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In this issue, Professor Chuck Irish provides insights into developments in the Third World. Reading his article led me to reflect about legal education at the University of Wisconsin, contrasted with the tasks I shared in African nations between 1960 and 1973. My thoughts soon overran the proper limits of a note from the Dean. But a few comparisons may interest you.

In Africa, the educational needs were fundamental, stark, and immediate. For example, Zambia at the time of independence had about ten citizens who were lawyers, so that there were virtually no local persons ready to carry out essential tasks such as negotiating agreements with foreign copper companies or staffing the judiciary. In helping to start Zambia's law school, basics were uppermost; subtleties in curriculum were secondary.

At the UW Law School, we have curriculum needs, but they are often in shaded tones, and though important, amenable to long reflection. Our faculty is currently considering at length different models of supervision for our practice clinics. The basic idea, the educational value of a clinic, was settled years ago. Yet this example also demonstrates a problem: the idea of practicing clinics in law schools was vigorously argued from at least 1930 onwards, whereas most schools got around to starting them only in the past 15 years. An established law school like the U.W. has its basics well in order, but the real challenge is in avoiding complacency about the status quo and the improved nuances we achieve.

Thus, while work conditions in Africa were sometimes hard, the choice of the work was relatively easy. Accepting the charms of Madison is easy, but the need to improve our programs at the margins—and at the same time retain a lively questioning attitude about what we've established—is a tough task for our faculty.

A related contrast is that the conditions I found in Africa often had the potential for sudden and dramatic change. Some of our quick victories have evaporated, but others set a useful path still followed. At Wisconsin, I am sure that we believe in the possibilities for rapid improvements, but they must not obscure the fact that profound change often takes many years, and the patience and sustained efforts of faculty to achieve it. With a history of 117 years, a great law school has the luxury to measure its progress in decades, and the responsibility to plan with commensurate vision.

Chuck Irish's emphasis on the shortage of hard work in many Third World countries is the basis for my final comparison. In my early days in Sudan, I had long discussions with a teaching colleague, Hassan Omar Ahmed, a good example of an African's capacity for intellectual achievement and sustained application. He went from an L.L.B. degree at the University of Khartoum to receive one A and two A+ grades in the Harvard L.L.M. program, and today he puts in long hours as a deputy director of an inter-Africa agricultural development corporation. We agreed that our students needed to learn how to work hard. Whatever the web of cultural and colonial heritage that produced the problems, we aimed to do what we could to create the work habit during law school, a formidable undertaking.

In America, many of our citizens learn early in life how to work effectively. This is fortunate, because law school days are a brief passage. You don't have to go to law school to learn to work hard, but I believe law school must require it, to sink those who only want to float, and to reinforce those who have begun to swim. Our students emerge from law school into private and public service, and take charge of people's welfare and lives. Of course, we demand a high level of analytical achievement, but other requirements, such as regular and punctual fulfillment of work assignments and classes, are related to the work habit needed professionally to represent the interests of others. Our law school does not have to attempt to create this habit out of the whole cloth, but as a part of our educational effort, we take this goal as seriously in Wisconsin as I did in the Third World.
Ruminations of a Peripatetic Professor: 
Views on Development in the Third World 

Charles R. Irish, Professor of Law 

The front page news accounts of the devastating famine in Ethiopia, coupled with the continuing reports on the financial page of the debt crises in Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela, and Peru have once again focused attention on the agonizing struggles of the less developed regions of the world to survive and grow. Over the last decade, I have had occasion to visit a number of the countries in these regions as a lecturer or advisor on international tax matters, so the editors of the GAR-GOYLE have asked me to reflect on these struggles. 

I do have impressions of the causes of some of the central problems facing the less developed countries and in a few instances some thoughts on how the problems could be diminished or even resolved altogether. However, the heterogeneous character of the less developed regions makes generalizations on their problems and solutions dangerous. A resident of Va Vau in the South Pacific is faced with radically different problems than a person who lives in Sinazongwe on the shores of Lake Kariba in South Central Africa. I also know very well that my impressions and suggestions are based on incomplete information sometimes inaccurately perceived. So, what follows is put forward with some caution—the problems and issues involved are too diverse and too difficult for any one to be completely confident of either their causes or their solutions. 

Because this paper focuses on development problems in the Third World, it inevitably is negative. I have largely ignored many of the very considerable successes in the Third World—the significant economic growth levels attained in some countries, the increased food production in Latin America and Asia, and the important improvements in health care, housing and education throughout the less developed regions of the world. There is no doubt, however, that even greater improvements need to be made, which is the reason for my focus. 

Two major obstacles stand in the way of sustained economic growth and broad improvements in the standards of living in the less developed regions of the world: explosive population growth and a general failure of economic policies. These obstacles and possible ways of dealing with them are discussed below. 

1. Population Growth 
1.1 The Problem 
Probably the most intractable problem is the enormous burden put on many societies by their explosive population growth rates. In country after country throughout Africa, Asia and Latin America, the gains in aggregate economic growth are more than offset by the increase in the number of people to feed,
The statistics on population growth are startling. In many less developed countries, about 45 percent of the population is under the age of 15, while in the United States, by contrast, about 23 percent of the population is under 15. Much of the developing world is faced with projected population-doubling time estimates that range from less than 20 years to not more than 30 years. For example, Kenya's 1980 population of 16.5 million will increase to 37.1 million by the year 2000 and Mexico's will grow from 69.8 million to 115.7 million. During the same period the population of much of Europe is actually expected to decline, and that of other developed areas, such as the United States and Japan, is expected to be relatively stable—except for immigration increases.

Statistics do not come close to accurately describing the meanness of the conditions under which many people exist, however. Images seem to tell more:

Throughout Africa, children dominate the scene—thousands and thousands of children everywhere. The youngest, when well fed, are as buoyant and cheerful as children anywhere. But as they grow and become aware of how severely limited their opportunities are, their buoyancy is replaced with listlessness and their cheerfulness becomes a sullen hostility searching for a place or person on which to focus.

A late night visitor to Cairo cannot help but be struck by how many people are homeless. Throughout the night, young and old people by the hundreds are out on the streets. A common sight at 3:00 A.M is a group of small children under a dim street light kicking a soccer ball made of rags only a little worse than the clothing they wear. One senses that many of the current residents of Cairo are worse off than their ancestors who toiled in constructing the Pyramid of Khufu 4500 years ago.

In Bangkok, a dawn excursion on the canals is likely to find an old woman bathing, while upstream a man is urinating into the canal and downstream another man is brushing his teeth.

1.2 What to Do
To Westerners, the answer to the population explosion is simple: birth control. In fact, today and for some time in the past, great amounts of human and financial resources have been devoted to promoting wider use of birth control practices. But the problem is much more complex than just making birth control available to the people in the areas suffering from the high growth rates.

In many of the less developed regions of the world, the people's attitude toward birth control is still as it was depicted in Evelyn Waugh's acerbic classic, *Black Mischief*. Because so many people are on the edge between survival and disaster and have no government sponsored "safety net" under them, the presence of many children is the only social security for the older generation; and because of the high rates of infant and child mortality, many children are produced to improve the chances of a few surviving to adulthood.

In some countries with low population densities, but high population growth rates, governments have suggested that the heavy emphasis on birth control promotion in some of the aid programs of the industrialized countries is just another example of neo-colonialism which is aimed at depriving the poorer countries of the positions of power and influence that will follow their attaining significantly greater size. In many societies, even apart from their economic function, children are symbols of the strength and vitality of the parents, especially the father. Thus, promotion of birth control in such places is viewed by a good number of the inhabitants as an attempt by outsiders to denigrate what they consider important. Finally, in nearly every developing society, effective birth control practices seem to be tied to raising the economic and social status of women—a process which is itself impeded by rapid population growth, and which in any event appears destined to require decades at least for significant accomplishment.

Given the economic and sociological foundations of constraints on effective measures to curb population growth, it seems clear that success, if it comes, will be slow and must be a product of continuous efforts to promote birth control, increased affluence with improved health and social care, and better education. In effect, success in curbing population growth depends in large part on overcoming the other obstacle to sustained economic growth—the failure of economic policies.

2. Failure of Economic Policies

2.1 The Problems
Over the last 10 to 15 years, a number of previously less developed countries have experienced phenomenal economic growth rates. In the 12 years from 1972, the Republic of China (Taiwan) has increased per capita income sevenfold even in the face of high population growth. Similarly, Hong Kong has become so productive that with a population of only 5.5 million people it has export earnings in excess of all of mainland China's, where the population is in excess of 1 billion people. Bahrain, Botswana, Singapore and South Korea also have experienced substantial growth over the last 15 years.

For many other less developed regions of the world, the story is not so sanguine. In country after country the economies have failed to produce any significant growth. The problem is so severe that the inhabitants of many countries are now worse off than they were 10, 15, or 20 years ago. One of the most discouraging realities about sub-Saharan Africa is that taken as a whole its per capita income is lower today than it was when independence came some two decades ago. In other countries that have experienced real growth, too often the distribution of the gains has benefitted only a few, while the majority have had no measurable improvement in their living standards. Kenya and the Philippines are prime examples. In some instances the economic failures are attributable to natural disasters or political upheavals. And in a few cases, economic catastrophe seems traceable not to one or two factors but to a dispiriting mix of just about all the bad things which can lead to trouble: the current famine in Ethiopia, for example, appears to be the result of many factors, including several years of drought and widespread civil war, as well as economic mismanagement and the woefully inept allocation of meager resources under the present government. The enormous rise in the prices of oil and natural gas in the 1970s also had a negative impact on the economic performance in many of the less developed, energy importing countries.

In a good many cases, however, numbers of economic failures have occurred during a period of relative political calm and in the absence of significant, long term natural calamities. In addition, the growth rates during the 1970s of Taiwan, Hong Kong and South Korea, all net importers of petroleum products, make it clear that the rapid increases in energy prices were not insuperable obstacles to economic success.

The economic failures in many of the poorest regions of the world appear to be attributable to breakdowns in the agricultural sector, the inefficient use of resources outside the agricultural sector, and a "collective lack of effort" on the part of the inhabitants of these regions. No economic or political system has been immune: the failures have struck socialist and capitalist economies governed both by civilian and military leaders.
2.1.1 Breakdowns in the Agricultural Sector

Per capita food production in Asia and Latin America has increased to about 115 percent of what it was in 1961 through 1965. In sub-Saharan Africa, however, per capita food production has fallen to about 80 percent of the 1961-1965 levels. No wonder that a recent report of the World Bank concluded that "The spectre of disaster ... confronts Africa and the international community." Some warn that the famine now threatening several million people in Africa may extend in the foreseeable future to much of the continent and affect more than 100 million people.

The decline in agricultural production is due to a number of factors. Most African farmers are producing well below the maximum yields available with existing seed varieties, farming practices, and fertilizer and insecticide usages. Government pricing policies that affect agricultural inputs and output are widely thought to offer insufficient incentives to increase production. Transportation and marketing facilities frequently are extremely inefficient.

A net rural to urban migration contributes to the problems in the agricultural sector—but the failures noted in the agricultural policies have led to increases in the level of that migration. The high prices of food and other necessities contributes to the problems in the agricultural sector—but the failures noted in the agricultural policies have led to increases in the level of that migration. The high migration, in turn, has created significant problems in the urban areas: extraordinarily high unemployment, a lack of housing, medical and educational facilities, and social and political unrest.

2.1.2 Inefficient Use of Resources

Over the last two decades, the amount of concessional assistance directed to the less developed regions of the world has grown very considerably. For 1961, official development assistance from the industrialized countries to OPEC totalled $33.4 billion, up from 7.3 billion in 1970. Private direct foreign investment in less developed countries also has increased significantly during this time. United States foreign direct investment in developing countries, for example, increased from $19.2 billion in 1970 to $52.2 billion in 1982. In addition, largely through the recycling of petrodollars, commercial bank lending to the third world debtors has grown astronomically during the last decade. By the end of 1982, external indebtedness of the non-OPEC, less-developed countries exceeded $600 billion—more than four and one half times the level of 1973. Approximately $285 billion of the debt was owed to commercial banks in industrialized countries.

The net result is that in recent times significant amounts of resources have been channeled into the less developed countries. However, for many of these countries, the substantial amounts of new resources have not produced a material improvement in the conditions of their average inhabitant.

For some of these countries, the increased resources simply have not been available. Private direct foreign investment and commercial bank lending to the less developed regions of the world are concentrated in the largest, more affluent countries of the Third World. Almost one half of the United States foreign direct investment in developing countries is located in Brazil, Mexico, Panama, Hong Kong and Argentina. Mexico, Brazil and Argentina also account for 56.3 billion of the debt owed to United States commercial banks.

I know of no instance, however, in which a country can claim that its poor performance is due exclusively, or even principally, to its being denied access to external resources. Even the poorest countries in the world, while they have not benefitted from foreign direct investment and commercial bank loans, have received substantial amounts of concessional assistance. There must be other reasons the economies have failed to perform. The ones I have been able to identify are as follows:

—Use of resources to enrich a limited segment of the population. In some instances, corrupt government officials siphon off funds intended for public assistance or require bribes or kickbacks as conditions for permitting the entry of foreign direct investment. It is generally acknowledged, for example, that the leaders of several less developed countries have made themselves rich through the diversion of public resources into their personal accounts. These practices undoubtedly have had a severe impact on the economies of countries involved.

—Excessive use of resources for national defense. The amount spent on the development of weaponry and the expansion and maintenance of defenses, navies and air forces is a global problem, but it is especially acute in the very poorest countries where the governments spend substantial sums on arms as the basic needs of the population go unmet. The governments seem more willing to spend resources suppressing the populace than alleviating the harsh conditions under which they live.

—Use of resources for projects of questionable utility. Too often resources have been used for projects high in prestige or visibility, but of little practical importance. The national airlines of many less developed countries are prime examples as they generate losses year after year without contributing to the national well-being. In fact, the major beneficiaries of these national airlines are airlines in the industrialized countries which often operate the national airlines under lucrative management services agreements. Other examples in the public sector include large conference centers, administrative buildings, university centers, hotels, and highways. In the industrial sector nonviable projects have included oil and sugar refineries, steel mills, and textile and cement factories. A great many projects have been funded because of their prestige or without adequate regard for the likely financial and economic rates of return. In the middle 1970s, for example, Fiat contracted with the Zambian government for the establishment of an automobile and light truck assembly plant. The parts of the vehicles were imported into Zambia duty free, but the aggregate price of the unassembled parts still exceeded the market value of a fully assembled automobile or truck. In another instance, the Rumanians were about to sell a complete iron and steel complex to the government of a less developed country when an adviser to the government pointed out that it would be cheaper for the government to import the steel and give it away to local consumers than to go forward with the construction of the proposed iron and steel plant.

—Loss of human and capital resources to the industrialized countries. The most skilled and highly educated from less developed regions frequently are frustrated by the limited opportunities in their homelands and dazzled by the intellectual challenges and monetary rewards in the industrialized countries. Many such people emigrate from their homelands, where their services are greatly needed, and go to the industrialized countries where their services may be of no more than marginal importance. The same has happened with capital. It is clear, for example, that a substantial, but indeterminate amount of the money lent by commercial banks to Latin American debtors has been used to fund investments in the industrialized countries, especially the United States. The present strength of the dollar is partially attributable to the flow of capital from Latin America.

—The concessional assistance policies of the industrialized countries. The aid policies of both the Eastern and Western industrialized countries are almost universally structured so as to generate substantial benefits for the donor coun-
tries. Often this is in the form of "tied aid" programs under which the donor country provides financing assistance and grants for specific projects in the donee countries. The donors, however, are obligated in return to purchase essential components from manufacturers in the donor countries. These purchases frequently are at above world market prices and the products sometimes are less than entirely suitable. In one instance, for example, the Yugoslavs provided a low interest loan to an Africa government to purchase several buses. The buses were made in Yugoslavia and were designed for use in the countries that drive on the right side of the road. In the African countries where the buses were sent, however, the people drive on the left side. As a result, the buses arrived with their doors positioned so that the passengers were picked up and discharged in the middle of the road. In another instance, a low interest loan to a university in a less developed country enabled the university to purchase a sophisticated electron microscope from the creditor before there was anybody at the university capable of assembling or using the equipment.

2.1.3 A Collective Lack of Effort

In a number of the less developed countries with poorly performing economies, there is a widely publicized view that the economic problems are due to external causes—that economic success will follow not from greater effort, but from removal of the externalities. In many of the less developed countries with continuing economic stagnation, it is common to hear complaints about the inadequate levels of assistance provided by the industrialized countries and international organization, and the newspapers are filled with examples of outrage and conduct by foreign based multinational corporations.

This focus on the negative effects of external conditions has had a significant impact on the local populations. If the economic problems are due to external circumstances, the people think, then they are relatively powerless to affect their own destinies: and if they are powerless, then why put forth much effort? When one travels through some of the poorest countries in the world, one cannot help but be struck by the fact that people there simply do not work hard. Shoddy work, alcoholism and extraordinarily high levels of absenteeism are common. In negotiations with multinational corporations, for example, the representatives from the poor countries time after time arrive at the bargaining table generally unprepared. There is no sense that self help is the first source to look for assistance. Instead, their attitude seems to be that, by virtue of their being poor, the less developed countries have a moral claim to the resources of the industrialized countries and multinational corporations—a claim that diminishes morale and nearly always falls on deaf ears externally.

2.2 What To Do

As with the problem of the population growth, overcoming the failure of past economic policies will not be easy. In my own view, the answer does not lie in more external assistance. Based on records to date, it does not appear that the less developed countries are making good use of the resources presently at their disposal. As a result, the emphasis should, I feel, be on making much better use of the existing resources rather than attempting to obtain additional ones.

To do this, the people in less developed countries first have to take greater responsibility for their own development. They must recognize that if they put forth less than a full effort on their own behalf they cannot expect the same level of benefits as in other economies where the participants are substantially committed to self help. If they are only working 3 or 4 hours a day in a desultory fashion, they cannot expect a great amount of support from the countries where the inhabitants commonly work 7 to 10 fairly productive hours per day.

To attack the general economic malaise in the less developed countries, the industrialized countries should at least attempt better coordination of their concessionary assistance programs with the development goals of the less developed countries. Coordination among the donor countries and between the donor countries and multinational agencies—such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund—also should lead to a more efficient use of resources.

As to the poor performance of the agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa, the lessons of Asia and Latin America, where per capita food production has increased markedly, need to be applied. Fortunately, it would appear that this is precisely what is happening as a number of African governments apparently now recognize that agricultural output will not increase without higher prices and more flexible marketing and transportation policies. In addition, policies which bring productive farmers from other regions of the world to Africa to advise the African farmers and, very importantly, work side by side with the African farmer in implementing the advice should be encouraged. Unfortunately, one successful example of this—the assistance provided by Israeli agricultural specialists—was terminated when most of Black Africa severed diplomatic relations with Israel in the wake of the Yom Kippur War in 1973.

3. What Can the United States Do?

The United States government and private charities already devote substantial human and capital resources to improving conditions in the less developed countries. Nonetheless, both quantitatively and qualitatively the United States aid programs are not foremost in the world. As a percentage of gross national product, the United States provides much less assistance than the Scandinavian countries or Canada do. In addition, some of the United States aid programs seem to have a higher element of self-interest than is generally found in the assistance programs of the Scandinavian countries. As I have suggested above, however, the solution is not to greatly expand our aid programs; instead it is to consider whether existing resources could be more effectively used to combat the problems of the less developed countries.

In this regard, there are two important contributions the United States could make to further assist the less developed countries:

- Make more widely available professional education of the style which the United States in particular has developed;
- Expand the opportunities for well-trained Americans to work in less developed countries with their inhabitants.

The industrialized countries (both East and West) have extensive programs for training residents of less developed countries in the physical and social sciences. The programs in these disciplines offered by other industrial countries compare favorably with what we have here. But in my view a large number of the less developed countries have more than enough people trained in these disciplines. What they are lacking is people who can analyze one project relative to another, who can negotiate with the sophisticated and experienced teams of multinational corporations and the governments of the industrialized countries, and who can objectively and rationally formulate development priorities. In this part of the educational process, American professional schools may have an edge because of their emphasis on the development of analytic skills:
They teach students how to analyze problems and how to negotiate and they attempt to infuse students with levels of objectivity and rationality the students would not otherwise attain. These are valuable skills in short supply in a great many less developed countries. It is possible that the most positive, long-range contribution we could make to their development process would be to make a professional school education more widely available to their future decision makers.

An important question is whether the education should be offered in the United States or United States educators should go to the less developed countries. The educational process may be more effective and less costly if the foreign students are incorporated into regular professional school programs in the United States. But in some of the less developed countries there is the problem that too often the foreign students find the excitement and affluence of Western society too attractive to leave. As a result, policymakers in these countries would view any expansion of educational opportunities in the West as likely to exacerbate the already severe "brain drain" out of the less developed countries. Consequently, they would prefer to have United States educators there rather than have their students here. From an American perspective, this problem poses a dilemma because it represents a conflict between an individual's freedom of movement and the state's power to make efficient use of its human and capital resources to promote development.

Thus, where concerns about the "brain drain" are expressed, the United States should be sensitive to such concerns, but probably the most appropriate policy for us would be one of neutrality on the question of out-migration. The United States should neither discourage nor encourage foreign student study in the United States. We could fund the alternatives as part of our aid program but leave to the individual countries the choice of specialized professional education at home—or here.

The other important contribution we can make to less developed countries is our people. Americans, in addition to their considerable technical expertise, often have an infectious sense of optimism and enthusiasm and exuberance for life that travels well. In just about any part of the world, if the local inhabitants are given the choice of working with an American, a German, or a Russian—all other things being equal—they will very often chose the American. The Peace Corps, in my view, is a very important contribution to global development and peace, but we have many more qualified and interested people than we send overseas. Although in places, greater numbers of Peace Corps volunteers would not be welcome, in many others there are opportunities where more Peace Corps volunteers would be helpful. Thus, an effort to expand Peace Corps placements, if done with care and sensitivity to local interests, could have a salutary effect on growth in the less developed countries. Coincidentally, it would give a number of Americans a sense of self respect and self importance not often provided by the almost anonymous way in which most of us participate in the American economy.

Special thanks to my colleague Larry Church for his comments on this article. He has travelled extensively and given a great deal of thought to the problems facing third world countries. His insights were very helpful.

Charles Irish

3. The 1984 Annual Report of the Chairman of the Development Coordination Committee at 34.
4. "Petrodollars" is the word used to describe the surpluses accumulated by the oil exporting countries following the enormous increases in oil prices in 1973 and 1974. Substantial amounts of these surpluses were put on deposit with commercial banks, which then lent them to the oil importing countries.
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The Application of Miss Lavinia Goodell

On December 14, 1875, an attorney (male) filed a motion in the Wisconsin Supreme Court on behalf of Miss Lavinia Goodell (female) to admit her to practice before that Court.

Chief Justice Ryan—in a unanimous opinion for himself and the two Associate Justices who then comprised the Court—denied the application, squarely on the basis of her sex.

Three and a half years later, Miss Goodell (again through her male attorney) was back with a fresh motion, based this time on a statutory change—adopted in 1878 by the Wisconsin Legislature—which purported to bar discrimination on the basis of sex in the admission to practice before the State's courts.

By this time the Court's membership had been enlarged to include a Chief and four Associate Justices. This time, the Court granted Miss Goodell's motion but over the objection of Chief Justice Ryan who dissented without opinion.

The Court's orders disposing of both of Miss Goodell's applications were accompanied by opinions which appear in the official Wisconsin Reports. Below are set forth in full the two opinions of the Court, under the respective headings of APPLICATION I and APPLICATION II. Connoisseurs wishing to pursue the story somewhat further will find a bit more information in the Wisconsin Reports than is reproduced here, for only the opinions appear below and the official Wisconsin Reports set out in addition a summary of the arguments advanced by counsel on Miss Goodell's behalf and a few comments added by the Court's Reporter.

A search conducted on behalf of the GARGOYLE had failed by the time this note was written to surface either a photograph or any further information concerning Miss Goodell. If any of our readers have more light to shed on the history of Miss Goodell, the GARGOYLE would be interested in additional information.
too much reliance on the judgment of the legislature to apprehend another such attempt to degrade the courts. The state legislature to apprehend another such coordinate branches scrupulously to avoid even all seeming of such. If, unfortunately, such an attack upon the dignity of the courts should again be made, it will be time for them to inquire whether the rule of admission be within the legislative or the judicial power. But we will not anticipate such an unwise and unbecoming interference in what so peculiarly concerns the courts, whether the power to make it exists or not. In the meantime, it is a pleasure to defer to all reasonable statutes on the subject. And we will decide this motion on the present statutes, without passing on their binding force.

This is the first application for admission of a female to the bar of this court. And it is just matter for congratulation that it is made in favor of a lady whose character raises no personal objection; something perhaps not always to be looked for in women who forsake the ways of their sex for the ways of ours.

The statute provides for admission of attorneys in a circuit court upon examination to the satisfaction of the judge, and for the right of persons so admitted to practice in all courts here except this; but that to entitle any one to practice in this court he shall be licensed by order of this court. T. Stats., ch. 119, sections 31, 32, 33. While these sections give a rule to the circuit courts, they avoid giving any to this court, leaving admission here, as it ought to be, in the discretion of this court. This is, perhaps, a sufficient answer to the present application, which is not addressed to our discretion, but proceeds on assumed right founded on admission in a circuit court. But the novel positions on which the motion was pressed appear to call for a broader answer.

The language of the statute, of itself, confessedly applies to males only. But it is insisted that the rule of construction found in subd. 2, sec. 1, ch. 5, R.S., necessarily extends the terms of the statute to females. The rule is that words in the singular number may be construed in plural, and in the plural, singular; and that the words of the masculine gender may be applied to females; unless, in either case, such construction would be inconsistent with the manifest intention of the legislature.

This was pressed upon us, as if it were a new rule of construction, of particular application to our statutes. We do not so understand it. It appears to be but a particular application of the general rule thus stated by TINDALL, C.J.: "The only rule for the construction of acts of parliament is, that they should be construed according to the intent of the parliament which passed the act." And it is not new or peculiar here. Potter's Dwarris, 111. The last clause of the rule, relating to sex, seems to be almost as old as Magna Charta. Coke, 2 Inst., 45. We apprehend that, unless in the construction of penal statutes, it has been little questioned since the much considered case of King v. Wiseman, Fortescue, 91. The rule is permissive only, as an aid in giving effect to the true intent of the legislature. Even of a statutory rule positive in terms, Lord DENMAN said: "It is not to be taken as substituting one set of words for another, nor as strictly defining what the meaning of a word must be under all circumstances. We rather think that it merely declares what persons may be included within a term, when the circumstances require that they should." Queen v. Justices, etc., 7 A. & E., 480. So, a fortiori, of the permissive rule here.

And the argument for this motion is simply this: that the application of this permissive rule of construction to a provision applicable in terms to males only, has effect, without other sign of legislative intent, to admit females to the bar from which the common law has excluded them ever since courts have administered the common law. This is sufficiently startling. But the argument cannot stop there. Its logic goes far beyond the bar. The same peremptory rule of construction would reach all or nearly all the functions of the state government, would obliterate almost all distinction of sex in our statutory corpus juris, and make females eligible to almost all offices under our statutes, municipal and state, executive, legislative and judicial, except insofar as the constitution may interpose a virile qualification. Indeed the argument appears to overrule even this exception. For we were referred to a case in Iowa, which unfortunately we do not find in the reports of that state, holding a woman not excluded by the statutory description of "any white male person." If we should follow that authority in ignoring the distinction of sex, we do not perceive why it should not emasculate the constitution itself and include females in the constitutional right to male suffrage and male qualification. Such a rule would be one of judicial revolution, not of judicial construction. There is no sign nor symptom in our statute law of any legislative imagination of such a radical change in the economy of the state government. There are nearly the outer very irresistible presumption that the legislature never contemplated such confusion of functions between the sexes. The application of the permissive rule of construction here would not be in aid of the legislative intention, but in open defiance of it. We cannot stultify the court by holding that the legislature intended to bring about, per ambages, a sweeping revolution of social order, by adopting a very innocent rule of statutory construction.

Some attempt was made to give plausibility to the particular construction urged upon us, founded on ch. 117 of 1867, and ch. 79 of 1870. It was represented that the former admits women to every department of the university, excepting the military only, and so necessarily including the law department; that the latter directs admission of female graduates of the law school, and ought therefore to be understood as extending the admission of women under the general statute. If the legislature had so provided for the admission of female graduates, we do not perceive how that could aid the construction of the general statute, or this lady, who does not appear to be a graduate. But, unfortunately for the position, the statutes were not stated with the fair accuracy which becomes counsel, and do not support it.

The act of 1867 is an amendment of sec. 4 of the act of 1866, reorganizing the university. The section of 1866 provided, without qualification, that "the university in all its departments and colleges shall be open to female as well as male students." The section of the 1867 substitutes the provision, that "the university shall be open to female as well as male students, under such regulations and restrictions as the board of regents may deem proper." In both statutes, the section provides that all able bodied male students shall receive military instruction, and makes no other reference to a military department. And the argument that the admission of females under the statute of 1867, to all departments except the military, necessarily contemplated their admission to the law department, falls to the ground, because the statute neither mentions all departments nor excepts the military—if there be a military—department.

The inaccuracy is the more striking from the fact that the section of 1866 does expressly include all departments and colleges, and the amendment of 1867, evidently ex industrial, omits them. The change of an absolute right of admission to all departments and colleges of the university in 1866, to admission to the university under discretionary regulations and restrictions of the regents in 1867, is very significant; the more so that it is the only amendment made. It seems likely that the legislature came to regard the absolute and indiscriminate right of
1866 as dangerously broad, and to consider it necessary to make the right subordinate to the judgment of the regents. And if the law school had then been established by statute, it would be very doubtful whether the admission of females to it would be sanctioned by the act of 1867. But there was no such statute; and the law school was in fact established, not by statute, but, as we learn, by the authority of the university, some time in 1868, after enactment of the section in both forms. The first class of students, all males, graduated in 1869, without color of right to practice. Hence the statute of 1870, to give the right, presumably passed without thought of the admission of females to the bar. And the general argument for this motion takes nothing by these statutes.

So we find no statutory authority for the admission of females to the bar of any court of this state. And, with all the respect and sympathy for this lady which all men owe to all good women, we cannot regret that we do not. We cannot but think the common law wise in excluding women from the profession of the law. The profession enters largely into the well being of society; and, to be honorably filled and safely to society, exacts the devotion of life. The law of nature destinies and qualifies the female sex for the bearing and nurture of the children of our race and for the custody of the homes of the world and their maintenance in love and honor. And all life-long callings of women, inconsistent with these radical and sacred duties of their sex, as is the profession of the law, are departures from the order of nature; and when voluntary, treason against it. The cruel chances of life sometimes baffle both sexes, and may leave women free from the peculiar duties of their sex. These may need employment, and should be welcome to any not derogatory to their sex and its proprieties, or inconsistent with the good order of society. But it is public policy to provide for the sex, not for its superfluous members; and not to tempt women from the proper duties of their sex by opening to them duties peculiar to ours. There are many employments in life not unfit for female character. The profession of the law is surely not one of these. The peculiar qualities of womanhood, its gently graces, its quick sensibility, its tender susceptibility, its purity, its delicacy, its emotional impulses, its subordination of hard reason to sympathetic feeling, are surely not qualifications for forensic strife. Nature has tempered woman as little for the judicial conflicts of the court room, as for the physical conflicts of the battlefield. Womanhood is moulded for gentler and better things. And it is not the saints of the world who chiefly give employment to our profession. It has essentially and habitually to do with all that is selfish and malicious, knavish and criminal, coarse and brutal, repulsive and obscene, in human life. It would be revolting to all female sense of innocence and sanctity of their sex, shocking to man’s reverence for womanhood and faith in woman, on which hinge all the better affections and humanities of life, that woman should be permitted to mix professionally in all the nastiness of the world which finds its way into courts of justice; all the unclean issues, all the collateral questions of sodomy, incest, rape, seduction, fornication, adultery, pregnancy, bastardy, legitimacy, prostitution, lascivious cohabitation, abortion, infanticide, obscene publications, libel and slander of sex, impotence, divorce: all the nameless catalogue of indecencies, la chronique scandaleuse of all the vices and all the infirmities of all society, with which the profession has to deal, and which go towards filling judicial reports which must be read for accurate knowledge of the law. This is bad enough for men. We hold in too high reverence the sex without which, as is truly and beautifully written, le commencement de la vie est sans secours, le milieu sans plaisir, et le fin sans consolation, voluntarily to commit it to such studies and such occupations. Non tall auxilio nec defensoribus istis, should juridical contests be upheld. Reverence for all womanhood would suffer in the public spectacle of woman so instructed and so engaged. This motion gives appropriate evidence of this truth. No modest woman could read without paid and self abasement, no woman could so overcome the instincts of sex as publicly to discuss, the case which we had occasion to cite,'King v. Wiseman. And when counsel was arguing for this lady that the word, person, in sec. 32, ch. 119, necessarily includes females, her presence made it impossible to suggest to him as reductio ad absurdum of his position, that the same construction from the same word in sec. 1, ch. 37, would subject woman to prosecution for the paternity of a bastard, and in secs. 39, 40, ch. 164, to prosecution for rape. Discussions are habitually necessary in courts of justice, which are unfit for female ears. The habitual presence of women at these would tend to relax the public sense of decency and propriety. If, as counsel threatened, these things are to come, we will take no voluntary part in bringing them about.

By the Court.—The motion is denied.

Application II
(Reported as Appendix to Volume, 49 Wis. 693 [1880])

COLE, J. On the former application for the admission of Miss Lavinia Goodell to the bar of this court, it was held that there was no statutory authority for the admission of females to the bar of any court of this State. 39 Wis. 232. Since that decision was made, the legislature has provided that "no person shall be denied admission or license to practice as an attorney in any court of this state on account of sex" (subd. 5, sec. 2586, R. S. 1878), which removes the objection founded upon a want of legislative authority to admit females to practice. It may admit of serious doubt whether, under the constitution of this state, the legislature has the absolute and exclusive power to declare who shall be admitted as attorneys to practice in the courts of this state: or whether the courts themselves, as a necessary and inherent part of their powers, have not full control over the subject. It was said by the chief justice, on the previous application, that it was a grave question whether the constitution does not entrust the rule of admissions to the bar, as well as of expulsion from it, exclusively to the discretion of the courts, as part of their judicial power. But it was further remarked by the chief justice, that the legislature had from time to time assumed the power to prescribe rules for the admission of attorneys, and, when those rules have seemed reasonable and just, it has generally been the pleasure of the courts to act upon such states, in deference to the wishes of a coordinate branch of the government, without considering the question of power. A majority of the court are disposed to pursue the same course now, and act upon the statute above cited, waiving for the present the question whether or not the courts are vested with the ultimate power under the constitution of regulating and determining for themselves as to who are entitled to admission to practice. We are satisfied that the applicant possesses all the requisite qualifications as to learning, ability and moral character to entitle her to admission, no objection existing thereto except that founded upon her sex alone. Under the circumstances, a majority think that the objection must be disregarded. Miss Goodell will therefore be admitted to practice in this court upon signing the roll and taking the prescribed oath.

By the Court.—So ordered.

RYAN, C. J., dissented.

The publication of this decision, in the reports, has been delayed in the expectation that a dissenting opinion would be prepared by the chief justice. — REPORTER.
The Wisconsin Idea at Work:  
The Criminal Jury Instruction Project

William G. Moore

It is the essence of the Wisconsin Idea that close, working collaborations are established and maintained between the University and institutions of the State, both private and public. Such collaborations exist throughout the University and collectively they touch just about every significant aspect of the State's wellbeing.

One of the great collaborations is centered in the Law School on the work of Frank Remington and the younger associates he has drawn around him in the area of criminal justice administration. And the activities of Frank and that group have long ago swept over the borders of Wisconsin to affect criminal law throughout the nation.

The account which follows reports on the Wisconsin Criminal Jury Instruction Project, a narrow albeit exceedingly important part of the larger collaborative Law School effort in the field of criminal justice. More particularly, the account traces the development of a set of volumes—entitled WISCONSIN JURY INSTRUCTIONS—CRIMINAL—which have become the vade mecum for a great many of the judges and lawyers who make Wisconsin's system of criminal litigation work.

The author of the report which follows is William G. Moore, a recent graduate of Bowdoin College in Maine. But Bill isn't lacking either in Wisconsin connections or a genetic heritage that should help him write well. His middle initial stands for "Garri-son," and he is kin to our former Law Dean, Lloyd Garrison. Moreover, Bill's mother earned a doctorate in English at Wisconsin and his father, another Bill Moore, was Editor-in-Chief of the Wisconsin Law Review and finished first in his class here in 1950.

Origins: The Creation of the 1956 Wisconsin Criminal Code

WISCONSIN JURY INSTRUCTIONS—CRIMINAL are a product or—perhaps more accurately—a by-product of the Wisconsin Criminal Code, adopted in 1956. But our story has beginnings somewhat earlier when the Wisconsin Legislature, at the suggestion of Senator Gustav Buchen, asked the Law School to assist in the drafting of a new criminal code.

Dean Oliver Rundell responded favorably. Frank Remington was tapped for the task of directing the research and drafting project in the Law School. Margo Melli and Orrin Helstad, completing their own law degrees at UW in 1950, were added that year as research assistants—through funds made available by Dean Rundell—and with Frank Remington rounded out the team which did the primary research and initial drafting on what became the 1956 Criminal Code. Those three—all of whom are current members of the UW Law Faculty—owed much to the direction of two others: One was William Platz (LL.B. '35), long-time Assistant Attorney General of Wisconsin and the widely recognized expert on the State's criminal law of that period. The second was John Conway, then Wisconsin's Revisor of Statutes and thereafter a long-time and well-regarded member of the Law Faculty.

With much of the basic research and an initial draft of the Code completed, an Advisory Committee of judges and lawyers was formed late in 1953, chaired by Circuit Judge Gerald Boileau of Wausau.
That Committee conducted a series of hearings around the State which served both to spread understanding of the draft and to surface criticisms of changes the proposed Code would make. Some alterations were made in the draft as a result of the hearing process and in July 1956 the draft, thus changed, became law. It was described at the time as "the first entirely new Criminal Code in the history of this nation" and the extent to which its provisions have been copied across the country eloquently speaks to the influence the Wisconsin Code has had on criminal justice in the United States in the past three decades.

Origins: Jury Instructions to Fit the New Code

Inevitably, the Code—with a lot of its language new—created particular problems for judges and lawyers when it came to framing instructions for juries in criminal cases. But even under the law in force prior to enactment of the Code, there had been no immediate reference work to assist the Wisconsin bench and bar in the preparation of jury instructions in criminal cases. Judges simply relied upon one another's files that had accumulated various instructions over the years, consulted experienced senior judges, or devised their own instructions when they encountered new or unusual cases. Uniformity was noticeably lacking. With the enactment of the new Code, even these informal methods of instruction became obsolete. Along with the need for uniform instructions came the urgent necessity to familiarize judges and lawyers with the new Criminal Code in a consistent manner.

It was logical that the partnership that had developed between the University and the State during the preparation of new criminal statutes be continued for the purpose of drafting instructions.

Thus, in 1960, the Wisconsin Board of Criminal Court Judges “authorized and directed a jury instructions committee consisting of five judges to submit to the board suggested instructions that would assist judges and trial lawyers in the presentation of criminal cases to juries.” Among the members of the Criminal Jury Instructions Committee were two senior judges, Circuit Judge Gerald Boileau, whose role in the creation of the new Criminal Code has been mentioned, and Circuit Judge Herbert Steffes of Milwaukee. Assistant Attorney General Bill Platz and Professor Frank Remington—by invitation—became unofficial, albeit essential advisory members. The University of Wisconsin Extension Law Department, then headed by William Bradford Smith, provided research assistants and paid all expenses incurred by the project. John H. Bowers of the Extension Law Department acted as Reporter and Editor for the Committee.

Early minutes of the meetings of the Instructions Committee indicate that initially the project was slated as a short term venture. The immediate concern was above all the creation of a set of general, flexible instructions, available in a manual, to aid the trial judge in the charging of the jury. The Committee set itself three objectives:

"...accurately and concisely (to) state the law in a way that would be meaningful and helpful to a jury;" 
"...relate the instructions to the new code;" 
"...make certain that all instructions are in conformity with the decisions of the Supreme Court."

At the monthly meetings—held at various locations throughout the state for the sake of the convenience of all involved in the project—drafts proposed by the research staff were subjected to minute scrutiny and alterations until unanimous approval of the Committee was obtained. In August of 1962, after more than two years in the making, the first edition of WISCONSIN JURY INSTRUCTIONS—CRIMINAL was available on a subscription basis.
Criticisms—And Praise

Over its nearly twenty-five years of existence, WISCONSIN JURY INSTRUCTIONS—CRIMINAL has never enjoyed universal acceptance. At one time or another, criticism has come both from judges who utilize it and from attorneys who practice before judges who use it for guidance. Much of the recognized success of the Instructions has, in fact, been due to the Committee’s response to criticism and its willingness to apply constructive ideas for change to the quarterly supplements and subsequent editions.

Juror comprehension is, of course, a cardinal concern in framing jury instructions and the question of comprehension is frequently a point around which supporters and opponents of standardized—or, pejoratively, “boilerplate”—jury instructions gather to do battle. But comprehensibility of an instruction isn’t the only question. A message accompanying the 1956 edition of the CALIFORNIA CIVIL JURY INSTRUCTIONS makes the point nicely: “The one thing an instruction must do above all else is to correctly state the law. This is true regardless of who is capable of understanding it.” In State v. Schultz, 102 Wis. 2d 423 (1981), the Wisconsin Supreme Court—stressing the importance both of comprehensibility and correctness in stating the law—put the matter thus:

“The instruction of the jury is a crucial component of the fact finding process. The jury as trier of fact is given the responsibility of making a determination of guilt or guiltlessness in light of the jury charge, and the validity of that determination is dependent upon the correctness of the instructions which are given. When a jury charge is given in such a way that a reasonable juror could have misinterpreted the instructions to the detriment of the defendant’s due process rights, then the determination of the jury is tainted.”

Wisconsin’s Criminal Jury Instructions have not escaped criticism on the comprehensibility/correctness front. Dane County Circuit Judge Angela Bartell cites verbosity of the Instructions as her chief complaint. Their wordiness and generally elaborate phraseology, she maintains, “overloads the circuits of the jurors.” She suggests a consolidation and translation of instructions into layman’s terms as a remedy. Nor is Judge Bartell alone in expressing concern for the comprehensibility of standardized instructions. Evaluations of comparable instructions in other court systems have reached conclusions similar to those of Judge Bartell. Two examples, frequently quoted, are Robert and Veda Charrow’s *Making Legal Language Understandable: A Psycholinguistic Study of Jury Instructions*, 79 Col. L. Rev. 1306 (1979) and U.S. District Judge William Schwarzer’s *Communicating with Juries: Problems and Remedies*, 69 Cal. L. Rev. 731 (1981).

In recent years, the Criminal Jury Instructions Committee has put about as much effort into the reworking of old instructions as the effort which goes into creation of new ones, in both instances guided by the desire to “accurately and concisely state the law in a way that would be meaningful and helpful to a juror.” Since the first edition was published in 1962, the Instructions have been updated and revised six times in pursuit of this goal. The frequency of the Committee’s meetings and the fact that the Instructions are printed in loose-leaf volumes, facilitates swift and convenient alterations. Indeed, the articles by the Charrows and by Judge Schwarzer have been instrumental in initiating specific changes in the direction of simplification of the Wisconsin Instructions.

Another complaint levied at pattern (standardized) jury instructions comes from lawyers who argue that reliance on them makes it difficult to convince judges of the necessity to depart from accepted patterns. Assistant State Public Defender Robert Burke—while conceding that Wisconsin’s Criminal Jury Instructions have never been mandatory and are voluntarily adopted by the judges when used—states that many judges view the Instructions as if they were “carved in granite.” The practical result in such cases, he suggests, is that the Instructions become mandatory. In routine cases, he finds, the Instructions suffice “nine times out of ten.” But in unusual instances, he believes they are too general and leave little room for the specifics of a given case which are essential to the determination of the guilt or innocence of the defendant. This problem, coupled with a frequently encountered unwillingness of the judge to admit into court some theory of defense, can, in Burke’s opinion, result in a transfer of the burden of proof from prosecution to defense.

Both the Supreme Court of Wisconsin and the Criminal Jury Instructions Committee have sought to ward off inflexible and unthinking use of the Instructions. Both have issued disclaimers, insisting the Instructions are neither infallible nor intended as “standard” in any strict sense of that word.

Dane County Circuit Judge Michael Torphy—himself a member of the Committee—agrees. For him, the purpose of the Instructions is not to provide the last word, but to provide patterns, the use and tailoring of which is left ultimately to the discretion of the individual judge. Lawyers of both the prosecution and defense are given multiple opportunities to propose alternatives. The Instructions cover the laws involved in a case without reference to a specific “fact situation,” and therefore are flexible enough to allow for important variations within cases of a certain type. Simultaneously, they state the law accurately and
have been at issue, the Court has most whole, however, has been more reserved in its praise. Where specific instructions have been taken to challenge bad jury charges, enabling them to prepare for a case as they see fit.

Yet even after taking all the complaints into account, there is widespread agreement that the Instructions are essential to the functioning of the trial courts. Both Judge Bartell and Judge Torphy praise the time saving and educative aspects of the Committee’s contributions. For a judge new to or unfamiliar with the criminal courts, they note, the instructions and their accompanying footnotes are invaluable, and for experienced judges, extremely useful as reference points for further case research.

No one would argue that the Instructions have achieved perfection. They are not a panacea that guarantees smooth courtroom proceedings. Prejudicial evidence that inadvertently enters the courtroom, for example, “cannot be cured in any realistic sense by instructions,” as the Wisconsin Supreme Court pointed out in *State v. Raskin*, 34 Wis. 2d 607 (1967). And no provision in the Instructions wholly protects the bench from human error, as the Court noted in *Holland v. State*, 91 Wis. 2d 134 (1979). Yet most outstanding controversies that have arisen with regard to the Instructions have had less to do with their actual substance than with the judgment of the courts in their application. When particular instructions have been taken out altogether or radically changed, the reason typically has been that the underlying law upon which an instruction rested has been changed in substance, either legislatively or by the Wisconsin or the United States Supreme Court. The Honorable Bruce Beilfuss, recently Chief Justice of Wisconsin, recalls the long hours he spent preparing jury instructions while a trial judge in the days before pattern instructions appeared. The “yeoman service,” as he put it, of people like John Bowers, Frank Remington, William Platz and Gerald Boileau created in his opinion a valuable and reliable tool which was excellent to start with and which has done nothing but improve with age. A major contribution of the Committee in the view of Chief Justice Beilfuss was the marked reduction in the number of appeals taken to challenge bad jury instructions.

The Wisconsin Supreme Court as a whole, however, has been more reserved in its praise. Where specific instructions have been at issue, the Court has most often simply announced its acceptance of the disputed section by referring to it as an “accurate statement of the law” or by labelling contested instructions “in conformity with the law.”

But in two cases the Supreme Court has praised the Instructions in a fashion that not only manifests its approval but also its enthusiasm for the Committee’s efforts. In *State v. Kanzelberger*, 28 Wis. 2d 652 (1965), the defendant attacked the Instructions on the grounds that they were confusing and prejudicial. The Supreme Court responded as follows:

The instructions are the product of painstaking effort of an eminently qualified committee of trial judges, lawyers and legal scholars, designed to accurately state the law and afford a means of uniformity of instructions throughout the state.

More recently, in *State v. Gilbert*, 115 Wis. 2d 371 (1983), the Court used the Special Material section in Volume III of the Instructions to resolve an issue of sentence credit, adding that:

The Special Material is a comprehensive study of the credit statute with guidelines for its implementation in the trial court. This Special Material . . . is entitled to the same weight that the Wisconsin Supreme Court gives to the Committee’s uniform jury instructions. . . .[It is] the Wisconsin Supreme Court’s view that the Committee’s work is persuasive.

The *American Bar Association Journal* has also commended the Instructions, referring to them as a “scholarly and joint effort by trial judges assisted by competent assistant attorneys general and law professors;” a “landmark achievement to stand with the earlier Civil Instructions. . . .[a] model of joint effort in a field that requires constant attention.” It is clear, then, that WISCON- SIN JURY INSTRUCTIONS—CRIMINAL has in large part succeeded.

**For the Future: An Expanding Role for the Wisconsin Idea**

Over the years, the Instructions have come to be considered essential in the opinions of most criminal court judges and criminal lawyers; the objectives stated from the start by the Committee have remained and have been continuously pursued, while new and even more ambitious goals have been added, broadening the scope of the Committee’s initial purpose. Extensive footnotes now accompany many of the instructions. These inform the user of precedents in which specific instructions have been an issue. Some judges and lawyers find the annotations even more helpful than the instructions they embellish.

In the early seventies, a grant was given to the University of Wisconsin Extension Law Department to provide it with the funds necessary to draft extensive supplementary instructions. This resulted in substantial expansion—under the heading of “Special Materials”—of the third volume in the Instructions set. These ‘Special Materials’ provide practical information on such matters as preliminary hearings, plea of guilty procedures and sentencing—and thus carry the Committee’s role well beyond a sole concern for jury instructions used in the courtroom. The most recent additions concern newly emerging facets of the law.

Always in sight has been the Wisconsin Idea. The Law School and the University Extension have made a substantial commitment and contribution to the workings of the legal system in the form of jury instructions. In return, judges have related day to day experiences that are passed from members of the University to the students, thus linking the important theoretical learnings with essential practical knowledge acquired in the field.

One cannot help but hear an echo of the lofty ideals of Dean Lloyd Garrison, whose great concern for the lawyer’s public responsibility led him to the belief that the Bar’s first duty in public affairs is to “promote, sustain, correct and improve the administration of justice.”
The Honorable Newell A. Lamb [LL.B. '35]—now "Dean" of all Indiana Judges—is rounding out his 40th year on the Circuit Court for Newton County, Indiana. Has a good record in the Supreme Court of the United States, too, for he was affirmed in both of his cases that were taken then.

Elmer L. Winter [LL.B. '35], a co-founder of Manpower, a world-wide temporary help and business services company, received the International Franchise Association's 1984 Hall of Fame Award in recognition of significant contributions to the advancement of franchising.

Frederic G. Gale [JD '59] was recently elected Vice President for Quality Standards of Fannie Mae [Federal National Mortgage Association].

John A. Netterblad [LL.B. '60], practicing in Higgs, Fletcher & Mack at San Diego, was inducted as a Fellow of the American College of Trial Lawyers in August 1984 and has been elected to the National Executive Board of the American Board of Trial Advocates.

William D. Mett [JD '67] is President and sole owner these days of Center Art Galleries-Hawaii, Inc., specializing in investment quality art. A press release we recently received announced that Bill had presented President Reagan with two sculptures by actor-artist Anthony Quinn—and a photograph which came along, too, showed Bill with the President and the Quinns in the Oval Office for the occasion.

Terry W. Rose [LL.B. '67] is President-elect of the Kenosha [Wisconsin] Bar Association.

Kay Ellen Consolver [LL.B. '68]—in her law school days, Kay Ellen Hayes—was elected Secretary of the Mobil Corporation on January 1, 1984.

Charles Sklarsky [JD '73], as an Assistant U.S. Attorney at Chicago, participated in the federal prosecution of Cook County Circuit judges charged in the Operation Greylord probe with selling justice from the bench. Of former Circuit Judge John J. Devine, second of the judges convicted in the probe, Sklarsky is reported to have declared that "He was an extortionist in the truest sense of the word. If he was a street criminal, he would put a gun to someone's head, but he used the power of his office to say, 'I want your money.'"

Lawrence A. Salibra II [JD '74] is working in Cleveland, Ohio, these days as General Counsel of the Alcoa Aluminum Corporation and is a member of the American Corporate Counsel Association.

George R. Kamperschroer [JD '75], a partner in Boardman, Suhr, Curry and Field at Madison, Wisconsin, recently received the Elijah Watt Sells award from the American Institute of Certified Accountants for achieving the highest score [among 72,600 candidates] on the nationwide "uniform CPA examination."

Stephen P. Jarchow [JD '76], now in Foster City, CA, and Vice President-Finance with Lincoln Property Company, recently authored Real Estate Syndication: Tax, Securities and Business Aspects [John Wiley & Sons, 1985].

Susan Johnston [JD '78] sounded very pleased with her job—and with Racine, Wisconsin—when she reported recently that she is an Assistant City Attorney there just now.

Pierce A. McNally [JD '78] has left practice in Twin Cities to join the newly-organized First Bank System Merchant Banking Group as Vice President in the area of mergers, acquisitions and buyouts.

Douglas G. Peterman [JD '81], a Trust Officer since his graduation at the M&I Marshall and Ilsley Bank in Milwaukee received the Gene and Ruth Posner Pro Bono Award in October 1984. That honor makes the nice point that legal services to the needy can be furnished by lawyers, whatever they do with the rest of their time.

Warren Woessner [JD '81] recently left Kenyon and Kenyon in New York City and has become associated with the Minneapolis firm of Merchant, Gould, Smith, Edell, Welter & Schmidt, where he specializes in chemical patent law.

Patti Goldman [JD '83] is a Fellow for the 1984-1985 academic year in the Woman's Law and Public Policy Program at the Georgetown University Law Center.
Law School
Spring Program Seminar:
Exploring Lawyer Conflict of Interest Problems

Saturday, May 4, 1985
9:30 to 11:30 A.M.
University of Wisconsin—Madison

With increasing frequency of late, lawyers have found themselves confronting conflict of interest problems which have arisen within their own practice.

Some of the problems have been around a long time, largely ignored until recently heightened sensitivity to such things forced attention to them. Examples abound and can be found across the entire spectrum of law practice. A commonplace example has been the handling by a single lawyer of a separation agreement and property settlement on behalf of a couple whose marriage is breaking up. And even solo practitioners can have problems on their hands when current clients come up with claims against persons for whom the attorneys have earlier performed services.

But other problems are new, products of changes in the content of substantive law itself or the result of procedural changes such as those which facilitate joinder of numerous claims and parties in the same proceeding.

Still other conflict of interest problems have grown out of the changing character of modern law practice: a law firm which has gone national—and even international—by opening satellite offices away from its original home base finds it can’t live without computers to warn that taking on some new matter will involve conflicts with interests of other clients the firm represents.

The Law School’s SPRING PROGRAM SEMINAR will examine lawyer conflict of interest problems from three separate perspectives in its two-hour session.

Here’s the line-up of perspectives and participants:

**The Large Law Firm:**
A Perspective on Its Range of Conflict of Interest Problems
By Frank L. Bixby ('53)
Sidley and Austin Chicago, Illinois

**Criminal Litigation:**
A Judge’s Perspective of Conflict of Interests in the Process
By the Honorable Barbara Crabb ('62)United States District Court Madison, Wisconsin

**Marital Property:**
A Lawyer’s Perspective of Conflict of Interest Problems Under a New Law
By John B. Haydon ('59)Whyte and Hirschboeck Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Moderator: U.W. Law Professor Ted Finman

Put a circle around Saturday, May 4, 1985, and plan to attend the Law School’s SPRING PROGRAM SEMINAR: Exploring Lawyer Conflict of Interest Problems.
New Faculty:
Ann Althouse and Rob Williams

The Law School was pleased to welcome this past Fall semester two new Assistant Professors—Ann Althouse and Rob Williams—who had been the Faculty's first choice for those two positions. Brief introductions to each follow. You may count on hearing a lot more about each as time goes on.

As a new Assistant Professor at the Law School, Ann Althouse radiates so much enthusiasm for teaching law that one might never believe she originally set out to be an artist. But in 1973 she graduated with a Bachelor's of Fine Arts at the University of Michigan and for a time thereafter worked as a commercial artist.

In 1978, however, she entered the Law School at New York University in pursuit of a long-standing desire to study law. In the next three years she collected an impressive array of honors, among which were:

- University Graduation Prize (for the highest cumulative academic average in her class);
- N.Y.U. Alumnae Club Pin (for outstanding woman student);
- Senior Note and Comment Editor of the New York University Law Review; and
- American Judicature Society Prize.

While still a law student, she worked as a summer associate for the New York firms of Fly, Shuebruk, Blume, Gaguine, Boros and Shulkind (1979) and Paul, Weiss, Rifkind, Wharton and Garrison (1980). Following graduation from Law School, Ann had a judicial clerkship with the Honorable Leonard B. Sand of the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York. And on completion of her clerkship in 1982 she worked as an associate at Sullivan and Cromwell until leaving New York in Summer 1984 to join the Wisconsin Law Faculty.

In the Fall semester just ended, Professor Althouse taught Federal Jurisdiction. For the Spring 1985 semester she is teaching Business Organizations II and a Seminar on Judicial Federalism.

Teaching provides her an opportunity—in Ann's own words—to "talk about the law" in a way a private practitioner cannot. Her method of instruction is not, she indicates, confined to a single approach. In general, she tries to stimulate the class and generate interaction through discussion. But when conditions demand, she isn't averse to lecturing. And she sees herself as a "perpetual student," acknowledging that in her first semester as a law professor she "learned a lot."

Her two legal publications to date demonstrate both her broadly diverse interests and the capacity to master different worlds. The earlier was entitled "Broadcast Deregulation and the First Amendment: Restraints on Private Control of the Publicly Owned Forum," and the only recently published "The Use of Conspiracy Theory to Establish In Personam Jurisdiction: A Due Process Analysis."

In time off from her life as a "perpetual student," Ann enjoys painting and spending time with her husband—author of two already published novels—and with their two young sons.

Robert A. Williams, Jr., an Assistant Professor new at Wisconsin in Fall 1984, says that his decision to go to law school had less to do with his father's occupation as a lawyer than the history of his tribe—the Lumbee Indians—fighting for its rights as a nation through litigation and other legal action. His decision owes a lot as well to his Indian grandmother who raised him and instilled in him a deep sense of native American culture and tradition.

A 1977 graduate of Loyola College at Baltimore where he had concentrated on English literature and journalism, Rob put in a brief stint as a music critic before going on to Harvard Law School. His three years at Harvard are marked by an impressive array of law-related extracurricular activities:

- a key role in the Native American Law Student Association;
... coordinator and chief administrative assistant at the Lincoln Institute of Land Policy; and
... as a legal consultant for Regional and Urban Planning Implementation, Incorporated, where he performed legal and planning analyses for private and public sector clients (including service as an analyst for an Air Force-sponsored "Impact Study for MX Missiles").

Rob Williams

In 1980, Rob graduated from Harvard Law School and from 1981 through 1984 taught at the Law School of Rutgers University (Camden). His courses included studies on East Coast tribal issues and while there he received the Rutgers University Research Council Award for his study on the history of economic development and tax policy on Indian reservations in the United States. In addition, he found time as well to serve as a Washington lobbyist and advocate for the Indian Rights Association (of which he is Vice President and also serves on its Board of Directors).

What particularly attracted him to Wisconsin, Rob reports, were the special opportunities it provided him to combine teaching and active involvement with Indian tribes on more fundamental issues such as economic development and preservation of Indian religious rights. His wife, Joy, has since arrival at Madison become a Master's candidate in Nursing at UW, having worked earlier as a pediatric clinician.

In this, his first year at Wisconsin, Professor Williams will have taught two core law curricular courses—Real Estate Transactions and Real Property—and in the Fall 1984 semester a course in Federal Indian Law. Slated for future teaching is a seminar on Indian litigation.

As a teacher, he hopes above all to broaden the perspective of his students, focusing on a variety of viewpoints— including Indian outlooks—on certain issues. Not a fan of the Socratic method and not seeing himself as "a great authoritarian," he favors a relaxed approach to teaching, through discussion and articulation. And he is now working on computer assisted instructions designed to give students in Property Law an opportunity to work through a hypothetical case situation.

Rob Williams' numerous publications reflect his deep concern for the legal status of the Native American in the United States. The range of these includes issues as to Federal tax policy toward Indian nations, Indian tribe economic development, and a study of the Medieval and Renaissance origins of the status of the American Indian in Western legal thought.

Rob is adding important new dimensions to the Law School and the early returns on his performance sound first-rate.

Faculty Briefs

Four New Endowed Chairs

At their December 1984 meeting the Regents of the University of Wisconsin appointed four members of the Law Faculty to honorary chairs. Apart from singling out these individuals for their distinguished academic achievements, the appointments provide—for a period of five years—annual auxiliary funding which may be used for scholarly activities such as summer salary support, research assistants, travel to professional meetings, equipment, supplies and computer time.

The recipients and appointments each received are:

Professor Richard Bilder, Burrus-Bascom Professor. This Professorship reflects his deep concern for the legal status of the Native American in the United States. The range of these includes issues as to Federal tax policy toward Indian nations, Indian tribe economic development, and a study of the Medieval and Renaissance origins of the status of the American Indian in Western legal thought. Rob is adding important new dimensions to the Law School and the early returns on his performance sound first-rate.

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Professor Marc Galanter, Evjue-Bascom Professor. This Chair derives its title from coupling John Bascom with the name of the late William Evjue, founder, editor and publisher of the Madison CAPITAL TIMES.

Professor Margo Melli, Voss-Bascom Professor. The late William H. Voss graduated from the University of Wisconsin Law School in 1929 and for much of his life was an attorney for the Allis Chalmers Corporation. Mr. Voss was also a member of the Bascom Hill Society.

Professor David Trubek, Voss-Bascom Professor. (See comment on this Professorship in connection with Professor Melli, above.)

These four join the distinguished ranks of other law faculty colleagues appointed earlier to named chairs: Herman Goldstein, Evjue-Bascom Professor; Joel Handler, Vilas Professor and George A. Wiley Professor; James E. Jones, Jr. Bascom Professor; Stewart Macaulay, Malcolm Pitman Sharp Professor; and Frank Remington, Mortimer M. Jackson Professor. And, in addition to the five just named, two other honorary chairs are held by professors with joint appointments to some other departments of the University and to the Law School: Herbert Jacobs (also Political Science), Glenn B. and Cleone Orr Hawkins Professor; and Willard F. Mueller (also Agricultural Economics), Vilas Professor.

Off the Budget—and Maybe on the Road

For years, the Law Deans have made the budgetary ends meet and have found sufficient office space to house all the faculty on hand only because a small office leaves of absence to fill some public service job, conduct some research or do a stint elsewhere as a visiting professor.

The 1984–1985 academic year has been no exception to the pattern just described.

On the public service front, Shirley Abrahamson continues her role as an Associate Justice on the Wisconsin Supreme Court and Walter Dickey is still housed down near the Capitol as the Administrator of the Wisconsin Division of Corrections.

Dan Bernstine is back again for the school year at the Howard University Law School. George Bunn, teaching again this year at the Naval War College in Newport, Rhode Island, is displaying signs of becoming a permanent fixture in that part of the world. Joel Handler really hit the road this year. For the Fall semester he was at the Law School of the University of Pennsylvania and for the Spring semester crossed the continent to UCLA. Judy Lachman is putting in the academic year teaching at the Michigan Law School.

Research leaves that keep them still in Madison but off the Law School budget for part or all the school year are supporting quite a number of others. Carin Claus (Smogeski grant, Fall semester); Bill Clune (half-time support for the year from the School of Education); Margo Melli (half-time support for Spring semester from the Poverty Institute); and Ted Schneyer (continued from the American Bar Foundation on work started two years ago). And Mark Galanter, just appointed a Visiting Scholar at the American Bar Foundation, is dividing his time between Madison and Chicago for the Spring semester.

Finally, some of the faculty wear hats not only in the Law School but in some other Department of the University as well. Jim Jones is half-time in both semesters at the University’s Industrial Relations Research Institute.

But the kinds of activities just described accomplish more than merely to relieve budgetary pressures and demands for office space. They serve in important ways to enrich the experience of the faculty [and, as a fallback, the law students who come in contact with them]. Public service gains from these things. And the research products add in some large or small way to our total knowledge of the world around us.

Fun and Games

For two semesters—Spring and Fall 1984—UW law students taking Debtor and Creditor Rights have been involved in a computer-assisted "Debtor-Creditor Game" developed by Visiting Professor Lynn LoPucki. Students act out roles in simulated instances of suit proceedings and negotiate with other lawyers. Professor LoPucki had used the same earlier with law students at the University of Missouri—Kansas City and student reports from Wisconsin, at least, have in general been enthusiastic (though some have reported that the tensions of the game can be hard to bear and have now and then generated personal differences among the student actors in the game).

More Public Service

Accurate accounting of public service activities of the Law faculty is still tough to handle. But here are a few reports we recently got wind of:

Professor Gordon Baldwin currently wears a pair of interesting hats: He is President of the Madison Rotary Foundation (responsible for an endowment of $1.2 million, most of which provides college scholarships for Madison high school students, with lessor but significant gifts to other organizations). And he is an officer of the Madison Literary Club, now 107 years old and the oldest club in town. The Club, restricted to 60 members, meets monthly to hear papers (usually presented by their own members).

Professor Bill Foster will step down this Spring after some years as a member of the Rare Bird Committee of the Wisconsin Society for Ornithology. The Committee—which has more enemies than friends—screen reports of unusual bird occurrences in the State for purposes of determining what records ought be accepted as "official."
Once again our alumni have dug deep into their pockets to help their Law School. In almost every category of comparison, last year's totals have continued the steady increases of recent years. This is particularly impressive when you consider that the 1983 Annual Fund occupied a shortened, nine-month year. With the increasing cooperation between the UW Foundation, which works on a calendar year, and the Law Alumni Association, which previously used an April to March year, reporting results of fund raising efforts began to take on the complexity of the US Budget. Our Board of Directors voted to change our year to coincide with that of the Foundation, and consequently the short year in 1983.

The bottom line on this Fund Drive is over $750,000, an increase of more than $100,000 from the previous year. The majority of this money went into either the Capital Campaign, where it will become endowment funds, or into various other restricted accounts, dedicated to worthy projects and needs of the Law School. To illustrate the effect of the very intensive fund raising that has gone into our Capital Campaign, as recently as the 1980-81 Report we could show total contributions to the Law School from all sources and for all purposes of just over $100,000.

The only area where we must report a lower total this year is in the number of givers. The 1983 total is 704, as compared to the record total in the previous year of 775. In light of the fact, however, that we cut off the first three months of 1984 from our calculations, I believe that this decline is an anomaly rather than cause for alarm.

I am particularly pleased to report on one gift received in the 1983 year. A scholarship fund of more than $200,000 was set up in memory of M.E Davis, Sr., by the estate of his son, M.E. Davis, Jr. of Green Bay, Wisconsin, a member of the class of 1939. Mr. Davis died December 14, 1982, leaving a bequest that will make law school more financially manageable for many students in the years to come.

Finally, I cannot say enough about those of you who have helped us this year and in the past. Rarely is an alumni close enough to the object of his or her generosity to see how they have helped. Everyone at this Law School, from the Dean to the greenest first year student has benefited in some way because you have helped us.

Edward J. Reisner
WLAA Executive Director

BENCHERS SOCIETY
The following persons are members of the Benchers Society, a very important support group for our Law School. While the annual dues paid by the Benchers make a contribution to our financial well being, they also add to the life of the School in many ways. The Benchers were created in 1963. Membership comes by invitation from the Chairman of the Board of Visitors after nomination by a fellow Bench. Membership is limited to two hundred individuals.

Shirley S. Abrahamson, Madison
Edmund P. Arpin, Jr., Oskosh
Joseph R. Barnett, Milwaukee
David E. Beckworth, Milwaukee
Thomas D. Belt, New Richmond
Olga Bennett, Viroqua
Julian L. Bernam, Chicago
John S. Best, Milwaukee
Frank L. Bixby, Chicago
Walter M. Bjerke, Scottsdale, AZ
Richard W. Blakey, Reno, NV
Mark S. Bomaty, Milwaukee
Donald E. Bonk, Chilton
Melba E. Boud, Lancaster
John Borden, LaCrosse
E. Anthony Breuer, Madison
Johann P. Brody, Milwaukee
John F. Brown, Lancaster
John L. Brunner, Madison
George Bunn, Madison
Carroll B. Callahan, Columbus
Irvin B. Chanoe, Milwaukee
Lucas P. Chase, Sheboygan
Keith A. Christiansen, Milwaukee
Peter C. Christianson, Milwaukee
James R. Clark, Milwaukee
Catherine B. Cleary, Milwaukee
Lyster S. Clemons, Milwaukee
Glenn R. Coates, Racine
Denise F. Coffey, Milwaukee
William M. Coffey, Milwaukee
David V. Collins, Beloit
Patricia N. Colloner, Northbrook, IL
Gerald T. Conklin, Madison
Patrick W. Cotter, Milwaukee
Barbara B. Crabbe, Madison
Francis R. Croak, Milwaukee
James L. Cummings, Neenah
Robert L. Curry, Madison

LeRoy L. Dalton, Madison
Artinis Dershadyhov, Park Falls
Jack R. DeWitt, Madison
Robert A. Dewing, Chicago
James A. Droll, New Richmond
William E. Dye, Racine
George A. Evans, Milwaukee
Thomas E. Fauch, Chicago
Charles R. Feldman, Wash., D.C.
Julie W. Fettney, Madison
Henry A. Field, Jr., Madison
Leon Feldman, Chicago
Thomas F. Fite, Milwaukee
David T. Flesher, LaCrosse
Robert W. Flaming, Ann Arbor, MI
Audrey D. Freier, Madison
Harry E. Franke, Milwaukee
Vincent G. Gelb, Milwaukee
Alfred G. Goldberg, Milwaukee
H. F. Grevenhagen, Racine
Joel A. Haber, Chicago
Frank D. Hamilton, Dodgeville
Lawrence C. Hammond, Jr., Milwaukee
David J. Hasse, Milwaukee
John B. Haydon, Milwaukee
Donald L. Henney, Madison
Don R. Herrling, Appleton
Richard A. Hollen, Madison
Thomas F. Hornus, Janesville
Robert D. Johns, Jr., LaCrosse
Richard E. Johnson, Wiscons
Robert R. Johnson, Port Edwards
Gerald J. Kahn, Milwaukee
Spencer L. Kinball, Chicago
Redney O. Kittelsen, Monroe
Marvin E. Kitsm, Milwaukee
Alvin R. Kloet, Sheboygan
W. Roy Kopf, Platteville
Warren L. Krenzer, Milwaukee
Bemard S. Kuhske, Milwaukee
LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS AND AMOUNT CONTRIBUTED BY CLASS TO THE LAW ALUMNI FUND—WLAA AND U.W. FOUNDATION COMBINED

1921
Dorothy Walker

1922
Richard Tyrrell

1923
Ralph Axley
Christian Bonnin
Frank Kuehl

1924
Rudolph Anderson

1925
Lucius Chase
Earle Gill

1926
Lester Clemons
Myron Stevens

1927
Glen Bell
Willis Sullivan
(classes through 1927—14,170)

1928 ($400)
W. Roy Kopp
R. Worth Vaughan

1929 ($475)
Edgar Becker
Melvin Bonn
Lewis Charles
Gustav Winter

1930 ($7,861)
John Bent
W. Wade Boardman
Benjamin Galin
Alfred Goldberg
Edwin Larkin
W. Mead Stillman
Raymond Wearing

1931 ($1,250)
Norman Baker
Carroll Callahan
Robert Dougherty
James Mintz
William McGowan
Vernon Swanson
Floyd Wheeler

1932 ($5,350)
Frank Hamilton
Charles Hanaway
George Kroncke, Jr.
Robert B.L. Murphy
T.G. Schirmeyer
Aaron Tilton
Ernst von Briesen

1933 ($8,104)
John Ascher
Edward Berkovisn
David Connolly
M.P. Frank
George Lakin
Floyd McBurney
Robert Oberndorfer
Mary Raney
Gordon Sinykin
Arbie Thalacker
John Tonjes

1934 ($10,549)
Ernest Agnew
Winfield Alexander
Theodore Bolliger
Henry Fox
William Frawley
Charles Jogaw
Herbert Lepp
M.A. McKihan
Robert Minahan
Norman Stoll
Thomas Stone
Richard Teschner

1935 ($1,155)
Olga Bennett
William Churchill, Jr.
John Day
Dorothy Ela
George Evans
Raymond Geraldson
Harry Hutchison
Thomas O'Meara, Jr.
William Nathenson
David Previant
George Redmond
Merl Sceales
Verne Slade
Rexford Watson

1936 ($635)
Richard Blakey
George Kowalczuk
Herbert Manasse
Malcolm Riley
Milton Sax
John Thompson

1937 ($3,050)
Walter Bjork
Donald Bonk
Thomas Fairchild
Stanley Fruits
Bernard Hankin
Irving Loe
Kenneth Orchard
Judson Rikkers
Byron Vlillwock

1938 ($1,010)
Edward Brown
Howard Hilgendah
William Little
Rudolph Schwartz
Herbert Terwilliger
Gerald Van Hoof
Robert Vriesen
John Whitney

1939 ($850)
Max Basewitz
Bernard Berk
Edward Dithmar
Virginia Duncombe
F.A. Meythaler
Frederick Schwertfeger
Alex Temkin

1940 ($5,470)
Patrick Cottet
Andrew Fadness
Alexander Georges
Ernest Hanson
Rodney Kittelsen
Karle Peplau
Hugo Ranta

1941 ($9,743)
Donal Soquet
Joseph Sullivan
John Varda

1942 ($665)
Helene Boetticher
Catherine Cleary

1943
Richard R. Teschner, Milwaukee
John E. Thomas, Minneapolis
John C. Tonjes, Fond Du Lac

1921
P.J. Lindsors, San Francisco
Patrick M. Lloyd, Burlington
Martin M. Lucente, Chicago
Robert W. Lutzi, Chicago
David M. MacGregor, Milwaukee
John K. Macken, Milwaukee
William J. Marathy, Milwaukee
Toby E. Marcus, Superior
Floyd W. McBurney, Madison
Ray T. McCann, Milwaukee
Mac Arthur McChian, Platteville
Jack McManus, Madison
Paul E. Meissner, Milwaukee
Joseph A. Mell, Madison
Maurice J. Miller, Chicago
Roger C. Minahan, Milwaukee

1922
Donald Soquet
Dorothy Walker
John Best
Ernest Agnew
Walter Bjork
Joselphi Sullivan
W. Wade Boardman
Winfield Alexander
Donald Bonk
John Varda

1923
Benjamin Galin
Theodore Bolliger
Thomas Fairchild
Richard Tyrrell
Alfred Goldberg
Henry Fox
William Frawley
Charles Jogaw
Herbert Lepp

1924
W. Mead Stillman
Raymond Wearing

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Raymond Wearing

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W. Mead Stillman
Raymond Wearing

1940
W. Mead Stillman
Raymond Wearing
1946 ($215)
Richard Bardwell
Egerton Duncan
Albert Funk, Jr.
Robert Howard
Jean Menaker
Peter Pappas

1947 ($1,235)
John Bosshard
James Brody
Arthur Field
Thomas Eifield
Lyman Franzier
Thomas Godfrey
Robert Goodman
H.F. Greiveldinger
Frank Kinast
Edward Miller
William Solien
John Vergeront

1948 ($3,535)
George Affeldt
Joseph Barnett
Julian Berman
John Brummer
William Callow
Fred Fink
Harold Geyer
Ed Harris
Dale Ihlenfield
Robert Johnson
Helen LaRue
Martin Lucente
William Mantyh
Vernon Pilote
Norman Rosen
Sterling Schwenn
Warren Stolper
Robert Voss
Clifford Wall

1949 ($6,229)
Irvin Charne
Glen Coates
Robert Froehlke
George Hardy
Hans Helland
Edward Jacobs
Kenneth Johnston
Paul LaRue
John Palmer
Frank Remington
John Reynolds
John Seeger
Wendall Smith
Yoshio Tanaka
Leonard Zubrensky

1950 ($9,038)
Edmund Arpin
Robert Cook
Robert DiRenzo
Donald Droegkamp
Richard Eager
Charles Germer
Laurence Gooding, Jr.
Stuart Gullickson
Orrin Helstad
Gerald Kahn
Robert Kelly
Jerome Klos
Stan Lenchek
Marybeth Maul
Joseph Melli
Marygold Melli
William Moore
Egon Mueller
Reuben Peterson, Jr.
John Pettit
Marvin Renick
William Rosenbaum
Eileen Sears
Frederick Seegert, Jr.
Alvin Stack
George Stell
M.R. Tillisch, Jr.
James Undersold
Andrew Zalis

1951 ($1,800)
Jerome Bormier
William Chatterton
William Crane
William Dye
Leon Fieldman
Gerald Granof
James Haight
Robert Hevey
Oscar Latin
Robert Lutz
Frank Ross, Jr.
Robert W. Smith
Roy Stewart
Robert Waldo
Charles White

1952 ($6,705)
David Beckwith
Roger Boerner
Kenneth Brost
David Collins
Frank Feil, Jr.
Henry Field, Jr.
William Giese
Don Herrling
Drexel Journey
James Karch
Edward Levine
Leonard Loeb
M.E. Mellor
Lyman Precourt
Lawrence Quigley
Ervin Topczewski
Clarence VandeZande
William Willis

1953 ($7,820)
Theodore Baer
Frank Bixby
Edward Bollenbeck
Jules Brown
Francis Croak
Robert Curry
LeRoy Dalton
Don Jury
P.J.C. Lindfors
Sheldon Lubin
Richard McKinzie
Paul Meissner
Richard Moen
John Neubauer
Thomas Neuses
Robert Perina
Walter Raaschussen
George Russell
Dale Sorden
David Uelmen
Arnold Weiss
Allan Wheeler
John Wilkins

1954 ($4,769)
William Fechner
A.H. Laun
James Murphy
Merton Rotter
Arthur Sweetzer

1955 ($7,220)
F Anthony Brewster
Laurence Hammond, Jr.
Donald Heaney
Jack Jacobs
George Kapke
Bernard Kuhle
John MacIver
Maurice Miller
Anton Metz
Harrison Nichols
Jack Shlimovitz
Robert Tehan, Jr.

1956 ($2,975)
Hartman Axley
Thomas Barland
David Bennett
David Caskey
Robert Downing
Laurence Gram, Jr.
James E. Jones, Jr.
Joseph Kucirek
David MacGregor
Francis Murphy
Richard Robinson
Stanton Smith, Jr.
John Whaley

1957 ($2,181)
John Byers
Dean Cady
William Chapman
James Davis
Bruce Gillman
Justin Goldner
James Hall
Alexander Perlos
John Reuling, Jr.
Thomas Ward

1958 ($3,625)
James Barry, Jr.
John Callahan
Eugene Hodson
Eugene June
Kenton Kilmer
Spencer Kimball
Thaddeus Kryshak
Jay Lieberman
Kenneth McCormick
Peter Nelson
Richard Olson
Frank Pelisek
Dennis Ryan
Daniel Shneidman
George Stephan
Sverre Tinglim
James Vance
James Van Eggeren
Thomas Williams
Zigurs Zile

1959 ($4,453)
David Brodhead
Peter Bund
Thomas Drought
John Haydon
Richard Hollern
Charles Huber
Donald Huggett
Carl Meissner
Earl Munson
C. Duane Patterson
Philip Sullivan

1960 ($4,335)
William Alvison
Darryl Boyer
Arlen Christenson
Michael Cwana
Thomas Ehrmann
Aubrey Fowler
Gerald Goldberg
Gerald Konz
James H. McDonald
John Merriman
John Race
Samuel Recht

1961 ($3,435)
John Bly
Edward Callan
William Coffey
James Drill
William Hertel
Donald Malawsky
Alphonseus C. Murphy
Joel Rabin
Thomas Ragatz
James Webster
Nelson Wild
Thomas Willey

1962 ($1,810)
Shirley Abrahamson
Thomas Anderson
Kenneth Conger
Barbara Crabb
James Cummings
Eugene Johnson
Allan Joseph
Earle Lambert
Mac McKichan, Jr.
Paul Nakan
Ross Nethercut
Edward Setzler
Samuel Swansen
Stephen Zwicky

1963 ($1,915)
Thos. Baldikoski
Timothy Frutschi
James Huber
Bert Kahn
Edward Kelly
Robert Ross
Donald Stone
John Waggoner
Walter Wepel, Jr.
David Weiher

1964 ($500)
Richard Baumann
Jordan Friedland
Bradway Iddele, Jr.
Matthew Quinn
Thomas Siratovich
Thomas Sobota

1965 ($3,510)
Gerald Conklin
George Douglas
Clarice Feldman
David Hase
Keith Johnson
Patrick Juneau
Wayne LaRue
Danny Milligan
Jack Olson
William Platt
Edward Pronley
Allen Samson
Barry Wallace
G. Lane Ware
George Whyte, Jr.

1966 ($2,230)
Susan Bracht
William Brall
Timothy Condon
Peter Petzer
Richard Glesner
David Kinnaman
Allan Koritzinsky
J. Peter Linek
Robert Moberly
James Pease
Mark Pollack
Benjamin Porter
Michael Price
John Rothe
Joseph Skupniewitz
Kay Thurman
Garrick Van Wagenen
Fred Wileman

1967 ($4,990)
Stanley Adelman
Wayne Babler
Henry Brachtl
Joel Hager
Thomas Herlache
Joel Hirschhorn
Fred Hollenbeck
James Hough
Robert Johns, Jr.
Don Kaminsky
Richard Kelly
William Mett
Thomas O'Brien
Rudolph Regez
Michael Reiter
James Roethe
Harry Ruffalo
Tomas Russel
James Schueppert
Stephen Sewell
Michael St. Peter

1968 ($4,650)
Jonathan Axelrod
Jeffrey Bartell
Jonathan Charney
Keith Christiansen
Malcolm Gissen
John Kramer
Robert Levine
John Mahoney
Daniel Rinzell
George Roth
James Ruhy
Lawrence Silver
Ronald Spielman
Edward Stoge
John Thomas
Kenneth Von Kluck

1969 ($2,885)
Herbert Brown
James Connors
Gerald Davis
Edward Garvey
Conrad Goodkind
Paul Hahn
Larry Jost
Williams Mohrman
Jeffrey Roethe
Diana Segal
James Stouffer
Anthony Theodore

1970 ($2,005)
William Dusso
Rebecca Erhardt
James Flader
William Garner
Stephen Glynn
Richard Hammerstrom
William Hess
David Jolivet
Bruce Lehman
Richard Pas
Carl Ross
John Rowe
John Stiska
John Varda
Paul Wallig
William White
Roger Wirth

1971 ($5,810)
Stephen Ahlgren
Angela Bartell
Thomas Bell
James Clark
Gerald Conen
David Diercks
Howard Eisenberg
Alan Frank
James Gerlach
Terence Knudsen
Fred Loeb
Robert Meyerson
John Mitty
Richard Preston
Mary Jane Reynolds
Bruce Schrimpf
William Schulz
Gregory Smith
Richard Weiss
Thomas Wildman
Peter Williams
Jon Wilson

1972 ($3,950)
James Barnett
Denis Bartell
Claude Covelli
Paul Crooke
George Curry
James Feddersen
Daniel Fromstien
George Garvey
James Grodin
Paul Grossman
Mari Gursky
Horace Harris
Theodore Hertel
Jay Himes
Thomas Hornig
Raymond Huff
John Knight
Raymond Krueger
James Lorentz
Paul McElwee
John McLean
Alan Post
Norman Prance
Edward Reisner
James Soman
Douglas Soutar
Margaret Stafford
Ronald Wawrzy
Charles Wheeler

1973 ($1,735)
Gordon Bakken
Mark Bonady
Kirby Bouthiet
Scott Fleming
Daniel Goelzer
Richard Grossman
Duane Jordan
Joseph Liegl
Bruce Loring
Jack Nathan
Mark Nordenberg
Howard Pollack
Stanley Tarkow
Charles Vogel
John Webster
David Williams

1974 ($1,440)
Ralf Boer
James Daly
John DiMetto, Jr.
Thomas Donohoe
Michael Gehl
Robert Hanzel
Leon Heller
Paul Hewitt
Gary Plotzcher
Michael Presti
Michael Sher
Mark Smith
Mitchell Spector
Robert Stroud
LeRoy Thilly
Daniel Vogel
Peter WeiI
Charles Young

1975 ($2,725)
Owen Armstrong
Michael Auen
Andrew Barnes
John Beard
Robert Binder
Stephen Braden
David Easton
Matthew Flynn
Martha Gibbs
James Greer, Jr.
James Haberstroh
Thomas Hoffner
Scott Jennings
Terry Johnson
George Kampschroer
Marguerite Moeller
Robert Mohr
Richard Nordeng
Charles Parham
Peter St. Peter
Patrick Schmidt
James Schneider
Donna Schorer
Howard Tolkan

1976 ($4488)
Dan Bell, Jr.
Sandra Escaral
John Kaiser
Walter Kulman
Tom Levi
Fred Mattlin
Nathan Niemuth
Mark Pernitz
Gene Rachclife
Gordon Williams

1977 ($1,260)
Lawrence Beckler
Christy Brooks
Peter Christianson
Gerald Evarard
David Hertel
John Higgins
Walter Hodynsky
Patricia King
Kirbie Knutson
Timothy Muldowney
David Nelson
Tim Reich
Nancy Wheeler
Andrew Wilson
Nolan Zadra
Kathy ZumBrunnen

1978 ($1,089)
Gary Antoniewicz
Ellen Arbetter
Jonathan Becker
Dolores Holman
Jerald Jensen
Jerome Johnson
Lorna Kniaz
William Komisar
Fierce McNally
Thomas R. Miller
Shelley Safer
Jeffrey Sapiro
Laurence Schroepfer
John Deski
Ronald Smith
William Soderstrom
Mark Sostarch
Paul Tilleman
Leonard Wang
Thomas White
Steven Ziven

1979 ($1,523)
David Affeldt

1980 ($778)
James Bartzen
Catherine Berndt
Mark Boyle
Jeananne Danner
Stewart Etten
Leslie Griffith
Timothy Hatch
James Jurkowski
Gary Karch
Juliet Kostrisky
David Rasmussen
Patience Roggensack
Wendy Schueter
Victoria Schroeder
Margaret Silver
Ralph Topinka

1981 ($545)
Judith Elkin
Terry Frazier
Thomas Kammerait
Michael Kelly
Thomas MacDonald
Judith Neese
Mary Schultz
Louise Stone

1982 ($375)
William Conley
Barbara Frey
Thomas Grogan
Martin Meyer
Jill Nilles
Thomas Pors
David Reinecke
James Snyder

1983 ($100)
William Rudolph

April 1-December 31, 1983
Total alumni contributors—704
Total alumni contributions—$187,383

1980 ($1,735)
Walter Kuhlman
Ann Meyerhofer
Fred Wileman
Bruce Lehman
Gordon Bakken
Mark Bonady
Kirby Bouthiet
Scott Fleming
Daniel Goelzer
Richard Grossman
Duane Jordan
Joseph Liegl
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### Gifts to Law School Endowment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To WLAA</td>
<td>113,796.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To U.W. Foundation (Law School Campaign Accts.)</td>
<td>413,551.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total added to endowment</td>
<td>527,348.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gifts to the Law School Annual Fund

**To WLAA:**

- Law Alumni Fund, unrestricted: 33,639.57
- Law Alumni Fund, restricted: 30,958.07
- Benchers Society: 18,300.00
- WLAA Membership & J.D. Revenue: 10,105.00

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<td>10,105.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Voluntary Contributions (Endowment and Annual Fund)</td>
<td>769,886.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To U.W. Foundation (unrestricted):** 24,590.27

**To U.W. Foundation (restricted):** 124,945.00

**Total Voluntary Contributions:** 769,886.11

### Number of Contributors

*9-month fund year*
Editor’s Note

The GARGOYLE is always happy to hear from its readers. If nothing else, it proves to us that someone out there is taking the time to read our copy and is agitated enough by it to respond. In several recent issues we have used a “clip and mail” form to get volunteers for alumni activities. The response has been very good—so good, in fact, that we’ll either have to increase the size of our Boards to accommodate all the volunteers or some of you won’t get on until the Law School enters its three hundredth year.

Two readers sent me such entertaining notes that I thought I’d share them with you (not to mention that it makes writing this column a lot easier).

Isadore Engle ’44 remembers taking contracts from the legendary Herbie Page. One morning, Mr. Engle was called upon to recite the principle of a case. Unfortunately, he had time to read only the headnotes, working as he did at three jobs to scrape together the $55 tuition. Alas, the headnotes were not sufficient for Professor Page and he asked, “I can’t find your principle. What page is it on?”

Engle searched for some answer, blurted out “Page 152,” and hoped there was some remote connection that would end the ordeal. But, no, Herbie searched the indicated page in vain and asked “Where? I don’t see it.”

Now, Engle stepped right into the disaster: “I read between the lines,” he replied. The class burst out laughing but Herbie was not amused—and delivered one of his famous tongue lashings.

F. Clarke Carnes ’40 also remembers a Herbie Page story. It seems he was waiting in the hall when he was joined by Professor Page.

“Mr. Effland,” Page said, “you are doing very good work.”

“I’m not Mr. Effland,” Carnes answered, and volunteered his own name.

“YOU, Mr. Carnes, could do a lot better!”

And with that, Professor Page stalked off. Carnes adds that he thinks Page may have eventually given him a better grade than he deserved, and still feels some obligation to Dick Effland because of it.

Carnes also remembers a student who pleaded that he was unprepared in a class taught by Nate Feinsinger. It seems that he had been married the week-end before and hadn’t kept up with his studies.

“I hope,” Nate observed, “that your honeymoon did not find you in the same condition of preparedness!”

Our last “mystery picture” also brought reaction from some readers. The consensus is that the picture dates from about 1947 and pictures the Quonset huts on what is now the Library Mall. They were used—in that time—for administrative purposes, including registration for classes and for mandatory ROTC.

Jack Shlimovitz ’55 even remembers that the graffiti partially visible behind the line of students read “Pi Lam Pledges Will Be Good,” and had been painted by his fraternity. Another fraternity had painted “For?” before the Pi Lams finally altered it to “Forever.” Thanks also to Toby Reynolds ’60, William Solien ’47 and Tom Cullen ’57 for their help.

Mystery Picture: Dean Oliver Rundell and ???

A few clues for the picture in this issue: The man on the right is Dean Oliver Rundell, who served in that office from 1929–1932 and from 1942–1953. It appears that the three persons in the middle of the picture are holding diplomas. Who are the others, besides Dean Rundell? And when was the picture taken?
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Legal Studies Events Calendar  April—August, 1985

This calendar lists all events sponsored by the Institute for Legal Studies and other activities of interest to the Madison campus Interdisciplinary Legal Studies Community. For further information, contact Cathy Meschievitz at 608/263–2451 or Jeanette Holz at 608/263–2545.

Tuesday, April 2
12 Noon–1:30 p.m.
Memorial Union

Topic: "19th Century Labor Law"

Thursday, April 5
3:30–4:30 p.m.
250 Law Bldg.

Law School/University Lecture*: Michael Moore, Robert Kingsley Professor of Law, University of Southern California. Co-sponsored by the Department of Philosophy and the Law School Lectures Committee, and supported by the University Lectures Committee.
Topic: "Natural Law and Interpretation"

Tuesday, April 9
3:30–4:30 p.m.
250 Law Bldg.

University Forum*: Co-sponsored by the Union Puertorriquena, and Ibero-American Studies.
Topic: "Puerto Rican Civil Rights in the United States"

Tuesday, April 16
12 Noon–1:30 p.m.
Memorial Union

Colloquium: Gunther Teubner, European University Institute, Florence, Italy.
Topic: to be announced

Thursday, April 18
3:30–4:30 p.m.
250 Law Bldg.

Law School Lecture*: John Huber, Director, Division of Corporate Finance, Securities Exchange Commission, Washington, D.C.
Topic: "Current Developments in the S.E.C."

Tuesday, April 23
12 Noon–1:30 p.m.
Memorial Union

Colloquium: Itsuko Matsuura, Faculty of Law, Aichi University, Gifu-Ken, Japan.
Topic: "Lost Interest' of Women: Japanese Law of Damages as a Social Policy"

Tuesday, April 30
12 Noon–1:30 p.m.
Memorial Union

Colloquium: Theodore Scheyer, UW Law School.
Topic: "The ABA Model Rules Process"

Tuesday, May 7
12 Noon–1:30 p.m.
Memorial Union

Colloquium: Murray Edelman, UW Department of Political Science.
Topic: to be announced

July 22–26
Board Room Suite, Wisconsin State Historical Society

Workshop
Topic: "Feminism and Legal Theory"

July 29–August 9
Board Room Suite, Wisconsin State Historical Society

Legal History Summer Workshop
Topic: "The American Family in Law and History"

*Except for these items, all events listed above are sponsored by the Institute for Legal Studies.
Become Involved in Your Law School

I would like to have the following item considered for Faculty/Alumni notes in the Gargoyle:

I would like information on subscriptions to:
- Wisconsin Law Review
- Wisconsin International Law Journal
- Women's Law Journal
- The Advocate (student newspaper)

I would like to volunteer for:
- Placement information, on campus
- Placement information, in my office
- Fund raising activities
- Teaching in the General Practice Course
- Other interests: ____________________________

Name: ____________________________ Class: _______ Phone: ____________________________
Address: ____________________________ City: ____________________________ Zip: ____________

☐ Check if address is new

Mail to WLAA, c/o UW Law School
Madison, WI 53706