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Tales of a New America

THE ANXIOUS LIBERAL'S GUIDE
TO THE FUTURE

ROBERT B. REICH

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OF A NEW
AMERICA**

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INTRODUCTION

I write this at a time when many Americans are confused about what America stands for. Many of the courageous souls who still call themselves “liberals” find that they are without bearings. The ideals that had guided them since the 1930s and through the postwar decades seem less clear, and the premises of public debate in recent years, strangely disorienting. Many who call themselves “conservatives,” although more confident in their assertions than at any time since the start of the New Deal, are bedeviled by the possibility that their self-assurance may be vicarious—attributable to the ebullience of the man now occupying the White House rather than to the discovery of any fundamental moral truths. On the horizon looms a presidential election that may determine which set of concerns endures longer.

You may ask: Is it really necessary to probe the public consciousness and examine the reigning public philosophy? Are not most of us guided by a gritty pragmatism that eschews any overarching approach to our society’s problems?

Between the transient moods elicited by political advertising or lofty rhetoric and the detailed policy prescriptions manufactured by the inhabitants of Washington think tanks and universities spreads the conceptual terrain in which public problems are defined and public ideals are forged. This is a realm of parable and metaphor, the source of our collective vision. To dismiss this realm as “ideological”—meaningless because irrational and unempirical—is to miss the point that value, not fact, is the currency of the realm. It is to neglect the importance of values for motivating a society. It is to preempt or cheapen all discussion about whether we are motivated in the right direction.

The current confusion reflects turmoil and change in this realm. Our collective vision is slowly shifting in response to a radically different world. Hence the importance of examining what the prevailing vision has been, and what it might be.

Since this is a realm of values and purposes, a journey into it must follow a route marked by interpretations and illustrations rather than formal proofs. In this book I have drawn from several disciplines, selected from a wide range of examples, and connected ideas and phenomena not normally juxtaposed. But I am relying on you, the reader, to be an active explorer as well. You will need to ask yourself: How do these illustrations resonate with my experience? Are these interpretations plausible and meaningful to me? Do they help me better understand my own values, or lead me to question them?

In undertaking this journey, I have relied on the help and insights of many people. The enterprise has come as close to collective entrepreneurialism (a term with which the reader will become acquainted) as is possible without relinquishing single authorship. Only in an academic environment as marvelously disrespectful of traditional academic boundaries, and as supportive of interesting but risky intellectual ventures, as the Kennedy School at Harvard would I have found a group of people willing to take on the topic and encourage me forward. I am particularly grateful to Michael Barzelay, whose interest in the relation between ideas, politics, and economics continues to kindle my own; to Ronald Heifetz, whose insights in group psychology and cultural avoidance have influenced my thinking about political mythology; and to Bill Hogan, whose hard-nosed approach to public policy has forced me to connect these larger concepts to practical policy questions. I have benefited from Steve

Kelman's understanding of American political institutions, and Mark Moore's continuing interest in the capacity of myths and visions to mobilize public action. Howard Frant and Robert Muller, graduate students here, donated their time and perspectives. I am especially indebted, as before, to Jack Donahue, whose tenacity forced me to rethink and rewrite, and whose insights added immeasurably to whatever strength the book now possesses. Several colleagues and students at the Harvard Law School, where I have been teaching about the relationships between law, politics, and industrial structure, have also aided in the venture. I am particularly grateful to Phil Heymann for sharing with me his insights into law and political ideology and for his continuing interest in probing these dark corners.

In addition, I am grateful to a number of people who took an early interest in this project and offered valuable advice and counsel along the way. Larry Smith and Hendrik Hertzberg got me started; Jack Beatty and Bill Whitworth encouraged me to write an essay for *The Atlantic* that foreshadowed several of the themes in this book; Paul Erickson, Mark Koerner, Robert Bell, and David Kastan provided background on American myth, literature, and politics. The manuscript benefited from readings by Robert Ball, Sidney Blumenthal, Samuel Beer, Nancy Bekavac, Lincoln Caplin, George Gilder, Ray Dalton, Jim Dillon, Doug Dworkin, David Ellwood, John Isaacson, Robert Kuttner, Marc Lackritz, Nancy Altman Lupu, Herma Leonard, George Lodge, Shelley Metzenbaum, Richard Neustadt, Michael O'Hare, Raissa Sagalyn, Paul Starr, Phil Steele, Richard Stewart, and Jim Verdier. Jon Segal, as before, brought to bear his unique blend of enthusiasm and moral support. Above all, I owe thanks to my intellectual partner, friend, and wife, Clare Dalton, whose insights into critical theory and feminism have enriched my perspectives on economics and politics, and whose grace under fire has been an inspiration.

—ROBERT B. REICH

Cambridge, Massachusetts
October 1986

PROLOGUE

THE

AMERICAN

STORY

FOUR MORALITY TALES

1

You've heard the story a hundred times, with different names, different details. George was a good man, the son of immigrants who had made their way to Marysville. They came with no money, with nothing but grim determination and hard-won freedom. Dad worked all his life in the mill; he was union, hard, and proud. George was quick by nature, dogged by necessity. He studied hard at school, and after school worked long and well at anything that would bring in a few dollars. George was good at sports, but he had little time for games. He had a few close friends, and yet he was fair and decent with everyone, and quietly kind to anybody in real trouble. He never picked a fight in his life. But in eighth grade, when the town bully Albert Wade was slapping around the smallest kid in the class, George stepped between them without saying a word. He let Wade throw the first punch, then put him away with one straight left, turned around, and walked away.

George finished high school in 1943, and joined the army the day he graduated. For a few months later he was in Europe. On the sixth day of the Normandy invasion his squad was on patrol, passing through a French orchard when a German machine-gun nest opened up from behind a stone wall, picking off the squad one by one. George broke from cover and, dodging from tree to tree, raced toward the Nazis as bullets chewed the bark and ground around him. He took out the nest with a grenade and his rifle, and he saved his buddies, but he never wore the medals they gave him and he never talked about it much. After the war he came back to Marysville and married Kate, his childhood sweetheart. He raised three kids, and he started a little construction business, which his hard work and integrity gradually made into a big construction business. By and by, George made a lot of money. But his family continued to live modestly, and he gave generously to the local boys' club and an orphanage he had founded. He was generous with his time, too, and headed the community chest. Still he kept pretty much to himself until Albert Wade inherited his father's bank, the only bank in town. Wade risked his depositors' money on shaky loans to his cronies, bought and bullied his way into power with Marysville's political leaders. When he was elected mayor the election smelled bad to everyone, but only George openly accused Wade of corruption. For six months Wade's bank refused every mortgage on houses built by George's company, and George risked everything in the showdown. But in that tense town meeting, one of the city councilmen Wade had paid off could no longer hide his shame under George's steady gaze and a simple question from the back of the room. He spilled how Wade had rigged the election. Albert Wade went from city hall to county jail, and George went back to his family, his work, and his quiet service to Marysville.

George's story is an American morality tale. It is a national parable, retold time and again in many different versions, about how we should live our lives in this country. George is the American Everyman. He's Gary Cooper in *High Noon*. He's Jimmy Stewart in *It's a Wonderful Life*. He's the American private eye, the frontier hero, the kid who makes good. He's George

Washington and Abe Lincoln. He appears in countless political speeches, in newspaper stories on the evening news, in American ballads, and sermons.

Everyone has a favorite variation, but the basic theme is the same and speaks to the essence of our national self-image: Ours is a nation of humble, immigrant origins, built out of nothing and into greatness through hard work; generous to those in need, those who cannot make it on their own; a loner among nations, suspicious of foreign entanglements, but willing to stand up against tyranny; and forever vigilant against corruption and special privilege.

The American morality tale defines our understanding of who we are, and of what we want for ourselves and one another. It is the tacit subtext of our daily conversations about American life. It permeates *both* American conservatism and American liberalism. And—the essential point—it is a fundamentally noble, essentially life-affirming story. Much is made of the American political distinctiveness of a Constitution inspired by theory rather than by tradition. But there is a subtler yet equally profound *cultural* distinctiveness as well, a national sense of identity rooted not in history but in self-told mythology. Political scientist Carl Friedrich captured the distinction in 1935: “To be an American is an ideal, while to be a Frenchman is a fact.”¹

This basic mythology, however integral to the American identity, is so vague as to admit of many interpretations, to present itself in multiple manifestations over time. At different times in our history, different aspects of the parable have come to the fore while others receded. Some variants of the myth are more faithful to its essence than others; some variants allow for more supple accommodations to current American reality than others. Our history is punctuated with wrenching national contests between competing versions of the ideal; both world wars, for example, forced us to decide whether we must love peace more or justice more. Indeed, these episodes of editing our common mythology, as painful as they may be, are themselves affirmations of the American distinctiveness. This book is premised on the observation that another such episode seems to be at hand.

2

The most important aspect of political discourse is not the appraisal of alternative solutions to our problems, but the definition of the problems themselves. This simple truth is easy to miss because what we *see* when we look at politics is a series of particular problems and possible remedies: How to contain Soviet aggression? Improve American competitiveness? Eliminate poverty and hunger? Manage the size and curb the intrusiveness of government? Editorial pages overflow with worries and suggestions. Political candidates brandish new ideas. Economists diligently tally the costs and benefits of the various proposals. Congressional committees hold hearings. Television documentaries present experts pontificating from behind desks. Disagreeing specialists abuse each other for the edification and entertainment of the populace at large. Public opinion, as measured in the latest polls, swings to and fro. This is what we take for public discourse.

But in the background—disguised, unarticulated—are the myth-based morality tales that determine when we declare a fact to be a problem, how policy choices are characterized, how the debate is framed. These are the unchallenged subtexts of political discourse. We debate specifics, and on almost every issue we instinctively define a spectrum ranging from “left” to

“right” and align ourselves along it. But our varying readings of the American morality tale condition how this spectrum is drawn. And the basic contours of our mythology organize the way we think about issues; they bound the field of argument.²

Public problems don't exist “out there.” They are not discrete facts or pieces of data awaiting discovery. They are consequences of our shared values. Without a set of common moral assumptions we would have no way of identifying or categorizing problems and their possible solutions. Some questions are rarely asked. What is at the root of our quarrel with the Soviets? Does it make sense to speak of American economic competitiveness? Is a citizen's poverty his own misfortune, his own due, or a social problem? What precisely do we mean by government intervention, or the market? These questions do not enter public discourse because so much of the ground from which they spring is taken for granted. To ask them directly is often to end a conversation, because there is nothing left to say; on such basic questions we have collectively, albeit tacitly, reached either essential agreement or stalemate. And yet it is that which we leave unsaid in our debates, not the words that fill the air and the pages, that says the most about us.

As good American pragmatists, wary of grand themes, we prefer the ellipses of metaphor. To the extent that we reflect upon these deeper premises at all, we do so through the stories we tell one another about our lives together—stories like that of George. These tales embody our public philosophy. They constitute a set of orienting ideas less rigid and encompassing than an ideology but also less ephemeral than the “public mood.” The stories interpret and explain reality and teach what is expected of us in light of that reality.³ They situate us, allowing us to understand where we are in an otherwise incomprehensible sea of facts and events. In so doing, these stories give meaning and coherence to what would otherwise seem random phenomena: a new Russian missile, a shuttered factory, a starving child. Our morality tales inform our sense of what our society is about, what it is *for*.

Every culture has its own parables.⁴ Conveying lessons about the how and why of life through metaphor may be a basic human trait, a universal characteristic of our intermittent, rational, deeply emotional, meaning-seeking species. Cultural parables come in a multitude of forms. In modern America, the vehicles of public myth include the biographies of famous citizens, popular fiction and music, movies, feature stories on the evening news, and gossip. They may also take more explicitly hortatory forms in judicial opinions, political speeches, and sermons. In whatever form, they are transmitted constantly, and all around us—in our schoolrooms, dining rooms, poolrooms, and newsrooms. They shape our collective judgments. They anchor our political understandings. The specific details of the stories we tell need not have any particular connection to fact, an insight that some political orators grasp instinctively. What gives them force is their capacity to make sense of, and bring coherence to, common experience. The lessons ring true, even if the illustration is fanciful.

There is a danger in this, of course. It is not that the public can be readily led into believing lies or embracing destructive values. Cultural parables are deeply rooted and resistant to manipulation by controlling elites. Myths cannot be made to order. Propaganda—the attempt to dictate mythology—is a pitiful device; there is evidence that the critical sensibilities of those who must endure it grow exquisitely acute. (Soviet citizens are accustomed to making inferences from the most subtle of clues.)⁵ The danger is more insidious. A mythology is a culture's device for interpreting its reality and acting on it. But what if the reality chang

and the mythology does not?

Even when a culture's parables lose their vitality—their compelling connection with the broader reality in which the culture finds itself—they may continue to inform and entrance. This can go on for a time. The culture can continue to act as though its myths were sound guides to behavior. If the culture is powerful enough relative to other powers in its environment, if its members' ambitions lean more to conservation than to great development, the penalties for following outmoded myths may at first be small. We can continue, without great cost, to embrace the conviction that the world is flat only until we develop the competence to sail to the edge. It is at that point—when we restrain our potential out of fear of falling off, or greet any stranger as a devil from beyond the edge—that the stories we tell ourselves can metamorphose from myth to damaging delusion.

3

George's story embodies four basic American morality tales, our core cultural parables. They are rooted in the central experiences of American history: the flight from older cultures, the rejection of central authority and aristocratic privilege, the lure of the unspoiled frontier, the struggle for harmony and justice.

1. THE MOB AT THE GATES. The first mythic story is about tyranny and barbarism that lurk "out there." It depicts America as a beacon light of virtue in a world of darkness, a small island of freedom and democracy in a perilous sea. We are uniquely blessed, the proper model for other peoples' aspirations, the hope of the world's poor and oppressed. The parable gives voice to a corresponding fear: we must beware, lest the forces of darkness overwhelm us. Our liberties are fragile; our openness renders us vulnerable to exploitation or infection from beyond.

Hence our endless efforts to isolate ourselves from the rest of the globe, to contain evil forces beyond our borders, and to convey our lessons with missionary zeal to benighted outsiders. George fought the "good war" against the Nazis; Daniel Boone, a somewhat less savory campaign against Indians; Davy Crockett, Mexicans. The American amalgam of fear and aggressiveness toward "them out there" appears in countless fantasies of space exploration who triumph over alien creatures from beyond. It is found in Whig histories of the United States, and in the anti-immigration harangues of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. We heeded George Washington's warning to maintain our independence from the monarchical powers of Europe, and then proceeded for more than a century to conquer, purchase, or otherwise control vast territories to our west and south.

In this century Woodrow Wilson grimly rallied Americans to "defeat once and for all ... the sinister forces" that rendered peace impossible;⁶ Franklin Roosevelt warned of "rotten apple nations that spread their rot to others; Dean Acheson adopted the same metaphor to describe the Communist threat to Greece and Turkey immediately after Hitler's war; to Eisenhower South Vietnam was the first in a series of dominoes that might fall to communism; to John F. Kennedy it was "the finger in the dike," holding back the Soviet surge. The underlying lesson: We must maintain vigilance, lest dark forces overrun us.

2. THE TRIUMPHANT INDIVIDUAL. This is the story of the little guy who works hard, takes risk, believes in himself, and eventually earns wealth, fame, and honor. It's the parable of the self-made man (or, more recently, woman) who bucks the odds, spurns the naysayers, and shows what can be done with enough drive and guts. He's a loner and a maverick, true to himself, plain speaking, self-reliant, uncompromising in his ideals. He gets the job done.

Determination and integrity earned George his triumph. Benjamin Franklin employed a carefully conceived system of self-control (Franklin's *Autobiography* is but the first of a long line of American manuals on how to become rich through self-denial and diligence). The theme recurs in the tale of Abe Lincoln, log splitter from Illinois who goes to the White House; in the hundred or so novellas of Horatio Alger, whose heroes all rise promptly and predictably from rags to riches (not only through pluck; luck plays a part too); and in the manifold stories of American detectives and cowboys—mavericks all—who reluctantly get involved in a dangerous quest and end up with the girl, the money, and the glory.⁷ It appears in the American morality tales of the underdog who eventually makes it, showing up the bosses and bullies who tried to put him down; think of *Rocky* or *Iacocca*. Regardless of the precise form, the moral is the same: With enough guts and gumption, anyone can make it on their own in America.

3. THE BENEVOLENT COMMUNITY. The third parable is about the American community. It is the story of neighbors and friends rolling up their sleeves and pitching in to help one another, of self-sacrifice, community pride, and patriotism. It is about Americans' essential generosity and compassion toward those in need.

The story is rooted in America's religious traditions, and its earliest formulations are found in sermons like John Winthrop's "A Model of Christian Charity," delivered on board ship at Salem Harbor just before the Puritans landed in 1630. He described the enterprise on which they were embarking in the terms of Matthew's version of the Sermon on the Mount: The new settlers would be "as a City on a Hill" whose members would "delight in each other" and be "of the same body." America began as a nation of religious communities, centered in the church and pledged to piety and charity—Shakers, Amish, Mennonite, New England Congregationalist. Biblical language and symbols continued to propel American social movements committed to enlarging membership in the benevolent community—the drive for emancipation of the slaves, women's suffrage, civil rights. "I have a dream that every valley shall be exalted, every hill and mountain shall be made low," said Martin Luther King.

The story extends beyond religion to embrace social solidarity and civic virtue. It summons images of New England villagers who meet to debate their future; of frontier settlers who help build one another's barns and gather for quilting bees; of neighbors who volunteer as fire fighters and librarians, whose generosity erects the local hospital and propels high school achievers to college; of small towns that send their boys off to fight wars for the good of all. The story celebrates America's tradition of civic improvement, philanthropy, and local boosterism.

It also tells of national effort on behalf of those in need. The theme permeated Roosevelt's New Deal, Truman's Fair Deal, Johnson's Great Society: America is a single, national community, bound by a common ideal of equal opportunity, and generosity toward the less fortunate. E Pluribus Unum.

Our popular culture has echoed these sentiments. Three hundred years after John Winthrop's sermon they could be found in Robert Sherwood's plays, the novels of John Steinbeck and William Saroyan, Aaron Copland's music and Frank Capra's films. The last scene in *It's a Wonderful Life* conveys the lesson: Jimmy Stewart learns that he can count on his neighbors' generosity and goodness, just as they had always counted on him. They are bound together in common cause. The principle: We must nurture and preserve genuine community.

4. THE ROT AT THE TOP. The fourth parable is about the malevolence of powerful elites, be they wealthy aristocrats, rapacious business leaders, or imperious government officials. The American parable differs subtly but profoundly from a superficially similar European mythology: The struggle is only occasionally and incidentally a matter of money or class. There are no workers pitted against capitalists at the heart of this American story. It is rather, a tale of corruption, decadence, and irresponsibility among the powerful, a conspiracy against the broader public.

This morality tale has repeatedly provoked innovation and reform. Experience with the arbitrary authority of the English Crown produced in the Founding Fathers an acute sensitivity to the possibilities of abuse of power. The result was a government premised on the Enlightenment idea that power must be constrained and limited through checks and balances, and be kept firmly tied to the consent of the governed. A century later America responded to mounting concentrations of private economic power through antitrust laws designed to diffuse such power, and later by government support for other groups—labor unions, farmers, and retailers—capable of exercising countervailing power.⁸ The nation dealt with concentrations of governmental power through civil service rules that limited favoritism, and through electoral reforms and limitations on campaign contributions, to render politicians more accountable to the public. Government power also was held in check by periodic efforts to extend power to the states and cities, to open government decision-making to greater public observation and scrutiny, to reduce the power of senior legislators, and to limit the ability of the president to take action without congressional approval. Since the beginning, in sum, Americans have been suspicious of elites and anxious to circumscribe their power.

At their worst, suspicions about the Rot at the Top have expressed themselves in conspiracy theories. America has harbored a long and infamous line of rabble-rousers, from the pre-Civil War Know-Nothings and Anti-Masonic movements, through the populist agitators of the late nineteenth century, the Ku Klux Klan, Senator Joseph McCarthy, and Lyndon LaRouche. They have fomented against bankers, Catholics, big corporations, blacks, Jews, foreigners, either or both major political parties, and other unnamed "interests." In this version of the story, the Rot at the Top is in a great conspiracy with the Mob at the Gates to keep down the common man and allow evil forces to overrun us.⁹

Our popular culture revels in tales of corruption in high places. At the turn of the century, muckrakers like Upton Sinclair and Ida Tarbell uncovered sordid tales of corporate malfeasance; their modern heirs (revealing CIA depredations, White House scandals, and corporate transgressions) are called investigative reporters. The theme recurs in real and invented stories of honest undercover agents—Sam Spade, Serpico, Jack Nicholson.

Chinatown—who trace the rot back to the most powerful members of the community. It is embodied by the great bullies of American fiction: Judge Thatcher of *Huckleberry Finn*, Broderick Crawford as the Huey Long-like character in *All the King's Men*, Lionel Barrymore as the demonic Mr. Potter in *It's a Wonderful Life*. And in the tales of humble folk, like the Joad family of *The Grapes of Wrath*, who struggle valiantly against avaricious bankers and landowners. The moral is clear: Power corrupts, privilege perverts.

4

These are stories of aspiration. They summon us to duty and destiny. Importantly, the American ideal can never really be fulfilled. The goals it mandates are at once too vast and too vague for objective achievement. To pursue them is its own accomplishment. The striving gives meaning to our collective life; the aspiration bestows on us a national identity. In this respect, America may be unique; probably no other culture so clearly defines itself by its morality tales. As a nation of immigrants without a deep common history, we are bound together by a common hope.

Sometimes the four tales take the form of self-congratulation: Celebrate our triumph over savages and evil abroad! Rejoice in the opportunity open to each of us to gain fame and fortune! Admire our generosity and compassion! See how we have overcome vested privilege! But the same stories can be cast as rebukes, exposing the great gulf separating who we are from what we want to become, or how far we have fallen from an ideal we once achieved. The world is succumbing to tyranny, barbarism, and devastation, while we stand idly by! Hard work and merit are sabotaged by convention, chicanery, and prejudice! We are selfish, narcissistic, racist, indifferent—look at the poor and hungry in our midst! Our democracy is a sham, and everything important is controlled by a venal cabal at the top!

Pride in what we have accomplished, shame in what we have not—these are the ways we recount the four mythic tales and incorporate them into our daily lives. We hear them on the evening news and read them in the press. We reiterate them over lunch when gossip turns to affairs of the day (“Did you hear about—?” “It just shows you—”). Our jokes, tellingly, often refer to these fables and our failures to manifest their mandates. No other culture so celebrates its Mark Twains and Will Rogers, its satirists and debunkers.¹⁰

The pride or shame that come from seeking to live out these four parables also shape our politics. The great reform movements of American history—the Jacksonian war on the Bank of the United States in the 1830s, the abolitionist crusades of the mid-nineteenth century, the Populist-Progressive agitation of the 1880s and 1890s, the New Deal of the 1930s, the War on Poverty and Vietnam protests of the 1960s, even the Reagan “Revolution”—can all be viewed as periods in which the gap between aspiration and perceived reality grew too painfully wide for many to endure. The dissonance was too loud; the hypocrisy too transparent. If we were to continue to tell one another the same stories, it was necessary to take dramatic action.¹¹

Political rhetoric in America is essentially prophetic rather than pragmatic. Challengers tell tales of shame and betrayal, incumbents speak with pride and promise. Both refer not to the mundane present but to a nation “to be,” which has yet to fulfill its national destiny. The tone is often messianic, evangelical. The four parables appear as stories of salvation and redemption: America is to be a promised land of “New Frontiers” and “Great Societies.”

will triumph over evil. It will light the world. We will all be blessed with freedom and wealth, make manifest our compassion, and celebrate the triumph of the common man. Such as we all know perfectly well, is our destiny.

5

The four basic parables have endured throughout American history. But in each era they have been combined and conveyed in slightly different ways, emphasizing a distinct message. Variants develop, come to dominate, and eventually evolve. The evolution can be endorsed and possibly accelerated, but never dictated, by political leaders. The art of political rhetoric has been to reconfigure these stories in a manner that affirms and amplifies the changes already occurring in the way Americans tell these tales to one another. The best political tales, like any parables, are those which most elegantly and simply interpret what is happening to the average person, which render coherent the citizens' experiences of fear and shame, pride and hope.

In the early part of this century, for example, Progressive leaders merged the parables of Rot at the Top and the Triumphant Individual. The lesson was that Big Business—the trusts—blocked worthy citizens from their rightful places in society. Corruption in high places was thwarting personal initiative, stifling upward mobility for the little man. Woodrow Wilson put the matter bluntly in a speech during the 1912 presidential campaign, promising to wage “a crusade against the powers that have governed us ... that have limited our development ... that have determined our lives ... that have set us in a straightjacket to do as they please.” In his view, the struggle against the trusts would be nothing less than “a second struggle for emancipation.”¹² (For Wilson, the Mob at the Gates—the large, bellicose, prewar European states—represented a similar challenge to democratic freedoms, and required a new unrelated dispersion of power.)

By the 1930s, the parables had shifted. Now the key thematic link was between Rot at the Top and the Benevolent Community. Now the lesson was that the mutual prosperity of the common people was under attack by leaders of big business and finance. In the 1932 presidential campaign, Franklin D. Roosevelt warned against the “economic royalists” who had impressed the whole of society into “royal service.” “The hours men and women worked for the wages they received, the conditions of their labor ... these had passed beyond the control of the people, and were imposed by this new industrial dictatorship,” he warned in one speech. “The royalists of the economic order have conceded that political freedom was the business of the government, but they have maintained that economic slavery was nobody's business.” What was at stake, he concluded, was the “survival of democracy.”¹³

The shift from the Progressives' emphasis on the Triumphant Individual to the New Deal's Benevolent Community was more than an oratorical device. It represented a change in Americans' understanding of social life. The Great Depression had provided a national lesson in social solidarity; nearly every American family felt the effects of poverty and insecurity. The Benevolent Community became intimately relevant as relatives and neighbors sought to help one another, as government became the insurer of last resort, and then as Americans turned together to winning Hitler's war. Roosevelt explicitly described the purpose of the New Deal as “extending to our national life the old principle of the local community.” “We

are determined,” he said, “to make every American citizen the subject of his country’s interest and concern.”¹⁴

In the 1980s, Ronald Reagan drew on the same parables, but they were substantially reconfigured. Repudiating Roosevelt’s national community, Reagan redefined the Benevolent Community as small, traditional neighborhoods in which people voluntarily helped one another, free from government interference. The Rot at the Top referred to Washington insiders, arrogant government bureaucrats, and liberal intellectuals who wanted to grab power and stifle creativity. The Triumphant Individual was the business entrepreneur who started work in an attic or garage and ended up spawning an entire industry. And the Mob at the Gates comprised a wide assortment—illegal immigrants, drug traffickers, Third World debtors and revolutionaries, terrorists, greedy trading partners, and, above all, Communists and aggressors—who threatened our way of life. But America would prevail. “America is back and standing tall,” Reagan said in 1984. “We’ve begun to restore the great American values—the dignity of work, the warmth of family, the strength of neighborhood, and the nourishment of human freedom.”¹⁵

6

All four of our morality tales refer to a *collective* identity. They affirm a *common* destiny. Thus a fundamental theme in the American mythology is membership—inclusion and, necessarily, exclusion. In American political life, as in our sporting events and lawsuits, the pronouns “us” and “them” contain the essential information. They signal the boundaries beyond which loyalties and commitments do not extend. We trust that others like “us” will fulfill mutual obligations that yield joint benefits. But for “them” we have only pity or disdain.

In the story of the Mob at the Gates, “they” are dangerous outsiders. Their specific identities and the quality of their menace, has varied throughout our history. “They” have been, at one time or another, American Indians, French, English, Mexicans, Southerners, European immigrants, Germans, Japanese, Chinese, and Russians, to name a few. That members of these groups have on occasion done us injury is true but not essential; that the pigment of their skin is different from that of most Americans is often, but not necessarily, the case. What unites them is that, at some point, “we” have defined ourselves as definitively not like them, and our thorough repudiation of what they represent has buttressed our sense of who we stand for.

Similarly, as Triumphant Individuals we are characterized partly by contrast with who we are not. In this story, “they” are featherbedders, menial workers, and time servers. They are the men in gray flannel suits who dither and grovel in the offices of large organizations, the workers who mindlessly follow routine, petty bureaucrats, and all the other slackers who fail to pull their own weight. That even entrepreneurial garages go dark unless the bureaucrats at the local utility keep the electricity coming may seem to suggest a more complicated story of how we get things accomplished in America, but the stirring distinction between the change master and the time server endures.

A comparable dividing line runs through our conception of the Benevolent Community. On one side of the line the governing principle is solidarity; on the other side it is altruism, even

paternalism. “We” are solid citizens who ask no more than our due, who offer or accept help only in cases of unanticipated and uncontrollable calamity. “They” are *the poor*, dependent by nature and perhaps by choice. We assume, mistakenly, that they are mostly black or brown. Our sense of mercy requires that we limit their suffering; our sense of justice requires that we accompany our charity with proper discipline.

Finally, in the tale of Rot at the Top, “they” are business tycoons, wealthy aristocrats, Washington insiders, or any others who seem to exercise unaccountable power or enjoy unearned privilege. “We” are the common people, too often robbed of true authority and unfairly dispossessed of our proper rewards, innocent victims of the venality and incompetence of self-serving elites.

Dividing the world into “us” and “them,” of course, is a universal and perhaps inevitable human trait. But when the dividing line is accepted without question by all sides of the political debate, it renders our convictions about credit and blame, about the sources and solutions to our problems, sturdily resistant to evidence. This is dangerous when it undercuts the possibility of mutual responsibility and reciprocal gain. As we attribute to “them”—dangerous outsiders, lazy workers, the poor and the deviant, the scheming elites—the problems that bedevil us, we simultaneously limit our repertoire of responses to two broad categories: First, we can discipline them. By being tough and assertive, we can compel them to repent, lay down the law on acceptable behavior, and punish them when they transgress. Alternatively, we can conciliate them. Through generosity, understanding, and toleration we can socialize them, bring out the best in them, and seduce them into changing their ways, in becoming more like us.

It is in large part this pervasive mythic division between the “us” and the “them” that explains the American propensity to squeeze the most collectively diverse and individually complex public choices into a linear array of options anchored, on the one end, by toughness and on the other, by conciliation. These are our contested principles, in issues ranging from foreign policy to welfare. Our public discourse, thus constrained, is often comfortably straightforward but perilously incomplete.

Our morality tales are increasingly at odds with the new challenges we confront. The prevailing versions have little relevance to the relationships that frame our lives—with other peoples of the earth, within our firms, toward our poor, toward our leaders. The prevailing versions do not speak of mutual obligation. They neither celebrate joint gain nor forebode reciprocal loss. Our morality tales, too long unexamined, are losing their power to inform our present. Once again we must revise and reaffirm our declaration of identity.

THE PREVAILING VERSIONS

1

The terms “liberal” and “conservative” (along with their more recent “neo” variants) denote two fundamental orientations toward public issues. They anchor American political discourse. Each orientation harbors internal contradictions and inconsistencies; neither comprises a logical structure of opinions founded on first principles. And many who think of themselves as one or the other often find that on certain specific issues their sympathies lie in the other camp. Nevertheless, Americans tend to define their stances across a remarkable range of issues by reference to conservatism or liberalism.¹

These two orientations are not comparable to the conflicting ideologies that animate politics in other cultures. They are best understood, rather, as different interpretations of the same four morality roles—the Mob at the Gates, the Triumphant Individual, the Benevolent Community, the Rot at the Top. Both are inspired by roughly the same values; both project similar ideals of the perfect society. Both feature a division of the world into “us” and “them.” The conservative version sees “them” as unruly and exploitative, yielding only to discipline. The liberal version sees “them” as misguided and needy, deserving of open accommodation and charity. In recent years the conservative version has been more compelling to a majority of Americans.² It is important to understand why.

Many liberals have refused to credit the currently reigning conservatism with a philosophy at all. They prefer to see it as a thinly veiled scheme to further enrich the wealthy. Some conservatives doubtless embrace their positions out of pure self-interest. But such cynicism is rare. The majority of conservatives, I venture, are attracted by the ideas themselves; the stories make sense.

Other liberals have conceded conservatism’s new claim on the public’s sentiments but see it as a sign of the temporary reversion toward private interest and away from public activism that periodically overcomes a reform-weary citizenry.³ This view, however, fails to account for the reformist zeal of the new movement and its aggressive use of public power to transform the American system. The new conservatism is no simple rejection of “big government,” for it is content to subordinate a significant part of the economy to the military, and aims at expanding the powers of the police, teachers, and other designated public disciplinarians.

Still other liberals have sought to attribute the change in public attitudes to the congenial personality of Ronald Reagan, rather than to any philosophical shift. History will note that the president was an artful orator and a master of parable. He brilliantly acted the part of America’s cowboy hero—the tall and rugged town marshal, who kept the peace with integrity, optimism, and self-deprecating humor.⁴ But this explanation overlooks the groundswell of support for conservatism that arose before Reagan arrived in Washington. The new conservatism was a wider phenomenon than Reaganism. The ideological chest-thumping of the Reagan administration, for example, obscured Jimmy Carter’s quieter but profound

conservatism. Reagan's success lay not in changing the nation's view of how the world works—he had been saying the same things for years, after all, without sparking much of a response—but in giving clear voice to themes the public had finally shown itself ready to embrace.

The new conservatism is attractive because it manages to make sense out of a great deal of our troubling collective experience since, roughly, the assassination of John F. Kennedy. It refashions resonant new versions of America's core myths. It extracts from these reinterpretations a set of plausible lessons. The first such lesson describes a world "out there" that has grown more ruthless and sternly warns that as individuals and as a nation we must struggle for survival against the Mob at the Gates. Another speaks of Triumphant Individualism, of entrepreneurs who must be liberated and spoiled workers whose wage demands could ruin our economy. A third talks of dependency and excess in our Benevolent Community and charges us to require responsibility of the objects of our benevolence. The last warns of the slackness and corruption in our political system that inflict on us an unaccountable flood of wasteful public spending.

All four lessons convey much the same moral: We are in danger of losing our way. We must impose discipline and responsibility on "them"—malign outsiders, free-riding workers, welfare cheats, bureaucrats and politicians—in order that we may fulfill our grand destiny. The parable presents an intricate blend of dissenting Protestant theology and social Darwinism—of salvation, redemption, and triumphant survival. The overarching lesson is dramatically clear, and it applies to a range of public issues. Its power lies in its simplicity and scope, and its evocation of unarticulated fears and hopes.

2

Consider, first, the new conservative position on foreign policy. For years liberals had sought to appease the Soviets, placate the less-developed nations of the Third World, and coddle our allies. As a result, the story goes, we became an easy mark. The Mob at the Gates took advantage of us. Our defenses were down; the Soviets surged ahead of us in armaments. Emboldened by our passivity, they viciously subjugated Afghanistan, cracked down in Poland, and expanded their influence in southern Africa, Southeast Asia, and Central America. Simultaneously, the United States was being taken for a ride by Third World nations that demanded our aid but persistently sided with our adversaries and voted against us at the United Nations. Other Third World nations have threatened default on loans from our banks. We have been overrun by illegal immigrants who defy our borders, take away our jobs, and live off our social services. Drug traffickers in Asia and Latin America, undeterred by cynical governments, pump poisons into our cities. Iranian thugs humiliated us; terrorists kill and maim at will. Even our allies have refused to cooperate with us in limiting East-West trade.

The problem, thus posed, admits of only one approach. We must impose discipline. We must regain our credibility, and the way to do that is to get tough with this Mob at the Gate. We should dramatically increase our military defenses, get the Soviets (and their Cuban allies) out of Central America and Africa, give aid to Third World nations only when they play on our side, and crack down on international terrorists without undue squeamishness about who gets in the way. We should get tough on illegal immigration and drug smuggling.

We should tighten up on East-West trade, so that the Soviets cannot easily take advantage of our technology. We should “play hardball” with our allies on trade and defense. We should threaten to retaliate against Japan if its markets are not fully open to our products. And we should impose austerity on Third World debtors, ensuring that they repay their debts and end their profligate ways.

Liberal indulgence toward the Soviet Union is thought to have threatened our very survival. According to foreign-policy hardliners, we cannot conciliate the Soviets, nor should we try to. The danger of nuclear war will recede only when the Soviet Union transforms itself from a totalitarian state into a freer and more democratic one. Liberal accommodation has only fortified Soviet totalitarianism. By this view, pressures for change are growing within the Soviet Union collapsing from economic and moral decay. We should promote this international disintegration by “a combination of active resistance to Soviet expansion and political-military blackmail and the denial of economic and other forms of aid.”⁵ To hasten the process we will have to be tougher than they are.

3

The conservative story covers economic policy as well. For years, the tale goes, America's Triumphant Individuals—its entrepreneurs—have been held back by slack and sloth elsewhere in the economy.

The liberal solution to the tendency of the economy to succumb cyclically to recession and underemployment was for the government to spend freely enough to restore demand. But this approach, inspired by the British economist John Maynard Keynes, ultimately proved its own undoing, according to the conservative story. Government went on spending beyond its means, even during times of buoyant growth. Undue government solicitousness also bred expectations that Washington would always step in to snap the economy out of slumps and slowdowns. The result was a breakdown of social discipline. Conservative economists condemned the laxity: “The standard brand of liberalism ... was still undisciplined, still devoid of guidelines or limits.”⁶ The government went on a spending binge through the late 1960s and the 1970s, while workers went on a corresponding wage binge. Succeeding presidents tried to keep the rate of unemployment too low, relative to what the economy could manage without fueling inflation. By the late 1970s prices were out of control. Such irresponsibility undermined the integrity of the entire economic system.

The lesson of this story, too, is clear. We must restore discipline to the economy. We had to “break the back” of inflation in the early 1980s through tactical unemployment, to remind workers of their vulnerability to joblessness should wage demands get too high, and we must stand ever ready to do so again. Future economic policy must “take the control of inflation as its first priority” and relegate unemployment to a lower concern.⁷ To control inflation is to impose discipline on the system, particularly on the inflationary wage demands of workers.

Another strand of this conservative parable emphasizes the imperative to discipline the insatiable public sector. If we fail to constrain the federal budget, by constitutional amendment if necessary, productive entrepreneurs will be starved of resources. Businessmen are motivated by money; paring their financial rewards through taxation saps their will. Conservative thinking holds: “The key to growth is quite simple: creative men with money

The cause of stagnation is similarly clear: depriving creative individuals of financial power. Public spending, of course, simply reflects the set of common endeavors that cannot be coordinated by the market. In the conservative view, however, this set is small, and claims for government action are presumptively illegitimate. While conservatives frequently oppose public spending in the abstract with more vigor than program by program, the mythic theme is clear: We must discipline “them,” those illegitimate claimants on resources, so our nation’s inventors and investors can be freed to create new wealth.

4

The modern conservative’s position on social welfare and other underpinnings of the Benevolent Community is consistent with the rest. First, according to this tale, the welfare system is riddled with waste and fraud. Second, when welfare *has* gone to those it was intended for, its effects have often been perverse. It has encouraged poor teenage girls to have babies and deterred them from marriage and work, trapping children in a lifelong culture of dependency and irresponsibility. At the same time, criminal suspects have come to enjoy so many rights that our police are incapable of keeping order, so drugs and crime infest our cities. We have forbidden teachers to control their classrooms and have been more concerned about equality and self-expression than about competence in basic skills, with the result that our schools are failing to educate—a failure particularly damaging to the poor in inner cities. The three forms of laxness have reinforced one another: The easiest path for inner-city youths has been to drop out of school, and then for the girls to have babies and live off welfare, and for the boys to live off girlfriends on welfare and the proceeds of crime.

This overall tale is backed by a plethora of studies purporting to show the inefficacy or the downright malignancy of welfare—and of the related permissive approach to education, law enforcement, and child rearing. One conservative sociologist examined the data on poverty and welfare, particularly those covering the period since the Great Society, and discovered that despite the striking growth in welfare spending during this interval the plight of poor blacks did not improve. His conclusion: We failed to deal with poverty because we created all the wrong incentives—to get into poverty rather than to get out. We undercut discipline and responsibility.⁹ Some educators have come to much the same conclusion about American education. “Permissive progressivism,” with its emphasis on self-expression rather than self-control, perverted our schools.¹⁰ The same story echoes in the work of criminologists, who attribute the dramatic increase in crime between 1960 and 1980 to a permissive approach to child rearing that stressed self-expression instead of self-control.¹¹

The only solution, in the minds of many of these conservative thinkers, is to reverse course. Although not every one of them would agree with all aspects of the prescription, the general lesson is the same: We should eliminate welfare except to victims of sudden and unexpected hardships. We should allow our teachers to punish and expel. We should empower our police officers and judges to mete out swift and certain punishment. And we should teach our children self-control. In short, we should restore social discipline.

5

The conservative tale about the Rot at the Top is too well known to require detailed elaboration. Ronald Reagan himself became the most vocal exponent of the tale. “Government is not the solution to our problems,” he proclaimed on more than one occasion. “Government is the problem.” The story tells of excessive red tape, intermeddling bureaucrats and policy professionals, and ballooning government expenditures—unrestrained and out of control. And the moral of this tale is essentially the same as the others: We must exercise discipline over the taxers and spenders, the bureaucrats and meddlers, who otherwise would go on consuming ever more of our resources and compromising our precious freedoms.

What is so compelling about all these arguments—drawn from foreign policy, economic sociology, and politics—is that they are mutually reinforcing. They tell one interwoven story. No conservative thinker, and certainly no politician, subscribes to the full complement of these views. (Ronald Reagan gave voice to many of these themes without putting them into effect. His budgets were not marked by excessive discipline.) But the details of these arguments are less important than the central set of parables that informs them. Liberal permissiveness has rendered us vulnerable to exploitation. Without discipline, there has been no accountability. Without accountability, decadence has crept in, irresponsibility has become endemic, the system has lost its moral fiber, and we have let ourselves become victims.

This coherence gives the story enormous appeal. It rings true with elements of almost anyone’s personal experience. It offers a comprehensible and comprehensive explanation for what has happened to postwar America. Bundling such disparate issues together into a single tale of decadence, slackness, and assertiveness gives comfort. The comprehensive explanation suggests a way of coming to terms with the source of the decay and eventually reversing it. It is only a matter of recognizing the prevailing pattern and applying the moral. In its simplicity, consistency, and plausibility, the new conservative public philosophy provides a near-perfect mythology.

There is a final feature that helps to explain the emotional appeal of modern conservatism and to distinguish it starkly from its philosophical forbears. Traditional conservatism was austere. It spoke of austerity and self-discipline. It emanated the gray gloom of Herbert Hoover and William Howard Taft. It dwelled on the shameful side of the morality tales. As such, people regarded traditional conservatism the way they regard a bitter medicine or a strict diet—good for you, perhaps, especially after you have gone on a binge, but fundamentally unpleasant nonetheless.

This new brand is markedly different. It preaches austerity and discipline, to be sure, but with the crucial revision that the discipline is not for “us” but for “them.” The conservatism of the late 1970s and 1980s was astonishingly successful at convincing many Americans that the vast changes in national priorities could be achieved to the benefit of nearly all and to the detriment of only a small number of demonstrably undeserving claimants. For the rest of us, the message was cheerfully optimistic—the proud side of the morality tales. We could achieve whatever we want to achieve, be whatever we want to be, or in the vernacular of the day, “go for it.” There were no limits on our strivings, no constraints on our impulses.

The two parts of the message are not inconsistent. To discipline “them,” it is necessary that we be strong. We must be ready to exercise our will and impose our vision with self-confidence, pride, and enthusiasm. It is always easier to be righteous when you know that you are right. As Teddy Roosevelt (Ronald Reagan’s favorite president) represented in words,

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