stands now to sign on to it. Getting Parliament to agree to such an arrangement could prove challenging since the current administration is trying to encourage privatization. This measure would also cause
the government to relinquish some of its powers and hold it more accountable for its actions. There could also be problems with the individual regions not wanting to participate, especially the oil-rich provinces because it would require the sharing of their revenues with oil-poor regions. The bottom line is that this proposal has the capacity to place governmental power in the hands of the Iraqis, encourage political participation, encourage investment in the new government, and eliminate or at least minimize civil conflicts among the varying ethnic groups. So, although this system may not be flawless, it sounds like a valid and worthwhile compromise.

Iraq’s current oil predicament impacts not only Iraq, but the world. This fact is obvious due to the rising demand for oil, which Iraq has a bounty of. Middle Eastern oil-producing countries have learned the value of their resources and have made effective use of them, both economically and politically. They have the power to affect the market simply by not producing as much oil and thereby raising prices. Oil has also been used as a source of political leverage especially against oil-dependant states such as the United States, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and Brazil. In fact, oil has been utilized in the past to encourage these nations to sell weapons systems and technology to countries in the Middle East (The Geopolitics of Oil, 1324). Economic concessions have also been attained because of oil (The Geopolitics of Oil, 1325). Basically, oil has the power to influence the world, and therefore as it stands now, Iraq is in a position of strength because of its vast resources. Iraq is also in a precarious position though because it must demonstrate effective management of its resources or risk losing them.

The current situation in Iraq has had dramatic effects on the global economy. An article by Kevin Rudd cites that “since the invasion in 2003, the price of oil has risen substantially: averaging $US31 a barrel in 2003, $US41.30 in 2004, $US56.60 in 2005 and $US68.50 in 2006” (Rudd, 19). These rises in costs have impacted consumers everywhere, especially at the gas pump. Iraq has had such a dramatic impact on global oil prices because it has created greater insecurity in the Middle East and also because of Iraq’s inability to effectively generate output (Rudd, 19). Iraq is currently in a position of power because of its resources, but it must find a way to maximize these resources. The new government must find an effective way to deal with the competing interests within its own country that are impeding development. It must be decided whether nationalization or privatization will be employed, or whether the regional governments should exercise control over development of resources in their territories. There are so many problems and alternatives to be considered, but in order for Iraq to grow, the government must address them and find the best solution that will benefit Iraq.
Bibliography


Dystopian Societies in Modern Literature

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Futuristic dystopian societies that feature totalitarian systems of government clearly demonstrate that the role of the family unit is obsolete, and is consistently dissolved, replaced by a government controlled method of socialization and education. Most authors of these terrible warnings of totalitarian futures would agree that in order for these states to continue, that indoctrination of the young is essential to shaping and controlling their societies. While it is clear that each dystopian society is dependent on government controlled socialization, the authors of these novels would seem to have different opinions on what role the family should play in society. The loyalty, emotion, and individualism that the family generates are the vital elements of society that prevent the growth of the totalitarian nightmare that we are warned of in several influential dystopian novels. H. G. Wells says in his novel, The Shape of Things to Come, that “The better we train, the less need for oppression” (Wells 413). He touches upon a very important aspect of these futures, that they will not necessarily come about insidiously or blatantly, but through such simple means as gentle propaganda that is disseminated easily by a state controlled system of education. A state can much more easily take over and control a society by indoctrinating youth in their desired ideology than through fear and coercion. In order to prevent these nightmare states from eliminating the individuality of loyalty to one’s family and removing a vital method of socialization, the family must be protected and treated as a sacred institution. H.G. Wells, Aldous Huxley, and Yevgeny Zamyatin’s works all seem to suggest that the family represents a major influence in expressing individuality and emotion, and is a means of influencing important aspects of political ideology. George Orwell seems to be a little more critical to the function of the family, and gives examples in 1984 to suggest that he believes that the family is a broken institution as well. Ayn Rand and Margaret Atwood have two underlying opinions about what the structure of the family should look like, the first Paternal and the second Maternal. Despite differing opinions, all seem to imply that the family is essential to protecting against the development of the totalitarian state.

In his book The Shape of Things to Come, H. G. Wells explains that the original meaning of the word education was not intended for connotations that it has now of universities and things of an intellectual nature, but that “it meant originally the preparation of the young for life” (Wells 142). He further states that the education system that failed in our time was nothing tragic, and that we lost very little because “nothing valuable had as yet gone into the curricula” (143). His
ideal “world government” arrived much later on when the state gained complete control of education, both of an intellectual and ideological nature. It can be concluded from Wells’s novel that the science and knowledge of his future world order produces a sterile and controlled world government that is diametrically opposed to the idea of individualism and freedom. A future where the state enables education to “thrust its enquiring and compelling fingers more and more intimately into the recesses of human life” (362) can only be a dystopia that detaches the emotion and individualism, inefficient as it may seem, and create a nightmare of world government. Wells goes on further to explain that education in the future only exists to use propaganda to lead man to devote himself entirely to the idea of world socialism. The only way to prevent the spread of global propaganda is by encouraging loyalties outside of the state, and at the same time growing individualism through the influence of socialization by the family. Though Wells may perceive the role of socialization to lie in the hands of the state, this use of propaganda creates a nightmare future that, although scientifically advanced and extremely efficient, eliminates human individuality.

Aldous Huxley’s Brave New World strongly criticizes this scientific end that Wells proposes by creating a society that is so controlled in every aspect of life that children are no longer even born, removing the family as a source of stabilization and order. In this dystopia the family of the old world was “Forced to feel strongly. And feeling strongly (and strongly, what was more, in solitude, in hopelessly individual isolation), how could they be stable?” (Huxley 47). Here, the family is regarded as smut, and the individualism that it promotes is regarded as destabilizing. Huxley is strongly critical of the impact of propaganda which is represented in its perfect form in the shape of state controlled education. The character John the Savage, the hero of this novel, is raised in an environment with traditional family institutions, and represents the individualism that is lost in the nightmare society of Brave New World. In order to prevent this scientifically advanced and terrible future of propaganda and apathy, Huxley suggests that the family unit should be the largest structure that influences socialization and ideology. He makes important assertions in Brave New World Revisited that man is genetically and socially prone to diversity, assertions that criticize large structures like total government that “for practical or theoretical reasons, dictators, organization men and certain scientists are anxious to reduce the maddening diversity of men’s natures to some kind of manageable uniformity” (Huxley 322). He strongly criticizes the desire for science, which constantly attempts to create uniformity, to eliminate small structure and diversity and to turn men into termites. He expresses that “If you wish to avoid dictatorship by referendum, break up modern society’s merely functional collectives into self governing, voluntary cooperating groups, capable of functioning outside of the bureaucratic systems of Big Business and Big Government” (336). Huxley clearly supports the family as the most important structure in society and rejects the stagnant and mindless structure of total government.

In Yevgeny Zamyatin’s WE, the individual is completely erased as the members of this dystopian society all serve the “One State,” and dismiss any personal attachment such as romance or family. It is clear in the reminiscing of the main character D-503, that... the ultimate natural desire naturally for man is the creation of a family.
the state controlled all education and embedded and socialized its ideology thoroughly into all its members. Yet despite this, the seeds of individualistic hope are still present as Zamyatin appears to also support the importance that the role of the family plays. Despite the traditional family unit’s nonexistence in WE, the characters D-503, O-90, and R-13 all naturally form what could be considered an equivalent structure. D-503 says of his friend R-13 and their shared love interest O-90 that “We are a triangle... We, in the language of our forebears are a family. And how good it is sometimes to relax for a short time in this simple strong triangle” (Zamyatin 40). While at face value this relationship seems to appear as a romantic triangle, it seems that Zamyatin put this into his dystopia to show us that his opinion of the family is that it provides the only relief that D-503 can find from the dystopian society that he exists in. He implies that even in such a totalitarian state, it is a biological tendency for the characters to form a family group. Huxley also recognizes that natural diversity, and hence the tendency to form families, may be in part due to biological reasons. This is an example of the nature versus nurture argument that both Huxley and Zamyatin seem to imply: that humans form families as a part of biological influence, not just socially learned habits. Regardless of whether the family is a social or biological entity, it still seems to be upheld as the entity that gives the only relief from the strain of what Huxley would deem “over organization”. In Ayn Rand’s Anthem the main character, Equality 7-2521, ultimately desires to pursue science, but does not reach the same end that is found in The Shape of Things to Come. The society of Anthem is one of total control and repression of knowledge. When Equality discovers the power of science, it enables him to socialize himself and discover his own desire to create a family unit. Rand’s novel makes the strongest argument for the importance of the family unit by having the main character, without prior understanding of family structure, create one. This seems to enforce the nature argument by demonstrating that against all attempts to remove the concept of family from society, Equality still innately desires to have his own. He is clearly paternalistic in nature and asserts that the only structure that should exist is the family when says that “This is our home and the end of our journey... we shall not share it with others” (Rand 91). Rand makes the argument through Anthem that the ultimate natural desire naturally for man is the creation of a family. In his family, Equality also mentions the importance of using language and socialization so that “[His] son will be raised as a man. He will be taught to say “I” and to bear the pride of it” (100). Rand makes the assertion that another essential aspect of the family is the role that it plays in teaching language and socializing identity for its members. Aldous Huxley aligns on this point in Brave New World Revisited when he states “An education for freedom (and for the love of intelligence which are at once the conditions and the results of freedom) must be, among other things, an education in the proper use of language” (Huxley 329). The importance of the family in teaching the use of language, and thus socializing identity, is clearly evident in both authors’ works.

While Ayn Rand’s ideal family unit is paternalistic by nature, Margaret Atwood’s novel The Handmaids Tale seems to associate the paternalism of the family with the creation of the dystopia of her novel, and by contrast seems to suggest that the role of the family should be maternalistic in nature. Offred, the main character, loses all of her freedoms as a consequence of women being objectified and no longer treated as equal members of society. Her husband Luke, before their separation, almost seems to be
comfortable with all of her freedoms being transferred to him. Atwood seems to argue that while the natural formation of the family occurs, it does so based around maternal structure due to the inherent need of women’s fertility. Regardless of the difference in the gender influence in her dystopia, Atwood still falls in line with the other authors mentioned by centralizing Offred’s suffering around losing her family. Offred constantly misses her husband and daughter, and says that “nobody dies from lack of sex. It’s lack of love we die from.” (Atwood 103). Offred loses all connection with humanity because she no longer has access to her family, the only source of stability that she had available to cope with the political turmoil that surrounded her. The family plays an essential role in pacifying stress; just as in the group formed by the characters in Zamyatin’s *WE*.

George Orwell, in his novel 1984 seems to warn that the breakdown of the family is one of the social problems that lead to the creation of his dystopia. The main character, Winston, seems to be extremely remorseful about the way his family failed and Orwell suggests that through Winston’s relationship with Julia, he tried to salvage a semblance of that structure in a totalitarian society. Through examples such as the young spies, the novel implies that breaking down the family is essential to the success of the totalitarian state. Orwell argues that the family plays not only an important role in societal structure, but also represents an essential need for the socialization of language. Ingsoc is taught by the state, while traditional language and socialization comes from the family. According to Orwell, the family is an important facet in assuring that totalitarianism cannot come about by “referendum” as Huxley suggests.

All of the authors recognize that that totalitarian state comes about when the family is replaced with government controlled education and socialization. They also argue in various forms that the family plays a pivotal role in socializing ideology, teaching language, and relieving societal stress, and that it must be protected and treated as the most important structural function in society. Men will naturally form family groups in same fashion because they are innately formed with the desire to do so. The protection of freedom can best be assured by nurturing individuals in a healthy family, producing productive, individualistic, and most importantly free men.

**Bibliography**


A Brief History of Infectious Disease Control

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Trey is a junior biology major from Charleston, SC. He plans to attend Medical School after he graduates from the Citadel. He has received Dean's List five times and Gold Stars five times. He has a full scholarship and is a member of the Citadel Honor's Program. Trey hopes to stay in Charleston to attend MUSC.

Infectious diseases are defined by Merriam-Webster to be diseases caused by an organism entering the body which subsequently grow and multiply there (Merriam). Another source, Medicine Net, has the same definition; however, it explains that all infectious diseases are not contagious while most of them are contagious through indirect contact, droplets in the air, person-person, or animal-person (Medicine Net). Throughout history, infectious diseases have plagued our species. History has been reshaped many times by the mere occurrence of an epidemic and the failure to react properly to it. Thus, infectious disease control has had a rough past. In order to properly attack and manage an outbreak of an infectious disease, one must find the source, contain it, and then destroy it to prevent further spread. These three "requirements," as they are being called, are and were important points of interest in the history of infectious disease control. In the Great Death in London in 1665, for example, the source of the infection could not be found, which meant that it could not be contained and that it spread (Britain Express). In the Plague Riot in Moscow in 1771, the mis-handling of knowledge and quarantines led to even more death and a greater spread of the bubonic plague (Plague Riot). And finally, throughout the world the Influenza Pandemic of 1918 showed us how important it is to know what is being dealt with and how to combat it (Stanford University). It also shows how viruses adapt, and that one of the few things we can do to prevent it is to take proactive steps, not reactive.

The Black Plague in London in 1665 was one of the worst epidemics in history at the time, but it provided a quality opportunity to practice some infectious disease control, and early forms of this were observed. The disease took the lives of more than 15% of London's population, mostly impacting the poor. Incubation of the disease was very short, and it spread rapidly and easily. When it got inside of a home due to a rat or through the infestation of fleas, the whole family was doomed and a red cross was placed on the doors. This was a very hard time for England because the loss of people severely injured the economy and the welfare of the nation. Not knowing what caused the disease, and what was carrying the disease in the initial phases made things worse for the people. Thousands of cats and dogs were killed in response to the crisis, which meant less natural enemies to the rats and the inflamed spread of disease. This knowledge would have saved countless lives, but effective planning and strategizing could have saved more (Britain Express) (Historic-UK.com).

The quarantines that were initiated in England were not very effective. The only
method used to control the spread of disease was done by locking everyone in the cities while the dead had their bodies taken from their homes and “quarantined” in mass “plague pits” outside of the city. The close living quarters and the poor sanitation, especially in the poorer parts of the country, caused the disease to spread more than it should have. This knowledge would have had the officials looking at methods of improving living and health conditions rather than more extreme measures of desperation. One of these desperate measures: light London on fire to kill any and all carriers of the disease. At this time, people were searching for desperate answers, and a fire to “cleanse” London of the disease looked very attractive. This fire in 1666 destroyed most of the center of London, but also destroyed many of the main carriers of the sickness: the rats and the fleas. The colder weather also proved to be a factor, because after the summer the fleas started dying and the rats were less active. The combination of the temperature difference followed by the fire that next year destroyed the majority of the plague, and helped set London on the long road to recovery (Historic-UK.com).

The Great Plague in London helped show how limited people found themselves when it came to the identification and search for the origin of an infectious disease. People in the late sixteen-hundreds did not have the technology we have now, and thus they were unable to find the exact causal agent to help guide actions that would have needed to be taken to prevent such a horrible spread. All things aside, at this point in time this plague could not have been avoided based on technology and living at the time. However, as a result of this, health codes were established in relation to sanitation, especially water sanitation. The slums were also looked at briefly because of how hard they were hit by the disease, but they were quickly overlooked in order to address more important matters for the whole society. Infectious disease control now had a reason to exist, and the Plague Riot of Moscow would help sharpen its characteristics even more (Britain Express).

The Plague Riot in 1771 in Moscow was a turning point in the history of Russia. No one felt safe in the country after the Plague because no one believed that it would have happened to them in the first place! One of the major differences between Moscow and London was that the officials in Moscow knew what the disease was because they had sources on it from London. Although this knowledge helped considerably in dealing with the infection and quarantine, the methods of quarantine and destroying the bacteria came was the main issue. There were forced quarantines, which are not necessarily a bad thing, but there was also prevalent destruction of private, contaminated property on a whim with no compensation, a closing of public baths, and food shortages because of the uncontrolled destruction. These factors easily outweighed the positive effects knowledge of the disease could have brought.

However, Moscow had not seen an effective infectious disease control plan implemented yet, so they could not be totally to blame for the ill-executed public health plan. One thing that they did build on since London was the idea of quarantine. They knew that the disease spread because of rats and fleas, and they strove to restrict practices that would aid in the spread of disease and
to improve the health of the city. Something that they failed to learn from London was the importance of informing the people of the characteristics of the disease which in turn would have given them a chance to prevent the spread. The authorities in Moscow did not go to the people; they just started restricting traditions, destroying apparently contaminated items without hesitation, and did not take the close quarter living of the poor into account. Another shortcoming was the lack of technology in Moscow that prevented research of the disease which could have potentially answered many questions. The lack of research of the causal agent was not any one person’s fault; it was just not supported enough. These shortcomings were lessons learned, however, and were lessons that the United States built on and adapted for its personal use in their experience with a large-scale epidemic (Plague Riot).

The Influenza Pandemic of 1918-1919 did not only seriously affect the US but the entire world! More people died in the United States as a result of the Influenza than died in World War II! 675,000 people were reported to have died in the United States alone, which is a number ten times as greater than the death toll during the war. Worldwide, a fifth of the population was infected, which increased the urgency to find a cure. Because of advances in technology and research, the influenza was quickly determined to be the causal agent because of its symptoms. There was a normal flu season each year, and the country had never anticipated it being any worse than it had been in the past. In the fateful year of 1918 the influenza strain adapted which meant that no one had any immunity to it. In response to the crisis within the nation, public health departments gave out masks to prevent the spread of the disease because the officials knew how the disease traveled and they thus knew how to help prevent the continued spread. Regulations were put in place regarding funerals, and towns were required to keep a quarantine to prevent large-scale spreading. Science was also given a boost during this time, because of how important it was to the country to develop a vaccine for the disease and to further the new ideas of “germ theory” and the development of hygienic techniques and antiseptic surgeries. All of these actions are prime examples of effective infectious disease control (Stanford University).

The government wanted to prevent outbreaks in the future, which was one of the main lessons learned from the experiences in London and Moscow: to not expect it to fail to resurface, or for something like it to happen again. The most important lesson learned from all three experiences was prevention, or pro-active care instead of reactive care. Moscow took a big hit because of this, and the United States did not learn their lesson until after the Influenza Pandemic (Plague Riot) (Stanford University). They failed to prepare for even a normal flu season because they felt safe and secure in their knowledge. After the pandemic started, however, the US was quick to realize its mistakes and they took all measures not taken in London or Moscow, together with their knowledge, using it to battle this enemy. They also kept the public informed, banding the nation together to fight for the good of the country. This was learned from Moscow, because the US wanted to avoid a bloody riot at such a rough time. Altogether, the US did a good job at reacting to the infectious disease, but should have been a bit more pro-active to avoid a major outbreak again (Stanford University).

Being pro-active is something that the US has learned to instill in all of their regulations and recommendations to the general public about the spread of infectious diseases. The CDC, or Center for Disease Control, has a
website that can be accessed by anyone who has internet, which is a prime example of implementation of a lesson learned from London and Moscow: keeping people informed. This website ensures that all people who have access to the internet (which is not everyone but it includes a large portion of the world population) knows and can read about any infectious disease and can get up-to-date information about the characteristics of any disease, such as vectors, incubation times, etc. This information helps people prepare for any emergencies that may occur. Also, for many of the infectious diseases listed, the CDC website discusses the idea of “preventative” recommendations people can take to minimize their chance of disease. The plague prevention and control page talks about how to prevent and control an outbreak using simple methods such as the following: reducing risks such as rodent control, maintaining sanitary living conditions, health education for everyone to be knowledgeable, preventative medicine, and finally vaccines. These are simple things that everyday people can do, and need to be aware of, to prevent and control infectious diseases, according to the CDC. This knowledge shows how communication with the general public and preventative measures, both lessons learned in each of the historical examples mentioned earlier, can help soften the blow infectious diseases are known to make to a society (Center For Disease Control (CDC)).

The evolution of infectious disease control was a slow one, but it was indeed an important one. Different cities learned from past mistakes made and built upon and improved upon those ideas. They also sometimes got complacent and failed to adequately plan and prepare for an occurrence or outbreak. This came back to haunt them however, especially in the three examples listed above. There are many more examples, but London showed the world how everyone was equal and subject to disease, and that knowledge was definitely key in battling it (Britain Express). Moscow had that knowledge, but failed to implement changes and regulation that would improve the health and destroy the disease at the same time (Plague Riot). The US failed to properly plan for an infectious disease, but did a great job at reacting to the problem at hand (Stanford University). These hard times, however bad they may seem, showed the world problems that could easily be resolved, and this can be seen in the policies and organizations instituted after such catastrophic events. Many more cities and nations have undergone extreme spreads of infectious disease, and they all serve to teach the rest of the world a lesson or two about dealing with these diseases effectively for the betterment of society.

Bibliography


