

TO SLOW GLOBAL WARMING, BREAK THE INTERNATIONAL GRIDLOCK

By David G. Victor

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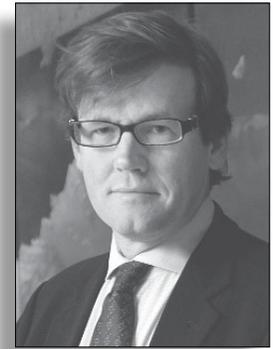
After two grueling weeks of negotiations, late in 2009 the Copenhagen conference on global warming ended with a whimper. On nearly every major agenda item, including the need for a new treaty to replace the aging Kyoto Protocol, the meeting failed to produce a useful agreement. A year after Copenhagen those countries reconvened in Cancun but couldn't make much progress, and, as I write, preparations are under way for another meeting in Durban at the end of 2011. Nobody thinks it will achieve much.

These diplomatic failures are hardly the first setbacks in the worldwide effort to slow global warming. However, they suggest that despite the two decades of diplomacy the current approach isn't working. Nearly all the science on climate change strongly suggests that this is one of the most serious environmental problems humanity has faced. (See *the scientific update in the April issue of Chronicles by Richard C. J. Somerville of SIO.*) If the problem is so urgent, why has diplomacy failed?

Gridlock exists not simply because global warming will require costly policies. In fact, with reasonable efforts to design sensible policies, the cost is not far outside the scale of what societies already spend on other pressing social problems such as the alleviation of poverty and the provision of modern health care. Stopping global warming won't be

free, but the costs are not unfathomable. Nor is gridlock just an accident of poor timing. In the midst of a global economic meltdown it is usually hard to get policy makers to focus on distant, uncertain goals like environmental protection. In fact, gridlock was present long before the economy headed into its most recent tailspin. Nor is the failure of the United States to lead by example the root cause for global inaction on warming. While the U.S. plays the leader role much less often these days than it did in the 1970s through the 1990s, even the brief periods of U.S. leadership on global warming have not lessened the grip of gridlock. None of these factors has helped, but none (even in concert) can explain decades of dithering.

I've just published a new book that offers some answers. It argues that diplomacy is failing because the architects of the diplomatic process adopted a strategy that could never succeed. This book offers a diagnosis for why that strategy, doomed from the start, was so appealing.



It also offers a roadmap for how to do much better in the coming years.

The U.N. process has not worked because it involves too many countries and issues; it aims for progress too quickly. The result is a style of diplomacy that concentrates on getting agreement where agreement is possible rather than on crafting more careful deals that actually make a difference. Diplomats concentrate their energies on symbolic goals, such as getting an agreement to stop warming at two degrees, while largely ignoring the more important practical need to set goals that governments can actually honor.

This approach reflects the conventional wisdom on managing international environmental challenges. The precedent that the climate change diplomats followed had been established in an earlier set of treaties that were highly effective in regulating the chemicals that were depleting the ozone layer. Known as the Montreal Protocol, those treaties set strict goals and timetables for phasing out the offending substances.

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In the early years of global-warming talks the Montreal Protocol model seemed to work. The 1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), for example, was negotiated in less than two years and has earned nearly universal support. But those early successes were an illusion because the UNFCCC actually did very little beyond setting a framework for future diplomacy. It had almost no impact on the actual emissions of gases that cause global warming. As nations tried to tighten the screws on emissions of warming gases by negotiating a new treaty — the 1997 Kyoto Protocol — all the failings of this strategy were laid bare. Where the Kyoto targets proved convenient, mainly in the EU and Japan, governments have complied. But a few other countries, notably the US, easily abandoned the Kyoto strictures when they proved inconvenient. The Kyoto Protocol imposed no limits on emissions for developing countries even though nearly all the growth in world emissions over the last two decades has come from those countries.

Warts and all, the Kyoto talks nonetheless produced a treaty because diplomats are skilled at finding agreement where agreement is feasible and pushing other issues into the future. In the run-up to Copenhagen, as governments tried to tighten the screws even further and close the loopholes that made the Kyoto Protocol and other earlier agreements possible, gridlock set in. Just when the strategy of global talks focused on binding treaties was supposed to deliver its biggest accomplishment it reached a dead end instead.

The global strategy has been successful in earlier environmental problems, such as the ozone layer, because those problems have proved relatively easy to solve. But it is poorly suited for problems, such as global warming, that are caused by economic activities that are costly and complicated to regulate. Truly stopping warming will require cutting global emissions by half over the coming few decades, which will require a lot more than just tinkering at the margins. It will require massive investment in wholly new and probably expensive energy systems.

When confronting such large challenges, the central task for effective international cooperation is to ease governments' worries about the impact of regulations on their economic competitiveness. Few countries will adopt costly national policies aimed at solving global problems unless they are confident that their biggest economic competitors are enduring similar obligations. Thus what one country is willing to do is contingent upon confidence that others are also making an effort. The diplomatic challenges in crafting contingent deals are compounded by the fact that most governments do not know exactly what they can implement. The more demanding and complex the change in policy the harder it is for governments to make credible promises to the rest of the world. This problem of credibility is particularly acute for modern democracies because their political processes are, by design, buffeted by many interest groups. Yet it is the richest democracies that are most worried about global warming, most willing to spend their own resources on the problem, and are the engines of global cooperation in this area.

While the experience with environmental diplomacy offers few models for solving such problems, other areas of international cooperation have a more germane history. Among the many important precedents is the generally successful cooperation on international trade through the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the World Trade Organization (WTO). One goal of my new book is to introduce such alternative models — along with lesser known examples of successful coordination over costly and complicated policies — to the diplomats and scholars who have mostly focused on environmental cooperation and not looked to other issue-areas.

A central lesson from that history is that progress is usually first made in smaller groups — “clubs” — and then expanded. The more complicated the regulatory challenge, the more important it is to start with small, practical efforts by the few countries that matter most. Small approaches matter not just because

they are more tractable but also because they make it easier for club members to concentrate the benefits of cooperation — such as access to new markets for low-emission technologies — on other club members. Those benefits reinforce cooperation; they make governments more willing to offer more ambitious promises and they make it easier to observe what other countries actually implement. In recent years there has been no shortage of small groups — such as the G8 and the G20 — trying to make headway on global warming. But all those efforts have failed because none has focused on generating practical benefits that would keep club members focused on cooperation. Governments have been good at sending invitations to club meetings but have not focused enough on the hard-nosed, practical strategy that would encourage real coordination of policies to regulate warming emissions.

It is hard to know just how many of these “clubs” will be needed. If the G20 proves effective then maybe just one club can get the job done since the G20 members account for the vast majority of world emissions. At the other extreme, a bilateral club of just the U.S. and China could play a pivotal role since those nations account for nearly half world emissions. U.S.-Chinese diplomatic talks on the climate problem are under way and wisely focused on topics, such as technology cooperation, that align well with what these two countries are willing and able to implement. If there's a successful U.S.-China bilateral initiative then other clubs will be needed to expand the coverage to other important countries — including countries such as Brazil and Indonesia that are big sources of emissions due to deforestation.

The central argument in the book is that a better strategy for global warming begins by slowing down and refocusing on fundamentals. So far, diplomats have tried to do too much, too quickly. And they've followed models, such as the Montreal Protocol on the ozone layer, that won't work for global warming. In the book I suggest that global warming poses three distinct challenges for policy.

One, the toughest, is cutting emissions. Getting serious about controlling emissions requires an international legal framework that is flexible enough to accommodate many different national approaches. To date, most diplomacy has focused on setting targets for emissions. That choice is odd since the level of emissions reflects many forces, such as the immediate state of the economy and the relative prices of fuels, that are largely beyond direct government control. As coordination focuses on increasingly costly efforts it will become even more difficult for governments to make useful promises about their exact future level of emissions. A better approach would focus on policies, instead of just emissions, because that's what governments can adjust more reliably. Serious policy coordination is complicated, and that requires initially working in small groups — clubs — rather than a global U.N. framework. Within these clubs governments should focus on contingent commitments. What each government offers other club members toward the global good of less warming will be contingent on what others promise and implement as well. Creating incentives for each country to make bigger contingent promises — rather than having every nation sitting on its hands waiting for others to go first — is the central diplomatic challenge in global warming. The club approach makes it a lot easier to get started because it is easier to negotiate complicated deals in small groups. And with experience the clubs can deepen in what they demand from their members and also broaden in the countries that are involved.

The second distinct challenge is technological innovation, for no serious solutions to global warming are possible without radically new technologies. Oddly, today's global warming talks create few incentives for governments to make massive investments in innovation. No government gets "credit" for a big investment in innovation, and useful mechanisms for coordinating a global approach to innovation are practically non-existent. Here, too, the best place to start is with clubs focused on practical policies rather than overly ambitious

goals. About ten countries matter most in innovation. They account for four-fifths of all world spending on research and development (R&D) and 95 percent of the world's patents. An active technology strategy will also require patience. History suggests that the world's energy systems are unable to change much faster than at a 50-70 year pace.

Slowing down and shifting focus will be deeply unsettling to people who understandably believe that the perils of climate change loom so large that the world's energy and agricultural systems must be reorganized quickly to make deep cuts in emissions. It is hard to follow climate science closely and avoid the conclusion that severe dangers lurk in unchecked global warming. It is also hard to follow the regulation of warming gases closely and escape the hard truth that the deck is stacked against quick solutions.

Even with diligent efforts, greenhouse gases will accumulate; the planet will warm and climate will change.

Thus the third challenge in global warming is bracing for change. On the ground, a changing climate means different patterns in rainfall; higher sea levels; altered growing seasons; and many other effects. Societies must become more adaptive so they can, where possible, adjust to these changes in their stride.

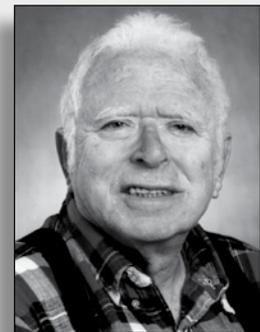
Along with adaptation, societies must prepare for the possibility that changes could be swift and ugly. That means investing in emergency response systems, also known as "geoengineering." The longer governments wait to develop effective schemes for controlling emissions the higher the odds climate change will take an ugly turn. My guess is that public attention to adaptation and even geoengineering will rise quickly in the coming years as more people realize how little progress we've made in controlling the emissions that cause climate change. The world, inevitably, will be one that experiences a lot of climate change and we need to brace for those changes now.

Victor's new book is *Global Warming Gridlock* (Cambridge University Press). He is co-director of the IRPS Laboratory on International Law and Regulation. ♦

Kudos for Murray Rosenblatt

Selected Works of Murray Rosenblatt (Selected Works in Probability and Statistics) [Hardcover]

Richard A. Davis (Editor), Keh-Shin Lii (Editor), Dimitris N. Politis (Editor)



A bit pricey — \$229 from Amazon — but the book is over 500 pages and these are ground-breaking papers. As it says on the Amazon website:

During the second half of the 20th century, **Murray Rosenblatt** was one of the most celebrated and leading figures in probability and statistics. Among his many contributions, Rosenblatt conducted seminal work on density estimation, central limit theorems under strong mixing conditions, spectral domain methodology, long memory processes and Markov processes. He has published over 130 papers and 5 books, many as relevant today as when they first appeared decades ago. Rosenblatt was one of the founding members of the Department of Mathematics at UCSD, served as advisor to over twenty Ph.D. students and is currently professor emeritus. This volume is a celebration of his stellar research career that spans over six decades, and includes some of his most interesting and influential papers. Several leading experts provide commentary and reflections on various directions of Murray's research portfolio.

Becoming a Mentor

By Mel Green

Professor Emeritus of Biology

Soon after arriving at UCSD, I put into practice an attitude toward teaching that I learned from the “non-directive” psychologist **Carl Rogers**. He believed that a teacher should be a facilitator who promotes equality in learning rather than a “master” lecturer. In a graduate seminar with fewer than 20 students, I found it relatively easy to facilitate student participation. I would select research papers and ask students to report on them. One would present the summary and introduction, another the methods, another the results, and one would discuss its significance. Then the rest of the class would join in. **Harvey Hershman**, a student in my very first class and now a professor at UCLA, likes to tell his students how he played the role of **Daisy Dussoix** in a paper that opened the door to genetic engineering and led to a Nobel prize for the senior author, **Werner Arber**. The fact that Harvey still remembers the name of the author he role-played more than 40 years ago is indicative of the impact of this pedagogical technique. He employs the same method of teaching in his graduate courses.

Introducing equality into a classroom with 300 undergraduate students is far harder. In that large a setting, students are reluctant to respond even to the simplest question. In an effort to put at least a small dent in this barrier, I attempt to get things rolling on the first day of class by telling the students that I am open to invitations for coffee, a game of tennis, a musical duet, and almost anything else they might suggest. Moreover, I tell them, such invitations will gain them an “A for the day,” which amounts to a few unspecified points. Generally about 15 students take me up on this opportunity during the course. I have no idea what I would do if all 300 ever responded.



Mel Green and his former student, Nobel Laureate Susumu Tonegawa

In one large biology class a student named **Sarah** approached me early on and asked if I was serious about my invitation to play music. I had mentioned that I played the violin and she wondered whether I would play the Bach Double Violin Concerto with her. I gladly consented and we practiced it together throughout the entire ten-week quarter. By that time, it was starting to sound pretty good, at least to our ears. Then Sarah shocked me by suggesting that we perform the piece on the last day of class. This course was held in a large auditorium with a stage, and there were over 400 majors in it, mostly serious pre-meds. Without giving it a second thought, I agreed.

I have never been so scared in a classroom setting as in the moments shortly before we played the first note. It suddenly occurred to me that this was me on stage with a violin in my hand, not with a microphone and visual aids for my lecture. Why was I doing this? What would the students think? At 7:55 am, Sarah

and I began our duet as the students silently drifted in and took their seats. I was too dazed to notice them, but soon the glorious sounds of Bach took complete control of my senses and nothing else mattered. When we finished, the ovation was deafening. I was amazed at the response. We bowed, Sarah took a seat, the lecture began, and I could sense that the students now saw me in a new light. I learned from talking to some of them that they now thought of me very differently. I had opened myself up to them, exposing my human side and my vulnerability, and I had joined this venture as an equal of one of their fellow students.

Even when students do meet with me one on one, it is impossible to establish a true equality. In point of fact, we are not equal. My age, experience, and title cause almost every student to treat me respectfully, referring to me as Professor or Dr. Green no matter how often I ask them to call me by my first name, which is how I address them. But certain

activities, such as playing tennis and music, are great equalizers, especially at my level. Students whom I have engaged in such extra-curricular activities have generally maintained contact with me for many years after completing the course.

Now, as a volunteer in the UCSD emeritus mentoring program, I try to spend much more time listening than talking, which is not easy for a professor. There is a great tendency when you are with a student to go on and on telling stories about our lives and our research. But good mentors have to be willing to listen to their mentees' concerns about all sorts of things, from school to social life. Providing a good ear and a suggestion every once in a while is the essence of serving the mentee well

Over the years I have sometimes been chided by colleagues who say that invitations to meet with students for activities outside of my office are highly unprofessional. They warn that it could lead me to play favorites in assigning grades. In my courses, however, TAs grade all the exams, and the course grade is based entirely on these scores. My feeling is that the interactions I have had with students because of these invitations resulted in the most significant teaching and mentoring experiences of my entire career. Furthermore, UCSD is very supportive of professors making an effort to interact in every possible way with their students. The "Dine with a Prof" program goes so far as to pay for lunches anywhere on campus, including the Faculty Club. Unfortunately, student-professor interactions still happen all too rarely, even with a free lunch.

Near the end of each course, the students are asked to complete a Course and Professor evaluation (CAPE) survey. Among the favorites I have received is the following, complete with grammatical errors (I was 70 years of age at the time it was written):

"Theres no way Dr. Green is 87 years old thats bs. He's probably 60 years old, and he plays tennis like if he's 30. He's just a hustler making us think he's so old so we can challenge him in tennis then get embarrassed." ♦

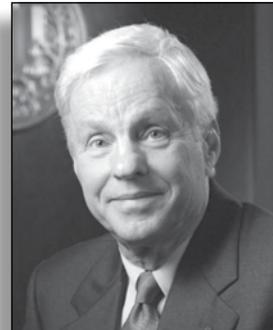
The Psychology of Memory: Toward a General Theory

My major contribution to the discipline of psychology came between 1956 and 1975 when I was on the Stanford faculty. It involves a breakthrough in the understanding of the psychology of human memory.

Since the middle of the 19th century, well-controlled experiments have been made to figure out how the mind remembers experience and how information is later retrieved from what is popularly thought of as a memory bank. One example of a very simple experiment is what's called *free recall*. The subject first sees a list of 40 unrelated words presented one at a time at a rate of one per second. After all the words have been presented, the subject must immediately recall them in any order (hence the designation *free recall*). The researcher wants to learn the probability that each listed word will be recalled as a function of its place in the list, or its "serial presentation position." The increased level of recall for the first few words is called the *primary effect*; the large increase for the last eight to twelve words is called the *recency effect*.

Accounting for such experimental findings has engaged a great deal of attention from psychologists in recent decades. In the early '60s, I began to publish a series of articles laying the framework for a "general theory of human memory," a theory that sought to span the full range of experimental findings. The key publication was the paper "Human Memory: A Proposed System and its Control Processes" (co-authored by **Richard Shiffrin**, then a graduate student at Stanford, and now a highly honored senior scientist).

The theory postulated a system with two components: short-term memory



By Richard C. Atkinson
President Emeritus,
University of California

(STM) and long-term memory (LTM). The STM is of very limited capacity; its content is continually changing; nothing is stored there on a permanent basis. If you like, think of the contents as part of our conscious experience. In contrast, LTM is virtually limitless and provides a relatively permanent repository of information, with new items added

over time. Stored in LTM is information about episodes that occur over a lifetime, the knowledge needed to understand and speak a language, and all other information available to us from memory.

What drives the whole system is a set of control processes that determine what stimuli are attended to, the form in which they are coded in STM and transferred to LTM, the retrieval process for LTM, and the organization of the LTM network.

A unique case history of amnesia will convey a sense of the way the system works. In 1953, a young man known only by his initials as HM underwent an experimental operation to remove two finger-shaped slivers of brain tissue, including the hippocampus. The neurosurgeon hoped that the procedure would relieve HM's chronic seizures, but it proved less than successful, leaving the patient with a profound amnesia of a very special kind. When he was introduced to a new person, he could carry on what appeared to be a normal conversation. However, if he saw the same person again — an hour or a day later — he would have absolutely no recall of having met and talked to the person earlier. In conversation, he had no trouble recalling events that occurred prior to the surgery such as World War II, the Great Depression, or the presidency

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Atkinson from p.5

of Franklin Roosevelt. But events that occurred after the operation all came and went without leaving a trace.

For HM, then, STM continued to work reasonably well, as did the retrieval of information from LTM that had been stored prior to the operation. But after the operation he lost all ability to transfer information to LTM. (Over the years considerable evidence has accumulated to show that the hippocampus plays a critical role in the transfer of information from STM to LTM.)

This case neatly fit the hypothesis presented in our 1968 paper, which laid the foundation for what has come to be known as the Atkinson-Shiffrin model for memory. The paper is one of the most frequently cited in the literature of behavioral science. Over the last forty years, hundreds of articles have dealt with one aspect or another of the theory. In 1971 *Scientific American* ran a lead article on it. In 1980, a Russian translation of my papers about the theory was issued as a volume by the USSR Academy of Science. In 1998 an edited book of articles was published to commemorate the 30th anniversary of the paper and in 2003 a special issue of the journal *Cognitive Science* was devoted to Shiffrin's work and the current state of the theory.

The theory won acceptance because it presented a global framework in which mathematical models can be constructed for many different phenomena related to memory. As one textbook noted, it was as if earlier theories "proposed the elements of earth, fire, and water, and the Atkinson-Shiffrin model proposed the elements found in the periodic table..." The theory has changed and evolved over the years, based on new research findings. It is no longer the Atkinson-Shiffrin model, but a theory with many contributors. The term "general theory of human memory" may seem grandiose as a description of the 1968 paper, but continuing work from the perspective advanced in that paper has evolved into what I believe is indeed a general theory.

The experiment noted at the outset is a good illustration of how the theory

can account for the way we remember. At the time of recall, several of the last words presented will still be in STM. Recall of those last few words will be very high because words still residing in STM can be readily retrieved. Recall of the first few words is also fairly good because they enter an empty STM. But STM has a limited capacity. As more words are presented, STM quickly fills up and new incoming words displace older words. The longer a word resides in STM the more likely a trace of it will be transferred to LTM. Since only the first few items presented enjoy the extra opportunity of transfer, they are the ones recalled so well.

How many words can STM hold simultaneously? The answer turns out to be about seven. In the psychological literature, 7 plus or minus 2 is referred to as the "magical number" because it

keeps coming up in different perceptual and cognitive tasks. (Have you ever wondered why Bell Telephone adopted the seven-digit number?) The example cited is a very simple one. By estimating three parameters, an equation can be generated to predict the probability of recall. In experiments involving much more complicated memory tasks, the model needs to be restated in computational terms and predictions are generated by computer simulation. But the basic theory continues to serve as a matrix for analysis.

Condensed from a talk given by President Atkinson earlier this year on being named 2011 Scientist of the Year by the San Diego chapter of the ARCS (Achievement Awards for College Scientists) Foundation. The full text of the talk can be found at http://rca.ucsd.edu/speeches/The_Science_of_Human_Memory.pdf. ❖

Last Rights



By Sheila K. Johnson

Most of us who have visited a lawyer to draw up a will have been told that included in the package was a "living will" or a power of attorney for health-care. Others who have drawn up their own wills may have downloaded such a document from a website. A living will is a legal document that must be signed and witnessed by two people other than the person designated as one's proxy. In

1976, California was the first state to adopt a living will statute designed to protect both the patient from unwanted treatment and the doctor from being sued for not administering it.

A living will does not become effective so long as you yourself are able to say what you want or don't want. It comes into play only if you are incapacitated — unconscious, unable to talk — when your designated representative can make medical decisions for you. Such a person can be a spouse, a grown child, or a friend. That person should have a copy of your living will so that he or she knows what your wishes are and can show it to a doctor or hospital staff.

Unfortunately, in the real world this doesn't always work. In 2007, an AARP survey found that only 29 per cent of the people polled had a living will, although this percentage climbed to 51 per cent among those 60 and older. But if you are seriously injured in an accident or found unconscious in your home, emergency

responders are legally obligated to do their utmost to resuscitate you. Or, you may wind up in an emergency room with your health care proxy far away or not knowing where your health directive is.

These are only some of the problems of what has come to be called the “legal transactional approach” to health care. An alternative concept has grown out of a more general movement toward advance care planning. As the U.S. population ages more people will spend some of their later years coping with chronic illnesses or seriously debilitating conditions. It’s important for both them and their caretakers that everyone involved understands what the options are in terms of treatments, costs, and possible outcomes. People need to talk to their doctors and relatives or close friends about where they would draw the line in wanting to be kept alive no matter what the quality of life, or the financial or personal burdens placed on their family.

It’s these issues that have prompted the creation of the POLST, or Physician Orders for Life-Sustaining Treatment, which as of late 2009 had been adopted by eleven states, including California. It’s being considered by many other states, and on February 16, 2012 there will be a National POLST Paradigm Conference held in San Diego.

The POLST is much more than a legally drawn-up document: it is, as its fully-spelled-out name implies, a doctor’s order signed by both an individual and his or her doctor that spells out what a patient does or does not want in the way of emergency treatment. The first section states whether a person wants attempted resuscitation if he or she is found not breathing and without a pulse. (Bear in mind that after four minutes even if such resuscitation is successful there is likely to be some permanent brain damage.)

The second section deals with medical interventions if one has a pulse and/or is breathing. You may check “comfort measures only,” in which case medications to relieve pain, plus oxygen and wound care are permitted. You could check “limited additional interventions,” which would include antibiotics and IV

fluids but avoid invasive procedures and intensive care whenever possible. Or you could check “full treatment,” in which case intubation, mechanical ventilation, and defibrillation could be employed.

A third section deals with artificially administered nutrition. Again, you are offered three choices: no artificial means of nutrition, including feeding tubes; a trial period of artificial nutrition, including feeding tubes; or long-term artificial nutrition, including feeding tubes.

So long as you are conscious, it’s possible to change your mind and override anything in the POLST. And a legally recognized decision-maker may request a modification of the POLST in consultation with a physician, if this is deemed in keeping with your basic wishes.

The POLST is a one-page document usually printed in a bright color (the California form is shocking pink) so it can be easily found in medical files, and it can be transmitted to other health care providers as needed. That is, it overrides various privacy regulations about disclosing health information. In fact, it is important if someone is being transported from one health care facility — say, a hospital — to another — such as a nursing home or rehabilitation center — that the POLST document travel with the patient.

But what about the increasing number of health care facilities (such as UCSD’s) that now keep all patient records online? When I presented my POLST form to my physician he had no qualms about signing it and said it would be noted in my file, but he urged me to take the form home and post it prominently somewhere in the house. I wasn’t sure whether I want to look at such a document every time I opened the refrigerator door, and I also wondered what use it would be there if I were injured in a car crash or collapsed on the sidewalk with a heart attack or stroke.

Some people have suggested putting a card in one’s wallet or wearing a bracelet, and this set me to thinking about so-called “medical alert” bracelets. It’s a good idea for people allergic to penicillin or diabetic to wear such bracelets, but it

had never occurred to me that one might use them for other purposes. A friend whose husband has weathered several medical emergencies and been saved by ambulance and ER personnel definitely does NOT want him to wear a bracelet that says DNR — at least, not yet. But she has bought him a bracelet giving his name and the message that ICE (another useful acronym meaning ‘in case of emergency’) she should be telephoned or texted at once.

As for myself, I went to the internet and ordered a silver bracelet (I should have liked a gold one, but who can afford it at today’s prices?) that gives my name and says DNR (no need to spell it out) — Comfort Care Only. I wear it all the time and so far it’s produced some interesting responses. “Can I offer you some comfort care?” someone recently asked me at a party. Well, yes,” I said, “how about another glass of champagne for starters?”

To learn more about POLST directives consult the web site <http://www.ohsu.edu/polst> which includes an excellent article in the Milbank Quarterly by Charles Sabatino called “The Evolution of Health Care Advance Planning Law and Policy.” On February 16, 2012 a National POLST Paradigm Conference will be held in San Diego. The widow of Professor Chalmers Johnson, Sheila Johnson is a gerontologist and author of “Idle Haven: Community-Building Among the Working-Class Retired.” ♦

Emeriti Website

The UCSD Emeriti Association maintains a website: <http://emeriti.ucsd.edu>

Clicking the NEWS, PROGRAMS, & MEETINGS button will allow you to view past issues of this newsletter. The website also provides the constitution and by-laws, lists of members, and minutes of meetings.

Anecdotalage

By Sandy Lakoff

No Kidding!: Joe Queenan swears (in the *Wall Street Journal*) he will no longer go to social gatherings because he can't stand listening to people telling him how great their kids are:

"...Britney is spending the summer working for Habitat for Humanity. So is Courtney. Dylan is in Burkina Faso, teaching local wretches how to make designer T-shirts out of organic mangoes. Aisha is interning at a company that designs noiseless, subterranean windmills. Yes, Kayla is getting a law degree, but only so she can help political prisoners from Darfur get green cards. And Caitlin and Skyler are spending junior year abroad participating in demonstrations against the governments in Athens, Damascus, and Tehran, as course work for their degrees in Global Goodness."

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(Thanks again to Roz Meyer):

The recession has hit everybody really hard. How hard, you ask?

My neighbor got a pre-declined credit card in the mail.

CEOs are now playing miniature golf.

Exxon-Mobil laid off 25 Congressmen.

A stripper was killed when her audience showered her with rolls of pennies while she danced.

If the bank returns your check marked "Insufficient Funds," you call them and ask if they meant you or them.

McDonald's is selling the 1/4 ounce.

Angelina Jolie adopted a child from America.

Parents in Beverly Hills fired their nannies and learned their children's names.

My cousin had an exorcism but couldn't afford to pay for it, and they re-possessed her!

A truckload of Americans was caught sneaking into Mexico.

And, finally...I was so depressed last night thinking about the economy, wars, jobs, my savings, Social Security, retirement funds, etc., I called the Suicide Hotline. I got a call center in Pakistan, and when I told them I was suicidal, they got all excited, and asked if I could drive a truck.

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Did anyone else have the same wistful déjà vu feeling I had when David Freese of the St. Louis Cardinals became the superhero of the great game six of this year's World Series? All I could think of was that our Padres had discovered Freese, only to trade him away to the Cardinals for nothing in exchange. It was the Lindbergh story all over again: his airplane was built in San Diego but flew into history as *The Spirit of St. Louis*.



Mark Your Calendar!

Holiday Party

Saturday, December 10

2:00-5:00 pm, Green Faculty Club

Full Holiday Buffet and Entertainment by
Scott Paulson and the Teeny Tiny Pit Orchestra

Only \$10 per person (RSVP)



Fred Randel

Associate Professor of Literature Emeritus

**FRANKENSTEIN:
A Fable Against Scientific Freedom
or a Metaphor for Political History?**

Wednesday, January 11, 3:30 - 5:30 p.m.

Green Faculty Club

Chronicles

Newsletter of the UCSD Emeriti Association

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