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A NATIONAL BESTSELLER

A BEAUTIFUL MIND

SYLVIA NASAR

The Life of Mathematical Genius and Nobel Laureate John Nash

THE AWARD-WINNING BESTSELLER

How could you. A mathematician, believe that extraterrestrials

were sending you messages" "the visitor from Harvard asked the

West Virginian with the movie-star looks and Olympian manner.

Because the ideas I had about supernatural beings came to me the

same way my mathematical ideas did.- came the answer. "So I took

them seriously".

Thus begins the true story of John Nash, the

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mathematical genius who was a legend by age thirty when he slipped into madness, and who --

thanks to the selflessness of a beautiful woman and the loyalty

of the mathematics community -- emerged after decades of ghost-like existence to win a Nobel Prize and world acclaim.

The

inspiration for a major motion picture, Sylvia Nasar's award-winning biography is a drama about the mystery of the human

mind, triumph over incredible adversity, and the healing power of

love.

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BE

A former economics correspondent for

The New York Times,

SYLVIA NASAR is

the Knight Professor of Journalism at Columbia University. She

lives in Tarrytown, New York.

WINNER, NATIONAL BOOK CRITICS CIRCLE AWARD FOR BIOGRAPHY

FINALIST, PULITZER PRIZE IN

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Praise for A

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The Wall StreetJournal

"A triumph of intellectual biography." comRobert Boynton,

Newsday

"Might be compared to a Rembrandt portrait, filled with somb

er

shadows and radiant light effects ... simply a beautiful  
A8

book." comMarcia Bartusiak,  
The Boston Globe

"A remarkable look into the arcane world of mathematics and  
the  
tragedy of madness."

- Simon Singh,

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The New York Times Book Review "A narrative of compelling po  
wer."

-- John Men Paulos,  
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"A wonderfully absorbing puzzle." comClaire Douglas,  
Washington Post Book World

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Portland Oregonian

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"An arresting portrait." comJune Kinoshita, St. Petersburg T  
imes

"The parabolic arc of an American genius ... superbly and  
thrillingly limned."

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comW Blythe,  
Mirahelia

"A staggering feat of writing and reporting." comMichael J.  
Mandel, Business Week

"Profoundly sad yet redemptive."

- Worth Magazine

"Instead of facile theories, the reader enjoys wonder and  
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comRichard Dooling, Salon

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comor to fear."

- Booklist

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- The Economist

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'  
The Times

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---11

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Irish News

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comChristopher Beauman,

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journal of the History ofEeconomic Thought

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MIT Technology Review

"Deeply moving." comPaul Trachtman, Smithsonian Magazine

"Presented with grace and skill: comBrian Hayes,

The Sciences

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JAMA

"A deeply moving love story, an account of the centrality of human relationships."

- Richard Wyatt and Kay Jamison,

The New Englandjournal of Medicine

"A gripping narrative."

- Kenneth Arrow, Nobel Laureate,

The Times Higher Education Supplement

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SYLVIA NASAR

A Touchstone Book Published by Simon and Schuster

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Fortune

V-

IIUR ALICIA ESTHER LARDE NASH Another race hath been, and ot

her  
palms are won. Thanks to the human heart by which we live, T  
hanks

-----

---16

to its tenderness, its joys, and fears,  
To me the meanest flower that blows can give Thoughts that d  
o

often lie too deep for tears.

com11MLLIAM WORDSWORTH,  
"Intimations of Immortality"

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1 Bluefield (1928-4,)

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3 The Center of the Universe  
(Princeton, Fea711 1948)

4 School of Genius  
(Princeton, Fea7111948)

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6

Games (Princeton, Spring 1949)

7 John von Neumann

(Princeton, 1948-49)

8 The Theory of Games

9 The Bargaining Problem

(Princeton, Spring 1949)

10 Nash's Rival Idea

(Princeton, 1949-50)

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Lloyd (Princeton, 1950)

12 The War of Wits

(RAND, Summer 1950)

13 Game Theory at RAND

14 The Draft

(Princeton, 1950-51)

15 A Beautiful Theorem

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"ere the statue stood  
A20

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OfNewton with his prism and silent face, The marble index of  
a  
mind for ever  
Voyaging through strange seas of Thought, alone.

- WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

JOHN FORBES NASH, JR. commathematical genius, inventor of a  
theory of rational behavior, visionary of the thinking machi  
ne --

had been sitting with his visitor, also a mathematician, for  
  
nearly half an hour. It was late on a weekday afternoon in t  
he  
spring of 1959, and, though it was only May,  
uncomfortably warm. Nash was slumped in an armchair in one c  
orner  
of the hospital lounge, carelessly dressed in a nylon shirt  
that  
hung limply over his unbelted trousers. His powerful frame w  
as  
slack as a rag doll's, his finely molded features expression  
less.

He had been staring  
dully at a spot immediately in front of the left  
foot of Harvard professor George Mackey, hardly moving excep  
t to  
brush his long dark hair away from his forehead in a fitful,  
  
repetitive motion. His visitor sat upright, oppressed by the  
  
silence, acutely conscious that the doors to the room were  
locked. Mackey finally could contain himself no longer. His  
voice  
was slightly querulous, but he strained to be gentle. "How c  
ould  
you,"bbgan

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---22

Mackey, "how could you, a mathematician, a man devoted to re  
ason  
and logical proof... how could you believe that extraterrest  
rials  
are sending you messages? How could you believe that you are  
  
being recruited by aliens from outer space to save the world  
? How  
could you ... ?was  
Nash looked up at last and fixed Mackey with an unblinking s

tare

as cool and dispassionate as that of any bird or snake.

"Becausee" Nash said slowly in his soft, reasonable southern

drawl, as if talking to himself, "the ideas I had about supernatural beings came to me the same way that my mathematical

ideas did. So I took them seriouslydd"I

The young genius from Bluefield, West Virginia -- handsome, arrogant, and highly eccentric comburst onto the mathematical

scene in 1948. Over the next decade, a decade as notable for its

supreme faith in human rationality as for its dark anxieties

about mankind's survival,` Nash proved himself, in the words of

the eminent

geometer Mikhail Gromov, "the most remarkable mathematician of

the second half of the century."` Games of strategy, economic

rivalry, computer architecture, the shape of the universe, the

geometry of imaginary spaces, the mystery of

-----  
---23

prime numbers-all engaged his wide-ranging imagination. His ideas

were of the deep and wholly unanticipated kind that pushes scientific thinking in new directions.

Geniuses, the mathematician Paul Halmos wrote, "are of two kinds:

the ones who are just like all of us, but very much more so, and

the ones who,

apparently, have an extra human spark. We can

all run, and some of us can run the mile in less than 4

A23

minutes; but there is nothing that most of us can do that compares with the creation of the Great G-minor Fuguedd0bled

Nash's genius was of that mysterious variety more often associated with music and art than with the oldest of all sciences. It wasn't merely that his mind worked faster, that his

memory was more retentive, or that his power of concentration was

greater. The flashes of intuition were nonrational. Like other

great mathematical intuitionists comGeorg Friedrich Bernhard

Riemann, Jules Henri Poincar6, Srinivasa Ramanujan comNash saw

the vision first, constructing the laborious proofs long afterward. But even after he'd try to explain some astonishing

result, the actual route he had taken remained a mystery to others who tried to follow his reasoning. Donald Newman, a mathematician who knew

-----

---24

Nash at MIT in the 1950's, used to say about him that "every one

else would climb a peak by looking for a path somewhere on the

mountain. Nash would climb another mountain altogether and from

that distant peak would shine a searchlight back onto the first

peakdd"I No one was more obsessed with originality, more disdainful of authority, or more jealous of his independence . As

a young man he was surrounded by the high priests of twentieth-century science comAlbert Einstein, John von Neumann,

and Norbert Wiener comb he joined no school, became no one's

disciple, got along largely without guides or followers. In almost everything he did comf game theory to geometry -- he thumbed his nose at the received wisdom, current fashions, established methods. He almost always worked alone, in his head,

usually walking, often whistling Bach. Nash acquired his knowledge of mathematics not mainly from studying what other

mathematicians had discovered, but by rediscovering their truths

for himself. Eager to astound, he was always on the lookout for the really big problems. When he focused on some new puzzle, he saw dimensions that people who really knew the subject (he never did) initially dismissed as naive or wrongheaded. Even as a student, his indifference to others' skepticism,

-----  
---25

doubt, and ridicule was awesome. Nash's faith in rationality and the power of pure thought was extreme, even for a very young mathematician and even for the new age of computers, space travel, and nuclear weapons. Einstein once chided him for wishing to amend relativity theory without studying physics

.6

His heroes were solitary thinkers and supermen like Newton and Nietzsche. Computers and science fiction were his passions. He considered "thinking machines" he called them, superior in some ways to human beings. At one point, he became fascinated by the possibility that drugs could heighten physical and intellectual performance. He was beguiled by the idea of alien races of hyper-rational beings who had taught themselves to disregard all emotion. Compulsively rational, he wished to turn life's decisions whether to take the first

elevator or wait for the next one, where to bank his money,  
A25

what job to accept, whether to marry cominffcalculations of  
advantage and disadvantage, algorithms or mathematical rules

divorced from emotion, convention, and tradition. Even the s  
mall  
act of saying an

-----  
---26

automatic hello to Nash in a hallway could elicit a furious  
"Why

are you saying hello to me""I I

His contemporaries, on the whole, found him immensely strang  
e.

They described him as "aloof haughty,0"without

affect,0"detached,0"spooky,0"isolatedea"and "queer."" Nash

mingled rather than mixed with his peers. Preoccupied with h  
is

own private reality, he seemed not to share their mundane  
concerns. His manner-slightly cold, a bit superior, somewhat

secretive comsuggested something dismysterious and unnatural  
."

His remoteness was punctuated by flights of garrulousness ab  
out

outer space and geopolitical trends, childish pranks, and  
unpredictable eruptions of anger. But these outbursts were,  
more

often than not, as enigmatic as his silences. "He is not one  
of

u"was a constant refrain. A mathematician at the Institute f  
or

Advanced Study remembers meeting Nash for the first time at  
a

crowded student party at Princeton:

I noticed him very definitely among a lot of other people wh  
o

were there. He was sitting on the floor in a half-circle  
discussing something. He made me feel uneasy. He gave me a  
peculiar

-----  
---27

feeling. I had a feeling of a certain strangeness. He was  
different in some way. I was not aware of the extent of his  
talent. I had no idea he would contribute as much as he real  
ly

did."

But he did contribute, in a big way. The marvelous paradox w  
as

that the ideas themselves were not obscure. In 1958,

Fortune

singled Nash out for his achievements in game theory, algebraic

geometry, and nonlinear theory, calling him the most brilliant of

the younger generation of new ambidextrous mathematicians who

worked in both pure and applied mathematics. Nash's insight

into the dynamics of human rivalry -- his theory of rational

conflict and cooperation -- was to become one of the most influential ideas of the twentieth century, transforming the

young science of economics the way that Mendel's ideas of genetic

transmission, Darwin's model of natural selection, and Newton's

celestial mechanics reshaped biology and physics in their day.

It was the great Hungarian-born polymath John von Neumann who

first recognized that social behavior could be analyzed as games.

Von Neumann's 1928 article on parlor games was

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---28

the first successful attempt to derive logical and mathematical

rules about rivalries." just as Blake saw the universe in a grain

of sand, great scientists have often looked for clues to vast and

complex problems in the small, familiar phenomena of daily life.

Isaac Newton reached insights about the heavens by juggling wooden balls. Einstein contemplated a boat paddling upriver.

Von



and the possibility of mutual gain comthe standard economic scenario comvon Neumann's superlative instincts failed him. He was convinced that players would have to form coalitions, make explicit agreements, and

-----  
---30

submit to some higher, centralized authority to enforce those agreementsdd"Q possibly his conviction reflected his generation's distrust, in the wake of the Depression and in the midst of a world war, of unfettered individualism. Though von Neumann hardly shared the liberal views of Einstein, Bertrand Russell, and the British economist John Maynard Keynes, he shared something of their belief that actions that might be reasonable from the point of view of the individual could produce social chaos. Like them he embraced the then-popular solution to political conflict in the age of nuclear weapons: world government." The young Nash had wholly different instincts. Where von Neumann's focus was the group, Nash zeroed in on the individual, and by doing so, made game theory relevant to modern economics. In his slender twenty-seven-page doctoral thesis, written when he was twenty-one, Nash created a theory for games in which there was a possibility of mutual gain, inventing a concept that let one cut through the endless chain of reasoning, "I think that you think that I think. . . .was 19 His insight was that the game

would be solved when every player independently chose his  
A30

best response to the other players` best

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---31

strategies.

Thus, a young man seemingly so out of touch with other people's

emotions, not to mention his own, could see clearly that the most

human of motives and behavior is as much of a mystery as mathematics itself, that world of ideal platonic forms invented

by the human species seemingly by pure introspection (and yet

somehow linked to the grossest and most mundane aspects of nature). But Nash

had grown up in a boom town in the Appalachian foothills where

fortunes were made from the roaring, raw businesses of rails

, coal, scrap metal, and electric power. Individual rationality and

self-interest, not common agreement on some collective good,

seemed sufficient to create a tolerable order. The leap was a

short one, from his observations of his hometown to his focus on

the logical strategy necessary for the individual to maximize his

own advantage and minimize his disadvantages. The Nash

equilibrium, once it is explained, sounds obvious, but by

formulating the problem of economic competition in the way that

he did, Nash showed that a decentralized decision-making process

could, in fact, be coherent giving economics an updated, far more

---

---32

sophisticated version of Adam Smith's great metaphor of the Invisible Hand.

By his late twenties, Nash's insights and discoveries had won him

recognition, respect, and autonomy. He had carved out a brilliant

career at the apex of the mathematics profession, traveled,

lectured, taught, met the most famous mathematicians of his day,

and become famous himself. His genius also won him love. He

had married a beautiful young physics student who adored him, and fathered a child. It was a brilliant strategy, this genius, this life. A seemingly perfect adaptation. Many great scientists and philosophers, among them René Descartes, Ludwig Wittgenstein, Immanuel Kant, Thorstein Veblen, Isaac Newton, and Albert Einstein, have had similarly strange and solitary personalities. 10 An emotionally detached, inward-looking temperament can be especially conducive to scientific creativity, psychiatrists and biographers have long observed, just as fiery fluctuations in mood may sometimes be linked to artistic expression. In *The Dynamics of Creation*, Anthony Storr, the British psychiatrist,

-----  
---33

contends that an individual who "fears love almost as much as he fears hatred" may ti-imp to creative activity not only out of an impulse to experience aesthetic pleasure, or the delight of exercising an active mind, but also to defend himself against anxiety stimulated by conflicting demands for detachment and human contact." In the same vein, Jean-Paul Sartre, the French philosopher and writer, called genius "the brilliant invention of someone who is looking for a way out." Posing the question of why people often are willing to endure frustration and misery in

order to create something, even in the absence of large

A33

rewards, Storr speculates:

Some creative people ... of predominately schizoid or depressive

temperaments ... use their creative capacities in a defensive

way. If creative work protects a man from mental illness, it is

small wonder that he pursues it with avidity. The schizoid state

... is characterized by a sense of meaninglessness and futility.

For most people, interaction with others provides most of what

they require to find meaning and significance in life. For the

schizoid person, however, this is not the case, Creative activity

is a particularly apt way to express himself ... the activity is

solitary

-----  
---34

... [but] the ability to create and the productions which result

from such ability are generally regarded as possessing value by

our society.,, Of course, very few people who exhibit "a lifelong

pattern of social isolation"and "indifference to the attitudes

and feelings of others"-the hallmarks of a so-called schizoid

personality- possess great scientific or other creative

talentdd"andthe vast majority of people with such strange and

solitary temperaments never succumb to severe mental illness

dd14  
Instead, according to John G. Gunderson, a psychiatrist at

Harvard, they tend "to engage in solitary activities which often

involve mechanical, scientific, futuristic and other non-human

subjects ... [and] are likely to appear increasingly comfortable

over a period of time by forming a stable but distant network of

relationships with people around work tasks." " Men of scientific

genius, however eccentric, rarely become truly insane-the

strongest evidence for the potentially protective nature of creativity

Nash proved a tragic exception. Underneath the brilliant surface

of his life, all was chaos and contradiction: his involvements

with other men; a secret mistress and a neglected illegitimate

-----  
---35

son; a deep ambivalence toward the wife who adored him, the university that nurtured him, even his country; and, increasingly, a haunting fear of failure. And the chaos eventually welled up, spilled over, and swept away the fragile

edifice of his carefully constructed life.

The first visible signs of Nash's slide from eccentricity into

madness appeared when he was thirty and was about to be made a

full professor at MIT. The episodes were so cryptic and fleeting

that some of Nash's younger colleagues at that institution thought that he was indulging a private joke at their expense. He

walked into the common room one winter morning in 1959 carrying

The New York Times

and remarked, to no one in particular, that the story in the

upper left-hand corner of the front page contained an encrypted

message from inhabitants of another galaxy that only he could

decipher." Even months later, after he had stopped teaching, had

angrily resigned his professorship, and was incarcerated at a

private psychiatric hospital in suburban Boston, one of the nation's leading forensic psychiatrists, an expert who testified

in the case of Sacco and Vanzetti, insisted that Nash was

perfectly sane. Only a few of those who witnessed the

36

uncanny metamorphosis, Norbert Wiener among them, grasped its

true significance."

At thirty years of age, Nash suffered the first shattering episode of paranoid schizophrenia, the most catastrophic, protean, and mysterious of mental illnesses. For the next three

decades, Nash suffered from severe delusions, hallucinations

disordered thought and feeling, and a broken will. In the grip of

this "cancer of the mind," as the universally dreaded condition

is sometimes called, Nash abandoned mathematics, embraced numerology and religious prophecy, and believed himself to be a

"messianic figure of great but secret importance." He fled to

Europe several times, was hospitalized involuntarily half a dozen

times for periods up to a year and a half, was subjected to all

sorts of drug and shock treatments, experienced

brief remissions and episodes of hope that lasted only a few

months, and finally became a sad phantom who haunted the Princeton University campus where he had once been a brilliant

graduate student, oddly dressed, muttering to himself, writing

mysterious messages on

-----  
---37

blackboards, year after year.

The origins of schizophrenia are mysterious. The condition was

first described in 1806, but no one is certain whether the illness-or, more likely, group of illnesses comexisted long before then but had escaped definition or, on the other hand

appeared as an AIDS-like scourge at the start of the industrial

agedd19 Roughly

1 percent of the population in all countries succumbs to xdd  
10

Why it strikes one individual and not another is not known, although the suspicion is that it results from a tangle of inherited vulnerability and life stresses." No element of environment -- war, imprisonment, drugs, or upbringing -- ha

s  
ever been proved to cause, by itself, a single instance of t  
he  
illness." There is now a consensus that schizophrenia has a  
tendency to run in families, but heredity alone apparently c  
annot  
explain why a specific individual develops the full-blown  
illness."  
Eugen Bleuler, who coined the term  
schizophrenia  
in 1908, describes a "specific type of alteration of thinkin  
g,  
feeling and relation to the external world."

-----  
---38

14

The term refers to a splitting of psychic functions, "a pecu  
liar  
destruction of the inner cohesiveness of the psychic  
personality." "If the person experiencing early symptoms, ther  
e is  
a dislocation of every faculty, of time, space, and body." N  
one  
of its symptoms comhearing voices, bizarre delusions, extrem  
e  
apathy or agitation, coldness toward others comis, taken sin  
gly,  
unique to the illnessdd" And symptoms vary so much between  
individuals and over time for the same individual that the n  
otion  
of a "typical case" is virtually nonexistent. Even the degree  
of  
disabilityfar more severe, on average, for men -- varies wil  
dly.

The symptoms can be "slightly, moderately, severely, or

A38

absolutely disabling" according to Irving Gottesman, a leading contemporary researcher." Though Nash succumbed at age thirty,

the illness can appear at any time from adolescence to advanced

middle age. The first episode can last a few weeks or months

or several years. The life history of someone with the disease

can include only one or two episodes

.41

Isaac Newton, always an eccentric and solitary

-----  
---39

soul, apparently suffered a psychotic breakdown with paranoid

delusions at age fifty-one

.41

The episode, which may have been precipitated by an unhappy attachment to a younger man and the failure of his alchemy experiments, marked the end of Newton's academic career. But

after a year or so, Newton recovered and went on to hold a series

of high public positions and to receive many honors. More often,

as happened in Nash's case, people with the disease suffer many,

progressively more severe episodes that occur at ever shorter

intervals. Recovery, almost never complete, runs the gamut from a

level tolerable to society to one that may not require permanent

hospitalization but in fact does not allow even the semblance of

a normal life.

More than any symptom, the defining characteristic of the illness

is the profound feeling of incomprehensibility and inaccessibility that sufferers provoke in other people.

Psychiatrists describe the person's sense of being separated

by a "gulf which defies description" of individuals who seem "totally

strange, puzzling, inconceivable, uncanny and incapable of empathy,

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---40

even to the point of being sinister and frightening." 44  
For Nash, the onset of the illness dramatically intensified  
a  
pre-existing feeling, on the part of many who knew him, that  
he  
was essentially disconnected from them and deeply unknowable  
. As

Storr writes: However melancholy a depressive may be, the  
observer generally feels there is some possibility of emotio  
nal

contact. The schizoid person, on the other hand, appears  
withdrawn and inaccessible. His remoteness from human contac  
t

makes his state of mind less humanly comprehensible, since h  
is  
feelings are not communicated. If such a person becomes psyc  
hotic

(schizophrenic) this lack of connection with people and the  
external world becomes more obvious; with the result that th  
e

sufferer's behavior and utterances appear inconsequential an  
d

unpredictable<sup>41</sup>

Schizophrenia contradicts popular but incorrect views of mad  
ness

as consisting solely of wild gyrations of mood, or fevered  
delirium. Someone with schizophrenia is not permanently  
disoriented or confused, for example, the way that an indivi  
dual

with a brain injury or Alzheimer's might be<sup>46</sup> He may have,

indeed usually does have, a firm

grip on certain aspects of present reality. While he was

41

ill, Nash traveled all over Europe and America, got legal help,

and learned to write sophisticated computer programs.

Schizophrenia is also distinct from manic depressive illness

(currently known as bipolar disorder), the illness with which it

has most often been confounded in the past.

If anything, schizophrenia can be a ratiocinating illness, particularly in its early phases

.41

From the turn of the century, the great students of schizophrenia

noted that its sufferers included people with fine minds and that

the delusions which often, though not always, come with the disorder involve subtle, sophisticated, complex flights of thought. Emil Kraepelin, who defined the disorder for the first

time in 1896, described "dementia praecox'" as he called the

illness, not as the shattering of reason but as causing "predominant damage to the emotional life and the

Wdd041

Louis A. Sass, a psychologist at Rutgers University, calls it

"not an escape from reason but an exacerbation of that thoroughgoing illness Dostoevsky imagined ... at least in some of

its

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---42

forms ... a heightening rather than a dimming of conscious awareness, and an alienation not from reason but from emotion,

instincts and the will ddd049

Nash's mood in the early days of his illness can be described,

not as manic or melancholic, but rather as one of heightened

awareness, insomniac wakefulness and watchfulness. He began to

believe that a great many things that he saw come telephone number, a red necktie, a dog trotting along the sidewalk, a Hebrew letter, a birthplace, a sentence in

The New York Times-had

a hidden significance, apparent only to him. He found such signs

increasingly compelling, so much so that they drove from his

consciousness his usual concerns and preoccupations. At the same time, he believed he was on the brink of cosmic insights. He claimed he had found a solution to the greatest unsolved problem in pure mathematics, the so-called Riemann Hypothesis. Later he said he was engaged in an effort to "rewrite the foundations of quantum physics." Still later, he claimed, in a torrent of letters to former colleagues, to have discovered vast conspiracies and the secret meaning of numbers and biblical texts. In a letter to the algebraist Emil Artin, whom he

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addressed as "a great necromancer and numerologist" Nash wrote:

I have been considering Algerbiac [sic] questions and have noticed some interesting things that might also interest you

...  
1, a while ago, was seized with the concept that numerical calculations dependent on the decimal system might not be sufficiently intrinsic also that language and alphabet structure might contain ancient cultural stereotypes interfering with clear understands [sic] or unbiased thinking.... I quickly wrote down a

new sequence of symbols.... These were associated with (in  
A43  
fact natural, but perhaps not computationally ideal but suited  
for mystical rituals, incantations and such) system for  
representing the integers via symbols, based on the products  
of  
successive primes."  
A predisposition to schizophrenia was probably integral to Nash's  
exotic style of thought as a mathematician, but the full-blown  
disease devastated his ability to do creative work. His  
once-illuminating visions became increasingly obscure,  
self-contradictory, and full of purely private meanings,  
accessible only to himself His longstanding conviction that  
the  
universe was rational

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---44

evolved into a caricature of itself, turning into an unshakable  
belief that everything had meaning, everything had a reason,  
nothing was random or coincidental. For much of the time, his  
grandiose delusions insulated him from the painful reality of all  
that he had lost. But then would come terrible flashes of  
awareness. He complained bitterly from time to time of his  
inability to concentrate and to remember mathematics, which  
be  
attributed to shock treatmentsdd" He sometimes told others that  
at  
his enforced idleness made him feel ashamed of himself,  
worthless." More often, he expressed his suffering wordlessly.  
On  
one occasion, sometime during the 1970's, he was sitting at  
a  
table in the dining hall at the Institute for Advanced Study  
-the  
scholarly haven where he had once discussed his ideas with the  
he  
likes of Einstein, von Neumann, and Robert Oppenheimer- alone  
as  
usual. That morning, an institute staff member recalled, Nash  
got  
up, walked over to a wall, and stood there for many minutes,  
banging his head against the wall, slowly, over and over, eyes

tightly shut, fists clenched, his face contorted with anguish." h."

While Nash the man remained frozen in a dreamlike state, a phantom who haunted Princeton in the 1970's and 1980's scribbling

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---45

on blackboards and studying religious texts, his name began to surface everywhere-in economics textbooks, articles on evolutionary biology, political science treatises, mathematics journals. It appeared less often in explicit citations of the papers he had written in the 1950's than as an adjective for

concepts too universally accepted, too familiar a part of the foundation of many subjects to require a particular reference:

"Nash equilibrium,0"Nash bargaining solution Nash program,0" De Giorgi-Nash result,0"Nash embedding Nash-Moser theorem;` "Nash blowing-up."

14

When a massive new encyclopedia of economics, The New Palgrave, appeared in 1987, its editors noted that the game theory revolution that had swept through economics "was effected with apparently no new fundamental mathematical theorems beyond those of von Neumann and Nash." "

Even as Nash's ideas became more influential in fields so disparate that almost no one connected the

Nash of game theory with Nash the geometer or Nash the

46

analyst comthe man himself remained shrouded in obscurity. Most

of the young mathematicians and economists who made use of his

ideas simply assumed, given the dates of his published articles,

that he was dead. Members of the profession who knew otherwise,

but were aware of his tragic illness, sometimes treated him as if

he were. A 1989 proposal to place Nash on the ballot of the Econometric Society as a potential fellow of the society was

treated by society officials as a highly romantic but essentially

frivolous gesture comand rejectedddd16 No biographical sketch

of Nash appeared in

The New Palgrave

alongside sketches of half a dozen other pioneers of game theoryddd17

At around that time, as part of his daily rounds in Princeton,

Nash used to turn up at the institute almost every day at breakfast. Sometimes he would cadge cigarettes or spare change,

but mostly he kept very much to himself, a silent, furtive figure, gaunt and gray, who sat alone off in a corner, drinking

coffee, smoking, spreading out a ragged pile of papers that he

carried

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---47

with him alwaysddd18

Freeman Dyson, one of the giants of twentieth-century theoretical

physics, one-time mathematical prodigy, and author of a dozen

metaphorically rich popular books on science, then in his sixties, about five years older than Nash, was one of those who

saw Nash every day at the instituteddd19 Dyson is a small, lively

sprite of a man, father of six children, not at all remote, with

an acute interest in people unusual for someone of his profession, and one of those who would greet Nash without expecting any response, but merely as a token of respect.

On one of those gray mornings, sometime in the late 1980's, he said his usual good morning to Nash. "I see your daughter is in the news again today," Nash said to Dyson, whose daughter Esther is a frequently quoted authority on computers. Dyson, who had never heard Nash speak, said later: "I had no idea he was aware of her existence. It was beautiful. I remember the astonishment I felt. What I found most wonderful was this slow awakening. Slowly, he just somehow woke up. Nobody else has ever awakened the way he did."

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More signs of recovery followed. Around 1990, Nash began to correspond, via electronic mail, with Enrico Bombieri, for many years a star of the Institute's mathematics faculty. Bombieri, a dashing and erudite Italian, is a winner of the Fields Medal, mathematics' equivalent of the Nobel. He also paints oils, collects wild mushrooms, and polishes gemstones. Bombieri is a number theorist who has been working for a long time on the Riemann Hypothesis. The exchange focused on various conjectures and calculations Nash had begun related to the so-called ABC conjecture. The letters showed that Nash was once again doing real mathematical research, Bombieri said: He was staying very much by himself But at some point he started

talking to people. Then we talked quite a lot about number

A48

theory. Sometimes we talked in my office. Sometimes over coffee

in the dining hall. Then we began corresponding by e-mail. It's a

sharp mind ... all the suggestions have that toughness ... there's nothing commonplace about those.... Usually when one

starts in a field, people remark the obvious, only what is known.

In this case, not. He looks

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at things from a slightly different angle. A spontaneous recovery

from schizophrenia is most widely regarded as a dementing and degenerative disease is so rare, particularly after so long

and severe a course as Nash experienced, that, when it occurs,

psychiatrists routinely question the validity of the original

diagnosis. But people like Dyson and Bombieri, who had watched

Nash around Princeton for years before witnessing the transformation, had no doubt that by the early 1990's he was

"a walking miracle."

It is highly unlikely, however, that many people outside this

intellectual Olympus would have become privy to these developments, dramatic as they appeared to Princeton insiders, if

not for another scene, which also took place on these grounds at

the end of the first week of October 1994.

A mathematics seminar was just breaking up. Nash, who now regularly attended such gatherings and sometimes even asked

a question or offered some conjecture, was about to duck out. Harold Kuhn, a mathematics professor at the university and Nash's

closest friend, caught up with him at the

door. Kuhn had telephoned Nash at home earlier that

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---50

day and suggested that the two of them might go for lunch after

the talk. The day was so mild, the outdoors so inviting, the

Institute woods so brilliant, that the two men wound up sitting on a bench opposite the mathematics building, at the edge of a vast expanse of lawn, in front of a graceful little Japanese fountain.

Kuhn and Nash had known each other for nearly fifty years. They had both been graduate students at Princeton in the late 1940's, shared the same professors, known the same people, traveled in the same elite mathematical circles. They had not been friends as students, but Kuhn, who spent most of his career in Princeton, had never entirely lost touch with Nash and had, as Nash became more accessible, managed to establish fairly regular contact with him. Kuhn is a shrewd, vigorous, sophisticated man who is not burdened with "the mathematical personality" a typical academic, passionate about the arts and liberal political causes, Kuhn is as interested in other people's lives as Nash is remote from them. They were an odd couple, connected not by temperament or experience but by a large fund of

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---51

common memories and associations. Kuhn, who had carefully rehearsed what he was going to say, got to the point quickly. "I have something to tell you, John" he began. Nash, as usual, refused to look Kuhn in the face at first,

staring instead into the middle distance. Kuhn went

A51

22

Prologue

on. Nash was to expect an important telephone call at home t  
he

following morning, probably around six o'clock. The call wou  
ld

come from Stockholm. It would be made by the Secretary Gener  
al of

the Swedish Academy of Sciences. Kuhn's voice suddenly becam  
e

hoarse with emotion. Nash now turned his head, concentrating  
on

every word. "He's going to tell you, Johnea"Kuhn concluded,  
"that

you have won a Nobel Prize."

This is the story of John Forbes Nash, Jr. It is a story abo  
ut

the mystery of the human mind, in three acts: genius, madnes  
s,

reawakening.

PART ONE

A

Beautiful Mind

I

Bluefield

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---52

1928-45

I was taught to feel, perhaps too much The self-sufficingpow  
er

ofsolitude.

- WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

AMONG

JOHN NASH'S EARLIEST MEMORIES

is one in which, as a child of about two or three, he is  
listening to his maternal grandmother play the piano in the  
front

parlor of the old Tazewell Street house, high on a breezy hi  
ll

overlooking the city of Bluefield, West Virginia.`

It was in this parlor that his parents were married on Septe  
mber

6, 1924, a Saturday, at eight in the morning to the chords o  
f a

Protestant hymn, amid basketfuls of blue hydrangeas, goldenr  
od,

black-eyed susans, and white and gold marguerites.` The

thirty-two-year-old groom was tall and gravely handsome. The

bride, four years his junior, was a willowy, dark-eyed beauty.

Her narrow, brown cut-velvet dress emphasized her slender waist

and long, graceful back. She had perhaps chosen its deep shade

out of deference to her father's recent death. She carried a

bouquet of the same old-fashioned flowers that filled the room,

and she wore more of these blooms woven through

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---53

her thick chestnut hair. The effect was brilliant rather than

subdued. The vibrant browns and golds, which would have made a

woman with a lighter, more typically southern complexion look

wan, embellished her rich coloring and lent her a striking and

sophisticated air.

The ceremony, conducted by ministers from Christ Episcopal Church

and Bland Street Methodist Church, was simple and brief, witnessed by fewer than a dozen family members and old friends.

By eleven o'clock, the newlyweds were standing at the ornate

wrought-iron gate in front of the rambling, white 1890's house

waving their goodbyes. Then, according to an account that

appeared some weeks later in the Appalachian Power Company's

company newsletter, they embarked in the groom's shiny new Dodge

for an "extensive tour" through several northern states.`

A53

The romantic style of the wedding, and the venturesome honey moon, hinted

at certain qualities in the couple, no longer in the first bloom

of youth, that set them somewhat apart from the rest of society

in this small American town, John Forbes Nash, Sr., was "proper,

painstaking, and very serious, a very conservative man in

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---54

every respect", according to his daughter Martha Nash Leggd bled

What saved him from dullness was a sharp, inquiring mind. A Texas

native, he came from the rural gentry, teachers and farmers,

pious, frugal Puritans and Scottish Baptists who migrated west

from New England and the Deep South.` He was born in 1892 on his

maternal grandparents' plantation on the banks of the Red River

in northern Texas, the oldest of three children of Martha Smith

and Alexander Quincy Nash. The first few years of his life were

spent in Sherman, Texas, where his paternal grandparents, both

teachers, had founded the Sherman Institute (later the Mary Nash

College for Women), a modest but progressive establishment, where

the daughters of Texas's middle class learned deportment, the

value of regular physical exercise, and a bit of poetry and botany. His mother had been a student and then a teacher at the

college before she married the son of its founders. After his

grandparents died, John Srdd's parents operated the college until

a smallpox epidemic forced them to close its doors for good.

His childhood, spent within the precincts of Baptist institutions

of higher learning, was

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unhappy. The unhappiness stemmed largely from his parents' marriage. Martha Nash's obituary refers to "many heavy burdens, responsibilities and disappointments, that made a severe demand on her nervous system and physical forcedd06 Her chief burden was Alexander, a strange and unstable individual, a ne'er-do-well and a philanderer who either abandoned his wife and three children soon after the college's demise or, more likely, was thrown out. When precisely Alexander left the family for good or what happened to him after he departed is unclear, but he was in the picture long enough to earn his children's undying enmity and to instill in his youngest son a deep and ever-present hunger for respectability. "He was very concerned with appearances "his daughter Martha later said of her father; "he wanted everything to be very proper."` John Srdd's mother was a highly intelligent, resourceful woman. After she and her husband separated, Martha Nash supported herself and her two young sons and daughter on her own, working for many years as an administrator at Baylor College, another Baptist institution for girls, in Belton, in central Texas. Obituaries refer to her "fine executive ability"and

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"remarkable managerial skill." According to the Baptist Standard, "She was an unusually capable woman.... She had the capacity of managing large enterprises ... a true daughter of the true Southern gentrydd"Devout and diligent, Martha was also described as an "efficient and devoted"mother, but her constant struggle

against poverty, bad health, and low spirits, along with

A56

the shame of growing up in a fatherless household, left its scars

on John Sr. and contributed to the emotional reserve he later

displayed toward his own children.

Surrounded by unhappiness at home, John Sr. early on found solace

and certainty in the realm of science and technology. He studied

electrical engineering at Texas Agricultural and Mechanical,

graduating around 1912. He enlisted in the

army shortly after the United States entered World War I and

spent most of his wartime duty as a lieutenant in the 144th Infantry Supply Division in France. When he returned to Texas, he

did not go back to his previous job at General Electric, but

instead tried his hand at teaching engineering students at Texas

AandM.

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Given his background and interests, he may well have hoped to

pursue an academic career. If so, however, those hopes came to

nothing. At the end of the academic year, he agreed to take a

position in Bluefield with the Appalachian Power Company (now

American Electric Power), the utility that would employ him for

the next thirty-eight years. By June, he was living in rented

rooms in Bluefield.

Photographs of Margaret Virginia Martin --

known as Virginia -- at the time of her engagement to John Sr.

show a smiling, animated woman, stylish and whipperthin. One

account called her "one of the most charming and cultured young

ladies of the community."` Outgoing and energetic, Virginia was a

freer, less rigid spirit than her quiet, reserved husband and a

far more active presence in her son's life. Her vitality and

forcefulness were such that, years later, her son John, by then in his thirties and seriously ill, would dismiss a report from home that she had been hospitalized for a "nervous breakdown" as simply unbelievable. He would greet the news of her death in 1969 with similar incredulity.<sup>9</sup> Like her husband, Virginia grew up in a family

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---58

that valued church and higher education. But there the similarity ended. She was one of four surviving daughters of a popular physician, James Everett Martin, and his wife, Emma, who had moved to Bluefield from North Carolina during the early 1890's. The Martins were a well-to-do, prominent local family. Over time, they acquired a good deal of property in the town, and Dr. Martin eventually gave up his medical practice to manage his real-estate investments and to devote himself to civic affairs. Some accounts refer to him as a one-time postmaster, others as the town's mayor. The Martins' affluence did not protect them from terrible blows: their first child, a boy, died in infancy; Virginia, the second, was left entirely deaf in one ear at age twelve after a bout of scarlet fever; a younger brother was killed in a train wreck; and one of her sisters died in a typhoid epidemic -- but on the whole Virginia grew up in a happier atmosphere than her husband. The Martins were also well-educated, and they saw to it that all of their daughters received university educations. Emma Martin was herself unusual in having graduated from a women's

college in Tennessee. Virginia studied English, French,  
A58  
German, and

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---59

Latin first at Martha Washington College and later at West Virginia University. By the time she met her husband-to-be, she had been teaching for six years. She was a born teacher, a talent that she would later lavish on her gifted son. Like her husband, she had seen something beyond the small towns of her home state. Before her marriage, she and another Bluefield teacher, Elizabeth Shelton, spent several summers traveling and attending courses at various universities, including the University of California at Berkeley, Columbia University in New York, and the University of Virginia in Charlottesville.

When the newlyweds returned from their honeymoon, the couple lived at the Tazewell Street house with Virginia's mother and sisters. John Sr. went back to his job at the Appalachian, which in those years consisted largely of driving all over the state inspecting remote power lines. Virginia did not return to teaching. Like most school districts around the country during the 1920's, the Mercer County school system had a marriage bar. Female teachers lost their jobs as soon as they married." But, quite apart from

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her forced resignation, her new husband had a strong feeling that he ought to provide for this wife and protect her from what he regarded as the shame of having to work, another legacy of his own upbringing. Bluefield, named for the fields of "azure chicory" in surrounding valleys that grows along every street and alleyway even today, owes its existence to the rolling hills full

of coal com"the wildest, most rugged and romantic country to  
be  
found in the mountains of Virginia or West Virginia"-that  
surround the remote little citydd"Norfolk and Western, in a  
spirit of "mean force and ignoranceea"built a line in the  
1890's that stretched from Roanoke to Bluefield, which lies  
in  
the Appalachians on the easternmost edge of the great Pocaho  
ntas  
coal seam. For a long time, Bluefield was a rough and ready  
outpost where Jewish merchants, African-American constructio  
n  
workers, and Tazewell County farmers struggled to make a liv  
ing  
and where millionaire coal operators, most of whom lived ten  
miles away in Bramwell, battled Italian, Hungarian, and Poli  
sh  
immigrant laborers, and John L. Lewis and the UMW sat down w  
ith  
the coal operators to negotiate contracts,

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---61

negotiations that often led to the bloody strikes and lockou  
ts  
documented in John Sayles's film  
Ma te wa not.  
By the 1920's, when the Nashes married, however, Bluefield's  
character was already changing. Directly on the line between  
Chicago and Norfolk, the town was becoming an important rail  
hub  
and had attracted a prosperous white-collar class of middle  
managers, lawyers, small businessmen, ministers, and teacher  
s." A  
real downtown of granite office buildings and stores had spr  
ung  
up. Handsome churches bad also gone up all over town. Snug f  
rame  
houses with pretty little gardens edged by Rose of Sharon do  
tted

the hills. The town had acquired a daily newspaper, a

A61

hospital, and a home for the elderly. Educational institutions,

from private kindergartens and dancing schools to two small colleges, one black, one white, were thriving. The radio, telegraph, and telephone, as well as the railroads and, increasingly, the automobile, eased the sense of isolation, Bluefield was not "a community of scholars"z John Nash later

said with more than a hint of irony "Xs bustling commercialism,

Protestant

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---62

respectability, and small-town snobbery couldn't have been further removed from the atmosphere of the intellectual households

of Budapest and Cambridge which produced John von Neumann and

Norbert Wiener. Yet while John Nash was growing up, the town had

a sizable group of men with scientific interests and engineering

talent, men like John Sr. who were attracted by the railroad, the

utility, and the mining companies. Some of those who came to

work for the companies wound up as science teachers in the high

school or one of the two local colleges. In his autobiographical

essay, Nash described "having to learn from the world's knowledge

rather than the knowledge of the immediate community"z "a

challenged" I I But, in fact, Bluefield offered a good deal of

stimulation, admittedly, of a down-to-earth variety, and an

inquiring mind; John Nash's subsequent career as a multifaceted

mathematician, not to mention a certain pragmatism of character,

would seem to owe something to his Bluefield years.

More than anything, the newly married Nashes were strivers.

Solid

members of America's new, upwardly mobile professional middle

class, they formed a tight alliance and devoted themselves

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---63

to achieving financial security and a respectable place for themselves in the town's social pyramid. They became Episcopalians, like many of Bluefield's more prosperous citizens, rather than continuing in the fundamentalist churches of the youth. Unlike most of Virginia's family, they also became staunch Republicans, though (so as to be able to vote for a Democratic cousin in the primaries) not registered party members. They socialized a good deal. They joined Bluefield's new country club, which was displacing the Protestant churches as the center of Bluefield's social life. Virginia belonged to various women's book, bridge, and gardening clubs. John Sr. was a member of the Rotary and a number of engineering societies. Later on, the only middle-class practice that they deliberately avoided was sending their son to prep school. Virginia, as her daughter explained, was "a public-school thinker." John Sr.'s job with the Appalachian remained secure right through the Depression of the 1930's. The young family fared considerably better in this period than many of their neighbors and fellow churchgoers, especially the small businessmen. John Sr.'s

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---64

paycheck, while hardly munificent, was steady, and frugality did the rest. All decisions involving the expenditure of money, no matter how modest, were carefully considered; very often the

decision was to avoid, put off, or reduce. There were no

A64

mortgages to be had in those days, no pensions either, even for a rising young middle manager in one of the nation's largest utilities. Virginia Nash used to accuse her husband, when they'd had an argument-which they rarely did within earshot of the children coming of being quite likely, in the event that she died before him, to marry a younger woman and let her squander all the money she, Virginia, had scraped so hard to save. (Their savings, it turned out, were considerable, however. Even though John Sr. died some thirteen years before Virginia, and even with the high cost of hospitalizations for John Jr., Virginia barely dipped into her capital and was able to pass along a trust fund to her children.)

Though they began life as parents in a rental house owned by Emma Martin, the Nashes were soon able to move to their own modest but comfortable three-bedroom home in one of the best parts of town, Country Club Hill. Built partly of cinder blocks that John Sr. was able to buy for a song from a nearby

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Appalachian coal-processing plant, the house bore little resemblance to the imposing homes of the coal families scattered around the hill. But it was within a few hundred yards of the crest where the club was located, was built to order by a local architect, and contained all the comforts and conveniences that a small-town, middle-class family at that time could aspire to: a living room where Virginia's bridge club could be entertained in style, with a fireplace, built-in bookshelves, and graceful wooden trim at the tops of all the doorways, a neat little kitchen with a breakfast nook, a

dining room where Sunday dinners of chicken and waffles were served, a real basement that might one day be fitted out with a maid's room, should live-in help be one day possible, and a separate bedroom for each of the two children. However much they were forced to economize, the Nashes were able to keep up appearances. Virginia had nice clothes, most of which she sewed herself, and allowed herself the weekly luxury of going to a beauty parlor. By the time they moved to their own house, she had a cleaning woman who came once a week. Virginia always had a car to drive, typically a Dodge, which was hardly the norm even among

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middle-class families at the time. John Sr., of course, had a company car, usually a Buick. The Nashes were a loyal couple, like-minded. John Forbes Nash, Jr., was born almost exactly four years after his parents' marriage, on June 13, 1928. He first saw the light of day not at home, but in the Bluefield Sanitarium, a small hospital on Ramsey Street that has long since been converted to other uses, Other than that single fact, again suggestive of the Nashes' comfortable circumstances, nothing is now known of his coming into the world. Did Virginia catch influenza during her winter pregnancy? Were there any other complications? Were forceps needed during the delivery? While viral exposure in utero or a subtle birth injury might have played a role in his later

mental illness, there is no available record or memory to

A66

suggest any such trauma. No anesthesia was required during the

delivery, Virginia later told her daughter. The seven-pound baby

boy was, as far as anyone still living remembers, apparently

healthy, and was soon baptized in the Episcopal Church directly

opposite the Martin house on Tazewell

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Street and given his father's full name. Everyone, however, called him Johnny.

He was a singular little boy, solitary and introverted. The

once-dominant view of the origins of the schizoid temperament was

that abuse, neglect, or abandonment caused the child to give up

the possibility of gratification from human relationships at a

very early age." Johnny Nash certainly did not fit this now-discredited paradigm. His parents, especially his mother, were

actively loving. In general, one can imagine, on evidence from

biographies of many brilliant men who were peculiar and isolated

as children, that an inward-looking child might react to intrusive adults by withdrawing further into his own private

world or that efforts to make him conform might be met by firm

resolve to do things his own way, or perhaps that unsympathetic

taunting peers might have a similar effect. But the facts of

Nash's childhood, in many ways so typical of the educated classes

in small American towns of that era, suggest that his temperament

may well have been one that he was born with.

As the vivid memory of his grandmother's piano-playing suggests,

Johnny Nash's infancy was spent a good deal in the company not

only

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of his adoring mother, but also of his grandmother, aunts, and young cousins. The Highland Bluefield Street house to which the Nashes had moved shortly after his

birth was within walking distance of Tazewell Street and Virginia

continued to spend a great deal of time there, even after the

birth of Johnny's younger sister Martha in 1930. But by the time

Johnny was seven or eight, his aunts had come to consider him

bookish and slightly odd. While Martha and her cousins rode stick

horses, cut paper dolls out of old pattern books, and played

house and hide-and-seek in the "almost scary but nice" attic,

Johnny could always be found in the parlor with his nose buried

in a book or magazine. At home, despite his mother's urgings, he

ignored the neighborhood children, preferring to stay indoors

alone. His sister spent most of her free time at the pool or

playing football and kick ball or taking part in crabapple battles with long, flimsy sticks. But Johnny played by himself

with toy airplanes and cars.

Although he was no prodigy, Johnny was a bright and curious child. His mother, with whom he was always closest,

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---69

responded by making his education a principal focus of her considerable energy. "Mother was a natural teacher," Martha

observes. "She liked to read, she liked to teach. She wasn't just

a housewife. Virginia, who became actively involved in the PTA,

taught Johnny to read by age four, sent him to a private

A69

kindergarten, saw to it that he skipped half a grade early in

elementary school, tutored him at home and, later on, in high

school, had him enroll at Bluefield College to take courses

in English, science, and math. John Sr.'s hand in his son's education was less visible. More distant than Virginia, he nonetheless shared his interests with his children -- taking

Johnny and Martha on Sunday drives to inspect power lines, for

example -- and, more important, supplied answers to his son's

incessant questions about electricity, geology, weather, astronomy, and other technological subjects and the natural world. A neighbor remembers that John Sr. always spoke to his

children as if they were adults: "He never gave Johnny a coloring

book. He gave him science books."

At school, Johnny's immaturity and social

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---70

awkwardness were initially more apparent than any special intellectual gifts. His teachers labeled him an underachiever. He

daydreamed or talked incessantly and had trouble following directions, a source of some conflict between him and his mother.

His fourth-grade report card, in which music and mathematics were

his lowest marks, contained a note to the effect that Johnny

needed "improvement in effort, study habits and respect for the

rules." He gripped his pencil like a stick, his handwriting was

atrocious, and he was somewhat inclined to use his left hand

John Sr. insisted he write only with his right hand. Virginia

eventually made him enroll in a penmanship course at a local

secretarial college, where he learned a certain style of printing

and also how to type. A newspaper clipping from Virginia's scrapbook shows him sitting in a classroom with rows and rows of

teenage girls, his eyes rolled up in his head, looking stupefyingly bored. Complaints about his writing, his talking out of turn or even "monopolizing the class discussion," and his sloppiness dogged him right through the end of high school."

His best friends were books, and he was always happiest learning on his own. Nash alludes to his preference

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---71

obliquely in his autobiographical essay:

My parents provided an encyclopedia, Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia, that I learned a lot from by reading it as a child. And also

there were other books available from either our house or the

house of the grandparents that were of educational value.

And the best time of day was after dinner every evening when John Sr.

would sit at his desk in the small family room off the living

room, the size of a sleeping porch, and John Jr. could sprawl in

front of the radio, listening to classical music or news reports,

or reading either the encyclopedia or the family's stacks of

well-worn

Life and Time

magazines, and ask his father questions.

His great passion was experimenting. By the time he was twelve or

so, he had turned his room into a laboratory. He tinkered with

radios, fooled around with electrical gadgets, and did chemistry

experimentsdd"A neighbor recalls Johnny rigging the Nash  
A71

telephone to ring with the receiver  
offdd14

Though he had no close companions, he enjoyed performing in  
front  
of other children. At one point, he

-----  
---72

would hold on to a big magnet that was wired with electricit  
y to

show how much current he could endure without flinchingdd"An  
other

time, he'd read about an old Indian method for making onesel  
f

immune to poison ivy. He wrapped poison ivy leaves in some o  
ther

leaves and swallowed them whole in front of a couple of othe  
r

boys."

One afternoon, he went to a carnival that had come to  
Bluefieldddd17 The crowd of children he was with clustered ar  
ound

a sideshow. There was a man sitting in an electric chair hol  
ding

swords in each of his hands. Sparks flashed and danced betwe  
en

the two tips. He challenged anyone in the crowd to do the sa  
me.

Johnny Nash, then about twelve, stepped forward and grabbed  
the

swords and repeated the man's trick. "There's nothing to ite  
a"he

said as he rejoined the others. How did you do that? asked o  
ne of

the children. "Static electricityea"answered Nash before  
launching into a more detailed explanation.

Johnny's lack of interest in childish pursuits and lack of  
friends were major sources of worry for his parents. An ongo  
ing

effort to make him more "well rounded"bbcame a family

obsessionddd18 Whether his apparent resolve to march to his o  
wn

drummer was a question of his temperament or of his parents`

concerted  
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---73

efforts to change his nature, the result was his withdrawal  
into

his own private world. Martha, with whom Johnny constantly

bickered, recalls: Johnny was always different. [My parents] knew he was different. And they knew he was bright. He always wanted to do things his way. Mother insisted I do things for him, that I include him in my friendships. She wanted me to get him dates. She was right. But I wasn't too keen on showing off my somewhat odd brother. The Nashes pushed Johnny as hard socially as they did academically. At first, it was Boy Scout camp and Sunday Bible classes; later on, lessons at the Floyd Ward dancing school and membership in the John Aldens Society, a youth organization devoted to improving the manners of its members. By high school, the outgoing Martha was always being enlisted to include her older brother when she socialized with friends. And in the summer holidays, the Nashes insisted that Johnny get jobs, including one at the Blueandld Daily Telegraph. In order to get him to the paper, "they got up at the wee hours of the night" Martha said. "They thought it was very important in helping make him well rounded.

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---74

With a brain like John's, it seemed even more important. My mother and father didn't want him to be inside all the time with his hobbies and inventions .1129

Johnny did not openly rebel -- he dutifully trotted off to

A74

camp, dancing school, Bible classes, and, later on, blind dates

arranged by his sister at Virginia's urging but he did these

things mainly to please his parents, especially his mother, and

acquired neither friends nor social graces as a result. He continued to treat sports, going to church, the dances at the

country club, visits with his cousins comall the things that so

many of his peers found fascinating and enjoyable-z tedious distractions from his books and experiments. Always last to be

chosen in softball, Johnny would stand in the right outfield

, staring at the clouds above, eating bits of grass. Martha describes one occasion on which Virginia insisted he accompany

the family to an Appalachian Power Company dinner. Johnny went,

but spent the evening riding up and down in the elevator, which

mesmerized him, until it broke commuch to his parents' embarrassment. And on his summer jobs he found ways to entertain

himself. One of Nash's classmates recalled that Nash, after

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---75

disappearing for hours from his post at Bluefield Supply, was

discovered rigging an elaborate system of mousetrapsdd10 At a

dance, he pushed a stack of chairs onto the dance floor and danced with them rather than with a girl." Virginia kept scrapbooks chronicling her children's lives and accomplishments.

In one of them is a faded and yellowed essay by one Angelo Patri,

clipped from a newspaper, covered with her pen marks, underlinings, and circles compoignant hints of her hopes and

fears:

Queer little twists and quirks go into the making of an individual. To suppress them all and follow clock and calendar

and creed until the individual is lost in the neutral gray of the

host is to be less than true to our inheritance.... Life, th

at  
gorgeous quality of life, is not accomplished by following  
another man's rules. It is true we have the same hungers and  
same  
thirsts, but they are for different things and in different  
ways  
and in different seasons.... Lay down your own day, follow i  
t to  
its noon, your own noon, or you will sit in an outer  
hall listening to the chimes but never reaching high enough  
to  
strike your own.

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---76

32

The earliest hint of Johnny's mathematical talent, ironical  
ly,  
was a B-minus in fourth-grade arithmetic. The teacher told  
Virginia that Johnny couldn't do the work, but it was obviou  
s to  
his mother that he had merely found his own ways of solving  
problems. "He was always looking for different ways to do  
thingsea"his sister commenteddd31 More experiences like this

followed, especially in high school, when he often succeeded  
in  
showing, after a teacher had struggled to produce a laboriou  
s,  
lengthy proof, that the proof could be accomplished in two o  
r  
three elegant steps.

There is no sign of a mathematical pedigree in Nash's ancest  
ry or  
any indication that mathematics was much in the air at the N  
ash  
household. Virginia Nash was literary. And for all his inter  
est  
in contemporary developments in science and technology, John  
Sr.

was not well-versed in abstract mathematics. Nash does not

A76

recall ever discussing his later research with his father

Martha's recollections of dinner-table discussions were that they

revolved around the meaning of words, books the children were

reading, and current events.

The first bite of the mathematical apple probably

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---77

occurred when Nash at around age thirteen or fourteen read E. T.

Bell's extraordinary book,

Men of Mathematics—an

experience he alludes to in his autobiographical essay "Bell's

book, which was published in 1937, would have given Nash the

first glimpse of real mathematics, a heady realm of symbols and

mysteries entirely unconnected to the seemingly arbitrary and

dull rules of arithmetic and geometry taught in school or even to

the entertaining but ultimately trivial calculations that Nash

carried out in the course of chemistry and electrical experiments.

Men of Mathematics

consists of lively command, as it turns out, not entirely accurate

combiographical sketches. Its flamboyant author, a professor

of mathematics at the California Institute of Technology,

declared himself disgusted with "the ludicrous untruth of the

traditional portrait of the mathematician" as a "slovenly dreamer

totally devoid of common sense." He assured his readers that the

great mathematicians of history were an exceptionally virile and

even adventuresome breed.

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---78

He sought to prove his point with vivid accounts of infant

precocity, monstrously insensitive educational authorities,

crushing poverty, jealous rivals, love affairs, royal patronage,

and many varieties of early death, including some resulting from duels. He even went so far, in defending mathematicians, as to answer the question "How many of the great mathematicians have been perverts?" "None," was his answer. "Some lived celibate lives, usually on account of economic disabilities, but the majority were happily married.... The only mathematician discussed here whose life might offer something of interest to a Freudian is Pascal's. The book became a bestseller as soon as it appeared. What makes Bell's account not merely charming, but intellectually seductive, are his lively descriptions of mathematical problems that inspired his subjects when they were young, and his breezy assurance that there were still deep and beautiful problems that could be solved by amateurs, boys of fourteen, to be specific. It was Bell's essay on Fermat, one of the greatest mathematicians of all time but a perfectly conventional seventeenth-century French magistrate

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---79

whose life was "quiet, laborious and uneventful" caught Nash's eye. The main interest of Fermat, who shares the credit for inventing calculus with Newton and analytic geometry with Descartes, was number theory, the higher arithmetic. Number theory "investigates the mutual relationships of those common

whole numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ... which we utter almost as  
A79

soon as we learn to talk."

For Nash, proving a theorem known as Fermat's Theorem about  
prime

numbers, those mysterious integers that have no divisor besi  
des

themselves and one, produced an epiphany of sorts. Other  
mathematical geniuses, Einstein and Bertrand Russell among t  
hem,

recount similarly revelatory experiences in early adolescenc  
e.

Einstein recalled the "wonder" of his first encounter with Eu  
clid

at age twelve:

Here were assertions, as for example the intersection of thr  
ee

altitudes of a triangle at one point which -- though by no m  
eans

evident -- could nevertheless be proved with such certainty  
that

any doubt appeared to be out of the question. This lucidity  
and

certainty made an indescribable impression on meddl9

Nash does not describe his feelings when he

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---80

succeeded in devising a proof for Fermat's assertion that if

n

is any whole number and p any prime, then n multiplied by it  
self

p times minus n is divisible by pdd41 But he notes the fact  
in

his autobiographical essay, and his emphasis on this concret  
e

result of his initial encounter with Fermat suggests that th  
e

thrill of discovering and exercising his own intellectual po  
wers

-- as much as any sense of wonder inspired by hitherto  
 unsuspected patterns and meanings -- was what made this mome  
nt

such a memorable one. That thrill has been decisive for many  
a

future mathematician. Bell describes how success in solving  
a

problem posed by Fermat led Carl Friedrich Gauss, the renown  
ed

German mathematician, to choose between two careers for whic  
h he

was similarly talented. "It was this discovery ... which induced the young man to choose mathematics instead of philology as his life work

dis041

However heady it may have been to prove a theorem of Fermat's, the experience was hardly enough to plant the notion in Nash's mind that he might himself become a

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---81

mathematician. Although as a high-school student Nash took mathematics at Bluefield College, as late as his senior year, when he already had gone much further into number theory, he

still had firmly in mind following in his father's footsteps and

becoming an electrical engineer. It was only after he had entered

Carnegie Tech, with enough math to skip most entry-level courses,

that his professors would convince him mathematics, for a chosen

few, was a realistic choice as a profession.

The Japanese attack on the Pearl Harbor naval base in Hawaii, on

December 7, 1941, came halfway through Johnny's first year in

high school. A few days later,

Johnny and Mop, as he called his younger sister, got a lesson

from their father in how to shoot a .22 caliber rifle. He

drove them up to a ridge where the power lines cut a wide swath

through the scrubby, snow-dusted pine wood. Pointing toward the

town below, huddling under a sooty gray cloud, he told them, in

the soft, formal way he had of addressing his children, that the

Japanese wouldn't rest until they had reached their West

A81

Virginia hometown, remote and surrounded by mountains as it

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---82

was, because blowing up the coal trains was the only way the  
y  
could cripple the mighty American war machine.

A .22, he said, was only a squirrel gun. You couldn't even k  
ill a

deer or a bear with one. But it was easier than a heavier gu  
n for

women and children to handle. They had no choice, really. Th  
e

Japanese wouldn't be satisfied with destroying trains. They'  
d

raze the city, round up all the men, murder all the civilian  
s,

even schoolchildren like them. If you could shoot this thing  
, you

might be able to stop someone who was coming after you long  
enough to run away and hide someplace until the army rescued  
you.

Years later, when Johnny Nash saw secret signs of invaders  
everywhere and believed that he, and only he, could keep the

universe safe, he would be sick with anxiety, shaking and  
sweating and sleepless for hours and days at a time. But on  
that

bright December afternoon, he was excited and happy as he  
fingered the rifle. The war came thundering through Bluefiel  
d,

West Virginia, in the roaring, raffling shapes of freight ca  
r

after car heaped high with coal from the great Pocahontas  
coalfield in the mountains to the west -- 40 percent of all  
the

coal fueling the war machine comand troop trains crowded wit  
h

sailors and

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---83

soldiers, round-faced farm boys from Iowa and Indiana and ed  
gy

factory hands from Pittsburgh and Chicagodd41 The war shook  
and

rattled the city out of its Depression slumber, filling its  
warehouses and streets, making overnight fortunes for scrap  
speculators and wheeler-dealers of all kinds. Workers were  
suddenly in short supply and there were jobs for everybody w  
ho

wanted them. Bluefield teenagers hung around the train station watching it all, attended war bond rallies (Greer Garson showed up at one), and in school took part in tin can drives and bought war bonds with books of ten-cent stamps they bought in school. The war made a lot of Bluefield boys want to hurry and grow up lest the war be over before they were eligible to join. But Johnny didn't feel that way, his sister recalled. He did become obsessed with inventing secret codes consisting, as one former schoolmate recalled, of weird little animal and people hieroglyphics, sometimes adorned with biblical phrases: Though the Wealthy and Great Rollin splendor and State I envy them not, I declare it. Adolescence wasn't easy for an intellectually precocious boy with few social skills or

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---84

athletic interests to help him blend in with his small-town peers. The boys and girls on Country Club Hill let him tag along when they went hiking in the woods, explored caves, and hunted bats. But they found him—his speech, his behavior, the knapsack he insisted on carrying -- weird. "He was teased more than average simply because he was so far out," said Donald V. Reynolds, who lived across the street from the Nashes, said. "What he thought of as

experimenting, we thought of as crazy. We called him Big  
A84

Brainsdd046 Once some boys in the neighborhood  
tricked him into a boxing match and he took a beatingdd47 Bu  
t

because he was tall, strong, and physically courageous, the  
teasing only rarely degenerated into outright bullying. He r  
arely  
passed up a chance to prove that he was smarter, stronger,  
braver.

Boredom and simmering adolescent aggression led him to play  
pranks, occasionally ones with a nasty edge. He caricatured  
classmates he disliked with weird little cartoons. He later  
told

a fellow mathematician at MIT that, as a youngster, he had  
sometimes "enjoyed torturing

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---85

animalsSdd048

He once constructed a Tinkertoy rocking chair, wired it  
electrically, and tried to get Martha to sit in xddbled` He  
played a similar prank on a neighboring child. Nelson Walker

'  
head of Bluefield's Chamber of Commerce, told a newspaper  
reporter the following story:

I was a couple of years younger than Johnny. One day I was  
walking by his house on Country Club Hill and he was sitting  
on

the front steps. He called for me to come over and touch his

hands. I walked over to him, and when I touched his hands, I  
got

the biggest shock I'd ever gotten in my life. He had somehow

rigged up batteries and wires behind him, so that he wouldn'  
t get

shocked but when I touched his hands, I got the living fire  
shocked out of me. After that he just smiled and I went on m  
y

way." Occasionally the pranks got him into hot water. One  
incident involving a small explosion in the high school chem  
istry

lab landed him in the principal's office." Another time, he  
and

some other boys were picked up by the police for a curfew  
violation." When he was fifteen, Nash and a couple of boys f  
rom

across the street, Donald Reynolds and Herman Kirchner, bega  
n

fooling around with homemade  
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---86

explosiveSdd51 They gathered in Kirchner's basement, which they called their "laboratory," where they made pipe bombs and manufactured their own gunpowder. They constructed cannons out of pipe and shot stuff through them. Once they managed to shoot a candle through a thick wooden board. One day Nash showed up at the lab holding a beaker. "I've just made some nitroglycerine" he announced excitedly. Donald didn't believe him. He told him "to go down to Crystal Rock and throw it over the cliff to see what would happen" Nash did just that. "Luckily," said Reynolds, "it didn't work. He would have blown off the whole side of the mountain" The bombmaking came to a horrifying end one afternoon in January 1944. Herman Kirchner, who was alone at the time, was building yet another pipe bomb when it exploded in his lap, severing an artery. He bled to death in the ambulance that came for him. Donald Reynolds's parents packed him off to boarding school the following fall. For Nash, whose parents may or may not have known the extent of his involvement in the bombmaking, it was a sobering experience that brought home the dangers of his experiments.

He had grown up, essentially, without ever making a  
A86

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---87

close friend. Just as he learned to deflect his parents' criticism of his behavior with his intellectual achievements

, he learned to armor himself against rejection by adopting a hard shell of indifference and using his superior intelligence to

strike back. Julia Robinson, the first woman to become president

of the American Mathematical Society, said in her autobiography

that she believed that many mathematicians felt themselves to be

ugly ducklings as children, unlovable and out of kilter with

their more conventional, conforming peers. Johnny's apparent

sense of superiority, his standoffishness, and his occasional

cruelty were ways of coping with uncertainty and loneliness.

What

he lost by his lack of genuine interaction with children his own

age was a "lively sense, in reality, of his actual position in

the human hierarchy" that prevents other children with more social

contact from feeling either unrealistically weak or

unrealistically powerful. "If he could not believe he was

lovable, then feeling powerful was a good substitute. As long as

he could be successful, his self-esteem could remain intact.

Johnny chose the time-honored escape route from the confines of

small-town life: He performed well in

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---88

school. With Virginia's encouragement, he took courses at Bluefield College. He read voraciously, mostly futuristic fantasy

books, popular science magazines, and real science texts. "He

was just an outstanding problem solver," his high school

chemistry teacher later told the

Bluefield Daily Telegraph.

"When I put a chemistry problem up on the blackboard, all th

e  
students would get out a pencil and a piece of paper. John  
wouldn't move. He would stare at the formula on the board, t  
hen  
stand up politely and tell us the answer. He could do it all  
in  
his head. He never even took out a pencil or a piece of pape  
r." "

This youthful Gedanken experimentation actually helped shape  
the  
way he approached mathematical problems later on. His peers  
became more respectful. At a time when the war was making he  
roes  
out of scientists, Johnny's classmates assumed he was slated  
to  
become onedd58

In high school, Nash became friendly -- though not close fri  
ends  
-- with a couple of fellow students, John Williams and John  
Louthan, both sons of Bluefield College professors. The

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---89

three rode a public bus to school together and Johnny helped  
Williams with Latin translations. Williams recalled, "We wer  
e  
attracted to him. He was an interesting guy. That was sort o  
f it.  
I don't think we ever went over to John's house. It was pret  
ty  
much of a school thingdd059 The three also constantly maneuv  
ered  
to get out of their classes as much as possible. Before the  
widespread use of the SAT's, college recruiters routinely ca  
me to  
the high school and would invite students to take their  
admissions tests. "We spent many mornings taking those  
testsea"Williams said.  
At the beginning of the year, at Johnny's instigation, they

made a

A89

bet -- no one remembers for how much -- that they could make the

honor roll without ever cracking a book. All three thought they

were pretty smart but at the same time were contemptuous of grinds and teachers' pets. "We kind of got drug into it by Nashea" Williams said. Nash, who was already taking a full load of

courses at

Bluefield

39

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---90

Bluefield College, never made the honor society, missing it by a

few tenths of a percent, The other two did, though by a hair

.  
John Sr. suggested that Johnny apply to West Point, a suggestion

that, once again, may have reflected the father's anxiety that

his son was not growing up wellrounded as much as it did the

prospect of free college tuition. But as Martha said, "Even I

could see that wouldn't have workedddd060 Whatever fantasies he

may have had about becoming a scientist, when asked to describe

his career aspirations in an essay, Johnny wrote that he hoped to

become an engineer like his fatherddd61 He and John Sr. wrote an

article together describing an improved method for calculating

the proper tensions for electric cables and wires coma project

that entailed weeks of field measurements comand published the

results jointly in an engineering journal

.61

Johnny entered the George Westinghouse competition and won a full

scholarship, one of ten that were awarded nationallyddd61 The fact

that Lloyd Shapley, a son of the famous Harvard astronomer Harlow

Shapley, also won a Westinghouse that year made the

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---91

achievement all the sweeter in the eyes of the Nash family. Johnny was accepted at the Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Because of the war all colleges were on accelerated schedules and

operated year-round so that students could graduate in three

years. Johnny left Bluefield for Pittsburgh, taking a train from

nearby Hinton, in mid-June, a few weeks before the VE Day parade

celebrating Hitler's defeat.

2 Carnegie Institute of Technology

June 1945-June 1948

In

those days very few people became mathematicians. It was like

becoming a conceitpiamust, -- R4ouL B67T, 1995

I LASH WENT TOP-ITTSBURGH

to become a chemical engineer, but his growing interest was in

mathematics. It was not long before he abandoned the laboratory

and slide rule for Mbbius knots and

Diophantine equations.`

With

its smelters, power plants, polluted rivers, and ubiquitous slag

heaps, Pittsburgh was a city of violent strikes and frequent

floods.` So

dense was the sulfurous haze that engulfed its downtown that  
92

travelers arriving by rail often mistook morning for midnigh  
t.

The Carnegie Institute of Technology, perched halfway up Squ  
irrel

Hill, hardly escaped the inferno. The ivory-colored brick of  
its

buildings --

designed, or so students said, to serve as factories should  
Andrew Carnegie's school fail comwere glazed yellow black. I

ts

walkways were gritty with soot particles the size of pebbles  
. Its

students were forced, before a lecture was half over, to bru  
sh

the cinders from their lecture notes. Even at high noon in  
midsummer, one could stare directly at the sun without blink  
ing.

In that era, Carnegie was shunned by the local ruling elite,

which sent its children east to Harvard and Princeton. Richa  
rd

Cyert, who joined the Carnegie faculty after the war and wou  
ld

later become its president, recalled, "When I  
came

this place was really very backward."` The engineering schoo  
l,

with its two thousand or so students, still resembled the tr  
ade

school for sons and daughters of electricians and bricklayer  
s

that it had been at the turn of the century.

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---93

But like so many other colleges right after the war, Carnegi  
e was

changing. Robert Doherty, its president, had seized the  
opportunities created by wartime research to turn the engine  
ering

school into a real university. He parlayed defense contracts  
and

the prospect of ballooning enrollments into a big push to re  
cruit

brilliant young researchers in math, physics, and economics.

"The  
theoretical Carnegie Institute of Technology

41

sciences were being pushed very hardea"recalled Richard Duff  
in, a

mathematician. "Doherty was trying to take CT into the big  
Corporate giants like Westinghouse, whose headquarters were  
in Pittsburgh, supplied generous scholarships to lure talented  
young people to Carnegie. Among the scholarship recipients who entered  
Carnegie in 1945 were talented youngsters like Andy Warhol, the  
artist, as well as a group of young men who would eventually  
like Nash, shun engineering for science and mathematics. Nash  
arrived by train in June 1945; gasoline rationing made car  
travel impractical. Carnegie Tech was still operating in  
wartime mode: classes went year-round, most campus

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---94

activities remained canceled, and most of the fraternity houses  
were still shut. Within a year the campus would be inundated  
with veterans and classes would be jammed with these older students.  
But that June, two months before the war finally ended, it was  
mostly freshmen and sophomores who were on campus. The  
scholarship students were housed together in Welch Hall and  
took most of their classes together -- small ones taught by  
hand-picked instructors, some of whom were first-rate. Nash  
took his first physics course from Immanuel Estermann, for example,  
a top-flight physicist who had done much of the experimental work  
that had netted Otto Stern, a German émigré, the 1943 Nobel  
Prize for physics.

Nash's engineering aspirations did not survive his first

A94

semester, killed off by an unhappy experience in mechanical drawing: "I reacted negatively to the regimentation" he later

wrote. But chemistry, his newly chosen major, proved no better

suited to his temperament or interests. He worked briefly as a

lab assistant for one of his teachers but got into trouble for

breaking equipment. He was so bored at his summer job at the

Westinghouse Lab that he spent most of his two

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---95

months there making and polishing a brass egg in the lab's machine shop. The final blow was a C in physical chemistry,

which he got after a running dispute with the professor over the

lack of rigor of the mathematics in the course. David Lide

recalled, "He refused to do the problems the way the professor

expected." Of chemistry in general Nash would complain: "It was

not a matter of how well one could think ... but of how well one

could handle a pipette and perform titration in the laboratory."

Even as he struggled in the laboratory, Nash was already discovering a brilliant group of newcomers to Carnegie. By his

sophomore year, Doherty's program of upgrading the theoretical

sciences had brought to Carnegie John Synge, nephew of the Irish

playwright John Millington Synge, who became head of the mathematics department. Despite his startling appearance, Synge

wore a black patch over one eye and a filter that protruded from

one of his nostrils. He was a man of great charm who attracted

younger scholars like Richard Duffin, Raoul Bott, and Alexander

Weinstein, a European émigré whom Einstein had once invited to

become a

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collaborator." When Albert Tucker, a Princeton topologist who did pathbreaking work in operations research, came to Carnegie to lecture that year, he was so impressed with the depth of mathematical talent at Carnegie that he confessed that he felt as if he were "bringing coals to Newcastle."

14

From the start, Nash dazzled his mathematics professors; one of them called him "a young Gauss." He took courses in tensor calculus, the mathematical tool used by Einstein to formulate the general theory of relativity, and relativity from Syng

16

Syng was impressed with Nash's originality and his appetite for difficult problems. He and others began urging Nash to major in mathematics and to consider an academic career. Nash's doubts that one could make a living as a mathematician took some time to overcome. But by the middle of his second year he was concentrating almost exclusively on mathematics. The Westinghouse scholarship administrators were unhappy with Nash's switch to mathematics, but by the time they learned of it, it was a

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---97

fait accompli

College is a time when many ugly ducklings discover that they are swans, not just intellectually but socially. Most of the boys in Welch Hall are precocious but immature, compound common interests, kindred spirits, and a measure of acceptance painfully lacking in

high school. Hans Weinberger recalled, "We were all nerds

A97

back in our high schools and here we were able to talk to one

another. Nash was not so lucky. While his professors singled

him out as a potential star, his new peers found him weird and

socially inept. "He was a country boy, unsophisticated even by

our standards," recalled Robert Siegel, a physics major, who

remembered that Nash had never attended a symphony performance

before. "He behaved oddly, playing a single chord on the piano

over and over," leaving an ice cream cone melting on top of his

castoff clothing in the lounge, walking on his roommate's sleeping body to turn off a light, pouting when he lost a game

of bridge .14

Nash was rarely invited to go to concerts or restaurants with the

group. Paul Zweifel, an avid bridge player, taught Nash how to

play

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---98

bridge, but Nash's pouting and inattention to the details of the

game made him a poor partner. "He wanted to talk about the theoretical aspects." Nash roomed with Weinberger for a term, but

the two clashed constantly -- Nash once pushed Weinberger around

to end an argument

16

and Nash moved into a private room at the end of the hall. "He

was extremely lonely," recalled Siegel

.17

Later in life, as his accomplishments multiplied, his peers would

be more apt to be forgiving. But at Carnegie, where he was thrust

together with other adolescents around the clock, he became a

target. He was not so much bullied as the other boys were afraid

of his strength and temperament. He was ostracized and relentlessly teased

sed.

That he was envied for his size and his brains only fueled t  
he  
teasing. "He was the butt of people's jokes because he was  
differentea"recalled George Hinman, a physics studentdd28 "H  
ere  
was a guy who was socially underdeveloped and acting much  
younger. You do what you can to make his life miserable` "Zw  
eifel  
admitted. "We tormented poor John. We were very unkind. We w  
ere  
obnoxious.

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We sensed he had a mental problem."

29

Carnegie Institute of Technology

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That first summer, Nash, Paul Zweifel, and a third boy spent  
an  
afternoon exploring the subterranean maze of steam tunnels u  
nder  
Carnegie. In the dark, Nash suddenly turned to the others an  
d  
blurted out, "Gee, if we got trapped down here we'd have to  
turn  
homodd"Zweifel, who was fifteen, found the remark pretty odd  
. But  
during Thanksgiving break, in the deserted dormitory, Nash  
climbed into Zweifel's bed when the latter was sleeping and  
made  
a pass at hmdd10  
Away from home, living in close proximity with other adolesc  
ents,  
Nash discovered that he was attracted to other boys. He spok  
e and  
acted in ways that seemed natural to him only to find himsel  
f  
exposed to his peers' contempt. Zweifel and other boys in th  
e

dormitory started calling Nash "Homo" and "Nash-Mo." "Once  
A99

the statement was made" George Siegel said, "it stuck. John took a  
lot." " No doubt, he found the label hurtful and humiliating,  
but  
his anger is all that anyone witnessed.

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--100

The boys made him the butt of various pranks. One time,  
Weinberger and a couple of others used a footlocker as a  
battering ram to break down Nash's door" Another time, Zweifel  
and a few others, knowing of Nash's extreme aversion to cigarette  
smoke, rigged up a contraption that smoked an entire pack of

cigarettes and collected the smoke. "A bunch of us crowded a  
round

John's door and blew the smoke under it" Zweifel recalled.  
"Almost instantaneously, his room filled up with cigarette  
smoke" Nash exploded in rage. "He came roaring out of his  
room, picked up Jack [Wachtman], and threw him down on the bed

"said Zweifel. "He ripped off Wachtman's shirt and bit him  
in  
the back. Then he ran out of the room."

At other times, Nash defended himself the only way he knew how.

He wasn't practiced in invective, sarcasm, or ridicule, so he

went for childish displays of contempt. "'You stupid fool; he'd

said" Siegel recalled. "He was openly contemptuous of people  
who

he didn't think were up to his level intellectually. He showed

that contempt for all of us: 'You're an ignoramus!' was After  
a

year or so, after he had acquired a

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--101

reputation for being a genius, he began to hold court in Ski  
bo

Hall, the student center" Like the fairground magician with  
th

his swords, he would sit in a chair and challenge other students

to throw problems at him to solve. A lot of students came to  
him

with their homework. He was a star comb an outcast too. Nash stared glumly at the announcement tacked to the bulletin board outside the math department office in Administration Hall, which looked, even on the sunniest of days, like the inside of the Lincoln Tunnel. He stood in front of the board for a long time. He hadn't made it into the top five

.16  
Nash's fantasy of instant glory crumbled. The William Lowell

Putnam Mathematical Competition was a prestigious national tournament for undergraduates, sponsored by an old-money Boston family known mostly for its Harvard presidents and deans. Today the contest attracts upward of two thousand participants. In March 1947, it was a decade old and drew about 120. But even then, it was the first chance to establish one's rank in the world of mathematics as well as to seize the limelight.

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Then, as now, contestants were given a dozen problems and half an hour each to solve them. The problems were famously difficult. In any given year, the median score out of 120 possible points was zero. That meant that at least half the contestants weren't able to obtain so much as partial credit for even a single problem, and this in spite of the fact that most contestants had been chosen by their departments to compete. To have a prayer of winning-placing in the top five coma young mathematician had to be super-fast or especially ingenious. The prizes involved a

nominal amount of money, twenty to forty dollars for each  
A102  
of the top ten contestants, and two hundred to four hundred  
dollars for each of the top five school teams, but winners be-  
came  
instant mini-celebrities in the mathematics world and were  
virtually assured a spot in a top graduate program. Differen-  
t  
graduate programs pay more or less attention to the Putnam,  
but  
at Harvard it is, and always has been, a very, very big deal  
. That year Harvard pledged a fifteenhundred-dollar scholarshi-  
p to  
one of the winners.  
Nash had competed as a freshman and a sophomore. On his seco-  
nd  
try, he'd managed to get into the top ten, but not the top f-  
ive.  
He'd been cocky

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--103

this time, too. In 1946 a mathematician named Moskowitz tuto-  
red  
the Carnegie Tech team using problems from past exams. Nash  
was  
able to solve problems that Moskowitz and the others could n-  
ot  
solve. It was a tremendous blow to Nash that George Hinman r-  
anked  
in the top ten in the 1946 competition and Nash didn't."  
Another nineteen-year-old might have shrugged off the  
disappointment, especially a boy who had been plucked out of  
a  
chemical engineering program, welcomed with open arms by the  
school's mathematicians, and told that he had a brilliant fu-  
ture  
in mathematics. But for a teenager who had endured a lifetim-  
e of  
rejection by peers, the warm praise of such professors as Ri-  
chard  
Duffin and J. L. Synge was too little, too late. Nash craved  
a  
more universal form of recognition, recognition based on wha-  
t he  
regarded as an objective standard, uncolored by emotion or  
personal ties. "He always wanted to know where he stood"sa-  
id  
Harold Kuhn recently. "It was always important to be in the  
club"019 Decades later, after he had acquired a worldwide

reputation in pure mathematics and had won a Nobel Prize in economics, Nash hinted in his Nobel

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autobiography that the Putnam still rankled and implied that the

failure played a pivotal role in his graduate career<sup>40</sup> Today,

Nash still tends to identify mathematicians by saying, "Oh, So

and So, he won the Putnam three times."

In the fall of 1947, Richard Duffin stood at the board silent and

frowning<sup>41</sup> He was intimately familiar with Hilbert spaces, but

he had prepared his lecture too hastily, had wandered down a cul

de sac in the course of his proof, and was hopelessly stuck. It

happened all the time.

The five students in the advanced graduate class were getting

restive. Wein-

Camegic Institute of Technology

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berger, who was Austrian by birth, was often able to explain the

fine points of von Neumann's book

Mathematische Grundlagen der Quantenmechanik, which

Duffin was using as a text. But Weinberger was frowning too.

After a few moments, everybody turned toward the gawky undergraduate who was squirming in his seat. "Okay, John, you go

to the

board" said Duffin. "See if you can get me out of

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troubled" Nash leaped up and strode to the board

"He was infinitely more sophisticated than the rest of us" said

Bott. "He understood the difficult points naturally. When Duffin

got stuck, Nash could back him up. The rest of us didn't understand the techniques you needed in this new medium

"He always had good examples and counterexamples" another student recalled.-

Afterward, Nash hung around. "I could talk to Nash" Duffin recalled shortly before his death in 1995. "After class one day

he started talking about Brouwer's fixed point theorem. He proved

it indirectly using the principle of contradiction. That's when

you show that if something's not there, something dreadful will

happen. Don't know if Nash had ever heard of Brouwer

Nash took Duffin's course in his third and final year at Carnegie. At nineteen, Nash already had the style of a mature

mathematician. Duffin recalled, "He tried to reduce things to

something tangible. He tried to relate things to what he knew

about. He tried to get a feel for things before he actually tried

them. He tried to do little problems

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with some numbers in them. That's how Ramanujan, who claimed he

got his results from spirits, figured things out, Poincaré said

he thought of a great theorem getting off a bus

Nash liked very general problems. He wasn't all that good at

solving cute little puzzles. "He was a much more dreamy

person" said Bott. "He'd think a long time. Sometimes you could

see him thinking. Others would be sitting there with their nose

in a book" Weinberger recalled that "Nash knew a lot more

than anybody else there. He was working on things we couldn't

t  
understand. He had a tremendous body of knowledge. He knew number  
theory like  
madd041

"Diophantine equations were his loveea"recalled Siegel. "None of  
us knew anything about them, but he was working on them then  
dd049

It is obvious from these anecdotes that many of Nash's lifelong  
interests as a mathematician-  
number theory, Diophantine equations, quantum mechanics,  
relativity- already fascinated him in his late teens. Memories

differ on whether Nash learned about the theory of games at  
Carnegie. 10 Nash himself does not recall. He did, however,

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take a course in international trade, his one and only formal  
course in economics, before graduatingdd"X was in this course

that Nash first began to mull over one of the basic insights  
that  
eventually led to his Nobel Prize."

By the spring of 1948- in what would have been his junior year at

Carnegie Nash had been accepted by Harvard, Princeton, Chicago,

and Michigan"the

four top graduate mathematics programs in the country. Getting

into one of these was virtually a prerequisite for eventually

landing a good academic appointment. Harvard was his first  
choicedd14 Nash told everyone that he believed that Har-

vard had the best mathematics faculty. Harvard's cachet

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and social status appealed to him. As a university, Harvard had a

national reputation, while Chicago and Princeton, with its largely European faculty, did not. Harvard was, to his mind,

simply number one, and the prospect of becoming a Harvard man

seemed terribly attractive.

The trouble was that Harvard was offering slightly less money

than Princeton. Certain that Harvard's comparative stinginess was

the consequence of his

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less-than-stellar performance in the Putnam competition, Nash

decided that Harvard didn't really want him. He responded to the

rebuff by refusing to go there. Fifty years later, in his Nobel

autobiography Harvard's lukewarm attitude toward him seems still

to have stung: "I had been offered fellowships to enter as a

graduate student at either Harvard or Princeton. But the Princeton fellowship was somewhat more generous since I had not.

actually won the Putnam competition." Princeton was eager.

From

the 1930's onward, Princeton had a far stronger department and

was snaring the lion's share of the best graduate students. 16

Princeton was, as a matter of fact, more selective than Harvard

at that point, admitting ten handpicked candidates each year, as

opposed to Harvard's twenty-five or so. The Princeton faculty

didn't care a hoot about the Putnam, or about tests of any kind,

or grades. They paid attention exclusively to the opinions of

mathematicians whose views they respected. And once Princeton

decided it wanted someone, it pursued him with vigor.

Duffin and Synge were pushing Princeton hard. Princeton was full

of purists and topologists,

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algebraists, number theorists—and Duffin especially regarded Nash

as someone obviously suited, by interest and temperament, for a

career in the most abstract mathematics. "I thought he would be a

completely pure mathematician." Duffin recalled. "Princeton was

first in topology. That's why I wanted to send him to Princeton."

17 The only thing Nash really knew about Princeton was that Albert Einstein and John von Neumann were there, along with a

bunch of other European émigrés. But the polyglot Princeton

mathematical milieu—foreign, Jewish, left-leaning—seemed

to him a distinctly inferior alternative.

Sensing Nash's hesitation, Solomon Lefschetz, the chairman of the

Princeton department, had already written to him urging him to

choose Princeton." He finally dangled a John S. Kennedy

Fellowship. 19 The one-year fellowship was the most prestigious

the department had to offer, requiring little or no teaching and

guaranteeing a room in Princeton's residential college for graduate students. It was a sign of how much Princeton was panting for Nash. The \$1,150 fellowship covered the \$450 tuition

and was more than

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ample for the \$200 room rent for a year and \$14 a week in dining

fees, as well as living expenses. 20

For Nash, that clinched the decision. 21 The difference in the

awards could not

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have been huge in any practical sense. But, then, as so many

times later in Nash's life, a relatively trivial amount of money

loomed in his decision. It seems clear that Nash calculated Princeton's more generous fellowship as a measure of how Princeton valued him. A personal appeal from Lefschetz, with a

flattering reference to his relative youth, also proved decisive.

Lefschetz's phrase "We like to catch promising men when they are

young and open-minded" struck a chord.

Something else weighed on Nash's mind that last spring at Carnegie. As graduation drew closer, he became more and more

worried about being drafted. He thought that the United States

might go to war again and was afraid that he might wind up in the

infantry. That the army was still shrinking three years after the end of World War II

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and that the draft had, for all intents and purposes, ground to a

standstill, did not make Nash feel safe. The newspapers -- of

which he was a regular reader were full of signs, in particular

the Russian blockade of Berlin and the subsequent American-British airlift that spring, that the Cold War was heating up. He hated any thought that his personal future might

be hostage to forces outside his control and he was obsessed with

ways to defend himself against any possible threats to his own

autonomy or plans.

So Nash was palpably relieved when Lefschetz offered to help him

obtain a summer job with a Navy research project. The project in

White Oak, Maryland, was being run by Clifford Ambrose Truesdell,

a former student of Lefschetz. Nash wrote to Lefschetz at the

beginning of April:

Should there come a war involving the US I think I should be more useful, and better off, working on some research project than going, say into the infantry. Working on government sponsored research this summer would pave the way toward the more desirable eventualitydd61  
Though Nash did not display outward signs of

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distress, the disappointments and anxieties of the spring cast a shadow over the summer between his graduation from Carnegie and his arrival at Princeton.

White Oak is a suburb of Washington, D.C. In the summer of 1948, it was a swampy, humid woodland full of raccoons, opossums, and snakes. The mathematicians at White Oak were a hodgepodge of

Americans, some of whom had been working for the Navy since the middle of the war, and others, German prisoners of war. Nash

found himself a room in downtown Washington, which he rented from a Washington, D.C., police officer. He rode to White Oak in a car pool every day with two of the Germans

.66

Nash had been looking forward to the summer. Lefschetz had promised that the work would be pure mathematics." Truesdell

, quite a good mathematician, was a tolerant supervisor who encouraged the mathematicians in his group to pursue their own

research. He essentially gave Nash carte blanche, issuing  
A112  
no instructions and merely saying that he hoped Nash would w  
rite  
something before  
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--113

A BEAUTIFUL MIND

he left at the end of the summer. But Nash seemed to have tr  
ouble  
working. He made no apparent progress on any of the problems  
he  
had mentioned vaguely to Truesdell at the start of the summe  
r,  
and he never handed in a paper. At the end of the summer, he  
was  
forced to apologize to Truesdell for having wasted his timed  
d68

Nash spent most of his days, evidently, simply walking aroun  
d  
rather aimlessly, lost in thought. Charlotte Truesdell,  
Truesdell's wife and the project's girl Friday, recalls that  
Nash  
seemed terribly young, "like a sixteen-year-old" and almost  
never  
spoke to anyone. Once when she asked him what he was thinkin  
g,  
Nash asked whether she, Charlotte, didn't think it would be  
a  
good joke if he put live snakes in the chairs of some of the  
mathematicians. "He didn't do itea" she said, "but he thought

about it a lot d069  
Princeton, Fall 1948

. . .  
a quaint ceremonious village.  
comALBERT Eiationsmm

. . .  
the mathematical center of the universe. comHARALD

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BoHR

J\_ IASH ARRIVED

in Princeton, New Jersey, on Labor Day 1948, the opening day  
of  
Truman's re-election campaign. He was twenty years old. He  
came  
by train, directly from Bluefield, via Washington, D.C., and

Philadelphia, wearing a new suit and carrying unwieldy suitcases stuffed with bedding and clothes, letters and notes, and a few books. Impatient and eager now, he got off at Princeton Junction, a nondescript little middle-class enclave a few miles from Princeton proper, and hurried onto the Dinky, the small single-track train that shuffles back and forth to the university. What he saw was a genteel, prerevolutionary village surrounded by gently rolling woodlands, lazy streams, and a patchwork of cornfields. Settled by Quakers toward the end of the seventeenth century, Princeton was the site of a famous Washington victory over the British and, for a brief six-month interlude in 1783, the de facto capital of the new republic. With its college-Gothic buildings nestled among lordly trees, stone churches, and dignified old houses,

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the town looked every inch the wealthy, manicured exurb of New York and Philadelphia that, in fact, it was. Nassau Street, the town's sleepy main drag, featured a row of "better"men's clothing shops, a couple of taverns, a drugstore, and a bank. It had been paved before the war, but bicycles and pedestrians still accounted for most of the traffic. In

This Side of Paradise,

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F. Scott Fitzgerald had described Princeton circa World War I as

"the pleasantest country club in America."` Einstein called it "a

quaint, ceremonious village" in the 1930s

Depression and wars had scarcely changed the place, May Veblen,

the wife of a wealthy Princeton mathematician, Oswald Veblen

could still identify by name every single family, white and black, well-to-do and of modest means, in every single house in

town.` Newcomers invariably felt intimidated by its gentility.

One mathematician from the West recalled, "I always felt like my

fly was open

Even the university's mathematics building conjured

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up images of exclusivity and wealth. "Fine Hall is, I believe,

the most luxurious building ever devoted to mathematics", on a

European émigré wrote in 1957

It was a gabled, NeoGothic red brick and slate fortress, built in

a style reminiscent of the Collège de France in Paris and Oxford

University. Its cornerstone contains a lead box with copies of

works by Princeton mathematicians and the tools of the trade: two

pencils, one piece of chalk, and, of course, an eraser. Designed

by Oswald Veblen, a nephew of the great sociologist Thorstein

Veblen, it was meant to be a sanctuary that mathematicians would

be "loath to leave.", The dim stone corridors that circled the

structure were perfect for both solitary pacing and mathematical

socializing. The nine "studies"-not offices!-for senior

professors had carved paneling, hidden file cabinets, blackboards

that opened like altars, oriental carpets, and massive,

overstuffed furniture. In a gesture to the urgency of the race

pidly

advancing mathematical enterprise each office was equipped with a telephone and each lavatory with a reading light. Its well-stocked

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third-floor library, the richest collection of mathematical journals and books in the world, was open twenty-four hours a

day. Mathematicians with a fondness for tennis (the courts were nearby) didn't have to go home before returning to their offices

comthere was a locker room with showers. When its doors opened in

1921, an undergraduate poet called it "a country club for math,

where you could take a bath."

Princeton in 1948 was to mathematicians what Paris once was to

painters and novelists, Vienna to psychoanalysts and architects,

and ancient Athens to philosophers and playwrights. Harald Bohr,

brother of Niels Bohr, the physicist, had declared it "the mathematical center of the universe" in 1936.<sup>9</sup> When the deans of

mathematics held their first worldwide meeting after World War

II, it was in Princeton. Fine Hall housed the world's most competitive, up-to-the-minute mathematics department. Next door

-- connected, in fact --

was the nation's leading physics department, whose members, including Eugene Wigner, had driven off to Illinois, California,

and New Mexico during the war, lugging bits of laboratory equipment, to help build the atomic bomb. "A

mile or so away, on what had been Olden Farm, was the

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Institute for Advanced Study, the modern equivalent of Plato's

Academy, where Einstein, Gödel, Oppenheimer, and von Neumann

scribbled on their blackboards and held their learned discourses." Visitors and students from the four corners of the

world streamed to this polyglot mathematical oasis, fifty miles

south of New York. What was proposed in a Princeton seminar one

week was sure to be debated in Paris and Berkeley the week after,

and in Moscow and Tokyo the week after that.

"It is difficult to learn anything about America in

Princeton" wrote Einstein's assistant Leopold Infeld in his

memoirs, "much more so than to learn about England in Cambridge.

In Fine Hall English is spoken with so many different accents

that the resultant mixture is termed Fine Hall English.... The

air is full of mathematical ideas and formulae. You have only to

stretch out your hand, close it quickly and you feel that you

have caught mathematical air and that a few

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formulae are stuck to your palm. If one wants

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to see a famous mathematician one does not need to go to him ; it

is enough to sit quietly in Princeton, and sooner or later he

must come to Fine Hall."

Princeton's unique position in the world of mathematics had been

achieved practically overnight, barely a dozen years earlier . 14

The university predated the Republic by a good twenty years.

It

started out as the College of New Jersey in 1746, founded by

Presbyterians. It didn't become Princeton until 1896 and wasn't

headed by a layman until 1903 when Woodrow Wilson became its

president. Even then, however, Princeton was a university in

name  
only -- "a poor place" an overgrown prep school; particularly  
when it came to the sciences." In this regard, Princeton merely  
resembled the rest of the nation, which "admired Yankee ingenuity  
but saw little use for pure mathematics" as one historian put  
it. Whereas Europe had three dozen chaired professors who did  
little except create new mathematics, America had none. Young  
Americans had to travel to Europe to get training beyond the  
B.A.  
The typical American mathematician taught fifteen to twenty  
hours  
a

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week of what amounted to high school mathematics to  
undergraduates, struggling along on a negligible salary and  
with  
very little incentive or opportunity to do research. Forced  
to  
drill conic sections into the heads of bored undergraduates,  
the  
Princeton professor of mathematics was perhaps not as well off as  
his forebears of the seventeenth century who practiced law  
(Fermat), ministered to royalty (Descartes), or occupied  
professorships with negligible teaching duties (Newton). When  
Solomon Lefschetz arrived at Princeton in 1924, "There were  
only  
seven men there engaged in mathematical research" Lefschetz  
recalled. "In the beginning we had no quarters. Everyone worked  
at home" Princeton's physicists were in the same boat, still  
living in the age of Thomas Edison and Alexander Graham Bell  
,  
preoccupied with measuring electricity and supervising endless

freshman lab sections." Henry Norris Russell, a

A120

distinguished astronomer by the 1920's, fell afoul of the Princeton administration for spending too much time on his own

research at the expense of undergraduate teaching. In its disdain

for scientific research, Princeton was not very different from

Yale or

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Harvard. Yale refused for seven years to pay a salary to the physicist Willard Gibbs, already famous in Europe, on the grounds

that his studies were "irrelevant" and

While mathematics and physics at Princeton and other American

universities were languishing, a revolution in mathematics and

physics was taking place three thousand miles away in such intellectual centers as Göttingen, Berlin, Budapest, Vienna,

Paris, and Rome.

John D. Davies, a historian of science, writes of a dramatic revolution in the understanding of the very nature of matter:

The absolute world of classical Newtonian physics was breaking

down and intellectual ferment was everywhere. Then in 1905 a

unknown theoretician in the Berne patent office, Albert Einstein,

published four epoch-making

papers comparable to Newton's instant leap into fame. The most

significant was the so-called Special Theory of Relativity, which

proposed that mass was simply congealed energy, energy liberated

matter: space and time, previously thought to be absolute, were

dependent on relative motion. Ten years later he formulated the

General Theory of

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Relativity, proposing that gravity was a function of matter itself and affected light exactly as it affected material

particles. Light, in other words, did not go "straight"; Newton's laws were not the real universe but one seen through the unreal spectacles of gravity. Furthermore, he set forth a set of mathematical laws with which the universe could be described structural laws and laws of motion

At around the same time, at the University of Göttingen, a German mathematical genius, David Hilbert, had unleashed a revolution in mathematics. Hilbert set out a famous program in 1900 of which the goal was nothing less than the axiomatization of all of mathematics so that it could be mechanized and solved in a routine manner. Göttingen became the center of a drive to put existing mathematics on a more secure foundation: "The Hilbert program emerged at the turn of the century as a response to a perceived crisis in mathematics" writes historian Robert Leonard. "The effect was to drive mathematicians to clean up Cantorian set theory, to establish it on a firm axiomatic basis, on the foundation of a limited number of

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postulates.... This marked an important shift in emphasis towards abstraction in mathematics. Mathematics moved further and further away from "intuitive content -- in this case, our daily world of surfaces and straight lines--towards a situation in which mathematical terms were leached of their direct empirical content and simply defined axiomatically within the context of the

theory. The era of formalism had arrived."

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The work of Hilbert and his disciples comamong them such fut  
ure

Princeton stars of the 1930's and 1940's as Hermann Weyl and  
John

von Neumann-also triggered a powerful impulse to apply  
mathematics to problems hitherto considered unamenable to hi  
ghly

formal treatment. Hilbert and others were quite successful i  
n

extending the axiomatic approach to a range of topics, the m  
ost

obvious being physics, in particular the "new physics"of "qu  
antum

mechanicsea"b also to logic and the new theory of games.

But for the first twenty-five years of the century, as Davie  
s

writes, Princeton, and indeed the whole American academic  
community, "stood outside this dramatically swift

development.0"The catalyst for Princeton's transformation in  
to a

world capital of

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--124

mathematics and theoretical physics was an accident coman  
accident of friendship. Woodrow Wilson, like most other educ  
ated

Americans of his time, despised mathematics, complaining tha  
t

"the natural man inevitably rebels against mathematics, a mi  
ld

form of torture that could only be learned by painful proces  
ses

of drill."" And mathematics played no role whatever in his v  
ision

of Princeton as a real university with a graduate college an  
d a

system of instruction that emphasized seminars and discussio  
ns

instead of drills and rote learning. But Wilson's best frien  
d,

Henry Burchard Fine, happened to be a mathematician. When Wi  
lson

set  
about hiring literature and history scholars as preceptors,  
Fine

asked him, "Why not a few scientists""Z a gesture of friends  
hip

more than anything else, Wilson said yes. After Wilson left  
the

presidency of Princeton for the White House in 1912, Fine became dean of science and proceeded to recruit some top-notch scientists, among them mathematicians G. D. Birkhoff, Oswald Veblen, and Luthor Eisenhart, to teach graduate students. They were known around Princeton as

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--125

"Fine's research mentored" The undergraduates, not a single one of whom majored in physics or math, complained bitterly of "brilliant but unintelligible lecturers with foreign accents" and "the European, or demi-God, theory of instruction." Fine's nucleus of researchers might well have scattered after the dean's premature death in 1928 in a cycling accident on Nassau Street had it not been for several dramatic instances of private philanthropy that turned Princeton into a magnet for the world's biggest mathematical stars. Most people think that America's rise to scientific prominence was a by-product of World War II. But in fact the fortunes accumulated between the gilded eighties and the roaring twenties paved the way. The Rockefellers made their millions in coal, oil, steel, railroads, and banking - in other words, from the great sweep of industrialization that transformed towns like Bluefield and Pittsburgh in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. When the family and its representatives started to give away some of the money, they were animated by dissatisfaction with the state of higher education in

America and a firm belief that

A125

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"nations that do not cultivate the sciences cannot hold their

own." Aware of the scientific revolution sweeping Europe, the

Rockefeller Foundation and its offshoots started by sending American graduate students, including Robert Oppenheimer, abroad.

By the mid-1920's, the Rockefeller Foundation decided that "instead of sending Mahomet to the Mountain, it would fetch the

Mountain here." It is, it decided to import Europeans. To finance

the effort, the foundation committed not just its income but \$19

million of its capital (close to \$150 million in today's dollars). While Wickliffe Rose, a philosopher on Rockefeller's

board, scoured such European scientific capitals as Berlin and

Budapest to hear about new ideas and meet their authors, the

foundation selected three American universities, among them Princeton, to receive the bulk of its largesse. The grants enabled Princeton to establish five European-style research professorships with extravagant salaries, plus a research fund to

support graduate and postgraduate students.

Among the first European stars to arrive in Princeton in 1930

were two young geniuses of

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Hungarian origin, John von Neumann, a brilliant student of Hilbert and Hermann Weyl, and Eugene Wigner, the physicist who

went on to win a Nobel Prize in physics in 1963, not for his

vital work on the atom bomb but for research on the structure of

the atom and its nucleus. The two shared one of the professorships endowed by the Rockefeller Foundation, spending

half a year in Princeton and the other half in their home universities of Berlin and Budapest. According to Wigner's autobiography, the men were unhappy at first, homesick for Europe's passionate theoretical discussion and its coffeehouses

comthe congenial  
floating seminars of professors and students where the latest  
research was discussed. Wigner wondered if they were part of  
the  
window dressing, like the faux-Gothic buildings. But von Neumann,  
an enthusiastic admirer of all things American, adapted more  
quickly. With shrinking opportunities for research in Europe  
during the Depression, and mounting restrictions on Jews in  
German universities, they stayed.  
A second act of philanthropy, more serendipitous than the  
Rockefeller enterprise,

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resulted in the creation of the independent Institute for  
Advanced Study in Princeton." The Bambergers were department  
store merchants who opened their first store in Newark and who  
had gone on to make a huge fortune in the dry-goods business.  
The  
owners, a brother and sister, sold out six weeks before the  
stock  
market crash of 1929. With a fortune of \$25 million between  
them,  
they decided to show their gratitude to the state of New Jersey.  
They had in mind perhaps founding a dental school. An expert  
on  
medical education, Abraham Flexner, soon convinced them to drop  
the idea of a medical school and instead to found a first-rate  
research institution with no teachers, no students, no classes,

but only researchers protected from the vicissitudes and  
A128  
pressures of the outside world. Flexner toyed with the idea  
of  
making a school of economics the core of the institute but w  
as  
soon persuaded that mathematics was a sounder choice since i  
t was  
more "fundamental." Furthermore, there was infinitely greate  
r  
consensus among mathematicians on who the best people were.  
Its  
location was still up in the air. Newark, with its paint  
factories and slaughterhouses, offered no attractions for th  
e  
international band of academic superstars Flexner

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--129

hoped to recruit. Princeton was more like it. Legend has it  
that  
it was Oswald Veblen who convinced the Bambergers that Princ  
eton  
really could be thought of ("in a topological sense" he p  
ut  
it) as a suburb of Newark,  
With zeal and deep pockets matching those of any impresario,  
Flexner began a worldwide search for stars, dangling unheard  
-of  
salaries, lavish perks, and the promise of complete independ  
ence.  
His undertaking coincided with Hitler's takeover of the Germ  
an  
government, the mass expulsion of Jews from German universit  
ies,  
and growing fears of another world war. After three years of  
delicate negotiation, Einstein, the biggest star of them all  
,  
agreed to become the second member of the Institute's School  
of  
Mathematics, causing one of his friends in Germany to quip,  
"The  
pope of physics has moved and the United States will now bec  
ome  
the center for the natural sciences." Kurt Gbdel, the Vienne  
se  
wunderkind of logic, came in 1933 as well, and Hermann Weyl,  
the  
reigning star of German mathematics, followed Einstein a yea  
r

later. Weyl insisted, as a condition of his acceptance, that the Institute appoint a bright light from the next generation. Von Neumann,

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who had just turned thirty, was lured away from the university to become the Institute's youngest professor. Practically overnight, Princeton had become the new Göttingen.

The Institute professors initially shared the deluxe quarters at

Fine Hall with their university colleagues. They moved out in

1939 when the Institute's Fuld Hall, a Neo-Georgian brick building perched in the middle of sweeping English lawns surrounded by woods and a pond just a mile or two from Fine, was

built. By the time Einstein and the others moved, the Institute

and Princeton professors had become family and the clans continued to mingle like country cousins. They collaborated on

research, edited journals jointly, and attended one another's

lectures, seminars, and teas. The Institute's proximity made it

easier to attract the most brilliant students and faculty to the

university, while the university's active mathematics department

was a magnet for those visiting or working permanently at the

Institute.

By contrast, Harvard, once the jewel of American mathematics, was

in "a state of eclipse" in the late 1940's. Its legendary chairman G. D.

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Birkhoff was dead. Some of its brightest young stars, including

Marshall Stone, Marston Morse, and Hassler Whitney, had recently

departed, two of them for the Institute for Advanced  
A131

Study. Einstein had used to complain around the Institute th  
at

"Birkhoff is one of the world's great academic  
anti-Semitesdd"Whether or not this was true, Birkhoff's bias  
had

prevented him from taking advantage of the emigration of the

brilliant Jewish mathematicians from Nazi Germanydd"Indeed,  
Harvard also had ignored Norbert Wiener, the most brilliant  
American-born mathematician of his generation, the father of

cybernetics and inventor of the rigorous mathematics of Brow  
nian

motion. Wiener happened to be a Jew and, like Paul Samuelson  
, the

future Nobel Laureate in economics, he sought refuge at the  
far

end of Cambridge at MIT, then little more than an engineerin  
g

school on a par with the Carnegie Institute of Technology."

William James, the preeminent American philosopher and older

brother of the novelist Henry James, once wrote of a critica  
l

mass of geniuses causing a whole civilization to "vibrate an  
d

shakedd019 But the man in the street didn't feel the tremors

emanating from

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--132

Princeton until World War 11 was practically over and these  
odd

men with their funny accents, peculiar dress, and passion fo  
r

obscure scientific theories became national heroes.

From the start, the European brain drain had an immediate an  
d

electrifying effect on American mathematics and theoretical  
physics. The emigration gathered together a group of geniuse  
s who

brought not only broad and deep mathematical know-how, but a  
set

of refreshing new attitudesdd10 In particular, the geographi  
cal

origin of these mathematicians and physicists positioned the  
m to

appreciate the implications of the massive amount of new wor  
k

that had been done in Europe since the turn of the century and gave them a great affinity for applications of mathematics to physics and engineering. Many of the newcomers were young and at the height of their research careers. Some historians have called World War II the scientists' war. But because the science required sophisticated mathematics, it was also very much a mathematicians' war, and the war effort tapped the eclectic talents of the Princeton mathematical community. Princeton mathematicians became involved in ciphers and code breaking. A

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--133

cryptanalytic breakthrough enabled the United States to win a major battle at Midway Island, the turning point in the naval war between the United States and Japan. In Britain, Alan Turing, a Princeton Ph.D., and his group at Bletchley Park broke the Nazi code without the Germans' knowledge, thus turning the tide in the submarine baffle for control of the Atlantic. Oswald Veblen and several of his associates essentially rewrote the science of ballistics at the Aberdeen Proving Ground. Marston Morse, who had recently moved from Harvard to the Institute, headed a related effort in the Office of the Chief of Ordnance. Another mathematician, the Princeton statistician Sam Wilks, made best daily estimates of the position of the German submarine fleet on the basis of the prior day's sighting."

The most dramatic contributions were in the areas of

A133

weaponry: radar, infrared detection devices, bomber aircraft

long-range rockets, and torpedoes with depth charges. The new

weapons were extremely costly, and the military needed mathematicians to devise new methods for

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assessing their effectiveness and the most efficient way to use

them. Operations research was a systematic way of coming up with

the numbers the military wanted. How many tons of explosive force

must a bomb release to do a certain amount of damage? Should

airplanes be heavily armored or stripped of defenses to fly faster? Should the Ruhr be bombed, and how many bombs should be

used? All these questions required mathematical talent.

The ultimate contribution was, of course, the A-bomb. Wigner at

Princeton and Leo Szilard at Columbia composed a letter, which

they brought to Einstein to sign, warning President Roosevelt

that a German physicist, Otto Hahn, at the Kaiser Friedrich Institute in Berlin had succeeded in splitting the uranium atom.

Lise Meitner, an Austrian Jew who was smuggled into Denmark,

performed the mathematical calculations on how an atomic bomb

could be constructed from these findings. Niels Bohr, the Danish

physicist, visited Princeton in 1939 and transmitted the news.

"It was they rather than their American born colleagues who sensed the military implications of the new knowledge," wrote

Davies. Roosevelt responded by appointing an

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advisory committee on uranium in October 1939, two months into

the war, which eventually became the Manhattan Project.

The war enriched and invigorated American mathematics, vindicated

those who had championed the migrators, and gave the mathematicians

ical

community a claim on the fruits of the postwar prosperity that

was to follow. The war demonstrated not only the power of the new

theories but the superiority of sophisticated mathematical analysis over educated guesses. The bomb gave enormous prestige

to Einstein's relativity theory, which before then had been seen

as a small correction of the still-valuable Newtonian mechanics.

Princeton rode high on the newfound status of mathematics in

American society. It found itself on the leading edge not just of

topology, algebra, and number theory, but also of computer theory, operations research, and the new theory of games." In

1948, everyone was back and the anxieties and frustrations of the

1930's had been swept away by a feeling of expansiveness and

optimism. Science and mathematics were seen as the key to a better postwar world. Suddenly the government, particularly the

military, wanted to spend money on pure

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research. journals

The Center of the Universe

57

started up. Plans were made for another world mathematical congress, the first since the dark days before the war.

A new generation was crowding in, eager to drink up the wisdom of

the older generation, yet full of ideas and attitudes of its own.

There were no women yet, of course, with the exception of

Oxford's Mary Cartwright, who was in Princeton that year  
A136

comb Princeton was opening up. Suddenly, being a few or a  
foreigner, having a working-class accent, or graduating from  
a

college that wasn't on the East Coast were no longer automat  
ic

bars to a bright young mathematician. The biggest divide on  
campus was suddenly between "the kids" and the war veterans, w  
ho,

in their mid-to-late twenties, were starting graduate school

alongside twenty-year-olds like Nash. Mathematics was no lon  
ger a

gentlemen's profession, but a wonderfully dynamic enterprise

"The notion was that the human mind could accomplish anythin  
g

with mathematical ideas," a Princeton student of that era la  
ter

recalled. He added: "The postwar years had their threats com  
the

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--137

Korean War, the Cold War, China going to the commies- but in

fact, in terms of science, there was this tremendous optimis  
m.

The sense at Princeton wasn't just that you were close to a  
great

intellectual revolution, but that you were part of it."

Princeton, Fall 1948

Con versgltlon enriches the understanding, but solitude is th  
e

school ofgenius.

comED-WARD QUITE;-OATION

0

NASH'S SECOND AFTERNOON

in Princeton, Solomon Lefschetz rounded up the first-year  
graduate students in the West Common Room. He was there to  
tell

them the facts of life, he said, in his French accent, fixin  
g

them with his fierce gaze. And for an hour Lefschetz glared,

shouted, and pounded the table with his gloved, wooden hands

,  
delivering something between a biblical sermon and a drill  
sergeant's diatribe.

They were the best, the very best. Each of them had been  
carefully handpicked, like a diamond from a heap of coal. Bu

t  
this was Princeton, where real mathematicians did real  
mathematics. Compared to these men, the newcomers were babies,  
ignorant, pathetic babies, and Princeton was going to make

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them grow up, damn it!  
Entrepreneurial and energetic, Lefschetz was the supercharged  
human locomotive that had pulled the Princeton department out of  
genteel mediocrity right to the top. He recruited mathematicians  
with only one criterion in mind: research. His high-handed and  
idiosyncratic editorial policies made the  
Annals of Mathematics,  
Princeton's once-tired quarterly, into the most revered  
mathematical journal in the world. He was sometimes accused  
of  
caving in to anti-Semitism for refusing to admit many Jewish  
students (his rationale being that nobody would hire them when  
they completed their degrees) but no one denies that  
he  
had brilliant snap judgment. He exhorted, bossed, and bullied,  
but with the aim of making the department great and turning  
his  
students into real mathematicians, tough like himself.  
When he came to Princeton in the 1920's, he often said, he was  
"an invisible man." He was one of the first Jews on the faculty,  
loud, rude, and badly dressed to boot. People pretended not  
to

see him in the hallways and gave him wide berth at faculty  
A138  
parties. But Lefschetz had overcome

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far more formidable obstacles in his life than a bunch of pr  
issy  
Wasp snobs. He had  
been born in Moscow and been educated in France. In love wi  
th  
mathematics, but effectively barred from an academic career  
in  
France because he was not a citizen, he studied engineering  
and  
emigrated to the United States. At age twenty-three, a terri  
ble  
accident altered the course of his life. Lefschetz was worki  
ng  
for Westinghouse in Pittsburgh when a transformer explosion  
burned off his hands. His recovery took years, during which  
he  
suffered from deep depression, but the accident ultimately b  
ecame  
the impetus to pursue his true love, mathematics.

7

He enrolled in a Ph.D. program at Clark University, the  
university famous for Freud's 1912 lectures on psychoanalysi  
s,  
soon fell in love with and married another mathematics stude  
nt,  
and spent nearly a decade in obscure teaching posts in Nebra  
ska  
and Kansas. After days of backbreaking teaching, he wrote a  
series of brilliant, original, and highly influential papers  
that  
eventually resulted in a "call" from Princeton. "My years in the  
west  
with total

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hermetic isolation played in my development the role of 'a j  
ob in  
a lighthouse' which Einstein would have every young scientis  
t  
assume so that he may develop his own ideas in his own way."

Lefschetz valued independent thinking and originality above  
everything. He was, in fact, contemptuous of elegant or rigo  
rous  
proofs of what he considered obvious points. He once dismiss  
ed a

clever new proof of one of his theorems by saying, "Don't come to me with your pretty proofs. We don't bother with that baby stuff around here." Legend had it that he never wrote a correct proof or stated an incorrect theorem. His first comprehensive treatise on topology, a highly influential book in which he coined the term "algebraic topology," hardly contains one completely correct proof. It was rumored that it had been written during one of Lefschetz's sabbaticals ... when his students did not have the opportunity to revise it. He knew most areas of mathematics, but his lectures were usually incoherent. Gian-Carlo Rota, one of his students, describes the start of one lecture on geometry: "Well a Riemann surface is a certain kind of

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Hausdorff space. You know what a Hausdorff space is, don't you? It's also compact, ok. I guess it is also a manifold. Surely you know what a manifold is. Now let me tell you one non-trivial theorem, the Riemann-Roch theorem." On this particular afternoon in mid-September 1948, with the new graduate students, Lefschetz was just warming up. "It's important to dress well. Get rid of that thing," he said, pointing to a pen holder. "You look like a workman, not a mathematician," he told one student. "Let a Princeton barber cut your hair," he said to another. They could go to class or not go to class. He didn't

give a damn. Grades meant nothing. They were only recorded  
A141

to please the "goddamn deansdd"Only the "generals"counted. I  
I

There was only one requirement: come to tea.

16

They were absolutely required to come to tea every afternoon

.  
Where else would they meet the finest mathematics faculty in  
the

world? Oh, and if they felt like it, they were free to visit  
that

disembalming parlor," as he liked to call the Institute of  
Advanced Study,

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--142

to see if they could catch a glimpse of Einstein, Gbdel, or  
von

Neumann. "Remember,"

he kept repeating, "we're not here to baby youdd"FfNash,  
Lefschetz's opening spiel must have sounded as rousing as a  
Sousa

march.

Lefschetz's, hence Princeton's, philosophy of graduate  
mathematics education had its roots in the great German and  
French research universitiesdd18 The main idea was to plunge

students, as quickly as possible, into their own research, a  
nd to

produce an acceptable dissertation quickly. The fact that  
Princeton's small faculty was, to a man, actively engaged in

research itself, was by and large on speaking terms, and was

available to supervise students` research, made this a pract  
ical

approachdd19 Lefschetz wasn't aiming for perfectly polished  
diamonds and indeed regarded too much polish in a mathematic  
ian's

youth as antithetical to later creativity. The goal was not  
erudition, much as erudition might be admired, but turning o  
ut

men who could make original and important discoveries.

Princeton subjected its students to a maximum of pressure bu  
t a

wonderful minimum of  
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bureaucracy. Lefichetz was not exaggerating when he said tha  
t the

department had no course requirements. The department offere

d  
courses, true, but enrollment was a fiction, as were grades.  
Some  
professors put down all  
As,  
others all Cs, on their grade reports, but both were complet  
ely  
arbitrarydd10 You didn't have to show up a single time to ea  
rn  
them and students' transcripts were, more often than not, wo  
rks  
of fiction "to satisfy the Philistines." There were no cours  
e  
examinations. In the language examinations, given by members  
of  
the mathematics department, a student was asked to translate  
a  
passage of French or German mathematical text. But they were  
a  
jokedd"If you could make neither heads nor tails of the pass  
age  
comunlikely, since the passages typically contained many  
mathematical symbols and precious few words-you could get a  
passing grade merely by promising to learn the passage later  
. The  
only test that counted was the general examination, a qualif  
ying  
examination on five topics, three determined by the departme  
nt,  
two by the candidate, at the end of the first, or at latest,  
second year. However, even the generals were sometimes tailo  
red  
to the

strengths and weaknesses of a student." If, for example, it  
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was known that a student really knew one article well, but only

one, the examiners, if they were so moved, might restrict themselves to that paper. The only other hurdle, before beginning

the all-important thesis, was to find a senior member of the faculty to sponsor it.

If the faculty, which got to know every student well, decided

that so-and-so wasn't going to make it, Lefschetz wasn't shy about not renewing the student's support or simply telling him to

leave. You were either succeeding or on your way out. As a result, Princeton students who made it past the generals wound up

with doctorates after just two or three years at a time when

Harvard students were taking six, seven, or eight years."

Harvard, where Nash had yearned to go for the prestige and magic

of its name, was at that time a nightmare of bureaucratic red

tape, fiefdoms, and faculty with relatively little time to devote

to students. Nash could not possibly have realized it fully that

first day, but he was lucky to have chosen Princeton over Harvard.

That genius will emerge regardless of circumstance is a widely

held belief. The biographer of the great

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Indian mathematician Ramanujan, for example, claims that the five years that the young Ramanujan spent in complete

isolation from other mathematicians, having failed out of school

and unable to get as much as a tutoring position, were the key to

his stunning discoveries<sup>14</sup> But when writing Ramanujan's obituary, G. H. Hardy, the Cambridge mathematician who knew him

best, called that view, held earlier by himself, "ridiculous

sentimentalism<sup>15</sup>" After Ramanujan's death at thirty-three, Hardy

wrote that the "the tragedy of Ramanuian was not that he die  
d  
young, but that, during his five unfortunate years, his geni  
us  
was misdirected, side-tracked, and to a certain extent  
distorted."`,  
As was to become increasingly obvious over the months that  
followed, Princeton's approach to its graduate students, wit  
h its  
combination of complete freedom and relentless pressure to  
produce, could not have been better suited to someone of Nas  
h's  
temperament and style as a mathematician, nor more happily  
designed to elicit the first real proofs of his genius. Nash  
's  
great luck, if you want to call it luck, was that he came on  
to  
the

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mathematical scene at a time and to a place tailor-made for  
his  
particular needs. He came away with his independence, ambiti  
on,  
and originality intact, having been allowed to acquire a tru  
ly  
first-class training that was to serve him brilliantly.  
Like nearly all the other graduate students at Princeton, Na  
sh  
lived in the Graduate College. The College was a gorgeous,  
faux-English edifice of dark gray stone surrounding an inter  
ior  
courtyard that sat on a crest overlooking a golf course and  
lake.  
It was located about a mile from Fine Hall on the far side o  
f  
Alexander Road, about halfivay between Fine and the Institut  
e for  
Advanced Study. Especially in winter, when it was dark by th  
e

time the afternoon seminar ended, it was a good long walk,  
A146  
and once you were there, you didn't feel like going out again.  
Its location was the outcome of a fight between Woodrow Wilson  
and Dean Andrew West.

16  
Wilson had wanted the graduate students to mix and mingle with  
the undergraduates. West wanted to re-create the atmosphere  
of  
one of the Oxbridge colleges, far removed from the rowdy,  
snobbish

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undergraduate eating clubs on Prospect Street.  
In 1948, there were about six hundred graduate students, their  
ranks swelled by the numbers of returning veterans whose  
undergraduate or graduate careers had been interrupted by the  
war." The College, a bit shabbier than before the war and in  
need  
of sprucing up, was full, overflowing really, and a good many  
less lucky first-year students had been turned away and were  
being forced to lodge in rented rooms in the village. Almost  
everyone else had to share rooms. Nash, who lived in Pyne Tower,  
was lucky to get a private room, one of the perks of his  
fellowship." About fifteen or twenty of the mathematics students,  
second- and third-year as well as first-year students, and a  
couple of instructors lived in the college at the time. Life  
was  
masculine, monastic, and scholarly, exactly as Dean West had  
envisioned. 19 The graduate students ate breakfast, lunch, and  
dinner together at the cost of fourteen dollars a week. Breakfast  
and lunch were served in the "breakfast" room, hurried meals  
that  
were taken on the run. But dinner, served in Procter  
Hall, a refectory very much in the English style,

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was a more leisurely affair. There were tall windows, long wooden tables, and formal portraits of eminent Princetonians on the walls; the evening prayer was led by Sir Hugh Taylor, the college's dean, or his second in command, the college's master. There were no candles and no wine, but the food was excellent. Gowns were no longer required as before the war (they were reinstated in the early 1950's, and did not disappear for good until the 1970's), but jackets and ties were required. The atmosphere at dinner was a combination of male debating society, locker room, and seminary. Though historians, English scholars, physicists, and economists all lived cheek by jowl with the mathematicians, the mathematicians segregated themselves as strictly as if they were living under some legal system of apartheid, always occupying a table by themselves. The older, more sophisticated students, namely Harold Kuhn, Leon Henkin, and David Gale, met for sherry in Kuhn's rooms before dinner. Conversation at dinner, sometimes but not always mathematical, was more expansive than at teatime. The talk, as one former student recalls, frequently revolved around "politics, music, and girls." Political debate resembled

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discussions about sports, with more calculation of odds and betting than ideology. In that early fall, the Truman-Dewey race provided a great deal of entertainment. Being a more diverse

group, the graduate students were more evenly split

A149

between the candidates than the Princeton undergraduates; 98

percent of the undergraduates at Princeton, it turned out, were

Dewey supporters. One graduate student even wore a Wallace button

for Henry Wallace, the candidate supported by the American Labor

party, a corn 'munist front organization."

Girls, or rather the absence of girls, the difficulty of meeting

girls, the real or imagined exploits of certain older and more

worldly students, were also hot subjects. A few of the students

dated. Women were not allowed in the main dining hall, and, of

course, there were no female students. "We are all homosexual

s here" was a famous remark made by a resident to fluster the dean's

wife." Isolation made the real prospects of meeting a girl

remote. A few venturesome souls, organized by a young

instructor named John Tukey, went to Thursday night folk dances

at the local high school. But most were too shy and self-conscious

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--150

to do even that. Sir Hugh, a stuffed shirt roundly disliked by

the mathematicians, did his best to discourage what little socializing there was. One student was called into the dean's

office because a pair of women's panties had been found in his

room; it turned out his sister had been visiting and he, to preserve appearances, had moved out for the night. At one point,

a seemingly unnecessary rule was handed down that residents of

the Graduate College were not allowed to entertain a woman past

midnight. The very few students who actually had girlfriends

interpreted the rule literally to mean that a woman could be in

the room, but couldn't be entertained. Harold Kuhn spent his

honeymoon there. The only time and place that women were allowed to join the larger group was Saturday lunch in the Breakfast Room.

In short, social life was rather enveloping and would be hard to become really lonely—and at the same time limited to other men, in Nash's case specifically to other mathematicians. The parties held in student rooms were thus mostly all-male affairs. Such evenings, as often as not, were devoted to mathematical parties organized by one of the graduate students at Lefschetz's request to entertain some visitor but actually to get his

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--151

students much-needed job contacts. 16  
The quality, diversity, and sheer volume of mathematics talked about in Princeton every day, by professors, Institute professors, and a steady stream of visitors from all over the world, not to mention the students themselves, were unlike anything Nash had ever imagined, much less experienced. A revolution was taking place in mathematics and Princeton was the center of the action. Topology. Logic. Game theory. There were not only lectures, colloquia, seminars, classes, and weekly meetings at the institute that Einstein and von Neumann occasionally attended, but there were breakfasts, lunches, dinners, and after-dinner parties at the Graduate College, where most of the mathematicians lived, as well as the daily afternoon

teas in the common room. Martin Shubik, a young economist  
A151  
studying at Princeton at that time, later wrote that the  
mathematics department was "electric with ideas and the shee  
r joy  
of the hunt. If a stray ten-year-old with bare feet, no tie,  
torn  
blue jeans, and an interesting theorem had walked into Fine  
Hall  
at tea times, someone would have listeneV  
37

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--152

Tea was the high point of every daydd"X was held in Fine Hal  
l  
between three and four between the last class and the four-t  
hirty  
seminar that went until five-thirty or six. On Wednesdays it  
was  
held in the west common room, or the professor's room as it  
was  
also called, and was a far more formal affair, where the  
self-effacing Mrs. Lefschetz and the other wives of the seni  
or  
faculty, wearing long gowns and white gloves, poured the tea  
and  
passed the cookies. Heavy silver teapots and dainty English  
bone  
china were brought out.  
On other days, tea was held in the east common room, also kn  
own  
as the students` room, a much-lived-in, funky place full of  
overstuffed leather armchairs and low tables. The janitor wo  
uld  
bring in the tea and cookies a few minutes before three o'cl  
ock  
and the mathematicians, tired from a day of working alone or  
lecturing or attending seminars, would start drifting in, on  
e by  
one or in groups. The faculty almost always came, as did mos  
t of  
the graduate students and a sprinkling of more precocious  
undergraduates. It was very much a family gathering, small a  
nd  
intimate. It is hard to think where a student could get to k  
now  
as many other mathematicians as well as at Princeton teatime  
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--153

The talk was by no means purely formal. Mathematical gossip abounded who was working on what, who had a nibble from what department, who had run into trouble on his generals. Melvin

Hausner, a former Princeton graduate student, later recalled

'You went there to discuss math. To do your own version of gossiping. To meet faculty. To meet friends. We discussed math

problems. We shared our readings of recent math papers. The professors felt it their duty to come, not only to get to

know the students but to chat with one another. The great logician Alonzo Church, who looked "like a cross between a panda

and an owl" never spoke unless spoken to, and rarely then, would head straight for the cookies, placing one between

the fingers of his splayed hand, and munch away. The charismatic algebraist Emil Artin, son of a German opera singer,

would fling his gaunt, elegant body into one of the leather armchairs, light a Camel, and opine on Wittgenstein and the like

to his disciples, huddled, more or less literally, at his feet. The topologist Ralph Fox, a go master, almost always

made a beeline for a game board, motioning some student to join. Another topologist, Norman Steenrod, a good-looking,

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--154

friendly midwesterner who had just created a sensation with his now classic exposition of fiber bundles, usually stopped in for a

game of chess. Albert Tucker, Lefschetz's righthand man, was

the straitlaced son of a Canadian Methodist minister and Nash's

eventual thesis adviser. Tucker always surveyed the room  
A154  
before he came in and would make fussy little adjustments com-  
msch  
as straightening the curtain weights if the drapes happened  
to be  
awry, or issuing a word-to-the-wise to a student who was tak-  
ing  
too many cookiesdd44 More often than not, a few visitors, of  
ten  
from the Institute for Advanced Study, would turn up as well

The students who gathered at teatime were as remarkable, in  
a  
way, as the faculty. Poor Jews, new immigrants, wealthy  
foreigners, sons of the working classes, veterans in their  
twenties, and teenagers, the students were as diverse as well  
as  
brilliant group, among them John Tate, Serge Lang, Gerard  
Washnitzer, Harold Kuhn, David Gale, Leon Henkin, and Eugeni  
o  
Calabidd41 The teas were heaven for the shy, friendless, and

socially awkward, a category in which many of these young me-  
n  
belonged. John Milnor, the most

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--155

brilliant freshman in the history of the Princeton mathemati-  
cs  
department, described it this way: "Everything was new to me  
. I  
was awkward socially, shy and isolated. Everything was wonde-  
rful.  
This was a whole new world. Here was a whole community in wh-  
ich I  
felt very much at home."

46  
The atmosphere was, however, as competitive as it was  
friendlydd47 Insults and one-upmanship were always major  
ingredients in teatime banter. The common room was where the  
young bucks warily sized each other up, bluffed and postured  
, and  
locked horns. No culture was more hierarchical than mathemat-  
ical  
culture in its precise ranking of individual merit and prest-  
ige,  
yet it was a ranking always in a state of suspense and flux,  
in  
which new challenges and scuffles erupted almost daily. Back

in  
their undergraduate colleges, most of these young men had go  
tten  
used to being the brightest and best, but now they were bump  
ing  
up against the brightest and best from other schools. One of  
the  
graduate students who entered with Nash admitted,  
"Competitiveness, it was sort of like breathing. We thrived  
on  
it. We were nasty. This guy, he's dumb, we'd say. Therefore  
he no  
longer existeddd041

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--156

There were cliques, mostly based on fields. The clique at th  
e top  
of the hierarchy was the topology clique, which clustered ar  
ound  
Lefschetz, Fox, and Steenrod. Then came analysis, grouped ar  
ound  
Lefschetz's archrival in the department, a civilized and eru  
dite  
lover of music and art named Bochner. Then came algebra, whi  
ch  
consisted of Emil Artin and a handful of anointed followers.

Logic, for some reason, was not highly regarded, despite Chu  
rch's  
towering reputation among early pioneers of computer theory.

The  
game theory clique around Tucker  
School of Genius

65

was considered quite d6class6, an anomaly in this ivory towe  
r of  
pure mathematics. Each clique had its own thoughts about the  
importance of its subject and its own way of putting the oth  
ers  
down.

Nash had never in his life encountered anything like this ex  
otic

little mathematical hothouse. It would soon provide him

A156

with the emotional and intellectual context he so much needed to

express himself Princeton, 1948-49

It is good that I did not let myself be influenced. -

LuDwiG W equals GEN-STE-IATION

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--157

i

K

LA-I CHUNG,

a mathematics instructor who had survived the horrors of the

Japanese conquest of his native China, was surprised to see the

door of the Professors' Room standing ajar. It was usually locked.

Kai Lai liked to stop

by on the rare occasions when it was open and nobody was about.

It had the feel of an empty church, no longer imposing and intimidating as it was in the afternoons when it was crowded with

mathematical luminaries, but simply a beautiful sanctuary.

The light in the west common room filtered through thick stained-glass windows inlaid with formulae: Newton's law of gravity, Einstein's theory of relativity, Heisenberg's uncertainty principle of quantum mechanics. At the far end, like

an altar, was a massive stone fireplace. On one side was a carving of a fly confronting the paradox of the M6bius band.

Mbbius had given a strip of paper a half twist and connected the

ends, creating a seemingly impossible object: a surface with only

one

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--158

side. Kai Lai especially liked to read the whimsical inscription

over the fireplace, Einstein's expression of faith in science,

"Der Herr Gott ist raffiniert aber Boshaft ist Er nichtea"where

he took to mean that "the Lord is subtle but not malicious."

On this particular fall morning, as he reached the threshold of

the half-open door, Kai Lai stopped abruptly. A few feet away, on

the massive table that dominated the room, floating among a sea of papers, sprawled a beautiful dark-haired young man. He lay on his back staring up at the ceiling as if he were outside on a lawn under an elm looking up at the sky through the leaves, perfectly relaxed, motionless, obviously lost in thought, arms folded behind his head. He was whistling softly. Kai Lai recognized the distinctive profile immediately. It was the new graduate student from West Virginia. A trifle shocked and a little embarrassed, Kai Lai backed away from the door and hurried away before Nash could see or hear him. The first-year students were an extremely cocky bunch, but Nash immediately struck everyone as a good deal cockier-and odder. His appearance helped create the impression. At twenty, Nash looked young,

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perhaps younger than he was, but he was no longer a gawky youngster who looked as if he'd just climbed off a tractor. Six foot one, he weighed nearly 170 pounds. He had broad shoulders, a heavily muscled chest, and a tapered waist. He had the build, if not the bearing, of an athlete, "a very strong, very masculine body," one fellow graduate student recalled. He was, moreover,

"handsome as a god," according to another student. His

A159

high forehead, somewhat protruding ears, distinctive nose, fleshy

lips, and small chin gave him the look of an English aristocrat.

His hair flopped over his forehead; he was constantly brushing it

away. He wore his fingernails very long, which drew attention to

his rather limp and beautiful hands and long, delicate fingers.

His voice, on the high, reedy side, was cool and southern and had

a slightly ironic edge. His speech had an Olympian and ornamental

quality that struck others as a bit stilted. Moreover, his expression was somewhat haughty and he smiled to himself in a

superior way.

From the start, he was quite visible at teatime. He seemed eager

to be noticed and seemed to want to establish that he was smarter

than anyone else in the

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place. A fellow student, who had come to Princeton from the City

College of New York, recalled, "He had a way of saying 'trivial'

to anything you might have regarded as nontrivial. That could be

taken as a put-down" Nash would accuse people of burbling.

If

somebody was talking on and on, he was just burbling. "ALGEBRA IS

BURBLEEA" Nash once scrawled on a blackboard that another student,

an algebraist, would pull down in the midst of a talk. "Hackers"

was another favorite Nash term. A hacker was somebody who plodded

along, somebody who was doing things not worth doing" dabled A

s another student put it: "Nash was very interested that every one

would recognize how smart he was, not because he needed this

admiration, but anybody who didn't recognize it wasn't on top of

things. If anyone wasn't aware, he would take a little trouble to make sure he found out. Another student recalls, "He wanted to be noticed more than anything." He seized opportunities to boast about his accomplishments. He would mention, out of the blue, that he'd discovered, as an undergraduate, an original proof of Gauss's proof of the fundamental theorem of algebra, one of the great achievements of

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--161

eighteenth-century mathematics, nowadays taught in advanced courses on the theory of complex variables. He was a self-declared free thinker. On his Princeton application, in answer to the question "What is your religion?" he wrote "Shinto." He implied that his lineage was superior to that of his fellow students, especially Jewish students. Martin Davis, a fellow student who grew up in a poor family in the Bronx, recalled catching up with Nash when he was ruminating about blood lines and natural aristocracies one day as they were walking from the Graduate College to Fine Hall. "He definitely had a set of beliefs about the aristocracy," said Davis. "He was opposed to racial mixing. He said that miscegenation would result in the deterioration of the racial line. Nash implied that his own blood lines were pretty good." He once asked Davis whether Davis had grown up in a slum. Nash appeared to be interested in almost everything mathematical—topology, algebraic geometry, logic, and game theory—and he seemed to absorb a tremendous amount about each of these during his first year. He himself recalled, without

elaborating, having "studied mathematics fairly broadly" at  
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Princeton. Yet he avoided attending classes. No one recalls

sitting in a regular class with him." He did, he later said,

begin a course in algebraic topology offered by Steenrod, who

essentially founded the field." Steenrod and Samuel Eilenberg had

just invented the axioms that were the foundation of homology

theory. The stuff was very trendy and the course attracted many

students, but Nash decided it was too formal for him and not

geometric enough for his taste, so he stopped going.

Nobody remembers seeing Nash with a book during his graduate

career either. "In fact, he read astonishingly little. "Both Nash

and I were dyslexic to some degree," said Eugenio Calabi, a young

Italian immigrant who entered Princeton the year before Nash. "I

had great difficulty keeping my attention on reading that required great concentration. Then, I just thought of it as laziness. Nash, on the other hand, defended not reading, taking

the attitude that learning too much secondhand would stifle creativity and originality. It was a dislike of passivity and

giving up control.

Nash's main mode of picking up information he

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deemed necessary consisted of quizzing various faculty members

and fellow students." He carried around a clipboard and constantly made notes to himself. They were little hints to himself, ideas, facts, things he wanted to do, Calabi recalled.

His handwriting was almost unreadable. He once explained to Lefschetz that he had to use ruled notebook paper even when writing a letter because without the lines his script formed a

"very irregular wavy line." As it was, his notes were full of

crossouts and misspellings of even simple words like

"InteresEted."

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He compensated by learning through conversation in the common room and by attending lectures given by visiting mathematicians.

According to Calabi, Nash

was quite systematic in asking shrewd questions and developing

his own ideas from the answers. I've seen some of his results in

the making. "Some of his best ideas came "from things learned

only halfway, sometimes even wrongly, and trying to reconstruct

them even if he could not do so completely."

He was always asking probing questions. The questions, not only

about game theory, but also about topology and geometry, often

contained a kernel of speculation.

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John Milnor, who entered as a freshman that year, recalls one

such question, posed in the common room: Let  $V$ , be a singular

algebraic variety of dimension  $k$ , embedded in some smooth variety

$M_0$  and let

$M_1$  equals  $G$ ,  $(M_0)$

be the Grassmann variety of tangent  $k$ -planes to  $M_0$ . Then  $V_0$  lifts

naturally to a  $k$ -dimensional variety  $V_1 \subset M_1$ . Continuing

inductively, we obtain a sequence of  $k$ -dimensional varieties.

... Do we eventually reach a variety  $V$ , which is nonsingular?  
(As

it turns out, Milnor adds, the conjecture has since been proven

only in special cases.)"

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Nash spent most of his time, it appears, simply thinking. He rode

bicycles borrowed from the racks in front of the Graduate College

in tight little figure eights or ever-smaller concentric circles."` He paced around the interior quadrangle of the college. He glided along the gloomy second-floor hallway of Fine,

his shoulder pressed firmly against the wall, like a trolley

never losing contact with the dark paneled walls."` He would lie

on a desk or table in

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the empty common room, or more frequently, in the third-floor

library. "Alm always, he whistled Bach, most often the Little

Fugue." The whistling prompted the mathematics secretaries to

complain about Nash to Lefschetz and Tucker."

Melvin Hausner recalled: "He was always buried in thought. He'd

sit in the common room by himself. He could easily walk by you and

not see you. He was always muttering to himself. Always whistling. Nash was always thinking. . . . If he was lying on a

table, it was because he was thinking. Just thinking. You could

see he was thinking."014

He seemed to be enjoying himself immensely. A profound dislike

for merely absorbing knowledge and a strong compulsion to learn

by doing is one of the most reliable signs of genius. In Princeton, Nash's thinking began to take on an urgent, focused

quality. He was obsessed with learning from scratch. Milnor recalled: "It was as if he wanted to rediscover, for himself

, three hundred years of mathematics."0"Steenrod, who was to become

Nash's sounding board as the year wore on, wrote several years

later, "More than any other student I have known, Nash believes

in learning a subject by doing

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research in  
itdd016

Like the nineteenth-century German mathematician Carl Friedrich

Gauss, who complained that "such an overwhelming horde of ideas

stormed my mind before I was twenty that I could hardly control

them and had time but for a small fraction," Nash seemed to

overflow with ideas. According to Steenrod, "During his first

year of graduate work, he presented me with a characterization of

a simple closed curve in the plane. This was essentially the same

as one given by Wilder in 1932. Some time later he devised a

system of axioms for topology based on the primitive concept of

connectedness. I was able to refer him to papers by Wallace.

During his second year, he showed me a definition of a new kind

of homology group which proved to be the same as the Reidemeister group based on homotopy chainsdd021

What is striking about the ideas that Steenrod attributes to Nash as a

first-year student is that they are not merely clever exercises

designed to show off the brilliance of a precocious student, but

mathematically interesting and important ideas." Nash was always

on the lookout for problems. "He was very much aware of unsolved

problems" said Milnor.

"He really cross-examined people on what were the important  
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problems. It showed a tremendous amount of ambition."", In t  
his

search, as in so much else, Nash displayed an uncommon measu  
re of  
self-

confidence and self-importance. On one occasion, not long af  
ter

his arrival at Princeton, he went to see Einstein and sketch  
ed

some ideas he had for amending quantum theory.

That first fall in Princeton, Nash sometimes took a slight d  
etour

down busy Mercer Street in order to catch a glimpse of  
Princeton's most remarkable resident." Most mornings between  
nine

and ten, Einstein walked the mile or so from his white clapb  
oard

house at 112 Mercer Street to his office at the Institute. O  
n

several occasions, Nash managed to brush past the saintly  
scientist-

wearing a baggy sweater, drooping trousers, sandals without  
socks, and an impassive expression on the streetdd"He imagin  
ed

how he might strike up a conversation, stopping Einstein in  
his

tracks with some startling observation." But once when he pa  
ssed

him walking with Kurt G6del, Nash caught snatches of German  
and

sadly wondered whether his own lack of that language might  
constitute an

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--168

insuperable barrier to communicating with the great mandd14  
In 1948, Einstein had been a world cult figure for more than  
a

quarter of a century." His special theory of relativity was  
published in 1905, as was his assertion that light was propa  
gated

in space not as waves but as discrete particles. The general

theory of relativity appeared in 1916. Astronomers' confirma  
tion

in 1919 that light rays were bent by the sun's gravity -- as

Einstein had predicted --

brought him fame unrivaled by any scientist before or since.

Einstein's political activities comon behalf of the A-bomb a  
nd  
then for nuclear disarmament, world government, the state of

Israel -- added a ch`aintly aura.

For decades, Einstein's main scientific preoccupations had b  
een

two, one in which he achieved a measure of success, the othe  
r a

complete failuredd16 He succeeded in casting doubt on some o  
f the

basic tenets of one of the most successful and widely accept  
ed

theories in physics --

quantum theory -- a theory first proposed by himself when he

demonstrated the existence of light quanta in 1905, and

subsequently developed by Niels Bohr and Werner Heisenberg,  
who

insisted the act

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of observation changes the object being measured. Einstein's  
1935

attack on quantum theory produced a front-page headline in  
The New York Times

and has never been satisfactorily refuted; indeed, as of the

mid-1990's, the latest experimental evidence has breathed ne  
w

life into his critique.

His greater preoccupation was the ultimate task of uniting t  
he

phenomena of light and gravity into a single theory. Einstei  
n

never was able, as one biographer put it, to "accept that th  
e

universe was fragmented into relativity on one side and quan  
tum

mechanics on the other."

A169

17

On the eve of his seventieth birthday, he was still searching for a single, consistent set of principles that applied to all of the universe's diverse forces and particles and was, in fact, preparing what proved to be his final paper on so-called "unified field theory."

It was a measure of Nash's bravura and the power of his fantasy that he was not content merely to see Einstein but soon requested an audience with him. Just a few weeks into his first term at Princeton,

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Nash made an appointment to see  
Genius

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Einstein in his office in Fuld Hall. He told Einstein's assistant that he had an idea that he wished to discuss with Professor Einstein's office, a large airy room with a bay window that let in plenty of light, was messy. Einstein's twenty-two-year-old Hungarian assistant-an intense, chain-smoking logician named John Kemeny, who would later invent the computer language BASIC, become president of Dartmouth College, and head a commission to investigate Three Mile Island-ushered Nash in.

Einstein's handshake, which ended with a twist, was remarkably firm, and he showed Nash to a large wooden meeting table on the far side of the office. The late-morning light streaming through the bay window produced a sort of aura around Einstein. Nash, however, quickly got into the substance of his idea while Einstein listened politely, twirled the curls on the back of his head with his finger, sucked on his tobaccoless pipe, and occasionally muttered a remark or asked a question. As he sp

oke,  
Nash became aware of a mild form of echolalia: deep, deep,

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--171

interesting, interestingdd41

Nash had an idea about "gravity, friction, and radiationea"z  
he

later recalled. The friction he was thinking of was the fric  
tion

that a particle, say a photon, might encounter as it moved  
through space due to its fluctuating gravitational field  
interacting with other gravitational fields

.41

Nash had given his hunch enough thought to spend much of the

meeting 'at the blackboard scribbling equations. Soon, Einst  
ein

and Kemeny were standing at the blackboard as  
welldd41

The discussion lasted the better part of an hour. But in the  
end

all that Einstein said, with a kindly smile, was 'You had be  
tter

study some more physics, young mandd"Nash did not immediatel  
y

take Einstein's advice and he never wrote a paper on his ide  
a.

His youthful foray into physics would become a lifetime inte  
rest-

though, like Einstein's search for the unified field, it wou  
ld

not be especially fruitfudd41 Many decades later, however,  
a

German physicist published a similar idea.

44

Nash conspicuously avoided attaching himself to any

particular faculty member, either in the department or at  
172

the institute. It was not a matter of shyness, his fellow students thought, but rather that he wished to preserve his independence. One mathematician who knew Nash at the time observed: "Nash was determined to keep his intellectual independence. He didn't want to be unduly influenced. He'd talk

freely with other students, but he was always worried about getting too close to other professors for fear that he'd be overwhelmed. He didn't want to become dominated. He disliked the

whole idea of being intellectually beholdendd041 He did, however,

use at least one faculty member, Steenrod, as a kind of sounding board.

Temperamentally, Steenrod was an entirely different character from flamboyant, domineering types like Lefschetz and

Bochner, whose lectures, it was said, were "exciting but 90 percent wrong." Steenrod was a careful, methodical man who chose

his suits and sports coats according to a mathematical formula

and had a mania for thinking up highly logical, if impractical,

solutions to social problems like crimedd46 Steenrod also happened to be friendly, helpful, and patient.

He was immensely impressed by Nash, found him more

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--173

charming than not, and treated the young man's brashness and

eccentricity with amused tolerancedd41 Surrounded for the first

time in his life by young men whom he regarded, if not exactly as his equals, at least as worth talking to, Nash

preferred picking other students' brains. "Some mathematicians

work very much by themselvesea"said one fellow student. "He liked

to exchange ideasdd041 One of the students he sought out was John

Milnor, the first of a number of brilliant younger mathematicians

to whom Nash was drawn. Tall, lithe, with a baby face and the

body of a gymnast, Milnor was only a freshman but he was already

the department's golden boydd49

In his freshman year, in a differential geometry course taught by Albert Tucker, he learned about an unproved conjecture of a Polish topologist, Karol Borsuk, concerning the total curvature of a knotted curve in space. The story goes that Milnor mistook the conjecture for a homework assignment. "Whatever the case, he arrived at Tucker's door a few days after with a written proof and the request: "Would you be good enough to point out the flaw in this attempt. I'm sure there is one, but

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can't find it. Tucker studied it, showed it to Fox and to Shiing-shen Chern. No one could find anything wrong. Tucker encouraged Milnor to submit the proof as a Note to the Annals of Mathematics. A few months later Milnor turned in an exquisitely crafted paper with a full theory of the curvature of knotted curves in which the proof of the Borsuk conjecture was a mere by-product. The paper, more substantial than most doctoral dissertations, was published in the Annals in 1950. Milnor also dazzled the department-and Nasb-by winning the Putnam competition in his second semester at Princeton (in

fact, he went on to win it two more times and was offered  
A174

a Harvard scholarshipgg.51

Nash was choosy about whom he would talk mathematics with. M  
elvin

Peisakoff, another student who would later overlap with Nash  
at

the RAND Corporation, recalled: `Tou couldn't engage him in  
a

long conversation. He'd just walk off in the middle. Or he  
wouldn't respond at all. I don't remember Nash having a  
conversation that came to a nice soft landing. I also don't  
remember him ever

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--175

having a conversation about mathematics. Even fhe full profe  
ssors

would discuss problems they were working on with other peopl  
e." "

On one occasion in the common room, however, Nash was sketch  
ing

an idea when another graduate student got very interested in  
what

he was saying and started to elaborate on the ideadd"Nash sa  
id,

"Well, maybe I ought to write a Note for the  
Proceedings of the NNa] Academy

on thisdd"The other student said, "Well, Nash, be sure to gi  
ve me

a creditdd"Nash's reply was, "All right, I'll put in a footn  
ote

that So and So was in the room when I had the idea."

Nash was respected but not well liked. He wasn't invited to  
Kuhn's room for sherry or out with the others when they went  
to

Nassau Street to drink beer. "He wasn't somebody you'd want  
as a

close friendea"Calabi recalled. "I don't know many people wh  
o

felt any warmth for himdd014 Most of the graduate students w  
ere

slightly odd ducks themselves, beset by shyness, awkwardness

,  
strange mannerisms, and all

kinds of physical and psychological tics, but they collectiv  
ely

felt that Nash was even odder. "Nash was out of the  
ordinaryea"said a former graduate

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student from his time. "If he was in a room with twenty peop

le,  
and they were talking, if you asked an observer who struck you as odd, it would have been Nash. It wasn't anything he consciously did. It was his bearing. His aloofness." "  
Another recalled, "Nash was totally spooky. He wouldn't look at you. He'd take a lot of time answering a question. If he thought the question was foolish, he wouldn't answer at all. He had no affect. It was a mixture of pride and something else. He was so isolated but there really was underneath it all a warmth and

appreciation [for other people]dd016

When Nash did engage in one of his flights of garrulity, he often seemed to be simply thinking out loud. Hausner remembered, "A lot of us would discount a lot of what Nash said. A lot of the things he said were so far out, you didn't want to engage him. 'What was happening on earth when the Martians took over and there was a period of violence and why such and such4'You wouldn't know what he was talking about. Nash came out with things. They were unfinished and we weren't ready to hear them. I wouldn't want to listen. You didn't feel comfortable with the persondd011  
His sense of humor was not only childish but odd.

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One former student recalled that Nash was personally responsible for getting the much-despised gown requirement at meals

temporarily restored. "Firstea" recounted Felix Browder,  
A177

who left Princeton in the fall of 1948, "he wrote a letter t  
o

Hugh Taylor, a pompous ass who was looking for an excuse,  
demanding that the custom be restored. After it was, nobody  
ate

in the hall. It didn't make John popular.""

He was also capable of frightening people when provoked.

Occasionally, the teasing and needling would spill over into  
a

sudden eruption of violence. On one occasion, Nash was baiti  
ng

one of Artin's students by telling him that the best way int  
o

Artin's graces was to catch his beautiful daughter Karindd"  
T  
he

student, Serge Lang, who everyone knew was painfully obsesse  
d by

his shyness around girls, threw a cup of hot tea in Nash's f  
ace.

Nash chased him around the table, threw him to the ground, a  
nd

stuffed ice cubes down the back of his shirt. Another time,  
Nash

picked up a metal ashtray stand comthe kind that supports a  
heavy

glass ashtray and brought it down on Melvin Peisakoffs shins

,  
hard enough to cause considerable pain for a number of weeks  
dd611

In the spring of 1949, Nash ran into some trouble  
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He had acquired some strong supporters on the faculty, namel  
y

Steenrod, Lefschetz, and Tucker. Tucker was among those who  
believed that Nash was "very brilliant and original but rath  
er

eccentric"arguing that "his creative ability ... should ma  
ke

one tolerate his queernessdd061 But not everyone in the  
department felt that way. Some felt that Nash didn't belong

at

Princeton at all. Among them was Artin.

Slender, handsome, with ice-blue eyes and a spellbinding voi  
ce,

Artin looked like a 1920's German matinee idoldd61 He wore a

black leather trench coat and

sandals throughout the academic year, wore his hair long, and smoked incessantly. The representative of "modern" algebra, Artin, who had been recommended by Weyl for the appointment at the institute that von Neumann eventually got, was a wonderful lecturer who admired polish and scholarship, but was famously intolerant of those who did not meet his rather fastidious standards. He was well known for screaming and throwing chalk at students who asked obtuse questions in his classes. Artin and Nash had clashed a number of times in the

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common room. Artin was always interested in talking with talented students. Yet he apparently found Nash not only irritatingly brash but also shockingly ignorant. At a faculty meeting in the spring, Artin commented that he could see no way for Nash to pass his generals, which the better students were expected to take at the end of their first year. When Lefschetz proposed an Atomic Energy Commission fellowship for Nash for the following year, Artin opposed it and made it clear he thought it would be better if Nash left Princeton. Lefschetz and Tucker overruled Artin on the subject of the fellowship. But they dissuaded Nash from sitting for the generals that spring and suggested that he take them in the fall instead. He was safe for the time being, but his unpopularity among some faculty members was to crop up again when he sought, two years later, to join the department as

an assistant professor.

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Princeton, Spring 1949

JOHN

VON NEUMANN,

aka the Great Man behind his back, was threading his way through

the crowd, nattily dressed as always and daintily holding a cup

in one hand, a saucer in the

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other. I The students' common room was unusually crowded on this

late afternoon in spring. A large audience, from the Institute

and physics as well as math, had turned out for So and So's lecture and was lingering over tea. Von Neumann hovered for a

moment by two rather sloppily dressed graduate students who hunched over a peculiar-looking piece of cardboard. It was a

rhombus covered with hexagons. It looked like a bathroom floor.

The two young men were taking turns putting down black and white

go stones and had very nearly covered the entire board.

Von Neumann did not ask the students or anyone near him what game

they were playing and when Tucker caught his eye momentarily, he

averted his glance and quickly moved away. Later that evening, at

a faculty dinner, however, he buttonholed Tucker and asked, with

studied casualness, "Oh, by the way, what was it that they were

playing?" "Nash," answered Tucker, allowing the corners of his

mouth to turn up ever so slightly, "Nash."

Games were one of the charming European customs that the Germans

brought with them to Fine Hall in the 1930's. Since then one game

or another has

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always dominated the students' common room. Today it's backgammon, but in the late

1940's it was Kriegspiel, go, and, after it was invented by its

namesake, "Nash" or "John."

In Nash's first year, there was a small clique of go players led

by Ralph Fox, the genial topologist who had imported it after the

war. Fox, who was a passionate Ping-Pong player, had achieved

master status in go, not altogether surprising given his mathematical specialty. He was sufficiently expert to have been

invited to Japan to play go and to have once invited a well-known

Japanese master named Fukuda to play with him at Fine Hall.

Fukuda, who also played against Einstein and won, obliterated Fox

as completely to the delight of Nash and some of the other denizens of Fine Hall.

Kriegspiel, however, was the favorite game. A cousin of chess,

Kriegspiel was

a century-long fad in Prussia. William Poundstone, the author of

Prisoner Dilemma,

reports that Kriegspiel was devised as an educational game for

German military schools in the eighteenth century, originally

played on a board

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consisting of a map of the French-Belgian frontier divided into a

grid of thirty-six hundred squares. Von Neumann, growing up in

Budapest, played a version of Kriegspiel with his brothers.

They

drew castles, highways, and coastlines on graph paper, then

advanced and retreated armies according to a set of rules.

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Kriegspiel turned up in the United States after the Civil War,

but Poundstone quotes an army officer complaining that the game

"cannot readily and intelligently be pursued by anyone who is not

a mathematician." Poundstone compared it to learning a foreign

language. The version of Kriegspiel that surfaced in the common

room in the 1930's was played with three chessboards, of which

one—the only one that accurately showed the moves of both players

was visible only to the umpire. The players sat back to back

and were ignorant of each other's moves. The umpire told them

only whether the moves they made were legal or illegal and also

when a piece was taken.

A number of his fellow students remember thinking that Nash spent

all of his time at Princeton in the common room playing board

games. Nash, who had played chess in high school, played both

go

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and Kriegspiel, the latter frequently with Steenrod or Tukey.

He was by no means a brilliant player, but he was unusually aggressive. Games brought out Nash's natural competitiveness and

one-upmanship. He would stride into the common room, formerly

student recalls, where people were playing Kriegspiel, glance at

the boards, and say offhandedly but loudly enough for the players

to hear, "Oh, white really missed his opportunity when he didn't

take castle three moves ago." One time, a new graduate student was playing go. "He managed not just to overwhelm me

but to destroy me by pretending to have made a mistake and letting me

think I was catching him in an oversight." Hartley Rogers

recalled. "This is regarded by the Japanese as a very invidious way of cheating - hamate - poker-type bluffing. That was a lesson both in how much better he was and how much better an actor." That spring, Nash astounded everyone by inventing an extremely clever game that quickly took over the common room." Piet Hein, a Dane, had invented the game a few years before Nash, and it would be marketed by Parker Brothers in the mid-1950's as Hex. But Nash's invention of the game appears

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to have been entirely independent. One can imagine that von Neumann felt a twinge of envy on hearing Tucker tell him that the game he was watching had been dreamed up by a first-year graduate student from West Virginia. Many great mathematicians have amused themselves by thinking up games and puzzles, of course, but it is hard to think of a single one who has invented a game that other mathematicians find intellectually intriguing and esthetically appealing yet that nonmathematical people could enjoy

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playing. I I The inventors of games that people do play -- whether chess, Kriegspiel, or go come, of course, lost in the mists of time. Nash's game was his first bona fide invention and the first hard evidence of genius. The game would likely not have appeared in a physical

manifestation, in the Princeton common room or anywhere

A184

else, had it not been for another graduate student named David

Gale. Gale, a New Yorker who had spent the war in the MIT Radiation Lab, was one of the first men Nash met at the Graduate College.

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Gale, Kuhn, and Tucker ran the weekly game theory seminar. Now a

professor at Berkeley and the editor of a column on games and

puzzles in

The MddblegtheMdd76671;Intelligencer,

Gale is an aficionado of mathematical puzzles and games. Nash

knew of Gale's interest in such games since Gale was in the habit, during mealtimes at the Graduate College, of silently

laying down a handful of coins in a pattern or drawing a grid and

then abruptly challenging whoever was dining across the table to

solve some puzzle. (This is exactly what Gale did when he saw

Nash for the first time after a fifty-year hiatus at a small

dinner in San Francisco to celebrate Nash's Nobel award.

One morning in late winter 1949, Nash literally ran into the much

shorter, wiry Gale on the quadrangle inside the Graduate College.

"Gale! I have an example of a game with perfect information," he

blurted out. "There's no luck, just pure strategy. I can prove

that the first player always wins, but I have no idea what his

strategy will be. If the first player loses at this game, it's

because he's made a mistake, but nobody knows what

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the perfect strategy is."

Nash's description was somewhat elliptical, as most of his explanations were. He described the game not in terms of a

rhombus with hexagonal tiles, but as a checkerboard. "Assume that

two squares are adjacent if they are next to each other in a horizontal or vertical row, but also on the positive diagonalea"he saiddd"Then he described what the two players were trying to do. When Gale finally understood what Nash was trying to tell him, he was captivated. He immediately started to think about how to design an actual game board, something that had apparently never occurred to Nash, who had been toying with the idea of the game since his final year at Carnegie. "You could make it pretty, I thought." Gale, who came from a well-to-do business family, was artistic and a bit of a tinkerer. He also thought, and said as much to Nash, that the game might have some commercial potential. "So I made a board" said Gale. "People played it using go stones. I left it in Fine Hall. It was the mathematical idea that counted. What I did was just design. I acted as his agent." "Nash" or "John" is a beautiful example of a zero-sum two-person game with perfect information in

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which one player always has a winning strategy." Chess and tic-tac-toe are also zero-sum two-person games with perfect information but they can end in draws. "Nash" is really a topological game. As Milnor describes it, an

n by n"

A187

Nash board consists of a rhombus tiled with n hexagons on each side." The ideal size is fourteen by fourteen. Two opposite edges of the board are colored black, the other two white. The players use black and white go stones. They take turns placing stones on the hexagons, and once played the pieces are never moved. The black player tries to construct a connected chain of black stones from the black to black boundary. The white player tries to do the same with white stones from the white to white boundary.

The game continues until one or the other player succeeds. The game is entertaining because it is challenging and appealing because it involves no complex set of rules as does chess. Nash proved that, on a symmetrical board, the first player can always win, His proof is extremely

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deft, "marvelously nonconstructive" in the words of Milnor, who plays it very well. "If the board is covered by black and white pieces, there's always a chain that connects black to black or white to white, but never both. As Gale put it, "You can walk from Mexico to Canada or swim from California to New York, but you can't do both." That explains why there can never be a draw as in tic-tac-toe. But as opposed to tic-tac-toe, even if both players try to lose, one will win, like it or not. The game quickly swept the common

room.

It brought Nash many admirers, including the young John Milnor, who was beguiled by its ingenuity and beauty. Gale tried to sell the game. He said, "I even went to New York and showed it to

several manufacturers. John and I had some agreement that I'd get a share if it sold. But they all said no, a thinking game would never sell. It was a marvelous game though. I then sent it off to Parker Brothers, but I never got a response." "Gale is the one who suggested the name Hex in his letter to Parker Brothers, which Parker used for the Dane's game. (Kuhn remembers Nash describing the

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game to him, very likely over a meal at the college, in terms of points with six arrows emanating from each point, proof, in Kuhn's mind, that his invention was independent of Hein's.

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Kuhn made a board for his children, who played it with great

delight and saw to it that their children learned

it tood27

Milnor still has a board that he made for his childrend"His

poignant essay on Nash's mathematical contributions for the

MathematicalIntelliaencer,

written after Nash's Nobel Prize, begins with a loving and detailed description of the game. Princeton, 1948-49

JOHN

VON NEUMANN Was

the very brightest star in Princeton's mathematical firmament and

the apostle of the new mathematical era. At forty-five, he was

universally considered the most cosmopolitan, multifaceted, and

intelligent mathematician

the twentieth century had produced. No one was more

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responsible for the newly found importance of mathematics in America's intellectual elite.

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Less of a celebrity than Oppenheimer, not as remote as Einstein, as one biographer put it, von Neumann was the role model for

Nash's generation. He held a dozen consultancies, but his presence in Princeton was much felt. "We were all drawn by von

Neumann" Harold Kuhn recalled. Nash was to come under his

spell. Possibly the last true polymath, von Neumann made a brilliant career comhalf a dozen brilliant careers-by plunging

fearlessly and frequently into any area where highly abstract mathematical thought could provide fresh insights. His ideas

ranged from the first rigorous proof of the ergodic theorem to

ways of controlling the weather, from the implosion device for

the A-bomb to the theory of games, from a new algebra [of rings

of operators) for studying quantum physics to the notion of outfitting computers with stored programs. A giant among pure

mathematicians by the time he was thirty years old, he had become

in turn physicist, economist, weapons expert, and computer visionary. Of his 150 published papers, 60 are in pure mathematics, 20 in physics, and 60 in applied mathematics, including statistics and game theory. When he died in

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1957 of cancer at fifty-three, he was developing a theory of the

structure of the human brain.

Unlike the austere and otherworldly G. H. Hardy, the Cambridge

number theorist idolized by the previous generation of American

mathematicians, von Neumann was worldly and engaged. Hardy abhorred politics, considered applied mathematics repellent, and

saw pure mathematics as an esthetic pursuit best practiced f

or  
its own sake, like poetry or music<sup>9</sup> Von Neumann saw no  
contradiction between the purest mathematics and the grittie  
st  
engineering problems or between the role of the detached thi  
nker  
and the political activist.  
He was one of the first of those academic consultants who we  
re  
always on a train or plane bound for New York, Washington, o  
r Los  
Angeles, and whose names frequently appeared in the news. He  
gave  
up teaching when he went to the Institute  
in 1933 and gave up full-time research in 1955 to become a  
powerful member of the Atomic Energy Commission<sup>10</sup> "He was one  
of  
the people who told Americans how to think about the bomb an  
d the  
Russians, as well as how to think about the peaceful uses of  
atomic energy<sup>11</sup> "An alleged model for Dr.

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Strangelove in the 1963 Stanley Kubrick film," he was a  
passionate Cold Warrior, advocating a first strike against  
Russia<sup>12</sup> and defending nuclear testing<sup>13</sup> 14 Twice married and  
wealthy, he loved expensive clothes, hard liquor, fast cars,  
and  
dirty jokes." He was a workaholic, blunt and even cold at ti  
mes.  
16 Ultimately he was hard to know; the standing joke around  
Princeton was that von Neumann was really an extraterrestria  
l who  
had learned how to imitate a human perfectly." In public, th  
ough,  
von Neumann exuded Hungarian charm and wit. The parties he g  
ave

in his brick mansion on Princeton's fashionable Library  
A192

Place were "frequent and famous and long," according to Paul

Halmos, a mathematician who knew von Neumann. His rapid-fire

repartee in any of four languages was packed with references  
to

history, politics, and the stock market.

His memory was astounding and so was the speed with which his

mind worked. He could instantly memorize a column of phone  
numbers and virtually anything else. Stories of von Neumann's

beating computers in mammoth feats of calculation abound. Paul  
Halmos tells the story in an obituary of the first

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test of von Neumann's electronic computer. Someone suggested

a  
question like "What is the smallest power of 2 with the property

that its decimal digit fourth from the right is 7?" Z Halmos  
recounts, "The machine and Johnny started at the same time,

and  
Johnny finished first.

Another time somebody asked him to solve the famous fly puzzle:

"Two bicyclists start twenty miles apart and head toward each  
other, each going at a steady rate of 10 m.p.h. At the same

time, a fly that travels at a steady 15 m.p.h. starts from  
the

front wheel of the southbound bicycle and flies to the front  
wheel of the northbound one, then turns around and flies to

the  
front wheel of the southbound one again, and continues in this

manner till he is crushed between the two front wheels. Question:

what total distance did the fly cover?

There are two ways to answer the problem. One is to calculate the

distance the fly covers on each leg of its trips between the  
two

bicycles and finally sum the infinite series so obtained. The  
quick way is to observe that the bicycles meet exactly and

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after they start so that the fly had just an hour for his travels; the answer must therefore be 15 miles.

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When the question was put to von Neumann, he solved it in an instant, and thereby disappointed the questioner: "Oh, you must have heard the trick before!" "What trick?" asked von Neumann. "all I did was sum the infinite series."

This seems astounding until one learns that at six, von Neumann

could divide two eight-digit numbers in his head."

Born in Budapest to a family of Jewish bankers, von Neumann was

undeniably

John von Neumann

precocious. At age eight, he had mastered calculus. At age twelve, he was reading works aimed at professional mathematicians, such as Emile Borel's

Theorie des Fonctions,

But he also loved to invent mechanical toys and became a child

expert on Byzantine history, the Civil War, and the trial of Joan

of Arc. When it was time to go off to university, he agreed to

study chemical engineering as a compromise with his father, who

feared that his son couldn't make a living as a mathematician.

Von Neumann kept his bargain by enrolling at the University of

Budapest and promptly leaving for Berlin, where he spent his time

doing mathematics, including visiting lectures by Einstein,  
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and returning to Budapest at the end of every semester to take

examinations. He published his second mathematics paper, in which

he gave the modern definition of ordinal numbers which superseded

Cantor's, at age nineteen<sup>14</sup>By age twenty-five he had published

ten major papers; by age thirty, nearly three dozen."

As a student in Berlin, von Neumann frequently took the three-hour train trip to Gatingen, where he got to know Hilbert.

The relationship led to von Neumann's famous 1928 paper on the

axiomatization of set theory. Later he found the first mathematically rigorous proof of the ergodic theorem, solved

Hilbert's so-called Fifth Problem for compact groups, invented a

new algebra and a new field called "continuous geometry," which

is the geometry of dimensions that vary continuously (instead of

a fourth dimension, one could now speak of three and three-quarters dimension). He was also a leader in the drive

among mathematicians to colonize other disciplines by inventing

new approaches<sup>16</sup>Von Neumann was still in his twenties when he

wrote his famous paper on the theory of parlor games and his groundbreaking

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book on the mathematics of the new quantum physics, *Mathematische Grundlagen der Quantenmechanik*—the one Nash studied in the original German at Carnegie.

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Von Neumann was a privatdozent

first at Berlin and then at Hamburg. He became a half-time professor at Princeton in 1931 and joined the Institute for Advanced Study in 1933 at age thirty. When the war came, his

interests shifted once again. Halmos says that "till then he was

a top-flight pure mathematician who understood physics; after

that he was an applied mathematician who remembered his pure work." " During the war, he collaborated with Morgenstern on a twelv hundred-page manuscript that became The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior. He was also the top mathematician in Oppenheimer's Manhattan Project from 1943 onward. His contribution to the A-bomb was his proposal for an implosion method for triggering an

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explosion with nuclear fuel, an idea credited with shortening the time needed to develop the bomb by as much as a year. In 1948, he was back at the Institute and very much a presence in Princeton. He did not teach any courses, but he edited and held court at the IAS. He dropped in at Fine Hall teas from time to time. He and Oppenheimer were already deep into their great debate over whether the H-bomb, or the Super, as it was known, could and should be built." He was fascinated by meteorological prediction and control, suggesting once that the north and south poles be dyed blue in order to raise the earth's temperature. He not only showed the physicists, economists, and electrical engineers that formal mathematics could yield fresh breakthroughs in their fields but made the enterprise of applying mathematics to real-world disciplines seem glamorous to

the purest of young mathematicians.

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By the end of the war, von Neumann's real passion had become computers, though he called his interest in them "obscene."

While he did not build the first computer, his ideas about computer architecture were accepted, and he invented mathematical techniques

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needed for computers. He and his collaborators, who included the future scientific director of IBM, Hermann Goldstine, invented stored rather than hardwired programs, a prototype digital computer, and a system for weather prediction. The theoretically oriented Institute had no interest in building a computer, so von Neumann sold the idea to the Navy, arguing that the Normandy

invasion had almost failed because of poor weather predictions.

He promoted the MANIAC, as the machine was eventually named, as a device for improving meteorological prediction. More than anything, though, von Neumann was the one who saw the potential of these "thinking machines" most clearly, arguing in a speech in

Montreal in 1945 that "many branches of both pure and applied mathematics are in great need of computing instruments to break

the present stalemate created by the failure of the purely analytical approach to nonlinear problems."

Everything von Neumann touched was imbued with his glamour. By

wading fearlessly into fields far beyond mathematics, he inspired

other young geniuses, Nash among them, to do the same. His success in applying similar approaches to dissimilar problems

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was a green light for younger men who were problem solvers rather than specialists.

The invention of deliberately oversimplified theories is one

of  
the major techniques of science, particularly of the "exact"  
sciences, which make extensive use of mathematical analysis  
If a  
biophysicist can usefully employ simplified models of the  
cell and the cosmologist simplified models of the universe th  
en we  
can reasonably expect that simplified games may prove to be us  
eful  
models for more complicated conflicts. comJOHN WILLIAMS,  
The  
Complete Strategist

I  
FLASH BECAME AWARE OF  
a new branch of mathematics that was in the air of Fine Hall  
. It  
was an attempt, invented by von Neumann in the 1920's, to  
construct a systematic theory of rational human behavior by  
focusing on games as simple settings for the exercise of hum  
an  
rationality.  
The first edition of  
The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior by von Neumann and  
Oskar Morgenstern came out in

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1944.1 Tucker  
was running a popular new seminar in Fine on game theory. The  
he  
Navy, which had made use of the theory during the war in  
antisubmarine warfare, was pouring money into game theory  
research at Princeton. The pure mathematicians around the

department and at the Institute were inclined to view the  
A200

new branch of mathematics, with its social science and military  
orientation, as "trivial;" "just the latest fad" and  
"d6class6"  
"4

but to many of the students at Princeton at the time it was  
glamorous, heady stuff, like everything associated with von  
Neumann.

Kuhn and Gale were always talking about von Neumann and  
Morgenstern's book

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Nash attended a lecture by von Neumann, one of the first speakers

in Tucker's seminar. Nash was intrigued by the apparent wealth

of interesting, unsolved problems. He soon became one of the

regulars at the seminar that met Thursdays at five o'clock;  
before long he was identified as a member of "Tucker's clique."  
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Mathematicians have always found games intriguing. Just as games

of chance led to probability theory, poker and chess began to

interest mathematicians around G6menttingen, the Princeton office

time, in the 1920's. Von Neumann was the first to provide a

complete mathematical description of a game and to prove a  
fundamental result, the min-max theorem."

Von Neumann's 1928 paper,

Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, suggests that the theory  
of

games might have applications to economics: "Any event given  
the

external conditions and the participants in the situation  
(provided that the latter are acting of their own free will)

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may be regarded as a game of strategy if one looks at the effect

it has on the participants." adding, in a footnote, "[this]  
is

the principal problem of classical economics: how is the  
absolutely selfish 'homo economicus' going to act under given  
n

external circumstances." B the focal point of the theory-in  
von

Neumann's lectures and in discussions in mathematical circles during the 1930's-basically remained the exploration of parlor games like chess and poker<sup>12</sup> It was not until von Neumann met Morgenstern, a

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fellow fellow<sup>6</sup>, in Princeton in 1938 that the link to economics was forged." Morgenstern, a tall, imposing expatriate from Vienna who was given to Napoleonic airs, claimed to be the grandson of the Kaiser's father, Friedrich In of Germany<sup>14</sup> Tall, darkly handsome, "with cool gray eyes and a sensuous mouth," Morgic cut an elegant figure on horseback, and caused a sensation among his students by abruptly marrying a beautiful redhead named Dorothy, a volunteer for the World Federalists many years his junior.

" Born in Silesia, Germany, in 1902, Morgenstern grew up and was educated in Vienna in a period of great intellectual and artistic ferment<sup>16</sup> After a three-year fellowship abroad financed by the Rockefeller Foundation, he became a professor and, until the Anschluss, was head of an institute for business cycle research.

When Hitler marched into Vienna, Morgenstern happened to be visiting Princeton, and he decided it made sense to stay. He joined the university's economics faculty, but disliked most of

his American colleagues. He gravitated to the Institute,  
A202  
where Einstein, von Neumann, and Gödel were working at the time,  
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angling for, but never receiving, an appointment there. "There is  
a spark missing," he wrote disdainfully to a friend, referring to  
the University. "It is too provincial." Morgenstern was, by temperament, a critic.  
His first book, *Wirtschaftspropaganda* (Economic Prediction),  
was an attempt to prove that forecasting the ups and downs of the  
economy was a futile endeavor." One reviewer called it as  
disremarkable for its pessimism as it is for any ... theoretical  
innovation<sup>19</sup> Unlike those in astronomy, economic predictions  
have the peculiar ability to change outcomes." Predict a  
shortage, and businesses and consumers will react; the result is  
a glut.  
His larger theme was the failure of economic theory to take  
proper account of interdependence among economic actors. He saw  
interdependence as the salient feature of all economic decisions,  
and he was always criticizing other economists for ignoring it.<sup>20</sup> Robert Leonard, the historian, writes: "To some extent,  
his increasingly harsh views of economic theory were the product  
of  
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mathematicians' critical stance on the subject.<sup>21</sup> Von Neumann,  
he  
found, "focused on the black hole in the middle of economic  
theory."<sup>22</sup> As to one of von Neumann's biographers, Morgenstern  
"interested him in aspects of economic situations, specifically  
in problems of exchange of goods between two or more persons,  
in  
problems of  
The Theory of Games  
monopoly, oligopoly and free competition. It was in a discussion  
sion

of attempts to schematize mathematically such processes that the present shape of this theory began to take form. Morgenstern yearned to do "something in the truly scientific

spirit. He convinced von Neumann to write a treatise with him arguing that the theory of games was the correct foundation for all economic theory. Morgenstern, who had studied philosophy, not mathematics, could not contribute to the elaboration of the theory, but played muse and producer. Von Neumann wrote almost the whole twelve-hundred-page treatise, but it was Morgenstern who crafted the book's provocative introduction and framed the issues in such a way that the book captured the attention of the mathematical and

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economic community.

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The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior was in every way a revolutionary book. In line with Morgenstern's agenda, the book was "a blistering attack" on the prevailing paradigm in economics and the Olympian Keynesian perspective, in which individual incentives and individual behavior were often subsumed, as well as an attempt to ground the theory in individual psychology. It was also an effort to reform social

theory by applying mathematics as the language of

A205

scientific logic, in particular set theory and combinatorial

methods. The authors wrapped the new theory in the mantle of

past

scientific revolutions, implicitly comparing their treatise

to

Newton's

Principia

and the effort to put economics on a rigorous mathematical

footing-to Newton's mathematization, using his invention of

the

calculus, of physicsdd"One reviewer, Leo Hurwicz, wrote, "Te

n

more such books and the future of economics is assureddd019

The essence of von Neumann and Morgenstern's

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--206

message was that economics was a hopelessly unscientific  
discipline whose leading members were busily peddling soluti  
ons

to pressing problems of the day-such as stabilizing employme  
nt

comwithout the benefit of any scientific basis for their

proposals.`,, The fact that much of economic theory had been

dressed up in the language of calculus struck them as

"exaggerated" and a failuredd"Th was not, they said, because

of

the "human element"or because of poor measurement of economi

c

variablesdd"R, they claimed, "Economic problems are not

formulated clearly and are often stated in such vague terms

as to

make mathematical

treatment q priori appear

hopeless because it is quite uncertain what the problems rea  
lly

are." "

Instead of pretending that they had the expertise to solve u  
rgent

social problems, economists should devote themselves to "the

gradual development of a theorydd014 The authors argued that

a

new theory of games was "the proper instrument with which to

develop a theory of economic behavior.0"The authors claimed

that

"the typical problems of economic behavior become strictly

identical with the mathematical notions of suitable games of

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--207

strategy."

16

Under the heading "necessary limitations of the objectivesea  
"von

Neumann and Morgenstern admitted that their efforts to apply  
the

new theory to economic problems had led them to "results tha  
t are

already fairly well known," but defended themselves by  
contending that exact proofs for many well-known economic  
propositions had been lacking."

Before they have been given the respective proofs, theory si  
mply

does not exist as a scientific theory. The movements of the  
planets were known long before their courses had been calcul  
ated

and explained by Newton's theory...

We believe that it is necessary to know as much as possible  
about

the behavior of the individual and about the simplest forms  
of

exchange. This standpoint was actually adopted with remarkab  
le

success by the founders of the marginal utility school, but  
nevertheless it is not generally accepted. Economists freque  
ntly

point to much larger, more burning questions and brush every  
thing

aside which prevents them from making statements about them.

The

experience of more advanced sciences, for example, physics,

indicates this impatience merely  
A207

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--208

delays progress, including the treatment of the burning questions.

When the book appeared in 1944,

von Neumann's reputation was at its peak. It got the kind of

public attention comincluding a breathless front-page story in

The New York Times-that

no other densely mathematical work had ever received, with the

exception of Einstein's papers on the special and general theories of relativity." Within two or three years, a dozen

reviews appeared by top mathematicians and economistsdd39

The timing, as Morgenstern had sensed, was perfect. The war had

unleashed a search for systematic attacks on all sorts of problems in a wide variety of fields, especially economics, previously thought to be institutional and historical in character. Quite apart from the new theory of games, a major

transformation was under way comled by Samuelson's

Foundations of Economic Theory-

making economic theory more rigorous through the use of calculus

and advanced statistical methodsdd40 Von Neumann was critical of

these efforts, but

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--209

they surely prepared the ground for the reception of game theorydd41

Economists were actually somewhat standoffish, at least compared

to mathematicians, but Morgenstern's antagonism to the economics

profession no doubt contributed to that reaction. Samuelson later

complained to Leonard, the historian, that although Morgenstern

made "great claims, he himself lacked the mathematical

wherewithal to substantiate them. Moreover [Morgenstern] had the

irksome habit of always invoking the authority of some physical

scientist or anotherdd041 In Princeton, Jacob Viner, the cha

irman

of the economics department, heaped scorn on the unpopular Morgenstern by saying that if game theory couldn't even solve a

game like chess, what good was it, since economics was far more

complicated than

chess"41

It must have become obvious to Nash fairly early on that "the

bible"z

The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior

was known to students, though mathematically innovative,

contained no fundamental new theorems beyond von Neumann's

stunning min-max theorem.- He reasoned that von Neumann had

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The Theory of Games

87

succeeded neither in solving a major outstanding problem in economics using the new theory nor in making any major advance in

the theory itself.4ful Not a single one of its applications to

economics did more than restate problems that economists had

already grappled with.46 More important, the best-developed part

of the theory comwh took up one-third of the book comcccerne  
d

zero-sum two-person games, which, because they are games  
A210

of total conflict, appeared to have little applicability in  
social science

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Von Neumann's theory of games of more than two players, another

large chunk of the book, was incomplete. He couldn't prove

that a solution existed for all such games. The last eighty

pages of

The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior dealt with non-zero-sum

games, but von Neumann's theory reduced such games formally to

zero-sum games by introducing a fictitious player who consumes

the excess or makes up the deficit. As one commentator was

later to write, "This artifice helped but did not suffice for a

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--211

completely adequate treatment of the non-zero-sum case. This is

unfortunate because such games are the most likely to be found

useful in practice."

To an ambitious young mathematician like Nash, the gaps and flaws

in von Neumann's theory were as alluring as the puzzling absence

of ether through which light waves were supposed to travel as to

the young Einstein. Nash immediately began thinking about the

problem that von Neumann and Morgenstern described as the

most important test of the new theory. Princeton, Spring 1949

We hope however to obtain a real understanding of the problem of

exchange by studying it from an altogether different angle; that

is, from the perspective of a game of chance. Von Neumann and Morgenstern,

The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, second edition, 1947

ASH WROTE HIS FIRST PAPER, one of the great classics of modern

economics, during his second term at Princeton. ` "The Bargaining Problem" is a remarkably down-to-earth work for a mathematician, especially a young mathematician.

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Yet no one but a brilliant mathematician could have conceived the idea. In the paper, Nash, whose economics training consisted of a single undergraduate course taken at Carnegie, adopted "an altogether different angle" on one of the oldest problems in economics and proposed a completely surprising solution. By so doing, he showed that behavior that economists had long considered part of human psychology, and therefore beyond the reach of economic reasoning, was, in fact, amenable to systematic analysis.

The idea of exchange, the basis of economics, is nearly as old as man, and deal-making has been the stuff of legend since the Levantine kings and the pharaohs traded gold and chariots for weapons and slaves. ` Despite the rise of the great impersonal capitalist marketplace, with its millions of buyers and sellers who never meet face-to-face, the one-on-one bargain involving wealthy individuals, powerful governments, labor unions, or giant corporations dominates the headlines, But two centuries after the publication of Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*, there were still no principles of economics that could

tell one how the parties to a potential bargain would

213

interact, or how they would split up the pie

The economist who first posed the problem of the bargain was a

reclusive Oxford don, Francis Ysidro Edgeworth, in 1881.<sup>1</sup>

Edgeworth and several of his Victorian contemporaries were the

first to abandon the historical and philosophical tradition of

Smith, Ricardo, and Marx and to attempt to replace it with the

mathematical

tradition of physics, writes Robert Heilbroner in *The Worldly Philosophers*<sup>6</sup>

Edgeworth was not fascinated with economics because it justified

or explained or condemned the world, or because it opened new

vistas, bright or gloomy, into the future. This odd soul was

fascinated by economics because economics dealt with

quantities

and because anything that dealt with quantities could be translated into

mathematics<sup>1</sup>

Edgeworth thought of people as so many profit-and-loss

calculators and recognized that the world of perfect competition

had "certain properties peculiarly

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--214

favorable to mathematical calculation; namely a certain indefinite multiplicity and dividedness, analogous to that infinity and infinitesimality which facilitate so large a portion

of Mathematical Physics ... (consider the theory of Atoms, and

all applications of the Differential Calculus)."

The weak link in his creation, as Edgeworth was uncomfortably

aware, was that people simply did not behave in a purely competitive fashion. Rather, they did not behave this way all the

time. True, they acted on their own. But, equally often, they

collaborated, cooperated, struck deals, evidently also out of

self-interest. They joined trade unions, they formed governments,

they established large enterprises and cartels. His mathematical

ical

models captured the results of competition, but the consequences

of cooperation proved elusive

Is it peace or war? asks the lover of "Maud" of economic competition, It is both, pax or pact between contractors during

contract, war, when some of the contractors without consent of others contract.

The first principle of Economics is that every agent is actuated

only by self-interest. The workings of this

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--215

principle may be viewed under two aspects, according as the agent

acts without, or with, the consent of others affected by his

actions. In a wide sense, the first species of action may be

called war; the second contract.

Obviously, parties to a bargain were acting on the expectation

that cooperation would yield more than acting alone. Somehow, the

parties reached an agreement to share the pie. How they would

split it depended on bargaining power, but on that score economic

theory had nothing to say and there was no way of finding one

solution in the haystack of possible solutions that met this

rather broad criterion. Edgeworth admitted defeat: "The general

answer is -- (a) Contract without competition is

A215

indeterminatedd010

Over the next century, a half-dozen great economists, including

the Englishmen John Hicks and Alfred Marshall and the Dane F

Zeuthen, took up Edgeworth's problem, but they, too, ended up

throwing up their handsdd"Von Neumann and Morgenstern suggested

that the answer lay in reformulating the problem as a game of

strategy, but they themselves did not succeed in solving it.

"

Nash took a completely novel approach to the

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problem of predicting how two rational bargainers will interact.

Instead of defining a solution directly, he started by writing

down a set of reasonable conditions that any plausible solution

would have to satisfy and then looked at where they took him

This is called the axiomatic approach -- a method that had swept

mathematics in the 1920's, was used by von Neumann in his book on

quantum theory and his papers on set theory, and was in its heyday at Princeton in the late 1940'sdd11 Nash's paper is one of

the first to apply the axiomatic method to a problem in the social sciencesdd14

Recall that Edgeworth had called the problem of the bargain "indeterminatedd"

In other words, if all one knew about the bargainers were their preferences, one couldn't predict how they

would interact or how they would divide the pie. The reason for

the indeterminacy would have been obvious to Nash. There wasn't

enough information so one had to make additional assumptions

Nash's theory assumes that both sides' expectations about each

other's behavior are based on the intrinsic features of the bargaining situation itself. The essence of a situation that

results in a deal is "two individuals who have the opportuni

ty

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--217

to collaborate for mutual benefit in more than one way.0 "How they will split the gain, he reasoned, reflects how much the deal is worth to each individual.

He started by asking the question, Vs/bat reasonable conditions would any solution comany split comh to satisfy? He then posed four conditions and, using an ingenious mathematical argument, showed that, if his axioms held, a unique solution existed that maximized the product of the players' utilities. In a sense, his contribution was not so much to "solve" the problem as to state it in a simple and precise way so as to show that unique solutions were possible.

The striking feature of Nash's paper is not its difficulty, or its depth, or even its elegance and generality, but rather that it provides an answer to an important problem. Reading Nash's paper today, one is struck most by its originality. The ideas seem to come out of the blue. There is some basis for this impression. Nash arrived at his essential idea-the notion that the bargain depended on a combination of the negotiators' back-up alternatives and the potential benefits of striking a deal comz an undergraduate at Carnegie Tech before he came

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--218

to Princeton, before he started attending Tucker's game theory seminar, and before. he had read von Neumann and Morgenstern's

book. It occurred to him while he was sitting in the only  
A218

economics course he would ever attend.

16

The course, on international trade, was taught by a clever and

young Viennese

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in his thirties named Bert Hoselitz. Hoselitz, who emphasized

theory in his course, had degrees in law and economics, the latter from the University of Chicago. "International agreements

between governments and between monopolies had dominated trade,

especially in commodities, between the wars, and Hoselitz

was an expert on the subject of international cartels and

traded. "Nash took the course in his final semester, in the spring

of 1948, simply to fulfill degree requirements. 19 As always

though, the big, unsolved problem was the bait.

That problem concerned trade deals between countries with separate currencies, as he told Roger Myerson, a game theorist at

Northwestern University, in

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--219

1996.11 One of Nash's axioms, if applied in an international

trade context, asserts that the outcome of the bargain shouldn't

change if one country revalued its currency. Once at Princeton,

Nash would have quickly learned about von Neumann and

Morgenstern's theory and recognized that the arguments that he'd

thought of in Hoselitz's class had a much wider applicability."

Very likely Nash sketched his ideas for a bargaining solution in

Tucker's seminar and was urged by Oskar Morgenstern -- whom Nash

invariably referred to as Oskar La Morgue -- to write a paper."

Legend, possibly encouraged by Nash himself, soon had it that

he'd written the whole paper in Hoselitz's class commuch as Milnor solved the Borsuk problem in knot theory as a homework

k

assignment comand that he had arrived at Princeton with the

bargaining paper tucked into his briefcase" Nash has since corrected the record

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But when the paper was published in 1950, in *Econometrica*, the leading journal of mathematical economics, Nash was careful

to retain full credit for the ideas:

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--220

"The author wishes to acknowledge the assistance of Professors von Neumann and Morgenstern who read the original form of the paper and gave helpful advice as to the presentation."

15

And in his Nobel autobiography, Nash makes it clear that it was his interest in the bargaining problem that brought him into

contact with the game theory group at Princeton, not the other

way around: "as a result of that exposure to economic ideas and

problems I arrived at the idea that led to the paper `The Bargaining Problem` which was later published in *Econometrica*.

And it was this idea which in turn, when I was a graduate student

at Princeton,

led to my interest in the game theory studies there." 16

Nash's Rival Idea

Princeton, 1949-50

1 was playings non-cooperative game in rebtion to von  
A220

Neumann rather than  
simply seeking to join his coalition. comJOHN F NA-SH, JR.,  
1993

IN  
THE SUMMER OF

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--221

1949, Albert Tucker caught the mumps from one of his childre  
n.`

He had planned to be in Palo Alto, California, where he was  
to  
spend his sabbatical year, by the end of August. Instead, he  
was

in his office at Fine, gathering up some books and papers, w  
hen

Nash walked in to ask whether Tucker would be willing to  
supervise his thesis.

Nash's request caught him by surprise.` Tucker had liffle di  
rect

contact with Nash during the latter's first year and had bee  
n

under the impression that he would probably write a thesis w  
ith

Steenrod. But Nash, who offered no real explanation, told Tu  
cker

only that he thought he had found some "good results related  
to

game theory." Tucker, who was still feeling out of sorts and

eager to get home, agreed to become his adviser only because  
he

was sure that Nash would still be in the early stages of his

research by the time he returned to Princeton the following  
summer.

Six weeks later, Nash and another student were buying beers  
for a

crowd of graduate students and professors in the bar in the  
basement of the Nassau Inn-z tradition demanded of men who h  
ad

just passed their generals.` The mathematicians were growing  
more

boisterous and drunken by the minute. A limerick

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--222

competition was in full swing. The object was to invent the  
cleverest, dirtiest rhyme a`0

a member of the Princeton mathematics department, preferably

about one of these present, and shout it out at the top  
of  
one's lungs. At one point, a shaggy student  
aptly named Macbeath jumped to his feet, beer bottle in hand  
, and  
began to build out stanza after stanza of a popular and sala-  
cious  
drinking song, with the others chiming in for the chorus: "I  
put  
my hand upon her breast. She said, 'Young man, I like that  
best.'"  
Chorus) Gosh, gore, blimey, how ashamed I was."  
That night, with its quaint, masculine rite of passage, marked  
the effective end of Nash's years as a student. He had been  
trapped in Princeton for an entire  
hot and sticky summer, forced to put aside the interesting  
problems he had been thinking about, to cram for the general

examination

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Luckily, Lefschetz had appointed a friendly trio of examiners:

Church, Steenrod, and a visiting professor from Stanford, Donald

Spencer. The whole nerve-racking event had gone

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--223

rather well.

Many mathematicians, most famously the French genius Henri Poincaré, have testified to the value of leaving a partially

solved problem alone for a while and letting the unconscious work

behind the scenes. In an oft-quoted passage from a

1908 essay about the genesis of mathematical discovery,  
A223

Poincaré writes: I

For fifteen days I struggled to prove that no functions anal-  
ogous

to those I have since called Fuchsian functions could exist.

I

was then very ignorant. Every day I sat down at my work tabl-  
e

where I spent an hour or two; I tried a great number of  
combinations and arrived at no result.... I then left Caen w-  
here

I was living at the time, to participate in a geological tri-  
p

sponsored by the School of Mines. The exigencies of travel m-  
ade

me forget my mathematical labors; reaching Coutances we took  
a

bus for some excursion or another. The instant I put my foot  
on

the step the idea came to me, apparently with nothing whatev-  
er in

my previous thoughts having prepared me for it. Nash's

"wasted" summer, with its enforced break from his research, p-  
roved

unexpectedly fruitful, allowing several vague hunches from t-  
he

spring to crystallize

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--224

and mature. That October, he started to experience a virtual

storm of ideas. Among them was his brilliant insight into hu-  
man

behavior: the Nash equilibrium.

Nash went to see von Neumann a few days after he passed his  
general's exam. He wanted, he had told the secretary cockily, to

discuss an idea that might be of interest to Professor von  
Neumann. It was a rather audacious thing for a graduate stud-  
ent

to do." Von Neumann was a public figure, had very little co-  
ntact

with Princeton graduate students outside of occasional lectu-  
res,

and generally discouraged them from seeking him out with the  
ir

research problems. But it was typical of Nash, who had gone  
to

see Einstein the year before with the germ of an idea.

Von Neumann was sitting at an enormous desk, looking more li-

ke a prosperous bank president than an academic in his expensive three-piece suit, silk tie, and jaunty pocket handkerchief. "He had the preoccupied air of a busy executive. At the time, he was holding a dozen consultancies, "arguing the case off Robert Oppenheimer" over the development of the H-bomb, and overseeing the construction and programming of two

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--225

prototype computers." He gestured Nash to sit down. He knew who Nash was, of course, but seemed a bit puzzled by his visit. He listened carefully, with his head cocked slightly to one side and his fingers tapping. Nash started to describe the proof he had in mind for an equilibrium in games of more than two players. But before he had gotten out more than a few disjointed sentences, von Neumann

interrupted, jumped ahead to the yet unstated conclusion of Nash's argument, and said abruptly, "That's trivial, you know.

That's just a fixed point theorem."

It is not altogether surprising that the two geniuses should clash. They came at game theory from two opposing views of the way people interact. Von Neumann, who had come of age in European discussions and collaborated on the bomb and computers, thought of people as social beings who were always communicating. It was quite natural for him to emphasize the central importance of coalitions and joint action in society. Nash tended to think

of people as out of touch with one another and acting on  
A225

their own. For him, a perspective founded on the ways that people  
react to individual incentives seemed far more natural.

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--226

Von Neumann's rejection of Nash's bid for attention and approval  
must have hurt, however, and one guesses that it was even more  
painful than Einstein's earlier but kinder dismissal. He never

approached von Neumann again. Nash later rationalized von  
Neumann's reaction as the naturally defensive posture of an  
established thinker to a younger rival's idea, a view that may

say more about what was in Nash's mind when he approached von  
Neumann than about the older man. Nash was certainly conscious

that he was implicitly challenging von Neumann. Nash noted in  
his Nobel autobiography that his ideas

deviated somewhat from the von Neumann and Morgenstern lines  
of

von Neumann and Morgenstern book. "I  
his

Valleius, the Roman philosopher, was the first to offer a theory  
for why geniuses often appeared, not as lonely giants, but in

clusters in particular fields in particular cities. He was  
thinking of Plato and Aristotle, Pythagoras and Archimedes,

and  
Aeschylus, Euripides, Sophocles, and Aristophanes, but there  
are

many later examples as well, including Newton and  
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Locke, or Freud, Jung, and Adler. He speculated that creative  
geniuses inspired envy as well as emulation and attracted younger

men who were motivated to complete and recast the original  
contribution."

In a letter to Robert Leonard, Nash wrote a further twist: "I  
was

playing a non-cooperative game in relation to von Neumann rather  
than simply seeking to join his coalition. And of course, it

was  
psychologically natural for him not to be entirely pleased by a  
rival theoretical approach."

16

In his opinion, von Neumann never behaved unfairly. Nash compares  
himself to a young physicist who challenged Einstein, noting  
that

Einstein was initially critical of Kaluza's five-dimensional  
unified theory of gravitational and electric fields but later

supported its publication. "Nash, so often oblivious to the  
feelings and motivations of other people, was quick, in this

case, to pick up on certain emotional undercurrents, especially

envy and jealousy. In a way, he saw rejection as the price genius

must pay.

A few days after the disastrous meeting with von Neumann, Nash

accosted

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David Gale. "I think I've found a way to generalize von Neumann's

min-max theorem," he blurted out. "The fundamental idea is that

in a two-person zero-sum solution, the best strategy for both is

... The whole theory is built on it. And it works with any number

of people and doesn't have to be a zero-sum game." Gale recalls

Nash's saying, "I'd call this an equilibrium point." The idea of

equilibrium is that it is a natural resting point that tends to

persist. Unlike von Neumann, Gale saw Nash's point. "Hmm," he

said, "that's quite a thesis" Gale realized that Nash's  
A228  
idea applied to a far broader class of real-world situations  
than  
von Neumann's notion of zero-sum games. "He had a concept th  
at  
generalized to disarmamentea" Gale said later. But Gale was l  
ess  
entranced by the possible applications of Nash's idea than i  
ts  
elegance and generality. "The mathematics was so beautiful.  
It  
was so right mathematically."  
Once again, Gale acted as Nash's agent. "I said this is a gr  
eat  
resultea" Gale recalled. "This should get priority." He told  
Nash  
that he was sure that Nash had a brilliant thesis in hand. B  
ut he  
also urged Nash to take credit for the result right

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--229

away before someone else came up with a similar idea. Gale  
suggested asking a member of the National Academy of Science  
s to  
submit the proof to the academy's monthly proceedings. "He w  
as  
spacey. He would never have thought of doing thatea" Gale sai  
d  
recently, "so he gave me his proof and I drafted the NAS  
notedd" Lefschetz submitted the note immediately and it appea  
red  
in the November proceedingsdd19 Gale added later, "I certain  
ly  
knew right away that it was a thesis. I didn't know it was a

Nobeldd010

Almost fifty years later, two months before his death, Tucke  
r  
could not recall getting Nash's first draft of the thesis, w  
hich  
Nash mailed to him at Stanford, or his own reaction on readi  
ng  
it, other than being surprised that Nash had produced a resu  
lt so  
quickly. He was certain, however, that he had not been bowle  
d  
over. He said: "Whether or not this was of any interest to  
economists wasn't known." Nash used to say that Tucker was  
"a  
machineea" implying that Tucker was methodical but

unimaginative" B, in fact, Nash was quite astute to have chosen him as an adviser. Tucker, a Canadian, Methodist notwithstanding, possessed a rare willingness to defend

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unconventional ideas and individuals. A truly fine teacher, he firmly believed that students should choose research topics they felt passionate about, not ones they merely believed would appeal to their professors. A few years later, it was Tucker who convinced another young, offbeat genius who would go on to become one of the fathers of artificial intelligence, Marvin L. Minsky, to drop the mainstream but boring mathematics problem he had

chosen as a thesis topic and instead to write on his real passion, the structure of the brain. Tucker always claimed that he did little more than sign off on Nash's slender, twenty-seven-page dissertation. "There was no essential role played by me," Tucker said -- but he encouraged Nash to get it out quickly and defended its merits within the department. Kuhn, who was close to Tucker at the time, later recalled: "The thesis itself was completed and submitted after the persistent urging and counsel of Professor Tucker. John always wanted to add more material, and Tucker had the wisdom to say, 'Get the results out early!' " I I Tucker responded to Nash's first draft by demanding

that Nash include a concrete example of his equilibrium

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idea. He also suggested a number of changes in Nash's presentation. "I urged him to deal with a particular case rather

than only a general case," Tucker said. The recommendation, to

his mind, was largely esthetic. "When you deal with the general

case you have to deal with sophisticated notation that is very

hard to read," he said. Nash responded with a prolonged silence

that was in fact a measure of his fury. "He reacted unfavorably,

largely by expressing nothing. I didn't hear from him again for a

long time," Tucker recalled.

Nash was actually considering dropping the thesis with Tucker and

pursuing another topic, an ambitious problem in algebraic geometry, with Steenrod instead.

He chose to interpret Tucker's demands for revisions—along with von Neumann's coldly

dismissive reaction—as signs that the department would not accept

his work on game theory for a dissertation. However, Tucker, who

could be surprisingly forceful, eventually convinced Nash to

stick with his original conception and to make the requested

changes. "Nash had an answer for everything," he said. "You couldn't catch him out in a

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mathematical fault." A May 10 letter to Lefschetz reads: "It is

not necessary that I see the revised draft, for he has kept me

informed (almost daily) of the progress of the revision." Tucker

adds, "I was delighted to notice a pleasant change of attitude in

Nash during the course of our long correspondence on his work. He

became much more cooperative and appreciative towards the end. I

wrote to him like a Dutch uncle, but I suspect you or someone

else at the Princeton end had some influence in effecting th

e

changedd011

The entire edifice of game theory rests on two theorems: von

Neumann's min-max theorem of 1928 and Nash's equilibrium theorem

of 1950.<sup>11</sup> One can think of Nash's theorem as a generalization of

von Neumann's, as Nash did, but also as a radical departure.

Von

Neumann's theorem was the cornerstone of his theory of games of

pure opposition, so-called two-person zero-sum games. But

two-person zero-sum games have virtually no relevance to the real

world.<sup>14</sup> Even in war there is almost always something to be

gained from cooperation. Nash introduced the distinction between

cooperative and noncooperative games." Cooperative games are

games in which players can

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--233

make enforceable agreements with other players. In other words,

as a group they can fully commit themselves to specific strategies. In contrast, in a noncooperative game, such

collective commitment is impossible. There are no enforceable

agreements. By broadening the theory to include games that

involved a mix of cooperation and competition, Nash succeeded in

opening the door to applications of game theory to economics,

political science, sociology, and, ultimately, evolutionary

biology.<sup>16</sup> Although Nash used the same strategic form as von Neumann had

proposed, his approach is radically different. More than half of

the von Neumann and

Morgenstern book deals with cooperative theory. In

A233

addition, von Neumann and Morgenstern's solution concept  
comsomething called a stable set comdoes not exist for every

game. By contrast, Nash proved on page six of his thesis tha  
t

every noncooperative game with any number of players has at  
least

one Nash equilibrium point.

To understand the beauty of Nash's result, write Avinash Dix  
it

and Barry Nalebuff in  
Thinking Strategical]

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lv, one begins with the notion that interdependence is the  
distinguishing feature of games of strategyddl7 The outcome  
of a

game for one player depends on what all the other players ch  
oose

to do and vice versa. Games like tic-tac-toe and chess invol  
ve

one kind of interdependence. The players move in sequence, e  
ach

aware of the other's moves. The principle for a player in a  
sequential-move game is to look ahead and reason back. Each  
player tries to figure out how the other players will respon  
d to

his current move, how he will respond in turn, and so forth.

The

player anticipates where his initial decision will ultimatel  
y

lead and uses the information to make his current best choic  
e. In

principle, any game that ends after a finite sequence of mov  
es

can be solved completely. The player's best strategy can be  
determined by looking ahead to every possible outcome. For c  
hess,

in contrast to tic-tac-toe, the calculations are  
too complex for the

human brain-or even for computer programs written by humans.

Players look a few moves ahead and try to evaluate the resul  
tant

positions on the basis of experience.

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Games like poker, on the other hand, involve simultaneous mo  
ves.

"In contrast to the linear chain of reasoning for sequential games, a game with simultaneous moves involves a logical circle." write Dixit and Nalebuff. "Although players act at the same time, in ignorance of other players' current actions, each is forced to think about the fact that there are other players who in turn are similarly aware." "Poker is an example of, 'I think he thinks that I think that he thinks that I think. . . Each must figuratively put himself in the shoes of all and try to calculate the outcome. His own best action is an integral part of the calculation." Such circular reasoning would seem to have no conclusion. Nash squared the circle using a concept of equilibrium whereby each player picks his best response to what the others do. Players look for a set of choices such that each person's strategy is best for him when all others are playing their best strategies. Sometimes one person's best choice is the same no matter what the others do. That is called a dominant strategy for that player. At other times, one player has a uniformly bad choice -- a -----  
--236  
dominated strategy -- in the sense that some other choice is best for him irrespective of what the others do. The search for equilibrium should begin by looking for dominant strategies and eliminating dominated ones. But these are special and relatively

rare cases. In most games each player's best choice does

A236

depend on what the others do, and one must turn to Nash's construct. Nash defined equilibrium as a situation in which no

player could improve his or her position by choosing an alternative available strategy, without implying that each person's privately held best choice will lead to a collectively

optimal result. He proved that for a certain very broad class of

games of any number of players, at least one equilibrium exists

as long as one allows mixed strategies. But some

98 A BEAUTIFUL MIND

games have many equilibria and others, relatively rare ones that

fall outside the

class

he defined, may have none.

Today, Nash's concept of equilibrium from strategic games is one

of the basic paradigms in social sciences and biologydd19 It is

largely

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--237

the success of his vision that has been responsible for the acceptance of game theory as, in the words of

The New Yorker,

"a powerful and elegant method of tackling a subject that had

become increasingly baroque, much as Newtonian methods of celestial mechanics had displaced the primitive and increasingly

ad hoc

methods of the ancients." Like many great scientific ideas

, from Newton's theory of gravitation to Darwin's theory of natural

selection, Nash's idea seemed initially too simple to be truly

interesting, too narrow to be widely applicable, and, later on,

so obvious that its discovery by someone

was deemed all but inevitabledd41 As Reinhard Selten, the German

economist who shared

the 1994

Nobel with Nash and John C. Harsanyi, said: "Nobody would ha

ve  
foretold the great impact of the Nash equilibrium on economi  
cs  
and social science in general. It was even less expected tha  
t  
Nash's equilibrium point concept would ever have

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--238

any significance for biological theory. 1141  
Its significance was not immediately recognized, not even by  
the  
brash twenty-one-year-old author himself, and certainly not  
by  
the genius who inspired Nash, von Neumann<sup>43</sup>  
Lloyd  
Princeton, 1950  
All mathematicians live in two different worlds. They live i  
n a  
crystalline world of perfect platonic forms An ice palace But  
they  
also live in the common world where things are transient,  
ambiguous, subject to vicissitudes. Mathematicians go backwa  
rd  
and forward from one world to another. They-<sup>e</sup> ddults in the  
crystalline world, Jufmts in the real one. -- 5  
CAPPELL,  
Courant Institute of Mathematics, 1996  
AT

TWENTY-ONE,

A238

Nash the mathematical genius had emerged and connected with the larger community of mathematicians around him, but Nash the man remained largely hidden behind a wall of detached eccentricity. He was quite popular with his professors, but utterly out of touch with his

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--239

peers. His interactions with most of the men his own age seemed motivated by an aggressive competitiveness and the most cold considerations of self-interest. His fellow students believed that Nash had felt nothing remotely resembling love, friendship, or real sympathy, but as far as they were able to judge, Nash was perfectly at home in this and state of emotional isolation. This was not the case, however. Nash, like all human beings, wanted to be close to someone, and at the beginning of his second year at Princeton he had finally found what he was looking for. The friendship with Lloyd Shapley, an older student, was the first of a series of emotional attachments Nash formed to other men, mostly brilliant mathematical rivals, usually younger. These relationships, which usually began with mutual admiration and intense intellectual exchange, soon became one-sided and typically ended in rejection. The relationship with Shapley foundered within a year, although Nash never completely lost touch with him over the decades to follow, though through his long illness and after he began to recover, when he and Shapley became direct competitors for the Nobel Prize. When he first moved into the Graduate College a

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few doors down from Nash in the fall of 1949, Lloyd Shapley

had just turned twenty-six, five years and eleven days older than Nash. No one could have presented a stronger contrast with the childish, boorish, handsome, and uninhibited boy wonder from West Virginia. Born and bred in Cambridge, Massachusetts, Shapley was one of five children of one of the most famous and revered scientists in America, the Harvard astronomer Harlow Shapley. The senior Shapley was a public figure known to every educated household, and also one of the most politically active. In 1950, he was accorded the dubious honor of being the first prominent scientist to appear on the earliest of Senator Joseph McCarthy's famous lists of crypto-communists. Lloyd Shapley was a war hero. He was drafted in 1943. He refused an offer to become an officer. That same year, as a sergeant in the Army Air Corps in Sheng-Du, China, Shapley got a Bronze Star for breaking the Japanese weather code. In 1945, he went back to Harvard, where he had begun to study mathematics before he was drafted, and finished his

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B.A. in mathematics in 1948.

When Shapley showed up at Princeton, von Neumann already considered him the brightest young star in game theory research.

Shapley had spent the year after graduating from Harvard at the

RAND Corporation, a think tank in Santa Monica that was attempting to use game theory applications to solve military

problems, and came to Princeton while technically on leave  
A241  
from RAND. He was immediately recognized as brilliant and quite  
sophisticated in his thinking. One contemporary remembers that he  
"talked good math, knew a lot of double crostics from The New York  
Times  
without using a pencil.` He was a fiercely competitive and highly  
accomplished player of Kriegspiell and go. "Everybody knew that  
his game was strictly his own" said another fellow student,  
"He  
went out of his way to find nonstandard moves. No one was going  
to anticipate them" He was also well read. He played the piano  
beautifully, His manner suggested an acute awareness of pedigree and prospects. When Lefschetz wrote him a letter telling  
him of a very

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generous grant if he came to Princeton, for example, Shapley  
replied loftily and with a hint of disdain, "Dear Lefschetz,  
The  
arrangements are satisfactory. Go ahead with the formalities  
Shapley was by no means as self-confident as his imperious note  
to Lefschetz implied. His appearance can only be described as  
rather strange. Tall, dark, and so thin that his clothing hung  
from him like a scarecrow's, Shapley reminded one young woman of  
a giant insect; another contemporary says he looked like a horse" His normally gentle demeanor and ironic banter hid a  
violent temper and a harshly self-critical streak." When  
challenged in some unexpected fashion, he could become  
hysterical, literally vibrating and shaking with fury" His  
perfectionism, which would later prevent him from publishing  
a  
large portion of his research, was extreme." He was, moreover

r,  
acutely self-conscious about being a few years older than some of  
the brilliant young men around the Princeton mathematics  
departmentdd16  
Nash was one of the first students Shapley met at the Graduate  
College. For a time, they shared a bathroom. Both of them  
attended Tucker's game

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--243

theory seminar every Thursday, now run by Kuhn and Gale while  
Tucker was at Stanford. The best way to describe the impression  
Nash made on Shapley when the two first  
Lloyd  
101  
talked about mathematics is to say that Nash took Shapley's  
breath away. Shapley could, of course, see what the others saw  
comthe childishness, brattiness, obnoxiousness comb he saw a  
great deal more. He was dazzled by what he would later describe  
as Nash's "keen, beautiful, logical mind." 11 Instead of being  
alienated like the others by the younger man's odd manner and  
weird behavior, he interpreted these simply as signs of  
immaturity. "Nash was spiteful, a child with a social IQ of  
12,  
but Lloyd did appreciate talentea"recalled Martin Shubikdd11  
As for Nash, starved for affection, how could he not be drawn to  
Shapley? In Nash's eyes, Shapley had it all. A brilliant  
mathematician. War hero. Harvard man. A son of Harlow. Favorite

of von Neumann and, soon, of Tucker as well. Shapley, who  
A243  
was popular with faculty and students alike, was one of the  
very  
few

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around Princeton, other than Milnor, who could really hold Nash's  
attention in a mathematical conversation, challenge him, and  
help  
him to pursue the implications of his own reasoning. And, for  
that reason -- along with his open admiration and obvious  
sympathy -- he was one who could engage Nash's emotions.  
Nash acted like a thirteen-year-old having his first crush.  
He  
pestered Shapley mercilessly. He made a point of disrupting  
his beloved Kriegspiel games, sometimes by sweeping the pieces to  
the ground. He rifled through his mail. He read the papers on his  
desk. He left notes for Shapley: "Nash was here." He played  
all  
kinds of pranks on him. Shapley's greatest eccentricity at the  
time was his claim that he was on a twenty-five-hour sleep  
cycle. He worked and slept at extremely odd hours, often  
transposing night and day. "Every once in a while he'd disappear  
from sight," another student recalled. "That's what he said.  
We  
accepted anything." Waking Shapley when he was lost to the world  
became an ongoing prank. "A group of us was attending a regular  
seminar at the institute given by de Rham and Kodaira. We were  
always very anxious to go but only three or four of us had cars.

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--245

Lloyd Shapley was one but there was one difficulty. Lloyd liked  
to sleep late and was often asleep at two o'clock in the  
afternoon. So we had to devise all sorts of ways to wake him.  
We  
dropped hot candle wax on him. I devised another method. We  
played 45-rpm records of Lloyd's favorite Chinese music with  
out

the little insert so that it oscillated all over the place (and made excruciating noise)dd021 Nash once tried to wake Shapley by climbing on his bed, straddling him and dropping water in his ear with an eyedropper." Sometimes the jokes, also aimed at other friends of Shapley's, got totally out of hand. Shapley shared his room at the college with a graduate student in economics, Martin Shubik, who became interested in game theory and also developed a lifelong friendship with Shapley. Shubik recalled: "Nash's idea of a joke was to unscrew the electric light bulb in the bathroom. There was a glass shade under the bulb, which he filled full of water. We could easily have gotten electrocuted. Did he intend to electrocute me? I'm not sure he didn't intend to."

14

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Shubik, whom Nash insisted on calling Shoobie-Woobie, was a frequent target of Nash's digs. A typical putdown, from a postscript to a note ostensibly commiserating with Shubik after the latter was injured in a car accident: "Oscar lence Morgue would like for someone . . . to blast Baumol [William Baumol, then the rising young star of the Princeton economics department] for his impudence in publishing a paper attacking confusedly the only true utility. It's beneath his dignity, but he doesn't really think you're the best man for the job because . . . `Shubik does not write very

clearly.``"

A246

John McCarthy, one of the inventors of artificial intelligence, also befriended Shapley and apparently aroused Nash's jealousy.

One day McCarthy got an inquiry from a Philadelphia haberdashery

about a massive shirt order he had placed<sup>16</sup> How good was his

credit, the company wanted to know? McCarthy, who hadn't placed

any such order, immediately suspected Nash and asked Shapley if

Nash was the culprit. Shapley confirmed that this was highly

likely. McCarthy asked the company for the original order.

Sure

enough, a postcard came back with Nash's unmistakable

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scrawl in green ink, the color Nash always used. Shubik and McCarthy cornered Nash and confronted him. "There was no denying

what he had done. We threatened him with postal inspectors.

The

post office refused to merely bawl him out. "If we do anything,

we'll prosecute him," they said<sup>27</sup> Concluding that Nash had learned his lesson, Shubik and McCarthy dropped the matter.

Another time, he rigged up McCarthy's bed so that it would collapse when McCarthy tried to crawl under the covers<sup>27</sup>

It was Shapley who reacted to Nash's absurd behavior with an used

tolerance, who proposed that they might channel his mischievous

impulses in a more intellectually constructive way. So Nash,

Shapley, Shubik, and McCarthy, along with another student named

Mel Hausner, invented a game involving coalitions and

double-crosses. Nash called the game comwh was later published

under the name "So Long, Sucker"-Fuck Your Buddy." The game is

played with a pile of different-colored poker chips. Nash and the

others crafted a complicated set of rules designed to force players to join forces with one another to advance, but

ultimately to double-cross one another in order

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to win. The point of the game was to produce psychological mayhem, and, apparently it often did. McCarthy remembers losing

his temper after Nash cold-bloodedly dumped him on the second-to-last round, and Nash was absolutely astonished that

McCarthy could get so emotional. "But I didn't need you anymore," Nash kept saying, over and over.

By and large, Shapley tried to play the role of mentor. He came

to Nash's aid, for example, when Tucker demanded that Nash include a concrete example of an equilibrium point in his thesis

and Nash couldn't think of a good one. Shapley spent weeks working out an elaborate but convincing example of Nash's equilibrium concept involving three-handed poker, another Shapley

specialty." The friendship between the men always had a competitive edge. Shapley, who started out as the slightly older

and wiser half of the relationship, may have resented Nash's

reputation as a genius. He kept remarking on "running starts,"

and he made

Lloyd

it clear that he felt he was being left behind. "Nash's stubborn

independence in the face of well-meant advice, instead of delighting, began to irk.

Nash's real sin, though, may have been to publish three

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important papers in the space of one year, long before Shapley

had even come close to finding a thesis topic for himself."

In

one of them, Nash beat Shapley to the punch on a problem the

were both working on and had spent many hours discussing

But

Shapley actually had good reason to feel secure. Despite Nash's

brilliant dissertation, the consensus at Princeton at the time

was that it was Shapley who was the real star of the next generation and inheritor of the von Neumann mantle. Tucker wrote

in 1953: Shapley is "the best young American mathematician

working in the subject." As a person, Tucker added, Shapley is

agreeable, cooperative and well-liked by faculty and students."

16

A letter from Frederic Bohnenblust, Shapley's mentor at RAND

dated 1953, says Shapley "perhaps lacked the wherewithal to develop a theory and depended on others for ideas" added that

he thought him "second only to the creator of the theory of games, John von Neumann." A letter from von Neumann dated January

1954 said: "I know Shapley very well and I think he is VERY good.

I

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--250

would put him above Bohnenblust and I would bracket him with

Segal and Birkhoff

But something other than graduate-student rivalry caused a sudden

break. By the middle of the next year, by which time Nash had

already completed his thesis and was on the job market, Shapley

told a fellow student that he would not return to RAND if Nash,

who had been offered a permanent post there, were to accept

Fifty years later, Shapley made a point of correcting anyone

who  
suggested that he and Nash had ever been close friends.

40

RAND, Summer 1950

Oh, the RAND Corporation is the hoon of the world; They  
think all day for a fee.

They sit and play games about going up in flames, For counters they  
use you and me, Honey Bee, For counters they use you and me.

comMAL viNA REYN-OLD's,

"The RAND H 1961 yrnn,

TE

DC-3 SHOOK as

it droned past the desert and mountains toward the opaque Pa  
cific

and water-colored sky. Los

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--251

Angeles lay thousands of feet below, resembling some  
science-fiction vision of a space colony under its sulfurous

blanket of haze. Nash had boarded the TWA flight in New York

almost twenty-four hours earlier. He had not slept at all. H  
e was

rumpled, sweaty, cramped, and exhausted, but as the plane  
descended, he hardly registered these discomforts. His atten  
tion

was wholly absorbed by the exotic panorama and his own inten  
se

excitement.

Flying was still a highly novel experience in 1950, no more  
so

than for a twenty-two-year-old West Virginian whose travels  
had

mostly been limited to the Norfolk and Western runs between

Roanoke and Princeton. Nash's first flight marked the  
A251  
beginning of his career as a consultant for the secretive RAND  
Corporation. RAND is a civilian think tank in Santa Monica,  
described by  
Fortune  
in 1951 as "the Air Force's big-brain-buying venture," where  
brilliant academics pondered nuclear war and the new theory  
of  
games. Nash's on-and-off encounter with RAND over the next four  
years was a transforming experience in his life. His association  
with RAND, at the height of the Cold

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War, started promisingly in the summer of 1950, just as the  
Korean War began, and ended traumatically in the summer of  
1954, when McCarthyism reached its peak.  
On a purely personal level, Nash's view of the world and him  
self  
was permanently and subtly colored by the RAND Zeitgeist com  
xs  
worship of the rational life and quantification, its geopoliti  
tical  
obsessions, and its weirdly compelling mix of Olympian  
detachment, paranoia, and megalomania. Intellectually, it wa  
s  
another story. From the moment of his arrival, Nash began  
actively disengaging himself from the interests and individu  
als  
that brought him to RAND in the first place, retreating from  
game  
theory and moving rapidly into pure mathematics, a process o  
f  
disengagement that would repeat itself several times over th  
e  
rest of the decade.  
Nothing like the RAND of the early 1950's has existed before  
or  
since. It was the original think tank, a strange hybrid of  
which  
the unique mission was to apply rational analysis and the la  
test  
quantitative methods to the problem of how to use the terrif  
ying  
new nuclear weaponry to forestall war with Russia comor to w  
in a  
war if deterrence failed.

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The people of RAND were there to think the unthinkable, in Herman

Kahn's famous phrase

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It attracted some of the best minds in mathematics, physics, political science, and economics. RAND may well have been the

model for Isaac Asimov's

Foundation

series, about a RAND-LIKE organization full of hyper-rational

social scientists --

psychohistorians -- who are supposed to save the galaxy from

chaos. And Kahn and von Neumann, RAND's most celebrated

thinkers, were among the alleged models for Dr. Strangelove.

Although its heyday lasted a decade or less, RAND's way of looking at human conflict not only shaped America's defense

in the second half of the century but also made a deep and lasting

impression on American social science. RAND had its roots in

World War

II,

when the American military, for the first time in its history,

had recruited legions of scientists, mathematicians, and economists and used them to help

win the war. As Fred Kaplan writes of RAND's role in

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nuclear strategy

[World War II was] a war in which the talents of scientists were

exploited to an unprecedented, almost extravagant degree. First,

there were all the new inventions of warfare such as radar, infrared detection devices, bomber aircraft, long-range rockets,

torpedoes with depth charges, as well as the atomic bomb. Second,

the military had only the vaguest of ideas about how to use these

inventions.... Someone had to devise new techniques for these new

weapons, new methods of assessing their effectiveness and the

most efficient way to use them. It was a task that fell to the

scientists. Initially, the scientists worked on narrow technical

problems—for example, how to build the bomb, how deep to set the

charges, the choice of targets. But when it became clear that

people didn't know the best way to use this incredibly expensive

and destructive weaponry, they were increasingly drawn into discussions of strategy.

The advent of the bomb turned the temporary wartime partnership

between the military and the scientific establishment into a

continuing relationship. The Air Force, which controlled the new

weaponry, emerged after

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the war as the linchpin of the national defense. "Whole conceptions of modern warfare, the nature of international relations, the question of world order, the function of weaponry,

had to be thought through again. Nobody knew the answer," Kaplan

writes. Again the military turned to the academic community. As

Oskar Morgenstern, also a RAND consultant during the 1950's, put

it in his book on defense issues: "Military matters have become

so complex and so involved that the ordinary experience and training of the generals and admirals were no longer sufficient

to master the problems.... More often than not their attitude is,

'here is a big problem. Can you help us?' And this is not restricted to the making of new bombs, better fuel, a new guidance system or what have you. It often comprises tactical and strategic use of the things on hand and the things only planned."

Fortune

magazine put it more succinctly: "If World War II was a war of

weapons, another conflict would include on both sides a war of

wits at the highest level of knowledge

In the final days of the war, the Air Force generals began to

worry about the brain drain of top

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scientists" How to keep the best and brightest thinking about

military problems was far from obvious. Men of the caliber of

John von Neumann would hardly sign up for the civil service.

But

scientists would have to have access to secrets so one couldn't

just rely on contracts with universities. The solution was a

private nonprofit organization outside the military but with

close ties to the Air Force. In the fall of 1945, General Henry

"Hap" Arnold promised to give Douglas Aircraft \$10 million of

leftover wartime procurement funds for a research venture to be

called Project RAND (for "research and development" though wits

later insisted the acronym stood for "research and  
A256

nondevelopment"). The project was housed on the third floor  
of  
Douglas's Santa Monica plant. Friction between Douglas and t  
he  
new entity led to a spinoff as a private nonprofit corporati  
on in  
1946, which was when RAND moved to its downtown offices.  
RAND's Air Force contract gave it an amazingly free hand,  
according to William Poundstone's history of RAND. The contr  
act  
called for research on intercontinental warfare, which, give  
n the  
dominant

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role of nuclear weaponry, effectively gave RAND an unrestrict  
ed  
license to roam over the front lines of the U.S. defense  
strategy. Within these guidelines, RAND scientists could stu  
dy  
anything that interested them. RAND could also refuse specif  
ic  
studies requested by the Air Force.  
From the beginning, RAND's work was a curious mix of narrowl  
y  
focused engineering, cost-benefit studies, and blue-sky  
conjecture. A now-famous 1946 study, completed more than a d  
ecade  
before the launch of Sputnik  
in 19  
57, proved remarkably prescient. In "Preliminary Design of  
an  
Experimental World-Circling Spaceship" RAND scientists argu  
ed  
that "the nation which first makes significant achievements  
in  
space travel will be acknowledged as the world leader in bot  
h  
military and scientific techniques. To visualize the impact  
on  
the world, one can imagine the consternation and admiration  
that  
would be felt here if the US were to discover suddenly that  
some  
other nation had already put up a successful satellite." "  
RAND's civilian scientists soon made a mark on American defe  
nse  
policy. Poundstone

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reports that RAND played a leading role in the development of the ICBM; RAND convinced the Air Force to adopt in-flight refueling of jet bombers; it was responsible for the fail-safe protocol whereby bombers are kept in the air at all times and during a crisis head for targets in an enemy nation. Its worry that a

psychotic individual in a position of power could trigger a nuclear war convinced the Air Force to adopt a safer button that required cooperation of several individuals to arm and detonate a nuclear warhead.

To be plucked from academe and initiated into the secret world of the military had become something of a rite of passage for the mathematical elite. In World War II, the very best had traveled into the New Mexico desert to Los Alamos to work on the A-bomb alongside von Neumann, and to Bletchley Park north of London to help Turing and his team break the Nazi code. Many others, less well known or simply younger, wound up at dozens of less famous sites working on weapon design, encryption, bomb targeting, and submarine chases.

The recruitment of scientists by the military hadn't

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stopped when the war ended, much to everyone's surprise. Many of the mathematicians and scientists did not return to their quiet prewar routines but instead took on military research contracts,

made frequent visits to the Pentagon and the Atomic Energy  
A259  
Commission, and, in a few cases, stayed on at Los Alamos and  
the  
other government weapons labs. For an elite cadre of applied  
mathematicians, computer engineers, political scientists, and  
economists RAND was the equivalent of Los Alamos<sup>14</sup>  
The problems the military asked the scientists to solve called  
for new theories and new techniques, which in turn attracted  
the  
top scientific talent on which RAND's credibility depended.  
"We  
had so many practical problems that involved mathematicians  
and  
we didn't have the right tools," said Bruno Augenstein, a former  
RAND vice-president, years later. "So we had to invent or perfect  
the tools." Mostly, according to Duncan Luce, a psychologist who  
was a consultant at RAND, "RAND capitalized on ideas that  
surfaced during the war."

16

These were scientific, or at least systematic,

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approaches to problems that had been previously considered the  
exclusive province of men of "experience." They included such  
topics as logistics, submarine research, and air defense.  
Operations research, linear programming, dynamic programming  
, and  
systems analysis were all techniques that RAND brought to bear on  
the problem of "thinking the unthinkable." Of all the new tools,  
game theory was far and away the most sophisticated. The spirit  
of quantification, however, was contagious, and it was at RAND,  
more than anywhere else, that game theory in particular and  
mathematical modeling in general entered the mainstream of  
postwar thinking in economics. At that point, the military was  
the only government sponsor of pure research in the social  
sciences—a role later taken over by the National Science  
Foundation—and it bankrolled a great many ideas that turned

out  
to have little true relevance for the military but a great deal  
for other endeavors. RAND attracted a younger generation of  
mathematically sophisticated economists who embraced the new  
methods and tools, including the computer, and attempted to turn  
economics from a branch of political philosophy into a precise,  
predictive science.

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Take Kenneth Arrow, one of the early Nobel Laureates in  
economics. When Arrow came to RAND in 1948, he was an unknown  
youngster. His famous thesis,  
written in the as-yet-unfamiliar language of symbolic logic,  
was  
a product of a RAND assignment. The assignment was to demonstrate  
that it was okay to apply game theory, which is formulated in  
terms of individuals, to aggregations of many individuals, namely  
nations. Arrow was asked to write a memorandum showing how it  
could be done. As it turned out, the memorandum became Arrow's  
dissertation, an attempt to restate the theories of British  
economist John Hicks in modern mathematical language. "That  
was  
it! It took about five days to write in September  
1948," he recalled. "When every attempt failed I thought of  
the  
impossibility theorem." Arrow showed that it is logically  
impossible to add up the choices of individuals into an  
unambiguous social choice not just under a constitution based on

the principle of majority rule, but under every

A261

conceivable constitution except dictatorship. Arrow's theorem,  
along with his proof of the existence of a competitive equilibrium, which also owes something

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--262

to Nash, earned him the Nobel Prize in 1972 and ushered in the

use of sophisticated mathematics in economic theory.

Other giants of modern economics who did seminal work at RAND in

the early 1950's included Paul A. Samuelson, probably the most

influential economist of the twentieth century, and Herbert A. Simon, who pioneered the study of decisionmaking inside organizations. RAND's location was part of its allure. The corporation's headquarters, in a once-sleepy beach colony, lies

five miles to the south of the Santa Monica Mountains at the far

end of the Malibu Crescent, just west of Los Angeles. In the

early 1950's, Santa Monica looked the way Nash imagined that

certain towns in Italy or France might look. Wide avenues were lined

with pencil-thin palm trees. Cream-colored houses were

topped with tiled roofs and encircled by shoulder-high walls

. Seaside hotels and rest homes were across from a seaside promenade. The magentas and reds of the bougainvillea and hibiscus were improbably intense. The breeze, surprisingly cool,

smelled of oleander and seawater. Some of the best work was done

in beach chairs.

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RAND itself was tucked out of sight of the ocean on Fourth and

Broadway at the edge of Santa Monica's slightly rundown business

district. The 1920's bank building was a white stucco affair

ornamented with Victorian flourishes. The building had recently

housed the presses of the Santa Monica Evening Outlook; the

newspaper had moved catty-corner to a former Chevy dealership  
when RAND moved in. By 1950, RAND was already spilling over  
into several annexes located over storefronts, including ones occupied  
by the Outlook and a bicycle shop. A year later, when Fortune  
magazine discreetly introduced RAND to the wider public, it  
described "bright walls shining through fog-sunny days and its  
wide, white-lighted windows shining on uninterruptedly through  
the night. The building is never closed, nor is it ever really  
open

It was one of the most difficult buildings in the United States  
to get into,  
Fortune

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--264

said. On Nash's first day, members of RAND's uniformed, armed  
police force stood guard in front of the building and in its  
lobby, scrutinizing him closely  
and memorizing his face. After that, for the rest of the  
summer and in subsequent years, the guards always greeted him  
with a cool, respectful "Hello, Dr. Nash." There were no ID  
cards  
in those days. Inside were a series of locked doors, with offices

clustered by types of security clearance needed to gain  
A264

access to them. The math division occupied a group of small  
private offices in the middle of the first floor, upstairs f  
rom

the electronics shop where von Neumann's new computer, the  
johnniac, stooddd"Nash got an office to himself, a small  
windowless cubicle whose walls didn't quite extend to the  
ceiling, with a desk, blackboard, fan, and, of course, a saf  
e.

RAND bristled with self-confidence, a sense of mission, an e  
sprit

de corps." Military uniforms signaled visitors from Washingt  
on.

Executives from defense firms came for meetings. The consult  
ants,

mostly under thirty, carried briefcases, smoked pipes, and w  
alked

around looking self-important. Big shots like

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--265

von Neumann and Herman Kahn had shouting matches in the  
hallwaysdd"There was a feeling around the place of "wanting  
to

outrun the enemy'"z a former RAND vice-president later  
put xdd24

Arrow, who was an army veteran from the Bronx, said, "We wer  
e all

convinced that the mission was important though there was lo  
ts of

room for intellectual visiondd025

RAND's sense of mission was propelled largely by a single fa  
ct:

Russia had the A-bomb. That shocking news had been delivered  
by

President Truman the previous fall, a mere four years after  
Nagasaki and Hiroshima, and many years before Washington had

expected it. The military had hard evidence, the president s  
aid

in a speech on September 13, 1949, of a nuclear explosion de  
ep

inside the Soviet Uniondd16 Nobody in the scientific communi  
ty,

especially around Princeton, where von Neumann and Oppenheim  
er

were engaged in an almost daily debate over the wisdom of pu  
shing

ahead with the Super, doubted that the Soviets were capable  
of

developing nuclear weaponsdd"The shock was that they had

succeeded so quickly. Physicists and mathematicians, who were  
less

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convinced of Russia's scientific and technological backwardness,  
had been warning the administration all along that predictions by  
senior government officials that America's nuclear monopoly would

persist another ten, fifteen, or twenty years were hopelessly  
naive, but the sense of being caught off guard was still very  
great. The news effectively ended the debate over the hydrogen

bomb more or less immediately. By the time the president  
delivered the news of the Soviet explosion to the public, he  
had authorized a crash program at Los Alamos to design and  
manufacture an H-bomb.

It was unthinkable that such destructive power would be  
unleashed. Therefore RAND insisted that it was necessary to  
ponder the possibility. The rational life was worshiped to  
an

almost absurd degree. RAND was full of men and women committed to  
the idea that systematic thought and quantification were the  
key

to the most complex problems. Facts, preferably detached from

emotion, convention,  
and preconception, reigned supreme. If reducing complex political

and military choices, including the problem of nuclear war,  
to

mathematical formulae could produce light, why then the same

approach must be good for more mundane matters. RAND

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scientists tried to tell their wives that the decision whether to

buy or not to buy a washing machine was an "optimization problem."

RAND was privy to the military's most highly guarded secrets at a

time when the nation was growing increasingly nervous about the

safeguarding of those secrets to the point of paranoia. From the

summer of 1950 on, RAND would be increasingly affected by the

growing alarm over Russian access to American military secrets."

It began with the Fuchs trial in the winter of 1950.11 Fuchs was

a German emigre scientist who had fled to Britain during the war

and eventually wound up working with von Neumann and Edward Teller at Los Alamos. A clandestine member of the British

Communist Party, Fuchs subsequently confessed in January 1950 to

passing atomic secrets to the Russians and was tried and convicted in London that February. Senator Joseph McCarthy had

embarked that same month on his anticommunist campaign, accusing

the federal government of security breaches.14 Four years later,

in April of 1954, Robert Oppenheimer, the former head of the

Manhattan Project, the director of the

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Institute for Advanced Study, and the most famous scientist in

America, was declared a security risk by Eisenhower and stripped

of his security clearances in the full glare of national publicity.15 The ostensible reason was Oppenheimer's youthful

left-wing associations, but the real reason, as von Neumann and

most scientists testified at the time, was Oppenheimer's refusal

to support the development of the H-bomb.

The fact that McCarthy himself ultimately became a target of

censure would do little to dispel the atmosphere of paranoia

and  
intimidation at RAND, which lived on Air Force and AEC money  
and  
had projects on the H-bomb and ICBM'SDD16 Most of what the  
mathematicians worked on was not in fact classified, but tha  
t  
didn't matter. RAND, which harbored a collection of oddballs  
like  
Richard Bellman (a former Princeton mathematician who had al  
l  
kinds of communist associations, mostly accidental, includin  
g a  
chance encounter with a cousin of Julius and Ethel Rosenberg  
) ,  
would become particularly careful about minding its Ps and  
Qsdd37  
Everybody needed a top-secret clearance. People who arrived  
without a temporary security clearance were

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--269

banished to "quarantine" or "preclearance" and weren't permitt  
ed to  
sit with everybody else. Nash's secret clearance was granted  
on  
October 25, 1950.111 His recollection that he had a top-secr  
et  
clearance comwh a large contingent in the math division did  
have-is probably faulty. Nash also recalls that he applied f  
or a  
Q clearance in 1952.19 Any consultant to the math division w  
ho  
worked on Atomic Energy Commission contracts was required to  
have  
a Q clearance because of access to documents related to the  
construction and use of nuclear weapons. But despite a Novem  
ber  
10, 1952, postcard to his parents telling them that he had  
applied for a higher clearance at RAND, Nash now says  
In

it was never approved commeaning that his role at RAND was  
A269

largely confined to highly theoretical excercises as opposed  
to

applications of game theory concepts to actual questions of  
nuclear strategy comthe province of men like von Neumann, He  
rman

Kahn, and Thomas Schellingdd411

Everyone had a safe in his office for storing classified  
documents, and everyone was warned about taking documents ou  
t of

the building or talking out of

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--270

schooldd41 Papers had to be put in the safes at the end of e  
very

day. There were spot checks. There was a public address syst  
em

and there were parts of the building that were off-limits to

people who didn't have a Q clearance.

By 1953, soon after Eisenhower issued a new set of security  
guidelines, security consciousness, in the sense of not  
overlooking anyone who might be thought remotely unreliable,

greWdd42

The Eisenhower guidelines broadened the grounds for denying  
a

clearance or stripping someone of an existing clearance. Wit  
hout

a doubt, fear about potential leaks brought to a boil many  
simmering antagonisms against individuals and groups who pos  
ed

little or no actual threat to security. Almost any sign of  
nonconformity, political or personal, came to be considered  
a

potential security breach. The notion, for example, that  
homosexuals were unreliable, because of either poor judgment  
or

vulnerability to blackmail, was first codified in the Eisenh  
ower  
guidelines.

Like the decade itself, RAND had a split personality. Its st  
yle

was informal. It tolerated quirky people. It was in some way  
s

more democratic

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than a university. Almost everyone, including von Neumann, w  
as

called by his or her first name, except by the guards, never  
Doctor or Professor or Sir. Graduate students rubbed shoulders  
with full professors in a way unimaginable in most academic  
departments. RAND's president, a former Douglas Aircraft  
executive, was a spit-and-polish man who was almost never seen  
in a suit and tie. All but one or two of the mathematicians,  
including Nash, came to work in short-sleeved shirts. Appearances  
were so casual that one mathematician, who found it all very  
odd, felt obliged to rebel by wearing a three-piece suit and  
a tie to the office every day. Practical jokes were as much a  
part of the RAND culture as pipes and crewcuts. Mathematicians  
and physicists mixed rubber bands into the pipe tobacco,  
substituted dog biscuits for cookies, and tilted desks so pencils  
rolled onto the floor.  
Wit was greatly appreciated. When John Williams, the head of  
RAND's mathematics department, wrote a primer on game theory,  
published as a RAND study, it was illustrated with  
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--272  
funny little cartoon figures and full of jokey examples starring  
John Nash, Alex Mood, Lloyd Shapley, John Milnor, and other  
members of the math department

.41

A272

The mathematicians were, as usual, the freest spiritsdd46 They had no set hours. If they wanted to come into their offices at 3:00 A.M., fine. Shapley, who had come back from Princeton for the summer and continued to insist on the sanctity of his sleep cycle, was rarely seen before midafn. Another man, an electrical engineer named Hastings, typically slept in the "shop" next to his beloved computer.

Lunches were long, much to the annoyance of RAND's engineers, who prided themselves on sticking to a more respectable routine.

The mathematicians mostly took their bag lunches to a conference room and pulled out chessboards. They invariably played Kriegspiel, usually in total silence, occasionally punctuated by a wrathful outburst from Shapley, who frequently lost his temper over an umpire's or opponent's error. Even though the games typically lasted well into the afternoon, they were

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rarely finished and finally reluctantly abandoned midgame. Poker and bridge groups met after hours.

There were no afternoon teas, formal seminars, or faculty meetings at RAND. Unlike the physicists and engineers, the mathematicians usually worked alone. The idea was that they would

work on their own ideas but would help solve the myriad problems

encountered by researchers, picking up problems to solve as the

spirit moved themdd47 People would drift into each other's offices or, more frequently, simply stop to chat in the corridors

near the coffee stations. The grids and courtyards of RAND's

permanent headquarters comto which the mathematics group moved in

1953, the year before Nash's final summer at RAND-were designed, by John Williams, as it happens, "to maximize chance meetings Through such encounters new research was "announced" and mathematicians got hooked on problems that colleagues in other departments wanted solved. Most of the work wasn't reported formally, and even when it was published as RAND memoranda, there was no formal approval process. A consultant would simply go to the math department secretaries, hand over a handwritten paper, and a day or two later a RAND

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memorandum would appear Published reports for outside circulation didn't go through a much more rigorous vetting process. This copacetic atmosphere was mostly Williams's doing." Witt y and charming, weighing close to three hundred pounds, expensivel y suited, Williams looked like a businessman always about to reach into his pocket to pull out a wad of twenties. An astronomer from Arizona who had spent a couple of years in Princeton attending lectures in Fine Hall, playing poker, and developing an enthusiasm for the theory of games, Williams had been a dollar-a-year man in Washington during the war and became RAND's fifth employee afterward. Williams hated flying. He loved fast cars. At one point, he spent an entire year outfitting his chocolate-brown Jaguar with a powerful Cadillac engine. It had taken substantial RAND resources (RAND had a repair shop) and

considerable bravado to install the thing. Cadillac and  
A274

Jaguar mechanics had both dismissed the idea as impractical,  
but

Williams had prevailed. He disproved the mechanics' conventi  
onal

wisdom in late-night, 125-mile-an-hour drives along the Paci  
fic

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--275

Coast Highway.

Williams's approach to management would have made him very m  
uch

at home in Silicon Valley today: "Williams had a  
theoryea"recalled his deputy, Alexander Mood, also a former  
Princetonian. "He believed people should be left alone. He w  
as a

great believer in basic research. He was a very relaxed  
administrator. That's why people thought the math division w  
as

pretty weirdddd011 Williams's letter to von Neumann offering  
the

mathematician a two-hundred-dollar-a-month retainer conveys  
the

man's style. The letter said, "The only part of your thinkin  
g

we'd like

to bid for systematically is that which you spend shaving: w  
e'd

like you to pass on to us any ideas that come to you while s  
o

engagedddd011 When Williams first arrived, RAND was a tiny an  
nex

inside a mammoth Douglas Aircraft factory where thirty thous  
and

workers punched time cards every day. Williams was the one w  
ho

freed the mathematicians from the clock and then proceeded t  
o

demand coffee and blackboards for his mathematicians, explai  
ning

that not providing these would guarantee that none of them w  
ould

produce anything worthwhile. After RAND and Douglas Aircraft

parted company, Williams went further. He

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insisted that the building be open twenty-four hours a day  
instead of just between eight and five. He got private offic  
es.

He set up coffee stations that had their own special full-time maintenance crew. He mollified the engineers and the Air Force generals, who wondered why the hell the mathematicians had to be allowed to be themselves. Everyone soon knew Nash by sight. He roamed the halls incessantly." He was usually chewing an empty paper coffee cup that was clamped firmly between his teeth. He would glide through the corridors for hours at a time, frowning, lost in thought, shirt untucked, his powerfully built shoulders hunched forward, his sharp Nixonian nose leading the way. Sometimes he wore a small, ironic smile that suggested some secret amusement not likely to be shared with anyone he might encounter. When he did meet someone he knew, he rarely greeted him by name or even acknowledged his presence unless spoken to first, and then not always. When he wasn't chewing a coffee cup, he whistled, often the same tune, from Bach's The Art of the Fugue, over and over again. His legend had preceded him. In the eyes of his new

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colleagues, Arrow recalled, Nash was "a young genius who could do anything, a guy who liked solving problems." Mathematicians who were struggling with tricky problems quickly learned to collar him by planting themselves squarely in his path. Nash's curiosity was easily piqued, they discovered, provided that the problem struck him as interesting and the speaker mathematically

competent. He was usually more than willing to step around  
A277  
to their offices to look at masses of messy equations on the  
ir  
blackboards. Williams's deputy, Alex Mood, was one of the fi  
rst  
to try." A gentle giant of a man with a dry wit and easy man  
ner,  
Mood happened to be oppressed by a problem left over from a  
first, ill-fated thesis attempt at Princeton before the war.  
He  
had found a better derivation of a famous solution, he felt,  
but  
his proof was overly long, too complicated, and distressingl  
y  
inelegant. Could Nash come up with something "shorter, simpl  
er" ?  
Nash listened and stared, frowned and walked away. But the v  
ery  
next day, he was back at Mood's door with a clever and entir  
ely  
unanticipated solution. Nash had "sidestepped the whole indu  
ction  
by regarding integers as variables and sending them to revea  
ling  
limitsdd"Z much as anything else, Mood was charmed

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by Nash's style. "When he found a problemea"Mood recalled, "  
he  
sat down and started attacking it immediately. He didn't, li  
ke  
some of  
his colleagues, browse through the library to see what relat  
ed  
stuff had already been done."  
Williams too was immediately taken with Nash and took him un  
der  
his wing. He frequently told others that Nash had greater in  
sight  
into mathematical structure than any mathematician he had ev  
er  
known, an extraordinary remark ftom a man who spent the late  
1930's in Fine Hall and was an intimate of von Neumann's. "H  
e  
knew which factors of a hundred thousand were the most  
important," Williams used to saydd17 He liked to describe ho  
w  
Nash would come into an office, stare at a blackboard dense  
with

equations, and stand there silently, meditating. "Then a Williams would say, "he'd solve the whole thing. He could see the structure."

However, Nash mostly kept to himself. He talked about his own research rarely and then only with a select few. When he did, it was not usually because he was looking for help. "It wasn't so much that he sought advice," another consultant recalled. "You were a

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reflecting mirror. He was his own creative object. "The only person he regularly sought out at RAND was Shapley, and fairly soon people around the mathematics division started to think of

the two as a pair, RAND's Wunderkinder. Still, Nash's eccentricity soon became fodder for RAND's gossip mill. "He reinforced RAND's idea that mathematicians were a bit crazy," Mood said. "His office, in which he could rarely be

found, was a godawful mess. When he left at the end of that summer he did so without bothering to clean out his desk. The staffer who was saddled with the chore found, among other things, "banana peels. Bank statements for Swiss bank accounts with thousands of dollars in them. One or two hundred dollars in cash.

Classified documents. The C-I isometric embedding paper d060

Some people found Nash absurdly childish. He was fond of playing adolescent jokes on his colleagues. Knowing that his whistling irritated one particular music-loving mathematician, who

frequently asked him to stop, he once left behind a

A279

recording of his whistling on the man's Dictaphonedd61 RAND'  
s  
blue-collar police

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force and maintenance crew found Nash an entertaining subject.

They would watch him as he left the building walking north on

Fourth Avenue. On several occasions some of them complained to a

RAND manager that they had seen Nash tiptoeing exaggeratedly along

the avenue, stalking flocks of pigeons, and then suddenly rushing

forward, "trying to kick `em."``

We hope [the theory of gamesst will work, just as we hoped in 1942

that the atomic bomb would work. comAN-ONymous PENTAGON SCIENTIST

to Fortune,

1949

LASH's NOVEL IDEA about games with many players had preceded him

at RAND by several months. The first version of his elegant proof

of the existence of equilibrium for games with many players comtwo skimpy pages in the November

1949 issue of the National Academy of Sciences proceedings

comswept through the white stucco building at Fourth and Broadway

like a California brushfiredd1

The biggest appeal of the Nash equilibrium concept was its promise of liberation from the two-person zero-sum game. The

mathematicians, military

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strategists, and economists at RAND had focused almost exclusively on games of total conflict commy win is your losses or

vice versa combbt two players. Shapley and Dresher's

1949 review of game theory research at RAND refers to the organization's "preoccupation with the zero-sum two person

game."` That preoccupation was natural, given that these were

games for which the von Neumann theory was both sound and reasonably complete. Zero-sum games also seemed to fit the problem -- nuclear conflict between two superpowers comwh

absorbed most of RAND's attention.  
Only it really didn't. At least some of the researchers at RAND  
were already chafing at the central assumption of a fixed payoff  
in such games, Arrow recalled. As weapons got ever more  
destructive, even all-out war had ceased to be a situation of  
pure conflict in which opponents had no common interest whatever.  
Inflicting the greatest amount of damage on an enemy-bombing  
him  
back to the Stone Age could no longer make any sense, as American  
strategists realized during the final phase of the campaign  
against Germany when they decided not to destroy the coal mines  
and industrial complexes of the Ruhr. As Thomas C.  
Schelling, one of

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--282

RAND's nuclear strategists, would put it a decade later, In international affairs, there is mutual dependence as well as  
opposition. Pure conflict, in which the interests of two  
antagonists are completely opposed, is a special case; it would  
arise in a war of complete extermination, otherwise not even  
in  
war. The possibility of mutual accommodation is as important  
and dramatic as the element of conflict. Concepts like

deterrence, limited war, and disarmament, as well as  
A282  
negotiation, are concerned with the common interest and mutual  
dependence that can exist between participants in a conflict.  
Schelling goes on to say why this is so: "These are games in  
which, though the element of conflict provides the dramatic  
interest, mutual dependence is part of the logical structure  
and  
demands some kind of collaboration or mutual accommodation-  
if not explicit-even if only in the avoidance of mutual  
disasterdd116  
In 1950, at least the economists at RAND were aware that if  
game  
theory were to evolve into a descriptive theory that could be  
usefully applied to real-life military and economic conflicts,  
one

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--283

had to focus on games that allowed for cooperation as well as  
conflict. "Everybody was already bothered by the zero-sum  
gameea"Arrow recalled. "You're trying to decide whether to go  
to  
war or not. You couldn't say that the losses to the losers were  
gains to the winner. It was a troublesome thing."`  
Military strategists were the first to seize on the ideas of  
game  
theory. Most economists ignored The Theory of Games and Economic  
Behavior and the few that didn't, like John Kenneth Galbraith  
writing in  
Fortune  
and Carl Kaysen, later director of the Institute for Advanced  
Study, turn out to have had significant contact with military  
strategists during the wardd"An article in  
Fortune  
in  
1949 by John  
McDonald made it clear that the military hoped to use von  
Neumann's theory of games to work out intelligence missions,

bombing patterns, and nuclear defense strategy<sup>9</sup> On the lookout for new ideas and with plenty of money to spend, the Air Force embraced game theory with the same enthusiasm

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--284

with which the Prussian military had embraced probability theory

a couple hundred years earlier<sup>10</sup>

Game theory had already made its debut in military planning rooms. It had been used during the war to develop antisubmarine

tactics when German submarines were destroying American military

transports. As McDonald reported in

Fortune.-I I

The military application of "Games" was begun early in the last

war, some time in fact before the publication of the complete

theory, by ASWOEG (Anti-Submarine Warfare Operations Evaluation

Group). Mathematicians in the group had got hold of von Neumann's

first paper on poker, published in 1928.

But von Neumann actually spent his frenetic visits to Santa Monica almost exclusively with the computer engineers and the

nuclear scientists<sup>11</sup> "His enormous prestige and Williams's deft

salesmanship led to a major concentration on game theory at RAND

from 1947 into the 1950's. The hope was that game theory would

provide the  
A284

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--285

mathematical underpinning for a theory of human conflict and spread to disciplines other than mathematics. Williams convinced the Air Force to let RAND create two new divisions, economics and social science.

By the time Nash arrived, a "trust" of game theory research had grown up at RAND including such game theorists as Lloyd S. Shapley, J. C. McKinsey, N. Dalkey, F. B. Thompson, and H. F.

Bohnenblust, such pure mathematicians as John Milnor, statisticians David Blackwell, Sam Karlin, and Abraham Girschick, and economists Paul Samuelson, Kenneth Arrow, and Herbert Simon."

Most of the RAND military applications of game theory concerned tactics. Air battles between fighters and bombers were modeled as

duels. The strategic problem in a duel is one of timing.

For each opponent, having the first shot maximizes the chance of a miss. But having the better shot also maximizes the chance of being hit. The question is when to fire. There's a tradeoff.

By waiting a little longer each opponent improves his own chance of scoring a hit, but also increases the risk of being

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--286

shot down. Such duels can be both noisy and silent. With "silent gun" the duelist doesn't know the other has fired unless he is hit. Therefore, neither participant knows whether the other still has a bullet or has fired and missed and is now defenseless.

A report by Dresher and Shapley summarizing RAND's game theory research between the fall of 1947 and the spring of 1949 gives the flavor. "The mathematicians describe a problem of stagge

red  
 attacks in a bombing mission:  
 Problem A single interceptor base, having  $I$  fighters, is located  
 on a base line. Each fighter has a given endurance. If a fighter,  
 vectored out against a bomber attack, has not yet engaged his  
 original target, then at the option of the ground controller he  
 may be vectored back to engage a second attack.  
 The attacker has a stock of  $N$  bombers and  $A$  bombs. The attacker  
 chooses two points to attack and sends  $N_1$  bombers including  
 $A_1$   
 bomb carriers on the first attack and  $t$  minutes later he sends  
 $N_2$  equals  
 $N - N_1$ , bombers including  $A_2$  equals  $A - A_1$   
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 --287  
 $A_2$ , carriers on the second attack. The payoff to the attacker  
 is the number of bomb carriers that are not destroyed by the  
 fighters.  
 Solution Both players have pure optimal strategies. An optimal  
 strategy of the attacker is to attack both targets simultaneously  
 and distribute the  $A$  bomb carriers in proportion to the number of  
 bombers in each attack. An optimum strategy of the defender  
 is to  
 dispatch interceptors in proportion to the number of attacking  
 bombers and not to revector fighters. The value of the game to  
 the attacker will be  $V$  equals  $\max (0, \frac{A_1 A_2}{I - I N k})$   
 where  $k$  is the kill probability of the fighter  
 The game Nash had in mind could be solved without communication  
 or collaboration. Von Neumann had long believed that the RAND  
 researchers ought to focus on cooperative games, conflicts in

which players have the opportunity to communi-

A287

cate and collaborate and are able to discuss the situation and

agree on a rational joint plan of action, an agreement that is

assumed to be enforceable."

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In cooperative games, players form coalitions

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and reach agreements. The key assumption is that there's an umpire around to enforce the agreement. The mathematics of cooperative games, like the mathematics of zero-sum games, is

rich and elegant. But most economists, like Arrow, were cool to

the idea." It was like saying, they thought, that the only hope

for preventing a dangerous and wasteful nuclear arms race lay in

appointing a world government with the power to enforce simultaneous disarmament. World government, as it happens, was a

popular idea among mathematicians and scientists at the time

.  
Albert Einstein, Bertrand Russell, and indeed much of the world's

intellectual elite subscribed to some version of "one worldism."

11 Even von Neumann tipped his hat to the notion, conservative

hawk that he was. But most social scientists were dubious that

any nation, much less the Soviets, would cede sovereignty to such

an extent. Cooperative game theory also seemed to have little

relevance to most economic, political, and military problems.

. As Arrow jokingly put it, "You did have cooperative game theory

. But I couldn't force the other side to cooperate.

By demonstrating that noncooperative games, games that did not

involve joint actions, had stable

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solutions, said Arrow, "Nash suddenly provided a framework to ask

the right questions." At RAND, he added, it immediately led

"a lot of people to calculate equilibrium points." News of Nash's equilibrium result also inspired the most famous game of strategy in all of social science: the Prisoner's Dilemma. The Prisoner's Dilemma was partly invented at RAND, some months before Nash arrived, by two RAND mathematicians who responded to Nash's idea with more skepticism than appreciation of the revolution that Nash's concept of a game would inspire." The actual tale of prisoners used to illustrate the game's significance was invented by Nash's Princeton mentor, Al Tucker, who used it to explain what game theory was all about to an audience of psychologists at Stanford."

As Tucker told the story, the police arrest two suspects and question them in separate rooms. Each one is given the choice of confessing, implicating the other, or keeping silent. The central feature of the game is that no matter what the other suspect does, each (considered alone) would be better off if he confessed. If the other confesses, the suspect

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in question ought to do the same and thereby avoid an especially harsh penalty for holding out. If the other remains silent, he can get especially lenient treatment for turning state's witness. Confession is the dominant strategy. The irony is that both prisoners (considered together) would be better off if neither

confessed -- that is, if they cooperated -- but since each  
A290  
is aware of the other's incentive to confess, it is "rational" for  
both to confess.  
Since 1950, the Prisoner's Dilemma has spawned an enormous  
psychology literature on determinants of cooperation and  
defection. On a conceptual level, the game highlights the fact  
that Nash equilibria, defined as each player's following his  
best strategy assuming that the other players will follow their  
best strategy, aren't necessarily the best solution from the  
vantage point of the group of players. Thus, the Prisoner's  
Dilemma contradicts Adam Smith's metaphor of the Invisible Hand  
in economics. When each person in the game pursues his private  
interest, he does not necessarily promote the best interest of  
the collective.

The arms race between the Soviet Union and the United States  
could be thought of as a Prisoner's

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Dilemma. Both nations might be better off if they cooperated  
and  
avoided the race. Yet the dominant strategy is for each to arm  
itself to the teeth. However, it doesn't appear that Dresher  
and  
Flood, Tucker, or, for that matter, von Neumann, thought of  
the  
Prisoner's Dilemma in the context of superpower rivalry." For  
them, the game was simply an interesting challenge to Nash's  
idea. The very afternoon that Dresher and Flood learned of Nash's  
equilibrium idea, they ran an experiment using Williams and  
a  
UCLA economist, Armen Alchian, as guinea pig. Poundstone  
says  
that Flood and Dresher "wondered if real people playing the  
game  
comespecially people who had never heard of Nash or equilibrium  
points-would be drawn mysteriously to the equilibrium strate

gy.

Flood and Dresher doubted it. The mathematicians ran their experiment one hundred times."

Nash's theory predicted that both players would play their dominant strategies, even though playing their dominated strategies would have left both better off. Though Williams and

Alchian didn't always cooperate, the results hardly resembled a

Nash equilibrium. Dresher and Flood argued, and von

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Neumann apparently agreed, that their experiment showed that players tended not to choose Nash equilibrium strategies and

instead were likely to "split the difference."

As it turns out, Williams and Alchian chose to cooperate more

often than they chose to cheat. Comments recorded after each

player decided on strategy but before he learned the other player's strategy show that Williams realized that players ought

to cooperate to maximize their winnings. When Alchian didn't

cooperate, Williams punished him, then went back to cooperating

next round.

Nash, who learned of the experiment from Tucker, sent Dresher and

Flood a note -- later published as a footnote in their report --

disagreeing with their interpretation: 11

The flaw in the experiment as a test of equilibrium point theory

is that the experiment really amounts to having the players play

one large multi-move game. One cannot just as well think of the

thing as a sequence of independent games as one can in zero-sum

cases. There is too much interaction.... It is really

A292

striking however how inefficient [Player One] and [Player Two]

were in obtaining the rewards.

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One would have thought them more rational.

Nash managed to solve a problem at RAND that he and Shapley had

both been working on the previous year. The problem was to devise

a model of negotiation

between two parties-whose interests neither coincided nor were

diametrically opposed and the players could use to determine

what threats they should use in the process of negotiating.

Nash

beat Shapley to the punch. "We all worked on this

problem." Martin Shubik later wrote in a memoir of his Princeton

experiences, "but Nash managed to formulate a good model of the

two-person bargain utilizing threat moves to start with."

Instead of deriving the solution axiomatically, he listed

desirable properties of a "reasonable" solution and then proving

that these properties actually point to a unique outcome. He

had in mind formulating his original model of bargaining, Nash laid

out a four-step negotiation:

Stage One: Each player chooses a threat. This is what I'll be forced to do if we can't make a

deal, that is, if our demands are incompatible. Stage Two: The

players inform each other of the threats. Stage Three: Each player chooses a demand, that is,

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an outcome worth a certain amount to him. If the bargain doesn't

guarantee him that amount, he won't agree to a deal. Stage Four:

If it turns out that a deal exists that satisfies both players'

demands, the players get what they ask for. Otherwise, the threats have to be executed. It turns out that the game has

an infinite number of Nash equilibria, but Nash gave an ingenious argument for selecting a unique stable equilibrium that coincides with the bargaining solution he previously derived axiomatically. He showed that each player had an "optimal" threat, that is, a threat that ensures that a deal is struck no matter what strategy the other player chooses.

Nash initially wrote up his results in a RAND memorandum dated

August 31, 1950, suggesting that he managed to finish the paper just before

leaving RAND for Bluefield. A longer and more descriptive

version of the paper was eventually accepted by

Econometrica,

which had published "The Bargaining Problem" that April. Accepted

for publication sometime during the following academic year,

"Two

Person Cooperative Games" did not in fact appear

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until January 1953.<sup>11</sup> It was Nash's last significant contribution

to the theory of games.

Nobody at RAND solved any big new problems in the theory of noncooperative games. For all intents and purposes, Nash stopped

working in the field in 1950. The dominant thrust of game theory

at RAND came from the mathematicians, particularly Shapley, and

they were guided less by applications than by the mathematics

themselves. During the 1950's Shapley focused on cooperative

games, which were necessarily of limited interest not only  
A295  
to economists but also to military strategists. The justification  
of all mathematical models is that, oversimplified, unrealistic,  
and even false as they may be in some respect, they force analysts  
to confront possibilities that would not have occurred to them  
otherwise. The history of physics and medicine abounds with wrong  
or incomplete theories that throw just enough light to allow some  
other big breakthroughs. The atom bomb, for example, was built  
before physicists understood the structure of particles. The most  
significant application of game theory to a military problem grew  
straight out of the theory of duels and helped shape

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what was probably RAND's single most influential strategic study.  
The study was the brainchild of Alvin Wohlstetter, a mathematician  
who joined RAND's economics group in early 1951, about six months  
after Nash joined the mathematics group. According to Kaplan, the  
SAC operational plan in the early 1950's was to fly bombers from  
the United States to overseas bases and then to mobilize and launch  
an attack against the Soviet Union from there. The Air Force's  
whole deterrence strategy was based on the idea of the power of  
the H-bomb and America's ability to respond in kind to any attack.  
Apparently, no one before Wohlstetter had focused on vulnerability  
to a first strike aimed, not at American cities, but at wiping  
out the SAC force, then concentrated in a small number of foreign  
bases within striking distance of the Soviet Union. Kaplan writes:  
Up to that point, most military applications of game theory had  
focused on tactics—the best way to plan a fighter-bomber duel,

how to design bomber formations or execute anti-submarine warfare campaigns. But Wohlstetter would carry it further. It was this insistence on figuring out one's own

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best moves in light of the enemy's best moves that provoked Wohlstetter to look at a map and to conclude that the closer we are to them, the closer they are to us-the easier it is for us to hit them, the easier it is for them to hit us. Wohlstetter and his team estimated that a mere 120 bombs ... could destroy 75 to 85 percent of the B-47 bombers while they casually sat on overseas bases. The SAC, seemingly the most powerful strike force in the world, was appearing to be so vulnerable in so many ways that merely putting the plan into action ... created a target so concentrated that it invited a pre-emptive attack from the Soviet Union.

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Wohlstetter's study had an electrifying effect on the Air Force establishment. With its focus on American vulnerability and the temptation of a Soviet surprise attack, the study also rationalized a paranoia in the military establishment that seeped into the body politic and wound up as national hysteria over the supposed missile gap in the second half of the 1950's. The RAND report, Fred Kaplan writes, "legitimized a basic fear of the enemy and the unknown through

mathematical calculation and rational analysis, providing  
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the techniques and the general perspective through which the  
new  
and rather scary situation comthe Soviet Union's acquisition  
of  
long range nuclear weapons -- could be discussed and acted u  
pon."

14

The golden age at RAND, from the point of view of the  
mathematicians, strategic thinkers, and economists, was alre  
ady

coming to a closedd35 After a time, RAND's sponsors grew les  
s

enthusiastic about pure research, less tolerant of  
idiosyncrasies, and more demanding. Mathematicians got bored  
and

frustrated with game theory. Consultants stopped coming and  
permanent staffers drifted to universities. Nash never retur  
ned

after the summer of 1954. Flood left for Columbia University  
in

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A BEAUTIFUL MIND

1953. Von Neumann, who in any case had played a very small r  
ole

in the group after inspiring it, dropped his RAND consultanc  
y in

1954 when he accepted an appointment as a member of the Atom  
ic

Energy Commission.

Game theory, in any case, was going out of vogue

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at RAND. R. Duncan Luce and Howard Raiffa concluded in their  
1957

book, Gamesand Decisions:

"We have the historical fact that many social scientists hav  
e

become disillusioned with game theory. Initially there was a  
naive band-wagon feeling that game theory solved innumerable

problems of sociology and economics, or that, at least it ma  
de

their solution a practical matter of a few years' work. This  
has

not turned out to be the case." " The military strategists we  
re of

the same mind. "Whenever we speak of deterrence, atomic

blackmail, the balance of terror ... we are evidently deep i

n  
game theory"Thomas Schelling wrote in 1960, "yet formal ga  
me  
theory has contributed little to the clarification of these  
ideas." "

Princeton, 1950-51

J\_ LEITHER THE PROSPECT

of playing military strategist, nor living in Santa Monica,  
nor  
earning a handsome salary tempted Nash to accept Williams's  
offer  
of a permanent post at the think tank. Nash shared little of

RAND's camaraderie or sense of mission. He wanted to work on  
his  
own and to have the freedom to roam

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all over mathematics. To do that, he would have to obtain a  
faculty position at a leading university.

For the moment, he planned to spend the upcoming academic ye  
ar in

Princeton. Tucker had arranged for his support by assigning  
him

to teach a section of undergraduate calculus I and making hi  
m a

research assistant on his Office of Naval Research grant. ` I  
n

fact, Nash intended to devote most of his energy to his own  
research and to looking for an academic opening for the foll  
owing

fall. But before he could turn to these matters, he was forc  
ed to

confront an immediate threat to his career plans, namely, th  
e

Korean War.

North Korea had invaded the South on June 25, 1950, about th  
e

time that Nash was flying to Santa Monica. A week later  
A300

Truman promised to send American troops to repel the invasion.

The first reinforcements landed July 19. By July 31, Truman had issued an order to the Selective Service to call

up one hundred thousand young men right away, twenty thousand

immediately. A week or two later, John Sr. and Virginia wrote

that Nash might be in imminent danger of being

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drafted. Like most Republicans, they disliked Truman and had their doubts about the war. They urged Nash to come to Bluefield

as soon as practical to talk with members of the local draft board personally to sound them out about a II-A. Surely, they

said, Nash was more valuable at RAND or at Princeton than in uniform.

When Nash left RAND at the very end of August, he flew from Los

Angeles to Boston and spent a day at the world mathematical congress, which was meeting in Cambridge. He presented his

algebraic manifolds result to a small audience there, a nice distinction for a young mathematician. But he was anxious to get

back to Bluefield and didn't stay for most of the meetings. He was determined to do all he could to avoid the draft. With a

war on, even an unpopular and undeclared war, who knew how long

he would have to serve? Any interruption of his research could

jeopardize his dream of joining a top-ranked mathematics department. Returning World War II veterans had flooded the job market and enrollments were falling because of

the draft. In two years there would be another crop of brilliant

youngsters clamoring for the handful of instructors' hips. His

game theory thesis  
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had been greeted with a mix of indifference and derision by the pure mathematicians, so his only hope of a good offer, he felt,

was to finish his paper on algebraic manifolds.

Besides, he had no wish to become part of someone else's larger

design and dreaded the thought of military life-his hawkish instincts and southern background notwithstanding. He had been

one of the few boys at Beaver High who hadn't prayed for World

War II to last long enough so that he would have a chance to

serve. Life in the army, with its mindless regimentation, stultifying routines, and lack of privacy, revolted him, and he

had heard enough stories from other mathematicians to dread being

herded together with the kind of rude, uneducated young men whose

company he had been only too happy to escape when he left Bluefield for Carnegie Tech. Nash proceeded methodically. Once

back in Bluefield, he called on two members of the board, including its chairman, a retired attorney named T. H. Scott

, whom he later described as "a rock-ribbed Republican (Truman

equals moron equals Roosevelt)," and a Dr. H. L. Dickason, the

president of Bluefield State, a black

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junior college on the far side of the town. He made it his business to find out as much as he could about the men who would

be deciding his fate. As it turned out, the board had only a

fuzzy sense of what Nash was doing. Until he showed up at the

Peery building, they had no idea that he had already

A303

received his doctorate and had assumed he was returning to Princeton that fall as a student. His student deferment had not

yet been canceled.

His meeting with Scott did nothing to ease his anxiety. The board

was already working through its list of twenty-two-year-olds . Now

that the board knew that he was no longer a graduate student , he

might very well be in the next call, which was scheduled for the

twentieth of the month, less than two weeks away. Nash mentioned

that he was doing classified research for the military, and described both his affiliation with RAND and the ONR project at

Princeton. Scott did not rule out the possibility of granting an

occupational deferment, but he expressed some skepticism that a

young mathematician could be indispensable, except in uniform, in

a national emergency. Nash felt slightly better about his meeting

with Dickason, who had taught math and physics before the war and

appeared

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to be impressed by Nash's Princeton degree and associates. It was

probably Dickason who tipped Nash off to the fact that merely

filing an application for a II-A, an occupational deferment,

would temporarily halt the wheels of the draft machinery and take

him out of the pool of potential draftees at least until the

board had time to consider his II-A application. Nash wasted no

time. In Bluefield, he went to the library and read the Selective

Service law. He thought about the board's psychology. He wrote to

Tucker, to the Office of Naval Research in Washington, and no

doubt also to Williams at RAND, though there is no record of

such  
a letter<sup>dd6</sup> (A letter from the  
Office of Naval Research in Washington, received by A] Tucke  
r on  
September 15, begins, "John Nash has written me asking if ON  
R can  
help get him a draft deferment.") Nash asked them to request  
a  
11-A deferment, but urged them to state only the bare facts,  
promising more information later-so that "heavier guns may b  
e  
later rolled out without the appearance" of merely repeating  
the  
initial statements<sup>dd7</sup> He was intent on buying as much time a  
s  
possible. Later on, in other

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--305

circumstances, Nash would repeatedly express his dislike and  
resentment of "politics"and "politicking." But, impractical,  
childish, and detached from everyday concerns as he was in s  
ome  
ways, he was quite capable of plotting strategy, ferreting o  
ut  
necessary facts, making use of his father's connections, and  
most  
of all, marshaling allies and supporters. Tucker, the univer  
sity,  
the Navy, and RAND responded sympathetically and promptly,  
claiming in unison that he was irreplaceable, it would take  
years  
to train a substitute, and his work was "essential to the we  
lfare  
and security of this nation." I Fred D. Rigby at the Office  
of  
Naval Research in Washington advised Tucker that the best ro  
ute  
to take was for a university officer to ask the New York bra  
nch  
of the ONR to write to the Bluefield draft board. "This proc  
ess  
is said to work well. Normally, it takes place after the man  
is  
put in I-A, but there is no rule against its use in advance  
of  
that event<sup>dd</sup>"Rigby also noted that "this kind of question is

coming up frequently these days," suggesting that Nash was  
A305

hardly alone among young academics with Defense Department affiliations seeking to avoid the draft. Rigby also promised

that, should the branch office action fail, "we will then

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--306

make a second try directly with the national selective service

organizN`"adding, however, that in all likelihood "this will not

be necessary.0"I

The concerted effort to save Nash from the draft was not much

different from similar efforts made for a great many other young

scientists at the time. The Korean War did not inspire the same

patriotic fervor as World War 11.11 Many academics regarded defense research as a kind of alternative service and the notion

of exempting especially accomplished and valuable individuals had

antecedents even in World War 11.11 Kuhn remembers trying but

failing to join the Navy's V-12 program, which would have allowed

him to spend the war attending the same classes at Caltech that

he would have attended as a civilian, only in uniform. He wound

up in the infantry only because he failed the Navy's tougher

physical." Korea did not prompt the massive draft evasion of the

Vietnam era, de facto a working-class war, but among a certain

elite in Nash's generation there was a sense of entitlement and a

lack of embarrassment about obtaining special treatment.

The urgency of Nash's efforts to avoid the draft

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suggests deeper fears than those related to career ambitions or

personal convenience. His was a personality for which regimentation, loss of autonomy, and close contact with strangers

were not merely unpleasant, but highly threatening. With some

justification, Nash would later blame the onset of his illness partly on the stress of teaching, a far milder form of regimentation than military life. His fear of being drafted remained acute long after the Korean War ended and after he turned twenty-six (the age cut-off for draft eligibility). It eventually reached delusional proportions and helped drive him to attempt to abandon his American citizenship and seek political asylum abroad. Interestingly, Nash's gut instinct has since been validated by schizophrenia researchers. None of the life events known to produce mental disorders such as depression or anxiety neurosis—combat, death of a loved one, divorce, loss of a job—have ever been convincingly implicated in the onset of schizophrenia. But several studies have since shown that basic military training during peacetime can precipitate schizophrenia in men with a hitherto unsuspected vulnerability to the

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illness. Although the study subjects were all carefully screened for mental illnesses, hospitalization rates for schizophrenia turned out to be abnormally high, especially for draftees. Rigby's prediction was soon borne out. A handwritten note dated September 15 from the files of Princeton's dean of faculty, Douglas Brown, records a telephone call from Agnes Henry, the mathematics department secretary, who informed the dean's secretary that John Nash had telephoned her asking the dean to write to the Office of

Naval Researchdd"A few days later Nash filled out a  
A308  
university form, "Information Needed in a National Emergency  
, " in  
which he stated that he was registered at Local Board 12 in  
Bluefield, that his current classification was I-A, and that  
he  
had a "chance or 2-A, application pendingdd011 The form note  
d  
that Nash was engaged in project 727, Tucker's ONR logistics  
grant. In response to the question "Are you engaged in any o  
ther  
research work or consultation of possible national interest"  
"Nash  
responded yes and listed "consultant. for RAND corporation."  
A  
note, added perhaps by the head of Princeton's grants office  
,  
mentioned that Nash had spent "3  
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--309  
years or more on the theory of games and related fields. Wro  
te  
paper in this field when at Carnegie Tech as undergraduate,  
Two  
years to get Ph.D. at Princeton. Dr. Rigby has already told  
NY to  
support."  
The university immediately wrote to ONR stating that "this  
project is considered by the Logistics Branch of ONR, Washin  
gton  
as a very important contribution in the present national  
emergency. Dr. Nash is a key member of our staff in this pro  
ject  
and is one of the very few individuals in the country who ha  
ve  
been trained in this field," The ONR followed, on September  
28,  
with a letter to the draft board saying that Nash was "a key  
research assistant"and "this contract is an essential part o  
f the  
Navy Departments research and development program and is in  
the  
interest of national safetydd019  
RAND protected Nash as well. RAND's former manager of securi  
ty,  
Richard Best, recalls writing letters for Nash and another  
mathematician from Princeton, Mel Peisakoff, to "save"them f  
rom

the draftdd10 (Peisakoff's recollection differs from Best's, however; he says he wanted to enlist but that his superiors at RAND wouldn't let him.)0"We had a lot of reservists and a great many

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young peopleea"said Best. "In 1948, the average age was 28.35

years. The personnel office wasn't well

The Draft

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[equipped to handle the situation]. I wrote some form letters to

the draft board for Nashea"he recalled .12

Nash's lobbying campaign worked, though he was not immediately

granted the desired 11-A. By October 6, the university informed

Nash that "you seem to be safe until June 30dd0`1 Apparently, the

board had simply postponed the designation for active service

until June 30, 1951. The university advised Nash, I would suggest that we defer any further action until next spring, at

which time, we can again apply for a 11-A classification and can

consider an appeal if this should be rejected." 14 But, at least

for now, he had prevented the military from wrecking his plans.

More important, by protecting his personal freedom, Nash may have

protected the integrity of his personality and won the ability to

function well for longer than he might otherwise have.

Princeton, 1950-51

STRANGE

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AS IT MAY NOW SEEM,

the dissertation that would one day win Nash a Nobel wasn't highly regarded enough to assure him an offer from a top academic

department. Game theory did not inspire much interest or respect

among the mathematical elite, von Neumann's prestige notwithstanding. Indeed, Nash's mentors at Carnegie and Princeton

were vaguely disappointed in him; they had expected the youngster

who had re-proved theorems of Brouwer and Gauss to tackle a really deep problem in an abstract field like topology. Even his

biggest fan, Tucker, had concluded that while Nash could hold

his own in pure mathematics was not "his real strength."

Having successfully sidestepped the threat of the draft, Nash now

began working on a paper that he hoped would win him recognition

as a pure mathematician. The problem concerned geometric objects

called manifolds, which were of great interest to mathematicians

at that time. Manifolds were a new way of looking at the world,

so much so that even defining them sometimes tripped up eminent

mathematicians. At Princeton, Salomon

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Bochner, one of the leading analysts of his day and a fine lecturer, used to walk into his graduate classes, start to give a

definition of a manifold, get hopelessly bogged down, and finally

give up, saying with an exasperated air, before moving on, "Well,

you all know what a manifold is."

In one dimension, a manifold may be a straight line, in two dimensions a plane, or the surface of a cube, a balloon, or a

doughnut. The defining feature of a manifold is that, from the

vantage point of any spot on such an object, the immediate

vicinity looks like perfectly regular and normal Euclidean space. Think of yourself shrunk to the size of a pinpoint, sitting on the surface of a doughnut. Look around you, and it seems that you're sitting on a flat disk. Go down one dimension and sit on a curve, and the stretch nearby looks like a straight line. Should you be perched on a three-dimensional manifold, however esoteric, your immediate neighborhood would look like the interior of a ball. In other words, how the object appears from afar may be quite different from the way it appears to your nearsighted eye.

By 1950, topologists were having a field day

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with manifolds, redefining every object in sight topologically. The diversity and sheer number of manifolds is such that today, although all two-dimensional objects have been defined topologically, not all three- and four-dimensional objects of which there is literally an infinite assortment -- have been so precisely described. Manifolds turn up in a wide variety of physical problems, including some in cosmology, where they are often very hard to cope with. The notoriously difficult three-body problem proposed by King Oskar 11 of Sweden and Norway in 1885 for a mathematical competition in which Poincaré took part, which entails predicting

the orbits of any three heavenly bodies comparable to the sun,  
A313  
moon, and earth -- is one in which manifolds figure largely.

Nash became fascinated with the subject of manifolds at  
Carnegie But it is likely that his ideas did not crystallize  
until after he came to Princeton and began having regular  
conversations with Steenrod. In his Nobel autobiography, Nash  
says that, right around the time that he got his equilibrium  
result for n-person games, that is, in the fall of 1949, he  
also

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--314

made "a nice discovery relating to manifolds and real algebraic  
varieties." This is the result that he had considered writing up  
as a dissertation after von Neumann's cool reaction to his ideas  
about equilibrium for games with many players.  
The discovery came long before Nash had worked out the laborious  
steps of the actual proof. Nash always worked backward in his  
head. He would mull over a problem and, at some point, have a  
flash of insight, an intuition, a vision of the solution he was  
seeking. These insights typically came early on, as was the case,  
for example, with the bargaining problem, sometimes years before  
he was able, through prolonged effort, to work out a series of  
logical steps that would lead one to his conclusion. Other great  
mathematicians --  
Riemann, Poincaré, Wiener have also worked in this way. One  
mathematician, describing the way he thought Nash's mind worked,  
said: "He was the kind of mathematician for whom the geometric,  
visual insight was the strongest part of his talent. He would see  
a mathematical situation as a picture in his mind. Whatever a  
mathematician does has to be justified by a rigorous proof.  
But

that's not how the solution presents itself to him. Instead,  
it's  
a bunch

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--315

of intuitive threads that have to be woven together. And some of  
the early ones present themselves visually.<sup>9</sup>  
With Steenrod's encouragement, Nash gave a short talk on his  
theorem at the International Congress of Mathematicians in Cambridge in September 1950.<sup>11</sup> Judging from the published abstract, however, Nash was still missing essential elements of  
his proof. Nash planned to complete it at Princeton. Unfortunately for Nash, Steenrod was on leave in France." Lefschetz, who undoubtedly was pressing Nash to have the paper  
ready before the annual job market got under way in February,  
'  
urged Nash to go to Donald Spencer, the visiting professor who  
had been on Nash's general committee and had just been hired  
away from Stanford, and to use Spencer as a sounding board for  
completing the paper."  
As a visiting professor, Spencer occupied a tiny office squeezed  
between Artin's huge corner office and an equally grand study  
belonging to William Feller. Spencer, as Lefschetz wrote to the dean of faculty, was "probably the  
most attractive mathematician in America at that moment" as well  
as "one of the most

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--316

versatile American born mathematicians."

A doctor's son, Spencer grew up in Colorado and was

A316

admitted to Harvard, where he intended to study medicine. Instead, he wound up at MIT studying theoretical aerodynamics and

then at Cambridge, England, where he became a student of J. E.

Lifflewood, Hardy's great coauthor. "Spencer did brilliant work

in complex analysis, a branch of pure mathematics that has widespread engineering applications. He was a much sought-after collaborator, his most celebrated collaboration

being with the Japanese mathematician Kunihiko Kodaira, a Fields

medalist. Spencer himself won the B6cher Prize." Although he

primarily worked in highly theoretical fields, he nonetheless had

some applied interests, namely hydrodynamics. 19

A lively, voluble man, Spencer was "sometimes daunting in his

reckless energy." His appetite for difficult problems was boundless, his powers of concentration impressive. He could drink

enormous quantities of alcohol. "He would drink five martinis out of 'bird bath' glasses and still talk circles around

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other mathematicians. "A man whose natural exuberance hid a darker tendency toward depression and introspection, Spencer's

appetite for abstraction was accompanied by an extraordinary empathy for colleagues who were in trouble."

He did not, however, suffer fools gladly. The first draft of Nash's paper gave Spencer little confidence that the younger

mathematician was up to the task he'd set for himself. "I didn't

know what he was going to do, really. But I didn't think he was

going to get anywhere." For months, Nash showed up at Spencer's

door once or twice a week. Each time he would lecture Spencer on

his problem for an hour or two. Nash would stand at the blackboard, writing down equations and expounding his points

.

Spencer would sit and listen and then shoot holes in Nash's arguments.

Spencer's initial skepticism slowly gave way to respect. He was

impressed by the calm, professional way that Nash responded to

his most outrageous challenges and his fussiest objections.

"He

wasn't defensive. He was absorbed in his work. He responded thoughtfully

He also liked Nash for not being a whiner. Na

sh

never talked about himself, Spencer recalled. "Unlike other students

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--318

who felt underappreciated`he said, "Nash never complained

"The

more he listened to Nash, moreover, the more Spencer appreciated

the sheer originality of the problem. "It

was not

a problem that somebody gave Nash. People didn't give

Nash problems. He was highly original. Nobody else could have

thought of this problem."

Many breakthroughs in mathematics come from seeing unsuspected

relationships between objects that seem intractable and ones that

mathematicians have already got their arms around.

Nash had in mind a very broad category of manifolds, all

manifolds that are compact (meaning that they are bounded and do

not run off into infinity the way a plane does, but are

self-enclosed like a sphere) and smooth (meaning that they

have no sharp bends or corners, as there are, for example, A318 on the surface of a cube). His "nice discovery," essentially, was that these objects were more manageable than they appeared at first glance because they were in fact closely related to a simpler class of objects called real algebraic varieties, something previously unsuspected.

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Algebraic varieties are, like manifolds, also geometric objects, but they are objects defined by a locus of points described by one or more algebraic equations. Thus  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  plus  $xy = 1$  represents a circle in the plane, while  $xy = 1$  represents a hyperbola. Nash's theorem states the following: Given any smooth compact  $k$ -dimensional manifold  $M$ , there exists a real algebraic variety  $V$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{k+1}$  and a connected component  $W$  of  $V$  such that  $W$  is a smooth manifold diffeomorphic to  $M$ . In plain English, Nash is asserting that for any manifold it is possible to find an algebraic variety one of whose parts corresponds in some essential way to the original object. To do this, he goes on to say, one has to go to higher dimensions.

Nash's result was a big surprise, as the mathematicians who nominated Nash for membership in the National Academy of Sciences in 1996 were to write: "It had been assumed that smooth

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manifolds were much more general objects than varieties." Nash's result still impresses mathematicians as "beautiful" and "disstriking"-quite apart from any applicability. "Just to conceive of the theorem was remarkable," said Michael Artin, professor of mathematics at MIT. Artin and Barry Mazur, a mathematician at Harvard, used Nash's result in a 1965 paper to

estimate periodic points of a dynamical system."  
just as biologists want to find many species distinguished b  
y  
only minor differences to trace evolutionary patterns,  
mathematicians seek to fill in the gaps in the continuum bet  
ween  
bare topological spaces at one end and very elaborate struct  
ures  
like algebraic varieties at the other. Finding a missing lin  
k in  
this great chain comz Nash did with this result comopened up  
new  
avenues for solving problems. "If you wanted to solve a prob  
lem  
in topology, as Mike and I didea"said Mazur recently, disy c  
ould  
climb one rung of the ladder and use techniques from algebra  
ic  
geometrydd011  
What impressed Steenrod and Spencer, and later on, mathemati  
cians  
of Artin and Mazur's

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--321  
generation, was Nash's audacity. First, the notion that ever  
y  
manifold could be described by a polynomial equation is a  
larger-than-life thought, if only because the immense number  
and  
sheer variety of manifolds would seem to make it inherently  
unlikely that all could be described in so relatively simple  
a  
fashion. Second, believing that one could prove such a thing  
also  
involves daring, even hubris. The result Nash was aiming for  
would have seemed "too strong" and therefore improbable and

unprovable. Other mathematicians before Nash had spotted  
A321

relationships between some manifolds and some algebraic  
varieties, but had treated these correspondences very narrow  
ly,  
as highly special and unusual cases.

29

By early winter, Spencer and Nash were satisfied that the re  
sult  
was solid and that the various parts of the lengthy proof we  
re

correct. Although Nash did not get around to submitting a fi  
nal

draft of his paper to the  
Annals of Mathematics until

October 1951, Steenrod, in any case, vouched for the resul  
ts

that February,

referring to "a piece of research which he has

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nearly completed, and with which I am well acquainted since  
he

used me

as

a sounding board. "Spencer thought game theory was so boring  
that

he never bothered to ask Nash in the course of that whole ye  
ar

what it was that he had proved in his thesis."

Nash's paper on algebraic manifolds -- the only one he was e  
ver

truly satisfied with, though it was not his deepest  
work?--established Nash

as

a pure mathematician of the first rank. It did not, however,  
save

him from a blow that fell that winter. Nash hoped for an off  
er

from the Princeton mathematics department. Although the  
department's stated policy was not to hire its own students,

it

did not, as a matter of practice, pass up ones of exceptiona  
l

promise. Lefschetz and Tucker very likely dropped hints that  
an

offer was a real possibility. Although most of the faculty o  
ther

than Tucker neither understood nor displayed any interest in  
his

thesis topic, they were aware that it had been greeted with

respect by economistsdd14

In January, Tucker and Lefschetz made a formal proposal that Nash be offered an assistant

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professorshipdd"Bochner and Steenrod were strongly in favor, although Steenrod, of course, was not present at the discussion.

The proposal, however, was doomed to failure. No appointment

could be made without unanimous support in a department as small as

Princeton's, and at least three members of the faculty, including

Emil Artin, voiced strong opposition. Artin simply did not feel

that he could live with Nash, whom he regarded as aggressive

, abrasive, and arrogant, in such a small departmentdd16 Artin, who

supervised the honors calculus program in which Nash taught for a

term, also complained that Nash couldn't teach or get along with

students."

So the appointment wasn't offered. It was a bitter moment. The

thought must have occurred to Nash that he was being rejected

less on the basis of his work than on the basis of his personality. It was an even greater blow because the same faculty

made it clear that it hoped that John Milnor, only a junior by

this time, would one day become part of the Princeton  
A323

faculty."

The job market, while not as bad as in the Depression, was  
nonetheless rather bleak, the Korean War

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having cut into university enrollments. Having been turned d  
own

by Princeton, Nash knew he would be lucky to get a temporary

instructorship in a respectable department.

Both MIT and Chicago, it turns out, were interested in hirin  
g

Nash as an instructordd"Bochner had the ear of William Ted  
Martin, the new chairman of the MIT mathematics department,  
and

strongly urged Martin to offer Nash an instructorship.

40

Bochner urged Martin to ignore the gossip about Nash's suppo  
sedly

difficult personality. Tucker, meanwhile, was pushing Chicag  
o to

do the samedd41 When MIT offered Nash a C. L. E. Moore  
instructorship, Nash, who liked the idea of living in Cambri  
dge,

acceptedddd41 BYTHE

END OF JUNE,

Nash was in Boston living in a cheap room on the Boston side  
of

the Charles.` Every morning he walked across the Harvard Bri  
dge,

over the yellow-gray river to east Cambridge where MIT's mod  
ern,

aggressively utilitarian campus lay sprawled between the riv  
er

and a swath of

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factories and warehouses. Even before he reached the far sid  
e, he

could smell the factory smells, including the distinct odors  
of

chocolate and soap mingling together from a Necco candy fact  
ory

and a PandG detergent plant.` As he turned right onto Memori  
al

Drive, he could see Building Two looming ahead, a featureles  
s

block of cement painted an "alarming brownea"j to the right  
of

the new library, then under construction. His office was on the third floor next to the stairwell in a corner suite assigned to several instructors, a spare, narrow room with a high ceiling, overlooking the river and the low Boston skyline beyond. In 1951, before Sputnik and Vietnam, MIT was not exactly an intellectual backwater, but it was nothing like what it is today. The Lincoln Laboratory was famous for its wartime research, but its future academic superstars were still relatively unknown youngsters, and powerhouse departments for which it has since become known—economics, linguistics, computer science, mathematics—were either infants or gleams in some

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academic's eye. It was, in spirit and in fact, still very much the nation's leading engineering school, not a great research university. An environment more antithetical to the hothouse atmosphere of Princeton is hard to imagine. MIT's large scale and modern contours made it feel like the behemoth state universities of the Midwest. The military, as well as industry, loomed awfully large,

so large that MIT's armed, plainclothes campus security  
A326  
force existed solely for the purpose of guarding the half-do  
zen  
"classified" sites scattered around the campus and preventin  
g  
those without proper security clearances and identification  
from  
wandering in. ROTC and courses in military science were requ  
ired  
of all MIT's two-thousand-plus undergraduate men. The acade  
mic  
departments like mathematics and economics existed pretty mu  
ch to  
cater to the engineering student-in Paul Samuelson's words,  
"a  
pretty crude animaldd117 All counted as "service departments  
, "  
gas stations where engineers pulled up to get their tanks fi  
lled  
with obligatory doses of fairly elementary mathematics, phys  
ics,  
and chemistry. Economics, for example, had no graduate prog  
ram  
at all until the wardd9

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--327

Physics had no Nobel Laureates on its faculty at the timedd1  
0  
Teaching loads were heavy-sixteen hours a week was not uncom  
mon  
for senior faculty-and  
were weighted toward large introductory courses like calculu  
s,  
statistics, and linear algebradd"Xs faculty were younger, le  
ss  
well known, and less credentialed than Harvard's, Yales, or  
Princeton's.  
"There were advantagesesea"said Samuelson. "A lot of the MIT  
faculty didn't have Ph.D4's. I came without a formal degree.

Solow came before he had a formal degree. We were treated  
magnificently. It was more of a meritocracy." He added, "Peo  
ple  
would say, doesn't everybody do that? Not up the river, we'd  
answer. How do you explain that? We're Avis, we try harderdd  
"I I  
Socially, MIT was dominated by an old guard not of high-soci  
ety  
intellectuals, but of middle-class Republicans and engineers

. "It certainly was not a faculty club populated by cultivated Brahmins," said Samuelson, who was then twenty-five years old:

"When I came [in 1940] it was 85 percent engineering, 15 percent science."

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MIT also had a less exclusionary tradition than Harvard or even Princeton. By the 1950's, perhaps 40 percent of the mathematics faculty and students at MIT were Jewish. Bright youngsters from New York City public schools, effectively barred even then from attending Princeton as undergraduates, went there. Princeton was "out of the question for a Jew" recalls Joseph Kohn, who enrolled as a freshman at MIT in 1950. "At Brooklyn Tech the

greatest thing in the world was sending a student to MIT. Still smarting from his rejection by Princeton, Nash arrived at Building Two with something of a chip on his shoulder, a feeling that he was a swan among ducks. MIT was already changing, however. Indeed, bringing a brilliant young researcher like Nash on board in the mathematics department was itself a sign of that shift. There was money all of a sudden, not just for teaching the exploding numbers of students, but for research. The amounts were small by post-Sputnik standards or even those of today, but huge by prewar standards. Support for science, initially fueled by the successes during World War II, was now growing because

of the Cold War. It came not just from the Army, Navy, and  
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Air Force but from the Atomic Energy Commission and the Central  
Intelligence Agency. MIT wasn't unique. Other institutions,  
from

the big state universities in the upper Midwest to Stanford,  
grew

up the same way. There was also the talent. Physics got many  
of

the Los Alamos people. Electrical engineering was becoming a

magnet for the first generation of computer scientists, an  
eclectic group of neurobiologists, applied mathematicians, and  
assorted visionaries like Jerome Lettvin and Walter Pitts, who

saw the computer as a model for studying the architecture and  
functioning of the human brain.0"X was very much a growing  
environment and science was a growing sphere2'said Samuelson

,  
adding that after the war, the 85 percent-15 percent split between  
engineering and science had shifted to 50 percent-50 percent

. He  
added: "It was the upswing in money ... that made this possible.  
That was part of the whole postwar pattern.0"I

Mathematics was on the verge of becoming an important department,  
although that was not obvious to everyone at the time. The  
department had one famous name, Norbert Wiener (who wound up  
at  
MIT

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largely thanks to Harvard's anti-Semitism), and two or three  
first-rate younger men, including the topologist George Whitehead  
and the analyst Norman Levinson. But otherwise, mathematics  
consisted largely of competent teachers rather than great  
researchers com"a few giants but a lot of mediocritiesddd019

The man who changed all that was appointed chairman of the  
department in

1947. William Ted Martin, called Ted by everyone who knew him,  
was the tall, skinny, loquacious son of an Arkansas country  
doctor. Blond and blue-eyed with a sunny disposition and a ready

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grin, Martin was married to the granddaughter of a president  
of  
Smith College and revved up with ambition. A man whose innate  
decency would turn him into one of Nash's protectors after Nash  
became ill, Martin would soon endure his own trial by fire.  
At  
the height of the McCarthy witch hunt, Martin's secret past  
as an  
underground member of the Communist Party in the late 1930's  
and  
early 1940's would be exposed, threatening both his career and  
his vision for the department. But in 1951 the past was still  
safely buried. A "sparkplug of a chairman" his real

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talent was for making things happen, wheedling money out of  
the  
MIT administration, the Navy, and the Air Force, and using it to  
great, indeed astounding, effect."  
One of Martin's strokes of genius was figuring out that the  
cheapest and quickest way to upgrade the department was not  
to  
reel in a few more big names, but to lure young hotshots there  
for a year or two and handle them, as much as possible, with kid  
gloves. Copying Harvard's Benjamin Pierce Fellows, Martin created  
C. L. E. Moore Instructorships, so called in honor of MIT's  
most  
distinguished mathematician in the 1920s. Moore Instructorships  
weren't expected to join the permanent faculty. The idea was  
to  
get a stream of talent that would act as a catalyst, firing up  
MIT's humdrum atmosphere and attracting better students, the  
best

of whom now automatically went to the Ivies and Chicago.

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Since he wouldn't have to live with them for long, or so he thought, Martin wasn't scared of difficult personalities.

"Bochner said Nash was worth appointing. 'Don't worry about anything!'" Martin recalled. And Martin didn't. He came to

value Nash, not just as "a brilliant and

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creative young man" as an ally in his quest to make the department great. He would come to particularly rely on Nash's

absolute intellectual honesty: "When Nash mentioned somebody [as

a potential hire], you didn't wonder if he was a crony or a relative. If Nash said he was top flight, you didn't need much in

the way of outside references."

The most attractive figure at MIT from Nash's point of view was

Norbert Wiener. Wiener was, in some ways, an American John von

Neumann, a polymath of great originality who made stunning contributions in pure mathematics up until the beginning of World

War II and then embarked on a second and equally astounding career in applied mathematics. Like von Neumann, Wiener is

known to the public for his later work. He was, among other things, the father of cybernetics, the application of mathematics

and engineering to communications and control problems.

Wiener was also famously eccentric. His appearance alone was

remarkable. His beard, Samuelson recalled after Wiener's death in

1964, was like "the Ancient Mariner's." He puffed on fat cigars. He waddled like a duck, a myopic

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parody of an absentminded professor. His extraordinary upbringing

at the hands of his father, Leo, was the subject of two popular

books, *IA-MORE a Genius* and *IA-MORE a Mathematician*, the first of

which became a bestseller in the early 1950's. Prolific as he

was, Wiener generated as many anecdotes about himself as

theorems. He hardly seemed to know where he was. He would as

k,  
for example, "When we met, was I walking to the faculty club  
or  
away from it? For in the latter case I've already had my  
lunchdd016 He was notoriously insecure. If he encountered so  
meone  
he knew carrying a book under his arm, he would, as likely a  
s  
not, ask anxiously whether his name was in the bookdd17 Frie  
nds  
and admirers traced this feature of his personality to his  
obsessive and overbearing father, who once bragged that he c  
ould  
turn a broomstick into a mathematician, and to Harvard's  
anti-Semitism, which cost Wiener an appointment in Birkhoff'  
s  
department. As Samuelson said in a eulogy after Wiener's dea  
th:  
"The exodus from Harvard dealt a lasting psychic trauma to  
Norbert Wiener. It did not help that his father was a Harvar  
d  
professor ... or that Norbert's mother regarded his move as  
a  
cruel comedown in life.""

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Wiener's colleagues at MIT knew that he suffered from period  
s of  
manic excitability followed by severe depressions, constantl  
y  
threatened to resign, and sometimes spoke of suicide. "When  
he  
was high he'd run all over MIT telling people his latest  
theoremea" Zipporah "Fagi" Levinson, the wife of Norman Levins  
on,  
recalled. "You couldn't stop himdd019 At times, he would come  
to

the Levinsons' house, weeping, and say that he wished to  
A334

kill himself 10 One of Wiener's everpresent fears was that h  
e

would go mad; his brother Theo, as well as two nephews, suff  
ered  
from schizophrenia."

Perhaps because of his own psychological struggles, Wiener h  
ad an  
acute empathy for other people's trials. "He was egotistical  
and

childish, but also very sensitive to the real needs of  
othersea"Mrs. Levinson recalled." When a younger colleague w  
as

writing a book but couldn't afford a typewriter, Wiener show  
ed up

at his door unannounced with a Royal portable under his arm.

When Nash arrived at MIT in 195 1, Wiener embraced him  
enthusiastically and encouraged Nash's growing interest in t  
he

subject of fluid dynamics-an interest that eventually led Na  
sh to  
his

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most important work. For example, Nash sent Wiener a note in  
November 1952, inviting him to a seminar Nash was to give on

"turbulence via statistical mechanics, collision functions,  
etc.0"His postscript, saying, "I've found the smoothing effe  
ct in

definite form now," suggests that Nash talked about his rese  
arch

with Wiener, something he did with almost no one else in the

department. Nash saw Wiener, a genius who was at once adulat  
ed

and isolated, as a kindred spirit and fellow exiledd14 He co  
pied

some of Wiener's more extreme mannerisms, his own form of ho  
mage

to the older man."

But Nash was to become far closer to Norman Levinson, a  
first-rate mathematician and a man of extraordinary characte  
r,

who would play a role in Nash's career similar to those of  
Steenrod and Tucker at Princeton coma combination of soundin  
g

board and father substitute. Levinson, then in his early for

ties,  
was more enigmatic than Martin but far more accessible than  
Wienerdd16 Wiry, of medium height, with craggy features, Levi  
nson  
was a fine teacher who rarely displayed the slightest facial  
expression and never referred to his own accomplishments. He  
suffered from hypochondria and from

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wide mood swings, long manic periods of intense creative act  
ivity  
followed by months, sometimes years, of depression in which  
nothing interested him. A former Communist like Martin, Levi  
nson  
would suffer doubly during the McCarthy years when he endure  
d not  
only notoriety and threats to his career as a mathematician,  
but  
his teenage daughter's slide into mental illness.

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Despite these burdens, Levinson was, and would long remain,  
by  
far the most respected member of the department. Thoughtful,  
decisive, and attuned to the personal as well as intellectu  
l  
needs of those around him, Levinson was father confessor and  
wise  
elder, the one whose judgments were constantly sought and ca  
rried  
most weight, on everything from research to appointments.  
His personal history was one of individual triumph over blea  
k  
beginnings. Born in Lynn, Massachusetts, just before World W  
ar 1,  
Levinson was the son of a shoe factory worker who earned eig  
ht  
dollars a week and whose education consisted of attending a  
yeshiva for a few years. His mother was illiterate. Despite  
a

childhood of desperate poverty and an education that  
A336

consisted of attending rundown vocational

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in schools, Levinson's brilliance was undeniable. He managed, with the help of Wiener, who spotted his talent, to attend MIT and, later, Cambridge. At Cambridge, he became a protégé of G. H. Hardy and embarked on a series of brilliant papers on ordinary differential equations. "He was very uncouth, very provincial,"

his wife, Ziporah, who met Levinson soon after he returned from England, recalled in 1995. "He was highly opinionated and too ignorant to know that he didn't know everything. But he'd plunge in and make a good paper, despite the fact that he didn't know the literature. Wiener ignored his rough edges."

Like many promising young Jewish mathematicians of his generation, Levinson had difficulty getting an academic post when he returned to the States, and it was Hardy who, while visiting Harvard in 1937, was ultimately responsible for Levinson's appointment that year at MIT. The university's provost, Vann

evan Bush, had turned down Wiener's recommendation that Levinson be offered an assistant professorship when Hardy, who at that time was both an outspoken opponent of Nazi anti-Semitism and the most

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prominent member of the German mathematical society, went with Wiener to the provost's office to protest. "Tell me, Mr. Bush, do you think you're running an engineering school or a theological seminary?" he is supposed to have said. When the provost gave a puzzled frown, Hardy went on: "If it isn't, why not hire Levinson?"

Nash was attracted by Levinson's strong personality and by a

quality that he both shared and admired, namely Levinson's uncommon willingness to tackle new and difficult problems. Levinson was an early pioneer in the theory of partial differential equations, recognized by a 136cher Prize, and t he author of an important theorem in the quantum theory of scattering of particles. Most remarkably, when he was in his early sixties and already suffering from the brain tumor tha t would eventually kill him, Levinson achieved the most import ant result of his career, the solution to a part of the famous Riemann Hypothesis.`,, In many ways, Levinson was a role mod el for Nash. People considered him a had hoy- hut a great one. - DONALD J NE-WMAN.

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1995

7h e Grea t Man

...

is colder, harder, less hesiWing, and without fear of opinio n "he #7cks the virtues that accompany respectand 'espectahility, a nd aitoe'ther everything that is the "virtue of the herd "Ifhe cannot lead, he goesalone... He knows he is incommunicable: hefinds it t7nessteless to he familiar. .

. "en not speaking to himself, he wears a mask. There is a

solitude within him that is inaccessible to praise or  
A339

blame. -

FmEDR-ICH NmyzscHE,

The Will to Power

I IASH WAS

just twenty-three years old when he became an MIT instructor  
. He

was not only the youngest member of the faculty, but younger  
than

many of the graduate students. His boyish looks and adolesce  
nt

behavior won him nicknames like Li'l Abner and the Kid  
Professor.`

By MIT standards of that time, the teaching duties of C. L.  
E.

Moore instructors were light. But

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--340

Nash found them irksome nonetheless comz he did everything t  
hat

interfered with his research or smacked of routine. Later, h  
e

would be one of the few active researchers on the faculty wh  
o

avoided giving courses in his own research area. Partly, it  
was a

matter of temperament, partly a matter of calculation. He  
shrewdly realized that his advancement did not depend on how  
well

or poorly he performed in front of students. He'd advise oth  
er

instructors, "If you're at MIT, forget about teaching. Just  
do

research."`

Perhaps for this reason, Nash was mostly assigned required  
courses for undergraduates. In the seven years of his teachi  
ng

career at MIT, he seems to have taught only three graduate  
courses, all introductory, one in logic in his second year,  
one

in probability, and a third, in the fall of 1958, in game  
theory.` Mostly, it seems, he taught different sections of  
undergraduate calculus.

His lectures were closer to free association than exposition

Once, he described how he planned to teach complex numbers t  
o

freshmen: "Let's see ... I'd tell them  $i$  equals square root  
of

minus one. But I'd also tell them

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--341

that it could be minus the square root of minus one. Then so  
how

would you decide which one. . . dis" He started to wander. Ju  
st

what freshmen needed, the listener said, in disgusted tones,  
in

1995. "He didn't care whether the students learned or not, m  
ade

outrageous demands, and talked about subjects that were eith  
er

irrelevant or far too advancedddd0bled He was a tough grader  
too.

At times his ideas about the classroom had more to do with  
playing mind games than pedagogy. Robert Aumann, who later b  
ecame

a distinguished game theoretician and was then a freshman at  
MIT,

described Nash's escapades in the classroom as "flamboyant" a  
nd

"mischievousdd" I Joseph Kohn, later the chairman of the Prin  
ceton

mathematics department, called him "a bit of a gamesterdd06

During the 1952 Stevenson-Eisenhower race, Nash was convince  
d,

quite rightly as it turned out, that Eisenhower would win. M  
ost

of the students supported Stevenson. He made elaborate bets  
with

the students that were constructed so that he would win  
regardless of who won the election. The very brightest stude  
nts

were amused, but most were frightened away and soon the  
better-informed students started to avoid his courses altoge  
ther.

In his first year at MIT, Nash taught an analysis course  
342

for advanced undergraduates. The course was supposed to be a  
n  
introductory look at calculus in which students weren't just  
learning manipulations but rather absolutely solid proofs of  
statements and how to construct such proofs. Between the fir  
st  
and second semesters of the yearlong course, the number of  
students dwindled from about thirty to five.

Kohn recalled: "He gave a one-hour test. He banded out blue  
books

where you filled in your name and the course number on the c  
over.

When the bell rang, you were supposed to turn over the exam  
sheet

and start working on the test. There were four problems. Pro  
blem

number one was `What is your name?` The other three problems  
were

fairly hard. Since I knew by then how his mind worked, I mad  
e

sure to write next to number one, `My name is Joseph Kohn.`  
People who assumed that writing their name on the cover was

enough got twenty-five points taken offdd"I

Putting classic unsolved problems on exams was another of Na  
sh's

favorite tricks, Aumann recalled: "The students were suppose  
d to

show that pi is an irrational number. Later, when Nash was

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--343

upbraided by the chairman of the department for putting the  
equivalent of Fermat's Last Theorem on a final, he responded

by  
saying that people have a mental picture that this is a diff  
icult

problem. Maybe that's the stumbling block. Maybe, if people  
didn't realize that the problem was `hardl'they could solve

it."`

On another occasion, one of Nash's graders actually confront  
ed

him after he put the following question on a test:

If you make up a bunch of fractions of pi 3.141592.... If yo  
u

start from the decimal point, take the first digit, and plac  
e

decimal point to the left, you get .1

Then take the next 2 digits .41 Then take the next 3 digits

.592

And so on and so on. You get a sequence of fractions between  
0  
and 1. What are the limit points of this set of numbers? (A  
limit  
point is a point such that in any open interval containing it,  
however small, there are an infinite number of numbers from the  
sequence.)`

The grader immediately realized that it was a question that  
nobody had ever answered. The decimal expansion of pi isn't  
a  
famous outstanding problem, but it's the kind of thing  
mathematicians ask each other, not

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--344

undergraduates. Only one fact has been proved, namely, that  
it  
has to have at least one limit point. It was clear that the  
students should know that there was at least one limit. But  
Nash  
thought that he knew, intuitively, that every number between  
0  
and 1 should be a limit point. He felt strongly that he knew  
the  
answer intuitively, which is of course quite different from  
having a solid proof. "It was a sort of strange thing to  
doea"said the grader, in 1996. Nash's propensity for tricks  
of  
this kind was so well known that it became the occasion of a

small joke on him, George Whitehead, a topologist in the  
department at the time, recalled in a conversation in 1995.1  
0

Nash was teaching a large section of the same freshman calcu  
lus  
course that several graduate students were also teaching. Al  
l the

sections had a prescribed and identical final and all the  
A344  
tests were graded together. A test, signed J. Forbes Hacker,  
Jr.,  
with all wrong answers, came back, "hacker" being a  
double-entendre referring both to Nash's favorite putdown, w  
hich  
was "hack," and MIT slang for jokester. (It was hackers, for  
example, who one night removed a car belonging to Donald Spe  
ncer,  
who was briefly an instructor at MIT before the war, from it  
s  
parking

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--345  
space on Massachusetts Avenue, deconstructed it, and left it  
for  
him to find when he walked into his classroom the next morni  
ng,  
once again fully assembled.) On another occasion, messages  
appeared on several blackboards around Building Two: THIS IS  
HATE

JOHN NASH DAY! his  
Still, Nash could be charming to students he regarded as  
mathematically talented, and such students found much to adm  
ire.  
To a select few, often undergraduates, Nash made himself "ve  
ry,  
very available for chatting about mathematicsea" Barry Mazur,  
a  
number theorist at Harvard who first encountered Nash during  
his  
freshman year at MIT, recalled. "It was amazing what he was  
willing to talk about. There was a sense of infinite time in

every conversation."  
Once Mazur and Nash were chatting in the common room. Someon  
e  
mentioned a classical theorem by a disciple of Gauss, Peter  
Gustave Lejeune Dirichlet, that states that there are an inf  
inite  
number of prime numbers in certain arithmetic progressions.  
"It's  
the kind of thing that one just accepts or perhaps goes off  
and  
looks up afterwardsea" Mazur said. Nash, however, jumped up,  
went  
to the board, and "for hours and hours elegantly

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--346

thought through the proof from first principles"for Mazur's benefitdd12

Outside the classroom, Nash alternated between the sort of behavior for which he was famous at Princeton -- pacing in Building Two's cavernous hallways whistling Bach comand bouts of

sociability. By day, he spent very little time in the office

suite

that he shared with the other Moore Instructors. Mostly, he spent

his time in the mathematics common room coma far cry from the one

in Fine Hall, a ratty and nondescript lounge directly below the

instructors` offices, at the bottom of a flight of stairs.

The social atmosphere of the MIT common room resembled some of

the more raucous scenes from the cult movie If, about a British

public school that is taken over by its "boys." Nash imported the

Princeton practice of a regular tea hour to MIT, but not any of

its more genteel customs." "He wanted to be the quickestea"Is adore

M. Singer, a fellow Moore Instructor, recalled in 1994. "He was a

real competitor." 14

just as he had at Princeton, Nash liked jumping

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into a conversation, throwing out challenges and being challenged. He liked solving problems.

Students and an occasional professor played games, including go,

chess, a great favorite of Wiener's despite lack of skill at the

gamee"and bridge. (Nash, Singer recalled, was hopeless at  
A347  
bridge. "It was absurd ` "Singer said. "He had no sense of th  
e  
laws of probability in cards.0gg16 Many of the games, howeve  
r,  
were made up on the spur of the moment. One day a group made  
up  
an index of eccentricity by which various department members  
were  
ranked. Wiener, not Nash, drew the highest score. I I Anothe  
r  
time, everyone played a version of charades that involved dr  
awing  
abstract pictures representing people around the department.  
A  
graduate student drew a highly elaborate picture of what app  
eared  
to be a taxi. Nobody could guess who it was supposed to be.  
The  
picture, it turned out, was meant to be a Nash,  
the car manufactured in the 1940's and 1950's, and was suppo  
sed  
to signify Nash the Hack, again, a reference to Nash's favor  
ite  
putdown of those he regarded as plodders."`  
The crowd in the common room was dominated by a handful

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of fast-talking, wisecracking veterans of Stuyvesant High Sc  
hool  
and the Bronx High School of Science math teams and the City  
College "Math Table"- a once-famous table in City's cafeteri  
a at  
which an entire generation of math students, mostly working-  
class  
Jews and immigrants, honed their skills in problem solving a  
nd  
reparteedd19  
It was a brasher, rougher crowd, less uptight and more toler  
ant  
than the one in Fine Hall, and an audience more to Nash's li  
king.  
Showing off wasn't regarded  
as  
a crime if you knew your stuff. Lack of social graces was  
considered part and parcel of being real mathematicians. "Th  
eir  
attitudes were famously nonbourgeois, exhibitionistic,  
dissoluteea"Felix Browder recalled.` ,` If anything, all of t

hem  
placed a certain premium on eccentricity and outrageousness,  
although by today's standards what went for unconventional  
behavior and manners was, by and large, mild comdepending on  
certain turns of phrase, brands of humor, and little deviati  
ons  
in dress. One fellow insisted on wearing pants with fly butt  
ons  
with a button or two

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--349

undonedd"One graduate student recalled: "At that time we tho  
ught  
of eccentricity and being good in math as going together. We  
were  
all enjoying ourselves by being a little bit wild. We though  
t of  
ourselves as taking advantage of being bright

143

by ignoring conventions we didn't like. We turned ourselves  
a  
little bit into charactersdd011  
In this circle, Nash learned to make a virtue of necessity,  
styling himself selfconsciously as a "free thinkerdd"He anno  
unced  
that he was an atheistdd"He created his own vocabularydd14 H  
e  
began conversations in midstream with "Let's take this  
aspectdd"He referred to people as "humanoids." Nash picked u  
p the  
mannerisms of other eccentric geniuses. For example, Wiener,  
who  
was terribly nearsighted, would keep one of his fingers in t  
he  
groove in the walls between the wall tiles and the plaster,  
as he  
navigated his way hesitantly through the corridors. Nash did  
the  
same thingdd"D. J. Newman condemned all music after Beethove  
n.

Nash would stalk into the music library and tell anyone

A349

who was listening to anything more modern, "That's junkdd016

Levinson, whose daughter suffered from manic depression, hat  
ed

psychiatrists. Nash

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--350

adopted a similarly vehement stance against the  
professiondd"Warren Ambrose detested conventional greetings  
like

"How are you" "Nash followed suit."

Marvin Minsky, whom Nash had known during his final year in  
Princeton and whom he regarded as the most intelligent

"humanoid"of all, recalled: "We shared a similarly cynical v  
iew

of the world. We'd think of a mathematical reason for why  
something was the way it was. We thought of radical, mathema  
tical

solutions to social problems. At one point, Nash suggested a

complete transfusion for something. If there was a problem,  
we

were good at finding a really ridiculously extreme solutiondd  
d0211

One time he said that parents should "self-destruct," that i  
s,

commit suicide, and hand over all their holdings to their  
children. It would be not only convenient but principled, Na  
sh

said, according to Herta Newman, the wife of Nash's friend D  
onald

Newmandd10 Another time he told a class of undergraduates th  
at

American citizens' voting rights should be made proportional  
to

their income (or perhaps it was wealth)dd"In many ways Nash'  
s

views were more suited to nineteenth-century England's eliti  
st

political landscape than to the predominantly

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--351

left-wing counterculture of the MIT math department of the  
1950's.

Nevertheless, he adopted a touch of flamboyance about his dr  
ess.

He wore translucent white Dacron shirts sans undershirt, oth  
ers

thought, to show off his powerful physique." He bought a cam

era  
and spent much of his time browsing through photography  
books. For a time, he read and talked a great deal about  
experimenting with mind-altering drugs like heroin—although  
there  
is no evidence that he ever tried any. His growing  
heterogeneity of interests and heterodoxy could, with hindsight,  
be seen as the first overt signs of a growing alienation from  
convention and society that would later evolve into a radical  
sense of separateness and disconnection.  
But, at the moment, these postures enhanced rather than detracted  
from Nash's social appeal. Nash's status as an instructor and his  
growing reputation as a mathematician brought him newfound  
respect. He was now considered an interesting  
company. His arrogance was seen as evidence of his genius, and so  
was his eccentricity, a source of both amusement and grudging  
respect, the other side of the genius coin, as it were. Fagin  
Levinson, the department's den mother, said in 1996: "For Nash

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to deviate from convention is not as shocking as you might think.  
They were all prima donnas. If a mathematician was mediocre  
he  
had to toe the line and be conventional. If he was good, anything  
went." Jerome Neuwirth, a graduate student at MIT, said, "When  
your solution turns out to be right, we give you your due. We  
give you a lot of leeway. Had Nash been less of a mathematician,

he wouldn't have gotten away with his nastiness."

A352

16

Donald Newman added, "People were annoyed with him because he was flippant, but not really annoyed. They considered him a bad boy, but a great one, a great golden boy."

37

The gang around Nash included Newman, aka D.J., a Harvard graduate student who spent most of his time at MIT hanging out with his old friends from City College and with Nash, because "Harvard was too snooty." Other members of the group included Walter Weissblum, a brilliant sad sack, drunk, and hunchback with a heart of gold, who never finished his degree; 19 Harry Gonshor, who later became a professor at Rutgers, an

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oddball who wore Coke-bottle glasses, looked as if he were floating on air, and once proved a theorem so that it could be stated as "AFL equals CIO";

40

Gustave Solomon, the most humane of the group, later a coinventor of the Reed-Solomon code; 41 Leopold "Poldy" Flatto, an inveterate peopewatcher and storyteller; 41 and, after 1952

Jacob Leon Bricker, the group's Woody Allend; 41

Neuwirth, a latecomer to the group, said, "Who were we? What were

we trying to do? Every group has its own currency. Our only currency is what we were thinking. Who's smart? Who's doing what?

What can you solve? How far did you get? It doesn't sound nice

but it was exciting; 44

Nash's closest equal, in brains, competitiveness, and general superciliousness, was Newman. Newman was considered a genius and

the best problem solver of the group; 41 A big, brash, blond swaggerer, Newman had the distinction, very impressive to Nash,

of being a three-time Putnam winner. He was already a husband and father, with

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responsibilities that, however, did little to cramp his flamboyant style. He drove a flashy white Thunderbird with red

leather seats that he liked to drag race along Memorial Drive in

the middle of the night. As an undergraduate at City College

he'd been famous for stunts like turning up in the class of some

unfortunate mathematics professor bearing an enormous tree branch, leaves and all, that he claimed was for a biology class.

Nash and Newman immediately recognized each other as kindred

spirits. "They loved to spark each other" Arthur Singer recalled "They admired each other's sarcasm" said Mattuck.

"It was all good-natured. But D.J. could make cracks much faster.

He had instant recall when it came to mathematics. People used to

say that D.J. could solve any problem that could be done in twenty-four hours.

Newman didn't have the power of Nash's sustained concentration.

Nash could think about a problem for half a year" Newman

went to a seminar given by Nash. "I sat in on some of

Nash's lectures" said Newman, who was intrigued rather than put

off. "It was different,

kind of exciting. He wandered, unlike most lecturers,

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because he liked to explore a lot of things at once. It was kind

of nice.... We chewed each other out"Newman recalled. "Nash and

I were friendly friends

Thanks to the acceptance of Newman and his friends, Nash acquired

a real social life. The crowd often ate lunch together in Walker

Memorial, but it also gathered after hours at various cheap restaurants, coffee shops, and beer halls that were as plentiful

in 1950's Cambridge and Boston as they are today, places that

didn't mind if you nursed a beer all night and were willing to

write separate checks They included famous Boston restaurants

like Durgin Park, which served generous helpings of traditional

New England dishes, including a sinfully delicious roast beef and

Indian pudding; Jake Wirth, an old-style German establishment

with a mammoth oak bar; and the Wursthau in Harvard Square.

Other favorites were Cronin's, Chez Dreyfus, and the Newbury

Steakhouse. The Hayes-Bickford and the Waldorf, which were both

Horn and Hardart-style coffee shops, open most of the night, were

also frequent gathering places. At other times,

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everybody would hang out at some graduate student's apartment, or

go to parties given by the Martins, Levinsons, and in the mid-1950's, the Minskys.

Within his new circle, Nash strove to constantly underscore his

own uniqueness, superiority, and self-sufficiency. "I'm Nash with

a capital N"his whole manner shouted

.50

He was always saying that only one or two people in the

departmentWiener was always one of these -- were up to his

standard. His putdowns were legendary. "You're a child"was

a

favorite expression. "You don't know crap. How trivial! How stupid! You'll never do anythingff"he would say."  
He loved to perform. At parties, he acted rather than conversed.

Once, at the Minskys', Nash demanded that his listeners challenge him with a difficult mathematical problem. He said, "I've had a few drinks. Are my thinking powers stronger or weaker on drink?"

He was not above dissembling slightly to wow an audiencedd"H e would pout if he was bested in an argumentddl4 And he hated being challenged by someone he considered to be an inferior. One day in the common

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room, a group of students was talking about a famous World War II logistics puzzle, the "Jeep" problem.

15

The essence of the jeep problem is that you want to cross the two-thousand-milewide Sahara desert but the Jeep's gas tank holds only enough gas to travel two hundred miles. The only way to

cross the desert is to follow a two-steps-forward, one-step-back strategy: to load up the jeep with cans of gasoline, drive, say, one hundred miles, drop off the cans, and go back to the starting point. Then you get more cans of gas, go one hundred miles, unload some and use some to top off the gas in the tank, go another one hundred miles, and go back, picking up some more gasoline. The question is, how many

gallons would be needed?

A357

There is no optimal solution to the problem, as it turns out

Everybody was proposing solutions. Nash threw out a number. Nash's grader that term, Seymour Haber, proposed a number half as big. Nash contemptuously dismissed Haber's solution. When Haber insisted that he prove it, Nash said, "My solution's much better."

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--358

Haber recounted: "I didn't see it. I insisted that he prove it. He didn't want to. He said it was obvious. I still wouldn't accept his assertion. So he did the calculation. He turned out to be mostly right, but he was extremely annoyed with me. He was angry for my having forced him to do this grungy work when it was perfectly clear all along what the answer was. He was angry with me for some period afterward." Nor was he above putting the audience down. A typical example: at lunch one day, a graduate student was describing an axiomatic approach to a problem outlined by one of his professors. Nash fairly exploded, "Don't give me all that crap! Tell me how you'd solve the problem. You haven't learned anything. All these concepts don't mean a thing." Nash's putdowns of other mathematicians earned him the sobriquet "Gnashdd". Nash responded, "G obviously stands for genius. In fact, there are few geniuses these days here at MIT. Me, of course, and also Norbert Wiener. Even Norbert may no longer be a genius, but there is evidence that he once wasdd". Af that, he referred to Gnu (Newman) and C-squared (Andrew

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Gleason, a young Harvard professor who had just solved Hilbert's fifth problemgg.17

When John McCarthy, whom Nash knew from Princeton, gave a seminar in the department, Nash pulled him aside afterward and said,

"There are too many journals. There are too many trashy papers being published. There are too many guys doing research. Only a few of us should be in research. The rest of them should be in sin x"-a snide reference to the tables at the back of high-school trigonometry books."

Nash flaunted his social snobbery, a legacy of his Bluefield upbringing. He implied that he came from old moneydd19 He would sniff wine at a party and say, "This is an adequate Chiantid d060 Nowhere was his snobbery more evident than in his reaction to being "a non-Jew in a definitely Jewish atmospheredd061 Later, when Nash became paranoid and embraced all sorts of strange delusions, he wrote letters to Newman and others addressed to "Jewboy," became obsessed with the state of Israel, and talked about "Krypto-Zionist conspiracies."

61

But in the early 1950's, his attitude was merely

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--360

one of social superiority. He frequently told Newman that he looked "too Jewish." 61 Like Groucho Marx, he was inclined not to admire any club that accepted him. Nash displayed a contempt for people and things he considered beneath him. As Fred Brauer, another instructor at MIT, put it forty years later, "That

covered a lot of territorydd064

A360

RAND, Summer 1952

ONE

AFTERNOON-DURING

Nash's second summer in Santa Monica, he and Harold N. Shapiro,

another mathematician from RAND, were swimming in the surf off

Santa Monica Beach just south of the pier. The ocean was fairly

rough. Below the breakwater, Santa Monica Beach was a narrow and

steep strip of sand with breakers that were usually six to ten

feet high. It was a favorite of body surfers.

Nash and Shapiro were far from shore when they were caught in a

powerful current that swept them farther out. Both men were strong swimmers. Nash was "built like a Greek god," Shapiro recalled, and he, too, was sturdy and muscular. But Shapiro remembers being dragged under the waves, briefly

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--361

overpowered by the current, and very frightened. Nash seemed to

be struggling as well. "It was hard work getting back to shore,"

Shapiro said. When the two young men finally reached the beach,

they threw themselves on the sand, exhausted and breathing heavily. Shapiro recalled lying there, thinking how lucky they

were not to have drowned. To his amazement, however, Nash jumped

to his feet after a moment or two and announced he was going back

into the water. I wonder if that was an accident?" Nash said in a

calm and detached tone. "I think I'll go back in and see."

At the beginning of that second summer, Nash had driven cross-country from Bluefield to Santa Monica in a rusty old Dodge. He and John Milnor, who was by now a graduate student at

Princeton, made the trip together, though Milnor drove his own

car. Traveling with them were Nash's younger sister Martha and

Ruth Hincks, a journalism major at the University of North

Carolina in Chapel Hill, who joined them at the last minute.

They met in Chapel Hill, then drove on to Bluefield. Hincks remembers being warned not to let slip that Martha would be sharing the apartment with Milnor as well as Nash. She recalled

in 1997 that this secretiveness struck her

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--362

as strange. As they started out, Ruth drove with Nash, Martha with Milnor. Ruth was struck by Nash's complete indifference to

her. "I was slim, attractive, intelligent" she recalled in 1997.

Nash "never even noticed that I was there" she said. She was

also struck by the seemingly distant relationship between Nash

and Milnor. "They just sort of stood around. They could have met

the day before. They never referred to shared experiences. They

didn't seem to really know each other" Even the relationship

between brother and sister seemed disa little standoffish, not

affectionate at all" said Ruth. "I don't think I saw any affection from anybody on that trip."

They traveled on U.S. 40, which took them through Kansas and

Nebraska. They stopped once for a day in Grand Lakes, Colorado, where they all went horseback riding, and also in Salt

Lake City, where they visited the Mormon Temple, The men put the

young women in charge of divvying up all the motel,  
A362  
restaurant, and gas bills. All should have been fine for the  
se  
young people, privileged as few were, in 1952, to be traveli  
ng  
cross-country on their own. Yet before the trip was over, Na  
sh  
and Ruth had quarreled, and Martha, who had been riding with

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Milnor, was forced, reluctantly, to ride with her older brot  
her  
for the remainder of the journey.`  
It started as a fine adventure. Martha had just graduated fr  
om  
Chapel Hill, and had traveled very little before  
.6

Tall and striking like her brother, Martha was extremely  
intelligent. In spite of a fierce determination not to be  
regarded as an egghead and an oddball, Martha had won a  
Pepsi-Cola scholarship by beating every boy at Beaver High o  
n the  
SAT's and had received invitations to apply to Radcliffe, Sm  
ith,  
and other top women's schools. Her father, however, had turn  
ed  
down the scholarship on her behalf, saying that the family c  
ould  
afford tuition at a nearby school, and Martha wound up at St  
. Mary's, a junior college attended mostly by well-to-do south  
ern  
girls who brought fur coats with them, rode horses, and were  
themselves being groomed not for the job but for the marriag  
e  
market. After graduating from St. Mary's, she went on to the  
University of North Carolina, where she completed a teaching  
degree.

John had persuaded his parents that it would be good for

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--364

Martha to spend a summer in Santa Monica, suggesting that he  
could get more work done if Martha kept house for him  
.7  
Martha, who had never been away from home except at college,

was  
eager to go. Once the plans were made, John also made no secret  
of his hope that his sister and John Milnor would take an  
interest in each other.  
It was Nash who had proposed that they all travel together.  
Milnor and Nash, of course, had known each other since Milnor  
was  
a freshman at Princeton four years earlier. Though he had not yet  
completed his dissertation, Milnor had already been asked by  
Princeton to join its faculty. Nash confessed to Martha that  
he  
was jealous of Milnor's abilities, but he was clearly also  
charmed by Milnor's selfeffacing personality, his brilliantl  
y  
lucid mind, and the younger man's lanky good looks.  
Ruth said her good-byes as soon as the quartet arrived in Santa  
Monica. Martha, Nash, and Milnor rented a small furnished  
apartment at the top of a rambling Spanish-style villa on  
Georgina Avenue, a stately street in the old

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--365

section of Santa Monica and ten minutes' walk via Palisades  
Park  
from RAND. ` Nobody did much cooking or housekeeping. A guest  
who  
had been invited for lunch said: "The place  
hadn't been cleaned comever. There were dust balls and dirty  
dishes. After looking around -- they obviously hadn't prepar  
ed a  
meal -- I decided to ask for eggs. John pushed the remnants  
of a  
previously fried egg aside in the frying pan. 'Very nice peo  
ple,`

I thought to myselfdd09 Martha got a job in a bakery. She  
A365  
hardly saw her two roommates, who seemed to spend most of th  
eir  
waking hours inside the RAND headquarters. Martha tried to v  
isit  
their offices one day but was barred by the guards because s  
he  
had no security clearance. 10 She and Milnor went out to din  
ner  
once in the first week or two, but despite their many hours  
together in the car, Milnor was uneasy and painfully tongue-  
tied,  
and it became clear to Martha that no romance was in the off  
ing."

The two men worked mostly on their own. Milnor wrote a love  
y  
paper called "Games Against Nature.0"Nash dabbled with games  
that  
could be played using a computerdd"He was, by this time,  
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--366  
chiefly concerned with mathematical problems that arise in t  
he  
study of fluid dynamics. A paper on war games was merely a  
half-hearted effort, designed to justify his employment at R  
AND  
and to be hastily drafted before he returned to Cambridge at  
the  
beginning of September.

14  
But Nash and Milnor did collaborate on one project, an exper  
iment  
on bargaining involving hired subjects, that was to become,  
unexpectedly, a much-cited classicdd"The experiment, designe  
d  
with two researchers from the University of Michigan who wer  
e  
also at RAND for the summer, anticipated by several decades  
the  
now-thriving field of experimental economics.  
The RAND experiments grew more or less directly out of the h  
abit  
of playing games that the mathematicians indulged in their s  
pare  
time. Inventing new games and trying them out, always with t  
he  
inventors as subjects, had been a popular pastime at Princet  
on.  
Many of the players had, like Nash, only recently outgrown  
boyhood passions for chemistry and electricity experiments.

The idea of recording the play to see whether people played the way the theory predicted was already a bit of a tradition at

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RAND, inaugurated by the famous Prisoner's Dilemma experiment.

Martha was astonished to learn that the volunteers were earning fifty dollars a day "to play games."

16

The experiment, which was conducted over a two-day period, was

designed to test how well different theories of coalitions and

bargaining held up when real people were making the decisions. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, with their interest in

games with many players, focused on coalitions, groups of people

who act in unison. They argued that rational players would calculate the benefits of joining every possible coalition and

choose the best one. It is, the one that was most advantageous

to them, whether they were business executives intent on collusion or workers who wanted to join a union.

Nash, Milnor, and the other researchers hired eight subjects

, college students and housewives. They devised different games,

mostly with four rotating players, one with as many as seven. The

game mimicked the general, "n-person" game of von Neumann's theory. Subjects were told they could win cash by forming coalitions,

and the specific amounts that would be awarded

to each possible coalition. To be eligible to win, however,  
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the coalition partners had to commit in advance to a given division of the winnings.

According to Al Roth, a leading experimental economist, the experiment yielded two insights that proved highly influential."

For one thing, it drew attention to information possessed by

participants: If the same players play the game repeatedly, the

authors concluded, players tend to "regard a run of plays as a

single play

of

a more complicated game." Second, like the Prisoner's Dilemma

experiment devised by Melvin Dresher and Merrill Flood in 1950,

it showed that players' decisions were often motivated by concerns about fairness. In particular, in situations in which

neither player had a privileged position, players typically opted

to "split the difference." For the designers of the experiment,

however, the results merely cast doubt on the predictive power of

game theory and undermined whatever confidence they still had in

the subject. Milnor was particularly disillusioned. 19 Though he

continued at RAND

as a

consultant for another decade, he lost interest in

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--369

mathematical models of social interaction, concluding that they

were not likely to evolve to a useful or intellectually satisfying stage in the foreseeable future. The strong assumptions of rationality on which both the work of von Neumann

and Nash were constructed struck him as particularly fatal.

After

Nash won the Nobel Prize in 1994, Milnor wrote an essay on Nash's

mathematical work in which he essentially adopted the widespread

view among pure mathematicians that Nash's work on game theory

was trivial compared with his subsequent work in pure mathematics. In the essay, Milnor writes:  
As with any theory which constructs a mathematical model for some real-life problem, we must ask how realistic the model is, Does it help us to understand the real world? Does it make predictions which can be tested? ...  
First let us ask about the realism of the underlying model. The hypothesis is that all of the players are rational, that they understand the precise rules of the game, and that they have complete information about the objectives of all of the other players. Clearly, this is seldom completely true. One point which should particularly be noticed is the

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linearity hypothesis in Nash's theorem. This is a direct application of the von Neumann-Morgenstern theory of numerical utility-, the claim that it is possible to measure the relative desirability of different possible outcomes by a real-valued function which is linear with respect to probabilities.... My own belief is that this is quite reasonable as a normative theory, but that it may not be realistic as a descriptive theory. Evidently, Nash's theory was not a finished answer to the problem of understanding competitive situations. In fact, it should be emphasized that no simple mathematical theory can provide a

complete answer, since the psychology of the players and  
A370

the mechanism of their interaction may be crucial to a more  
precise understanding

Nevertheless, decades later, economists, differing with Miln  
or,

came to regard

this "failure" of an experiment as a very worthwhile one. Cas  
ual

as the experiment was in one sense, it became a model for a  
new

method of economic research, one that had never before been  
tried

in the two hundred years since Adam Smith dreamed up the  
Invisible Hand. The feeling was that even if the

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experiments weren't sophisticated enough to show how people'  
s

brains work, watching the way people played games could draw

researchers' attention to elements of interaction comsch as  
signaling or implicit threats comt couldn't be derived  
axiomatically."

By the time the experiment was run the relationship between  
Nash

and Milnor had become strained, and Milnor had moved out of  
the

Georgina Avenue apartment. Milnor says now that Nash made a  
sexual overture toward him. "I was very naive and very  
homophobic" said Milnor. "It wasn't the kind of thing peopl  
e

talked abthen

dis022

But what Nash felt toward Milnor may have been something clo  
se to

love. A dozen years later, in a letter to Milnor, Nash wrote  
:

"Concerning love, I know a conjugation: amo, amas, amat, ama  
mus,  
amatis, amant. Perhaps amas is also the imperative, love! Pe  
rhaps

one must be very masculine to use the imperative

dis021

Spring 1953

Now, the thing I think would interest the committee ver ygre  
atly,

if you could possibly explain to them

...

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--372

Doctor... howyou can account for what would seem to be an abnormally large percentage of communists at MIT?- ROBERT L. Kuationzic, Counsel, HUAC, April 22,1953

TE

COLD

WAR-PROMISED to be the sugar daddy of the MIT mathematics department, but McCarthyism -- which blamed the setbacks in that

war on sinister conspiracies and domestic subversion

comthreatened to devour it.

While Nash and his graduate student friends were shooting each

other down and playing games in the mathematics common room,

FBI

investigators were fanning out around Cambridge, rifling through

trash cans, placing individuals under surveillance, and questioning neighbors, colleagues, students, and even children

Their targets, as Nash and everyone else at MIT would learn in

early

1953, included the chairman and the deputy chairman of the MIT

mathematics department, as well as a tenured full professor of

mathematics, Dirk Struik-all three one-time

members, indeed, leading members, of the Cambridge cell of  
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the Communist Party. All three were subpoenaed by the House Un-American Activities Committee. It was a state of siege and

everyone in the mathematics department felt the threat. At the time, Nash was no doubt far more preoccupied with the

draft comm to mention growing complications of his personal life

comthan with the possible repercussions for himself of the persecution of his benefactors. Nevertheless, the whole episode

was a warning that the world he and other mathematicians inhabited was an extremely fragile one. A congressional committee

could destroy your career, just as your draft board could send

you halfway around the world.

The whole thing had begun as a farce. McCarthy's original list

of communists, announced in February 1950, was studded with academics, including the father of Nash's friend Lloyd Shapley,

Harvard astronomy professor Harlow Shapley, whom McCarthy incorrectly identified to reporters as "Howard Shipley, astrologer" as the red hunt gathered momentum, the entire

scientific community  
Reds

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--374

nity felt vulnerable. Princeton's Solomon Lefschetz would be

identified as a possible communist sympathizer by an investigative body. Within a year, Robert Oppenheimer, head

of the Manhattan Project, one of the most revered scientists in

America and the director of the Institute for Advanced Study, would be humiliated by the McCarthyites.

When the subpoenas were issued, nobody knew how MIT would handle

the matter. Other universities had responded with immediate firings and suspensions. "McCarthyism was a big threat to these

schoolse" Zipporah Levinson, Norman Levinson's widow, recalled.

"During the war the government had started pouring money into

o

them. The threat was that the research money would dry up. It was a bread-and-butter issue."` Martin and Levinson were certain that they were about to lose their jobs and wind up blacklisted for good, like so many others. Levinson talked about becoming a plumber and specializing in the repair of furnaces. The investigators had their eye on the three Browder boys sons of former Communist Party head Earl Browder, who had all studied or were studying mathematics at MIT and were scholarship recipients, as

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--375

welldd7

"MIT was turned topsy-turvy" Mrs. Levinson recalled. "The faculty debated and debated how to prove that MIT was patriotic.

There was strong pressure to name names." I As it turned out

, Karl Compton, the president of the university and an outspoken

liberal who was a supporter of the Chinese revolution and a critic of Chiang Kai-shek, may have felt that he himself would

soon be subpoenaed. He hired a white-shoe Boston law firm, Choate, Hall and Steward, to defend Martin, Levinson, and the

others for a minimal fee. By April, when Martin and Levinson

were forced to testify,

The Tech

was running daily stories and anti-McCarthy sentiment was  
A375

running high on campus."

There is no evidence that the FBI ever questioned Nash or any

other students or faculty in the department, or asked for depositions, in an effort to establish a link between Levinson's

and Martin's Communist Party membership and classified defense

research and a link that probably never existed, given that both

left the party soon after the end of the war. The graduate students and junior faculty in the

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department stood on the sidelines and watched lives and careers

ruined and homes, even car insurance, lost. "By that time, young

people had prospects, jobs, optimism." Mrs. Levinson recalled.

"The younger people -- Nash's group -- didn't want to be too

friendly. They were scared. They distanced themselves." I I  
Martin and several others named their former associates. Norman

Levinson refused to name anyone who had not been previously named. "Ted and Izzy Amador hemmed and hawed. Norman knew that

Ted Martin and Izzy would cooperate. They spilled all the names.

Norman said he'd talk freely about the party but that he wouldn't

name names. The lawyer told Norman, no you don't have to say any

names. He'd cooperate, but he wouldn't give any names." Martin

gave a pathetic, frightened performance. Levinson's testimony, by

contrast, demonstrated the qualities of intellect and character

that made him such a force in the mathematics community. In a

series of forceful and eloquent answers to direct questioning, he

managed at one and the same time to defend the youthful idealism

that led

him into the party, attack the intellectual poverty of communism,

and, implicitly, call into question the

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committee's assumption that communism was a threat to the nation.

He spoke out against the hounding of former party members and

asked the committee to take a stand against the blacklisting of

Browder's oldest son, Felix, who had finished his Ph.D. and was

unable to obtain an academic post.

Thanks to MIT's support and the compromises they struck, Levinson

and the others kept their jobs. But the whole dispiriting affair,

which had been preceded by months of harassment and threats, left

deep scars on everyone involved. Martin, in particular, was shattered and deeply depressed, and was unable, nearly forty-five

years later, to talk about it. Levinson's younger daughter, a

student in junior high school, suffered a breakdown and was diagnosed with manic depression. Levinson and his wife blamed it

partly on her being harassed by the FBI. 14 And those on the

periphery, ostensibly unaffected, learned a lesson, namely that

the world they so very much took for granted was dangerously

fragile and vulnerable to forces beyond its control.

Nash took no part in the heated discussions among some of the

graduate students over the morality of the mathematicians' decision to cooperate with the government." Any discussion of

of morality raised for

him the specter of hypocrisy. But the angry, frightening,  
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turbulent time would supply him with some of the prosecutory  
demons that came to haunt him later

There are two kinds of mathematical contributions. work that  
important to the history of mathematics and work that simply  
a

triumph of the human spirit -

PAUL I COHEN,

1996

IN

THE SPRING OF

1953, Paul Halmos, a mathematician at the University of Chic  
ago,

received the following letter from his old friend Warren Amb  
rose,

a colleague of Nash's:

There's no significant news from here, as always. Martin is  
appointing John Nash to an Assistant Professorship (not the  
Nash

at Illinois, the one out of Princeton by Steenrod) and I'm p  
retty

annoyed at that. Nash is a childish bright guy who wants to  
be

"basically original" which I suppose is fine for those who hav  
e

some basic originality in them. He also makes a damned fool  
of

himself in various ways contrary to this philosophy. He rece  
ntly

heard of the unsolved

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problem about imbedding a Riemannian manifold isometrically  
in

Euclidean space, felt that this was his sort of thing, provi  
ded

the problem were sufficiently worthwhile to justify his effo  
rts;

so he proceeded to write to everyone in the math society to  
check

on that, was told that it probably was, and proceeded to ann  
ounce

that he had solved it, modulo details, and told Mackey he wo  
uld

like to talk about it at the Harvard colloquium. Meanwhile h  
e

went to Levinson to inquire about a differential equation th  
at

intervened and Levinson says it is a system of partial

differential equations and if he could only [get] to the essentially simpler analog of a single ordinary differential equation it would be a damned good paper-and Nash had only the vaguest notions about the whole thing. So it is generally conceded he is getting nowhere and making an even bigger ass of himself than he has been previously supposed by those with less insight than myself. But we've got him and saved ourselves the possibility of having gotten a real mathematician. He's a bright guy but conceited as Hell, childish as Wiener, hasty as X, obstreperous as Y, for arbitrary X and Y I Ambrose had every reason to be both skeptical and

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--380

annoyed.

Ambrose was a moody, intense, somewhat frustrated mathematician in his late thirties, full, as his letter indicates, of black humor. He was a radical and nonconformist. He married three times. He gave a lecture on "Why I am an atheist." He once tried to defend some left-wing demonstrators against police in Argentina and got himself beaten up and jailed for his efforts. He was also a jazz fanatic, a personal friend of Charlie Parker, and a fine trumpet player. Handsome, solidly built, with a boxer's broken nose-the consequence of an accident in an elevator! -- he was one of the most popular members of the

department. He and Nash clashed-from the start.

A380

Ambrose's manner was calculated to give an impression of stupidity: "I'm a simple man, I can't understand this" Robert

Aumann recalled: "Ambrose came to class one day with one shoelace

tied and the other untied. "Did you know your right shoelace is

untied?" we asked. "Oh, my God; he said, 'I tied the left one and

thought the other must be tied by considerations of symmetry

114

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--381

The older faculty in the department mostly ignored Nash's putdowns and jibes. Ambrose did not. Soon a tit-for-tat rivalry

was under way. Ambrose was famous, among other things, for detail. His blackboard notes were so dense that rather than attempt the impossible task of copying them, one of his assistants used to photograph them. Nash, who disliked laborious, step-by-step expositions, found much to mock. When

Ambrose wrote what Nash considered an ugly argument on the blackboard during a seminar, Nash would mutter, "Hack, Hack at the

back of the room."

Nash made Ambrose the target of several pranks. "Seminar on the

REAL mathematics" read a sign that Nash posted one day. "The

seminar will meet weekly Thursdays at 2 P.M. in the Common Room." Thursday at 2:00 P.M. was the hour that Ambrose taught

his graduate course in analysis. On another occasion, after

Ambrose delivered a lecture at the Harvard mathematics colloquium, Nash arranged to have a large bouquet of red roses

delivered to the podium as if Ambrose were a ballerina taking her bows.

Ambrose needled back. He wrote "Fuck

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Myf" on the "To Do" list that Nash kept hanging over his desk on a

clipboard. It was he who nicknamed Nash "Gnash" for constantly

making belittling remarks about other mathematicians. 10 And  
'  
during a discussion in the common room, after one of Nash's  
diatribes about hacks and drones, Ambrose said disgustedly,  
"If  
you're so good, why don't you solve the embedding problem fo  
r  
manifolds?"-a notoriously difficult problem that had been ar  
ound  
since it was posed by Riemann. So Nash did.  
Two years later at the University of Chicago, Nash began a  
lecture describing his first really big theorem by saying, "  
I did  
this because of a bet." Nash's opening statement spoke volum  
es  
about who he was. He was a mathematician who viewed mathemat  
ics  
not as a grand scheme, but as a collection of challenging  
problems. In the taxonomy of mathematicians, there are probl  
em  
solvers and theoreticians, and, by temperament, Nash belonge  
d to  
the first group. He was not a game theorist,  
157  
analyst, algebraist, geometer, topologist, or mathematical  
physicist. But he zeroed in on areas in these fields where  
essentially nobody had

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--383

achieved anything. The thing was to find an interesting ques  
tion  
that he could say something about.  
Before taking on Ambrose's challenge, Nash wanted to be cert  
ain

that solving the problem would cover him with glory. He

A383

not only quizzed various experts on the problem's importance

but, according to Felix Browder, another Moore Instructor, claimed to have proved the result long before he actually had. When a mathematician at Harvard confronted Nash, recalled

Browder, "Nash explained that he wanted to find out whether it was worth working on."

14

"The discussion of manifolds was everywhere," said Joseph Kohn in 1995, gesturing to the air around him. "The precise question that

Ambrose asked Nash in the common room one day was the following:

Is it possible to embed any Riemannian manifold in a Euclidean space?"

15

It's a "deep philosophical question" concerning the foundations of geometry that virtually every mathematician from Riemann and

Hilbert to Elie-Joseph Cartan and Hermann Weyl were working in the field of differential geometry for the

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past century had asked himself." The question, first posed explicitly by Ludwig Schläfli in the 1870's, had evolved naturally from a progression of other questions that had been

posed and partly answered beginning in the mid-nineteenth century." First mathematicians studied ordinary curves, then

surfaces, and finally, thanks to Riemann, a sickly German genius

and one of the great figures of nineteenth-century mathematics,

geometric objects in higher dimensions. Riemann discovered examples of manifolds inside Euclidean spaces. But in the early

1950's interest shifted to manifolds partly because of the large

role that distorted space and time relationships had in Einstein's theory of relativity.

Nash's own description of the embedding problem in his 1995 Nobel

autobiography hints at the reason he wished to make sure that solving the problem would be worth the effort: "This problem, although classical, was not much talked about as an outstanding problem. It was not like, for example, the four-color conjecture. I I Embedding involves portraying a geometric object as-or, a bit more precisely, making it a subset of some space in some dimension. Take the

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surface of a balloon. You can't put it on a blackboard, which is a two-dimensional space. But you can make it a subset of spaces of three or more dimensions. Now take a slightly more complicated object, say a Klein bottle. A Klein bottle looks like a tin can whose lid and bottom have been removed and whose top has been stretched around and reconnected through the side to the bottom. If you think about it, it's obvious that if you try that in three-dimensional space, the thing intersects itself. That's bad from a mathematical point of view because the neighborhood in the immediate vicinity of the intersection looks weird and irregular, and attempts to calculate various attributes like distance or rates of change in that part of the object tend to blow up. But put the same Klein

bottle into a space of four dimensions and the thing no  
A385  
longer intersects itself Like a ball embedded in three-space  
, a  
Klein bottle in four-space becomes a perfectly well-behaved  
manifold.  
Nash's theorem stated that any kind of surface that embodied  
a  
special notion of smoothness can actually be embedded in  
Euclidean space. He showed that you could fold the manifold  
like  
a silk

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--386  
handkerchief, without distorting it. Nobody would have expected  
Nash's theorem to be true. In fact, everyone would have expected  
it to be false. "It showed incredible originality" said Mikhail  
Gromov, the geometer whose book  
Partial  
Differential Relations  
builds on Nash's work. He went on:  
Many of us have the power to develop existing ideas. We follow  
paths prepared by others. But most of us could never produce  
anything comparable to what Nash produced. It's like lightning  
striking. Psychologically the barrier he broke is absolutely  
fantastic. He has completely changed the perspective on partial  
differential equations. There has been some tendency in recent  
decades to move from harmony to chaos. Nash says chaos is just  
around the corner. 19  
John Conway, the Princeton mathematician who discovered surreal  
numbers  
and invented the game of Life, called Nash's result "one of the  
most important pieces of mathematical analysis in this  
century." "  
It was also, one must add, a deliberate jab at then-fashionable  
approaches to Riemannian

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--387

manifolds, just as Nash's approach to the theory of games was a direct challenge to von Neumann's. Ambrose, for example, was himself involved in a highly abstract and conceptual description of such manifolds at the time. As Jergen Moser, a young German mathematician who came to know Nash well in the mid-1950's, put it, "Nash didn't like that style of mathematics at all. He was out to show that this, to his mind, exotic approach was completely unnecessary since any such manifold was simply a submanifold of a high dimensional Euclidean space." Nash's more important achievement may have been the powerful technique he invented to obtain his result. In order to prove his theorem, Nash had to confront a seemingly insurmountable obstacle, solving a certain set of partial differential equations that were impossible to solve with existing methods. That obstacle cropped up in many mathematical and physical problems. It was the difficulty that Levinson, according to Ambrose's letter, pointed out to Nash, and it is a difficulty that crops up in many, many problems -- in particular, nonlinear problems. Typically, in solving an equation, the thing that is given is some function, and one finds

estimates of derivatives of a solution in terms of

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derivatives of the given function. Nash's solution was remarkable

in that the

a priori

estimates lost derivatives. Nobody knew how to deal with such

equations. Nash invented a novel iterative method -- a procedure

for making a series of educated guesses -- for finding roots of

equations, and combined it with a technique for smoothing to

counteract the loss of derivatives." Geometry

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Newman described Nash as a "very poetic, different kind of thinker" In

this instance, Nash used differential calculus, not geometric

pictures or algebraic manipulations, methods that were classical

outgrowths of nineteenth-century calculus. The technique is now

referred to as the Nash-Moser theorem, although there is no dispute that Nash was its originator" Jürgen Moser was to show

how Nash's technique could be modified and applied to celestial

mechanics, the movement of planets, especially for establishing the stability of periodic orbits" Nash solved the

problem in two steps. He

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discovered that one could embed a Riemannian manifold in a three-dimensional space if one ignored smoothness" One had, so

to speak, to crumple it up. It was a remarkable result, a strange

and interesting result, but a mathematical curiosity, or so it

seemed. `,, Mathematicians were interested in embedding without

wrinkles, embedding in which the smoothness of the manifold could

be preserved.

In his autobiographical essay, Nash wrote: So as it happened, as

soon as I heard in conversation at MIT about the question of

embeddability being open I began to study it. The first break led to a curious result about the embeddability being realizable in surprisingly low-dimensional ambient spaces provided that one would accept that the embedding would have only limited smoothness. And later, with "heavy analysis" the problem was solved in terms of embedding with a more proper degree of smoothness. Nash presented his initial, "curious" result at a seminar in Princeton, most likely in the spring of 1953, at around the same time that Ambrose wrote his scathing letter to Halmos. Emil Artin was in the audience. He made no secret of his doubts.

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"Well, that's all well and good, but what about the embedding theorem?" said Artin. "You'll never get it."  
"I'll get it next week!" Nash shot back. One night, possibly en route to this very talk, Nash was hurtling down the Merritt Parkway. Poldy Flatto was riding with him as far as the Bronx. Flatto, like all the other graduate students, knew that Nash was working on the embedding problem. Most likely to get Nash's goat and have the pleasure of watching his reaction, he mentioned that Jacob Schwartz, a brilliant young mathematician at Yale whom Nash knew slightly, was also working on the problem. Nash became quite agitated. He gripped the steering wheel and

almost shouted at Flatto, asking whether he had meant to  
A390

say that Schwartz had solved the problem. "I didn't say  
thatea"Flatto corrected. "I said I heard he was working on i  
t."

"Working on it"Nash replied, his whole body now the picture  
of  
relaxation. "Well, then there's nothing to worry about. He  
doesn't have the insights I have"Schwartz was indeed worki  
ng on  
the same problem. Later, after Nash had  
produced his solution, Schwartz wrote a book

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on the subject of implicit-function theorems. He recalled in

1996:

I got half the idea independently, but I couldn't get the ot  
her  
half. It's easy to see an approximate statement to the effec  
t

that not every surface can be exactly embedded, but that you  
can

come arbitrarily close. I got that idea and I was able to pr  
oduce

the proof of the easy half in a day. But then I realized tha  
t

there was a technical problem. I worked on it for a month an  
d

couldn't see any way to make headway. I ran into an absolute

stone wall. I didn't know what to do. Nash worked on that pr  
oblem

for two years with a sort of ferocious, fantastic tenacity u  
ntil

he broke through it." Week after week, Nash would turn up in

Levinson's office, much as he had in Spencer's at Princeton.

He  
would describe to Levinson what he had done and Levinson wou  
ld

show him why it didn't work. Isadore Singer, a fellow Moore  
instructor, recalled:

He'd show the solutions to Levinson. The first few times he  
was

dead wrong. But he didn't give up. As he saw the problem get

harder and harder, he applied himself more, and more and mor  
e. He

was motivated just to show everybody how good he was, sure,  
but

on the

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--392

other hand he didn't give up even when the problem turned out to

be much harder than expected. He put more and more of himself into it."

There is no way of knowing what enables one man to crack a big

problem while another man, also brilliant, fails. Some geniuses

have been sprinters who have solved problems quickly. Nash was a

long-distance runner. If Nash defied von Neumann in his approach

to the theory of games, he now took on the received wisdom of

nearly a century. He went into a classical domain where everybody

believed that they understood what was possible and not possible.

"It took enormous courage to attack these problems," said Paul

Cohen, a mathematician at Stanford University and a Fields medalist<sup>14</sup> His tolerance for solitude, great confidence in his

own intuition, indifference to criticism—all detectable at a

young age but now prominent and impermeable features of his personality conserved him well. He was a hard worker by habit. He

worked mostly at night in his MIT office --

from ten in the evening until

3:00 A.M.

- and on weekends as well, with, as one observer said, "no references but his own mind" and his "supreme

selfconfidencedd"Schwartz called it "the ability to  
393

continue punching the wall until the stone breaks."  
161

The most eloquent description of Nash's single-minded attack  
on  
the problem comes from Moser: The difficulty [that Levinson  
had  
pointed out], to anyone in his right mind, would have stoppe  
d  
them cold and caused them to abandon the problem. But Nash w  
as  
different. If he had a hunch, conventional criticisms didn't  
stop  
him. He had no background knowledge. It was totally uncanny.

Nobody could understand how somebody like that could do it.  
He  
was the only person I ever saw with that kind of power, just  
brute mental power."

The editors of the  
Annals of Mathematics  
hardly knew what to make of Nash's manuscript when it landed  
on  
their desks at the end of October 1954. It hardly had the lo  
ok of  
a mathematics paper. It was as thick as a book, printed by h  
and  
rather than typed, and chaotic, It made use of concepts and  
terminology more familiar to engineers than to mathematician  
s. So  
they sent it to a mathematician at Brown University, Herbert

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Federer, an Austrian-born refugee from Nazism and a pioneer  
in  
surface area theory, who, although only thirty-four, already  
had  
a reputation for high standards, superb taste, and an unusua  
l  
willingness to tackle difficult manuscripts. 16  
Mathematics is often described, quite rightly, as the most  
solitary of endeavors. But when a serious mathematician anno  
unces  
that he has found the solution to an important problem, at l  
east  
one other serious mathematician, and sometimes several, as a  
matter of longstanding tradition that goes back hundreds of

years, will set aside his own work for weeks and months at a time, as one former collaborator of Federer's put it, "to make a

go of it and straighten everything  
oUtd017

Nash's manuscript presented Federer with a sensationally complicated puzzle and he attacked the task with relish. The collaboration between author and referee took months. A large correspondence, many telephone conversations, and numerous drafts

ensued. Nash did not submit the revised version of the paper until nearly the end of the following summer. His acknowledgment

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to Federer was, by Nash's standards, effusive: "I am profoundly indebted to H. Federer, to whom may be traced most of the improvement over the first chaotic formulation of this work."  
"

Armand Bore], who was a visiting professor at Chicago when Nash gave a lecture on his embedding theorem, remembers the audience's

shocked reaction. "Nobody believed his proof at first," he recalled in 1995. "People were very skeptical. It looked like a [beguiling] idea. But when there's no technique, you are skeptical. You dream about a vision. Usually you're missing something. People did not chal-

ltionge him publicly, but they talked privately."dd019  
(Characteristically, Nash's report to his parents merely said

"talks went well."0gg40

Gian-Carlo Rota, professor of mathematics and philosophy  
A395

at MIT, confirmed Borel's account. "One of the great experts  
on

the subject told me that if one of his graduate students had

proposed such an outlandish idea he'd throw him out of his  
office

The result was so unexpected, and Nash's methods

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--396

so novel, that even the experts had tremendous difficulty  
understanding what he had done. Nash used to leave drafts ly  
ing

around the MIT common room

recalls a long and confused discussion between Ambrose, Sing  
er,

and Masatake Kuranishi (a mathematician at Columbia Universi  
ty

who later applied Nash's result) in which each one tried to  
explain Nash's result to the other, without much success

Jack Schwartz recalled:

Nash's solution was not just novel, but very mysterious, a  
mysterious set of weird inequalities that all came together.

In  
my explication of it I sort of looked at what happened and c  
ould

generalize and give an abstract form and realize it was  
applicable to situations other than the specific one he trea  
ted.

But I didn't quite get to the bottom of it

Later, Hei  
nz  
Hopf, professor of mathematics in Zurich and a past presiden  
t of

the International Mathematical Union, "a great man with a sm  
all

build, friendly, radiating a warm glow, who knew everything  
about

differential geometry," gave a talk on Nash's embedding theo  
rem

in New York

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--397

models of crystalline clarity. Moser, who was in the audienc  
e,

recalled: "So we thought, `NOW we'll understand what Nash di  
d.`"

He was naturally skeptical. He would have been an important  
validator of Nash's work. But as the lecture went on, my God

' Hopf was befuddled himself. He couldn't convey a complete picture. He was completely overwhelmed046  
Several years later, Jergen Moser tried to get Nash to explain in how he had overcome the difficulties that Levinson had originally pointed out. "I did not learn so much from him. When he talked, he was vague, hand waving, `You have to control this. You have to watch out for that.` You couldn't follow him. But his written paper was complete and correct047  
Federer not only edited Nash's paper to make it more accessible, but also was the first to convince the mathematical community that Nash's theorem was indeed correct. Martin's surprise proposal, in the early part of 1953, to offer Nash a permanent faculty position set off a storm of controversy among the eighteen-member mathematics faculty041  
Levinson and Wiener were among Nash's strongest

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--398

supporters. But others, like Warren Ambrose and George Whitehead, the distinguished topologist, were opposed. Moore's Instructorships weren't meant to lead to tenure-track positions. More to the point, Nash had made plenty of enemies and few friends, in

his first year and a half His disdainful manner toward his  
A398

colleagues and his poor record as a teacher rubbed many the  
wrong  
way.

Mostly, however, Nash's opponents were of the opinion that h  
e  
hadn't proved he could produce. Whitehead recalled, "He talk  
ed  
big. Some of us were not sure he could live up to his claims  
dd049

Ambrose, not surprisingly, felt similarly, Even Nash's champ  
ions  
could not have been completely certain. Flatto remembered on  
e  
occasion on which Nash came to Levinson's office to ask Levi  
nson  
whether he'd read a draft of his embedding paper. Levinson s  
aid,

"To tell you the truth I don't have enough background in thi  
s  
area to pass judgment."",

When Nash finally succeeded, Ambrose did what a fine  
mathematician and sterling human being would do. His applaus  
e was  
as loud as or louder than anyone

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--399

else's. The bantering became friendlier and, among other thi  
ngs,  
Ambrose took to telling his musical friends that Nash's whis  
tling  
was the purest, most beautiful tone he had ever heard

.51

PART TWO

Separate Lives

Nash was leading all these separate lives Completely separate  
lives

comARTHUR MA-NVCK,  
1997

ALL

THROUGH HIS CHILDHOOD,

adolescence, and brilliant student career, Nash had seemed  
largely to live inside his own head, immune to the emotional

forces that bind people together. His overriding interest wa  
s in  
patterns, not people, and his greatest need was making sense  
of  
the chaos within and without by em ploying, to the largest

possible extent, the resources of his own powerful, fearless  
,  
fertile mind. His apparent lack of ordinary human needs was,  
if  
anything, a matter of pride and satisfaction to him, confirm  
ing  
his own uniqueness. He thought of himself as a rationalist,  
a  
free thinker, a sort of Spock of the starship

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--400

Enterprise.

But now, as he entered early adulthood, this unfettered pers  
ona  
was shown to be partly a fiction or at least partly supersed  
ed.

In those first years at MIT, he discovered that he had some  
of  
the same wishes as others. The cerebral, playful, calculatin  
g,  
and episodic connections that had once sufficed no longer se  
rved.

In five short years, between the ages of twenty-four and  
twenty-nine, Nash became emotionally involved with at least  
three  
other men. He acquired and then abandoned a secret mistress  
who  
bore his child. And he courted -- or rather was courted by -  
- a  
woman who became his wife. As these initial intimate connect  
ions  
multiplied and became ever-present elements in his conscio  
ness,  
Nash's formerly solitary but coherent existence became at on  
ce  
richer and more discontinuous, separate and parallel existen  
ces  
that reflected an emerging adult but a fragmented and

contradictory self. The others on whom he now depended

A400

occupied different compartments of his life and often, for long periods, knew nothing of one another or of the nature of the others' relation to Nash. Only Nash was in the know. His life resembled a play in which successive scenes are acted by only two characters.

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--401

One character is in all of them while the second changes from scene to scene. The second character seems no longer to exist when he disappears from the boards. More than a decade later, when he was already ill, Nash himself provided a metaphor for his life during the MIT years, a metaphor that he couched in his first language, the language of mathematics:  $B^2 + RTF = 0$ , a "very personal" equation Nash included in a 1968 postcard that begins, "Dear

Mattuck, Thinking 168 A BEAUTIFUL MIND

that you will understand this concept better than most I wish to explain. The equation represents a three-dimensional hyperspace, which has a singularity at the origin, in four-dimensional space. Nash is the singularity, the special point, and the other variables are people who affected him -- in this instance, men with whom he had friendships or relationships. Inevitably, the accretion of significant relationships with others brings with it demands for integration with the necessity of having to choose. Nash had little desire to choose one emotional connection over another. By not choosing, he could avoid, or at least minimize, both dependence and demands.

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--402

To satisfy his own emotional needs for connectedness meant he

inevitably made others look to him to satisfy theirs. Yet while he was preoccupied with the effect of others on him, he mostly ignored -- indeed, seemed unable to grasp -- his effect on others. He had in fact no more sense of "the Other" than does a very young child. He wished the others to be satisfied with his genius-1 thought I was such a great mathematician," he was too ruefully, looking back at this period, of course, to some extent they were satisfied. But when people inevitably wanted or needed more he found the strains unbearable.

Santa Monica, Summer 1952

Away from contact with a few special sorts of individuals I'm lost, lost completely in the wilderness... so, so, so, I've been a 3rd life in many ways.

JOHN FORBE'S NASH, JR.,  
1965

AFTER

JOHN NASH LOST EVERYTHING- family, career, the ability to think about mathematics when he confided in a letter to his sister Martha that only three individuals in his life had ever brought him any

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--403

real happiness: three "special sorts of individuals" with whom he had formed "special friendships."`  
Had Martha seen the Beatles' film  
A Hard Day's Night?  
"They seem very colorful and amusing" he wrote. "Of course they

are much younger like the sort of person I've

A403

mentioned.... I feel often as if I were similar to the girls that

love the Beatles so wildly since they seem so attractive and

amusing to me."`

Nash's first loves were one-sided and unrequited. "Nash was always forming intense friendships with men that had a romantic

qualityea"Donald Newman observed in 1996. "He was very adolescent, always with the boys."` Some were inclined to see

Nash's infatuations as "experimentsea"or simple expressions of

his immaturity coma view that he may well have held himself.

"He

played around with it because he liked to play around. He was

very experimental, very try-outishea"said Newman in 1996. "Mostly

he just kissedddd0bled

Newman, who liked to joke about his past and future female conquests,` had firsthand knowledge because Nash was, for a time,

infatuated with him-with predictable

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--404

results. "He used to talk about how Donald looked all the timeea"Mrs. Newman said in 1996.6 Newman recalled: "He tried

fiddling around with me. I was driving my car when he came on to

medd"D.J. and Nash were cruising around in Newman's white Thunderbird when Nash kissed him on the mouth. D.J. just laughed

it offdd7

Nash's first experience of mutual attraction com"special friendshipsea"z he called them-occurred in Santa Monica.` It was

the very end of the summer of 1952, after Milnor had moved out and Martha had flown back home. The

encounter must have been fleeting, coming in the last days of

August, just before he was due to leave for Boston, and very

furtive. But it was nonetheless decisive because for the first

time he found not rejection but reciprocity. Thus it was the

first real step out of his extreme emotional isolation and the world of relationships that were purely imaginary, a first taste of intimacy, not entirely happy, no doubt, but suggestive of hitherto unsuspected satisfactions.

The only traces of Nash's friendship with Ervin Thorson that remain are his description of him as a

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--405

"special" friend in his 1965 letter and a series of elliptical references to Tin letters in the late 1960's. Few if any of Nash's acquaintances met him; Martha recalled a friend of Nash's who once spent the night on the couch of their Georgina Avenue apartment, but not his name. 10 Thorson, who died in 1992, was thirty years old in 1952.11 He was a native Californian of Scandinavian extraction. Nash described him to Martha as an aerospace engineer, but he may in fact have been an applied mathematician. He had been a meteorologist in the Army Air Corps during the war. Afterward, he earned a master's degree in mathematics at UCLA and went to Douglas Aircraft in 1951, just a few years after Douglas had spun off its RandD division to form the RAND Corporation.12 At that time, Douglas was mapping the future of interplanetary travel for the Pentagon, and Thorson, who eventually led a research team, was very likely involved in these efforts." His great passion, conceived twenty years before

the United States launched

A405

Viking,  
was the dream of exploring Mars, his sister Nelda Troutman  
recalled in 1997.

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--406

Thorson was, his sister said, "very high strong, not a social  
person at all, very bright, knew a lot, very very academic."

14

Nash could easily have met him -- given the close ties between

Douglas and RAND, which was also heavily involved in studies  
of

space exploration come at a talk or seminar, or perhaps even at one

of the parties that John Williams, the head of RAND's mathematics

department, gave.

If Thorson, who never married, was a homosexual, his surviving

sister did not know it. "With his family, at any rate, he was

unusually close-mouthed, not just about his work, which was highly

classified, but about all aspects of his personal  
life. 16

Given the mounting pressure to root out homosexuals in the  
defense industry during the McCarthy era, Thorson would have  
had

to practice great discretion in any case; his career at Douglas

was to last for another fifteen years." When he abruptly resigned

from Douglas in 1968, he apparently did so at the age of  
fortyseven because he feared dying. Several of his colleagues had

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--407

recently died of heart attacks and Thorson, who had some sort of

mild heart condition, decided he couldn't cope with the stresses

and overwork anymore. He moved back to his hometown of Pomona and

became a virtual recluse except for an active involvement in the

Lutheran church, living with his parents for the next twenty-five

years until his death.

Whether Nash and Thorson saw each other again when Nash returned

A Special Friendship

171

to Santa Monica for a third summer two years later or on one of

his trips to Santa Monica during his illness in the early and

mid-1960's is not known. But Nash continued to think of Thorson

and to refer to him obliquely until at least

1968.

These mathematicians are very exclusive. They occupy a very high

terrain, from which they look down on everyone else. That makes

their relationships with women quite problematic. -- ZIPPORAH

H  
LEVINSON, 1995

ASH WAS BACK in Boston in his old quarters by Labor Day. Number

407 Beacon Street was

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--408

an imposing brick row house built before the turn of the century

facing the Charles. Its current owner, Mrs. Austin Grant, was

the widow of a Back Bay physician. She liked to point out her

home's opulent features to her lodgers, such as the carriage room

where its original owners once waited for their horsedrawn carriages to be brought around. And she often bemoaned the neighborhood's decline. "Don't leave your bags on the street

while you come in; they might not be there when you come out

again"she said to Nash the day he moved in.

A408

Nash occupied one of the front bedrooms, a large, comfortably furnished room with a fireplace. Lindsay Russell, a young engineer who had recently graduated from MIT, lived next door.

Mrs. Grant regularly took Russell aside to remark on Nash's idiosyncrasies. Nash acquired a huge set of barbells and began

lifting weights. When Nash made the dining-room chandelier, which

hung directly below his bedroom, vibrate with his exertions, Mrs.

Grant would say, "What does he think this is? A gymnasium" "Nash's

mail also received comment, particularly the postcards from his

mother expressing the

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--409

hope, as Russell recalled, that "in addition to the pursuit of

mathematics and other intellectual pursuits, he would make friends and engage in social activities."

With one single exception, however, Nash never had any visitors.

Russell remembers once waking up in the middle of the night.

There was a sound coming from Nash's room. It was a giggle.

The giggle of a woman.

The pretty, dark-haired nurse who admitted Nash to the hospital

on the second Thursday in September was named Eleanor. He was

due to have some varicose veins removed and seemed awfully

nervous -- and young, more like a student than a professor

bled Eleanor knew his doctor to be a notorious incompetent. And

a drunk. She was curious how an MIT professor had wound up with

a quack like that. Nash told her that he'd chosen the doctor at

random by closing his eyes and running his

173 fingers down the list of physicians in the lobby. She felt, she

recalled, rather protective of him. Nash was on the ward for only

a couple of days. Eleanor thought he was cute and sort of sweet, but when he left, she hardly expected to see him again.

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--410

Somehow or other, they bumped into each other on the street not

long afterward. It was a Saturday afternoon and Eleanor was on

her way to meet a friend to buy herself a good winter coat.

"I didn't chase him. He chased me. He kept pestering me" Eleanor recalled,

"I wound up going shopping with him"

They walked over to Jay's Department Store together. Nash followed her up to the coat department, which was on the second

floor. He kept staring at her, not saying much, waiting for her

to choose a coat. She started to enjoy herself "John was very

attractive" Eleanor recalled, laughing. "When I saw him, I thought he was something special" She began pointing to the ones

she wanted to try on, and with elaborate courtesy he held out

each coat for her to slip into. She thought she liked a purple

one best. Nash started clowning around. He pretended he was her

tailor, flung himself on his knees before her, loudly made believe he was measuring her coat for alterations

and generally made a fool of himself Embarrassed, Eleanor blushed,

protested, and tried to hush him up. "Get up quick" she whispered. Secretly, however, she was quite thrilled.

At twenty-nine, Eleanor was an attractive, hardworking,  
411

tenderhearted woman. A friend of Nash's later described her  
as

"dark and pretty, quite shy, a good person" of "ordinary  
intelligence" with "simple manners" and "a very peculiar way  
of

speaking." By that the friend meant that her accent was pu  
re

New England. Life hadn't been very kind to her. She'd grown  
up in

Jamaica Plain, a dreary blue-collar section of Boston. She'  
d had

a hardscrabble childhood, a harsh mother, and the burden, fa  
r too

heavy for a young girl, of caring for a younger half-brother  
. She

missed a great deal of school as a result. She was, on the w  
hole,

grateful to be able to take up a profession, practical nursi  
ng,

that she enjoyed and that provided her with steady work. Her

mother died of tuberculosis when Eleanor was eighteen. Her e  
arly

experiences endowed her with a soft heart. She had a deep  
appreciation, which stayed with her all her life, for what i  
t was

like to be poor and vulnerable. It brought out a tenderness  
in

her, toward patients, neighbors, other people's children, an  
d

stray animals. She was the kind of woman who, later in life,

would literally give coats to strangers and invite people wh  
o had

nowhere else to stay into her home.

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--412

Shy and lacking confidence, Eleanor also tended to be suspic  
ious

and guarded, especially around men. She said, in an intervie  
w, "I

wasn't a bad girl. I didn't run around with a lot of men. In

fact, I was really good. I was a little afraid of men. I did  
n't

want to be involved with them sexually. I thought it was kin  
d of

disgusting." But Nash disarmed her from the start. Yes, h  
e was

an MIT professor, yes, he came from an upper-class sort of background, yes, he did top-secret work for the government. But he was also very young, five years Eleanor's junior, and there was a sweetness about him, a lack of guile. She sensed, moreover, that he was, if anything, less experienced than she was.

After that Saturday afternoon, Nash took her out for cheap meals and drove her around in his beat-up car. He talked about himself, his work, the department, his friends comendlessly. He hardly asked her anything about herself, something that relieved rather than distressed her. She wasn't eager to share the rather dispiriting details of her modest background, particularly as Nash hinted that his own ancestry was rather distinguished. He pressed her to let him come up to her apartment. She wouldn't let him at first. She didn't want to seem easy. But

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--413

she finally agreed to go to his place. She found him eager, ardent, but not frightening. That Nash, who had preferred dancing with chairs to dancing with girls as an adolescent and who had given the pretty Ruth Hincks not so much as a real glance, progressed so swiftly and had so suddenly and at that particular moment found his way into a woman's arms suggests either love at first sight or some resolution "to take the plunged" The encounter with Thorson might have provided the impetus. Nash may have been looking to repeat a loving experience, or he may have been looking for confirmation of his own "masculinity" On a number of occasions he asked

Eleanor to provide him with steroids. "There were always  
A413  
big bottles of stuff around the places I worked as a nurse  
"said  
Eleanor"Alth she later said that she never acceded to Nash  
's  
requests, she believed that "he delved into drugs"hoping tha  
t  
they "would make him more manly.0"He wasn't proving his inte  
rest  
in women to the world, however; he kept his liaison with Ele  
anor  
a deep dark secret for years, even while he displayed his  
infatuation with various men more or less in public.  
Caught up as he was with teaching, seminars, and work on his  
embedding problem that fall, Nash nonetheless

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--414

managed to see Eleanor frequently. He confided in her. He en  
joyed  
being alone with her. He liked going over to her place and h  
aving  
her cook him dinner. She cooked very well. She fussed over h  
im.  
Most of all, she was womanly, full of warmth and artless  
affection. For Nash, who had never even known a woman other  
than  
his mother and sister, it was a novel experience.  
As for the gulf between their educations and social statuses  
,  
what more time-, honored formula for romance and eventual  
marriage than Eliza Doolittle meeti Professor Higgins? For  
Eleanor, Nash was a chance for a life she could not possibly  
have  
achieved on her own; for Nash, she was the prospect of retai  
ning,  
to put it bluntly, the upper hand. It was a compelling fanta  
sy  
and a highly practical arrangement rolled into one. And the  
same  
thing went for the difference in temperaments. Matches betwe  
en  
egocentric and childish men and self-abnegating and maternal  
women abound in the history of genius. Nash was looking for  
emotional partners who were more interested in giving than  
receiving, and Eleanor, as her entire life testified, was ve  
ry  
much that sort.  
Nash thought about introducing Eleanor to his mathematical

friends and about taking her around to one of the

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--415

department parties. But he decided against it. The fact that nobody at MIT knew that Eleanor existed made the affair even more delicious.

By election day in early November, Eleanor strongly suspected that she was pregnant. On Thanksgiving, when she invited Nash to

come to her place, she was absolutely certain, having missed a second period by then.

Nash seemed, oddly enough, more pleased than panicked." He seemed

proud of fathering a child. In fact, he made it clear that he

found the notion of progeny quite attractive. (Later, when such

things became fashionable, he talked about joining a sperm bank

for geniuses in California.)

14

He hoped that the baby would be a boy. He wanted the baby to be

called John. He did not, however, say anything about marriage,

Eleanor's future, or, for that matter, how she and the baby would

manage. Eleanor hardly knew what to make of his reaction. She had

hoped, of course, that he would see the pregnancy

as a crisis to be solved by an offer of marriage. When

this was not forthcoming, she did her best to hide her

416

disappointment from him. She comforted herself with the thought

that he was, after all, a remarkable young man. She told herself

that, of course, he loved her and would do the right thing "in

the end." In any case, she found that the idea of having a baby

made her feel quite sentimental. The subject of an abortion

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illegal but available if one had the money comnever came up.

Before long, however, the relationship between the lovers lost

its playful and lighthearted quality. That winter, Eleanor was

often tense and tired. She fretted a great deal about the symptoms of pregnancy and the long hours at the hospital. Nash's

mind was, more often than not, elsewhere. Soon, he and Eleanor

were engaged in a tug of war that occasionally turned quite ugly.

When Eleanor irritated him with her complaints, Nash would needle

her. He called her stupid and ignorant. He made fun of her pronunciation. He reminded her that she was five years older

Mostly, however, he made fun of her desire to marry him. An MIT

professor, he would say, needed a woman who was his intellectual

equal. "He was always putting me down," she

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--417

recalled. "He was always making me feel inferior."

15

She, in turn, began to resent what she called his superior airs

and lack of sensitivity. Their evenings together frequently degenerated into nasty spats. Eleanor, a friend of Nash's later

reported, once complained that Nash had pushed her down a flight

of stairs."

But there were also tender moments comwhen, for example, Nash

told her that he liked the way she looked with her big belly

comand Eleanor's feelings about Nash were, on the whole, loving.

She was convinced that he loved her and would do right by the

baby, whom he seemed to be looking forward to with great eagerness. She still recalled that period of their relationship

as "beautiful."

17

She excused his

cruelty by telling herself that it was occasional, that "he didn't know how to live." She put it down to his having achieved

extraordinary success at too young an age. "That can be overwhelming," she later said. In the late spring when she could

no longer work, Eleanor moved into a home for unwed mothers.

Around that

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--418

time, Nash finally introduced her to one of his friends from MIT,

a graduate student. 19 Eleanor took this as an encouraging sign.

John David Stier was born on June 19, 1953, six days after Nash's

twenty-fifth birthday. Nash rushed to the hospital and was greatly excited when Eleanor presented him with their son. He

stayed as long as the nurses would let him and came back at every

opportunity. But he did not offer to put his name on his son's

birth certificate and he did not offer to pay for the baby's delivery."

Mother and son came home to an apartment Nash had moved to on

Park Drive. It wasn't a happy homecoming. Nash wouldn't buy any

baby clothes, Eleanor recalled. "He didn't want us to  
A418  
stay," she said years later. Eleanor finally managed to find  
a  
live-in position with an employer who would let her keep her  
infant with herdd"Despite the employer's insistence on "no m  
ale  
visitorssea"Nash came over frequently. "He wanted to be aroun  
d him  
all the timeea"Eleanor recalleddd14 But he still did not off  
er to  
marry Eleanor or to support her, although his professor's sa  
lary  
and frugal habits surely

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--419  
would have made that possible.  
His visits eventually resulted in Eleanor's being fireddd"Th  
e  
simultaneous loss of her job and her living arrangements cre  
ated  
an immediate crisis. With Nash still unwilling to care for h  
er  
and the baby, Eleanor was finally forced to place John David  
in  
foster caredd26  
Like some hapless heroine of a Victorian melodrama, Eleanor  
left  
her baby with a series of families, one in Rhode Island, ano  
ther  
in Stoneham, Massachusetts, and, finally, at an orphanage wh  
ose  
sentimental name, the New England Home for Little Wanderers,  
only  
underscored the Dickensian realities into which she and her  
son  
were plungeddd"Founded during the Civil War, the home was on  
the  
southern outskirts of Boston, across the Charles River from  
the  
Veterans' Hospital, a good hour by bus from her apartment in  
Brookline. Eleanor visited her son on Saturdays and Sundays.  
John  
Stier remembers standing in the stairwell landing there, pee  
ring  
out of the window, feeling a terrible loneliness and  
homesicknessdd21 Sometimes she brought him back to her apart  
ment  
where she kept a large supply of toys and baby booksdd19

Being separated from the baby nearly drove Eleanor

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--420

mad. More than anything that had gone on before, it made her feel

real bitterness toward Nash, who, she believed, left all the

anguish and the worry to her and gave no sign that he understood,

even remotely, what such a separation might mean for a mother or

her child. "I should have been home to take care of him," Eleanor

said in 1995. "I was so full worried. [Nash] never worried."

Yet the affair continued. They visited the baby, wherever he was,

on Sundays. Eleanor came over to Nash's apartment and cooked and,

when he demanded it, cleaned for him. Nash also went around to

her place for meals." He continued to oscillate between sweetness

and outbursts of cruelty. He continued to keep his affair with

Eleanor under wraps, told no one at first except Jack Brickner,

who was enjoined to keep the secret. "He never told anyone about

us," said Eleanor, still unable to fathom his behavior. "Most of

the MIT mathematics community, in fact, did not learn of the

existence of his first family until years later.

When John David was a year old, Nash introduced Eleanor to another friend in the department, Arthur Mattuck, without,

however, revealing the baby's existence. "He and Eleanor sometimes had

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--421

Mattuck, who seemed to like Eleanor, over to dinner. They told

Mattuck afterward that they always had a good laugh after he left

because Mattuck never noticed all the baby things around the

apartment. It was, to say the least, a strange state of  
A421  
affairs.

Or was it? Eleanor was in love with Nash. "People told me never  
to see him again," said she. "It's better if you have a normal  
man. Not one who's all puffed up by his own importance. One  
of my  
friends said that you didn't see a thing in his face. It was  
I  
like a dead person. I didn't think so, though."

14  
She mused many years later: "Did I love him? I wouldn't have  
gone  
with someone I didn't love. He was awkward. His awkwardness  
seemed standoffish. But ... he could be very sweet. He was very  
attractive in a way. Love is foolish." As late as 1955 and 19  
56, after Nash introduced Mattuck to Eleanor, Eleanor's attitude  
toward Nash was "adoring." Mattuck recalled: "Eleanor realized  
Nash was a total egoist, but she was dazzled by his brilliance.  
He thought he was a genius. She was sleeping with one of the

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--422  
smartest men in America. Did he love her? She didn't know. She  
he  
didn't ask. In those days, it wasn't "Talk to me! If you sleep  
pt  
with a man, you assumed he loved you." Eleanor also continued to hope that Nash would marry her, if  
only  
for the sake of their son. Nash wasn't, she was sure, seeing  
another woman. Nash's failure to disappear from her life, despite  
his tantrums and complaints about her, must have seemed to  
Eleanor powerful evidence that he did, after all, love her,  
and  
would ultimately come around. How else to explain her  
passivity-her unhappy acceptance, but acceptance nonetheless  
, of  
his refusal to pay for her and the baby's support until it  
t  
was, as it were, too late, until a rival appeared on the scene?  
ne?

She might have threatened him with exposure, or with a lawsuit, but, because she believed he would marry her eventually, she feared alienating him and thus ruining her chances for good.

It was only much later, in 1956, after Eleanor discovered that Nash was having an affair with an MIT physics student and concluded that he intended to marry the girl compossibly even before Nash himself reached that decision -- that she took more aggressive action.

Nash's behavior is a bit more mysterious. Why

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--423

did he keep coming around, even though he had reached the conclusion that Eleanor wasn't good enough for him or his social circle? Perhaps he simply hadn't made up his mind. In the late summer of 1954, for example, he was carrying a photograph of

Eleanor and John

David in his wallet, and he told at least one person, "This is the woman I plan to marry and our son."

17

Perhaps he felt that the decision to have the child was strictly

Eleanor's. Quite possibly, Eleanor's passivity in the face of his own bad behavior might have signaled to him that she was content

to be his mistress and resigned to living apart from her child.

Perhaps each, by his or her actions, misled the other. Whether

Nash ever intended to marry Eleanor is a matter of dispute. Arthur Mattuck believes he did, but that he was talked out of it

by Bricker.`,, Bricker's recollection differs radically.

A423

He remembers having tried to persuade Nash but said that "Nash's mind was made updd019 We aren't likely to learn which account is the more accurate. Perhaps both were, at different points in time. Nash didn't marry Eleanor, despite his stated

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--424

intentions on at least one occasion. One likely reason was Nash's snobbery, the roots of which went back to his Bluefield upbringing. Not for him a wife, however adoring, who pronounced words incorrectly, whose manners were simple, and whose sense of social inferiority would have made it difficult for her to mingle comfortably with the other wives in the Cambridge mathematical community. Unconventional as he was, Nash's obsession with class and surface propriety were as strong as his father's. This certainly was Eleanor's perception, and while that perception was no doubt colored by resentment, it seems accurate.

It wasn't only social snobbery, though. Nash didn't believe that Eleanor was educated enough to be a good mother to his children. His own mother was a schoolteacher who devoted a great deal of time to seeing that her children spoke grammatically, after all. Moreover, he may simply have found Eleanor boring, a thesis that Arthur Mattuck put forward and that gains some credence from the fact that Nash ultimately married a young woman who never cooked but possessed a degree in physics and career ambitions. Eleanor said as much: "He wanted to marry a real intellectual girl. He wanted to marry somebody

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--425

in the same capacity as he  
wasdd040

Vv tever went through Nash's mind regarding marriage in the  
four

years that Eleanor was his mistress, he did at one point mak  
e a

proposal that suggested that he had made up his mind he woul  
dn't  
marry her.

Nash suggested to Eleanor that she give John David up for  
adoption. He more or less told her openly that John David wo  
uld

be better off if she gave him up. "He wanted to have John  
adoptede a" Eleanor later said bitterly. "`We'd always know wh  
ere

he was,` he'd saydd041

It was a cold-blooded suggestion, and it all but killed any  
remaining love Eleanor felt for Nash. One only hopes that am  
ong

Nash's considerations in putting it forward -- apart from  
eliminating any financial responsibility he might face for h  
is

child, which prompted Eleanor to say that Nash "wanted every  
thing

for nothing"-

179

might have been a genuine belief that John David's chances i  
n

life would be greater with some middle-class couple than wit  
h his

single, working mother.

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--426

"Eveyybody wanted himea" Eleanor recalled. "Some people even  
offered me a lot of money to let them have him. It was  
frightening. There were these wealthy people who were taking  
care

of John David. They were going to move to California. If the  
y'd

gone to California, I would never have seen him againdd041

A426

For the first six years of John David's life, during which time

the little boy was shifted from home to home, father and son saw

each other from time to time. One photograph, taken in what appears to be a city park, of the two-year-old with his long face

framed by a woolen hat with funny flaps, standing tall like a

little soldier, hand in hand with his sweet-faced, girlish-looking mother, bareheaded, wearing a trim woolen coat,

smiling into the eyes of the camera held, no doubt, by her ] over,

evokes the flavor of these brief visits. "She shouldn't have had

a baby, she shouldn't have been so gullibleea"John Stier later

said

'41

but somehow, looking at the evidence of that scene, it is impossible for him, or anyone else, to deny the feeling that this

little trio, out on a Sunday outing, was indeed a family in every

sense but a legal one. Nash displayed a rather curious inconsistency in his

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--427

attitude and behavior toward his son, At the time of his birth,

he had reacted in neither of the ways one might have expected of

a young man confronted with the pregnancy of a woman with whom he

has recently begun sleeping, eschewing both the high road that

would have led to a shotgun wedding, as well as the more commonly

elected low road of flat-out denying his paternity and simply

vanishing from his girlfriend's life.

He doubtless behaved selfishly, even callously. His son and others later attributed his acknowledgment of paternity and desire to maintain a bond, even while failing to protect his

child from poverty and periodic separation from his mother, to a

pure narcissism. But even if this is partly true, it is natu

ral  
to conclude, that Nash, like the rest of us, needed to love  
and  
to be loved, and that a tiny, helpless infant, his son, drew  
him  
irresistibly.

In 1959, when Nash suddenly disappeared from John David's li  
fe  
altogether, a badly wrapped, broken-up package arrived one d  
ay  
containing  
a smashed  
but beautifully made wooden airplane, "a lovely thing," as J  
ohn  
David later recalled. "There was no return address, or note  
or

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--428

anything, but I knew it was from my fatherdd014 I  
LASH MET JACK BRICKER  
in the fall of 1952 in the MIT common room. Bricker, a first  
-year  
graduate student from New York, knew Newman and some of the  
others from City College's math table and quickly became one  
of  
the regulars in the common room)  
just two years Nash's junior, Bricker was immediately dazzle  
d by  
Nash. He was "mesmerized,0"hypnotizedea"and "enamoredea"a fe  
w of  
the words contemporaries used to describe his reaction to Na  
sh.  
Bricker "was overwhelmed by Nash's smartness "Mattuck said i  
n  
1997. "Nash was the smartest person he'd ever met. He worshi  
ped  
Nash's intellect."` It wasn't only Nash's intellect, though.  
It  
was everything else too: the southern breeding, Princeton

pedigree, good looks, and selfconfidence. Bricker, by

A428

contrast, was short, skinny, full of angst. He had grown up poor

in Brooklyn; he still dressed badly, was often broke, and fretted

over his lack of experience with girls. Although he was undeniably bright comthe logician Emil Post considered him the

best mathematician in his class at

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--429

City comhis self-doubt bordered on the pathological. "There's no

hope"and "It's useless" were his most-oftenused expressions. Yet

he was endearing in his own way. His sense of humor comdark,

self-deprecating, very New York comwas always on tap even when he

was depressed, which was much of the time. People liked talking

to him because he was interested, acute, and responsive. Awkward

as he was, he had a way of putting others at their ease. He was,

as Gus Solomon once described him, "the world's greatest audience."

Perhaps for this reason, Bricker caught Nash's eye. Nash, usually

so disdainful of lesser minds, made a point of getting Bricker

off by himself. Bricker liked to play Lasker coma board game

named after a chess champion that became popular in the late

1940's comand Nash started playing with him. "We became Lasker

partnersea"said

Bricker in 1997. "That's how we got to know each otherdd0bled

Soon they were taking long, aimless rides in Nash's Studebaker,

with Nash behind the wheel, playing with the back of Bricker's

neck as he drove. I They became friends comand then more than

friends. Donald Newman and the rest of the MIT crowd

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--430

watched Nash and Bricker with amused tolerance and concluded

that  
the two were having a romance. "They were importantly  
interested in each other," Newman said; they made no secret  
of  
Ja Ck  
their affection, kissing in front of other people.  
"Bricker hero-worshipped John," Eleanor recalled. "He was always  
hanging around. They were always patting each other." Nash  
himself, in his 1965 letter, described his relationship with

Bricker as one of three "special friendships" in his life.  
The  
special friendship with Bricker lasted, on and off, for nearly  
five years until Nash married.  
Once Nash had told Herta Newman, Donald's wife, that he realized  
"there was something that happened between people that he didn't  
experience." What was missing from Nash's life, to a singular  
degree, was what the biographer of another genius called "the  
strong force that binds people together." Now he knew what that  
was.  
It was this sense of vital connection that Nash referred to  
in  
his letter to Martha when it dawned on him that away from special  
sorts of individuals, the Brickers in his life, young men who  
were "colorful," amusing and

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--431

"attractive," he was "lost, lost, lost completely in the  
wilderness ... condemned to a hard hard hard life in many  
ways."

The experience of loving and being loved subtly altered Nash's

perception of himself and the possibilities open to him.

A431

He was no longer an observer in the game of life, but an active participant. He was no longer a thinking machine whose sole joys were cerebral. Yet his was not a passionate nature. Love, though thrilling, did not suddenly banish detachment, irony, and the desire for autonomy, but merely served to modulate them. Nor did it banish other compelling imperatives such as his desire for fatherhood and family. Nash did not think of himself as a homosexual. Alfred Kinsey's report on the sexual behavior of

white American men was published, amid great publicity, in 1948

when Nash was a graduate student at Princeton, and Nash was no doubt aware of its conclusion that a large fraction of heterosexual men had, at one time or another, same-sex relationships." Besides, he was ambitious, and he wished to succeed on society's terms. He carried on as before. Even as his emotional involvement with Bricker grew, he continued

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--432

to see Eleanor and continued to weigh the pros and cons of marrying her.

The relationship between Nash and Bricker was not an especially happy one. Nash revealed more of his private self to Bricker than

he had to any human being. But each act of self-exposure stimulated a defensive, self-protective reaction. Nash wrapped

himself, as he later wrote to Martha with considerable regret, in

the mantle of his own superiority to Bricker, the mantle of "the great mathematician."

14

He took to belittling Bricker just as he belittled Eleanor. "He

was beautifully sweet one moment and very bitter the next" Bricker recalled in 1997.<sup>11</sup>

For most of that first year, Bricker was completely unaware of

Eleanor's existence, like everyone else at MIT, At the end o

f the  
spring term, Nash finally let Bricker in on his secret, telling  
him in somewhat melodramatic tones, "I have a mistress" Nash  
even engineered a meeting between the two, Bricker recalled,  
just  
weeks before Eleanor was due to give birth.  
The revelation of a competitor for Nash's affections

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--433

produced more strains. Among other things, Bricker grew  
increasingly disturbed by, and critical of, Nash's treatment  
of  
Eleanor, he later said. He, Eleanor, and Nash would have dinner  
together in Nash's apartment, and Bricker became a frequent  
witness to what he later called Nash's "mean streak" and temper  
tantrums. When Bricker tried to intervene Nash would lash out at  
him. To make things even more difficult, Eleanor began turning to  
Bricker for sympathy and advice. She would call him to complain  
about Nash's treatment of her.  
Nash could indulge in jealousy himself. Jerome Neuwirth had  
dinner with Nash and Bricker and some other mathematicians in  
Boston in early August 1956. Neuwirth, a graduate student, had  
arrived at MIT that day and was particularly pleased to see  
Bricker, whom he knew from City. He recalled the evening vividly:  
"They weren't embracing, but they were always looking at each  
other. Nash was very hostile. He kept throwing angry looks at  
me."

He couldn't stand anyone talking to Bricker."

A433

16

The relationship with Nash "was a very disturbing thing" Bricker, said Neuwirth. "Bricker

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--434

didn't know what to do. He was having a terrible time Mrs.

Neuwirth advised him to see a psychiatrist.

And the very thing that had attracted him so powerfully in the

first place, Nash's genius, only heightened Bricker's sense of

inadequacy. That first year, Bricker managed to perform reasonably well in his courses. But later he was hardly able to

work." He dropped courses. He finally managed to pass his preliminary exams in November 1954, but his ability to concentrate on his courses had all but evaporated at that point.

However, he waited until February 1957, by which time Nash was

away on sabbatical, before dropping out of graduate school and

relinquishing his dream of becoming an academic. Nash's game was

just too painful to play any longer.

They saw each other for the last time in 1967 in Los Angeles

where Bricker was working in private industry. By that time Bricker was married, and Nash was terribly ill. "He was very

wild" recalled Bricker in 1997. "He sent me a lot of letters.

They were pretty disturbing."

Only one postcard, unsigned and dated August 3, 1967,

survived. The only message

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--435

is "No to No" and presumably came after Bricker had told Nash

"Not that, Nash's constant references to Bricker suggest both

Bricker's importance and Bricker is always B to some power, 2 or

22- and Nash's resentment. "Dear Mattuckine, It has obviously

been Mr. B who has caused me the largest personal injury," he

wrote to Mattuck in 1968.11 But even then, there are sad not

es of  
regret. "All along since 1967 I've been afraid to write to  
Bricker except in an indirect fashion. As yet this trouble  
persists however the reasons why change. There is a feeling  
of  
impropriety, etc."

Jack  
183

Traces of past affection, however, remained. In 1997, by whi  
ch

time Bricker  
himself was ill and in virtual isolation, his first question  
s

were "How is Nash? Is he better?" B he was unwilling to talk  
much

about his past relationship with Nash. "I don't want to disc  
uss

it further" he said."

Pdd4ND, Summer 1954

INETEEN FIFTY-FOUR

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--436

was to be Nash's last summer at RAND. After an episode that

captured some of the most vicious currents of an increasingl  
y

paranoid and intolerant era, RAND abruptly withdrew Nash's  
security clearance, canceled his consulting contract, and  
effectively banned him from the select community of Cold War

intellectuals.

That August,

The Evening Outlook

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was full of the Senate's censure of Joe McCarthy, the polio epidemic in the Malibu Bay area, and the news that LA's noxious

smog resulted from the chemical action of sunshine on auto exhaust

Meanwhile, a heat wave drew tens of thousands of Angelenos to the

Santa Monica beaches. Nash, too, was drawn to the beach. He

spent hours at a time walking on the sand or along the promenade

in Palisades Park, watching the bodybuilders on Muscle Beach, the

crowds on the pier, the surfers nearby. He rarely swam. He preferred to watch and ruminate. Quite often he would still be

walking past midnight.

One morning at the very end of the month, the head of

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--437

RAND's security detail got a call from the Santa Monica police

station, which, as it happened, wasn't far from RAND's new headquarters on the far side of Main. It seemed that two cops in

vice, one decoy and one arresting officer named John Otto Mattson had picked up a young guy in a men's bathroom in Palisades Park in the very early morning. He had been arrested,

charged with indecent exposure, a misdemeanor, and released.

The man, who looked to be in his mid-twenties, claimed that he

was a mathematician employed by RAND. Was he?

The RAND lieutenant immediately confirmed that Nash was indeed a

RAND employee. He took down the details of the arrest, thanked

the cop for the backchannel heads-up, and, as soon as he'd hung

up the phone, practically ran down the hall to the office of

Richard Best, RAND's manager of security.

Best was a tall, good-looking Navy man who had survived the baffle of Midway only to suffer a prolonged and nearly fatal bout

of tuberculosis. After his discharge, he wound up at RAND soon

after RAND had moved to Fourth and Broadway and was assigned

to  
the "front office"

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--438

where RAND's handful of top executives was clustered. Discre  
et  
and capable, Best had an easy manner that made him popular b  
oth  
with his bosses and with RAND's rank and file. His first  
assignment was to set up RAND's library, but he quickly adop  
ted  
the role of general factotum and troubleshooter. In 1953, af  
ter  
the new Eisenhower security guidelines were issued<sup>9</sup> Best  
somewhat reluctantly agreed to accept the job of security  
manager. He disliked the McCarthy hysteria over spies and  
security leaks and thought all the poking around in individu  
als'  
private lives was nasty and not altogether necessary. But he  
felt  
he owed RAND, which had kept him on after he suffered a rela  
pse  
of his illness, and he recognized that RAND couldn't afford  
any  
public-relations disasters.  
Best listened carefully, but what was going to happen next w  
as  
clear. Nash had a top-secret security clearanc<sup>10</sup> He'd bee  
n  
picked up in a "police trap"<sup>11</sup> He'd have to go. Best was a  
Truman liberal who didn't like the McCarthy witch hunts, and  
he  
couldn't understand what would make a young cop join a "dirt  
y  
detail like vice." But he was responsible for enforcing the  
new  
security guidelines and the guidelines specifically forbade

anyone suspected of homosexual activity to hold a security  
439

clearance. Criminal conduct and "sexual perversion" were both

grounds for denying or canceling a clearance. "Vulnerability to

blackmail-which was thought to apply to all homosexuals regardless of whether they were open or not and, indeed, any

behavior hinting at a "reckless nature indicating poor judgment"-were also grounds."

In its early days, RAND had been rather nonchalant about security

matters. It hired Nancy Nimitz, the admiral's daughter, even

though she had gone to too many communist front meetings at Radcliffe and Harvard to have a prayer of working for the CIA as

she had wished.

14

It had done its best to defend the mathematician Richard Bellman,

a flamboyant character who not only had a wife who had been in

the Communist Party but had somehow managed to befriend a cousin

of the Rosenbergs on an airplane flight." One of its top mathematicians in the late 1940's and the author of a book on

game theory that is still cited was J. C. C. McKinsey, an open

homosexual. But McKinsey was one of the first

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--440

victims of the increasingly suspicious and intolerant attitude.

No matter that McKinsey was completely open about his homosexual

lifestyle and that his research was highly theoretical, thus

making him an unlikely target for blackmail. McKinsey was forced

to leave RAND. "The de facto prohibition against homosexuals and

suspected homosexuals was so strong, then and later, that the

director of the national security program testified in 1972 that

"it was conceivable that an ongoing [sic] homosexual might be

granted a security clearance, but that he could not think of

f a  
single case where it had been granted" in the two decades sin  
ce he  
had been in his job." \ Nash's arrest was a crisis  
that  
had to be dealt with on the spot. Best told Williams the bad  
news. Williams was genuinely regretful though not especially  
shocked. Best recalls Williams as being "very open, very rel  
axed,  
but appalled that such a valuable researcher as Nash would b  
e  
lost to RAND" Williams told Best  
that Nash was "a nut, an eccentric" b an extraordinary  
mathematician, one of the most brilliant he had encountered.  
But  
he did not question for a minute that Nash would have to go.

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--441

Nash was not the first RAND employee to be caught in one of  
the  
Santa Monica police traps. Muscle Beach, between the Santa M  
onica  
pier and the little beach community of Venice, was a magnet  
for  
bodybuilders and the biggest homosexual pickup scene in the  
Malibu bay area. In the early 1950's, the Santa Monica po  
lice  
were running regular undercover operations to entrap homosex  
uals  
with the aim of driving them out of town. "One cop follows a  
guy  
into the head and makes a remark. If he's accepted, a second  
cop  
comes in and arrests him," explained Best. The police rarely  
stopped at the arrest itself but, in an act of special  
vindictiveness, almost always notified the man's employer.  
0 "We  
lost five or six people to police programs over a period of  
several years" said Best.

Normally the department head, in this case Williams, would  
A441  
fire the employee personally. However, Best and his boss, Steve  
Jeffries, went around to Nash's office and confronted him with  
the bad news themselves." Nash, for a change, was at his desk. He  
did not ask what they were doing there but just stared at them.  
The two men closed the door and said they had something to  
discuss. Best's manner was

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--442

unthreatening but direct and he proceeded calmly. RAND would  
be  
forced immediately to suspend Nash's Air Force clearance. "The  
he  
Air Force would be notified." And -- this was the bottom line --

Nash's consulting arrangement with RAND was over for good.  
"You're too rich for our blood, John," he concluded.

Best was nonplussed by Nash's reaction. Nash did not appear  
shaken or embarrassed, as Best had anticipated. Indeed, he seemed

to be having trouble believing that Best and Jeffries were  
serious. "Nash didn't take it all that hard," said Best. "He

denied that he had been trying to pick up the cop and tended  
to

scoff at the notion that he could be a homosexual. "I'm not  
a

homosexual," Best quotes Nash as saying. "I like women." He  
then

did something that puzzled Best and shocked him a little. "He  
e

pulled a picture out of his wallet and showed us a picture of  
f a

woman and a little boy. "Here's the woman I'm going to marry  
and

our son."

Best ignored the picture. He asked Nash what he'd been doing  
in

Palisades Park at

2:00 A.m.

Nash responded by saying that he had merely been

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--443

engaging in an experiment. The phrase Nash kept repeating was  
s

something to the effect that he was "merely observing behavior"

oral  
characteristics."

24

Best recalled retorting, "But John, the police picked you up  
. You  
were found doing such and so." Best repeated what he knew of  
the  
police report in detail. Recalling the incident in 1996, Bes  
t  
said: "Nash was charged with `indecent exposure! That's goin  
g  
into a public head., and making a come-on to another man. Th  
at  
means taking out your penis and masturbating. That's the  
come-ondd"Best made it clear that it didn't really matter wh  
ether  
the cops were telling the truth or not. "The very act of cha  
rging  
you malks it impossible for you to continue hereea"he told N  
ash.  
Jeffries and Best told Nash that he would have to leave his  
office right away.

The Arrest

187

They escorted him from the building. They would clear out hi  
s  
desk and send his personal papers and belongings, they said.  
It  
was all done very politely, with no hint of vindictiveness.  
Nash  
had the option of working in quarantine, the preclearance ro  
om  
located just beyond the

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--444

main lobby. Or, if he preferred, he could finish up whatever  
he  
was working on at home. What was Nash's reaction? Due to lea  
ve

Santa Monica in another week or so anyway, he did not

A444

decamp immediately, though Best doesn't remember whether he returned to the RAND building. "He left in a week or two weeks.

Not helterskelterea"Best recalled. Mat was going through Nash's

mind in that interval? Was he angry? Depressed? Frightened?

Was

he thinking of approaching Williams or Mood with his version of

events? Did he try to have RAND's decision reversed? Generally,

of course, people did not. Fearful of scandal and aware of the

contempt with which any hint of homosexuality was viewed, people

in Nash's shoes were usually only too happy to slink away without

a murmur of protest.

In the end, Nash did what he had learned to do in less extreme

circumstances. He acted, weirdly, as if nothing had happened. He

played the role of observer of his own drama, as if it were all a

game or some intriguing experiment in human behavior, focusing

neither on the emotions of people around him nor on his own, but

on moves and countermoves. In his first postcard home that

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--445

September, he described it with remarkable detachment and another

kind of storm: "The hurricane was a fascinating experience.0

"At

some point he told his parents he'd had trouble with his RAND

security clearance, blaming it on the fact that his mentor at

MIT, Norman Levinson, was a former communist who had been hauled

before HUAC that year.

Meanwhile, the highly efficient RAND machinery ground on. Best

said: "We withdrew his clearances and notified the Air Force of

the charges that had been made." RAND negotiated with the Santa

Monica police, who wound up dropping the charge in return for

r  
RAND's assurance that Nash had been fired and was leaving th  
e  
state for good. According to Best, such deals were typical.  
In  
any case, the arrest did not make The Evening Outlook  
and any record of it has long since been expunged from polic  
e  
files and court records. Alexander Mood didn't try to keep t  
he  
arrest a secret comt was impossible given Nash's sudden evic  
tion  
from his office comb he concocted a cover story to the effec  
t  
that Nash had simply been strolling in Palisades Park trying  
to  
solve a mathematical problem when he was picked up. "He

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--446

told the officers he was just thinking and ... they finally  
learned that what he had told them was trueea"Mood said late  
rdd16  
Most RAND employees learned nothing different. It was after  
all  
close to Nash's normal departure date in any case. But his n  
ame  
was abruptly crossed off the list of consultantsdd"Nash neve  
r  
bothered to deny the arrest." And Lloyd Shapley and others i  
n the  
math division learned about it because Nash had called Shapl  
ey  
from the police station to bail him oudd19 Shapley later tol  
d  
another mathematician that Nash had been playing some kind o  
f  
game."` In any case, with so many mathematicians shuffling b  
ack  
and forth between RAND, Princeton, and  
other universities, news of the arrest soon leaked back to  
Princeton and MITEA"ADDING to Nash's already considerable  
reputation for quirkiness, if not downright instability.  
Nobody protested his treatment. He was not the easiest perso  
n to  
sympathize with, and few people, even in the mathematical

community, questioned the government's attitude toward  
A446

homosexuals. Homophobia was, after all, widespread in a society increasingly paranoid and fearful of nonconformity of any kind. Williams, true to form, used the

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--447

incident in one of his homilies on managing mathematicians. In a memorandum to the mathematics division, written a year or two later, he asked the rhetorical question: "What can mathematicians do to hurt us?" One of his examples was alluded to only with a phrase common to RAND: "He could get arrested for solicitation." Williams's punch line, however, was "the worst thing a mathematician could do to RAND is to leave."

32

Although Nash appeared unscathed, the arrest was a turning point in his life. Aloof, ambitious, coolly indifferent to others as he often appeared, Nash was by no means a true loner. Living in a tolerant ivory tower, he had been lulled into believing that he could do as he liked. Now he learned, in a particularly brutal fashion, that the emotional connections he sought threatened to destroy all else that he valued: his freedom, his career, his reputation, success on society's terms. Contradictory imperatives can engender tremendous fear. And fear can be subtly destructive. An individual's vulnerability to schizophrenia, researchers now believe, lies in his genes. But psychological stresses are thought

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to be catalysts. Psychologist Irving I. Gottesman at the University of Virginia, whose studies of twins helped discredit the old Freudian theories of schizophrenia, puts it this way

:

"Each case is different, with a different mix of genetic and psychological factors. Certain events are definite stressors, but it's not famine or war. It's idiosyncratic. It's things that get to the soul and self-identity and expectations of oneself." R  
than a single trauma, a string of events from childhood through young adulthood produces strains that mount like straws on the proverbial camel's back. "It's things that build up, things that lead to a lot of brooding" says Nikki Erlenmeyer-Kimling, a

professor of genetics and development at Columbia University  
ddl4

Like the effects of the teasing he endured in childhood and adolescence, the damage from his arrest would only become apparent with time.

The arrest preceded the onset of Nash's illness by more than four years. Stories of other mathematicians who were caught up in the meanness and bigotry of those times illustrate how disequilibrating being harassed and humiliated can be. J. C. C. McKinsey

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committed suicide in 1953 within two years of being fired by

RANDDD15 Alan Turing, the mathematical genius who cracked the

Nazi submarine code, was arrested, tried, and convicted under

Britain's anti-homosexual statutes in 1952; he committed suicide

in the summer of 1954 by taking a bite of a cyanidelaced apple in

his laboratorydd36 Others, less well known, less obviously brutalized,

The Arrest

A449

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had breakdowns that led to their giving up mathematics and living

on the margins of society.

The biggest shock to Nash may not have been the arrest itself,

but the subsequent expulsion from RAND. His initial reaction

after Best confronted him suggests that he simply assumed Williams would overlook the incident. He was after all, one of

RAND's resident geniuses. But like McKinsey, Turing, and others,

Nash learned that life was more precarious, and he was more vulnerable, than he had previously imagined a dangerous lesson.

HAVING

She had this steely determination. I liked it. I found it very

interesting. She

-----  
--450

always

had some agenda, some goal, -- Emma DUCHANE,

1997

RETURNED TO

Cambridge in an anxious, uneasy frame of mind that made the dull

task of preparing his lectures even more impossible than usual,

Nash escaped to the music library almost every afternoon. The

library, on the first floor of Charles Hayden Memorial, had an

impressive collection of classical recordings and soundproofed,

private cubicles where one could sit and play records, surrounded

by deep-blue walls that made one feel as if one were floating in

water. Nash would go into one of these and listen to either

Bach

or Mozart for hours on end.

On his way into the library he would stop at the desk to exchange

a few bantering remarks with the music librarians—a mode of interaction that kept people at a distance, much as in the games

he liked to play. On one of the first afternoons, he was

surprised to see a young woman who had been his student the previous year standing behind the librarian's desk. He had encountered her in the library from time to time before, but now it seemed

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she was actually working there. She too had seemed a bit startled when she saw him come in, but had given him a sweet smile and had greeted him by name. When he walked away from her he felt her eyes following him. There was only a handful of coeds at MIT at the time, and the twenty-one-year-old Alicia Larde glowed like a hothouse orchid in this otherwise drab, barrackslike environment. Delicate and feminine, with pale skin and dark eyes, she exuded both innocence and glamour, a fetching shyness as well as a definite sense of self-possession, polish, and elegance. Always perfectly groomed, she wore her short black hair like Elizabeth Taylor's in Butterfield 8, was almost always seen in very full skirts cinched tightly around her tiny waist and very, very high heels. She carried herself like a little queen. The student newspaper, The Tech,

once included a reference to her beautiful ankles in the  
A451

annual feature on MIT coeds. She was bright, vivacious, playful,  
and talkative comoccasionally sarcastic and often very sharp

compopular with the

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--452

"little boys," as she called the male students, and mad about

t  
191

movies.

6

Her origins were exotic. One of her friends described her as  
"an

El Salvadoran princess with a sense of noblesse oblige  
dis07

The Lardes were, in fact, an aristocratic clandd"Their origins,  
ns,

like those of all the families which composed Central America's  
a's

elite, were European, primarily French. Eloi Martin Larde, a  
wine

grower in Champagne, escaped from France during the revolution  
on

and settled in Baton Rouge. His son Florentin Larde moved to

Central America, first to Guatemala, and ultimately to San  
Salvador, where he, his wife, and son Jorge became hoteliers  
and,

eventually, owners of a large cotton-growing hacienda.

The Larde men were handsome and the women exceptionally  
beautiful. A photograph of Alicia's father, Carlos Larde Art  
hes,

and his nine siblings, taken a few days after their mother's

death in 1911, might have

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--453

been of the Romanovs. The family's history had romantic  
overtones. Alicia's uncle Enrique believed himself to be the

bastard son of one of the Austrian Hapsburgs, Archduke Rudolf.  
f.

Family legend also included a link with an aristocratic French  
ch

family, the Bourdonsdd9 The Lardes, mostly doctors, professors,  
rs,

lawyers, and writers, belonged to the intelligentsia rather  
than

the landed oligarchy that dominated El Salvador's indigo and coffee economy. But they mingled with presidents and generals and, in Carlos Larde's generation, were prominent in public life. They were well educated, spoke French and English as well as Spanish, and traveled widely. Their interests ran to artistic and literary subjects as well as science and philosophy. Carlos Larde got his medical training in El Salvador but spent several years studying abroad, in America and France, among other places. His early career had been full of promise: He held a number of public posts, including that of head of El Salvador's Red Cross and, before World War II, was chairman of a League of Nations committee. Once he served as

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El Salvador's consul in San Francisco. His second wife, Alicia Lopez Harrison, came from a wealthy, socially prominent family; Alicia's maternal grandmother was the wife of an English diplomat. Mrs. Larde was not only beautiful but also warm, a wonderful cook, a charming hostess, and a popular aunt with her nieces and nephews. Alicia, or Lichi, as her family called her, was born on New Year's Day, 1933, in San Salvador. She was the second of Carlos and Alicia's children. Her brother Rolando, five years older, was eventually confined to an institution. A half-brother from her father's first marriage lived with them as

well. Treated as an only child by her doting older

A454

parents, Lichi was by all accounts a lovely child, with blonde

ringlets. She grew up, amidst aunts, uncles, cousins, and servants, in a lovely villa near the center of the capital. The idyll ended abruptly a year before the end of World War 11,

when Alicia was eleven. In 1944, in the midst of a yearlong popular insurrection against dictator Hernandez Martinezeal2

Alicia's uncle Enrique had suddenly left for Atlanta with his

wife and five

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young children one night, in the middle of bomb blasts, in a

station wagon draped with a white sheet to signal their civilian

status. Carlos Larde followed him not long afterward, leaving his

wife, daughter, and two sons behind temporarily. He joined his

brother in Atlanta, but then moved on to Biloxi, Mississippi, on

the Gulf of Mexico, where he obtained a position as a staff doctor at a veterans' hospital. Some weeks later, Mrs. Larde

and Alicia joined him, after making the long journey by train through

Mexico and stopping in Atlanta to visit Enrique and his family."

What motivated Carlos Larde to follow his brother to the United

States at age forty-six isn't entirely clear. Possibly he feared

the outbreak of a full-scale civil war. Possibly he saw a chance

to revive his medical career, having apparently suffered a series

of professional setbacks. But very likely a major reason for

emigrating comandthe one given Alicia by her parents-was his

health. Carlos Larde was suffering from a number of increasingly

debilitating physical ailments, among them a severe stomach ulcer, and working as a doctor in the United States would give

ve  
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him access to top-notch medical care. Whatever the reason, t  
he

move turned out to be permanent. Enrique went back to El Sal  
vador

after a few years, but Carlos Larde was to remain in this co  
untry

until his death in 1962. Alicia Lopez-Harrison de Larde stay  
ed

for another decade after her husband's death.

Hot, dank, slightly seedy, Biloxi lay sprawled on that shall  
ow,

murky stretch of the gulf between Mobile and New Orleans, am  
ong

its barrier islands and river mouthsdd14 It was known for sh  
rimp

fishing, illegal gambling, and being a favorite wintering pl  
ace

for Chicago mobsters. Rationing made day-to-day life difficu  
lt.

Carlos was often exhausted and ill and Alicia's mother was  
plainly distressed by their new surroundings and terribly  
homesick. Later, the mother of a friend of Alicia's would  
describe Mrs. Larde as a "very sad, very stoical person." Al  
icia

learned English quickly and easily but suffered pangs of  
dislocation and isolation on top of the ordinary anxieties o  
f

early adolescence. It was not a happy time. For consolation,  
she

turned to schoolwork and the movies.

The Lardes did not stay in Biloxi for long. Less than a year

after the war ended, they followed

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Enrique's family to New York, where Enrique took a job as an

interpreter at the United Nations. Once again, Alicia and he  
r

mother lived with Enrique's family until Carlos found a posi  
tion

at the Pollak Hospital for Chest Diseases in Jersey City and  
a

house for them to live in. Alicia commuted to Prospect  
A457  
High School, a Catholic school in Brooklyn. Alicia wasn't to  
stay  
trapped in the lower-middle-class environs of Prospect High  
for  
long. At the beginning of her sophomore year, the Lardes enr  
olled  
her at the Marymount School, an exclusive Catholic girls' sc  
hool  
in New York.  
Marymount, which was operated by one of the oldest European  
orders, the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, occupied three adja  
cent  
Beaux Arts mansions, on the southeast corner of Eighty-fourth  
Street and Fifth Avenue, directly across from the Metropolitan  
Museum of Art and Central Park. It was another world. The st  
udent  
body, mostly day pupils from the surrounding Upper East Side  
'  
were from New York's Catholic elite." Many of the girls were  
daughters of celebrities like Joe DiMaggio,

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--458

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Jackie Gleason, Paul Whiteman, and Pablo Casals. Alicia's be  
st  
friends there included the daughter of an Italian count. Tui  
tion  
was several times what most private universities charged at  
the  
time, easily equivalent, once inflation is taken into accoun  
t, to  
\$15,000 today. Admission was based strictly on families' soc  
ial  
standing; the El Salvadoran ambassador wrote Alicia's letter  
of  
reference, attesting to the Larde family's social positiondd  
16  
The school's atmosphere, appropriately to girls being groome  
d to  
become wives of Catholic leadersea"was cosmopolitan and  
cultureddd17 The girls' uniforms included stylish blazers an  
d  
black high heels. Parents insisted that the school "keep up  
the  
social end of thingsdd"Alicia took riding and tennis lessons  
in

Central Park, played basketball, helped out on plays and musicals, and went to parties. She went to her senior prom, and afterward to the Stork Club, with her friend Chicky Gallagher's brother."

She looked, on graduation day, just like the other girls, only more beautiful, wrapped in the same

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white tulle and cradling the same three dozen long-stemmed roses, like a debutante before a coming-out ball. Much, however, separated Alicia from her wealthy schoolmates. Outwardly she was

gay, charming, unruffled, and compliant, but her appearance veiled a keen intelligence, an outsider's ambition, and what a

future friend called steely determination. Self-controlled and

reluctant to confide her real feelings to anyone, a legacy of her

Latin upbringing, she hid a great deal from view. As a woman who

got to know Alicia several years later said, "You have to keep

the times in mind, Women dissembled then. Alicia behaved like a

fifties ditz, but that doesn't mean she was one. She was flirtatious but she was saying quite serious things. She always

had some agenda, some goal

As a child, she'd dreamed of becoming a modern-day Marie Curie

"Alicia was twelve years old when she huddled with her father near the radio in their Biloxi

apartment and listened with him to the broadcast about Hiroshima." It was for her, as for so many scientifically inclined youngsters, a defining moment. Within weeks, the Japanese surrender and the War Department's revelation of the

three hidden "atomic" cities in the southwestern desert  
A459  
turned

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anonymous men like Oppenheimer and Teller into public heroes

Instantly, the image of the "nuclear physicist" seized the popular imagination the same way that "rocket scientist" did after Sputnik.

Alicia, already showing signs of her father's talent and interest

in scientific subjects, knew what she wanted to be. "The world

was physics. It was what kids with a talent for, and interest in,

math and science aspired to," a fellow physics major at MIT said

in 1997. "To Carlos Larde it was the top, and it was for Alicia too."

Her aptitude for mathematics and science had long been evident

and became more so at Marymount. By the late 1940's, the school

was already something more than a fancy finishing school. It had

always had an exceptionally well-trained faculty, Jay and religious, but during Alicia's tenure the school was run by a

forceful young Irish graduate of the London School of Economics

-- Sister Raymond -- who was not only an ardent Keynesian, but a

gifted educator determined to raise the educational standards of

the place. Sister Raymond improved the caliber of students by introducing scholarships and gave more

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intellectual heft to the school's curriculum by adding serious

science and mathematics courses. Alicia had a choice between a

classical education emphasizing the arts and languages and one

focusing on science and mathematics. She was one of the few girls

who chose the latter and, as a consequence, took biology, chemistry, and physics as well as three years' worth of

mathematics, often in tiny classes of two or three girls. Sister

Raymond recalled her as a gifted and willing student: "Very intelligent. Not too pushy. Very very interested in her studies."

By her senior year, Alicia was quite definite about wanting to

pursue a career in science. "I wanted a career, so I wanted to

study something definite"she sddd14 Carlos Larde, who was delighted by his daughter's ambitions, wrote an eloquent and

touching letter to Sister Raymond urging her to make every effort

to help Alicia realize her dream of becoming a nuclear scientist

by helping her gain admission to a first-rate technical university." Alicia was accepted at MIT, one of only seven

women and two female physics majors in the class of 1955.16

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The Lardes were no less thrilled than Alicia. Carlos Larde, who

had studied at the University of Chicago and Johns Hopkins, particularly appreciated what an MIT degree would mean, but he

drew the line at her going off to a virtually all-male engineering school on her own. Alicia's mother, it was decided,

would accompany Alicia in order to watch over and take care of

her." Besides the natural protectiveness toward a precious daughter, the arrangement may have reflected a wish on the part

of Alicia Lopez-Harrison de Larde to escape her ailing, difficult

husband. Alicia's friends at MIT were struck, later, by the fact

that mother and daughter never referred to Carlos Larde

A462

and that he never came to visitdd"In any event, in the late summer of 19 5 1, the two women rented a tiny furnished apartment

in Boston19 not far from Beacon Street where John Nash had just

found a room, across the river from MIT and not far from the Harvard Bridge.

It was marvelous being an MIT coed in the early 1950's, an era

famous for its celebration of mothers and dumb blondes, because

the coeds were so special and had, as it were, the best of both

worlds: it was serious,

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--463

but there were lots of men. There were girls who wore cocktail

dresses and high heels while dissecting rats in the labdd10 A

date wasn't going dancing and sipping Manhattans, it was going to

a lecture and out to coffee afterward, or maybe having a boy take

you to his parents' house and showing you, through a telescope,

everything Galileo had seen. Alicia was to tell her girlfriends

that being there made her feel like a "Queen Beedd"X was also a

chance to meet, finally, other women who didn't think that having

brains and ambitions was a major liability. "We were a self-selected group of fairly strong women" said Joyce Davis, a

native New Yorker and the only other female physics major in the

class of 1955. "We had our own culture. It wasn't normal American female culture, the `you can't be as good as the

boys` culture, which we were always trying to escape. And it wasn't the MIT boys' culture either."

Alicia spent most of her time with the other coeds either at the

dorm or on the campus. She studied with the other girls in the

Cheney room, the coed lounge, ate breakfast and lunch with h

er  
friends at Pritchett lounge every day, and generally was up  
for  
whatever the girls

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--464

felt like doing, whether it was playing basketball or organi  
zing  
a charity fair." She attended a great many concerts and play  
s,  
thanks to the coeds' wealthy patroness, a Mrs. McCormick, wh  
o  
showered them with tickets and even paid for them to take ta  
xis  
across the Harvard Bridge in winter.  
MIT's academic program was brutally demanding, especially fo  
r  
physics majors. Class schedules were heavy, spread over six  
days,  
and consisted mostly of required courses. All the girls live  
d in  
healthy fear of flunking out. Alicia, who had sailed through  
her  
science and math courses at Marymount on native ability, fou  
nd  
that this was no longer enough. Much to her dismay, she had  
to  
struggle to maintain a C average (which was a respectable  
performance in those days before grade inflation turned a C  
into  
a subaverage mark). "You either had to buckle down or accept  
just  
getting byea"said Joyce, Alicia's best friend. "Alicia never  
really buckled down.""

Alicia's ambition survived her freshman year intact, despite  
a  
fair amount of teasing, especially in her chemistry class, f  
rom  
boys and instructors who were sure that she would not make t  
he

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--465

cut. In a letter to Joyce, in the summer of 1952, Alicia wro  
te:  
Dear Joyce,

By this time you must be wondering whether I'm dead, dying  
A465  
or have nearly [sic] been kidnaped judging from the amount of  
communication you have received from me; the sad truth of course  
is my laziness. Except for one week that I went to Canada with  
Betty Sabin and her parents I have spent the Summer working  
as a sales girl in a small store (I hate to say 5 plus 10) behind  
the ribbon counter; I have done all but strangled the customers  
with "our" fine products. But life hasn't been all tears (I hate  
to think of my report card) we have fortunately moved to a new  
apartment half a block away from Kenmore Square. And so I will  
be able to walk home with you (the dorm is only about a block  
and  
1h  
away).

By now you must be beginning to believe the malicious rumors  
that I bribe my English teachers; not to mention the grammar and  
the spelling is atrocious (get me!). My report card was the same  
as  
last term with the unhappy exception of a B in English;

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--466

my cum. is still above 3 though; .02 above that is. I'm unhappy  
that we won't be in the same section this year but c'est la  
vie!

I wanted to take French instead of German in order to make my  
life easier but I'm not sure I can because of my hope for a  
Ph.D.

in physics ... remember all

I  
was going to study this summer? Well, I've gotten to page 17  
of  
the Physics book and that's all; I am however many movies  
wiser.

Give my regards to your mother and answer soon (do as I say  
not  
as I do)

.14

A profile, a look, a voice can capture a heart in no time at

all.  
Alicia gave away hers in the space of a single calculus lecture.  
She was sitting, her best friend Joyce beside her, in the front row of M 3 5 1, Advanced Calculus for Engineers, a course required of all physics majors. John Nash arrived late wearing a haughty and bored expression. Without so much as a glance or a word to the assembled, he closed all the windows, flipped open his copy of Hildebrand, and embarked on a lackluster

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exposition of the properties of ordinary differential equations.

It was mid-September, Indian summer weather, and as Nash dropped

on, the room got quite hot. First one, then several students

interrupted Nash to complain and to ask that he let them open the

windows. Nash, who had obviously shut the windows to prevent any

outside noise distracting anyone, ignored them. "He was so wrapped up in himself that he wouldn't pay attention to what we

wanted. His attitude plainly said, `Shut up and take notes,`

"Joyce recalled" At that point, Alicia jumped up from her seat,

ran over to the windows in her high heels, and opened them one

after another, each time with a toss of her head. On her way back

to her seat, she looked straight at Nash, as if daring him to

reverse her action. He did not.

Joyce thought Nash an indifferent lecturer and insensitive besides. "He presented the material but that was it. He was sort

of cold" Joyce transferred out of the section after the first

class, but Alicia surprised her by staying. "She thought  
A467

he looked like Rock Hudson", said Joyce.

To see Nash through Alicia's eyes during their first encounters

as student and professor conveys much about the

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--468

elementary force that was to bind her to him. In MIT's intellectual hierarchy-where "mathematics was the highest thing,"

as Joyce was to say-Nash was the closest thing to royaltydd16 It

was his good looks, however, that made Alicia's heart beat faster. "A genius with a penis. Isn't that what we all want" "an

actress once quipped, and the quip captures the combination of

brains, status, and sex appeal that made Nash so irresistible.

Herta Newman, Donald's wife, said the same thing in less bald

terms: "He was going to be famous. He was also cute"dd017 Emma

Duchane, a physics major two years behind Alicia at MIT, said,

"Alicia thought he was gorgeous. She thought he had beautiful

legs." Nash wasn't scruffy like many of the mathematicians. He

was always neatly combed, pressed, and shined. His haughty manner

and cool indifference only confirmed his desirability. His name,

two monosyllables that advertised his Anglo-Saxon ancestry, added

to his appeal. "He was very, very good-looking;" Alicia later

said. "Very intelligent. It was a little bit of a hero worship

thing"dd019

Nash took no notice of her, but Alicia was quite prepared to woo

him. All that

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year, she would seek him out. "Come with me to the music library,

Joyce"or, "Come with me to Walker Memorial. I want to see

Nash"dd040 "She set her cap for him"Joyce recalled. "She had a

campaign going."

Her grades suffered. She got two Ds and for the first time in her

MIT career her grade point average slipped below a C. The following April, Joyce wrote to her parents: "Alicia is still not

doing to [sic] well since she is in LOVE. She goes around with a

faraway expression on her face

When the calculus course was over, Alicia got a job in Nash's

favorite haunt, the music library. It is a measure of her lovesickness that she found it a far more interesting place to

work than Lincoln Laboratories, where she also had a job. "Work

here isn't very stimulating; what I do mostly is count 'tracks'

seen thru a microscope" she wrote to Joyce during the summer. "I

only work 15 hrs a week here but what tires me out is the overtime; I keep seeing the little monsters every time I close my

eyes. Music library proves more interesting, so far several strange

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--470

boys have tried to pick me

up.

"42

Alicia was still playing the field, but with less enthusiasm than

her letter to Joyce implied: "A few more weeks now and I expect

to be seeing 'blondie' again. It seems peculiar but I feel so

indifferent about him now."

She continued this letter a few weeks later:

I am writing in the music library now (obviously).

A470

Something funny J"J happened to me here the other day. A boy

I

know came to talk to me while one of the ones I am out "gunning"

for was sitting out there; or so I thought. In order to seem

attractive to the one out there I began pouring on the charm  
"on

my little friend; then in my loudest possible voice I announced

my working hours in the ML; they must have heard me over the

radio. Well, the persecuted one seemed to be getting the idea  
a

while I became bolder and bolder. Finally he came over. Then

the boy, was I mortified. The moral of the story is "wear  
glasses"

Needless to say he wasn't the "one."  
Nash, of course, was at RAND most of that summer. When Nash  
started coming around the library again that fall,

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Alicia engaged him in conversation and studied him as minutely as

any fan studies his or her favorite star. She found out that  
he

played chess. She found out that he was a science fiction fan.

She made it her business to learn chess and, in addition to  
her

job in the library, she took to sitting in the science library  
near the science fiction collection. "My activities besides  
the

music library include the science library where I read science  
fiction (John likes it)"

she wrote to Joyce. Despite Alicia

Larde's crush, which seemed to have erased the earnest student of

science, she was playing a serious game. Her romantic dreams  
of

becoming a famous scientist herself hadn't survived the harsh

reality test provided by MIT. As she put it later, "I was no

Einstein

dis041

Pragmatically, she recognized that marriage to an illustrious

s man  
might also satisfy her ambitions. Nash seemed to fit the bill.

198 A BEAUTIFUL MIND

"John could give her a lot of things she didn't have" observed

John Moore, a mathematician who fell in love with Alicia some

years later.

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--472

Sadly, the romantic girl whose favorite song was "Lady of Spain"

would most agonizingly disappear in just a few years.

ASH STARTED

to make occasional references to "the music librarian" in his

conversations with Mattuck. He was at a crossroads. The dangers

of his sexual experiments had become suddenly, devastatingly

obvious. Marriage was a possible answer and he had, at his most

frightened, almost convinced himself that he would marry Eleanor.

Now that he was back in Boston and seeing her again, however, he

could not bring himself to take any practical steps in that direction. Alicia came along at the right moment. Moreover,

Nash

liked what he saw. The son of a beautiful mother

would

be drawn by the classical symmetry of Alicia's features and the

slenderness of her frame. Alicia's aristocratic lineage and social ease appealed to his own sense of superiority. The effect

of her intelligence on him should not be underestimated. Nash was

easily

bored. He found her interesting company, liked the fact

that she set her own compass, and was amused by her

A472

flashes of sarcasm

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and irreverence.

It was part of Nash's genius to choose a woman who would prove so

essential to his survival. He took her willingness to pursue him,

to make every effort, not merely as flattery, to which he was no

less immune than the next man, but as a sign that she was prepared to take him as he was. He saw her determination to have

him as a real key to her character, suggesting that she knew what

she was getting and expected nothing more.

They shared a good deal. Both were close to their mothers. Both

had emotionally distant but intellectually stimulating fathers.

Both had grown up in households where intellectual achievement

and social status, rather than emotional intimacy, were the coin

of the realm. Both, on account of their intellectual precocity,

had somewhat delayed adolescences. Both felt that they were, in

different ways, outsiders and compensated for this by seeking

status for themselves. There was a coolness, a calculation, that

guided their actions.

Nonetheless, the progress of the courtship was slow. Nash finally

asked Alicia out during the spring. In July 1955 she wrote to

Joyce that they were seeing each other "on and offdd" I She said

that he had

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introduced her to his parents some three weeks earlier. But she

made it clear that they were not sexually intimate. The significance of his having introduced her to his parents, given

his mother's chronic concern

over Nash's social life, wasn't clear. Alicia, who must have

taken it as a hopeful sign, did not admit to taking it that way.

I've been making slight progress with JFN but can't tell just yet

if it's significant. I don't think he's really too interested but

more or less can take me or leave me. About 3 weeks ago I met his

parents who'd come up to visit him for a week. I've been seeing

him on and off and last Saturday we went to the beach together

comI had found3 Alicia hinted at one reason why Nash remained

lukewarm: "He still thinks I'm too innocent but has now condescended to accept me as is and just let my `sweet innocent

little self develop."

And in her own mind, Alicia was still playing the field, though

it was clear that she was distracting herself and hoping in the

process to pique Nash's interest. I've picked up a few admirers

this summer including that junior that Marolyn was talking about.

I keep refusing dates with him but he doesn't seem

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--475

to get the idea and just follows me around, so far he has written

a couple of cute poems that I'm keeping as souvenirs (sic).

I realize that I'm sounding quite egocentric with all this but not

much else has been happening.

Whether because of preoccupation with Nash or simply because of a

waning interest in physics, Alicia failed to graduate with her

class. She had to stay on to make up a number of courses. But the

shock of not graduating on time, and the unpleasant business of

having to admit this to her father, did little to refocus  
A475

her attention on her studies. She says in the letter to Joyce  
e  
that she is making up M39 but that "so far I'm up to page 10  
in  
Hildebrand."

Nash and Alicia saw more of each other in the fall. He took  
her  
to a math party. Then another. And out to the Newmans` house  
or

to Marvin Minsky's. "Let's go Minskify," he would say to a  
groupddbled Sometimes they double-dated with one of Alicia's  
friends. On those occasions, he almost ignored her once they  
had

arrived and the introductions were made, going off to join t  
he  
circle of men  
talking about  
mathematics. Sometimes Alicia would stand at the edge of the

circle listening to Nash say things like "Who are  
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the great geniuses: Wiener, Levinson, and me. But I think ma  
ybe

I'm the best." Other times she found herself among  
mathematicians' wives talking about their children. There wa  
s no  
flirtation, no going off in a corner to hold hands, but in f  
act

the relationship was more intoxicating for those reasons. Th  
e  
other women treated her with the deference accorded to the g  
enius

consort, which made Alicia feel rather smug. As for Nash, he  
could not help but be aware that the other men, impressed an  
d

surprised, envied him this adoring, gorgeous creature.  
Other times they would go out for lunch, usually with someon  
e  
else. Bricker often joined them, and also Emma Duchane. Bric  
ker

recalled Alicia as "very  
The Courtship

bright"and "quite sarcasticdd"I Emma recalled, "She was not  
deferential at all. She never stopped talking.

"6

True, Nash was not especially nice to Alicia. Among other th

ings,  
he called her unflattering nicknames, including "Leech," a n  
asty  
play on her childhood nickname, Lichiddl He never paid for h  
er  
meals, dividing every restaurant check down to the penny. "H  
e was  
not infatuated with herea"Emma

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--477

recalled in 1996. "He was infatuated with himself" I  
To Nash, Alicia was part of the background, charming and  
decorative. He treated her the way other mathematicians trea  
ted  
their women. But Alicia wasn't looking for companionship eit  
her.  
Later Emma said: "We wanted intellectual thrills. When my  
boyfriend told me e to the pi times i equals negative 1, 1 w  
as  
thrilled. I felt the absolute joy of the ideadd"Nash was no  
less  
fun to be with than the other mathematicians,  
A February 1956 letter from Alicia to a friend doesn't menti  
on  
Nash at all. But at the end of that month Alicia's mother wo  
uld  
move to Washington (Carlos Larde had gotten a position at  
Glendale Hospital in Maryland), a move that Alicia anticipat  
ed  
with some glee.  
It was probably sometime that spring that Nash and Alicia be  
gan  
sleeping together, at the end of those evenings in company w  
here  
they barely exchanged three words. Nash was still involved w  
ith  
both Bricker and Eleanor. Indeed, he may have continued, eve  
n at

this late date, to think of Eleanor as his likely wife.

A477

Alicia and John were in bed one evening when his doorbell rangdd10 John answered the door.

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--478

It was not Arthur Mattuck, who sometimes dropped by unannounced.

It was Eleanor, indeed, an angry and shaken Eleanor. She said

nothing but walked right past Nash into the apartment. She acted

as if she'd come to talk things out with him.

When she realized Nash was not alone, she began shrieking and

crying and threatening until finally she had cried herself out

and Nash drove her home. Alicia, meanwhile, white-faced, left.

The next day, Nash went into Arthur Mattuck's office, told him

the story, grabbed his head with both hands, and moaned, genuinely pained, over and over, "My perfect little world is

ruined, my perfect little world is ruined."

Eleanor called Alicia and told her that she was stealing another

woman's man. She told her about John David. She told her that

Nash was planning to marry her and that she, Alicia, was wasting

her time. Alicia invited Eleanor to her apartment for a meeting.

Eleanor came; Alicia was waiting with a bottle of red wine.

"She

tried to get me drunk" Eleanor recalled. "She wanted to see what

I was like. We talked about Johndd011

And, having met her, and realizing that Eleanor was an LPN, that

she was practically thirty, that the affair

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had been going on for nearly three years, Alicia concluded that it wasn't going anywhere. She was not shocked. Men

had mistresses, they even had children by them, but they married

women of their own class. Of that she felt quite confident.

Eleanor had called her up to complain. Alicia was pleased. She

he

took it as a sign that, as her friend Emma said, "she was beginning to matter" 11  
Nash was due for a sabbatical the following year. He had won one of the new Sloan Fellowships, prestigious three-year research grants that would let the recipients spend at least one year away from teaching and, for that matter, away from Cambridge." He could go where he liked. He was, perhaps unreasonably, still worried about the draft, as he had confided to Tucker in a letter a year earlier. 14 He decided to spend that year at the Institute for Advanced Study." He was beginning to think seriously about various problems in quantum theory and thought that a year at the institute might stimulate his thinking. Alicia meanwhile complained in a letter to Joyce that February that she was "just vegetating" 15 She mentioned a vague desire (which she did not say was connected with Nash) "to get a job in New York instead of

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--480

staying on at the Institute [MIT] to attend graduate school.  
"

16

At the end of the spring term, Nash took Alicia to the math department picnic in Boston. The picnics were always held during reading week and often on the commons. Wiener came, as did all the graduate students. It was an unusually warm day, and Nash was in high spirits. Nash did something curious that engraved itself on the memories of another instructor, Nesmith Ankeny and his

wife, Barbara. It was, of course, Nash's notion of a joke.

A480

He wished to show everyone that he was the master of this gorgeous young woman, and that she was his slave. At one point,

late in the afternoon, he threw Alicia to the ground and placed

his foot on her neck

But despite this display of machismo and possessiveness, Nash

left Cambridge in June without suggesting marriage or even that

she move to New York.

Indeed, at the start of that summer, in June, another friend of

Alicia's described Alicia as being in Cambridge and "in an unbelievable state of depression, due to a certain instructor at

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MIT."

18

Summer 1956

ASH LEFT CAMBRIDGE

for Seattle in mid-June with the light heart of a man making a

temporary escape from a tangle of personal and professional dilemmas. Travel always lifted his spirits and this trip was no

exception. The month-long summer institute at the University of

Washington was exactly what he wanted. A top-notch crowd of mathematicians working in differential geometry would be the re:

Ambrose, Bott, Singer, as well as Louis Nirenberg and Hassler

Whitney. Nash expected that his embedding work would make him one

of the centers of attention. And he was looking forward to hearing Busemann's seminar on the state of Soviet mathematics

because everyone knew that the Russians were doing great things,

but the authorities were no longer allowing even abstracts of

their mathematics articles to be translated into English.

The signal event of the summer institute turned out to be the

surprise announcement, within a day or two of the start of the

he

meetings, of Milnor's proof of the existence of exotic  
spheres. For the

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mathematicians gathered there, it had the same electrifying  
effect as the announcement of a solution of Fermat's Last Theorem  
by Andrew Wiles of Princeton University four decades later.  
It  
stole Nash's thunder.

Nash reacted to the news of Milnor's triumph with a display  
of  
adolescent petulance. The mathematicians were all camping out  
in  
a student dormitory and eating their meals in the cafeteria.  
Nash  
protested by grabbing gigantic portions. Once he demolished  
a  
pile of bread. Another time, he threw a glass of milk at a  
cashier. And on one occasion, during a sailboat outing, he got  
into a shoving match with another mathematician.

Nash didn't immediately recognize Amasa Forrester, who looked  
like a shaggy bespectacled bear with the hint of a double chin,  
a  
haphazardly shaven face, and glasses, and who even walked like a  
bear with a slightly forward-leaning gait, when  
the latter buttonholed him after a talk

Forrester had to remind Nash that they'd been at Princeton  
A482  
together, Forrester having been a first-year graduate student  
during Nash's final year. After they starting talking, however,  
Nash remembered

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Forrester as a Steenrod student who was always holding court  
in  
the Fine Hall common room, waving a water pistol around.  
Despite his somewhat unprepossessing appearance, Forrester had  
interesting things to say. He was fast, aggressive, and seemed to  
know everything about everything that came up in their  
conversation. Forrester explained some of the details of Milnor's  
work to Nash. They also talked, then and later, about Nash's  
embedding papers, which Forrester appeared to know quite well.  
Forrester invited Nash to come to see his living quarters, moored  
on Lake Union, between Lake Washington and Puget Sound in  
downtown Seattle. To Nash, Forrester was "a different sort."  
He  
would later refer to Forrester, who went by the name Amasa,  
in  
the same terms that he used when he compared Thorson and Bricker  
to the Beatles com"young,0"colorful,0"amusing," and  
"attractive"-someone who made him feel like "the girls who love  
the Beatles so wildly."  
There was much to draw them together. Forrester, who had just  
turned thirty, was as brash and brilliant as Nash .6  
He'd had a stellar graduate-school career. Steenrod, who was  
on  
his dissertation committee, had

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given him spectacular references. He was disorganized and sloppy  
but he had a photographic memory and wide-ranging interests.  
He  
hadn't done much since arriving in Seattle in 1954 and, indeed,  
hadn't been able to publish his dissertation because it turned

ed

out to contain a substantive flaw, but he was still full of enthusiasm, or at least so it seemed to Nash. He shared Nash's

predilection for insult and one-upmanship at Princeton he'd been

referred to as King of the Common Room for that reason-and was

given to sweeping judgments of the kind Nash admired. Once, for

example, when a listener tried to question him after a talk, he

responded by claiming, "It's easier to predict what mathematicians will be talking about fifty years from now than

what they'll be interested in next year." His obvious eccentricity made him seem like a kindred spirit. This was a

young man who had once managed to get himself permanently banned

from the dining rooms of the Graduate College by Sir Hugh Taylor,

the dean, for having deliberately broken dishes and crockery in

the breakfast room. And his relationship with his mother was

fodder for all kinds of stories. Former friends recall that a

family record of worldly success and an overbearing mother both

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weighed heavily on him. Arthur Mattuck, who was at Princeton with

Forrester, recalled: "`Amasy, Amasy, Amasy!" his mother would

say. "Oh, mom, you know how much I love you; Amasa would come back

in a falsetto."

Forrester was also openly homosexual. It's unlikely that his

graduate-school

professors or Sir Hugh were aware of this, but "he was fairly

open about his homosexuality at Princeton and everybody at  
A485  
the Graduate College knew," said John Isbell, a professor of  
mathematics at the State University of New York at Buffalo and a  
fellow graduate student at Princeton." Initially, Forrester  
had  
been quite circumspect with his colleagues at the University  
of  
Washington, but by the time Nash ran into him—perhaps because  
things were beginning to loosen up even in Seattle—he had  
concluded that he no longer had to pretend to be what he was  
not.  
Robert Vaught, a retired logician at the University of California  
at Berkeley, shared a house with Forrester during their first  
year as instructors in Seattle. He recalled:  
It wasn't that he "discovered" his homosexuality

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--486

then. It was very difficult for homosexuals then. In those days  
people thought the best thing to do was to get rid of it by  
some  
act of will. He sort of decided that he had to be a homosexual.  
Sometime during his third year in Seattle he bought himself  
a  
houseboat—there was a far-outgroup living on the waterfront—and  
gradually he began to let people know about his homosexuality.<sup>10</sup>  
Nash always found the people who could give him what he needed.  
Forrester was the kind of smart, verbal, quick-witted man Nash  
was frequently attracted to. Forrester was also emotionally  
available. Under his eccentric, sometimes brash and loud exterior  
Forrester was an exceptionally sweet man. "Kind and gentle, much  
loved by his students" was the description given by Albert Nijenhuis,  
another of Forrester's colleagues." Forrester also had  
an unusual capacity for connecting with troubled individuals.  
When Vaught, who, as a student, had endured repeated

hospitalizations for episodes of mania and depression, first  
came  
to Seattle, Forrester was amazingly kind. Vaught recalled: "  
He  
was a  
very fine  
man. I was a manic-depressive long before lithium came along  
. He  
was very helpful to me.

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Amasa encouraged me to find a psychiatrist in Seattle. I could  
talk to him.0 "In his first year at Seattle, Forrester "adopted"  
a  
mentally ill graduate student-a computer genius who had suffered  
some kind of psychotic breakdown-and tried to care for him,  
recalled John Walter, a mathematician at the University of  
Illinois who shared the house with Vaught and Forrester. "It  
was  
one of his projects." "  
It would have been obvious to Forrester that Nash, arrogant  
and  
aloof as he might appear, would respond to his sympathetic  
interest. "Amasa was pretty sharp. He would have seen through  
the  
veilea"said Walter.

14

Nash and Forrester hardly had much time to spend together-  
Nash was in Seattle P  
only a month. Although Nash referred to Forrester, either by  
name  
or simply by the letter F, in letters until the early 1970's  
,  
there is no evidence to suggest that Nash and Forrester  
corresponded regularly or saw much of each other in subsequent  
years. Forrester stayed very much on Nash's mind, however. E  
leven

years later, on a pilgrimage that took

A487

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him to Los Angeles and San Francisco, Nash spent nearly a month

in Seattle."

Forrester was still living in his houseboat with dozens of cats

for company and was by then almost entirely cut off from his

former mathematical friendsdd16 He had never lived up to his

early promise, had been denied tenure, and had left the University of Washington in 1961. He worked briefly at Boeing and

later at the giant Atomic Energy Commission plant in Hanford

Washington, before dropping out of the mathematical community in

the mid-1970's. Later, he made his living tutoring and, on one

occasion, acting as a live-in tutor for some children on a ranch.

Nijenhuis, who ran into him a final time at a mathematics congress in Vancouver, British Columbia, in 1974, recalled that

Forrester had told him that he'd worked as a goatherd. For years

he would drop by the mathematics and physics library, looking

progressively more seedy and disheveled. He died in 1991. This

once-promising mathematician did not even merit an obituary in

the

Seattle Times.

If, for Nash, Forrester's was the road not taken,

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one would have to argue that Nash, on this occasion, was perceptive about human beings.

Nash knew immediately that something was wrong when someone fetched him from the dormitory. The Nashes communicated exclusively by letter and postcard. A long-distance telephone

call indicated that something was amiss."

John Sr. was on the line. He sounded unnaturally grave. Nash's

first thought was that he was calling with some bad news about

his mother or sister, but he heard anger rather than sorrow or anxiety in his father's voice. Eleanor Stier had contacted them and revealed the existence of their grandson, John Sr. said. The shock was enormous. "Don't come home;" John Sr. told him sternly. "Go right to Boston and make this right. Marry the girl." Nash was too stunned to argue. The secret he was so anxious to keep from his parents was out. There was nothing to be done now. He agreed not to come to Roanoke. In a postcard dated July 12, he wrote his parents that he was "thinking of going back to BeanTowndd011 Nash did go back to Boston in mid-July and

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stayed for two weeks. He spent most of his time either with Bricker or working in his office late nights. 19 He turned to Bricker for advice on what to do about Eleanor. She had hired a lawyer. She wanted regular child support payments. The attorney, Nash found out, was threatening to go to the university. Nash, as Bricker recalled in 1997, was inclined to refuse to pay. Bricker, as usual, found himself in the middle. Eleanor had been calling him regularly. She was devastated by Nash's abandonment and bitter over his refusal to Seattle

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support their son. Bricker remonstrated with Nash. "He didn't want to pay child support. I told him, This is terrible. This is your son. If nothing else, do it for your own future. If the university got wind of this it'll ruin your career. You owe it to herdd021 Nash, to Bricker's surprise, agreed to pay.

1956-57

ALTHOUGH

NASH WAS TO SPEND

the year at the Institute for Advanced Study, he

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--491

decided to live in New York instead of Princeton. Within a day or two of coming to the city in late August, he found an unfurnished apartment on Bleecker Street in Greenwich Village just south of Washington Square Park, a street lined with jazz clubs, Italian caf6's, and secondhand book shops. The apartment was a typical railroad flat, small, dingy, and suffused with smells of his neighbors' cooking. Nash bought a few pieces of used furniture from a local junk dealer and sent his parents a postcard proclaiming a sentiment that they would be sure to approve, namely, that he'd rather save money than live luxuriously.

But his reasons for choosing a five-story walk-up in downtown New York over a spartan flat on Einstein Drive in quasirural Princeton were more romantic than practical. The towering scale of the city, with its frenetic rhythms, ever-present crowds, and round-the-clock activity -- "the wild electric beauty of New

York" I seemed wonderful to him, always had, from the first time Shapley and Shubik had invited him, when all three were living in the Graduate College at Princeton, to come up for a weekend.

After he'd moved to Boston, he

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had seized every opportunity to return, sometimes staying with

the Minskyseabled just to reexperience that sensation of simultaneous connectedness and anonymity. The bohemian enclave

around Washington Square had long been a magnet for those who

were sexually and spiritually unconventional, and Nash too was

attracted to its crooked streets, Old World charm, and implied

promise of freedom.

If the decision to move to Bleecker Street meant that Nash was

toying with adopting a different sort of life from the one he had

hitherto imagined for himself, it was not to be. John Sr. and

Virginia announced that they too were coming to New York. John

Sr. had some business to transact for the Appalachian. Nash feared that they would confront him again on the subject of Eleanor. But the Nashes were even more preoccupied with the precarious state of John Srdd's health at that moment. When Nash

met them at the McAlpin Hotel, a few blocks from Penn Station, he

tried to demonstrate that he was a loyal son by urging his father, several times in

the course of the evening, to consult a specialist in New York.

He told his father he ought to consider an operation. It was the

last time Nash saw his father. In early September, John Sr. suffered a

massive heart attackdd7 Virginia had a difficult time

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reaching Nash, who had no telephone. By the time she got a message to him, his father was already dead. Thereafter, he would

think of fall as a season of "misfortunes."`

John Sr., who was sixty-four at the time of his death, had been

ill on and off all year. That Easter Sunday he had been feeling

too unwell to go to Martha and Charlie's house for dinner (Martha

had married in the spring of 1954). And in late summer when he

and Virginia were in New York, he suffered from a spell of weakness and nausea in the hoteldd9 The news of his father's

death shocked Nash. He couldn't fathom its suddenness, its finality. He was convinced that the death had not been inevitable, might have been prevented if only John Sr. had gotten

better medical care, if only ... 10

Nash rushed to Bluefield to attend the funeral, which was held at

Christ Episcopal Church on September 14, two days after John Sr.

died."

There was no outpouring of grief, no sign that Nash's unnatural

calm was shakendd"B the death of his father produced another

fissure in the foundation of

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Nash's perfect little world." The loss of a parent before one has

really stepped fully into one's own adult life in the same role

is a one-two punch coming the father and having to step into

the father's shoes.

There was, for starters, a newfound sense of responsibility for

Virginia's welfare. It may not have signified much in practical

terms, given that Martha lived in Roanoke and, as the female

offspring, would have been expected to look after Virginia, but

emotionally Nash was now in the hot seat. Suddenly, his mother's

wishes regarding him, in particular her intense desire that he adopt what she regarded as a "normal" life -- that is, that he marry -- weighed more heavily on him than at any time since he had left home for college. For Nash this dilemma comand it w as a dilemma, as his father's shoes were not exactly the ones tha t he felt prepared to step into -- was compounded by the particul ar circumstances of the summer. Nash's misbehavior with regard to Eleanor and John David lay between him and Virginia. The tho ught that he had hastened his father's death must have occurred t o him. Or, if it didn't-and this is certainly possible given N ash's inability to imagine how his actions affected other people

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--495

the thought surely occurred to Virginia, who may have communicated it, indirectly or directly, to Nash. Virginia w as not just grief-stricken but deeply angry. She wrote Eleanor a letter accusing her of causing her husband's death. It is qu ite possible that she said something similar to her son, or impl ied as much." Such guilt would be a heavy burden to bear. More likely, it was not just the feeling of guilt, but also the more potent thre at of losing his mother's love on the heels of the actual loss of his father, that would have placed tremendous pressure on Nash t o act. Virginia felt that Nash was duty bound to legitimize hi s relationship to his son. John Sr. had an abhorrence of scand al

and a strong belief in doing one's duty. Whether, by the  
A495

time of her husband's death, Virginia still persisted in the

demand that Nash marry Eleanor isn't clear. It may be that h  
er

contact with Eleanor comincluding the evidence of Eleanor's  
lower-class origins, her lack of education, or her threats t  
o

make trouble for Nash --

convinced her that even a temporary marriage was out of the  
question. She may have feared that Eleanor would never agree  
to a

divorce. Or simply, she may have realized that she had no wa  
y of

forcing Nash to do something

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that he did not wish to do.

If Virginia reacted so to Nash's mistress and illegitimate s  
on,

how might she react to the far more disturbing facts of Nash  
's

liaisons with other men? As a practical matter, the likeliho  
od of

her ever finding out about the arrest seemed negligible. Yet  
that

too must have crossed Nash's mind. His confidence that he co  
uld

keep his secret lives completely separate and keep his paren  
ts in

the dark as well was jolted by Eleanor's betrayal. He must h  
ave

felt on his neck the hot breath of other potential discoveri  
es.

In addition to commuting to the Institute in Princeton, Nash  
was

spending a good deal of time at New York University, whose c  
ampus

began a block north of Bleecker Street, at the Courant Insti  
tute

of Mathematical Sciences. One afternoon, very soon after his

father's funeral, Nash stopped at the desk of the beautiful  
Natasha Artin, the wife of Emil Artin and one of Richard  
Courant's assistants. A famously gorgeous creature, Natasha  
had a

doctorate from the University of Berlin, where she'd been a  
student of Artin's before they married. Everyone knew that s  
he

was the latest object of Couranfs infatuation. Nash liked to

chat  
with her on his way up

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to tea.

"I wonder how easy it is to get a divorce in New Jersey," he said

out of the blue one day to herdd14 Natasha immediately took this

for a declaration that he intended to get married. She found it

quite typical of Nash to investigate the exit doors even as he

was hovering near the entrance.

On another occasion, Nash gave a lecture at Chicago and had dinner afterward with Leo Goodman, a mathematician he knew from

the graduate-school days in Princeton. He told Goodman that he

thought Alicia would make a fine wife. Why? Because she watched

so much television. That meant, he felt, that she wouldn't require much attention from himdd"The exchange brings to mind

Eleanor's oft-repeated remark about Nash: "he always wanted something for nothing."

Alicia has insisted that she cannot remember when Nash proposed

or whether he did so in person or by letterdd"They simply had an

understanding, she said. But Alicia's actions that fall belie her

later account. After Nash had left Cambridge in June, Alicia

stayed on, desperately unhappy. All this suggests the opposite of

any understanding."

Alicia's letter to Joyce Davis on October 23, 1956, does  
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not mention Nash at all. Presumably, if they'd gotten formally engaged by that date, Alicia would have announced the fact to Joyce.

As you might know I've been looking for a job in New York and had applied to several places. At first I was afraid things might prove difficult but so far I've already had offers from Brookhaven, as a junior physicist with the reactor group, and from the Nuclear Development Corporation of America also in the reactor field. I'm accepting the latter at \$450 per month. I'm told I might get \$500 some other place but I think N.D.C. offers good experience and I've always wanted to do nuclear physics specifically."

It's possible that Alicia would have left school and gotten a job regardless of the state of her relationship with Nash. She was increasingly unenthusiastic about attending graduate school.

"I'm tired of the studying and procrastinating routine. ... All I know is I want to 'Live.'" Since she had gone to high school in New York, it would have been natural for her to think of returning

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there to work. But Alicia herself said later that she moved to New York on Nash's account. She may have gone there in the hopes of renewing her relationship with him. She may have gone at his express invitation.

Alicia moved into the Barbizon Hotel, the legendary hotel for young women that is the setting of Sylvia Plath's fifties novel The Belljar.

References were required to obtain lodging there. And the rooms,

tiny and white with metal beds, were only for sleeping, Alicia complained in a PS to Joycedd18 "This hotel-the Amazon-was for women onlyea"writes Plath, who spent the summer of 1952 in residence, "and they were mostly girls my age with wealthy parents who wanted to be sure their daughters would be living where men couldn't get at them and deceive them; and they were all going to posh secretarial schools like Katy Gibbs, where they had to wear hats and stockings and gloves to class, or ... simply hanging around in New York waiting to get married to some career man or otherdd019 Whether or not Alicia came to New York as Nash's fiancée at the end of October, she

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--500

visited Nash's family in Roanoke that Thanksgivingdd20 Nash did not give her a ring, however. He had some idea, typically odd and pennypinching, that he wanted to buy one in Antwerp, directly from a diamond wholesalerdd21 Virginia found Alicia charming and dignified and was impressed by Alicia's obvious devotion to Nash, but at the same time she thought her quite different from the sort of girl she had imagined for her son's bride

.21

She thought the relationship between the two strange. Alicia was a physicist who talked about her job at a nuclear reactor company and displayed no interest in anything domestic, a young woman completely out of Virginia's ken. While Virginia and Martha busied themselves in the kitchen,

Alicia and Nash spent most of Thanksgiving Day sitting on  
A500  
the floor of Virginia's living room poring over stock quotations.  
Martha's reaction was similar to her mother's. (At Virginia's  
insistence, and thinking it might turn Alicia's head in the right  
direction, Martha took Alicia shopping in Roanoke one afternoon  
to buy a hat.)  
The wedding took place on an unexpectedly

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--501

mild, gray February morning in Washington, D.C., at St. John's,  
the yellow-and-white Episcopal church across Pennsylvania Avenue  
from the White House." Nash, by then an atheist, balked at a  
Catholic ceremony. He would have been happy to get married in  
city hall. Alicia wanted an elegant, formal affair. It was a  
small wedding. There were no mathematicians or old school friends  
present, only immediate family, Charlie, his brother-in-law, whom  
Nash hardly knew, was best man. Martha was matron of honor.  
Bride  
and groom were both late, having been held up at the portrait  
photographers. Nash and Alicia drove to Atlantic City for a  
weekend honeymoon on the way back to New York. It wasn't a  
success. Alicia hadn't been feeling well, Nash wrote in a  
postcard to his motherdd14  
In April, two months later, Alicia and Nash threw a party to  
celebrate their marriage. They were living in a sublet apartment  
on the Upper East Side, around the corner from Bloomingdale's.  
About twenty people came, mostly mathematicians from Courant  
and  
the Institute for Advanced Study and several of Alicia's cousins,  
including Odette

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--502

and Enrique. "They seemed very happyea" Enrique Larde later  
recalled. "It was a great apartment. They were just showing

off  
their new marriage. He looked very handsome. It seemed very  
romantic

dd025  
PART THREE

A

Slow Fire  
and Washington Square  
1956-57

Mathematical ideas originate in empirics... But, once they are  
so  
conceived, the subject begins to live a peculiar life of its  
own  
and is better compared to a creative one, governed almost entire-  
ly by  
aesthetical motivations... As a mathematical discipline travels,  
after much "inbreeding," [it] is in danger of  
degeneration.... whenever this stage is reached, the only remedy  
seems to me to be the rejuvenating return to the source. the

reinjection of more or less directly empirical ideas  
JOHN  
voation NE-UMANN

TE

INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED STUDY, nestled on Princeton's fringes  
on  
what had been a farm, was

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--503

a scholar's dream. It was bordered by woods and the  
Delaware-Raritan Canal, its lawns were immaculate, and one of  
its  
streets was Einstein Drive. It was also blessedly free of  
students. The atmosphere in the Fuld Hall common room resembled

that of a venerable men's club, with its newspaper racks

A503

and mingled scents of leather and pipe tobacco; its doors were

never locked and its lights burned far into the night.

In 1956, the Institute's permanent faculty were not many more

than a dozen mathematicians and theoretical physicists. They

were, however, outnumbered sixfold by a host of distinguished

temporary visitors from around the globe, prompting Oppenheimer

to call it "an intellectual hotel." For young researchers, the

Institute was a golden opportunity to escape the onerous demands

of teaching and administration, and, indeed, the tasks of everyday life. Everything was provided the visitor: an apartment

less than a few hundred yards from an office, an unending round

of seminars, lectures, and, for those so inclined, parties where

the booze was plentiful and where one could glimpse Lefschetz

balancing a martini glass in an artificial hand, or witness a

very drunk French mathematician

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--504

displaying his mountaineering skills by rope-climbing up and over

the fireplace mantel.

Some found the idyllic setting, carefully designed to remove all

impediments to creativity, vaguely disquieting. Paul Cohen, a

mathematician at Stanford University,

remarked, "it was such a great place that you had to stay

at least two years. It took one year just to learn how to work

under such ideal conditions." By 1956, Einstein was dead,

Gödel was no longer active, and von Neumann lay dying in

Bethesda. Oppenheimer was still director, but much humbled by the

McCarthyite inquisitions and increasingly isolated. As one

mathematician said, "The Institute had become pure, very pure."

Cathleen Morawetz, later president of the American Mathematical Society, put it more bluntly: "The Institute was known to be

about the dullest place you could find

By contrast, the Courant Institute of Mathematical Sciences at

New York University was "the national capital of applied mathematical analysis"

Fortune

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--505

magazine was soon to inform its readers. Just a few years old

and vibrant with energy, Courant occupied a nineteenth-century

loft less than a block to the east of Washington Square in a

neighborhood that, despite the university's growing presence, was

still dominated by small manufacturing concerns. Indeed, Courant

initially shared the premises with its fire escapes and creaky

old-fashioned freight elevator with a number of hat

factories. Financing for the institute had come from the Atomic

Energy Commission, which had been hunting for a home for its

giant Univac 4 computer. At the time, this great mass of vacuum

tubes, with its armed guard, occupied 25 Waverly Place

The institute was the creation of one of mathematics' great entrepreneurs, Richard Courant, a German Jewish professor of

mathematics who had been driven out of Göttingen in the

mid-1930's by the Nazis." Short, rotund, autocratic, and

irrepressible, Courant was famous for his fascination with the

rich and powerful, his penchant for falling in love with his

female "assistants;" and his unerring eye for young  
A505

mathematical talent. When Courant arrived in 1937, New York  
University had no

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--506

mathematics worth speaking of. Undaunted, Courant immediatel  
y set

about raising funds. His own stellar reputation, the  
anti-Semitism of the American educational establishment, and  
New

York's "deep reservoir of talent" was enabled him to attract

brilliant students, most of them New York City Jews who were  
shut

out of the Harvards and Princetons. I I The advent of World  
War

II brought more money and more students, and by the mid-1950  
's,

when the institute was formally founded, it was already riva  
ling

more established mathematical centers like Princeton and  
Cambridge." Its young stars included Peter Lax and his wife,

Anneli, Cathleen Synge Morawetz, Jergen Moser, and Louis  
Nirenberg, and among its stellar visitors were Lars Hbrmande  
r, a

future Fields medalist, and Shlomo Sternberg, who would soon  
move

to Harvard. The Courant Institute was practically on Nash's  
doorstep and, given its lively atmosphere, it was not surpri  
sing

that Nash was soon spending at least as much time there as a  
t the

Institute for Advanced Study. At first Nash would stop by fo  
r an

hour or two before driving down to Princeton, but he soon fo  
und

himself staying the whole day." He never

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--507

came too early, for he liked to sleep late after  
Olden Lane and Washington Square

217

working into the wee hours at the university librarydd14 But  
he

was almost always there for teatime in the lounge on the  
building's penultimate floor." As for the Courant crowd, a  
friendly, open group with little taste for the competitivene  
ss of

MIT or the snobbery of the Institute, it was happy to have h

im.

Tilla Weinstein, a mathematician at Rutgers, who recalled that

Nash liked to pace around on one of the building's fire escapes,

said, "He was just a delight. There was a wit and humor about him

that was thoroughly unstandard. There was a wonderful playful

quality, a lightness. Cathleen Morawetz, the daughter of John

Synge, Nash's professor at Carnegie, assumed Nash was just another postdoctoral fellow and found him "very charming and

attractive fellow," a lively conversationalist. Hbrmander

recalled his first impressions: "He wore a serious expression.

Then he'd break out into a sudden smile. He was an enthusiast. Is Peter Lax, who had spent the war at Los Alam

os,

was

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--508

interested in Nash's research and "his own way of looking at

things. At first,

Nash seemed more interested in the political cataclysms

of that fall

Nasser

nationalized the Suez Canal, prompting an invasion by England,

France, and Israel, the Russians crushed the Hungarian uprising,

and Eisenhower and Stevenson were again baffling for the presidency. He'd

comthan in pursuing mathematical conversations. "

be in the common room"one Courant visitor recalled,  
A508

"talking and talking of his views of the political situation

From the afternoon teas, I remember him as voicing very strong  
opinions on the Suez crisis, which was going on at that time  
."

Another mathematician remembered a similar conversation in the  
institute dining room: "When the British and their allies were  
trying to grab Suez, and Eisenhower had not made his position

unmistakably clear (if he ever did), one day at lunch Nash  
started in on Suez. Of course, Nasser wasn't black, but he was

dark enough for Nash. `What you have to do with these people  
is  
to take a firm hand, and then once they realize you mean it.

"I'

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--509

The leading lights at Courant were very much at the forefront of  
rapid progress, stimulated by World War 11, in certain kinds of  
differential equations that serve as mathematical models for an  
immense variety of physical phenomena involving some sort of

change"0The mid-fifties, as Fortune  
noted, mathematicians knew relatively simple routines for solving  
ordinary differential equations using computers. But there were

no straightforward methods for solving most nonlinear partial  
differential equations that crop up when large or abrupt changes  
occur-such as equations that describe the aerodynamic shock waves

produced when a jet accelerates past the speed of sound. In  
his  
1958 obituary of von Neumann, who did important work in this

field in the thirties, Stanislaw Ulam called such systems of  
equations "baffling analytically" saying that they "defy even

qualitative insights by present methods.0"Z Nash was to write  
e  
that same year, "The open problems in the area of non-linear  
partial differential equations are very relevant to applied  
mathematics and science as a whole, perhaps more so than the  
open  
problems in

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--510

any other area of mathematics, and this field seems poised for  
or  
rapid development. It seems clear however that fresh methods  
must  
be employed."

14  
Nash, partly because of his contact with Wiener and perhaps  
his  
earlier interaction with Weinstein at Carnegie, was already  
interested in the problem of turbulence." Turbulence refers  
to  
the flow of gas or liquid over any uneven surface, like water  
r  
rushing into a bay, heat or electrical charges traveling through  
ough  
metal, oil escaping from an underground pool, or clouds skimming  
ming  
over an air mass. It should be possible to model such motion

mathematically. But it turns out to be extremely difficult.  
As  
Nash wrote:  
Little is known about the existence, uniqueness and smoothness of  
ss of  
solutions of the general equations of flow for a viscous,  
compressible, and heat conducting fluid. These are a non-linear  
ear  
parabolic system of equations. An interest in these questions led  
s led  
us to undertake this work. It became clear that nothing could be  
d be  
done about the continuum description of general fluid flow  
without the ability to handle non-linear parabolic equations  
and  
that this in turn required an

a priori

511

estimate of continuity

It was Louis Nirenberg, a short, myopic, and sweet-natured young

professor of Courant's, who handed Nash a major unsolved problem

in the then fairly new field of nonlinear theory." Nirenberg

, also in his twenties, and already a formidable analyst, found

Nash a bit strange. "He'd often seemed to have an internal smile,

as if he was thinking of a private joke, as if he was laughing at

a private joke that he never [told anyone about]." But he was extremely impressed with the technique Nash had invented for

solving his embedding theorem and sensed that Nash might be the

man to crack an extremely difficult outstanding problem that had

been open since the late 1930's.

He recalled:

I worked in partial differential equations. I also worked in

geometry. The problem had to do with certain kinds of inequalities associated with elliptic partial differential equations. The problem had been around in the field for some time

and a number of people had worked on it. Someone had obtained

such estimates much earlier, in the 1930's in two dimensions . But

the problem was open for [almost] thirty years in higher

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--512

dimensions

Nash began working on the problem almost as soon as Nirenberg

suggested it, although he knocked on doors until he was satisfied

that the problem was as important as Nirenberg claimed. Lax, who

was one of those he consulted, commented recently: "In physics

everybody knows the most important problems. They are well defined. Not so in mathematics. People are more introspective.

For Nash, though, it had to be important in the opinion of others."

Nash started coming to Nirenberg's office to discuss his progress. But it was weeks before Nirenberg got any real sense

that Nash was getting anywhere. "We Olden Ldd7tione dnd Washington Squqre

219

would meet often. Nash would say, "I seem to need such and such

an inequality. I think it's true that. . ." "Very often, Nash's

speculations were far off the mark. "He was sort of groping.

He

gave that impression. I wasn't very confident he was going to get

through."

12

Nirenberg sent Nash around to talk to Lars Hbrmander, a tall

steely Swede who was already one

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--513

of the top scholars in the field. Precise, careful, and immensely

knowledgeable, H6rmander knew Nash by reputation but reacted even

more skeptically than Nirenberg. "Nash had learned from Nirenberg

the importance of extending the Holder estimates known for second-order elliptic equations with two variables and irregular

coefficients to higher dimensionsea"Hiirmander recalled in 1997.11 "He came to see me several times, "What did I think of

such and such an inequality" "At first, his conjectures were obviously false. [They were] easy to disprove by known facts

on

constant coefficient operators. He was rather

A513

inexperienced in these matters. Nash did things from scratch

without using standard techniques. He was always trying to extract problems ... [from conversations with others]. He had not

the patience to [study them]."

Nash continued to grope, but with more success. "After a couple

more times" said Mirmander, "he'd come up with things that were

not so obviously wrong."

14

By the spring, Nash was able to obtain basic existence, uniqueness, and conti-

nuity theorems once again using novel methods of his

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--514

own invention. He had a theory that difficult problems could not

be attacked frontally. He approached the problem in an ingeniously roundabout manner, first transforming the nonlinear

equations into linear equations and then attacking these by nonlinear means. "It was a stroke of genius," said Lax, who followed the progress of Nash's research closely. "I've never

seen that done. I've always kept it in mind, thinking, maybe it

will work in another circumstance

.` 35

Nash's new result got far more immediate attention than his embedding theorem. It convinced Nirenberg, too, that Nash was a

genius

Mirmander's mentor at the University of Lund, Lars Gårding, a

world-class specialist in partial differential equations, immediately declared, "You have to be a genius to do that."

Courant made Nash a handsome job offer. Nash's reaction was a

curious one. Cathleen Synge Morawetz recalled a long conversation

with Nash, who couldn't make up his mind whether to accept the

offer or to go back to MIT. "He said he opted to go to MIT because of the tax advantage" of living in

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--515

Massachusetts as opposed to New Yorkdd19  
Despite these successes, Nash was to look back on the year a  
s one  
of cruel disappointment. In late spring, Nash discovered tha  
t a  
then-obscure young Italian, Ennio De Giorgi, had proven his  
continuity theorem a few months earlier. Paul Garabedian, a  
Stanford mathematician, was a naval attach6 in London. It wa  
s an  
Office of Naval Research sinecuredd40 In January 1957, Garab  
edian  
took a long car  
trip around Europe and looked up young mathematicians. "I sa  
w  
some oldtimers in Romeea"he recalled. "It was a scene. You'd  
talk  
mathematics for half an hour. Then you'd have lunch for thre  
e  
hours. Then a siesta. Then dinner. Nobody mentioned De Giorg  
idd"B  
in Naples, someone did, and Garabedian looked De Giorgi up o  
n his  
way back through Rome. "He was this bedraggled, skinny littl  
e  
starved-looking guy. But I found out he'd written this paper  
."  
De Giorgi, who died in 1996, came from a very poor family in  
Lecce in southern  
Italydd41  
Later he would become an idol to the younger generation.

He had no life outside mathematics, no family of his own or  
516  
other close relationships, and, even later, literally lived  
in  
his office. Despite occupying the most prestigious mathemati  
cal  
chair in Italy, he lived a life of ascetic poverty, complete  
ly  
devoted to his research, teaching, and, as time went on, a  
growing preoccupation with mysticism that led him to attempt  
to  
prove the existence of God through mathematics.  
De Giorgi's paper had been published in the most obscure jou  
rnal  
imaginable, the proceedings of a regional academy of science  
s.  
Garabedian proceeded to report De Giorgi's results in the Of  
fice  
of Naval Research's European newsletter.  
Nash's own account, written after he had won the Nobel for h  
is  
work in game theory, conveys the acute disappointment he fel  
t:  
I ran into some bad luck since, without my being sufficientl  
y  
informed on what other people were doing in the area, it hap  
pened  
that I was working in parallel with Ennio De Giorgi of Pisa,  
  
Italy. And De Giorgi was first actually to achieve the ascen  
t of  
the summit (of  
the figuratively described problem)

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--517

at least for the particularly interesting case of "elliptic  
equationsdd041  
Nash's view was perhaps overly subjective. Mathematics is no  
t an  
intramural sport, and as important as being first is, how on  
e  
gets to one's destination is often as important as, if not m  
ore  
important than, the actual target. Nash's work was almost  
universally regarded as a major breakthrough. But this was n  
ot  
how Nash saw it. Gian-Carlo Rota, a graduate student at Yale  
who  
spent that year at Courant, recalled in 1994: 1"en Nash lear  
ned  
about De Giorgi he was quite shocked. Some people even thoug

ht he  
cracked up because of thatdd041 When De Giorgi came to Coura  
nt  
that summer and he and Nash met, Lax said later, "It was lik  
e  
Stanley meeting Livingstone."

44  
Nash left the Institute for Advanced Study on a fractious no  
te.

In early July he apparently had a serious argument with  
Oppenheimer about quantum theoryserious enough, at any rate,  
to  
warrant a lengthy letter of apology from Nash to Oppenheimer

written around July 10, 1957: "First, please let me apologiz  
e for  
my manner of speaking when we discussed quantum theory

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--518

recently. This manner is unjustifiably aggressivedd045 After

calling his own behavior unjustified, Nash nonetheless  
immediately justified it by calling "most physicists (also s  
ome  
mathemati-

Olden Laneand Washington Square

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cians who have studied Quantum Theory) . . . quite too dogma  
tic

in their attitudes,?-plaining of their tendency to treat "an  
yone

with any sort of questioning attitude or a belief in `hidden

parameters` as stupid or at best a quite ignorant person." N  
ash's

letter to Oppenheimer shows that before leaving New York, Na  
sh

had begun to think seriously of attempting to address Einste  
in's

famous critique of Heisenberg's uncertainty principle:

Now I am making a concentrated study of Heisenberg's

A518

original 1925 paper ... This strikes me as a beautiful work and I

am amazed at the great difference between expositions of "matrix

mechanics," a difference, which from my viewpoint, seems

definitely in favor of the originaldd46 "I embarked on [a

project] to revise quantum theoryea"Nash said in his 1996 Madrid

lecture. "It was not a priori absurd for a non-physicist.

Einstein had criticized the

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--519

indeterminacy of the quantum mechanics of Heisenberg.

"47

He apparently had devoted what little time he spent at the Institute for Advanced Study that year talking with physicists

and mathematicians about quantum theory. Whose brains he was

picking is not clear: Freeman Dyson, Hans Lewy, and Abraham Pais

were in residence at least one of the termsdd41 Nash's letter of

apology to Oppenheimer provides the only record of what he was

thinking at the time. Nash made his own agenda quite clear.

"To

me one of the best things about the Heisenberg paper is its restriction to the observable quantities," he wrote, adding that

"I want to find a different and more satisfying under-pictur

e of a non-observable realitydd049

It was this attempt that Nash would blame, decades later in a

lecture to psychiatrists, for triggering his mental

illness-calling his attempt to resolve the contradictions in

quantum theory, on which he embarked in the summer of 1957, dispossibly overreaching and psychologically destabilizingdd

"10

What the matter with being a loner and innovative? Isn't that

line? But the flone genius] has the

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--520

same wishes as otherpeople. ff he were back in high school doing

science projects, fine. But ifhe too isolated and he

disappointed in something big, i6 frightening, and fright ca  
n  
precipitate depression. comPA-UL HowARD, McLean Hospital  
ORGEN

J

MOSER

had joined the MIT faculty in the fall of 1957 and was livin  
g  
with his wife, Gertrude, and his stepson, Richy, in a tiny r  
ented  
house to the west of Boston in Needham near Wellesley Colleg  
e.

Needham was then more exurb than suburb, still predominantly  
rural, a lovely place for walking, boating, and stargazing,  
all

of which Moser, a nature lover, was fond. That October and  
November, Moser would go outside every evening at dusk with  
eleven-year-old Richy, climb a great dirt mound behind their

house, and wait  
for

Sputnik-a

tiny silvery dot reflecting the sun's last rays-to pass slow  
ly  
over Boston. Having calculated the satellite's precise orbi  
t,

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--521

Moser always knew when it would appear on the horizon.  
Very often, he would still be thinking of the afternoon's  
conversation with Nash. Nash drove out to Needham often. Des  
pite

their very different temperaments, Nash and Moser had

A521

great respect for each other. Moser, who thought Nash's implicit

function theorem might be generalized and applied to celestial

mechanics, was eager to learn more of Nash's thinking. Nash, in

turn, was interested in Moser's ideas about nonlinear equations.

Richard Emery recalled in 1996: "I remember Nash being very much

a part of our life. He used to come to the house and talk with

Jargen. They would walk and talk together and spend time in the

study. The intensity of it was unimaginable. There could be no

interruptions. An interruption was an absolute sin, a violation

most serious. It was met with real wrath. When Jargen and Nash

met, it was very intense. I always had to be quiet."

Returning to Cambridge in late summer, Nash and Alicia found an

apartment with some difficulty. They each paid half the rent,

for they had decided not to pool their funds. Alicia got a

job as a physics researcher at Technical Operations, one of the

small high-tech companies that were springing up

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--522

along Route 128. She also enrolled in a course on quantum theory

taught by J. C. Slater.

They quickly settled into the pleasant private and social rituals

of a newly

married academic couple. Alicia almost never cooked. She would

meet Nash on the campus after work, they would eat out with one

or more of Nash's mathematics friends, and often spend the evening at a lecture, concert, or some social gathering. Alicia

made sure that they were always surrounded by amusing people

, sometimes Nash's old graduate-student friends, including Matt

tuck

and Bricker, sometimes Emma Duchane and whomever Emma happened to be dating, and, increasingly, other young couples like themselves, including the Mosers, the Minskys, Hartley Rogers and his wife, Adrienne, and Gian-Carlo Rota and his wife, Terry.

When they were with other people, Nash talked to the mathematicians, Alicia to the wives or Emma. Yet her attention was always focused on Nash: what he was saying, how he looked, how others reacted to him. He too, seemed always aware of her, even when he appeared to be ignoring her. That he wasn't

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--523

especially nice to her, or generous, mattered less than that he was interesting and made things happen. Their friends accepted Nash's new status as a married man with more or less good grace. Some found Alicia "ambitious, strong-willed" others quite the opposite. Rogers recalled in 1996 that "Alicia subordinated herself to John. She wasn't there to compete with him. She was totally dedicated to his support." Some of their acquaintances found their relationship oddly cool, but others came away with the impression that marriage suited Nash well and that Alicia was having a good effect on him. "Somehow, he was relating a little better," Rogers recalled.

Zipporah Levinson agreed: "John was awkward. Alicia made him behave." Photographs of Alicia taken in those months show a radiant young woman. It was, as Alicia would say many years later, "a very nice time of my life". Nash continued to work on the problem he had solved the previous

year at Courant. There were some small gaps in the proof,

A523

and the paper Nash had begun to write, laying out a full account

of what he had done, was in very rough shape. "It was," a

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--524

colleague said in 1996, "as if he were a composer and could hear

the music, but he didn't know how to write it down or exactly how

to orchestrate it." As it turned out, it would take most of the

year, and a collective effort, before the final product could

some mathematicians regard as Nash's most important work could

finally be ready to be submitted to a journal.

To complete it, Nash came as close as he ever had or would to an

active collaboration with other mathematicians. "It was like

building the atom bomb," recalled Lennart Carleson, a young professor from the University of Uppsala who was visiting MIT

that term. "This was the beginning of nonlinear theory. It was as

very difficult. Nash knocked on doors, asked questions, speculated out loud, fished for ideas, and at the end of the day,

got a dozen or so mathematicians around Cambridge interested

enough in his problem to drop their own research long enough to

solve little pieces of his puzzle. "It was a kind of factory,"

Carleson, who contributed a neat little theorem on entropy to

Nash's paper, said. "He wouldn't

tell us what he was after, his grand design. It was amusing to

watch how he got all these great egos

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--525

to cooperate.011

Besides Moser and Carleson, Nash also turned to Eli Stein, now a

professor of mathematics at Princeton University but then an MIT

instructor. "He wasn't interested in what I was doing," recalled

lled

Stein. "He'd say, 'You're an analyst. You ought to be interested in this!

"14

Stein was intrigued by Nash's enthusiasm and his constant supply of ideas. He said, "We were like Yankees fans getting together and talking about great games and great players. It was very

emotional. Nash knew exactly what he wanted to do. With his great

intuition, he saw that certain things ought to be true. He'd come

into my office and say, 'This inequality must be true! His arguments were plausible but he didn't have proofs for the individual lemmas -- building blocks for the main proof

He challenged Stein to prove the lemmas.

"You don't accept arguments based on plausibility," said Stein in

1995. "If you build an edifice based on one plausible proposition

after another, the whole thing is liable to collapse after a few

steps. But somehow he knew it wouldn't. And it didn't."

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--526

16

Nash's thirtieth year was thus looking very bright. He had scored

a major success. He was adulated and lionized as never before."

Fortune

magazine was about to feature him as one of the brightest young

stars of mathematics in an upcoming series on the "New Math.

" 11

And he had returned to Cambridge as a married man with a beautiful and adoring young wife. Yet his good fortune seemed at

times only to highlight the gap between his ambitions and  
A526

what he had achieved. If anything, he felt more frustrated and

dissatisfied than ever. He had hoped for an appointment at  
Harvard or Princeton. 19 As it was, he was not yet a full  
professor at MIT, nor did he have tenure. He had expected that

at  
his latest result, along with the offer from Courant, would  
convince the department to award him both that winter. Getting

these things after only five years would be unusual, but Nash

felt that he deserved nothing less." But Martin had already  
made

it clear to Nash that he was unwilling to put him up for  
promotion so soon. Nash's candidacy was controversial, Martin had

told him, just as his initial appointment had been." A number of  
people in

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--527

the department felt he was a poor teacher and an even worse  
colleague. Martin felt Nash's case would be stronger once the

full version of the parabolic equations paper appeared in print.

Nash, however, was furious.

Nash continued to brood over the De Giorgi fiasco. The real  
blow

of discovering that De Giorgi had beaten him to the punch was to

him not just having to share the credit for his monumental  
discovery, but his strong belief that the sudden appearance  
of a

coinventor would rob him of the thing he most coveted: a Fields

Medal.

Forty years later, after winning a Nobel, Nash referred in his

autobiographical essay, in his typically elliptical fashion,  
to

his dashed hopes:

It seems conceivable that if either De Giorgi or Nash had failed

in the attack on this problem (or .7

priori

estimates of Holder continuity) then that the lone climber  
reaching the peak would have been recognized with the  
mathematics` Fields medal (which has traditionally been

restricted to persons less than 40 years old)."

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--528

The next Fields Medal would be awarded in August 1958, and as everyone knew, the deliberations had long been under way. To understand how deep the disappointment was, one must know that the Fields Medal is the Nobel Prize of mathematics, the ultimate distinction that a mathematician can be granted by his peers, the trophy of trophies.

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There is no Nobel in mathematics, and mathematical discoveries, no matter how vital to Nobel disciplines such as physics or economics, do not in themselves qualify for a Nobel. The Fields is, if anything, rarer than the Nobel. In the fifties and early sixties, it was awarded once every four years and usually to just two recipients at a time. Nobels, by contrast, are awarded annually, with as many as three winners sharing each prize. Tradition demands that recipients of the Fields be under forty years of age, a practice designed to honor the spirit of the prize charter, which stipulates that the purpose of the honor is "to encourage young

mathematicians"and "future work." The incentive,  
A528

incidentally, is of an

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--529

intangible variety, as the cash involved, in contrast to the  
Nobel, is negligible, a few hundred dollars. Yet since the F  
ields  
is an instant ticket in midcareer to endowed chairs at top  
universities, ample research funds, and star salaries, this  
seeming disadvantage is more apparent than real.  
The prize is administered by the International Mathematical  
Union, the same organization that organizes the quadrennial  
world  
mathematical congresses, and the selection of Fields medalis  
ts  
is, as one recent president of the organization put it, "one  
of  
the most important tasks, one of the most taxing  
responsibilities."

16

Like the Nobel deliberations, the Fields selection process i  
s  
shrouded in greatest secrecy.  
The seven-member prize committee for the 1958 Fields awards  
was  
headed by Heinz Hopf, the dapper, genial, cigar-smoking geom  
eter  
from Zurich who showed so much interest in Nash's embedding  
theorem, and included another prominent German mathematician  
,  
Kurt Friedrichs, formerly of Gbttingen, and then at Courantd  
d"The  
deliberations got under way in late 1955 and were concluded  
early

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--530

in 1958. (The medalists were informed, in strictest secrecy,  
in  
May  
1958 and actually awarded their medals at the Edinburgh cong  
ress  
the following August.)  
All prize deliberations involve elements of accident, the bi  
ggest  
one being the composition of the committee. As one mathemati  
cian  
who took part in a subsequent committee said, "People aren't  
universalists. They're horse trading.", In 1958, there were

a  
total of thirty-six nominees, as Hopf was to say in his award  
ceremony speech, but the hot contenders numbered no more than  
five or six.<sup>19</sup>  
That year the deliberations were unusually contentious and the  
prizes, which ultimately went to René Thom, a topologist, and  
Maurice F. Roth, a number theorist, were awarded on a four-three  
vote.<sup>10</sup> "There were lots of politics in that prize; one person  
close to the deliberations said recently." Roth was a shoe-in; he  
had solved a fundamental problem in number theory that the most  
senior committee member, Carl Ludwig Siegel, had worked on early  
in his career. "It was a question of Thom versus Nash," said  
Moser, who heard reports of the deliberations from several of the

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--531

participants.<sup>0</sup> "Friedrichs fought very hard for Nash, but he  
didn't succeed," recalled Lax, who had been Friedrichs's student  
and who heard Friedrichs's account of the deliberations. "He  
was  
upset, As I look back, he should have insisted that a third  
prize  
be given." "  
Chances are that Nash did not make the final round. His work  
on  
partial differential equations, of which Friedrichs would have  
been aware, was not yet published or properly vetted. He was  
an  
outsider, which one person close to the deliberations thought

"might have hurt him" Moser said, "Nash was somebody who  
A531  
didn't learn the stuff. He didn't care. He wasn't afraid of  
moving in and working on his own. That doesn't get looked at  
so  
positively by other people" Besides, there was no great  
urgency to recognize him at this juncture; he was just  
twenty-nine.  
No one could know, of course, that 1958 would be Nash's last

chance. "By  
1962, a Fields for Nash would have been out of the  
question" Moser said recently. "It would never have happened.  
I'm sure nobody even thought about him any-  
A measure of how badly Nash wanted to win the

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--532  
distinction conferred by such a prize is the extraordinary  
lengths to which he went to ensure that his paper would be  
eligible for the B6cher Prize, the only award remotely  
comparable in terms of prestige to the Fields. The B6cher is  
given by the American Mathematical Society only once every five  
years" It was due to be awarded in February 1959, which meant  
that the deliberations would take place in the latter part of  
1958.  
Nash submitted his manuscript to  
Acta Mathematica,  
the Swedish mathematics journal, in the spring of 1958. It  
was  
a natural choice, since Carleson was the editor and was convinced  
of the paper's great importance. Nash let Carleson know he wanted  
the paper published as quickly as possible and urged Carleson to  
give it to a referee who could vet the paper in a minimum of  
time. Carleson gave the manuscript to H6rmander to referee.  
H6rmander spent two months studying it, verified all the  
theorems, and urged Carleson to get it into print as quickly as  
possible. But as soon as Carleson informed Nash of the formal  
acceptance, which was, in any case, largely a foregone  
conclusion, Nash withdrew his paper.  
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When the paper subsequently appeared in the fall issue of the

American Journal of Mathematics,

Hörmander concluded that Nash had always intended to publish the

paper there, since the latter restricted eligible papers to

those published in American journals and, worse, had submitted

the paper to both journals,

The Bomb Factory

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a clear-cut breach of professional ethics. "It turned out that

Nash had just wanted to get a letter of acceptance from Acta

to be able to get fast publication in the

American Journal of Mathematics. Hörmander was angry at what

he felt was a very improper and most unusual

discovery

It's possible, though, that Nash had simply submitted the paper

to

Acta

before learning that doing so would exclude it from consideration

for the Bbcher, but that upon discovering this fact, he  
A533

was willing to antagonize Carleson and Mirmander in

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--534

order to preserve his eligibility. He may therefore not have  
used

Acta

quite so unscrupulously. Withdrawing the paper after it had  
been

promised to

Acta, and

after it had been refereed, would have been unprofessional,  
but

not as clear a violation of ethics as Hbrmander's scenario  
suggests. However, it still showed bow very much winning a p  
rize

meant to Nash. Summer 1958

It struck me that I knew every-thing; everj4hing was reveale  
d to

me, all the secrets of the world were mine during those spac  
ious

hours. -

GERARD DE NERVAL

ASH TURNED THIRTY

that June. For most people, thirty is simply the dividing li  
ne

between youth and adulthood, but mathematicians consider the  
ir

calling a young man's game, so thirty signals something far  
more

gloomy. Looking back at this time in his life, Nash would re  
fer

to a sudden onset of anxiety, "a fear"t the best years of hi  
s

creative life were over.`

What an irony that mathematicians, who live so much more in  
their

minds than most of humanity, should

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--535

feel so much more trapped by their bodies! An ambitious youn  
g

mathematician watches the calendar with a sense of trepidati  
on

and foreboding equal to or greater than that of any model, a  
ctor,

or athlete.

The Mathematician Apology

by G. H. Hardy sets the standard for all laments of lost you  
th.

Hardy wrote that he knew of no single piece of first-rate mathematics done by a mathematician over fifty. But the age anxiety is most intense, mathematicians say, as thirty draws near. "People say that for better or worse you will probably do your best work by the time you are thirty," said one genius. "I tend to think that you are at your peak around thirty. I'm not saying you won't equal it. I would like to think that you could. But I don't think you will ever do better. That's my gut feeling." Von Neumann used to say that "the primary mathematical powers decline at about twenty-six," of which the mathematician must rely on "a certain more prosaic shrewdness." Compounding the irony is that the act of creating new mathematics, which appears so solitary from the outside, feels from the inside like an intramural competition, a race. One never forgets the crowded

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--536

field. And one's relative standing, vis-à-vis past and present competitors, is what counts. Again, Hardy best conveyed what motivates many mathematicians, including himself. He wrote that he could not recall ever wanting to be anything but a mathematician, but also that he could not remember feeling any passion for mathematics as a boy. "I wanted to beat other

boys, and this seemed to be the way in which I could do so  
A536

most decisively. I More ambitious than most, Nash was also  
more  
age-conscious than most, and perhaps simply more frank about  
it.

"John was the most age-conscious person I've ever met," recalled

Felix Browder in 1995. "He would tell me every week my age  
relative to his and everybody else's."

His determination to avoid the draft during the Korean War  
suggested not just a desire to avoid regimentation, but also  
an

unwillingness to take time out of the race.

The most successful are the most vulnerable to the feeling that

time is running out. Such fears may be exaggerated, but they  
are

quite capable of producing real crises, as the history of  
mathematics amply attests. Artin, for example, switched  
frantically from field to field trying to catch hold

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--537

of something that would equal his early accomplishments. Steenrod  
slipped into a deep depression. When one of his students

published a note on "Steenrod's Reduced Powers" - the reference

was, of course, mathematical, not personal -- other  
mathematicians smirked and said, "Oh, yes, Steenrod's reduced

powers!" Nash's thirtieth birthday produced a kind of cognitive

dissonance. One can almost imagine a sniggering commentator  
inside Nash's head: "What, thirty already, and still no prizes,

no offer from Harvard, no tenure even? And you thought you were

such a great mathematician? A genius? Ha, ha, ha!" Nash's mood

was odd. Periods of gnawing self-doubt and dissatisfaction  
alternated with periods of heady anticipation. Nash had a  
distinct feeling that he was on the brink of some revelation

. And  
it was this sense of anticipation, as much as his fear, as he put

it, of "descending to a professional level of comparative  
mediocrity and routine publication" spurred him to begin  
working on two great problems. Sometime during the spring  
of

1958, Nash had confided to Eli Stein that he had "an idea of

an  
idea"ab how to solve the Riemann Hypothesisdd"T summer, he w  
rote  
letters to Albert E. Ingham,

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--538

Atle Selberg, and other experts in number theory sketching h  
is

idea and asking their opiniondd"He worked in his office in  
Building Two for hours, night after night.

Even when a genius makes such an announcement, the rational  
response is skepticism. The Riemann Hypothesis is the holy g  
rail

of pure mathematics. "Whoever proves or disproves it will co  
ver

himself with gloryea"wrote E. T. Bell in 1939. "A decision o  
ne

way or the other disposing of Riemann's conjecture would pro  
bably

be of greater interest to mathematicians than a proof or dis  
proof

of Fermat's Last Theorem." "

Enrico Bombieri, at the Institute for Advanced Study, said:

"The

Riemann Hypothesis is not just a problem. It is tbe problem.

It

is the most important problem in pure mathematics. It's an  
indication of something extremely deep and fundamental that

we

cannot grasp." "

Whole numbers that are evenly divisible only by themselves a  
nd

one comsocalled prime numbers -- have exerted a fascination  
for

mathematicians for two thousand years or more. The Greek

mathematician Euclid proved that there were infinitely  
A538  
many primes.

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--539

The great European mathematicians of the eighteenth century  
--

Euler, Legendre, and Gauss -- began a quest, still under way  
, to  
estimate how many primes there are, given a whole number  $n$ ,  
less  
than  
not.

14

And since 1859 a string of mathematical giants -- G. H. Har  
dy,

Norman Levinson, Atle Selberg, Paul Cohen, and Bombieri, amo  
ng

others-have attempted, unsuccessfully, to prove the Riemann  
Hypothesisdd"George Polya once gave a young mathematician wh  
o had

confided in him that he was working on the Riemann Hypothesi  
s a

reprint of a faulty proof of the conjecture by a G6menttinge  
n

mathematician who thought he'd solved the problem. "I think  
about

it every day when I wake up in the morningea"the young  
mathematician had said, and Polya delivered the reprint the  
following morning with a note: "If you want to climb the

Matterhorn you might first wish to go to Zermatt where those  
who

have tried are buried."

16

Before World War 1, a German banker endowed a

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--540

prize, lodged in G6menttingen, for whoever proved or disprov  
ed

the hypothesis. The prize was never awarded and, indeed, van  
ished

in the inflation of the 1920'sdd11

Nash's first encounter with Georg Friedrich Bernhard Riemann  
and

his famous conjecture took place when Nash was fourteen, pro  
bably

lying on the den floor in front of the radio, reading Bell's

Men ofMathematics11

Riemann, the sickly son of an impoverished Lutheran minister  
, was

also fourteen and preparing to follow in his father's footsteps when a sympathetic headmaster, who sensed that the boy was more suited to mathematics than the ministry, gave him a copy of Legendre's Theorie des Nombres to read. 19 As Bell tells it, the young Riemann returned the 859-page work six days later, saying, "That is certainly a wonderful book. I have mastered it." The episode, which took place in 1840, was likely the origin of Riemann's lifelong interest in the riddle of prime numbers and, as Bell theorizes, Riemann's Hypothesis may have originated in his

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--541

later attempt to improve upon Legendre. In 1859, at the age of thirty-three, Riemann wrote an eight-page paper, "Ueber die Anzahl der Primzahlen unter einer gegebenen Grösse" ("On the number of prime numbers under a given magnitude"), in which he laid out his famous conjecture, "one of the outstanding challenges, if not the outstanding challenge to pure mathematics." Here is how Bell explains the conjecture: The problem concerned is to give a formula which will state how

many primes there are less than any given number not. In  
A541

attempting to solve this Riemann was driven to an investigation

of the infinite series  $1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \dots$

plus  $\frac{1}{2^s}$ 's plus  $\frac{1}{3^s}$ 's plus 'As

plus . . . in which  $s$  is a complex number, say  $s = u + iv$

( $i$  equals

where  $u$  and  $v$  are real numbers, so chosen that the series

converges. With this proviso the infinite series is a definite

function of  $s$ , say  $\zeta(s)$  (the Greek zeta is always used to

denote this function, which is called "Riemann's zeta

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--542

Secrets

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function"); and as  $s$  varies  $\zeta(s)$  continuously takes on different values. For what values of  $s$  will  $\zeta(s)$  be zero?

Riemann conjectured that  $\frac{1}{2}$

such values of  $s$  for which

$u$

lies between 0 and 1 are of the form

$\frac{1}{2} + iv$

plus

$iv$ , namely, all have their real part equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

When Riemann died of tuberculosis at thirty-nine, he left behind

a vast legacy, including the abstract, four-dimensional geometry

that Einstein would employ in formulating his general theory of

relativity. Just as geographers had to go from two-dimensional

plane geometry to three-dimensional solid geometry to create an

undistorted map of the earth, Einstein, to map the cosmos, went

from three-dimensional to four-dimensional geometry. But it was

for his tantalizing conjecture that Riemann is best remembered.

Proving or disproving it would settle many extremely difficult

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--543

questions in the theory of numbers and in some fields of analysis. As Bell put it, "Expert opinion favors the truth o

f the  
hypothesis."

It is impossible to say how long Nash had been contemplating  
his

own attempt, but it seems likely that his interest crystalli  
zed

sometime toward the end of his year in New York. Jack Schwar  
tz

recalled conversations with Nash on the subject in the Coura  
nt

common room." Jerome Neuwirth, a second-year graduate studen  
t at

MIT in 1957-58, remembered that Nash had developed a very  
proprietary feeling about the problem around that time." Neu  
wirth

recalled that Newman, perhaps to tease Nash, told Nash that  
Neuwirth, too, was working on the Riemann Hypothesis. Nash c  
ame

roaring into Neuwirth's office. "How dare you" he said. "Wha  
t's a

guy like you doing?" It quickly became a running joke. Every  
time

Nash saw Neuwirth he'd say, "Well, did you get anywhere yet"  
"And

Neuwirth would answer, "Almost got it. I'd tell you about it  
, but

I've got to run."

As Stein recalled it, Nash's idea was "to try to prove the  
hypothesis by logic, by internal consistency of the system.  
Some

proofs are based on

analogies, on rules of logic whereby something is proved  
544

[indirectly]. If one could show that the structure of two problems was in some sense identical, one could show that the logic of one proof had to apply to the other. It's a proof by logic and it doesn't relate to the real context. It's not proving that one object is related to another object

Stein was dubious. "He told me this very sketchy thing. It was an idea of an idea about how he was going to prove this thing.

He was going to find another number system in which it was true. I thought, 'It's wild, it doesn't hang together! This struck me as simply unbelievable. This was as opposed to my earlier conversations with him about parabolic equations, which struck me as daring but probably right.'"

Richard Palais, a professor of mathematics at Brandeis University, recalls some particulars: "Nash was considering so-called pseudoprime sequences, i.e., increasing sequences  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots$  of integers that have many of the same distribution properties as the sequence  $2, 3, 5, 7, \dots$  of prime numbers. For each of these one can

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--545  
associate in a natural way a 'zeta function,' which for the case of the true primes reduces to the Riemann zeta function. As I recall, Nash claimed to be able to show that for 'almost all' of these pseudoprime sequences the corresponding zeta function satisfied the Riemann Hypothesis

Bell warned that "Riemann's Hypothesis is not the sort of problem that can be attacked by elementary methods. It had already given rise to an extensive and thorny literature" By the time Nash turned to it seriously, that literature had grown several-fold. Both Ingham and Selberg, possibly others as well, warned Nash that his ideas had been tried before and hadn't led

anywhere" Eugenio Calabi, who was in touch with Nash in this period, said: "For a person who is not a library hound, it's a very dangerous area to go into. If you have a flash of an idea with a scenario and think you may get a result, in the first flash of illumination you think you have a revelation. But that's very dangerous" 19

There was, as Nash suggested, nothing absurd in his attempting to solve the outstanding problems in pure mathematics and

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--546

theoretical physics. The skepticism with which his early formulations were greeted was, after all, merely a replay of the skepticism voiced by experts toward his earlier efforts, and has no doubt been exaggerated in hindsight. When those problems are solved it will be by a young mathematician who attacks them with the hubris, originality, raw mental power, and sheer tenacity that Nash brought to bear on his greatest work, Yet the timing of Nash's decision to pursue these problems, just as he turned thirty and while he was licking various wounds to what he would later call his merciless superego" 10 suggests that a fear of failure lay behind his willingness to take an unusual

risks. Stein's impression of Nash during their

A546

conversations about the Riemann problem is interesting: "He was a

little ... on the wild side. There was something exaggerated about his actions. There was a flamboyance in the way he talked.

Mathematicians are usually more careful about what they will assert to be true." But, of course, hubris is not exactly uncommon. As Hormander, who went on to win a Fields Medal in

1962, put it: "It's part of life that not all things one works on work out. You overestimate your own abilities. After

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--547

solving a big problem, nothing smaller is good enough. It's very dangerous." Later, quite possibly because of the effects of

shock treatments, Nash had absolutely no recall of his attempt to

solve Riemann's conjecture. As it was, Nash's compulsion to

scale this most difficult, most dangerous peak proved central to

his undoing.

There were other signs that Nash felt, at that particular juncture, a growing pressure to prove himself as well as a

newfound taste for taking risks. Nash had always been obsessed

with money, even trivial amounts. Nash had made friends with

Samuelson, Solow, and a number of other young economists at MIT.

Samuelson recalled in 1996 that Nash told him about a bank with

no checking charges at all.

"Do they give you stamped, self-addressed envelopes too?" Samuelson shot back. Nash, who didn't get the joke, immediately replied: "No. Do you know a bank that gives you stamped self-addressed envelopes?"

14

Privately, Samuelson thought it was all a bit pathological. Norman Levinson, who complained to Samuelson about Nash's parsimony, apparently

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--548

once told him "to cut out his cheese-paring ways" Levinson said:

"One extra theorem will earn you more than all that stuff. Ofggation everyone thought it was weird. Nash was able to convince Martin and a few others in the math department to switch their accounts to the Peoples National Bank of Rocky Mount, Virginia, which charged no fees on checking accounts!)" That summer Nash's somewhat compulsive attitude toward money blossomed into an obsession with the stock and bond markets.

Solow recalled: "It seemed he had a notion that there might be a secret to the market, not a conspiracy, but a theorem something that if you could only figure it out, would let you beat the market. He would look at the financial pages and ask, 'Why is this happening? Why is that happening?' as if there had to be a reason for a stock to go up or down" 016 Martin, the chairman of the mathematics department, also recalled that "Nash liked to chat about the stock market. He had the idea you could get rich." Nash had some notion of arbitraging July 1999 bonds against September 1999 as well as various ideas about over-the-counter stocks" Solow was aghast to learn that

Nash was investing his mother's savings. "I was

549

horrified," he recalled. "That's something else," said Samuelson.

"It's vanity. It's like claiming you can control the tides.

It's

a feeling that you can outwit nature. It's not uncommon among

mathematicians. It's not just about money. It's me against the

world. A lot of traders start that way. It's about proving yourself."

In late July, against this backdrop of grand designs, the Nashes,

who had not yet gone on a proper honeymoon, left Cambridge for

Europe. They sailed from New York on the

Le Francedd19

Their ultimate destination was Edinburgh, where the World Congress of Mathematics was to take place in the second week of

August. Nash was giving a lecture on nonlinear theory. Many colleagues from MIT and Princeton would be there, and Nash was

able to pay for his trip partly out of Sloan funds.

But first they went to Paris. There, having calculated that importing a used car from Europe was a bargain, Nash purchased an

olive-green Mercedes 180 diesel. He and Alicia then drove south

over the Pyrenees to Spain, back to Italy, and up to Belgium.

The trip was a success. "We were

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--550

young," Alicia recalls. "It was fun." Another of his plans was

to buy Alicia the diamond that he had promised her. Antwerp was

the center of the world diamond market, and Nash had the idea

that it would be advantageous to buy a stone directly from a

wholesaler. Eli Stein's father had been a diamond merchant

there before the war and that is what may have given Nash the

idea in the first place. If Nash had hoped for a bargain, he was

disappointed; the yellow stone that he purchased was no cheaper

than it would  
have been in the States, he recalled in 1996. From Belgium,  
they  
drove to the North Sea, crossed over into Sweden, and visite  
d  
Lund and Stockholm before crossing back to England.  
They rendezvoused with Felix and Eva Browder in London and d  
rove  
to Scotland with them. The men ignored the women, who sat  
together in the backscat gossiping (at that time, Eva recall  
ed,  
"Nash wouldn't talk to women0gg.41 On the second, rainy day  
of  
the drive, Felix managed to dent the Mercedes, prompting Nas  
h to  
repeat incessantly for the rest of the trip that "this car h  
as  
been Browderizedddd041  
There were, as Alicia later said, "lots of

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--551

famous people aroundddd044 Nash seemed very much his usual se  
lf He  
pouted a bit when Milnor gave his invited half-hour lecture,  
a  
great honor. He got into a loud argument with Olga Ladyshens  
kaya  
from the University of St. Petersburg, an expert  
on  
a priori  
estimates of parabolic equations and the leading female  
mathematician of her generation. Nash was picking her brains  
and  
she, somewhat paranoid, reacted rather violently."` The Nash  
es  
held a party in their hotel room. Nash raised eyebrows by  
complaining at great length that Alicia took too long to get

dressed and that she was always late<sup>46</sup> But he showed no  
A551  
emotion when, as he and Alicia sat in the balcony with the  
Browders, Moore, Milnor, and others, the Fields prizes were  
awarded.

Fall 1958

The growing consciousness is a danger and a disease.

- FwEDR-ICH NYE7ZSCHE

TE

NASHES WERE BACK-IN

Cambridge and Nash was already teaching when Alicia discovered,  
half with joy, half with dismay, that she was

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--552

pregnant. Alicia, who liked her job and her paycheck, would  
have preferred to wait a few years. It had been Nash's wish  
that  
they start a family right away.` He stopped short of saying  
that

his desire for another child had been his motive for marryin  
g,

but he reminded Alicia often that the whole purpose of marri  
age,

in his view, was to produce children.` Now that his wish was  
to

be realized, Nash was on the whole rather pleased, passing t  
he

great news on to Albert Tucker in a postscript to a letter i  
n

early October by referring to "a 'new addition` that we are  
expecting."` He demanded that Alicia stop smoking. When she  
lit

up at a math party he told her to put out her cigarette and  
made

a scene after she refused<sup>dd</sup> But otherwise, all seemed to  
be

well. Nash was teaching a graduate course. The course number

comM711, a sly reference to craps-was Nash's idea and helped  
draw

enough students to fill a small amphitheater.` Nash's first  
assignment also reflected his high spirits. He asked his stu  
dents

to invent a way to grade each other's papers so that he, Nas  
h,

wouldn't have to be bothered.

Nash was at that moment preoccupied with his own future and  
feeling increasingly restless. Martin had assured

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--553

him that he was coming up for tenure that winter. The promise of a decision mollified him somewhat: Nash wrote to Tucker that the situation at MIT had "reached a modus vivendi condition which is an improvement over early 1958. his

7

But the sense that others were deciding his future oppressed him.

And he was more convinced that he didn't belong at MIT. "I do not feel this is a good long-term position for me," he wrote to Tucker, saying that he was afraid of becoming isolated within the department like Wiener. "I would rather be one of a smaller number of more nearly equal colleagues." His sister Martha recalled that "he had no intention of staying at MIT. He wanted

to go to Harvard because of the prestige.

Meanwhile, the University of Chicago was putting out feelers

about Nash's possible interest in moving there." Chicago had

gone a long time without making any senior hires, even after

Andre Weil had left for the Institute for Advanced Study. Now the

math department had a new chairman, Adrian Albert, and some cash." Albert was looking at a young Harvard professor, John

Thompson, who

had done brilliant work in group theory"and also at Nash,  
554

who had a number of strong supporters in the department,  
including Shiingshen Chern.

Nash felt the pressure from these decisions acutely and deci  
ded,

in any case, that he wanted to get away the following year f  
or a

separate sabbatical. He wanted to spend the fall term of 195  
9 in

Princeton at the Institute for Advanced Study and the spring  
term

in Paris at its French equivalent, the Institut des Hautes  
9mentudes Scientifiques, which, like the Institute, was domi  
nated

by mathematicians and theoretical physicists. Around the end  
of

October, he began the process of applying for various grants

including those from the National Science Foundation, the  
Guggenheim Foundation, and the Fulbright program. He also ap  
plied

to the Institute for a membership. He wrote: "This is part o  
f the

plan. The other part is to learn Frenchdd"I I

Albert Tucker was supportive. He wrote to the Fulbright prog  
ram

on October

8 that "Nash is eager to talk mathematics with others he thi  
nks

are up to snuff... He is often rather rough on those less ab  
le

... but this is standard

-----  
--555

practice in France ... Nash should do well with energetic gi  
ve

and take ... benefit from relationship with Leray."

14

His letter of recommendation to the National Science Foundat  
ion

called Nash "one of the most talented and original mathemati  
cians

in the US ... in his final year of a Sloan fellowship. One o  
f two

or three best men who ever got a Sloan." I I His November 26

letter to the Guggenheim Foundation was couched in similarly

laudatory terms."

What Nash planned to work on isn't clear. He was at the time

thinking about several different problems, including quantum theory and the Riemann Hypothesis. His desire to go to Paris may or may not have been motivated by Leray's presence at the College de France. Gian-Carlo Rota recalled: "He was bragging that he had enough fellowships to survive three or four years. One particularly unpleasant episode occurred in the early fall. His investments had proved disastrous, at the very least, and he had to confess his failure to Virginia. He also had to promise to repay her. "I'll forward my debt," Nash was

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--556

forced to write Virginia that fall. The amount wasn't huge, but the whole thing was quite upsetting. Everything, in short, seemed suddenly to be in flux-which may be why Nash found himself drawn to another young man. That summer a brilliant mathematician, six years Nash's junior, turned up at MIT. By the mid-1960's, Paul Cohen would be famous for solving a logical puzzle posed by Godel -- a result so stunning that The New York Times reported it?-and would win both a Fields and a Schemes

136cher  
.2 1

But in the fall of 1958, Cohen was a fiercely ambitious, enormously frustrated upstart. Cohen, who had grown up poor in

New York, had been on the math team at Stuyvesant High  
A556

School, and had just earned his Ph.D. at the University of  
Chicagodd" B his thesis had not been well received and as a  
consequence he had been unhappily marooned at the University  
of

Rochester. Desperate to get away, he had begged

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--557

his old friend from Stuyvesant, Eli Stein, to help him get a  
n

instructorship at MIT." This Stein had managed to do, and Co  
hen

had come to Cambridge as soon as class inines ended at Roche  
ster.

Big, slightly feline in his movements, his eyes burning with

fiery intensity under a high dome of a forehead, Cohen was  
self-obsessed, suspicious, aggressive, and charming by turns  
. He

spoke several languages. He played the piano. His ambitions  
were

seemingly unlimited and he spoke, from one moment to the nex  
t, of

becoming a physicist, a composer, even a novelist. Stein, wh  
o

became a close friend of Cohen's, said: "What drives Cohen i  
s

that he's going to be better than any other guy. He's going  
to

solve the big problems. He looks down on mathematicians who  
do

mathematics for the sake of making incremental improvements  
in

the field

dis024

He was as fast as Newman, ambitious as Nash, arrogant as the  
two

put together, and he very quickly fell in with the other two

Cohen was competitivewildly competitiveea"z one fellow instr  
uctor

put it. "He was good at tearing people

-----  
--558

down," Adriano Garsia recalled in 1995.11 They challenged ea  
ch

other with problems. "Well, Nash what kind of garbage are yo  
u

working on now" "Cohen would say. "What wrong theorems did yo  
u

prove today? Okay ... you want a real problem? I'll give you  
a  
problemff"They ragged the chess players mercilessly. As Cars  
ia  
recalls, "They were always eager to show how much better the  
y  
were at whatever game it was that other people were playing.  
They  
engaged in horseplay ... playing tunes on beer bottlesdd"D.J  
. and  
Paul typically got the better of Nash, but not always. Cohen  
was  
the more articulate. But occasionally Nash could shut them u  
p.  
"He could say an enormous amount in three wordsea"said Garsi  
a.  
They delighted in ganging up on a graduate student strugglin  
g  
with a dissertation, dissecting a problem that some poor guy  
had  
been working on for two years and springing their own soluti  
on on  
him. They liked to argue that theirs was more powerful, but  
in  
fact they abjured elegance for brute force. "They wanted to  
solve  
it any way at allea"said Garsia.  
Nash "cultivated"Cohen, according to the latter. It was  
disunusualea"Cohen recalled. "Maybe I liked him because he l  
iked  
me. He'd ask me to lunch.

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--559

He was not a friend of mine, though. I don't know that he ha  
d any  
friendsdd016 Still, Cohen was intrigued. He used to go to di  
nner  
with the Nashes, speaking Spanish to Alicia, wondering how N  
ash  
had won this beautiful girl, and aware that Alicia was someh  
ow  
"concerned"ab Nash's paying so much attention to Cohen.  
Nash never made any advances or ever said anything personal  
to  
Cohen. But he dropped hints. He'd say things like "So and So  
was

a homosexual" Cohen recalled. Or he'd say a word and ask  
A559

Cohen if he knew what it meant. If Cohen  
said no, Nash would come back with "Oh, you don't know what  
so

and so means" around the department were soon gossiping t  
hat

Nash was in love with Cohen." Cohen was flattered, even  
fascinated, by Nash's interest, but he took special delight  
in

rubbing Nash's face in the disparity between the grandiose c  
laims

and reality. He was critical, to the point of viciousness, o  
f

Nash's hubris. Later, Cohen would say, "Mathematically I did  
n't

interact with him. I didn't feel I could talk to him about  
mathematics."

But they did talk a good deal about Nash's ideas on the Riem  
ann

Hypothesis. "Nash thought he could

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--560

work on any problem he wanted" said Cohen in a tone of mild

outrage. "He wrote a letter to Ingham, and he passed it arou  
nd. I

shot it down. What he was trying to do, you couldn't do. I w  
ould

have been very unsympathetic to Nash's notion. The Riemann  
Hypothesis can't be solved as stated. He came by with this  
letter. But any expert would have said these ideas are naive

What I admired is the enormous self-confidence to even  
conjecture. If he's right, this guy's intuition is in the  
stratosphere. But it turned out to be just another wrong ide  
a."

A year later, after he had been hospitalized, some blamed  
disappointed love and the intense rivalry with a younger man  
for

Nash's breakdown" Ironically, Cohen's career wound up mirro  
ring

Nash's. After his great success, he turned to the Riemann  
Hypothesis and physics. He did publish, but rarely and never  
any

thing that rivaled the work he did before age thirty. "Nothi  
ng

was worthy of his notice," said a mathematician who knew him  
at

MIT. "He sat in glorious isolation" There is a kindling.

A

slowfire burning. comJOSEPH BRENNER, psychiatrist, Cambridge  
,  
Massachusetts, 1997

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--561

SOMEONE

WAS CALLING, "It's time to play charades. It's time to play  
charadesdd" I A crowd of costumed guests filled the entire gr  
ound

floor of the Mosers` small frame house in Needham. Outside,  
snow

had been falling for hours. Inside, the atmosphere was thick  
with

smoke, liquor, jazz. Everyone was talking, laughing a little

louder than usual, heads close together, waving cigarettes,  
posing for the camera, still a bit self-conscious but ahead  
y

loosening up in the carnival-like atmosphere. The Mosers wer  
e

dressed as pirate and Indian squaw. Karin Tate, Artin's musi  
cian

daughter, was dressed as a black cat. Her husband, John, the

algebraist, came as the Vector Space Man, wearing a metal ca  
p

with bobbing antennae and arrows all over his chest. Gian-Ca  
rlo

Rota looked as elegant as ever in his monk's tunic, his  
dark-haired wife, Teresa, dashing in her Spanish bolero and  
slim

black pants.

Richy Emery, the Mosers' son, watched through the dining-roo  
m

window as a big dark car pulled into the driveway and a virt  
ually

naked man got out. There was a pounding on the kitchen door  
and

Richy ran

to open it. As Nash came striding into the room, followed  
562

by Alicia, heads turned, eyebrows shot up, and conversation suddenly quieted. Alicia was laughing excitedly and Nash wore a

smirky smile as they surveyed the astonished guests. He was barefoot and entirely naked except for a diaper and a sash, which

was draped across his powerful chest, that had the numerals 1959

written on it. Having stolen the show, Nash grinned and bowed,

waved a baby bottle full of milk at the assembled company, which

was laughing loudly at this point-and then sauntered into the

living room to join in the game of charades.

Jorgen and Gertrude were just dividing the guests into two teams.

Nash was on one team, Richy on the other. When it was Richy's

turn, Nash walked over to him and whispered in his ear the name

of the character that he was supposed to act out. Richy was delighted. He adored Nash, who was much younger and more animated

than most of Jorgen's math friends. Richy's pantomime initially

mystified everyone. Finally a woman, the best player in the room,

read his eleven-year-old

mind:  
The Critique of Pure Reason!

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--563

Richy looked over at Nash, who shrugged his shoulders and gave

him a big grin.

Between that New Year's Eve, December 31, 1958, and the last day

in February, as his fellow mathematicians and friends looked on

in puzzlement, Nash would undergo a strange and horrible metamorphosis. But on New Year's Eve, he was, by all accounts,

simply his flamboyant, eccentric, and slightly off-key self,

playful and mischievous. Alicia was in high spirits as well.

The idea for Nash's costume had been hers. She was the one who sewed

it, draped his sash, and choreographed the entrance a moment  
past  
midnight. There is no hint of unease or premonition in the  
photograph of Nash sprawling somewhat drunkenly, with a laugh-  
ing,  
gleeful Alicia on his lap, her arm on his shoulder. Most of  
the  
evening, though, it was Nash who was curled up in Alicia's l-  
ap.  
Some of the other partygoers found it extremely bizarre, "re-  
ally  
gruesome," "disturbing."  
Nash had already crossed some invisible threshold. The fever-  
ish  
activity and the fierce competition with Cohen and Newman in  
the  
common room, so noticeable in the early fall, had already sl-  
owed.  
He seemed a trifle more withdrawn, a little spacier. A

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--564

graduate student who had just come into Nash's orbit recalle-  
d his  
not being able to keep up with Cohen and Newman. Paul Cohen  
recalled in 1996 that that fall Nash would make little jokes  
,  
little offhand remarks about world affairs, interesting lice-  
nse  
numbers, and the like. They were funny-Nash was always very  
bright and very witty-but they showed that something was not  
all  
right. "I'd think, 'That's going a little too far,' "Cohen s-  
aid.`  
Nash started singling out individuals. One was a senior name-  
d Al-  
Vasquez, who had never taken a course from Nash and was some-  
thing  
of a protégé of Paul Cohen's. "I'd see him in the common r-  
oom.  
He'd say something. It wasn't a conversation. More like a  
monologue. He gave me preprints of his articles and asked me

strange questions about themdd0bled

A564

But none of this was especially alarming or suggested outrage

illness, just another stage in the evolution of Nash's eccentricity. His conversation, as Raoul Bott put it, had "always

mixed mathematics and myth." His conversational style had always

been a bit odd. He never seemed to know when to speak up or shut

up or take part in ordinary give and take. Emma Duchane recalled

in 1997 that

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--565

Nash always, from their earliest acquaintance, which dated back

to Nash and Alicia's courtship, told interminable stories with

mysterious, off-key punch linesdd6

In his game-theory course, Nash behaved like his usual self,

according to students who were in the class. On the first day,

he said to the class, "The question occurs to me: Why are you

here?," a remark that caused one student to drop the course.

Later, he gave a midterm without announcing it in advance. He

also paced a great deal and he sometimes fell into reveries in

the middle of lecturing or answering a student's question. Just

before Thanksgiving, Nash had invited his TA from the game theory

course, Ramesh Gangolli, and Alberto Galmarino, a student from the course whom he was helping to choose a dissertation

topic, to accompany him on a walk. As they walked over the Harvard Bridge on the Charles River late one afternoon, Nash

embarked on a lengthy monologue that was difficult to follow for

the two, who had just come to the United States. It concerned

threats to world peace and calls for world government. Nash seemed to be confiding in the two young men, hinting that he

had been asked to play some extraordinary role. Gangolli recalled

d  
that he

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--566

and Galmarino were quite disturbed and that they wondered briefly if they should inform Martin that something was not quite right.

Awarded as they were by Nash, and new as they were to America command so reluctant to form any judgments as they decided to say nothing.

Also around that time, Atle Selberg, one of the masters of analytic number theory, gave a talk in Cambridge. Nash, who was in the audience, seemed to think that Selberg knew some secret

that he was holding back. Selberg recalled, "He asked some questions I thought were in a sense, to my way of thinking, somewhat inappropriate to the subject. He seemed to see something

quite different than what I had intended.... [His] questions were formulated as if I had some hidden, not fully disclosed, agenda

that he wanted to discover. The lecture was about the rigidity of

several locally symmetric spaces. He asked some questions that

seemed to imply I had a hidden, secret motive. He suspected it

had something to do with the Riemann Hypothesis, which of course

it did not. I was rather taken aback. This was something that had

nothing to do whatsoever [with the Riemann Hypothesis]."

After the New Year's party, people around the department started

talking about Nash. Classes resumed

January 4. A week or ten days later, Nash asked Galmarino  
567

to teach a couple of his classes. He was going away, he said

Galmarino, who was flattered by Nash's confidence in him, readily

agreed. Nash showed up at Rota's apartment on Sacramento Street

on his way out of town. Then he disappeared

Cohen disappeared at around the same time. After a few days, the

scuttlebutt among the graduate students was that Nash and Cohen

had run away together. It happens, Cohen had gone to visit his

sister. He was terribly upset when he returned to hear what the

others had been saying about him and Nash. Nash, meanwhile, had

driven south, ultimately to Roanoke, but perhaps also to Washington, D.C.

A couple of weeks later Nash slouched into the common room. Nobody bothered to stop talking. Nash was holding a copy of The New York Times.

Without addressing anyone in particular, he walked up to Harley

Rogers and some others and pointed to the story on the upper

left-hand corner of the

Times

front page, the off-lede, as

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--568

Times

staffers call it." Nash said that abstract powers from outer

space, or perhaps it was foreign governments, were communicating

with him through

The New York Times.

The messages, which were meant only for him, were encrypted and

required close analysis. Others couldn't decode the messages . He

was

being allowed to share the secrets of the world. Rogers and the

others looked at each other. Was he joking?

Emma Duchane recalled driving with Nash and Alicia. She recalled

that "he kept shifting from station to station. We thought h

e was  
just being pesky. But he thought that they were broadcasting  
messages to him. The things he did were mad, but we didn't r  
eally  
know it.""

Nash gave one of his graduate students an expired license,  
writing the student's nickname --  
St. Louis -- over his own. He called it an "intergalactic  
driver's license." He mentioned that he was a member of a  
committee and that he was putting the student in charge of A  
sia.

The student recalled, "He seemed to be joking around."

14

His manner took on a certain furtiveness.

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--569

Another student, an undergraduate, recalled, "I have this  
impression of him darting about. I'd walk into a stairwell a  
nd

he'd disappear as if he'd been lurking there' 11

Nash showed up at the apartment of John and Karin Tate one  
evening. Everybody was horsing around and finally they settl  
ed

down to play a game of bridge. Nash's partner was Karin Tate  
. His

bidding was bizarre. At one point he bid six hearts when, as  
it

turned out, he held no hearts at all. Karin asked him, "Are  
you

crazy" "Nash responded quite calmly, explaining that he someh  
ow

had expected her to read his bids. "He expected me to

A569

understand. He genuinely thought I could understand. I thought he

was pulling my leg, but it became obvious that he wasn't. I thought he was doing some sort of experiment."

16

Some people continued to think Nash was engaged in some elaborate

private joke. There was a lot of discussion about it.

Nash's recollections of those weeks focus on a feeling of mental

exhaustion and depletion, recurring and increasingly pervasive

images, and a growing sense of revelation regarding a secret

world that

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--570

others around him were not privy to. He began, he recalled in

1996, to notice men in red neckties around the MIT campus. The

men seemed to be signaling to him. "I got the impression that

other people at MIT were wearing red neckties so I would not

ice them. As I became more and more delusional, not only persons at

MIT but people in Boston wearing red neckties [would seem significant to

meldd1117

At some point, Nash concluded that the men in red ties were part

of a definite pattern. "Also [there was some relation to] a crypto-communist party," he said in 1996.

Things started happening fast. Alicia Nash later compared Nash's

disintegration to that of a man who is conversing quite normally

at a dinner party, suddenly starts arguing loudly, and finally

has an all-out temper tantrum."

He told Cohen: "People are talking about me. You've heard them.

Tell me what they're saying," Cohen recalled: "It had a nasty

edge. I told him I didn't know what he was talking about, that I

hadn't heard anything," Cohen recalled.

Nash was still working on the Riemann problem. Once

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--571

Nash accused Cohen of rifling through his trash can. Was he trying to steal Nash's ideas about Riemann? Again, it sounded like a bit of an over-the-top joke, but it upset Cohen sufficiently so that he repeated the incident to a student.<sup>21</sup> In mid-February, Harold Kuhn, who was on a Fulbright in London with Estelle and his children, spent a few days in Paris where he visited a French mathematician, Claude Berge. Berge showed Kuhn a letter from Nash, written in four colors of ink, complaining that his career was being ruined by aliens from outer space.<sup>21</sup> Possibly, the event that triggered Nash's strange letter to Berge was the announcement of the winner of the 1959 Brouwer Prize, Louis Nirenberg, the Courant professor who had suggested the partial differential equation problem to Nash. Paul Cohen later recalled that Nash's reaction was furious. He told Cohen that he deserved the prize and that the fact that an older mathematician had won it was merely a sign that these things were "political."

12  
Nash also approached Neuwirth about his work. "He said he was giving this lecture on the Riemann

Hypothesis sea"Neuwirth recalled. "But when he started

572

talking it was gibberish. Probability is everything!!! I knew

that was crazy. I mentioned it to Newman, who brushed it off

On yet another occasion, Nash wandered into Moser's office, unannounced as always. Moser, always affable, suppressed a feeling of irritation and waved him in. Nash stood at the blackboard. He drew a set that resembled a large, wavy baked

potato. He drew a couple of other smaller shapes to the right.

Then he fixed a long gaze on Moser. "This," he said, pointing to

the potato, "is the universe." Moser nodded. Moser was at that

time engaged in trying to apply Nash's implicit function theorem

to certain problems in celestial mechanics. "This is the government," Nash said, in the same tone that used to say, "This

is an elliptic equation." "This is heaven. And this is hell."

Ted and Lucy Martin had been in Mexico on a winter vacation. When

Martin returned, Levinson took him aside and told him that Nash

was having a nervous breakdown. "Tell me about it," said Martin,

who said later that he "almost didn't believe in these

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--573

things," Martin recalled, "Levinson said, 'He's very paranoid. If

you go down to his office, he won't want you between him and the

door.' Sure enough, when I went down to his office that Sunday

night, Nash edged himself over between me and the door."

Strange letters began turning up in the department mail. Ruth

Goodwin, the department secretary, would put them aside and show

them to Martin. They were addressed to ambassadors of various

countries. And they were from John Nash. Martin panicked. He

tried to retrieve the letters, not all of which were addressed

and most of which weren't stamped, from mailboxes around the

campus.

What was in the letters? None have survived, but various people recalled

hearing from Martin that Nash was forming a world government

There was a committee that consisted of Nash and various students and colleagues in the department. The letters were addressed to

all the embassies in Washington, D.C. The letter said he was forming a world government. He wanted to talk to the ambassadors.

Later he would talk to the heads of state

Martin was in a most awkward position. The faculty, after some

internal dissension, had just voted

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--574

on Nash's promotion, and it was now before the president of the university. He dithered and delayed.

Meanwhile, Adrian Albert, the chairman of the mathematics department at the University of Chicago, called Norman Levinson.

What was Nash's state of mind? he asked Levinson. Chicago had

made an offer of a prestigious chair to Nash, Nash was scheduled

to give a talk, and now he had received a very odd letter from

Nash." It was a refusal of the Chicago offer. Nash had thanked

Albert for his kind offer but said he would have to decline because he was scheduled to become Emperor of Antarctica. The

letter, Browder recalled in 1996, also contained references to

Ted Martin's stealing Nash's ideas. The affair came to the

attention of MIT president Julius Stratton, who, upon

A574

seeing a copy of Nash's letter, is supposed to have said, "T  
his

is a very sick man."

The spring term began February 9. Shortly after Washington's

birthday, Eugenio Calabi, who was a member that year at the  
Institute for Advanced Study in Princeton, gave a seminar at  
MIT.

Undergraduates, even very bright ones,

-----  
--575

didn't normally attend departmental seminars, but Also Vasqu  
ez, a

senior, decided he would go. He put on a sport coat and tie  
for

the occasion. Feeling rather self-conscious, he sat a few ro  
ws

from the rear and hoped that he looked less conspicuous than  
he

felt.

He had noticed, as he sat down, that Nash was sitting in the  
row

behind him. In the middle of Calabi's lecture, Nash started  
speaking rather loudly, although he did not appear to be

addressing Calabi. After a few moments, Vasquez realized tha  
t

Nash was talking to him. "Vasquez, did you know that I'm on  
the

cover of

Life

magazine" "Nash kept repeating until Vasquez turned arounddd1  
9

Nash told Vasquez that his photograph had been disguised to  
make

it look as if it were Pope John the Twenty-third. Vasquez, h  
e

said, also had his picture on a

Life

cover and it too was disguised. How did he know that the

photograph, apparently of the pope, was really of himself? T  
wo

ways, he explained. First because John wasn't the pope's giv  
en

name but a name that he had

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--576

chosen. Second, because twenty-three was Nash's "favorite pr  
ime

number."

Almost the strangest thing, Vasquez later recalled, was that Calabi kept on lecturing as if nothing untoward were happening, and the rest of the audience too ignored the interchange, although it must have been audible to everyone in the room.

Nash and Calabi knew each other from their graduate-school days at Princeton, Before Calabi had come up to Cambridge, Nash had telephoned him at his apartment on Einstein Drive and asked whether the Calabis could put him and Alicia up for a few days. He wanted to spend a few days at the institute consulting with Atle Selberg, the number theorist, and preparing a talk that he was scheduled to give at the upcoming regional math society meeting.

Calabi and the Nashes went out to dinner after Calabi's talk.

Both Nashes seemed unusually nervous, Calabi recalled. "At one point, Nash made a wrong turn and Alicia began yelling hysterically. He was somewhat anxious." The next day, the Nashes left for Princeton

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--577

while Calabi stayed on in Cambridge. A day or two later, Calabi got a call from his wife, Giuliana, who said that Nash was behaving very strangely and would he come home? On one occasion,

Nash had walked into another apartment, used the bathroom,  
A577  
and walked out again. All the apartments on Einstein Drive l  
ooked  
virtually identical from the outside and mistakes were  
commonplace, but even afterward Nash didn't seem to be aware  
that  
he had been in the wrong apartment.  
On the afternoon of February 28, Nash was even more agitated  
.  
Calabi had just returned. "He was acting much more nervous t  
han  
usual. Very agitated. At the moment of leaving, he was mispl  
acing  
notes, running back and forth between the car and the house.  
Alicia was trying to calm him downdd"Calabi watched, full of  
misgivings. Speaking of Nash's mathematical investigation, h  
e  
said, "I knew in that area that problem was not going to yie  
ld to  
a flash of inspirationdd011  
Nash's consultations with Selberg apparently came to naught.  
Selberg had merely been irritated by Nash's persistence, as  
he  
later recalled, and told Nash, in even harsher terms, that t  
he  
probabilistic approach he was pursuing had been

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--578

tried before and had already been demonstrated to be fruitless."  
One can only imagine the fear and confusion that Nash felt t  
hat  
afternoon as he stood before the 250 or so mathematicians wh  
o  
came to his lecture, sponsored by the American Mathematical  
Society, in a Columbia University auditorium."  
Harold N. Shapiro, a professor at the Courant Institute and  
a  
number theorist who had known Nash since the summer they spe  
nt  
together at RAND in 1952, introduced Nash.  
There was in fact an air of tremendous expectation in the ha  
ll.  
Regional AMS meetings were essentially job meetings. The aud  
ience  
consisted both of job seekers and established mathematicians  
,

among them many who knew Nash and his work intimately. "Here  
was  
a great young mathematician with a proven ability for tack-  
ling the most difficult problems about to announce what he f  
elt  
was a likely solution to the deepest problem in all of  
mathematicsea"recalled Shapiro. "I remember hearing that he  
was  
interested in prime numbers. Everybody's reaction was that i  
f  
Nash turns to number theory, number theorists

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--579

better watch out. There was a buzz."

14

Peter Lax, a professor at the Courant Institute, described i  
t as

"a very strange adventure."

Lipman Bers reminded me, as we were listening to Nash's talk  
,  
that Heifetz gave his first concert at Carnegie (accompanied  
by

the pianist Godowski). An older violinist, turning to the  
musician seated next to him, said, "It's very hot in here.0"  
ation

for the pianistea"came the answer. It must have been hot in  
there, but only for the number theorists in the audience. It  
was

work in progress. I couldn't judge it. Mathematicians don't  
usually present unfinished work."

At first, it seemed like just another one of Nash's cryptic,  
disorganized performances, more free association than exposi  
tion.

But halfway through, something happened. Donald Newman recal  
led

in 1996:

One word didn't fit in with the other. I was at Yeshiva.

Rademacher, who had worked on the Riemann Hypothesis, was  
A579

present. In fact, he wrote a brilliant paper on How Not to Solve  
the Riemann Hypothesis. It was

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--580

Nash's first downfall. Everybody knew something was wrong. He  
didn't get stuck. It was his chatter. The math was just lunacy.

What does this have to do with the Riemann Hypothesis? Some  
people didn't catch it. People go to these meetings and sit  
through lectures. Then they go out in the hall, buttonhole other  
people, and try to figure out what they just heard. Nash's talk

wasn't good or bad. It was horrible.

Cathleen Morawetz, who had enjoyed joking around with Nash at  
Courant two years earlier, ran into Nash in the stairwell after  
the talk: "He was laughed out of the auditorium," she recalled.

"I felt terrible. I said something nice to him, but I was  
disturbed. He seemed very depressed. Later Cathleen used the  
phrase "heaping scorn on him" to describe the audience reaction.)

37

Nash had been invited to give a talk at Yale as well on his  
way back to Cambridge. It was his second talk at Yale that year,  
but he couldn't find his way there. He kept calling Felix Browder,  
then teaching at Yale, and telling him that he couldn't  
understand how to get off the Merritt Parkway.

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--581

Nash talked about the Riemann Hypothesis just as he had at  
Columbia. Again, it was a disastrous performance, as recalled by

Browder, who contrasted his  
The Emperor of Antarctica

247

performance with the earlier one. "The preceding year there  
was no hint of trouble. That is when he finished the parabolic  
equations proof [In fact] he completed the proof during a talk. I

[had] asked him if he wanted to come and give another talk at

Yale. It wasn't coherent. I thought something was wrong."

38

Spring 1959

It was like a tornado. You want to hang on to what you have. You

don't want to see everything go. comAL-RCIA NA-SH

DISPITE

ALICIA's apparent elation on New Year's Eve, her state of mind in

the preceding months had been anything but carefree. Since returning from their European holiday, her starry-eyed view of

her new life had given way to a darker, more somber perspective.

She and Nash had moved out to West

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--582

Medford, a small industrial city north of Cambridge, and Alicia

felt cut off and isolated. Her goal of establishing a career

seemed more distant than ever. Her feelings about her pregnancy

were ambivalent, and her initial hopes that it would draw her and

Nash closer were disappointed. Her husband had become, if anything, more cold and distant. As the weather turned colder and

the days shorter, she felt more and more dispirited, anxious, and

alone-so much so that she was thinking of consulting a psychiatrist.`

That had been before Thanksgiving. Since then, Nash's

A582

behavior, rather than her own low mood, had become her chief

source of distress. Several times, Nash had cornered her with odd

questions when they were alone, either at home or driving in the

car. "My don't you tell me about it?" he asked in an angry, agitated tone, apropos of nothing. "Tell me what you knowea" he

demanded. He behaved as if she knew some secret but wouldn't

share it with him. The first time he said it, Alicia thought Nash

suspected her of having an affair. When he repeated it, she wondered whether he might not be having an affair himself. That

would account for his growing secretiveness and air of abstraction. Might he not

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--583

be trying to deflect attention from himself by accusing her?

By New Year's Day, the day she turned twenty-six, Alicia was sure

that "something was wrong." Nash's behavior had become more and

more peculiar. He was irritable and hypersensitive one minute,

eerily withdrawn the next. He complained that he "knew something

was going on" and that he was being "bugged" and he was staying

up nights writing strange letters to the United Nations. One

night, after he had painted black spots all over their bedroom

wall, Alicia made him sleep on the living-room couch

.4

Alarmed, Alicia searched for explanations rooted in their day-to-day life. Her first thought was that Nash was unduly worried about the impending tenure decision. She suspected that

the prospect of a baby, with all the new responsibilities that

implied, was another source of pressure. And she wondered whether

marriage to someone "different" on her wasn't proving too much of a

strain for a southern WASP.

Alicia vainly tried to reassure Nash. She told him, over and over, that his worries about tenure

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--584

were unfounded, that he was the department's fair-haired boy that Martin, after all, was confident that the decision would be favorable. She reasoned with him, pointing out that the letter writing "could undermine his professional credibility" and might even jeopardize his tenure. When that failed, she remonstrated with him. "You can't act silly," she would say. Then Nash did a number of things that frightened her and made inescapable the conclusion that he was suffering some sort of mental breakdown.

He started to threaten to take all of his savings out of the bank and move to Europe

.6

He had some idea, it seemed, of founding an international organization. And he began to stay up, night after night, long

after she had gone to bed, writing. In the morning, his desk would be covered with sheets of paper covered in blue, green

, red, and black ink. They were addressed not just to the U.N. but

to various foreign ambassadors, the pope, even the FBI.

It was in mid-January, while classes were still in session, that

Nash took off for Roanoke in the middle of the night after a wild

scene. Seeing no alternative, Alicia broke her silence and

telephoned Virginia to warn her. She told her mother-in-law  
585

very little, though, as Martha recalled, other than that Nash was

suffering from stress and was behaving somewhat irrationally

When he arrived in Roanoke, Virginia and Martha were frightened

by his agitated state. At one point, he struck Virginia on the

arm

When Nash returned, he continued to badger Alicia in private

Once he threatened to hit her "if you don't tell me"

Alicia was initially more worried about Nash and their future

together than about any physical threats to herself. Her immediate, overwhelming instinct was to prevent the university

from finding out about Nash's difficulties. "I didn't want the

bad things to get out."

She quit her job at Technical Operations and took one at the

Computer Center on campus. She began to watch Nash all the time,

to stick very close to him, to keep him more to herself. She would

stop by the mathematics department every afternoon after work and

pick him up. She no longer invited others to join

them when they ate out. She particularly tried to avoid Paul

Cohen, although Nash's insistence sometimes made this impossible.

"Alicia wanted

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--586

to save his career and preserve his intellect," a friend of Alicia's later recalled. "It was in her interest to keep Nash

intact. She was extremely tough."

Until the Roanoke episode, Alicia had confided in no one. Now she

consulted a psychiatrist from the MIT medical department, a Dr.

Haskell Schell." She also asked Emma to have lunch with her alone

a few times and, although reluctantly and holding much back, told

her friend some of what had been happening.

At the beginning, it seemed to Alicia that her psychiatrist was more intent on asking her questions -- about her upbringing, her marriage, her sex life -- than on offering practical advice on how to cope. "At first Alicia trusted them because it was MITEA" Emma recalled. "But it was a very Freudian time. The psychiatry department was ultra-Freudian. They wanted to treat Alicia. She wanted practical help" Emma continued: They asked Alicia a lot of questions. She got very impatient . Nash was threatening to go off to Europe, to withdraw all their money, to start an international organization. She was looking into the laws. She found

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--587

out that you could have somebody committed for a limited time with the signature of two psychiatrists. To keep them longer , you had to have a court hearing." Emma was working with Jerome Lettvin, a former psychiatrist who was now pursuing research in neurophysiology at MIT. She asked Lettvin what Alicia should do. The result was that Alicia got very conflicting advice. On the one hand, Lettvin was urging her, through Emma, to consider shock treatments. "Lettvin's idea was that when somebody was delusional the sooner he was shocked out of it the better," Emma recalled. On the other hand, Schell was recommending that Nash go to McLean Hospital, an ultra-Freudian

institution that eschewed shock treatments

A587

in favor of psychoanalysis and new antipsychotic drugs like Thorazine. Alicia rejected the notion of shock treatment. "She

was very concerned with preserving his genius." Emma stated

in 1997. "She wasn't going to force anything on him. She also wanted

there to be nothing that would interfere with his brain. No drugs. No shock treatments.

In January, the department voted to give Nash

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--588

tenure. A few weeks later, Martin, now aware that Nash was suffering some sort of "nervous breakdown," decided to relieve

Nash of his teaching duties for the coming semester. Although

distressed that the university had found out about Nash's problems, Alicia was greatly relieved. She hoped that this move

would lift some of the pressures on Nash and that he would improve spontaneously.

Deciding what, if anything, to do was so difficult because Nash

often seemed

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quite normal. The on-again, off-again nature of his symptoms also

convinced some of his colleagues and graduate students in the

department that nothing was seriously wrong. Gian-Carlo Rota

recalled that Nash's personality "didn't seem very different ;`

although "his mathematics no longer made sense." Some days everything looked just as it always had, and Alicia found herself

wondering, until the next outburst of bizarre behavior, whether

she had been exaggerating, unnecessarily alarmed, premature

in her judgments.

In mid-March, two weeks after the disastrous New York trip when

Nash had given his lecture on the Riemann Hypothesis, Nash was

as writing  
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--589

reassuring letters home. "My talk in New York went reasonably well" he wrote Virginia on March 12, urging her to come up to Boston to visit him and Alicia.

16

On the same day, he even wrote a long letter to Martha in which he complained of boredom. Nash wrote, "Since she has become pregnant Alicia does not like to go out. She enjoys TV and movie

magazines. These things tend to bore me. The level is too low" 17

But these periods of lucidity and calm soon gave way to an eruption that Alicia later compared to a "tornado." 11 The episode that convinced Alicia that she had no choice but to seek

treatment for Nash occurred around Easter. Nash took off for Washington, D.C., in his Mercedes. He was, it appeared, trying to

deliver letters to foreign governments by dropping them into the

mail slots of embassies. 19 This time Alicia went with him. Before they left, she telephoned her friend Emma and asked her to

contact the university psychiatrist if they did not return within

a week or so. Emma

recalled in 1997 that Alicia was afraid Nash might harm  
590

her. Curiously, her concern, at least in Emma's recollection  
, was

less for herself than for Nash: "She wanted the world to know  
w

that Nash was mad. She was worried about Nash. She worried that  
hat

if she came to harm that he'd be treated like a common criminal,  
so she wanted to be sure that everyone knew that he was

insanedd010

When Emma did call Schell he refused to come to the telephone  
e and

had a nurse tell her that "Dr. Schell doesn't discuss his patientsdd"  
She added, "I was interviewed at Lincoln Labs about

Alicia. I was asked whether she was afraid of her husband. But  
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she wasn't. He was just very sick." Emma's impressions to the  
he

contrary, Alicia was afraid, though she managed to hide her fear  
fear

from almost everyone. Paul Cohen, however, recalled that "she  
e was

afraid of him." A few weeks later she would tell Gertrude M  
oser,

who questioned her decision to have Nash hospitalized, that,  
in

Gertrude's words, "Something had happened in the middle of the  
he

night and she had to save herself and the child." It was fear  
ar

for her own safety, as well as her psychiatrist's warning that  
at

Nash would continue to deteriorate unless he got treatment,  
that

prompted her to seek commitment, at  
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--591

least for observation. She wished, however, to conceal what  
he

would inevitably regard as an act of treachery. So she turned  
d to

her mother-in-law and asked her to come to Boston.  
252

A BEAUTIFUL MIND

George Whitehead, one of Nash's colleagues, had temporarily  
moved

to Princeton with his wife, Kay. In mid-April, the Whiteheads  
s

drove up to Boston to have their car, which was still registered in Massachusetts, inspected. It was an annual ritual. That evening they went to a party at the home of Oscar Goldman in

Concord. Most of the MIT mathematics department was there. Kay

recalled in 1995: "The word was `Tomorrow, Alicia is having John

committed! Obviously, there was a lot of talk about itddd014

in Bowditch Hall

McLean Hospital, April-May 1959

This is the way day breaks in Bowditch Hall at McLean 'Kakin g in

the Blue,"

Life Studies,

ROBERT LOWELL

V V HEN A STRANGER in a suit knocked

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--592

on Paul Cohen's office door to inquire whether he had seen Dr.

Nash that afternoon, the man's slightly unctuous, selfimportant

manner made Cohen wonder whether this was the psychiatrist who

was going to have Nash "locked up." I For days the younger people

in the department had been speculating- based on hints dropped by

Ambrose and some of the other senior faculty comt Nash's wife was

about to have him committed. Furious controversies had broken out

over whether Nash was truly insane or merely eccentric, and over

whether, insane or not, anyone had the right to rob a genius like

Nash of his freedom. ` Cohen, who felt that he had been somehow

unfairly implicated in the whole affair, had pretty much

A592

steered clear of these debates, but he nonetheless felt a certain

morbid fascination. To the stranger, however, he merely said no,

he hadn't seen Dr. Nash all day.

So when Nash showed up at Cohen's door not very long afterwards,

seemingly oblivious to whatever machinations were under way,

Cohen was more than a little surprised. Nash wanted to know if

Cohen would like to go for a walk with him. Cohen agreed, and the

two wandered around the MIT campus for an hour or more. As they

walked, Nash spoke in a fitful monologue while

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--593

Cohen listened, perplexed and uncomfortable. Occasionally Nash

would stop, point at something, and whisper conspiratorially:

"Look at that dog over there. He's following us." He frightened

Cohen a bit by talking about Alicia in a way that made the younger man feel that she might be in danger. After they parted,

Cohen learned later, Nash was picked up and taken to McLean Hospital.

It was not difficult to get someone into McLean even if they did

not want to go. Nash's involuntary commitment to a mental hospital for observation was likely arranged by MIT's psychiatric

service, probably in consultation with the president of the university as well as Martin and Levinson. Given Nash's

acute paranoia, his bizarre letter writing, his inability to

teach, and the potential that he might carry out his threats to

harm Alicia, the pressure to intervene would have been great.

One imagines that before taking the drastic measure of involuntary

commitment, one of the psychiatrists in MIT's employ attempted to

convince Nash to obtain treatment voluntarily first. Merton J.

Kahne, a professor of psychiatry at MIT who ran McLean's admissions ward during the 1950's, said in 1996:

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They would have tried to figure out how to get him into therapy without coercion. A lot of heads would have been put together to try to find a solution. In those days, there was an attempt to maintain some respect for the human being, whether they were

crazy or not. They weren't interested in peremptorily putting someone in the hospital against their will. The stigma was enormous. The decision was an especially tricky one because of

Nash's prominent position at the university, and because, as is often the case, it was inherently controversial. As Kahne put it,

"The more powerful or exceptional the individual, the more controversial the decision."

The mechanics, however, were fairly straightforward. Any psychiatrist could apply to a mental hospital to have a patient

taken for a ten-day observation period. A university psychiatrist

would have signed a temporary care order, a so-called pink

paper, certifying McLean to take Nash on the grounds that he was

a danger to himself or others (although a simple inability to care

for oneself was sufficient grounds). The pink paper gave MIT the

right to pick Nash up and transport him to McLean. Technically,

it was the hospital that made the decision to hold a patient

initially for a ten-day

period.

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That April evening, some hours after Nash and Cohen parted company, two Cambridge policemen arrived at the Nash's West Medford house. As Nash recalls, "they as if arrested me. . .

The use of police officers was, by all accounts, an extreme

measure; it suggested that the university psychiatrists were

expecting trouble. Most cases of involuntary commitment involving

university personnel were handled far more discreetly, in a manner designed to avoid scandal and humiliation, by

out-of-uniform campus police driving a gray Chevrolet station

wagon, marked only with maroon lettering, whose interior was

equipped as an ambulance. As it happened, Nash refused to go

and a scuffle ensued. "I actually struggled with them in resistance at first," he recalled. Resistance was useless, however. Big and strong as he was, Nash was quickly overpowered

and bundled into the back of the police cruiser. The drive from

West Medford to Belmont took less than half an hour.

One Hundred Fifteen Mill Street, Belmont, Massachusetts, was, and

still is, a verdant 240-acre expanse of rolling lawns and winding

lanes and a scattering of buildings of old

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--596

brick and ironwork nestled among majestic trees or perched airily

on rises as a precise copy, that is to say, of a well-manicured

New England college campus of late-nineteenth-century vintage.

Many of its smaller buildings were designed to resemble the homes

of wealthy Boston Brahmins -- long the bulk of McLean's clientele. A psychiatrist who reviewed the hospital for the American Psychiatric Association in the late 1940's recalled

"There were all these little two-story homes with suites of kitchen, living room, bedroom. They had suites for the cook,

the maid, the chauffeur." Upham House, a former medical resident

recalled, had four corner suites per floor and on one of its floors all four patients turned out to be members of the Harvard Club!

McLean was, as it still is, connected to Harvard Medical School.

So many of the wealthy, intellectual, and famous came there --

Sylvia Plath, Ray Charles, and Robert Lowell among them9-that

many people around Cambridge had come to think of it less as a

mental hospital and more as a kind of sanatorium where high-strung poets, professors, and graduate students wound up for

a

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special kind of RandR.

The resident on duty that evening urged Nash to sign a "voluntary

paper" Nash refused. There was a great movement for world peace,

he said, and he was its leader. He called himself "the prince of

peace." He was informed of his legal rights, including his right

to file a petition for release. A tentative diagnosis was made,

but this was not discussed with him. And a document applying to a

judge for a ten-day commitment was filled out. He was then escorted to the admissions ward in BeInap One, a low brick

building on the north side of McLean's campus, just beyond the

administration building.

Nash used the pay telephone in the lounge. He did not call a

lawyer, but rang Fagi Levinson instead. "John wanted to  
A597

know how he could get out of thereea"she said. "He said he wanted

a shower. 'I stink,` he saiddd"I I

Virginia Nash traveled up from Roanoke to see her son. She was

devastated. She wept and wept, Emma Duchane recalled, saying  
over

and over that she could not "bear to see Johnny in this  
situation."" She seemed close to a breakdown herself She did  
not

offer Alicia any help, financial or

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--598

otherwise. Alicia, who was very short of funds, about to give

birth, and mad with worry, was bitterly disappointed. She had

counted on Virginia for support, but it was obvious that Virginia

needed even more help than she did. Nash was soon transferred to

Bowditch Hall, a low white frame building at the edge of the

McLean campus. Bowditch was a locked facility for men. Within a

couple of weeks, Robert Lowell, the poet, joined him there."

Lowell was already famous, a dozen years older than Nash, and a

manic depressive who was now enduring his fifth hospitalization

in less than ten years. For Lowell, it was "a mad month"spent

"rewriting everything in my three books," translating Heine  
and

Baudelaire, reworking Milton's "Lycidasea"wh he believed he  
had

himself written, feeling "I had hit the skies, that all cohered."  
14

"Thrown together like a bundle of kindling, [unable] to  
escapeea"z Lowell's widow, Elizabeth Hardwick, later put  
itea"Lowell and Nash spent a good deal of time together. When

Arthur Mattuck came to visit Nash, he found fifteen or twenty

people crowded in Nash's narrow shoebox of a bedroom.

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--599

16 In what turned out to be an oft-repeated scene, Lowell was sitting on Nash's bed, surrounded by patients and staff sitting at his feet on the floor or standing against the walls, delivering what amounted to a long monologue in his unmistakable voice com"weary, nasal, hesitant, whining, mumbling." Nash was hunched over beside him. Mattuck recalled in 1997: "I don't remember anything of the conversation except that it was general. In other words, only one person spoke at a time and that was most of the time Lowell. Basically he was holding forth on one topic after another, and the rest of us were appreciating this brilliant man. Nash said very little, like the rest of us."

Once a women's residence where no man had "apparently entered since perhaps 1860" Bowditch was, in Lowell's words, now designated for "ex-paranoid boys"

17 comthe ones who thought there was nothing wrong with them and couldn't be trusted not to bolt. As such, it was oddly genteel. At Bowditch, Nash and his fellow inmates were treated "to a maze of tender fussy attentions suitable to old ladies." "The crew-cut

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--600

Roman Catholic nurses, many of them Boston University students, brought him chocolate milk at bedtime, inquired about his interests, hobbies, and friends, and called him Professor."

"Hearty New England breakfast[so]" were followed by ample lunches

and homey dinners; everybody got fat. Nash had a private  
A600  
room "with a door that shutea" a "hooded night lightea" and a view.  
There were no screams, no violent episodes, no straitjackets  
. His  
fellow patients, "thoroughbred mental casesea" were polite, full  
of concern, eager to make his acquaintance, lend him their books,  
and clue him in to "the routine" They were young Harvard  
"Cockggs] of the walk" slowed down by massive injections of  
Thorazine, yet "so much more intelligent and interesting than the  
doctorsea" z Nash confided to Emma Duchane when she came to  
visit." There were also old Harvard types "dripping crumbs  
in  
front of the TV screen, idly pushing the buttons.0gg Nearly half  
of McLean's patients were geriatric, like Lowell's  
"Bobbiest Porcellian `29ea" who strutted around Bowditch late  
at  
night "in his birthday suit.") I I

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--601

Yet, there Nash was, stripped to his underwear, his belt and  
shoes taken away, standing before a shaving mirror that was  
not  
glass, but metal. As for his view the next morning, in Lowell's  
l's  
words, "Azure day/makes my agonized blue window bleakerdd" The  
e  
days must have seemed very long: "[H]ours and hours go bydd"  
Above  
all, there was the terrible awareness when visitors came that  
t  
they were free to go back through the locked doors through which  
hich  
they had come while he could not. It was in no way horrible;  
he  
was merely, as another inmate of a mental hospital once put  
it,  
"considered beyond reasoning with ... and treated like a child;  
not brutally, but efficiently, firmly, patronizingly.0" He had  
d  
merely relinquished his rights as an adult human being. Like  
Lowell, he must have asked himself, "What good is my sense of  
f

humor?"

Alicia urged everyone they knew to visit Nashdd"Fagi Levinson

organized a visitor's schedule

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The feeling was that with the support of friends, Nash would soon

be on his feet again. "Everyone at MIT felt responsible for trying to make Nash better"recalled Fagi in 1996. "At

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--602

McLean, all felt the more companionship and support he had, the

quicker he would recover." One afternoon, Also Vasquez ran into

Paul Cohen, who was extremely upset. He had been out to McLean to

visit Nash. And he'd been turned away. What had happened, he told

Vasquez, was that McLean had some sort of list of verboten visitors. "He was on the list ` "Vasquez recalled. "And I was on

it too. I was really shockedddd011 Vasquez -- along with most of

the students in the department -- hadn't even known that Nash was

in the hospital.

It was a list of some sort of committee. I remember Cohen being

very upset. That was the first time I was aware that Nash had

been hospitalized. I have a memory of about twenty people [on the

list], almost all of whom were in the math department. Cohen must

have told me some of the names. It was the hospital that wouldn't

let people on the list see Nash. I called it "The Committee to

Rule the World.`

At first, Nash, who found it strange shuffling around without his

shoes, was furious. "My wife, my own wife. . . "he said to

Adriano Garsia, one of the first to visit. He threatened  
A602

to sue Alicia for divorce, to "take away her power." 16  
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Jargen and Gertrude Moser recall a similar conversation. "He  
was  
very resentfulea"Moser remembered, "[but] otherwise not very

different. Gertrude was initially very sympathetic and somew  
hat

outraged at the way Nash was being treated. `He doesn't seem

crazy; she saiddd017 Emma Duchane, who also visited Nash in  
Bowditch, recalled that Nash was nicer to her than he had ev  
er

been. "He was saying such reasonable thingsea"she said."` Wh  
en

Gian-Carlo Rota and George Mackey, a Harvard professor, came

,  
Nash joked about the oddness of locked doors, remarked how  
strange it was to be held there, and told them, in the most  
rational tone, that he was aware that he had been having  
delusionsdd19 When Donald Newman came to visit him, Nash ask  
ed

him half-jokingly, "What if they don't let me out until I'm  
NORMAL"010 To Felix Browder, Nash complained that staying in  
the

hospital was too expensive (the daily rate that spring was  
thirty-eight dollars)."

Some of his visitors wondered what he was doing there. Donal  
d

Newman was the most vehement that Nash was sane. "There's no

discontinuityff"he kept repeatingdd12 Garsia recalled in 199  
5: "1

was  
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--604

totally appalled by the fact that his wife had done this. I  
couldn't believe my idol was under the thumb of some stupid  
nurse

who had total power over him."

33

The medication -- initially, an injection of Thorazine  
immediately upon admission comcalmed Nash down, made him dro  
wsy

and slow of speech comb did nothing to dispel "the deep  
underlying unrealitydd014 Nash told John McCarthy, who also  
came

out, despite his horror of hospitals and illness, "These ide

as  
keep coming into my head and I can't prevent  
it

He told Arthur Mattuck that he believed that there was a conspiracy among military leaders to take over the world, that he was in charge of the takeover. Mattuck recalled, "He was very hostile. When I arrived, he said, 'Have you come to spring me?' He told me with a guilty smile on his face that he secretly felt that he was the left foot of God and that God was walking on the earth. He was obsessed with secret numbers. 'Do you know the secret number?' he asked. He wanted to know if I was one of the initiated."

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--605  
36

For the first two or three weeks-during which time McLean had applied to a judge for an extension of the observation period for another forty days, Nash was watched, studied, and analyzed." A biography was written. A young psychiatrist was assigned to construct Nash's life story, a complete catalog of his personality covering no fewer than 205 separate topics. All that led up to this disaster was included: family, childhood, education, work, past illnesses, and so forth. When it was done,

the history was presented to a case conference attended by  
A605

McLean's senior psychiatrists, and a more definitive diagnosis

was arrived at.

From the start, there was a consensus among the psychiatrists

that Nash was obviously psychotic when he came to McLean and the

diagnosis of paranoid schizophrenia was arrived at very quickly.

"If he was talking about cabalsea" said Kahne, "it would have been

almost inevitable" Reports of Nash's earlier eccentricity

would have made such a conclusion even more likely. There was

some discussion, of course, about the aptness of the diagnosis.

Nash's age, his accomplishments, his genius would have made the

doctors question whether he might not be suffering from

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--606

Lowell's disease, manic depression. "One always fudged it. One

couldn't be sure," said Joseph Brenner, who became junior administrator on the admissions ward shortly after Nash's hospitalization.

41

But the bizarre and elaborate character of Nash's beliefs, which

were simultaneously grandiose and persecutory, his tense, suspicious, guarded behavior, the relative coherence of his speech, the blankness of his facial expressions, and the extreme

detachment of his voice, the reserve which bordered at times on

muteness all pointed toward schizophrenia.

Everyone was talking about which events the psychiatrists believed had pro-

duced Nash's breakdown. Fagi recalled that Alicia's pregnancy was

thought to be the culprit: "It was the height of the Freudian

period when all these things were explained by fetus envy" 041

Cohen said: "His psychoanalysts theorized that his illness was

brought on by latent homosexuality" 041 These rumored opinions

may well have been held by Nash's doctors. Freud's  
now-discredited theory linking schizophrenia to repressed

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--607

homosexuality had such currency at McLean that for many years any

male with a diagnosis of schizophrenia who arrived at the hospital in an agitated state was said to be suffering from "homosexual panic"dd041

Nash wasn't privy to any of this. His psychiatrist wouldn't have

told him, even if Nash had pressed. But it would have been easy

enough for Nash to figure out by going to McLean's library or

talking with his fellow inmates about what his doctors were thinking.

Everyone was very upbeat. The optimism was part of that "heavily

psychoanalytic" era at McLean. Lowell's doctors were telling his

wife, Elizabeth Hardwick, that the most serious illnesses, psychotic illnesses, the kind that produced the chronic cases

like Lowell's Bobbie, were now susceptible to "permanent cures"dd044

Alfred H. Stanton had been charged by McLean's trustees in 1954

to modernize McLeandd45 Before Stanton arrived in the early 1950's, as Kahne recalled, "The nurses were spending all their

time classifying fur coats and writing thank you letters"dd"Moreover, patients spent

most of the day lying in bed as if they were suffering from  
608  
some physical ailment. Stanton hired a large number of nurse  
s and  
psychiatrists, expanded the medical residency program, insti  
tuted  
an intensive psychotherapy program, and organized social,  
educational, and work activities.  
McLean's treatment philosophy boiled down to the notion that  
"it  
was impossible to be social and crazy at the same time"dd046  
The  
staff was dedicated to encouraging all new patients, no matt  
er  
what the diagnosis, to relate. Along with this  
11 milieu"therapy, as it was called, intensive, five-day-a-w  
eek  
psychoanalysis was the main mode of treatmentdd47 Nobody tho  
ught  
of Thorazine as anything but an initial aid in preparing the  
way  
for psychotherapy. "Stanton's attitudes harked back to early  
days  
of `moral treatment` of patients'"said Kahne, "which include  
d  
having expectations of them and having staff become close to  
patients. The idea was to involve patients in decision-makin  
g and  
to abolish some of the hierarchy of medical institutions."  
Stanton was a student of Harry Stack Sullivan, a leading Ame  
rican  
disciple of

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--609

Freud, and had helped run Chestnut Lodge, a private hospital  
outside Washington, D.C., where psychoanalysis was being use  
d to  
treat psychotic disorders. He also put an end to the use of  
lobotomies and shock therapies at McLean. "Freudianism was p  
retty  
strong at McLeanea"said Brenner. "It was the dawn of  
psychopharmacology. We were desperately creating cures in al  
l  
good faith  
dis041  
"Our knowledge of schizophrenia was negligibleea"Fagi rememb  
ered  
sadly. "I was a dope. All he needed was a good shrink and s  
upport and everything would be over soon. Everyone at MIT

pretended that Nash was going to recover in a flash. At McLean  
an  
they would cure him with advanced therapy. Norbert was the only  
one who sensed the tragedy. He expressed his heartfelt sympathy.

"It's very difficult," he said to Virginia. She was tearful,  
shaken, trying to keep herself in check. She wanted to know  
as  
much as possible. Wiener's eyes filled up with tears. Isadore  
Singer and Alicia came to visit Nash one evening. There  
was no one  
else in

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--610

the large, rectangular common room. Singer recalled the scene:

We were the only visitors. Robert Lowell, the poet, walked in,  
manic as hell. He sees this very pregnant woman. He looks at  
her

and starts quoting the begat sequences in the Bible. Then he  
started spinning quotes with the word anointed. He decided to

lecture us on the meaning of anointed in all the ways it was  
used

in the King James version of the Bible. In the end I decided  
that

every word in the English language was a personal friend of  
his.

Nash was very quiet and almost not moving. He wasn't even  
listening. He was totally withdrawn. Mrs. Nash was sitting there,  
pregnant as hell. I focused mostly on the wife and the coming

child. I've had that picture in my mind for years. "It's all  
over

for him." I thought."

Perhaps it was the Thorazine, perhaps the confinement,

A610

perhaps the overwhelming desire to regain his liberty, but Nash's

acute psychosis disappeared within a matter of weeks." On the

ward, he behaved like a model patient- quietly, politely, tolerantly comand was soon granted all sorts of privileges, including the freedom to walk around McLean's grounds without

supervisiondd"In his therapy sessions,

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--611

be stopped talking about going to Europe to form a world government and no longer referred to himself as the leader of the

peace movement. He made no threats of any kind, except divorce.

He readily agreed, if asked, that he had written a great many

crazy letters, had made a nuisance of himself to the university

authorities, had otherwise behaved in bizarre ways. He denied

emphatically that he was experiencing any hallucinations. The two

young residents who were assigned to him -- Egbert Mueller, a

highly regarded German psychoanalyst, and Jacqueline Gauthier, a

more junior French-Canadian -- noted that his symptoms had all

but "disappeared"alth privately they agreed that he was likely

merely concealing them."

This was so. In his heart, Nash felt that he was a political

prisoner and he was determined to escape his jailers as quickly

as possible, With the help of other patients, he quickly figured

out the rules of the game. If a patient wished to leave, the law

placed the burden of proof on the hospital. Nash's psychiatrists

would have had to show convincingly that he was likely to harm

himself or someone else. In practice, a patient who was hallucinating or was

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--612

obviously delusional wouldn't stand much chance of getting out. (Later, he would take the position, with respect to his younger son, that it was quite

possible for a so-called schizophrenic to control both his delusions and his behavior.)

14

He hired a lawyer, Bernard E. Bradley, to petition for his releasedd"Bradley worked in the public defender's office at the time, but Nash, who was hardly destitute, was likely his private

client. At Nash's suggestion, Bradley hired A. Warren Stearns, a

prominent Boston psychiatrist, to examine him and to support his

petition for release. Stearns was a prominent researcher as well

as a major figure in state mental health and prison polieydd 16 He

had, at various points in his long career, been dean of Tufts

medical school, director of prisons for the state of Massachusetts, and associate mental health commissioner. At the

time Nash had Bradley contact him, he was founder and head of

Tufts's sociology department. His views on crime anticipated

those of James Q. Wilson: He held that most crimes were committed

by a small slice of the population, namely, young men

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--613

between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three. His book on the

subject,

The Personality of Criminals, was

considered a classic. Stearns had been involved in all sorts of

famous criminal cases, including that of Sacco and  
A613

Vanzetti.

Stearns went to visit Nash twice, once on May 14 when he was  
able

to see Nash for only a few minutes and a second time, a few  
days

later, when the two men talked for some time. Nash neither s  
poke

of any delusions nor admitted to hallucinations. "I couldn't  
say

he's psychotic`"Stearns wrote to Bradley. "He was straightfo  
rward

and frank and of course is anxious to get out.0"Around May 2  
0,

ten days before the second, forty-day, phase of Nash's commi  
tment

was due to expire, Stearns went back a third time to study t  
he

commitment papers and the record of Nash's hospital stay.

18

He talked with Mueller and Gauthier, who-in spite of their  
conviction that Nash was merely concealing his delusions  
comadmitted that they "doubted Nash was committable"any long  
er."`

I still do not know what is the matter with him` "Stearns, w  
ho

was being paid one

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--614

hundred dollars for rendering his opinion, wrote to Bradley  
on

May 20

.60

He added, however, I certainly recommend his discharge

.1161

Mueller and Gauthier nonetheless recommended that Nash remai  
n in

the hospital. At that point, Alicia told them she was unwill  
ing

to sign another petition for commitment although she agreed  
to

make arrangements for her husband to be treated by a psychia  
trist

after his release from McLean

.62

Accordingly, on May 28, after fifty days of incarceration, j  
ust

over one week after the birth of his son, Nash was once agai  
n a

free man. May-June 1959

AFTER

NASH WAS COMMITTED,

Alicia couldn't face staying at the West Medford house by herself, and in any case, the lease was due to expire May 1.

Alicia telephoned Emma and asked whether they might live together. "One day Alicia just called me up and said she wanted to share an apartment with me," Emma recalled. At first

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--615

Emma was reluctant because she was afraid Alicia would insist on

their finding an expensive place, but then it occurred to her

that they might rent a house owned by their mutual friend Margaret Hughes. So, on May 1, Alicia and Emma moved into a tiny

saltbox at 181/2 Tremont Street, in Cambridge, halfway between

MIT and Harvard. Alicia indulged in no tears, hysteria, or unnecessary confidences. She accepted what help she could get.

She had very little faith that anyone would come to her aid.

She

was well aware that everyone, including close friends like Arthur

Mattuck, considered Nash her responsibility. She defended herself

against criticism of her decision to commit Nash, but only when

pressed, as, for example, by Gertrude Moser, who, after visiting

Nash at McLean, began to doubt that he was insane and demanded

that Alicia justify her decision to have Nash locked up. For a

young woman whose husband was in a lunatic asylum,

A615

threatening to hurt her, to divorce her, and to take their money

and run off to Europe, she maintained a remarkable calm, The

apparently flighty young woman who had, in the throes of lovesickness, sat in the science fiction section of the library,

hoping her idol would come in, had

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--616

reserves of strength that she would need to draw on the rest of

her life.

Another young woman might have thrown up her hands and gone home

to her parents. But Alicia told herself that John's mind and

career could be saved. She focused on the crisis at hand as best

she could and put herself in the capable hands of Emma and Fagi

Levinson. Her ability to focus on her own agenda, her iron self-control, sense of entitlement, deep conviction that her own

future depended on this man's command perhaps also the combined

energy, optimism, and ignorance of youth's small came to her aid

in this very dark hour. All her attention was focused on a single

task: the task of giving birth, but that of saving John Nash.

"She never talked about the baby, only about Nashea" Emma recalled. "She

regarded the pregnancy as a problem. Just a danger to Nash. She

was worried that it would interfere with her ability to take care

of [him]."

There was no waiting nursery, no layette, no dog-eared copy of

Dr. Spock's new best-selling baby manual sitting on the night

table. Alicia had no time or attention for such things. She wished for the pregnancy to end, but she had

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--617

not looked beyond it. She had vaguely assumed that her mother

would come and help her, but hadn't bothered to make the arrangements. Nor had she asked Virginia to come again. She barely paid any attention at all, in fact. Even after the baby kept her awake nights with its vigorous kicks, she never talked about it.

Emma recalled, "The observation period [with Nash at McLean] was coming to an end. The psychiatrists were telling Alicia that the crisis was precipitated by her pregnancy. She asked her doctor to induce her labor. He wouldn't."

On May 20, when Alicia's labor began, Nash was still in McLean and she was still living with Emma at 181/2 Tremont Street. The pains began in her lower back. Eventually she crawled into bed.

Emma was there. The two of them couldn't decide whether the labor had started. Later when her sister was about to give birth, Emma would buy an obstetrics textbook and discover that back labor was in fact quite common. But at that moment, the two MIT women were in the dark about such things. Finally, when the pains became more insistent and closer together, either she or Alicia telephoned Fagi, who confirmed that, yes, indeed, it sounded like labor and said she would jump into her car

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--618

right away and drive over. She did and, after taking one look at Alicia, who was by now looking quite scared, told her to get into the car and they'd drive to the hospital immediately.

Alicia gave birth to a baby boy that night. He weighed  
A618  
nearly nine pounds and was 21.5 inches long. She did not give the  
baby a name. She felt that the naming would have to wait until  
his father was well enough to help choose one. As it happened,  
the baby remained nameless for nearly a year.  
Alicia had still to bear Nash's anger. The day after the birth,  
Nash came to the Boston Lying-In Hospital to visit his wife and  
new son, having gotten permission to leave McLean for the evening.  
Although Fagi Levinson does not remember doing so, one  
imagines that it was she who arranged this. Another friend came  
to see Alicia halfway through Nash's visit. Alicia was lying in  
bed, looking tiny and wan. Nash was sitting beside her. Her dinner  
tray was on the table next to the bed. At some point, Nash  
carefully took the napkin, stood up, and went over to a sign on  
the wall with the name of the hospital on it and covered up the  
"In" in the hospital's name so that it read "Boston Lying Hospital."  
The visitor recalled, "The

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--619  
implication was that it was Alicia who was lying. She observed  
what he was doing. I made no comment. I certainly didn't want the  
situation to escalate into speech." I  
Nash's sense of humor had in no way deserted him. On the afternoon  
of his release one week later, Nash went directly to the  
mathematics common room. He strolled in, greeted everyone,  
and said he'd come straight from McLean. "It was a wonderful  
place," he told the graduate students and professors who were  
sipping tea. "They had everything but one: freedom!"  
A day or two later, Nash was back in the department. He carefully  
posted hand-printed notices in the hallways announcing a "coming  
out party." The notices read: "All the people who are import

ant  
in my life are invited! YOU KNOW WHO YOU ARE!" Over the following  
week, he went around to everyone's office and asked each member  
of the department if he were coming. If the person said "Yes"  
he asked them  
"Why?"  
He referred to the party as a "Mad Hatter's Tea" and he asked  
people to dress up in costumes. Whether the event was his idea  
or Alicia's isn't

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--620

clear. Fagi Levinson, Norman's wife, thought that Alicia, who  
was home with a week-old baby had organized it for the purpose of  
thanking all of those who had visited Nash in McLeandd6 One  
graduate student, who said he went to New York that weekend  
to  
avoid it, remembered that it was held at Mattuck's apartment  
.  
Mattuck doesn't remember it at all. Very likely, it took place at  
181h Tremont Street. Fagi remembered it as a "big party." The  
e  
Nashes held at least one dinner party too. The mystified guest  
st  
was Al Vasquez, who was about to graduate on June 12, and he  
remembers it as a sad and depressing event.

In 1997,  
he recalled:  
It was one of the most bizarre evenings I've ever spent. I went  
there and there was Alicia, the baby, and Alicia's mother. John  
ohn  
was behaving very oddly. Whenever John got up, Alicia's mother  
er

would get up and place herself between him and the baby.

A620

It was a pretty strange dance. It lasted a couple of hours. Alicia had no idea who I was. Everybody tried to act like everything was normal. The weirdness of this was overwhelming.

Nash couldn't sit

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--621

still. He'd bolt up and as soon as he did, Alicia's mother would

jump up and fuss over this and that. But she wouldn't let him get

anywhere near the

baby

Nash was determined to leave for Europe as soon as possible.

He

wrote to Hbrmander on June 1 asking whether Hbrmander would be in

Stockholm during the summer. He was thinking of traveling to

Sweden that summer, he wrote, and was looking for "(nominal)

mathematical associations" to justify the trip. And he wrote to

Armand and Gaby Borel, who were in Switzerland at the time, to

ask that they help him obtain Swiss citizenship

Nash was also determined to resign his MIT professorship. Furious

that MIT had connived in his involuntary hospitalization, Nash

"dramatically" - he later put it - submitted a letter of resignation and simultaneously demanded that MIT release a small

pension fund that had accumulated from the time he joined the

full-time faculty." Levinson was aghast. With Martin and others,

he tried to persuade Nash that what he wished to do was mad.

He

told Nash that MIT would not accept his resignation. Levinson

acted in the

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--622

most altruistic fashion. He was well aware of the heavy expenses

of medical treatment, and he was anxious for Nash to retain the

insurance coverage that MIT provided its faculty members. "N

orman  
tried to convince him not to do itea"Fagi said. "He felt  
responsible for him." " Martin recalled, "It was a very diffi  
cult  
period. By the time he resigned, he couldn't meet his classe  
s and  
people felt that he had no hope of any recovery. We were on  
the  
spot. I couldn't even talk to him. There was no having a coh  
erent  
conversation with him. Levinson always backed Nash to the hi  
lt.  
There was no pressure on me either [from the administration  
to  
accept Nash's resignation]dd011 But Nash was intransigent. A  
t  
Levinson's urging, the university administration tried to pr  
event  
Nash from withdrawing his pension money, but here too Nash  
prevailed. On June 23, James Faulkner, a physician affiliate  
d  
with MIT, telephoned Warren Stearns on behalf of MIT's presi  
dent,  
James Killian, to say that the universiby  
was extremely concerned about Nash's future. 14Ac to Paul  
Samuelson, Stearns once again took the position that Nash wa  
s not  
insane and was

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--623

fully competent, in a legal sense, to make such decisions."  
The  
amount was negligible, but once the check was issued, Nash's  
last  
formal tie to MIT was cut.  
Shortly after his resignation, he ran into one of his former  
  
students from the game-theory course, Henry Wan, telling him  
that  
he was now engaged in a study of linguistics. When Wan expre  
ssed  
surprise, Nash said that mathematicians had a unique ability  
to

"abstract the essence of a field. That is why we can move  
A623

from one area to another."

16

Nash said that he was sailing on the  
Queen Mary

in early July. Alicia tried to dissuade him, but when it became

clear to her that he would go, she made up her mind to accompany

him and to leave their son behind in her mother's care.

Nash had an invitation to spend the year in Paris at the College

de France, the leading French center of mathematics. Alicia hoped

that a few months abroad, away from the pressures of Cambridge

and among new faces, would let Nash forget his dreams of world

peace, world government, and world citizenship; he might settle

down to work again.

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--624

To Nash, however, the journey seemed to promise a more permanent

escape from his old life. He talked as if they were never to

return. They drove down to New York and said their good-byes to

Alicia's cousins. The occasion was uneventful except that Nash

had refused to eat facing the huge mirror opposite the dining

table<sup>17</sup>; They left their Mercedes, its trunk full of old  
266

A BEAUTIFUL MIND

issues of

The New York Times,

in the Institute parking lot in Princeton. Nash wished to bequeath both car and newspapers to Hassler Whitney, the

mathematician whom he most admired. 18 They left their baby com-

mon yet named and therefore referred to as Baby Epsilon, a little

mathematical joke-behind as well, Alicia's mother had already

taken the infant home with her to Washington.", Mrs. Larde, they

had agreed, would join them in Paris with the baby as soon as  
s

they were settled.

PART FOUR

The

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--625

Lost Years

Paris and Geneva, 1959-60

I have a difficult task ahead of me and I have dedicated my whole  
life to it.

- K, in

The Castle,

by

FRAN-Z KAFKA

I seem as in a trance sublime and strange To muse on my own  
separate fantasy.

-

PER-CY

ByssHE

SHELLEY,

'Mont Blanc"

SHORTLY

AFTER

Independence Day, Nash and Alicia left from New York harbor  
on

the

A625

Queen Mary,

standing by the rail with the rest of the throng. They watched

the pier, then the skyline, then the Statue of Liberty move away

from them as they sailed slowly toward the open sea. They looked

very much as they had a year earlier when they'd embarked on

their honeymoon

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--626

voyage come tall, well dressed, and handsome, she slender, small, and delicate comb less animated, more subdued. They were

both lost in their own thoughts.

The Nashes reached London on July 18 after a "restful" crossing.

Two days later they were in Paris. The beauty of Paris overwhelmed them just as it had a year earlier, "verdure everywhere ... with the giant blue Paris pigeons bolting above

it, two by two." For a few hours after they emerged from the

Gare Saint-Lazare and made their way to a modest Left Bank hotel

incongruously named the Grand Hotel de Mont Blanc, the leaden

weight of the miserable months in Cambridge seemed to lift from

their shoulders and they felt, briefly, as light as air again.

They set out, that afternoon, for the American Express Office to

buy francs and to inquire if they had any mail. As always during

the summer, the Place de l'Opera was crowded with American tourists. To their delight, they immediately spotted the familiar

face of John Moore, a mathematician Nash knew from MIT, who would

soon become co-chairman of the mathematics department at Princeton. Moore was sitting outside the Cafe de la Paix, reading, when he

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--627

looked up and saw the Nashes. "I was surprised, but not surprised," Moore recalled in 1995. "A lot of mathematicians come

to Paris. We talked about Edinburgh. I noticed nothing unusualdd0bled  
What their real plans were at the time, Alicia was later unable  
to say. She had followed Nash to Europe, not because she hoped  
that Paris would provide a cure for his troubles, but because she  
had no way of stopping him, and, that being the case, she had not  
been able to bear seeing him go off to a strange land, alone  
'  
without someone to watch over him. But, in those first few days  
in Paris, the Nashes behaved as if this would be their new home  
for some time, Alicia enrolled in a French-language course at the  
Sorbonne and looked around for more permanent lodgings. Her  
twenty-year-old cousin Odette, who was planning to spend the  
year  
at the University of Grenoble, happened to be in Paris, too.  
The  
two young women went house hunting together until they found  
a  
pretty, clean, and spacious flat for the Nashes at 49 Avenue  
de  
la R6publique, in a nondescript but perfectly respectable  
blue-collar neighborhood on the Right Bankdd6 Paris, indeed  
all  
of Europe, was sizzling hot

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--628

that July. The newspapers were full of heat-wave stories,  
including one about a parked car that had burst into flames,  
a  
seemingly genuine case of spontaneous combustion. The rear  
windshield had apparently acted like a magnifying glass and  
some

papers left on the rear dashboard had ignited.` The mood

A628

of Paris, always a magnet for alienated and disaffected Americans and full of self-declared exiles of the Silent Generation, was as hot as well. The war in Algeria raged on, with its right-wing terrorist bombings, its civilian massacres, its tortures. The city reverberated with mass demonstrations, strikes, and explosions. And the latest word on the nuclear arms race came with the American announcement that it now could match Russia's ICBMs, missile for missile left open the question of whether the world wasn't in for another, more deadly case of spontaneous combustion. If the heat and high political theater influenced Nash's mood, they induced not torpor, but a heightened sense of purpose. Acting on "special" knowledge, Nash was animated by a desire to cut himself off from all vestiges of his former social self. In the rightness of this he believed with absolute certainty, resisting any and all attempts

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--629

by Alicia to persuade him to give up his "silly" notions. Having resigned his professorship, having left not only Cambridge but the United States, and having given up mathematics for politics, he wished, quite simply, to shed the layers of his old identity like so many outworn articles of clothing. Ideas of world government, and the related concept of world citizenship, were at their heyday during Nash's Princeton graduate-school days and permeated the 1950's science fiction that Nash devoured as a student and afterward, Founded after the collapse of the League of Nations in the 1930's, the one-world movement exploded into the national consciousness within a few years of the end of World War II. Princeton was a center of that

movement, largely because of the presence of physicists and mathematicians comnotably Albert Einstein and John von Neumann who acted as midwives to the nuclear age. One of Nash's contemporaries in graduate school, John Kemeny—a brilliant young logician, the assistant to Einstein, and later the president of Dartmouth College -- was a leader of the World Federalists. However, the one-worlder who fired Nash's imagination was

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--630

a loner like himself, the Abbie Hoffman of the one-world movement. In 1948, Garry Davis, a leather-jacketed World War II bomber pilot, Broadway actor, and son of society band leader

Meyer Davis, had walked into the American embassy in Paris, turned in his U.S. passport, and renounced his American citizenship. He then tried to get the United Nations to declare

him "the first citizen of the world." Davis, "sick and tired of war and rumors of war" wished to start a world government.

The paper headlined the story, "the columnist Art Buchwald recalled

in his Paris memoirs: "Albert Einstein, eighteen members of the

British Parliament, and a slew of French intellectuals, including

Jean-Paul Sartre and Albert Camus, had come out in support of

Davis."

Nash intended to follow in Davis's footsteps. In the overwrought,

hyperpatriotic atmosphere of the America he was leaving behind,

Nash was choosing the "path of most resistance" and one that

captured his radical sense of alienation. Such "extreme  
A630

contrariness" aimed at cultural norms has long been a hallmark of  
a developing schizophrenic consciousness.

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--631

14

In ancestor-worshiping Japan the target may be the family, in

Catholic Spain the Church. Motivated as much by antagonism to his

former existence as by an urge for self-expression, Nash particularly desired to supersede the old laws that had governed

his existence, and, quite literally, to substitute his own laws,

and to escape, once and for all, from the jurisdiction under

which he had once lived.

While the motivation may have been highly abstract, the plan

itself was strangely concrete. To effect his makeover, he wished

to trade his American passport for some more universal identity

card, one that declared him to be a citizen of the world.

On July 29, a little over a week after his arrival in Paris, Nash

went by train to Luxembourg. He chose Luxembourg as the site

for the renunciation of his American citizenship for prudent

reasons, possibly at the advice of the Paris-based World Citizen

Registry, an organization founded by Davis. The smaller and more

obscure the country, the less likely that turning in his American

passport would result in immediate arrest and deportation. France

was a

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--632

notoriously bad site for protests of this sort. When Nash arrived

at the Central Station in the city of Luxembourg, he walked to

the American embassy at 22 Boulevard Emmanuel Servais, demanded

to see the ambassador, and announced that he no longer wished

d to  
be an American citizen.  
Section 1481 of the 1941 Immigration Act contains a clause that  
permits American citizens to give up their citizenship.

16

It was intended, of course, to allow citizens to resolve cases of  
dual citizenship. By 1959, some dozens of Americans, also  
inspired by Garry Davis, were making use of the provision for

protest pur-

posesd "The law is quite clear. It delineates an oath, which  
must

be taken in a foreign country, right hand raised, in the presence

of an American diplomat: "I desire to make a formal renunciation

of my American nationality ... and pursuant thereto I hereby

absolutely and entirely renounce my nationality in the United  
d

States and all rights and privileges pertaining, and abjure all

allegiance and fidelity to the United

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--633

States of America." "

Nash's announcement was greeted as one might expect. An embassy  
official

official

- not the ambassador! -- made a number of strongly worded  
arguments to convince Nash that what he wished to do was unwise.

Somewhat surprisingly, given the strength of Nash's conviction at

that moment, the diplomat convinced Nash to take back his  
passport. It was a sign, perhaps, of a vacillation and

indecisiveness that would become more pronounced with time.

The official's argument made sense to him. As Nash said in  
A633

his 1996 Madrid lecture: "I wouldn't have been able to leave

Luxembourg and return to Paris because I no longer had a  
passport. They allowed me to retract my action as irrational  
and

insanedd019

When the news of his first attempt to give up his American  
citizenship reached Virginia and Martha in Roanoke and his f  
ormer

colleagues at MIT, it proved to them that the confinement at

McLean had done little to halt the galloping illness. Virgin  
ia,

who had been deeply depressed on her return from Boston, had  
been

drinking heavily and was headed for a breakdown herself (She

would be hospitalized in

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--634

September.) 10 When Armand Borel got back to Princeton from  
Switzerland at the end of the summer and inquired about Nash  
, one

of his colleagues told him simply: "There is trouble.""

The plan's having been aborted did little to suppress Nash's  
high

spirits when he returned to Paris two days later. The mere f  
act

of having attempted to act sufficed to make him feel that he  
was,

as he wrote on a postcard to Virginia, mailed July

31, well "on the way to becoming a world citizendd012 His mi  
nd

was full of other aspects of his intended transformation. He  
was

visiting

the "Bibliotekea"t is, the Bibliothque Nationale, which is t  
he

French equivalent of the Library of Congress, he wrote to  
Virginia, and was working on learning French ("part of the  
planea"z he had written to Tucker nearly a year earlier)." H  
e

also confided in his mother that he wished "to take up paint  
ing."

Before long, however, Nash was afire with a new plan. His  
objectives, somewhat obscure even to himself until now, were

suddenly much clearer. As Paris emptied for the August vacat  
ion,

Nash decided that he

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--635

preferred to be in Switzerland, a country he associated with neutrality, world citizenship, and Einstein<sup>14</sup> Einstein, who liked to refer to himself as a world citizen, had adopted Swiss citizenship. Possibly the fact that several European nations had been conducting the longest summit on record that summer in Geneva influenced his thinking." But it appears that the Nashes did not leave Paris as soon as Nash intended. The actual departure was delayed by protests on Alicia's part over the sudden move after having just rented an apartment. Nash's desire to go to Geneva was based, he later said, on his having heard that Geneva was "the city of refugees." <sup>16</sup> This was absolutely true, in both a historical and a contemporary sense. Hugging the southern shore of the crescent-shaped Lac Lemman, set against a panorama of glaciers, the snowy ridges of Mont Blanc visible on all but the foggiest days, Geneva had once been the beacon of the Protestant Reformation and the refuge of French Protestants as well as freethinking intellectuals, including Voltaire and Rousseau<sup>17</sup> Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley had spent the summer of 1816 in the suburb of

Cologne writing

636

Frankenstein or The Modern Prometheus."

In the twentieth century, Geneva had become the site of the ill-fated League of Nations and was a major international banking

center. The European headquarters of the United Nations and other

international enterprises such as the Red Cross were located

there. In 1959, Geneva was an overnight train trip from Paris.

When the Nashes arrived, they took a room at the Hotel Athena in the Rue Malgoudd19 Alicia, however, did not stay

long. She left almost immediately for Italy where she met Odette

and remained for several weeks. Alone for the first time in his

life, Nash was "without parents, home, wife, child, commitment or

appetite ... and the pride that might be taken in these and

thus completely free to dedicate himself single-mindedly to his

quest. His objectives, as suggested by his choice of venue, were

shifting. He now wished not only to shed his American citizenship, but to obtain official refugee status to be declared a refugee from "all NATO, Warsaw, Middle East and SEATO

pact countries." Presumably, these alliances were now fused in

his mind with threats to world peace, but the desire for

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--637

refugee status also reflected an expanding feeling of alienation,

a sense of persecution, and fear of incarceration. He saw himself

as a conscientious objector in danger of being drafted and as an

opponent of the kinds of military research American mathematicians were expected to do."

He spent most of his evenings in that loneliest of places, a

small blank hotel room in a distant and nondescript part of the

city, writing letters that would never be answered, filling out

endless forms, applications, and petitions that would be fil

ed  
away. His days were spent haunting various anterooms and offices.  
For five solitary months, Nash's ambiguous and self-annulling  
efforts resembled nothing so much as the anti-quest of the land  
surveyor in Kafka's novel  
The Castle,  
probably the most compelling rendering of the schizophrenic  
consciousness in all of literature. Known only as K, Kafka's

hero's sole object in life is to penetrate  
all the shadowy heart of the Castle" which looms high over a maze  
like  
village K reaches but cannot get beyond" In Kafka's novel,  
K, a  
man

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--638

whose job it is to measure and estimate, seeks to enter a closed  
locus of authority, not because he  
desires "to lead an honored and comfortable life" but in order  
to  
"gain acceptance by the higher perhaps celestial powers and  
thereby to discover the reason of things."

14

Nash's lifelong quest for meaning, control, and recognition  
in  
the context of a continuing struggle, not just in society, but in  
the warring impulses of his paradoxical self, was now reduced to  
a caricature. just as the overconcreteness of a dream is related  
to the intangible themes of waking life, Nash's search for a  
piece of paper, a carte d'identit6, mirrored his former pursuit

of mathematical insights. Yet the gulf between the two

A638

recognizably related Nashes was as great as that between Kafka,

the controlling creative genius, struggling between the demands

of his self-chosen vocation and ordinary life, and K, a caricature of Kafka, the helpless seeker of a piece of paper

that

will validate his existence, rights, and duties. Delusion is not

just fantasy but compulsion. Survival, both

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--639

of the self and the world, appears to be at stake. Where once he

had ordered his thoughts and modulated them, he was now subject

to their peremptory and insistent commands.

Like K, Nash found himself trapped in a "farce of endless paper

shuffling ... a vast soulless mechanism for the circulation of

papers ... a world cluttered with paper, the white blood of bureaucracy ... doomed by forces beyond his control ]they're

playing with me`), yet also distracted through an inner confusion

of desires." "

Nash appealed to many authorities. Yet he seemed unable to make

much progress. The American consulate, he discovered, was not

prepared to accept his passport or to allow him to take the oath

of renunciation<sup>dd16</sup> Smiling, kindly, but seemingly obtuse diplomats dissuaded and deflected him, offering him excuses

and rationales. Confused and weakened by their lengthy explanations,

Nash would go away again, only to return the next day.

The U.N. High Commission for Refugees, on which he pinned his

hopes, sent him away. It appeared that the commission, its promising name notwithstanding, had rules that precluded cases

like his. One could claim refugee status only in connection with

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--640

"events occurring in Europe before 1 January 1951" and "owing

to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, [and only if one) is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of the country.

"The officials of the commission suggested he contact the Swiss police. At that time, the Swiss federal police handled all requests for asylum, of which there were perhaps a dozen a year that fell into the category of "unusual" in the sense that they involved individuals from countries that typically produced no refugees. Since Nash claimed to be a conscientious objector who was fleeing the draft, the police referred him to the military authorities. These authorities cautiously turned to Berne for advice, and Berne, in turn, consulted Washington. In September, the Geneva military authority sent a letter to Berne saying of

Nash that  
disen renonqant ii son passeporte am6ricain, et cela pour la  
seulc raison qu'il ne d6nessire pas kre appe]6 A faire servi  
ce  
dans les forces arm6ences des

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--641

U.S.A., ni rnme prander aux organisations officielles de son pays  
sons concours en qualit6 de mathematicien, craignant que sa collaboration puisse aider les autorit6's de son pays A main tenir  
la guerre froide on pr6parer la guerrc0gghe is renouncing hi  
s

American passport, for the sole reason that he doesn't

A641

want to be drafted into the United States Army, nor lend to official organizations his services as a mathematician, fearing

that his collaboration might aid the authorities of his nation in

maintaining the Cold War or in preparing for war.

In November, the Geneva authorities were informed that Nash was,

for all practical purposes, far beyond the American draft age and

that he was in no way obligated to do defense-related research.

Moreover, Nash had committed none of the acts that would provoke

the American government to strip him of his citizenship: "Au

surplus, la simple declaration de renonciation au passeport americain n'a en soi pas d'effet juridique." In other words,

since he had not signed the oath of renunciation, he was still

technically an American citizen. At that point, the police

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--642

began threatening Nash with deportation.

His sense of himself was now full of the starkest contradictions.

On the one hand, Nash's most intimate thoughts and actions seemed

to be those of another, controlling psyche. "I am the left foot

of God on earth." On the other, he felt himself to be at the

epicenter of the universe, with outer reality simply a projection

of his mind. At times his posture was that of an abject

petitioner, at other times that of a "religious figure of great,

but secret, importance." He spent a great deal of time opening

various bank accounts -- usually under false names, including one

that he later said was "mystical" and wiring money to various

countries. "I shifted money from one bank to another," Nash recalled in his Madrid lecture in

1996.

"I opened an account at a Swiss bank. It was Credit Andorra.

The

account was in Swiss francs. But I didn't have very much money.<sup>dd041</sup> Many years later, in a limousine going to the center of Stockholm where he would attend the Nobel ceremonies, Nash pointed out a bank in passing to Harold and Estelle Kuhn, saying that he had wired money there as part of an effort to organize a

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--643

defense against "an invasion of aliens."<sup>dd041</sup> Such self-contradiction is also characteristic of schizophrenia, every symptom being matched by a "countersymptom." John Haslam, who is widely regarded as the first psychiatric description of schizophrenic thinking, focused, early in the nineteenth century, on this peculiar combination of omnipotence and impotence: The person is "sometimes an automaton moved by the agency of persons ... at others, the Emperor of the whole world." The tendency toward megalomania mixed with feelings of persecution, powerlessness, inferiority. 44 He maintained both positions at the same moment, often, it seems, apparently untroubled by the apparent inconsistency, floating of what Aristotle considered the fundamental rule of reason: "The identity principle or law of contradiction that states the impossibility of affirming both p and not p."<sup>dd041</sup> It was a cruel, cosmic joke. The man who produced a compelling theory of rational behavior no longer thought in terms of either/or.

It is not true, however, that Nash had lost all contact  
A643

with reality. The clearest evidence that reality

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--644

in fact pressed heavily and unpleasantly on him is that the frustrations of his situation were beginning to oppress him.

His expectant mood turned slowly and inexorably into one of deep disappointment and depression. Nash spent long hours walking

around the city, mostly in the parks and along the lake, waiting,

endlessly waiting. At the end of September, he wrote to Virginia

and Martha: "My life is not exciting at present.... Waiting for

favorable developments. I'm somewhat disillusioned with a great

many of my former associates, colleagues, friends, etcdd046

His dark mood may have reflected more than his difficult current

situation. Martha had written that Virginia had had "a nervous

breakdown and spent two weeks in the hospitaldd041 Nash found the

news virtually unbelievable. He simply could not imagine his

forceful mother ill in this fashion, but he must have sensed

from the tone of Martha's letter, that his mother's distress was

linked, in some way, to his own. Finally, in September or

October, in a fit of desperation, Nash destroyed or threw away

his passport. Alicia later recalled that he had merely "lost" it

and while that is certainly possible, later events suggest otherwise. When

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the consulate became aware of this action, an effort was made to

persuade Nash to apply for a new one. This he refused to do.

In his own mind, Nash was now stateless, a man without a country;

in the eyes of the authorities, he was a man without proper documents, which placed him in a vulnerable situation. Nash had,

as he later wrote to Lars H6rmander, requested refugee status.

This produced difficulties<sup>10</sup> On October 11 he wrote to Virginia and Martha that he was no longer able to travel "because

of certain legal formalities," a reference, presumably, to his

lack of a passport." In the same letter, he enclosed a long free-style poem about feeding the gulls on the shores of Lac

Leman. He did, however, manage to visit nearby Liechtenstein

where he considered requesting citizenship, on account of the

fact that Liechtenstein didn't levy income taxes on foreign residents."

During her Roman holiday, for a few short weeks, Alicia recaptured comfort the last time, it turned out—a bit of her old

lighthearted, girlish self. Odette recalled in

1995 that Alicia, once again, seemed "fun-loving." 11 These two

exceptionally

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--646

pretty, stylish young women had quite a holiday. They visited the

Vatican, where they had an audience with Pope John M11. Odette

fainted and had to be carried out of the chamber by two young

Italian medics who afterward showed the two women around the

city. They went to nightclubs, shopped, and were admired and

pursued,

by Americans as well as Italians, wherever they went. After Rome,

they visited Florence and Venice. In Venice, the two young women

had a photograph taken of themselves, Odette looking like a young

Audrey Hepburn, Alicia like a young Elizabeth Taylor,

A646

standing in their high heels and bouffant hairdos in the Piazza

San Marco surrounded by pigeons.

At the end of August, Alicia returned to Paris and began making

arrangements for her mother and baby to come to France. She may

have gone to Geneva first, but if so, she stayed there only briefly. She wrote to Nash urging him to come to Paris and

contacted the American embassy for help in getting Nash back from

Switzerland. "Alicia is in Paris expecting `e0"Nash wrote in

early November -- "ee"of course, was John Charles, whom Nash

called Baby Epsilondd14 ("Baby

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--647

Epsilon" was a tongue-in-cheek reference to a well-known mathematical anecdote about a famous mathematician who believes

that all infants are born knowing the proof of the Riemann Hypothesis and retain that knowledge until they are six months of

age.)

55

It was Nash's first mention of the baby in his letters to Roanoke, yet he gave no indication that he intended to join them.

While she waited for her mother and son to arrive, Alicia visited

Odette in Grenoble. "We'd go to my room and eat pastries, babau

rhumea"Odette recalled. "We'd gossip about the other students. We

went skiing." Back in Washington, Baby Epsilon was finally christened with his grandparents and Martha in attendancedd1

7 The

baby, dressed in a little sweater on a bright fall day when leaves littered the ground, was named John Charles Martin Nash.

The christening took place at St. John's in Lafayette Square, the

same church where Nash and Alicia had exchanged marriage vows.

(It is not clear who settled on the name John. Nash's first son,

of course, was already called John. It was as if the Nashes and

Lardes wished to obliterate, through

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--648

replacement, the first child.)

In early December, when the frigid north wind called

le hise

swept across Lac Lemane and made walking along its shores a misery, Nash's mood was bleaker than ever. One can almost feel

his "sense of helplessness in an ice-cold universe.", His efforts to renounce his citizenship and to obtain refugee status

had been, for reasons baffling to him, frustrated. He spent most

of his time indoors writing letters. His feeling of having chosen

to escape from Cambridge was replaced by one of having been exiled. He wrote to Norbert Wiener:

I feel that writing to you there I am writing to the source of a

ray of light from within a pit of semi-darkness.... It is a strange place where you live, where administration is heaped upon

administration, and all tremble with fear or abhorrence (in spite

of pious phrases) at symptoms of actual non-local thinking.

Up

the river [a reference to Harvard], slightly better, but still

very strange in a certain area with which we are both familiar.

And yet, to see this strangeness, the viewer must be

strangedd19

649

The letter was decorated with silver foil, a newspaper photograph

of a Lenin-like character, a story about Nehru's seventieth birthday containing a reference to Khrushchev, and ticket stubs

from a trolley.

Even while he described himself as someone capable of inspiring

fear in others on account of his "non-local thinking" Nash's

reference to "administration ... heaped upon administration"

suggests a growing sense of vulnerability, a freefloating anxiety, and a belief that the authorities were toying with him.

Shortly afterward, for reasons unknown, Nash changed hotels,

moving now to a cheaper and more remote one from the Hotel Albani

in the Rue de Mont Blanc

In this claustrophobic hotel room during what would turn out to

be Nash's final week in Geneva, the true dimensions of his tragedy would become clear. He was in Switzerland, free of Alicia, free of external restraint, but as thoroughly immobilized

as the hero of another Kafka story, "The Metamorphosis" "who

wakes up one morning to discover that he has become a cockroach

lying helplessly on its back" Kafka never

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--650

wrote the final chapter of

The Castle,

but confided to his friend and biographer, Max Brod, that he had

envisioned a scene in which K is lying on his bed in the inn

exhausted to the point of death. "K was not to relax his struggle, but was to die worn out by it"

Nash did not relax his struggle either, but he was defeated all

the same.

James Glass, a political scientist at the University of Maryland

who has studied the delusions of schizophrenia, writes, "Delusion

provides a certain, often unbreakable identity, and its abso

lute

character can maneuver the self into an unyielding position.

In this respect, it is the internal mirror of political authoritarianism, the tyrant inside the self... an internal domination as deadly as any external tyranny."

63

On December 11, Nash had been held for several hours by the police comapparently in an effort to convince him that "deportation was unavoidable"- and released disunder surveillance," requiring him to report to a police station t wo or three times every

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--651

daydd64 According to a telegram, dated December 16, from the American consul in Geneva, Henry S. Villard, to Secretary of State Christian A. Herter, the Swiss authorities had issued a deportation order naming Nash as an "undesirable alien"on December 11.61

Throughout, the Swiss authorities evidently were acting with the "full knowledge of Dr. Edward Cox, assistant science advisor "and presumably with tacit approval at higher levels of the State Department.

The final curtain came down on December 15. Nash was arrested, for the

second time<sup>66</sup> He adamantly refused, as he had at the  
A651  
time of his first arrest, to return to the United States, and  
d  
continued to demand to sign the oath of renunciation. On the  
morning of the fifteenth, Cox, a kindly, avuncular retired  
chemist<sup>7ity</sup> professor from Swarthmore College<sup>61</sup> now serving as  
assistant science attach<sup>6</sup> in Paris, arrived in Geneva by  
overnight train. He was accompanying an exhausted and  
apprehensive Alicia Nash<sup>dd61</sup> Together they hoped to persuade

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--652

Nash to return directly to the United States. Neither knew what  
to expect, and both, in their separate ways, feared the worst.  
Secretary Herter was being apprised of the situation in daily  
cables, as was the  
State Department's science adviser, Wallace Brode. On the  
fifteenth, a cable to Washington from Ambassador Amory Houghton  
in Paris informed them: "RECEIVED WORD FROM GENEVA TO EFFECT  
NASH  
DESPITE ALL EFFORTS TO DISSUADE HIM DETERMINED TO SIGN OATH  
OF  
CITIZENSHIP RENUNCIATION."

69

Even in jail, Nash refused to return to the United States, refused furthermore to cooperate in the issue of a new passport, and continued to demand that he be permitted to take the oath of renunciation.

At this point, Alicia agreed to take Nash back to Paris with her where they had, after all, an apartment. The consul general agreed to issue Alicia a new passport that included Nash. Nash protested it all. He did not wish to go even to Paris. It was useless. The police escorted Nash to the train station. He was hustled onto the

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--653

train and, at 11: 15 P<sup>ddm.</sup>, it pulled out of the covered station

into the open air. The police inspectors reported that "at t  
rain  
time Nash [was] still reluctant [to) leave Geneva but no for  
ce  
[was] requireddd010 Nash and Alicia celebrated Christmas at  
49  
Avenue de la R6publique. It was, as Nash was to write to  
Virginia, "interestingdd071 Alicia's mother was there and so  
was  
the eight-month-old John Charles. There was a Christmas tree  
,  
perhaps the first one that the Nashes had ever had, decorate  
d in  
the German manner with tiny lady apples and red wax candles.  
When  
they lit them, it scared Alicia's mother terribly. "We kept  
a  
bucket of water nearby' "Odette, who had come to Paris for t  
he  
holidays, recalleddd71 Alicia, who had occupied herself that  
fall  
with learning to cook, served French hors d'oeuvres. There w  
ere  
presents for the baby, Nash jealously noted, adding in a let  
ter  
to Virginia and Martha that "he seems a little attention spo  
iled  
now.  
On St. Etienne's Day, the day after Christmas, Alicia gave a  
party attended by several mathematicians, American as well a  
s  
French. Shiing-shen Chern, a mathematician who had met

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--654

Nash at the University of Chicago and was in Paris for the  
semester, came. He recalled "an interesting idea" that Nash  
had  
then, namely that four cities in Europe constituted the vert  
ices  
of a squaredd71 The most striking visitor at 49 Avenue de la

R6publique, however, was Alexandre Grothendieck, a

A654

brilliant, charismatic, highly eccentric young algebraic geometer

who wore his beard shaved, affected traditional Russian peasant

dress, and held strong pacifist

ViewSDD74

Grothendieck had just taken a chair at the new Parisian mathematics center, the Institut des Hautes Etudes Scientifiques

(modeled after Princeton's Institute for Advanced Study), and

would win a Fields Medal in 1966. In the early 1970's, he founded

a survivalist organization, dropped out of academia altogether,

and became a virtual recluse in an undisclosed location in the

PyreneesSdd71 In 1960, however, he was dynamic, voluble, and immensely attractive. Whether he was mainly interested in the

beautiful Alicia or felt an affinity for Nash's anti-American

sentiments is not clear; in any

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--655

case, Grothendieck was a frequent visitor at the Nashes' apartment and on a number of occasions attempted to help

Nash obtain a visiting position at the IHES. That January, Odette

and Alicia would sit around the apartment smoking and gossiping

about Odette's boyfriends, including thirty-four-year-old John

Danskin, a mathematician at the Institute for Advanced Study who

had met the entrancing Odette at the Nashes' wedding party in New

York, He wooed Odette by letter, ultimately proposing to her by

telegram in Russian. Nash would sit in the corner of the living

room poring over a Paris telephone directory, saying little except to occasionally object to the smoke, which he abhorred, or

to ask a question. Odette recalled:

We were having a wonderful time. We just laughed and gossiped,

tried French cooking and met the people who Alicia invited i

nto  
her apartment. We'd be chattering. We'd talk about boys. John  
Nash wouldn't even notice. Alicia used to smoke. He used to  
complain about it. He couldn't bear it. Occasionally he would  
interrupt with a question: "Do you know

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--656

what Kennedy and Khrushchev have in common? No. Both their names

start with a Kdd"I'

Odette soon returned to Grenoble and Alicia's mother left Paris

as well, leaving her daughter and grandson behind. Alicia  
struggled to care for the baby and to cope with her husband,

finding both overwhelming." She desperately wanted to return  
to

the United States and continued, as best she could, to obtain the

help of the American authorities.

A concerted effort was, in fact, under way, led by the State

Department's Brode, who dispatched his deputy, Larkin Farinholt,

to Parisdd"Farinholt, a chemist who would subsequently become the

director of the Sloan Foundation's fellowship program, vainly

tried to convince Nash to return to America voluntarily. The

effort was inspired not just by the government's desire to avoid

embarrassment, but by a genuine wish that Nash not be lost to the

scientific community nor suffer the consequences of his own

seemingly irrational behavior. Nash's legal situation was  
increasingly tenuous. After his deportation from Switzerland  
, he

had been issued a three-month temporary residency permit

A656

by the French. His status in France, as he explained to Hbrm  
ander

in a letter in late January,

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--657

was "of Swiss resident or domicileedd'19 As Nash explained i  
n his

Madrid lecture, he had wanted to be declared a refugee from  
all

NATO countries, but since he found himself in France he had

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"so as not to be inconsistent"- to settle for declaring hims  
elf

"only a refugee from the USA."` Once again, he applied for  
asylum. When it became clear that the French were not going  
to

grant it, Nash attempted to obtain a Swedish visa. This, too  
, was

refused. He then turned to H6rmander, who in turn consulted  
the

Swedish foreign ministry and was told that without an Americ  
an

passport Nash had no hope of obtaining a visa. Hbrmander, no  
w

impatient, wrote back: "Personally I would strongly advise y  
ou to

reconsider your views concerning NATO and other countries."

Citoyeation d, Monde

281

Nash then managed a rather extraordinary feat. In early Marc  
h, he

traveled,

alone and without passport, to East Germanydd"Hard as it is  
to

believe that an American without documents could get into th  
e DDR

in 1960, Nash confirmed in 1995 that he had indeed traveled  
there, explaining that

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--658

in his "time of irrational thinking"he had gone "places wher  
e you

didn't need an American passportdd081 What actually must hav  
e

happened, given the tremendously tight security at the borde  
r at

that time, was that Nash applied to the DDR for asylum and w  
as

then permitted by the authorities to enter the country until  
the  
request was decided. In any case, he went to Leipzig and sta  
yed  
with a family named Thurmer for several days. According to a  
card  
he sent Martha and Virginia, he was able-presumably as a gue  
st of  
the government comto attend a famous propaganda event that  
happened to be taking place at the time, the Leipzig industr  
ial  
world fair, which was the Iron Curtain's answer to the Bruss  
els  
world fair. Later, mathematicians in America would hear from  
Farinholt that "Nash tried to defect to the Russians"b that  
the  
Russians had refused to have anything to do with  
hiMddl4  
That story, repeated by Felix Browder, is very probably base  
d on  
Nash's Leipzig adventure. At least no evidence has turned up  
that  
Nash ever approached the Soviets. By that point, everyone  
involved-the Americans, the French, and presumably the DDR-w  
as  
aware that Nash's

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--659

actions were those of a very sick man. Apparently, however,  
the  
incident would prompt the FBI to raise questions about Alici  
a's  
security clearance in the early 1960's when she was working  
at  
RCA  
.81  
In any case, Nash was eventually asked to leave East Germany  
-or  
quite possibly Farinholt got him out-and returned to Paris w  
here  
he wrote to Martha and Virginia that he was "thinking of

returning to Roanoke" but was worried about coming back to  
A659  
the United States when he had no guarantee that he would be  
able  
to leave again

.16

As in Geneva, Nash spent much of his time sitting in the  
apartment writing letters. Michael Artin, the son of Princet  
on's

Emil Artin, found a letter from Nash, after the death of his

father, in his father's files. "It started out plausibly abo  
ut

mathematicsea"Artin recalled. "But it was stamped all over,  
with

[Metro] tickets and tax stamps pasted on it. By the end of t  
he

letter it was obvious that it was completely fantastic. It w  
as

about K6chel's numbers for Mozart symphonies. K6chel had  
catalogued all of Mozart's works, more than five

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--660

hundred. It was very graphic. It must have affected my fathe  
r

very much because he had kept it for all those years." A]  
Vasquez, the MIT undergraduate Nash had gotten to know in hi  
s

final year in Cambridge, recalled: "His letters were filled  
with

numerology. I didn't keep them. They weren't just letters. T  
hey

were collages, pastiches. Full of newspaper clippings. Very  
clever. I was always showing them to people. They contained  
some

insights. Little patterns, puns." Cathleen Morawetz recall  
ed

that her father, John Synge, who had taught Nash tensor calc  
ulus

at Carnegie, received postcards from Nash at this time and w  
as

frightened by them. They reminded him, he told her, of his  
brilliant brother Hutchie, who suffered from schizophrenia a  
nd

had quit Trinity College in order to settle in the bohemian  
enclaves of Paris before the First

World War. Morawetz said, "The letters Were about things lik  
e

Milnor's differential structure of spheres. Nash would quote  
a

theorem. Then he'd derive a political meaning for itdd019

Money was a growing worry. The Nashes' lodgings were cheap by American standards, but living, particularly food, was not. Nash was greatly preoccupied with trying

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--661

to sell his Mercedes, still in the Institute for Advanced Study's parking lot. The mathematician with whom he had left his car, Hassler Whitney, had called John Danskin and asked him to deal with John Abbat, a Frenchman who had invented a kind of bowling pin and was married to Odette's older sister Muyu, got involved as well. The book value, Danskin recalled, was \$2,300, but Nash was determined to get \$2,400 or \$2,500. "He was absolutely unreasonable," Danskin recalled. "I didn't sell it. It was still there when he got back." From time to time, Nash asked Martha to send Eleanor money. He also asked Warren Ambrose to visit John David, or perhaps Ambrose offered. Eleanor recalled that John David, now nearly seven, was frightened of Ambrose. "Nash's hair had by now grown long, and he had a full beard. In early April, he sent Martha a photograph of himself, taken in a Chinese restaurant, which he asked her to return to him, labeling it "Picture of Dorian Gray." He referred to an "authorization" for April 21 and said that he was planning to leave soon for Sweden. On April 21, Virginia

received a telegram from the State Department requesting

662

funds to bring Nash back to the United States. She wired the

money. Nash was taken from the apartment on Avenue Rue de la

116publique by the

French police, who escorted him, under guard, all the way to

Orly. Nash would later tell Vasquez that he had been brought

back from Europe, "on a ship and in chains, like a slave, but

Alicia recalled quite definitely that they came back on a plane. While the departure repeated the trauma of Geneva, it

was also a mirror image of their journey to France the previous

summer. This time it was Nash who was the unwilling one.

Ironically, in this, too, he was walking in Davis's path, for

Davis, too, was once forcibly placed on the

Queen Mary and

sent back to America confined in first-class quarters. Princeton, 1960

TE

OLIVE-GREEN MERCEDES

180 was still in the institute parking lot in Princeton. Nash

had come straight there while

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--663

Alicia and the baby went to Washington to stay with the Lards. He

hung around Princeton. In June, having heard that his sister

had had a baby, Nash drove down to Roanoke to visit Martha in the

hospital. She remembered being frightened by his appearance and

concealing from him her son's due date, June 13. "I was worried

that he would put some meaning in it," she recalled in 1995. Her

recollection is that Nash stayed in Roanoke with Virginia for

several weeks. Alicia, meanwhile, was looking for work and had

enlisted, among others, John Danskin -- now married to Odette --

to help her.

3

Danskin was now teaching at Rutgers, and the newlyweds lived on the outskirts of Princeton. Alicia was apparently considering staying in Washington, presumably so that her parents could help with the baby. She was also thinking of moving back to New York.

During the summer, Alicia stayed with her old MIT friend, Joyce Davis, by now living in Greenwich Village and working in the city, and interviewed for various computer programming jobs.

As she told Joyce in a note she left at her apartment on the day that she returned to Washington, she

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--664

got offers from IBM and also from Univac but was undecided over whether to accept them, saying, "Now I've got a real problem

work in NY or Wash"

Odette urged Alicia to move to Princeton. Nash was also in favor. Alicia thought that her husband would benefit from being

around other mathematicians again and hoped that he would be able

to find work in Princeton. The upshot was that Alicia turned down

the offers to work in New York City and instead took a position

with the Astro-Electronics Division of the Radio Corporation of

America, which had a big research facility on Hightstown Road

between Princeton and Hightstown. Alicia left John Charles in

her mother's care once more and rented a small apartment at

58

Spruce Street, on the corner of Walnut, about a mile from  
A664

Palmer Square. Nash joined her there at the end of the summer.

Initially, at least, Princeton seemed to offer a respite after

the anxious final months in Paris. Alicia and Nash were very  
much

part of a crowd that had gathered around John Danskin and Odette

in the charming enclave near the Delaware-Raritan Canal.

Griggstown consisted at that time of

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--665

Tornquist's, a general store, and a few picturesque houses,  
including the former cider mill where the Danskins lived. It  
was

especially beautiful in the summer, the air heavy with the scent

of honeysuckle. Naphthall Afriat, a game theorist who worked  
with

Morgenstern at the time, lived there, as did Jean-Pierre Cauvin,

a graduate student in French at Princeton, and a couple that

worked at Rutgers, Agnes and Michael Sherman. The Danskins  
held

frequent parties at which the Milnors, Ed Nelson and his wife,

and Georg Kreisel, a logician, were also frequent visitors.  
8 The

parties lasted long into the night, with Beethoven sonatas,  
a

great deal of wine, barbecued steaks and shish kebab, nighttime

swims in the canal, and bright conversation led by the convivial,

cultivated, mercurial Danskin. Cauvin remembered John Nash very

vividly. He had a kind of childlike air and disposition, a gentleness,  
this very vulnerable quality, a kind of helplessness.

It blew my mind that someone who gave this appearance of being so

simple could be a genius. He was subdued and rather passive.

He always spoke very softly and in a monotone. I don't recall him  
ever initiating a conversation. He would respond

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--666

to a question or remark after a little momentary hesitation.

Alicia was very attentive to him. ` Alicia was learning to drive.

Danskin and Milnor were both giving her lessons, with haphazard

success." ` They invited her along to a Thursdaynight folk dance

group at Miss Fines's School on Route 206 that Danskin and Milnor

belonged to. I I "She was very pretty, very quiet. I remember her

pulling out a photograph of a cute little boyea"said Elvira Leaderdd"Her husband, Sol, danced with Alicia: "She was weightless," he recalled."

Danskin would bring the dancers home afterward. He remembered

talking with Nash about mathematics. They'd been drinking by

then. Danskin was trying to prove a theorem:

He immediately hit you with the hardest point. He was still very

sharp. He understood what I was doing. I wanted to avoid the hard

way and he caught me. Who in the hell would ask that? You would

if you were proving it yourself, but he was just listening.

And

understanding.

14

Danskin spearheaded an effort to find Nash a job. Danskin was

doing some consulting work for Oskar Morgenstern and Morgens

tern,  
it seemed, was willing

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--667

to hire Nash as a consultant. That fall, Nash was given a one-year consulting contract, with a ceiling of two thousand

dollars. Morgenstern indicated to the university that he was

making the offer under "a small charitable pressure"b that he

e

felt "Nash could contribute strongly to his program if he  
A667

was able to pull out of his present mental depression and  
utilizes his faculties to their greatest extent."

The university balked, "fearing that the appointment might be

based on human kindness, rather than on realistic, technical  
needs."

16

It was decided to review Nash's performance after two months  
. The

contract was dated October 21, 1960.

17

Nash, however, was talking about returning to France. He  
contacted Jean Leray, who was visiting at the Institute for  
Advanced Study, asking Leray to invite him once more to the  
College de France." This time Alicia, much alarmed, interven-  
ed.

She asked Donald Spencer, the mathematician at Princeton who

had helped Nash work out the final version of his paper on  
algebraic varieties in

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--668

1950 and 1951 to write to Leray to ask that Leray discour-  
age

Nash from going to France again so soon. "Her advice is not  
to

invite John to France at the present time since she feels it  
will

only stir him up again.... If this job [with Oskar Morgenstern]

materializes it will have a quieting effect on her husband.

She

feels that remaining in Princeton for a time might possibly  
bring

him back to mathematical work. By now, Nash had been in  
the

grip of unremitting psychotic illness for nearly two years.

It

had transformed him. The change in Nash's appearance and man-  
ner

made it surprising that his old friends from the mathematics

department recognized him at all. The man who walked up and  
down

the main street of Princeton in the stifling summer of 1960  
was

clearly disturbed. He would go into restaurants with bare feet.

With dark hair to his shoulders and a bushy black beard, he had a fixed expression, a dead gaze. Women, especially, found him frightening. He looked no one in the eye. Nash spent most of his time hanging around the university, including Fine Hall. Most days he wore a smocklike Russian peasant garment<sup>10</sup> He seemed, as one graduate student

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--669

at the time remembered, to "talk to the squirrels." He carried around a notebook, a scrapbook entitled ABSOLUTE ZERO in which he pasted all sorts of things, presumably a reference to the rock-bottom temperature at which all activity ceases<sup>dd</sup>"He was fascinated by bright colors.

He was often in the common room where he "liked to spectate, to watch people playing Kriegspiel, and to make cryptic little remarks.<sup>0</sup>"On one occasion, when William Feller was standing nearby, for example, Nash said, to no one in particular: "What would we do with an overweight Hungarian?<sup>0</sup>"On another, "What do Spain and the Sinai have in common?<sup>0gg</sup>Th was after Israel's takeover of the Sinai.) He answered his own question, "They both start withS."

14

Everyone around Fine knew who he was, of course. The senior faculty tended to avoid him, and the Fine Hall secretaries were

slightly afraid of him, as his size and strange manner  
A669

gave him a somewhat threatening air. On one occasion, Nash disquieted the formidable Agnes Henry, the departmental secretary, by asking her for the sharpest pair of

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--670

scissors she possesseddd"Henry was taken aback and consulted  
A]

Tucker about what to do. Tucker, who was walking with a cane at

that time and would hardly have been Nash's match, said, "Well,

give it to him and if there's trouble I'll handle itdd"Nash grabbed the scissors, walked over to a phone

book that was lying out, and cut out the cover, a map of the

Princeton area in primary colors. He pasted it in his notebook.

He found a few graduate students to talk to. Burton Randol, then

a first-year mathematics graduate student, recalled: "I wasn't

bothered by his strangeness and I wasn't afraid of him physically. I was willing to have conversations with him. In some

sense we enjoyed each otherdd016 He and Nash would take long rambling walks around Princeton, and Randol particularly recalled

Nash's wry sense of humor, which he remembered as "intentional,

self-referential, and self-deprecating. He knew he was crazy and

he made little jokes about it."

He referred to himself, obliquely and usually in the third person, as one Johann von Nassau, a mysterious figure whose name

was curiously similar  
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--671

to John von Neumann's and suggested a connection with Nassau

Street, the main street of Princeton, as well as Nassau Hall, the

main building on the university campus. He talked, in rather

lofty terms, of world peace and world government, making it clear

he was in touch with these ideas on some very grand scale comthough he rarely, if ever, alluded to his actual experien

ces

in Paris and Geneva. The job with Morgenstern fell through.

As

Danskin recalled, Nash refused to fill out the necessary W-2

form, claiming that he was a citizen of Liechtenstein and

not

subject to taxes.

I got him a job in the economic research group by calling Os

kar

Morgenstern. Oskar said fine. I got an application. It called

for

his social security number and asked whether he was a citizen

of

the U.S. He wouldn't cooperate, so he didn't get the

job.

Whether this was why the contract was canceled in early December,

or whether by then it was obvious that Nash was far too sick

to

work, is unclear.

Nash was also writing all sorts of letters to people. When he

heard that Martin Shubik was applying game theory to the theory

of money, he sent Shubik a

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--672

Richie Rich comic book. He sent Paul Zweifel, his friend

from

Carnegie, postcards in care of the French chargé d'affaires

at

the French embassy in Washington.

Nash was also making a great many telephone calls, usually,

as

Martha recalled, using fictitious names. Ed Nelson recalled,

"I

did my part talking to John on the telephone during those

years." He used to call me a lot." And Armand Borel recalled:

"I

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got unending phone calls from Nash. Harish-Chandra also

A672

often got calls. It was unending. It was all nonsense. Numerology. Dates. World affairs. This was really painful. It was very often."

Nash's bizarre behavior was attracting the attention of university officials. Danskin recalled:

He was irritating the president of the university. He was talking

about something that was going on in the Gaza Strip. He was playing hopscotch on campus. Goheen's secretary called me. He

wasn't threatening anyone, but he was behaving crazily. He would

go into the offices. The young women would be frightened. At my

house, he'd play with my stereo and screw it up. He frightened

people. But he was the gentlest

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--673

person imaginable."

Alicia was beside herself. She had become quite depressed. Members of the folkdancing group remember her sad expression, her

showing them pictures of her baby, and her sadness at being separated from her son. She began seeing a psychiatrist at the

Princeton Hospital, Phillip Ehrlich, who urged her to have her

husband hospitalized, against his will if necessary. He recommended a nearby state hospital. Odette recalled, in 1995:

"It was awful that such a strong and handsome man should be locked up. Alicia had some guilt trips. We talked it over, back

and forth. The doctors advised her. She didn't understand. It was

very painful."

14

Alicia had initially asked John Danskin to commit Nash. Danskin

refused. She then turned to Virginia and Martha.

A day or two before the police picked Nash up, Nash showed up on

campus covered with scratches. "Johann von Nassau has been a bad

boy," he said, visibly terrified. "They're going to come and get

me now."

kenton State Hospital, 1961

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--674

Reposing in the midst of the most beautiful scenery in the valley

of the Delaware, combining all the influences which human art and

skill can command to Ness, soothe, and restore the wandering

intellects that are gathered in its bosom. comFirst annual report

of the New Jersey State Lunatic Asylum, 1848

but as if left to rot in a "Tower of Silence, "with anti-Promethean

vultures gnawing away at my vitals. comJOHN NA-SH, 1967

AT

THE END OF JANUARY, ten months after Nash's return from Paris, a

much-aged Virginia Nash and her daughter Martha boarded a train

in Roanoke and traveled north all day, arriving in Princeton in

the late afternoon. The last time they had made this trip together was a decade earlier, to attend Johnny's graduation, and

the contrast between that trip and the present one was much on

their minds. As they disembarked, tearful and weary, John Milnor,

now a full professor in the Princeton mathematics department, was

waiting for them. It was nearly dark and already snowing lightly.

After a few awkward exchanges, Milnor showed them his car, turned

over the keys, and gave them directions to West

Trenton.

675

Martha took the wheel and the two women drove in silence down

Route 1, the car slipping and sliding on the thin layer of slick

ice that now covered the road. They were almost thankful for the

distraction. They dreaded what lay ahead. Johnny was already at

the Trenton State Hospital. He had been picked up earlier in the

day by the police, taken first to Princeton Hospital, a small

general hospital, and then transported by ambulance to Trenton

State. Now they were going down to talk to the doctors, sign the

necessary forms, and, if possible, see Johnny. They would see

Alicia, at whose apartment they were staying, afterward.

Full of doubt and self-reproach, they felt they had little choice

but to accede to another commitment. Whatever hope they had that

Johnny's settling in Princeton, in familiar surroundings and

among old mathematical acquaintances,

would bring about some improvement in his condition had been

shattered weeks before. Alicia's telephone calls had become increasingly frantic. The psychiatrist whom Alicia had been

in touch with had tried, without success, to convince Johnny to

go into the hospital on his own. Johnny had been dead set

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--676

against the idea. Finally, the three women had agreed among themselves that there was no other way. He would have to go.

And this time it wouldn't be to a private hospital. As Martha

recalled in 1995: "At first, we had thought that thirty days at

McLean would straighten him out. By then we knew there were no

short-term answers. We were concerned that John's illness would

eat into Mother's capital and that she couldn't afford a private

hospital."`

In the moonlight and freshly fallen snow, the gray stone building, with its white marble dome and tall columns, set a top a gentle wooded slope, looked reassuringly solid and respectable.

Institutions like the Trenton State Hospital owed their existence to the same mid-nineteenth-century reform movements that opposed slavery and advanced women's suffrage. Many, in fact, owed

their existence to the efforts of Dorothea Dix, a fiery, single-minded Unitarian who made the appalling plight of the

insane -- condemned to almshouses, prisons, and the streets --

her life's crusade. When she was old, ill, and penniless,

Dix lived on the ground floor of Trenton's administration building in an apartment set aside for

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--677

her by the trustees of Trenton State until her death in 1887

Like all such institutions, Trenton hardly evolved as its founder anticipated. In particular, it was soon overwhelmed by the sheer numbers of people who sought comfort whose families sought on their behalf shelter there. During World War II, Trenton State, long

since expanded from a single large building into a large complex, had an average of four thousand patients. The census dropped sharply after the war, but was rising rapidly in the late 1950's.

By 1961, there were nearly twenty-five hundred patients, ten times as many as at a private hospital like McLean. Staffing was minimal, and consisted mostly of young foreign residents. The six hundred patients in the so-called West hospital, for example

,

were cared for by six psychiatrists; the five hundred

A677

chronic patients in the annex-predominantly senile or epileptic-were cared for by just one doctor. The presence of a

large number of chronic patients obscured the fact that most patients who came to Trenton stayed a relatively short time, perhaps three months.

"You really were not close to patients ` "said Dr.

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--678

Peter Baumecker, who worked at both the hospital's insulin unit and the rehabilitation ward during Nash's stay. The poorest and

sickest patients wound up at Trenton. "I remember very few patients specifically," Baumecker said. "There was one patient

who gouged out the eye of another. There was another patient who'd lost his eye when the police beat him up after he'd killed

his father. But that was very exceptional."dd06

"There were good wards and bad wards. Trenton was not as plush as other

places. As a matter of fact, Trenton was pretty crummy," recalled

Baumecker in 1995. "But I remember a lot of warmth, a lot of caring. We helped an awful lot of people."dd07

Later Nash would recall, with great bitterness, the fact that he

was assigned a serial number at Trenton, as if he were an inmate

of a prison."dd8 To occupy a room shared by thirty or forty others,

to be forced to wear clothes that are not your own, to have no

place, not even a locker, for your things, even your own soap or

shaving cream, is an experience that few people can imagine.

Yet

this is how Nash came to be a man who craved, because of his nature and

the nature of his

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--679

illness, solitude and mobility lived for the next six months, surrounded by strangers. If he had dreaded military duty, what must this have been like for him? Nash would have been brought to Payton One, the men's admitting ward, on the ground floor of Payton, off to the right of the main administration building. Baumecker was in charge of admissions then and conducted the initial interview. "Nash was my patient," said Baumecker. "He didn't like me because my name started with a T4." He had something against the letter Bdd09. The admission interview took place in a small admitting room that had a cot, a couple of chairs, a desk, and a small window. Baumecker asked Nash the usual questions, such as "Do you hear voices?" He tried to find out whether Nash had delusions and whether they were elaborate. He watched his expressions to see whether the emotions he showed were appropriate to what he was saying, The hijacking of a Portuguese ocean liner, the Santa Maria, off Caracas that week and the subsequent efforts of the hijackers, who turned out to be anti-Salazar rebels, to obtain asylum in Brazil. It was,

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--680

seemed, very much on Nash's mind; he had his own private theory about it." The following morning, Nash's "case" was presented to the staff,

and he was interviewed in the dormitory before a group of  
A680  
residents. That was when the preliminary diagnosis was reach  
ed,  
treatment was decided upon, and he was assigned a psychiatri  
st.  
One wound up in Trenton if one had no money or insurance, or  
was  
too sick for a private institution to handle. The decision t  
o  
commit Nash to an overcrowded, underfunded, and understaffed  
state institution seems puzzling in retrospect. Alicia had a  
t  
least some insurance coverage through her position at RCA, a  
nd  
Virginia, although by now worried that her son's treatment w  
ould  
eat into her capital, was surely able to pay for some privat  
e  
care. Martha and Virginia certainly had their misgivings: "W  
e  
went down to talk to them, to beg them to put a red flag on  
the  
case and pay special attention to John. It was the only stat  
e  
hospital that John ever stayed indd"I I  
John Danskin recalled:  
I had heard he was in Trenton. I called his family and said,  
for  
God's sake, do something. I drove down to Trenton State. I w  
anted  
to find

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--681

out what the hell happened. I was shocked. It wasn't brutal  
but  
he was being treated rather roughly. The attendant kept call  
ing  
him Johnny.  
I told the people there: "This is the legendary John Nashdd"  
He  
was all right too. He gave me no sign at all of being out of  
his  
mind. I kept thinking, my God, these shrinks! Who's going to  
figure out what's wrong with a genius? I resented them."  
News that Nash had been committed to a state hospital spread  
quickly around Princeton. One person deeply disturbed by the

notion that a genius like Nash was incarcerated at a state hospital, notorious for its overcrowding and aggressive medical treatments including drugs, electroshock, and insulin coma therapy-was Robert Winters." Winters, a Harvard-trained economist who happened to be the business manager of the physics department at the time, was friendly with both Also Tucker and Don Spencer. Winters contacted Joseph Tobin, the Institute for Advanced Study's psychiatric consultant and director of the Neuro-Psychiatric Institute in Hopewell, which is a few miles from Princeton, calling him in

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--682

late January to say, "It is in the national interest that everything possible be done to bring Professor Nash back to his original productive self."

14

Tobin suggested that Winters contact Harold Magee, Trenton's medical director at the time. Winters did so and won an assurance from Magee, as he later wrote to Tobin, that "there would be a thorough study of Dr. Nash's condition before any treatment was started at the state hospital." In truth, this was too much to expect. As Seymour Krim, a beat writer in New York, wrote in 1959 in his essay "The Insanity Bit" about his own experiences in mental hospitals, that work "in a flip factory is determined by mathematics; you must find the common denominator of categorization and treatment in order to handle the battalions of miscellaneous humanity that are marched past your desk with high

ltrumpets blowing in their minds." " Very soon after that  
A682

assurance was given, or perhaps even before, Nash was transf  
erred

from Payton to Dix One, the insulin unitdd"Ehrlich, the  
psychiatrist at Princeton Hospital who had recommended Trent  
on,

was convinced that Nash would benefit from the

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--683

treatments available at Trentondd"Whether Alicia, Virginia,  
or

Martha gave explicit consent for insulin coma therapy is not  
clear. "I don't remember whether the family had to give furt  
her

permissions beyond the commitmentea"Baumecker recalled. "In  
those

days you could do just about anything without asking anybody  
dd019

Martha recalled that she was consulted: "That was a drastic  
decision. We were extra wary of anything that might affect h  
is

mental abilities. We discussed this with doctorsdd010

The insulin unit was the most elite unit within Trenton Stat  
e

Hospitaldd"The

unit had two separate wards -- one with twenty-two male beds  
, the

other with twenty-two female bedsdd21 Danskin later describe  
d it

as looking like "the inside of the Lincoln Tunnel.0"Xs chief  
had

the eye and ear of the hospital's directors. It had the most  
doctors, the best nurses, the nicest furnishings. Only patie  
nts

who were young and in good health were sent there. Patients  
on

the insulin unit had special diets, special treatment, speci  
al

recreation. "All the best of what the hospital had to offer  
was

showered on themea"said Robert Garber, who was a staff

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--684

psychiatrist at Trenton in the early 1940's and later presid  
ent

of the American Psychiatric Association. He said, "The insul  
in

patients got a hell of a lot of TLC. In the family's eyes,

insulin had great appeal. Patients' relatives were overwhelmed

For the next six weeks, five days a week, Nash endured the insulin treatments. Early in the morning, a nurse would wake him and give him an insulin injection. By the time Baumecker got to the ward at eight-thirty, Nash's blood sugar would already have dropped precipitously. He would have been drowsy, hardly aware of his surroundings, perhaps half-delirious and talking to himself. One woman used to yell, "Jump in the lake. jump in the lake," all the time. By nine-thirty or ten, Nash would be comatose, sinking deeper and deeper into unconsciousness until, at one stage, his body would become as rigid as if it were frozen solid and his fingers would be curled. At that point, a nurse would put a rubber hose through his nose and esophagus and a glucose solution would be administered. Sometimes, if necessary, this would be done intravenously. Then he would wake up, slowly and agonizingly, with nurses hovering over him. By eleven in the morning, Nash would

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--685

be conscious again. And by the late afternoon, when the whole group would walk over to occupational therapy, he would be among them, the nurses bringing along orange juice in case anyone felt faint.

Very often, during the comatose stage, patients whose blood-sugar levels dropped too far would have spontaneous seizures

comthrashing around, biting their tongues. Broken bones  
A685

were not uncommon. Sometimes patients remained in the coma.  
"We

lost one young manea"recalled Baumecker. "We'd all become ve  
ry

alarmed. We'd call in experts and do all kinds of things,  
Sometimes patients would get very hot and we'd pack them in  
iCedd016

Good, firsthand accounts of the experience are difficult to  
find,

in part because the treatment destroys large blocs of recent

memory. Nash would later describe insulin therapy as "tortur  
e,"

and he resented it for many years afterward, sometimes givin  
g as

a return address on a letter "Insulin Institute.0"A hint of  
how

unpleasant it was can be gleaned from the account of another

patient:

Breaking through the first sodden layers of consciousness ..  
. the

smell of fresh wool ... they make me come back every day, da  
y

after day, back from the nothingness. The sickness, the tast  
e of

blood in my mouth, my

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--686

tongue is raw. The gag must have slipped today. The foggy pa  
in in

my head ... this was my unbroken routine for three months ..

.  
very little of it is clear in retrospect save the agony of  
emerging from shock every day."

It's true, as Garber said, that insulin patients were coddle  
d

compared to others

at Trenton. Insulin patients got richer and more varied food

.  
They got special desserts. They had ice cream every night at

bedtime. Most had ground privileges and permission to go out  
on

weekend visits. All the patients gained weight. That was  
considered a good sign. The doctors on the ward were proud t  
hat

their patients were in good physical health. "People would p  
ut on

a lot of weight because of the insulinea"recalled Baumecker.

"The low blood sugar would make it necessary to give them a lot of sugar and the sugar had a lot of calories. For some of these

spindly, skinny schizophrenics it wasn't such a bad thingdd019

But patients often hated it. Nash's subsequent obsession with his

diet and weight may well have stemmed from this experience of

being "force-fed."

Treating schizophrenic patients with insulin coma was the idea of

Manfred Sackel, a Viennese

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--687

physician who thought of it during the 1920's and used it on psychotic patients, especially ones with schizophrenia, in the

mid-1930'sdd10 His notion was that if the brain were deprived of

sugar, which is what keeps it going, the cells that were functioning marginally would die. It would be like radiation

treatments for cancer. Some practitioners who used it in the

1950's, when the first effective antipsychotic drugs became available, took the view that insulin shock was more effective

than antipsychotics, especially with regard to delusional thinkingdd"No one understood the mechanism, but two large-scale

studies in the late

1930's found that insulin-treated patients had better and more

lasting outcomes than untreated individuals, but evidence for

insulin's efficacy was hardly overwhelming."

It was in any case riskier and far more involved than  
A687

electroshock, and by  
1960, insulin shock therapy had been phased out by most hospitals

as too dangerous and expensive when compared with electroshock.

The conclusion was that insulin wasn't worth the investment of  
time and money or the risks.

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--688

The treatments produced at least temporary improvement in many

patients, according to Garber:

They'd see everybody hovering over them, very concerned about

them, a feeling of loving camaraderie. I always thought that  
was

very therapeutic. For the first time, somebody cared. Patients

became more outgoing, more active. They got to go out on weekend

visits. They got ground privileges. I think it helped. Patients

were brighter, more alert, more conversational." While Nash  
later

blamed the treatments for large gaps in his memory, he also

told his cousin Richard Nash, whom he visited in San Francisco in

1967, that "I didn't get better until the money ran out and I

went to a public hospital."

As dangerous and agonizing as it was, insulin was one of the  
few

treatments available for serious illnesses like schizophrenia

which, until the middle of the century, often meant lifelong

incarceration. And, like other state hospitals, Trenton was  
a

laboratory for every "cure" that came along. Before the war, Garber

recounted:

(We] treated all patients with the tools that were available

Colonic irrigation was still used. So was

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--689

fever therapy. We had a strain of malaria that we would inoc

ulate  
patients with. Later on we used a typhoid strain. We'd inject  
t a  
typhoid vaccine and within hours patients would experience  
nausea, vomiting, diarrhea and fevers of  
104 to 105.  
We'd do that for eight or ten weeks, two or three days a week. We  
did it to take the starch out of disturbed patients.  
At Trenton the first order of the day, when I arrived at the

hospital supervisor's office at 8 A.M.  
was to see who could be moved out of seclusion to make room  
for  
another eight to fifteen patients who needed to be secluded.  
[The  
rooms] were ten by twelve, lined with glazed tiles, with ter  
razzo  
floors. There was a toilet and a sink and a drain in the middle  
of the floor so that if a patient, say, smeared feces around  
the  
room, we could hose it down.  
You would do anything to give yourself a handle to bring the

patient under control."  
After six weeks, Nash, whose insulin treatments were judged  
to be  
effective, was transferred to Ward

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--690  
Six, the so-called rehab or parole warddd" There was group therapy  
every day, some recreation, and occupational therapy. "This  
was  
the cream of the patient crop" Baumecker recalled. "There were  
only about fifteen beds. Other wards had thirty patients per  
room. Patients got individual attention, went on trips, and  
were  
allowed to go home on visits." "

Nash actually began to work on a paper on fluid dynamics

A690

while he was on Ward Six. Baumecker recalled, "The patients made

fun of him because he was always so up in the clouds.

'Professor,' one of them said on one occasion, 'let me show you

how one uses a broom! "19 Alicia visited Nash every week. On ce be

was allowed out on passes, she took him to her folk-dancing group

and out to Swifts Colonial Dinerdd40 It was the highlight of

Nash's week. He seemed to be in remission, clearly no longer

a

threat to himself or others. Baumecker recommended him for discharge, pointing out that, contrary to the popular belief

, "We

had to discharge people as fast as we could to get the censu s

downdd041 He was discharged on July 15, a month after his thirty-third birthdaydd41 A few months after Nash got out,

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--691

Baumecker called the Institute for Advanced Study and asked to

speak to Oppenheimer about whether Nash was now sane, Oppenheimer

replied, "That's something no one on earth can tell you, doctordd041

41 An Interlude of Enforced Rationality

July 1961 comApril 1963

"en I had been long enough hospitalized... I wouldfinally renounce my delusional hypotheses and revert to thinking ofm yfas

a human of more conventional circumstances. comJOHN NA-SH, N obel

autobiography, 1995

AMAN

EXPERIENCING a remission of a physical illness may feel a renewed

sense of vitality and delight in resuming his old activities . But

someone who has spent months and years feeling privy to cosm ic,

even divine, insights, and now feels such insights are no lo nger

his to enjoy, is bound to have a very different reaction. Fo r

Nash, the recovery of his everyday rational thought processe s

produced a sense of diminution and loss. The growing relevance and clarity of his thinking, which his doctor, wife, and colleagues hailed as an improvement, struck him as a deterioration. In his

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--692

autobiographical essay, written after he won the Nobel, Nash

writes that "rational thought imposes a limit on a person's concept of his relation to the COSMOS." He refers to remissions

not as joyful returns to a healthy state but as "interludes, as

it were, of enforced rationality." His regretful tone brings to

mind the words of Lawrence, a young man with schizophrenia, who

invented a theory of

11 psychomathematics"and told Rutgers psychologist Louis Sass:

"People kept thinking I was regaining my brilliance, but what I

was really doing was retreating to simpler and simpler levels of

thought."

It is possible, naturally, that Nash's feeling reflected an actual dulling of his cognitive capacities relative not just to

his exalted states, but to his abilities before the onset of his

psychosis. The consciousness of how much his circumstances in

life, not to mention his prospects, were altered compounded his

distress. At thirtythree, he was out of work, branded as a former

mental patient, and dependent on the kindness of former

colleagues. Excerpts from a letter to Donald Spencer

A692

written around the time of Nash's release from Trenton on

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--693

July 15 suggest how modest Nash's view of reality had become  
:

In my situation and anticipated situation a fellowship ... with  
the idea being that I am expected to be doing research work  
and

studies, etc. seems a better prospect ... than a standard  
academic teaching position. For one thing, much of the  
conceivable worry over ... the implications of my having been  
in

a state mental hospital would be thereby by-passed

With the help of Spencer, who was on the Princeton faculty,  
and

several members of the permanent mathematics faculty at the  
Institute for Advanced Study-Armand Borel, Atle Selberg, Marston

Morse, and Deane Montgomery-a one-year research appointment  
at

the institute was arranged. Oppenheimer found six thousand  
dollars of National Science Foundation money to support Nash

Nash's application, dated July 19, 1961, stated that he wished to

"continue the study of partial differential equations"and  
mentioned "other research interests, some related to my earlier

work as well."

In late July, Alicia's mother brought John Charles, a big,  
handsome two-year-old,

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--694

to Princeton. Nash called the reunion "a big occasion for me

since I haven't seen our little boy all during 1961. Then  
, at

the beginning of August, Nash attended a mathematics conference

in Colorado where he ran into a number of old acquaintances  
and

went on a day-long excursion with Spencer, an enthusiastic  
mountaineer, to climb Pike's Peak

Nash and Alicia were living together once more, but not  
especially happily. The turbulence of the two previous years  
had

produced an accumulation of hurts and resentments, and the  
resulting coldness lingered and was exacerbated by new conflict

icts

over money, childrearing, and other issues of daily living.

None

of this was made easier by the fact that Nash's in-laws now lived

with them. Carlos Larde's health had deteriorated markedly, and

he and his wife Alicia moved to Princeton that fall. The two

couples shared a house at 137 Spruce Streetdd10 It was a great

help that Mrs. Larde cared for Johnny while Alicia went to work,

but living together created another layer of strain, especially

for Alicia.

They tried to make the best of it. Nash attempted to care for his

son, picking him up at nursery

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--695

school and the like. They socialized with the Nelsons, the Milnors, and a few others. Once or twice, they drove up to Massachusetts to visit John and Odette Danskin, who had moved

there the previous fall, and to see John Stier." The visits were

rather fraught and Eleanor used to call John Danskin afterward to

complain about Nash. On one visit, apparently, Nash had come with

a bag of doughnuts. "Eleanor kept saying, `How cheap!` "Odette

recalled."

In early October, Nash attended a most historic conference in

Princetondd"The conference, organized by Oskar Morgenstern, and

attended by virtually the entire game-theory community,  
A695

amounted to a celebration of cooperative theory. There  
An Interlude of Enforced Rationality  
297

was little mention of noncooperative games or bargaining. But

John Harsanyi, a Hungarian, Reinhard Selten, a German, and John  
Nash, dressed in odd mismatched clothing, mostly silent, were all  
there.

14  
This was the first time these three men had met, and they would  
not meet again until they traveled to Stockholm a

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--696

quarter of a century later to accept Nobel Prizes. Harsanyi  
remembers asking one of the Princeton people why Nash said so

little during the sessions. The answer, Harsanyi recalled, in a  
conversation in Jerusalem in 1995, was "He was afraid he would  
say something strange and humiliate himself."

15  
Nash was able to work again, something he had not been able  
to do  
for nearly three years. He turned once more to the mathematical  
analysis of the motion of fluids and certain types of nonlinear  
partial differential equations that can be used as models for  
such flows. He finished his paper on fluid dynamics, begun while  
he was in Trenton State hospital. It was titled "Le Problème de

Cauchy Pour Les Equations Differentielles d'une Fluide  
Générale" and published in 1962 in a French mathematical  
journal.

17  
The paper, which Nash and others have described as "quite a  
respectable piece of work" and which the Encyclopedic  
Dictionary of Mathematics  
called "basic and noteworthy" eventually inspired a good deal  
of  
subsequent work on the so-called

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--697

"Cauchy problem for the general Navier-Stokes equations." In the paper, Nash was able to prove the existence of unique regular solutions in local time. 19

"After Nash's hospitalization he came out and seemed O.K." At Selberg recalled. "It was good for him to be at the IAS. Not everybody on the Princeton faculty was very friendly. It's true that he didn't speak. He wrote everything on blackboards. He was perfectly articulate in writing. He gave a lecture on Navier-Stokes equations which concern hydrodynamics and partial differential equations something I don't know much about. He seemed fairly normal for a while. 10

He was most at ease in one-on-one encounters where his sense of humor came to his aid. Gillian Richardson, who was on the staff of the institute's computer center from 1959 to 1962, recalled eating lunch with Nash in the institute dining hall and Nash's saying all sorts of dry, wry things about psychiatrists. One time he asked, "Do you know a good psychiatrist in Princeton?"- adding that his own psychiatrist "sat on a throne way above him, and he wondered if I knew one who didn't

share that peculiaritydd"I I

698

Nash showed up in French 105, the third-semester French course at

the university, one day and asked Karl Uitti if he could audit

it. He struck the French professor as "the typically dreamy and

out-to-lunch mathematician." Nash attended quite regularly and

kept up with the work. He seemed less interested in picking up

conversational "tourist French" than in acquiring "a sense of

French structure;" Uitti recalled, adding, "He was quite pro-French. He liked the language and the people." Uitti and

Nash

became rather friendly and met outside class, and on a number of

occasions with Alicia. At some point, Uitti asked Nash why he was

learning French. Nash answered that he was writing a mathematical

paper. "There was only one person in the world who would be able

to understand it and that person was French. He wanted,

therefore, to write the paper in French." Uitti said. Uitti could

not recall Nash's intended audience; chances are it was either

Leray, who was at the institute that year, or Grothendieck.

After

the paper was published, Nash gave it to another member of the

Institute to read. The next time he saw the man, Nash asked him,

"Did you detect the sexual overtones?" Uitti

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--699

commented in 1997:

That was the time that de Gaulle was in power and strong pressure

was being exerted on French scientists to deliver their papers in

French. Nash always struck me as very well-bred, very courteous.

I'm certain that there was in his mind a sense of respect for

whomever he was writing the paper for. It was sweet of him and I

liked him for

xdd14

Nash asked Jean-Pierre Cauvin to edit a draft of the paper. Cauvin, who was doing quite a bit of translation work at

the time, recalled Nash's telling him that "Paris was the center

for this kind of mathematics." Nash also turned to a French undergraduate, Hubert Goldschmidt, for help.

Nash had not given up the idea of returning to France. He submitted the Cauchy paper to the Bulletin de la Soci t  Math matique de France

on January 19. He was, Cauvin thought, more withdrawn and subdued

than ever, and in retrospect it is clear that he was thinking a

great deal about leaving Princeton. Very likely, he got in touch

with Grothendieck at the Institut des Hautes

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--700

9mentudes Scientifiques. In April Oppenheimer wrote to Leon Motchane, director of the IHES, to ask Motchane to formally invite Nash to spend the first half of the academic year 1963-64

there. Oppenheimer also asked Leray, who was at the institute

that year, to see if he could provide a grant from the Centre de

la Recherches Nationale Scientifiques for the second half of the

year." At the same time, he noted that Nash would have been welcome to continue at the Institute for a second year: "If [Nash] asked to stay here for the autumn, I think that my colleagues would probably accede; but that is not his choice."

Nash did not suggest that Alicia go with him to France, and this

time Alicia did not try to dissuade him. Nor did she offer to go.

It was clear that, by some mutual and unspoken agreement,  
A700

the marriage was over and they were going to go their separate  
ways.

That winter, Nash spent more and more time in the Fine Hall  
common room, usually showing up at teatime and staying until

evening. "He wore baggy, rumped An Interlude of Enforced  
Rationality

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clothes"Stefan Burr, then a graduate

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--701

student, recalled. "He didn't seem at all aggressive. In some

ways his manner was not that different from a lot of  
mathematicians`dis019 For a while, Burr and Nash were playing

endless games of Hex. The board in Fine had been drawn years

before on heavy cardboard and was so worn that the lines had

constantly to be redrawn with a ballpoint pen.

He was beginning to seem less well again. Borel recalled, "He

was not quite right. He seemed to me very diminished. His mathematics

was not at the same level. I found him odd, unpredictable,  
nonsensical. It was very painful. The secretaries were afraid of

him. He was someone to avoid. You never knew what he would do or  
say." "

One time the Borels had Alicia and Nash over for tea. "We served

tea and cookies" said Borel. "Nash went into the kitchen. I

followed him. `What do you want?` I asked. `Well, I'd like some

salt and pepper.`" Gaby Borel added: "After he put salt and  
pepper in his tea, he complained that the tea tasted awful."

"During the spring, his state of mind had become more angry and

restless, and he was beginning again to harp on his old  
obsessions. He decided, rather suddenly,

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--702

to travel to the West Coast, where he saw, among others, Al  
o

Vasquez, who had graduated from MIT and was now a graduate student at Berkeley, Lloyd Shapley, and A] Tucker's former wife,

Alice Beckenback, and her new husband. Vasquez recalled:

I just walked into the common room [at Berkeley] and he was there. He was as surprised to see me as I was to see him. He

didn't announce his visits in advance. I had no idea where he was

staying. But he was around for more than just a day or two.

He

hadn't been looking for me. I had the impression that he'd been

in Europe, the East Coast, and that he was traveling around.

He

talked a lot. He quite explicitly talked about [insulin] shock

therapy. He described shock therapy as extremely painful. He also

said he was taken back from Europe on a ship and in chains.

Slavery was a word he used a lot. He was very bitter about his

experiences.

He was pretty disoriented. He wasn't able to talk about anything

else but his obsessions. I was put off. It was odd. I never did

understand why he talked to me. He knew me. He wasn't really

trying to communicate. He wanted to talk

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--703

elusively. [Yet] it wasn't gibberish. It was even clever at times, full of puns and allusions."

Shapley, to whom Nash had written a great many letters, also

found Nash's appearance in Santa Monica distressing. "He  
A703

thought of me as a close friend. One had to put up with it.  
He

would send me postcards in colored inks. It was very sad. They

were scribbled with math and numerology, as if he were not  
expecting a reply. I was much on his mind. He had decayed in  
a

very spectacular way." Shapley recalled in 1994. "He was  
groping." Shapley remembered Nash telling him, "I  
have this problem. I think I can straighten it out if I can  
figure out which members of the Math Society did this to me."  
He

didn't stay long, Shapley said, adding:

It was a bit frightening. We had two young children. What was

clear was that there was no way to talk to him or even follow

what he was saying. He'd switch from topic to topic. It's very

hard to be a good mathematician if you can't hold a thought  
in  
your mind."

In June, Nash left for Europe. He was due to attend a conference

in Paris in the last week in June and the World Mathematical  
Congress in

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--704

Stockholm in early August. He went to London first, where he  
stayed at the Hotel Russell in Bloomsbury, which he described as

"very grand."

He got himself a private postal box and was once again writing

letters, some on toilet paper, in green ink, in French. He was

also sending drawings, including one of a prostrate figure  
pierced with arrows. One, postmarked June 14, contained a scrap

of paper with the following written on it in green ink: 2 plus 5

plus 20 plus 8 plus

12 plus 15 plus 18 plus 15 plus 13 equals 78.

The conference at the College de France in Paris was a small  
and

intimate affair, very much dominated by Leray, who was very  
excited at that time about nonlinear hyperbolic equations. E

d

Nelson, who had become quite friendly with Nash over the academic year, recalled Leray's saying that it was a scandal that there

were no global existence theorems. "The feeling he conveyed,

" Nelson said, "was that we had better get to work, or the world might come to an end at any moment."

17 Most

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--705

of the speakers gave their talks in English. Lars Hörmander, who

was also there, recalled that "1962 was very different from earlier visits

But Nash insisted on giving his lecture in what he called his

"pidgin French" He did not speak extemporaneously but read

from his notes in his very soft voice and with his very strong

American accent. Hörmander recalled: "Nash's paper was respectable mathematically. It was a surprise to all of us [that

he could have produced it at all]. For us it was like seeing

somebody rise from the grave

His behavior, however, was decidedly odd, Hörmander later said:

Malgrange, the official conference organizer, had a dinner for

the participants. At the table, Nash exchanged his plate with the

person next to him. Then he traded yet again until he was satisfied that his food wasn't poisoned. Everybody was very aware

of his bizarre behavior but nobody said a word. Malgrange  
A705

had bought a nice big jar of caviar which was being passed  
around. When the jar came to Nash, he tipped the entire  
thing  
upside down onto his plate. Everybody was very well-behaved  
and

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--706

said nothingdd41

An Interlude of Enforced Rationality

301

While Nash was still in Paris, on July 2, his father-in-law  
died

suddenlydd41 Alicia attempted, through Milnor and Danskin, t  
o

contact Nash but was not successful. Carlos Larde was buried  
in

the churchyard of St. Paul's on Nassau Street.

Nash, meanwhile, went back to London. What drew him to Londo  
n is

not clear, since his original plan had been, presumably, to  
spend

the summer, except for the congress in Stockholm, as well as  
the

following academic year, in Paris. In any event, Nash was st  
ill

in London on July 24 when he wrote to Martha from the Hotel  
Stefan on Talbot Square

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He apparently still intended to travel on to Stockholm.

Addressing her as E-me-line, Martha's middle name, he wrote  
that

he was merely passing the time, with little to do, until the

mathematical congress in Stockholm and was considering seein  
g a

psychologist or visiting some sort of clinic. Danskin recall  
ed

that someone went looking for Nash

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--707

and finally found him hanging around the Chinese embassy in  
Londond44 The head of the MIT economics department took a g  
roup

of business management people to London that summer. He sudd  
only

saw John Nash and asked him, "Where are you now" "Puzzled, Na  
sh

replied, "Where are yOU"041

The International Mathematical Congress took place in the th

ird

week of August in Stockholm<sup>46</sup> Among the plenary speakers were

Armand Borel, John Milnor, and Louis Nirenberg. The Fields Medals

were awarded to Milnor and Lars Hörmander, both of whom had been

notified in May and instructed to tell no one, leaving each to

sit on his secret while others around them speculated on the

year's likely winners.

Nash, who felt that he should have been one of those honored, did

not, however, go to Stockholm. He went to Geneva instead, returning to the Hotel Alba where he had spent his final week in

December 1959 and writing in French to Martha "chez Charles L.

Legg<sup>41</sup> The letter made it clear that he was again thinking

about the question of his identity! He drew an identity card with

Chinese characters

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--708

labeled "Des Secrets" He wrote "Could you sign this carte d'identité ... a man all alone in a strange world?" he wrote

underneath. He sent Virginia another postcard with a picture of

Geneva but mailed it from Paris.

When Nash returned to Princeton at the end of summer 1962, he was

extremely ill. A postcard addressed to Mao Tse-tung c/o Fine

Hall, Princeton, New Jersey, arrived in the mathematics

department. Nash had written only a cryptic remark in French

about triple tangent planesdd48

A708

Alicia let him move back in. He spent much of the fall at home

with John Charles watching science-fiction programs on television, like Rod Serling's *Twilight Zone*dd49

He was writing a great many letters and making many phone calls

to mathematicians in Princeton and elsewhere.

He was still obsessed with the idea of asylum. A letter to Martha

and Charlie, postmarked November 19, reads: "Maybe you will say

that I'm mad ... request to St. Paul's in Princeton for sanctuary." 10 Nash apparently walked past St. Paul's every day.

The letter referred to the

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--709

Ecumenical Council and previous letters he had written to the

pastor of St. Paul's earlier in the month. The letter ended with

a reference to "past misfortunes, especially in the fall seasondd" In contrast to his letter to Martha from London, Nash no

longer interpreted his difficulties as a sign of illness but

rather as the results of machinations by the Ecumenical Council.

By January, his letters to Martha and Charlie had become nearly

incomprehensible, the thoughts skipping from Albanians to Stalin

to "secrets can't reveal" and "wood and nails of the true crossdd" I I

Exhausted and dispirited by three years of turmoil and convinced

that Nash's condition was more or less hopeless, Alicia consulted

an attorney and instituted divorce proceedings. She had married

someone who she thought could look after her but couldn't, who

resented her bitterly, and who accused her of having malevolent

intentions. To Martha and Virginia she wrote that being married

was helping to create Nash's problems and that she felt that

being freed from the marriage would be better for him as well

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Alicia's attorney, Frank L. Scott, a genial Princeton divorce lawyer with an office

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--710

on Nassau Street, filed for a divorce the day after Christmas

1962.11 Alicia had given the formal go-ahead in a deposition a

week earlier. According to the petition, Nash was still living

with her at 137 Spruce Street. Alicia, meanwhile, temporarily

rented a separate apartment on Vandeventer Streetdd14

Alicia's formal complaint read:

On or about March 1959 it was necessary for the Plaintiff herein

to cause the defendant to be committed to a mental institution

from which the defendant was released on or about June 1959.

Despite the fact that said committal was in the best interest of

the defendant, the defendant became very resentful of the Plaintiff for causing his commitment, and declared he would no

longer live with the Plaintiff as man and wife. Consistent with

the defendant's vow not to again live with the plaintiff as her

husband, the defendant did in fact move into a separate room and

refused to have marital relations with the plaintiff. In January

1961 defendant was caused to be committed to Trenton State Hospital by his mother from which he was released in June 1961.

The defendant's resentment of his wife and insistence that they

no longer have

marital relations continued after his release from the

711

aforementioned commitment, as it had prior to said commitment,

and has continued against the wishes of the plaintiff to the present date. The time during which defendant has thus deserted

plaintiff and during which defendant was not confined to any institution but fully able to voluntarily resume marital relations, which he has not done, exceeds two years past and such

desertion has been wilful, continuous and obstinate. Moreover

defendant has failed to properly support plaintiff."

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Nash was served with a summons. Scott visited Nash the following

day. On

April 17, Scott once again talked to Nash, who, he said, had

"no

plans for changing either his residence or his occupational status." The judgment was rendered without a trial, granting

a

divorce and awarding Alicia custody of John Charles on May

1, 1963. A final judgment was rendered August 2, 1963.

There is no evidence that Nash was opposed to the divorce. While

the petition was a lawyer's

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--712

document and not necessarily true in its particulars. The Danskins, for example, maintained that Nash and Alicia never

stopped sleeping together. Nash's animosity toward Alicia was no doubt

very real. He blamed Alicia for engineering his hospitalizations,

he had threatened to divorce her while at McLean, and probably

afterward as well, and he had made plans to live in France without her. Nash's increasingly disturbed state, and rumors

of

his impending divorce, prompted a number of mathematicians to

rally around him that spring. That Nash desperately needed treatment was not a subject of controversy this time. Once again,

Donald Spencer and Albert Tucker approached Robert Winters."

James Miller, a friend of Winters from Harvard, was in the psychiatry department at the University of Michigan and was connected with a university-sponsored clinic run by Ray Waggoner. Through Miller, Winters succeeded in making a unique arrangement whereby Nash would be treated at the clinic and also have an opportunity to work as a statistician in the clinic's research program.

Tucker at Princeton and Martin at MIT decided to set up a fund to make the Michigan plan feasible

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--713

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Anatole Rappaport and Merrill Flood at the University of Michigan, Jergen Moser at NYU, Alexander Ostrowski of Westinghouse, and others committed themselves to raise funds

among mathematicians on Nash's behalf.

The Ann Arbor group felt that a stay of two years was necessary.

The cost for out-of-state patients was \$9,000 a year or \$18,000

for the entire stay. Virginia Nash offered to guarantee \$10,000

and the group of mathematicians arranged, through the American

Mathematical Society, to set up a fund-raising drive for the

remaining \$8,000. "If we are successful probably most of it will

have to come from mathematicians who have known Nash." Martin

wrote. "If anything can be done which will enable Nash to  
A713

return to mathematics, even on a very limited scale, it would  
d of

course be very fine not only for him but also for mathematic  
s

dis061

Albert E. Meder, Jr., the society's treasurer, was enthusias  
tic

about the proposal, saying that "it would seem to me that it

would be altogether appropriate for the AMS to receive  
contributions for the purposes set forth in [Martin's] lette  
r of

March

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--714

25.... I would be inclined to go ahead dis061

Nash's increasingly bizarre behavior was triggering complain  
ts,

including some at the Institute for Advanced Study. Mostly t  
hese

had to do with Nash's writing mysterious messages on the  
institute blackboards and making annoying telephone calls to

various members. But one day the switchboard operators, who  
sat in an office immediately as one entered Fuld Hall, were  
all

abuzz because each person who was coming through the door wa  
s

being doused with water. The institute's dining hall was the  
n on

the fourth floor of Fuld, and it turned out, upon investigat  
ion,

that Nash had been pouring water from the window above the m  
ain

doordd64

It was Donald Spencer, a man who could not stand to see anyo  
ne in

trouble without intervening, who was elected to try to convi  
nce

Nash to accept the Michigan offer and enter the clinic

voluntarilydd61 Spencer chose, as he usually did, a bar as h  
is

venue. He invited Nash for some beers in Nassau Tavern, wher  
e

Nash had once celebrated passing his generals. They sat in t  
he

booth for hours, Spencer downing warm martinis, Nash nursing  
a

single beer. Spencer talked and

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--715

talked; Nash appeared to be listening but said very little except to remark, at various intervals, that he wasn't interested in doing statistical work. It was no use. Nash didn't believe that he was ill, and he wasn't prepared to enter another hospital.

Years later, Winters wept when he recounted the story: I thought I had worked out a perfect solution to a most unusual problem. I thought I could save a very worthwhile person. I'm very emotionally tied to this. I thought I was doing something really wonderful.

Jim Miller told me

never let Nash get shock treatments. It takes the edge of genius off.

Somebody sent him to Carrier, where they gave him shock treatments [sic], and I think

it turned him into a zombie for many years. I consider that one of the worst failures of my life. When I look at the human race all over the world I think there's zero reason for humanity to survive. We're destructive, uncaring, thoughtless, greedy, powerful, hungry. But when I look at a few individuals, there seems every reason for

humanity to survive. He was worth doing the very best

716

fordd66

Meanwhile, Alicia, Virginia, and Martha had agreed among themselves that Nash would have to be committed involuntarily.

This time they chose a private clinic near Princeton. Martha

wrote to Spencer:

The only reason it has not been done before now is that my mother

and I are waiting to hear from Alicia when she has arrangements

made.... We really had thought we would do this in March.

We were very hopeful that we could persuade John to go to the

University of Michigan and take advantage of the opportunities

for research and treatment there. Unfortunately John will not

agree that he needs treatment. Since we feel that something must

be done for him, we have placed him in Carrier....

He was simply not going to enter ANY hospital voluntarily. Once

we were convinced of this we had no choice but to commit him to a

hospital in New Jerseydd67

Princeton and Carrier Clinic, 1963-65

TE

CARRIER CLINIC,

formerly a sanatorium for the senile and retarded, was

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--717

one of only two private mental hospitals in New Jersey. Located

in the picturesque hamlet of Belle Meade, amidst rolling hills

and lush farmland, Carrier was just five miles north of

Princeton. Despite its easy proximity, however, it was generally

avoided by Princetonians. As Robert Garber, a former president of

the American Psychiatric Association who was Carrier's medical

director at the time, recalled: "They didn't want to be in a

psychiatric facility close to home. It was a disgrace, a terrible

stigma, nothing like today. The idea was to get as far away as

as

possibled" Princetonians regarded Carrier, which had the look

of a slightly seedy boarding school, with some distaste for another reason as well. Carrier had none of the prestige of top-of-the-line institutions like McLean, Austin Riggs, or Chestnut Lodge, whose academic affiliations, psychoanalytical

orientation, and long-term approaches based on the "talking cure"

were regarded, especially by academics, as more humane and appropriate, especially for the well-educated. Popular views of

psychiatry were being shaped by

One Flew Over the Cuckoo Nest, I Never

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--718

Promised You a Rose Garden,

and the libertarian views of Thomas Szasz, who held that insanity

was a social construct rather than a symptom of disease. At the

time when these views were gaining popularity, especially on

campuses, Carrier had a reputation for the aggressive use of

"chemical straitjackets" and electroshock, and short-term cookie-cutter approaches tailored to the time limits set by insurance policies.

The Carrier staff, well aware of such attitudes, defended itself

by arguing that its approach was more practical and worked better. "McLean, Austin Riggs, Chestnut Lodge, Shepherd Pratt,

and Institute for Living, these were all much fancier," said

William Otis, a psychiatrist on Carrier's staff. "We were  
A718  
very clinical. None of us had any fancy training. None of us  
were  
stars. But the ironic thing is that if you were sick you wer  
e  
much better off at Carrierdd"I Garber said: "At Carrier we w  
ere  
proud of the fact that we set ourselves up as a short-term  
treatment center. That's why we were so successful. We were  
able  
to treat the patients and get them out, in contrast to McLea  
n and  
Chestnut Lodge, which were notorious for having schizophreni  
c  
patients there for four, five, and seven yearsdd0bled

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--719

It was Alicia who, despite the impending divorce, felt  
responsible for Nash, and therefore had to face the decision  
. ` It  
took a great deal of courage, as anyone who has had to make  
such  
a decision knows. As one psychiatrist at Carrier said,  
"Commitments always created terrible conflicts in the family  
. It  
was very hard to find somebody who wanted to take the  
responsibilitydd06 Alicia, like everyone else around Nash,  
abhorred the idea of involuntary commitment and feared that  
treatment, besides being uncertain of success, carried the r  
isks  
of irreparable harm, But she also knew that Nash was on a  
disastrous course and was convinced that failure to act woul  
d  
almost certainly lead to further deterioration. The  
psychoanalysts at McLean had failed, the effects of the shoc  
k  
treatments at Trenton had proved short-lived. She was prepar  
ed to  
try something new. She recognized that the most prestigious  
hospitals were unaffordable. At Carrier, patients' families  
paid  
a flat fee of eighty dollars a day plus hourly fees for grou  
p and  
individual therapy; Virginia was able to pay that. Besides,  
it  
was important to Alicia that Nash be close by, so that she a  
nd  
his old acquaintances at Princeton could visit him.

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--720

So in the third week of April, after it had become all too clear

that Nash was unprepared to enter treatment at Michigan, she went

ahead with arrangements to have Nash taken to Carrier. Once again, she asked Martha and Virginia to come up to Princeton and

sign the commitment papers.

From the outset, however, Alicia drew the line at electroshock

"We debated electroshock therapy," Martha recalled. "But we didn't want to mess with his memory,

At Carrier, electroshock was frequently used for schizophrenic

patients, who generally got three times as many treatments --

twenty-five versus eight -- as patients suffering from depression." Garber said, "What we were trying to do was to gain

control of that patient -- to break through his excitement, panic, depression -- in the shortest possible time." 10

Generally, psychotic patients were initially treated with Thorazine, and those whose disturbed behavior didn't improve

quickly were also treated with electroshock. Some of the psychiatrists at Carrier felt that the shock treatments were

effective and produced fewer side effects than neuroleptic drugs.

In any case, despite the nearly universal belief around Princeton

that

Nash received electroshock treatments at Carrier, he  
721

apparently did not.

Nash spent most of the next five months of 1963 in Kindred One,

the only locked ward at Carrier. He said later that he made efforts to overturn his commitment; if so, they were not successful. Frank L. Scott recalled that Nash went AWOL from

Carrier at least once --

presumably after he got ground privileges --

and that he had to track him down and return him to the hospital."

Compared to Trenton, however, Carrier was, if no country club, at

least more like a reform school than a prison. There were just

eighty patients, the majority of whom came from comfortable middle-class homes, many from New York and

Philadelphia, and most of whom suffered from alcoholism, drug

addiction, and depression rather than from psychotic illnesses."

Carrier had a dozen psychiatrists on its staff, a more adequate

nursing staff than at Trenton, and a reasonable complement of

medical doctors, psychologists, and social workers.

Kindred One had single and double rooms. Nash, it seems, had a

room to himself. He had access to a

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--722

telephone. He was allowed to wear his own clothing. Patients were

addressed by their titles and last names, so he was Dr. Nash, not

Johnny as he was at Trenton. Nash's wishes regarding his vegetarianism comwh "doesn't exclude animal products, for

example, milk, but only the animal products which become available only at the death (execution of the animal)"-were

apparently respected." Alicia visited regularly, as did a number

of others from Princeton, among them Spencer, Tucker, and the

Borelsdd14

Probably the best thing that happened to Nash at Carrier was that

he met a psychiatrist, Howard S. Mele, who was to play an important and positive role in his life for the next two

yearsdd"The psychiatrist, who happened to be on duty the nig

ht

that Nash was brought to Carrier, was assigned to care for him. A

short, soft-spoken, dapper man of Italian descent who got his

medical degree at Long Island College of Medicine and did his

residency at Mt. Sinai Hospital in New York City, Mele was quiet

and careful. Described by his former colleagues as

disciplined, cautious, and an exciting man," Mele was, as

later events

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--723

showed, competent and caring. He was respected by the nursing

staff. Belle Parmet, the institute's social worker at the time,

said of Mele and the other staff psychiatrists: "They weren't

just pill pushers or prescription writers. They were all humanistic."

Nash responded quite quickly to his initial treatment with Thorazine. If someone responds at all to what are now called

"typical" neuroleptics, dramatic changes are usually evident

within a week, and the full effect becomes apparent within six

weeks. Two weeks after his commitment, Nash wrote a relatively

lucid letter to Norbert Wiener, saying, among other things, "My

problems seem to be essentially problems of

A723

communications. I don't know how they can be resolved. Perhaps I

shall be able to approach their solution as a result of begging

for aid. (However, this isn't a begging letter!gg011 At this

point, Nash was seeing Mele for therapy sessions and also participating in group therapy, which Mele particularly favoreddd10 There was, however, no thought of releasing him quickly. As Garber said, "Paranoid schizophrenics are not th at

responsive. Once you do get them under control, you have to satisfy yourself that they've stabilized. You

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--724

don't want a relapse, especially if there's been a commitment

because then you and the family would have to start all over ."

By August, Nash was beginning to look forward to getting out of

Carrier. He wrote to Virginia that he was anticipating Alicia's

visit on the weekend and was "thinking of getting out.0" He added

that "Mele thinks it depends on having a

jobdd"Nash admitted that he was ill and in need of treatment but

said that "Michigan might have been a better dealdd" He asked

Milnor for help in getting a job. On September 24, Nash wrote

again saying that Sunday was "a sad day" because Alicia had to

work overtime and couldn't come to take him out. He said that the

Institute for Advanced Study had decided to offer him a

position." A week later, upbeat again, he wrote that he was thinking of buying a car and that there were "good projects

for a reconciliation"with Alicia."

It is a discouraging but well-documented fact that people who

suffer from schizophrenia face an extremely high risk of suicide,

comparable to those who suffer from severe depressions and one

hundred times that of the general populationdd14 This risk is

s

greatest not when the person is sickest, but shortly after a course of

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--725

treatment has been declared a success. Though no one else can truly know the state of mind that leads someone to take his life, one can imagine that this is a time when the absence of delusions allows other feelings, including very painful ones, to emerge and that hopes that one has been nurturing for months collide with harsh reality.

Louisa Cauvin, who married Jean-Pierre Cauvin in the summer of 1963, has a haunting memory, which likely dates from that summer, the only time she ever talked with Nash." They met at a party.

(Presumably he was home from Carrier on a pass.) Nash told Louisa that he didn't feel life was worth living and saw no reason why he should not do away with himself. There is no evidence to show that Nash ever came close to acting on this thought. But he was certainly depressed. His hope for a reconciliation with Alicia, for example, proved overly optimistic. Alicia insisted that Nash live apart from her and Johnny (as John Charles was now called), so, instead of moving back to Spruce Street, Nash found himself in a rented room at 142 Mercer Street, a few doors down from the house occupied by Einstein during his Princeton years.

Once again, Borel and Selberg had arranged a one-year

726

membership at the Institute for Advanced Study, although this

time they did so with less hope.<sup>16</sup> The 1963-

64 membership was probably a rescue mission. Borel later said,

"All members are voted by the whole school of people, I did the

legwork. It was only to present the case to my

colleagues.<sup>17</sup> Oppenheimer decided this time to use the Institute's

own funds, saying in a note to Selberg, "This enterprise seems to

me not too suitable for contract funding" implying that, in

contrast to the previous 1961-62 appointment, this one was more

clearly a charitable exercise

.<sup>21</sup>

Meanwhile, Nash's old friends outside Princeton had not lost

interest in his progress. A letter from David Gale to Deane

Montgomery at the Institute, with copies to Milnor and

Morgenstern, gives a flavor of the level of interest in and concern about Nash's situation:

We got onto the subject of John Nash and wondered what his present situation was, in particular with regard to his state of

his mind. It turned out that none of us knew what was going on

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--727

medically nor did we know of any one else who knew. We had all

heard rumors varying from "the doctors say there is no hope" to

"he's doing mathematics again."

The thing that disturbed us was not our own lack of knowledge

about Nash's condition but the thought that perhaps everyone in

the mathematical community was in the same position we were and

that consequently Nash might not be getting the best possible

medical attention. It is certainly true that the mathematical

community has provided fellowships and jobs of various sorts for

Nash whenever he has needed them. This is as much as we should be

expected to do, provided some other competent, informed and adequately endowed person or persons are looking after the medical situation. Since Nash is now at the Institute, I thought

you might be in a position to know whether such a person exists

and to reassure us that everything that can be done is being

taken care of. If it should turn out that for lack of money, for

instance, Nash was not getting the care he ought to have, I'm

confident that we could get together a friends of Nash group to

see what could be done about

xdd19

To come out, to go through the motions of starting over, to see

one's old friends and colleagues again was not easy.

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--728

Nash stayed out of sight at the Institute. Few of that year's

visitors recalled seeing him there. He complained in the fall of

"feeling lonely" He and Alicia still attended parties together, but she resisted any idea of their resuming their marriage. She was having difficulties at her job and found her

son hard to handle. But when her mother took John Charles to El

Salvador for several months that winter, she missed him terribly.

Nash tried to be sympathetic, writing in March that "Alicia is

seeing a psychiatrist. She is very depressed. She was crying

dd"I

I

Yet he also said that he was "learning new things"and

A728

then, in December, that Selberg was trying to arrange visiting

positions for him either at MIT or Berkeley." He continued t

o

hope for a reconciliation; he and Alicia continued to socialize

as a couple. Nash seemed, as the fall unfolded, to be in far

better shape than he had been during his previous interlude

at

the Institute. As he said in his Madrid lecture, he "had an idea

which is referred to as Nash Blowing UP which I discussed with an

eminent mathematician named Hironakadd011 (Hironaka eventually

wrote the conjecture Upddgg14 William

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--729

Browder, who was also visiting at the Institute that year, recalled: "Nash was working on real algebraic varieties. Nobody

else had been thinking about these problems."

During the winter, Milnor, by now chairman of the department

, comand his colleagues became greatly impressed by "some extremely

interesting ideas [of Nash's] in algebraic geometry." The new

work sparked a wave of optimism and renewed a desire to help

Nash. There was a growing feeling, both at the institute and at

the university, that Nash might well be able to resume his interrupted career. Milnor decided to offer Nash a one-year post

as research mathematician and lecturer. In April 1964, Milnor

tentatively proposed that Nash teach one course the following

fall and perhaps two in the spring."

Milnor consulted Nash's psychiatrist, Howard Mele, who confirmed

on March

30 that Nash was seeing him regularly for psychotherapy, noting

that this was the first time that Nash had agreed to seek outpatient treatment since the onset of his

illneSSDD31

Garber recalled: "[Mele] tried to keep him

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--730

on medication. He also helped Nash initiate relationships with other people. In my experience, positive relationships plus medication does wonders. 'Someone likes me': that's an experience that's almost impossible for a schizophrenic to have. Mele felt that Nash's recovery was permanent and that he could handle one or two courses without difficulty during the next academic year. He went on to say: "I cannot guarantee his future mental health (any more than I could my own or that of anyone else), but I do feel strongly that a recurrence is unlikely in his case."

40

Dean of Faculty Douglas Brown wrote to President Goheen, saying, "This is a special situation" adding that Nash "is now recovered.... He needs a chance to get back into teaching gradually and to re-establish his status." Brown said that the mathematics department unanimously supported the proposal. "I am strongly inclined to go along. It is a part of our job, I feel, in putting one of our most brilliant Ph.D.s back into top productivity." The appointment was made officially

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--731

on May  
1.41

Sadly, just when things looked brightest, and despite all  
A731

of Nash's hard work, Mele's support, and the outpouring of  
goodwill on the part of colleagues and the university, another

storm was gathering. As early as February, Nash began complaining

of sleeplessness and of his "mind [being] filled with the thought

of performing imaginary computations of a meaningless  
Sortdd041

A comment, made in early March, that he had "avoided falling  
back

into delusions" suggests that Nash was already being besieged  
by

such thoughts." And by the end of that month, Nash, who said  
he

still hoped for a reconciliation with Alicia, mentioned that  
he

felt he might have to leave Princetondd45

By the time the Princeton job was offered, Nash was already  
convinced that he ought to return to France, clear evidence  
that

he was nowhere near as well as his behavior suggesteddd41 His

letters home were sufficiently strange to alarm Martha, who  
contacted Meledd47

Mele was at first reassuring; he wrote back that Nash was no

longer taking medication, but that Nash was still in therapy  
and

that the therapy seemed to be working

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--732

Welldd411 Nash also wrote reassuringly, apparently in reply  
to

questions from an anxious Virginia, that he was still seeing

Meleddbled' But around that time, Nash paid an unexpected call on

his former French professor Karl Uitti. He appeared "rather  
anxiousea"Uitti recalled. "He said, 'I'm interested in getting

the addresses of Jean Cocteau and Andr6 Gide. I have to write

them letters.` I gently informed him that both Gide and Cocteau

were dead and

that writing letters to them would be impossible. Nash was very,

very disappointedddd010

By May, Nash was complaining that he was having trouble working:

"I have some ideas but many of them don't seem to work out."  
"

Nash had apparently been in touch with Grothendieck once more.

Grothendieck evidently responded with an invitation to the IHES

for the following year. At the beginning of the summer, Nash

wrote to a colleague in Europe, saying that he wished to spend

the following year in France rather than stay in Princeton and

accept the university's offer."

Nash complained of finding himself in a "troubled situation saying that he had difficulty when he tried to work on mathematics, and also that his relations with various

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--733

faculty and students at the university were troubled as well. It

is not clear to whom or what he was referring-the job offer from

the mathematics department had been supported unanimously by

Milnor and the rest of the faculty and Nash's contacts with students were presumably limited to the Fine Hall common room. He

wrote that he expected something to change by June 1, but that he

wasn't certain of that, adding: "Si ma situation reste essentiellement la meme comme c'est de maintenant (If my situation remains essentially the same as it is now), drawing a

circle in the middle of the page accompanied by the parenthetical

remark, "(Ici-compris ma situation de famille, etc., etc.)"

(Including my family situation). He went on, "Et si je  
A733

peux travailler effectivement aux mathématiques par lence te  
mps

de l'automne, je pense que je devrais accepter l'offre de  
Grothendieck plutôt que l'offre de l'Université, s'il po  
urra

encore me donner cet offre d'emploi. And if I can work  
effectively at mathematics by the fall, I think I should acc  
ept

Grothendieck's offer over the offer from the university, if  
he

will still extend me this offer of

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--734

employment).

As far as the institute knew, Nash was planning to spend the

entire summer at Fuld Hall, with the exception of about thre  
e

weeks, before going to France in the fall. On May 24, in res  
ponse

to a note from Oppenheimer granting him funds for the summer

"with the understanding that you will remain at the Institut  
e

during the summer;` Nash wrote that he planned to be away fr  
om

June 22 through July

19 at a conference in Woods Hole on Cape Cod, organized by J  
ohn

Tate, on the theory of singularities, classifications of sur  
faces

and modules, Grothendieck cohomology, zeta-functions, and  
arithmetic of Abelian varieties." According to Tate and othe  
r

participants, Nash never went to the conference. Instead,  
he

went to Europe.

He sailed on the

Queen Mary,

stopped briefly in London, and went to Paris. "There he trie  
d to

get in touch with Grothendieck, who evidently wasn't in town  
at that time.

After hanging around a few more days, Nash flew to Rome. He  
was,

as he later said, thinking of himself as a "great but secret

religious  
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--735

figure.0"Th may have  
accounted for his desire to be in Rome, where, as he later s  
aid,

he visited "the Forum and the catacombs but avoided the  
Vaticandd018 The Pope was, in any case, not in Rome at the t  
ime.

He was standing in front of the Forum when he began to hear  
voices "like telepathic phone calls from private individuals  
dd019

They seemed to him, at the time, he said in Madrid in 1996,  
to be

the voices of "mathematicians opposed to my ideas." He wrote  
in a

letter later in the  
1960's:

"I observed the local Romans show a considerable interest in  
getting into telephone booths and talking on the telephone a  
nd

one of their favorite words was pronto. So ifs like ping-pon  
g,

pinging back again the bell pinged to  
medd060

Something odd was happening, he concluded. Harold Kuhn later  
said, "The stream of words was obviously being fed into a ce  
ntral

machine where they were translated into English. The machine  
inserted the words, now in English, into his brain.""

Nash, however, did send a postcard from Rome, dated Septembe  
r 1,  
saying that he was returning

to Paris and that he had attempted to contact Grothendieck  
736

and other mathematicians. He said he would be staying at  
the

Grand H6mentel de Mont Blanc, where he and Alicia had stayed  
five

years earlier. Two days later, he was back in Paris, but had  
not

yet managed to see Grothendieck, who was apparently away. T  
he

staff at the IHES "suggested contacting Jean-Pierre Serre." T  
b

Serre does not remember Nash's ever getting in touch with hm  
dd64

Nash's next postcard home was a collage: a card devoid of an  
y

writing, with a Parisian scene and a French coin and a long  
number for a return address."

Meanwhile, Nash had not informed the mathematics department  
at

Princeton that he was not intending to take their offer. Fin  
ally,

on September 15, Tucker sent a terse note to Dean Brown,  
canceling the appointment and saying that Nash had gone to t  
he

University of Paris."

Nash hung around Paris a few more weeks until he finally gav  
e up.

In mid-September, he wrote to Virginia from Paris that he wou  
ld be

returning on the

Queen Mary

on the twenty-fourth, adding a postscript:

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--737

"Situation looks dismal."

Back in Princeton, Nash took to calling people again and tur  
ning

up at the Institute to write strange messages on the blackbo  
ards

of various seminar rooms. Atle Selberg recalled one such mes  
sage

involving several Social Security numbers. "He tried to find

mysterious pattern." Selberg recalled. "He claimed that he  
was

born in a county named Mercer that had a town named Princeto  
n. He

seemed to find this a mysterious

signdd0611

By mid-December, Nash was back in Carrier. Once again, it wa

s  
Alicia who had to make the painful decision. A letter written to  
John Milnor shows how fast Nash's thoughts were racing and how  
one association prompted another come even as Nash was conscious  
that Milnor would find the letter mad. Labeled "crazy letter for  
your entertainment," it was a fantastic monologue, skipping from  
slave calendars and lunar eclipses to advertising jingles and  
equations from Milnor's papers. 6`  
Mele once again took over Nash's care and Nash once again  
responded  
quickly and dramatically to antipsychotic drugs.

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--738

He was well enough in early April  
1965 to leave Carrier for the day to attend a banquet with John  
Danskin at another game-theory conference in Princeton. Danskin  
recalled, "Nash's name was being mentioned a lot at the  
meeting. I thought it would be nice to produce him." Once Nash  
learned that he would be going, he telephoned Harold Kuhn and  
asked him to bring a couple of game-theory books to Carrier,  
which Kuhn did, recalling that "it was a barracks-like place,  
not much privacy." Nash stayed on at Carrier until midsummer,  
his departure delayed until Mele was confident that both a job  
and a psychiatrist were waiting for his patient.  
In April Richard Palais, a mathematician at Brandeis, drove  
down

to the institute to turn in a manuscript. "That day Borel  
A738

said why not have lunch with Jack Milnor and me. We had lunch;

he recalled. Halfway through they started talking about Nash.

Milnor and Borel thought Nash was much better now. They thought

it would be a good thing for him to gradually get back to academic life. They believed Boston would be a good place. MIT

and Harvard would be too difficult after he had insisted on resigning from MIT and threatened

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--739

to sue the university. The Harvard department was too small.

There was no way they were going to hire him. The Institute in

those days didn't have five-year memberships, and it was almost

unheard of to have someone more than two years

.74

Norman Levinson, who had been in contact with Mele, Milnor, and

Borel, offered to support Nash with his ONR and NSF grants. He

felt that it was too soon for Nash to have an office at MIT.

Palais recalled:

I had a feeling they were on the level in helping him get back to

the mainstream and that it would be better for him to be in Cambridge, away from Princeton. It was very late. I'm surprised

we were able to do anything. But the [Brandeis] administration

really liked the math department and Joe [Kohn, then chairman]

would go and get what we wanted.

There was a lot of that feeling [about Nash]. People were expecting an awful lot from this guy. In any four-

or five-year span, there are one or two young bright people who

are recognized as special. Everybody tries to get them. He was

coming into that category. He was very special

.71  
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--740

When Nash got out of Carrier this time, in mid-July, he spent

t a  
couple of nights at John Milnor's house and then took a train to  
Boston<sup>71</sup> He was, once again, hopeful and, in contrast to a  
year  
earlier, accepted the likelihood that he might have to start  
a  
new life without Alicia.

Boston, 1965-67

IT

WAS STRANGE-TO

be back in Boston alone and after an absence of half a dozen

years. The city had changed almost as much as Nash himself.  
Sundays were the bleakest. Nash's "traditional Sunday[so]" as he

called them, were spent alone, sitting in one of the libraries

trying to work, or, more often, walking for hours at a time,  
and

then stopping to watch the ice skaters and hockey players in  
the

Public Garden. The evenings were given over, more often than

not, to writing letters, one to Alicia, one to Virginia, and  
one

to Martha, with whom Nash had lately developed a warmer, more

confidential relationship. Mailing the letters provided an  
excuse for a final nighttime stroll.

Weekdays, when he commuted to Waltham in a

ratty old Nash Rambler convertible purchased on his arrival  
741

in Boston, were better. He was almost enjoying being at Bran  
deis.

The place was undeniably lively, full of former students and

acquaintances from the old days in Cambridge, former MIT  
undergraduates like Joseph Kohn, now chairman of the math  
department, and Also Vasquez, now an assistant professor. He

liked having an office again, going to seminars, eating lunc  
h

with other mathematicians, tossing around ideas and mathemat  
ical

gossip.

But he was terribly lonely. He missed Alicia and John Charle  
s. He

felt his new, humbler status in the mathematical hierarchy m  
ost

acutely. But he also could see, perhaps for the first time s  
ince

the onset of his illness, that there was, after all, a futur  
e for

him, and he entertained hopes of reestablishing himself as a  
n

academic and even of finding someone new to share life with.

He had left Princeton almost immediately after being release  
d

from Carrier on July

29, traveling to Boston by train and staying in a Cambridge  
hotel

while he found an apartment and a car. He had seen Norman  
Levinson, who, in his gruff, taciturn, immensely tactful way

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--742

had let Nash know that he would be paying Nash's salary with

National Science Foundation and Navy grants, and that he hop  
ed

Nash would be able to pursue his own research ideas, as befo  
re.

He would have no teaching responsibilities, at least in the  
fall,

which was a reliefddbled

He started to see a thirty-three-year-old psychiatrist, Patt

ison

Esmiol. An affable Coloradan with a medical degree from Harvard,

Esmiol had just left the Navy to open a private practice in Brookline. Esmiol prescribed an antipsychotic drug, Stelazine,

similar to Thorazine. Nash didn't like the drug and its side

effects, worrying that they would prevent him from thinking clearly enough to resume mathematical work. But Esmiol, sympathetic to his client's concerns, kept the doses as low as

possible, and Nash was grateful for the dependable human contact

of his weekly appointments.

Nash was seeing Eleanor and John David, now a tall, handsome boy

of twelve, every week or so. Nash was glad for the dinners Eleanor cooked him and glad to have the company. The three of

them spent Halloween together, he wrote to Virginia. However,

the old tensions in his relationship with

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--743

Eleanor quickly surfaced again, and there were new and unanticipated tensions between himself and John David. Nash described Halloween as a "sad" occasion, for example, although it

was not clear whether the sadness stemmed from friction that

arose during the evening, or simply from a realization that his

long separation from his son had produced a gulf that he could

see no obvious way of bridging. John David was a particularly

beautiful boy, musical and obviously bright. But Nash found it

difficult to hide his dismay over his son's faulty grammar

A743

and indifferent performance in school comall John David had to do

was to let a "you was" slip out and Nash would be all over h mbb7

this, of course led to flare-ups with Eleanor and a rekindling of

all the old resentments. John Stier recalls his father's visits

as "frustrating." "He was always humming," Stier said. "He'd eat.

He'd chill out. He'd leave. He never helped me with my homework

or asked how I was doing. He was just very aloof." I

Before he became a teenager and he and Eleanor began living in

Hyde Park, John Stier lived in two dozen different places, with

and without his mother. They included, between infancy and six,

a series of foster homes in Massachusetts and Rhode

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--744

Island, an orphanage on the outskirts of Boston, and when finally

reunited with Eleanor, the Charden Home for Women and Children, a

home for the destitute (no boys over age nine allowed!). In some

school years, he attended three new schools and was deemed a

"behavior problem." On one occasion, he was held back. The moves

were prompted by the calamities that are regular events in the

lives of poor families: lost jobs, ill health, lack of child care,

fear of crime. On one occasion, Eleanor recalled, "I had a woman

taking care of him. She said John had been bad to her little boy.

So she hit him and gave him a black eye. I didn't work for a

while. I was always on edge." I

It was, as he said, "a miserable childhood, a shitty childhood." His mother loved him, of course, but was herself

desperately unhappy. Eleanor was often ill, suffering at times

from severe anemia, frequently lost jobs, and when she was

working often held two jobs. John David's illegitimacy was a dirty secret; Eleanor concocted a tale to explain away his fatherlessness and the child was forced to tell it at the different schools and neighborhoods, while living in constant dread of

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--745

discovery. "There was a real stigma," John Stier said. "I had to lie."

In John David's eyes, however, his father's sudden reappearance in his life was a fine thing. Being corrected for the way he

spoke and being admonished to work harder in school conveyed not

just criticism, but fatherly interest. Nash also promised to pay

for John David's college education, explaining that "his educational background will shape the whole future course of his

lifed" Nash sometimes took pains to please his son. On Saturdays,

he would take John Stier and a friend bowling, Afterward, they'd

go to a Chinese restaurant for dinner. On John Stier's thirteenth

birthday, Nash surprised him by taking him to a neighborhood

bicycle shop and buying him a ten-speed racer. The next year

, perhaps partly inspired by his father's interest in him, John

Stier worked extremely hard in school, took a citywide examination, and got a place in one of Boston's elite "exam" schools.

In January, Nash wrote that "I have less time for Eleanor;` hinting perhaps that he felt his early dependence on her company

easing and feeling some relief on this accountdd"Th would have

given Eleanor new grounds for grievance; she may well have  
A745  
felt

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--746

that he was once again using her without much intention of giving  
her very much in return. But at the end of February, Eleanor  
and  
John David were "among my few social contacts." 11 There were  
repeated flare-ups. "Eleanor was not nice to me" he wrote after  
they went to a restaurant together. 14 In April when Eleanor  
moved to a new apartment, several days went by before she was  
willing to give him her new telephone number. "In May there is  
another reference to Eleanor's not being nice, which again made  
Nash feel rather "sad."

16

If Nash's reappearance in Boston raised again the possibility of  
his marrying Eleanor, it came in her mind or his, there is no  
hint  
of this in Nash's letters to Martha. Nash still had not  
completely given up hope of a reconciliation with Alicia.  
On that sad Halloween, he had been thinking a great deal of  
Alicia. "I was very fond of her" he wrote to Virginia. "His  
sadness on that night probably had a good deal to do with the  
fact that she was discouraging him from visiting her in  
Princeton, as he had hoped to do, on Thanksgiving. She apparently  
put him off with excuses, citing among other things "propriety."  
11 Nash persisted and Alicia

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--747

continued to discourage him, so that a week before the holiday  
Nash said that he still had no invitation. Alicia was now talking  
of his coming down at Christmas, but it is not clear that the  
visit took place. In and amongst it all, perhaps because he was  
now aware of John David's discomfort around him, he expressed

d

fear that his younger son, John Charles, was "forgetting his fatherdd019

It was not all that easy to renew his old acquaintanceships, though he saw a bit of Arthur Mattuck and his wife, Joan, as well

as Marvin and Gloria Minskydd"P were kind but busy. He was anxious for anything to fill his evenings and went to a great

many movies, plays, and concerts by himself." Alicia, who continued gently to discourage any possibility of reconciliation,

was encouraging him to find some female companionship. He wrote

to Martha: "Alicia doesn't leave much

317

hope.0" In January, Nash was making awkward inquiries about datingdd13 He thought of inviting the Mattucks to his house for a

meal and "making it a foursomedd" Jean Mattuck reintroduced him,

apparently, to Emma Duchane, who later could recall none of thdd14 He pursued Emma for

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--748

several weeks, saying to Martha, "She's a good conversationalist,

but she isn't pretty really", before discovering that Emma had a

fianc6, After seeing

A Hard Day Night

one Sunday afternoon in early November, he was seized by a terrible sense of regret that he poured into a poignant and introspective letter to Martha, full of references to the

struggle between his "merciless superego" and "old simple  
A748

medd"Th is the letter in which Nash referred to the "special  
friendships" in his life and his realization, in 1959, of "ho  
w  
things had beend" He admits that "away from contact with a f  
ew  
special sorts of individuals I am lost, lost completely in t  
he  
wilderness. . . . was  
Brandeis was lively. A  
post-Sputnik  
infusion of money and a commitment on the university's part  
to  
building a serious graduate program in mathematics had attra  
cted  
eight or nine young comers, all in their thirties. "We had l  
ots  
of research money. We had plenty of money to pay for researc  
h  
associates and part-time instructors. We did everything toge  
ther  
,` recalled Richard Palaisdd11 The atmosphere was friendly a  
nd  
informal,

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--749

and Nash felt welcome there. "Everybody was well aware that  
he  
was a first-class mathematician;` said Palais, adding:  
I ate with him most lunches. It was nice to see him more or  
less  
back. He was pretty sane. He was being treated with antipsyc  
hotic  
drugs. He was a much nicer person after he got sick than bef  
ore.  
I kind of knew him when I was an instructor at Harvard, but  
not  
personally. I'd ask him a question. He'd be all snotty, prou  
d of  
himself. You'd be afraid to ask him anything. He'd put you d  
own  
without a thought. Typically, I'd say, "I have this probleme  
a" and  
Nash would shoot back, "Oh my God, how can you ask me this  
question? How stupid are you? How come you don't know this?"  
Afterward, he was nice, gentle, lots of fun to talk to. This  
old  
ego stuff was gone.

Vasquez has similar memories: "When Nash first showed up at Brandeis he was pretty zombielike. At the beginning, he said nothing. That changed over the course of the year. He got more and more normal. He started interacting with people. We mostly talked about mathematics. He never talked about his personal

lifeddd016

Nash's renewed appetite for life was most

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--750

evident in the energy with which he was able to work that year.

During that fall at Brandeis he wrote a long paper, "Analytic

c-ity of Solutions of Implicit Function Problems with Analytic

Data,0"t pursued to their natural conclusion his ideas about

partial differential equations. He circulated his draft for comments and submitted the paper to the

Anndd715 ofMathemdtiCs

in early Januarydd"Armand Borel, one of the editors, sent it to

Jilettergen Moser to referee. After a few telephone consultations

between Borel and Nash, Nash quickly revised the paper and got a

final acceptance from the

Annals

on February 15. Nash was thrilled, writing to Martha on Washington's birthday that the

Annals

was "the most prestigious American mathematical journaldd019

His renewed productivity produced a rush of self-confidence.

He

went to see Oscar Zariski at Harvard to discuss some new  
A750  
ideas -- and possibly to inquire about a visiting position.  
He  
made friends with a young German mathematician,

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--751

Egbert Brieskorn, who was visiting at MIT that year. He showed  
Brieskorn his just-completed paper and talked over ideas for  
future work. Brieskorn was doing some interesting work in  
singularities. "Nash had interesting ideas" Brieskorn recalled.

"He was always making propositions about what one could do.  
But I  
always got the feeling that he either couldn't or wouldn't do  
them himself." A touch of Nash's old arrogance returned. There was  
some talk, apparently, of his teaching at Northeastern in the  
spring. "I'd rather be at a more famous place" was he confided to  
Martha. He thought he would apply for a position at MIT instead.

He wrote Martha that he felt MIT ought to reinstate him, adding,  
"Of course, MIT isn't the most distinguished ... Harvard ranks  
much higher." "I` Throughout the spring he would fret about being  
forced to take a position at a second-rate institution: "I hope  
to avoid stepping down in social status because it may be  
difficult to come up again."

As early as the beginning of February, Nash had an idea for a  
second paper, but two weeks later he wrote to Martha that he  
was  
"sad because part of my new math idea fell apart." He was a  
ble,  
however,

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--752

to take the disappointment in stride, and by early April he  
was  
already working on another paper on the "canonical resolution  
of  
singularities." Many years later he would call this effort "more  
interesting" than his 1966

Annals

paper. In May he gave a seminar on the subject at Brandeis, and by the end of the month he had completed a draft that he showed to Brieskorn for comments. Nash quite likely submitted this

paper to the Annals

as well, but it was never published. A copy finally wound up

in Fine Hall Library at Princeton in September 1968. It was regularly cited in the succeeding years and was ultimately published in the

Duke Journal of Mathematics

in 1995 in a special issue in honor of Nash.

The quality of these two papers, the first of which Geomet

Mikhail Gromov calls "amazing" - constitutes the single strongest

reason for questioning Nash's diagnosis of paranoid schizophrenia. Producing papers that broke new ground was a

remarkable feat for someone who had,

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--753

by 1965, been psychotic for most of six years and suffered substantial memory impairment. Unlike manic depression, paranoid

schizophrenia rarely allows sufferers to return, even for a limited period, to their pre-morbid level of achievement, or so

it is believed." However, at least one other mathematician with

chronic schizophrenia was able, during a brief

remission, to produce excellent work. Nash's papers, though superb, were not as ambitious as those that he had planned

to write before he became ill.

A753

At the end of June, Nash moved into Joe Kohn's apartment at 38

Parker Street in a two-family house not far from Harvard Squared40 Kohn was off for a year's sabbatical in Ecuador.

The

sublet was arranged by Fagi Levinson, who recalled: "Everybo dy

wanted to help Nash. His was a mind too good to waste dis041

Nash enrolled in Operation Match, a Cambridge computer datin g

service. He was going on blind dates, acutely aware that "I' ll

need to learn how to behave properly and be polite etcdd"He

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--754

wrote that he was "hopeful and optimistic": "I think I'll de velop

some good friends and I'll get remarried if not to Alicia an d

then I'll have a happy family lifedd041 He had an appointmen t at

MIT lined up for the fall: Ted Martin had offered to let him

teach a senior seminar in game theory. In May Nash wrote to Kuhn

saying that he wanted to "collect appropriate materials and learn

about the more recent developments" in game theory and asking Kuhn

for suggestionsdd43

Something, however, was no longer quite right. Some of his colleagues at Brandeis recalled an abrupt change sometime in the

late spring. Palais recalled: "He sort of lost his balance completely. He went completely haywire."-

Vasquez remembers a more gradual unraveling: "He went right past

normal and became hyper. At some point, he wouldn't stop tal king

and he didn't make any sense. By the summer, he wasn't able to

interact any more

.1141

It's hard to say what triggered his relapse. Possibly, Nash had

become overconfident and had stopped taking his medication.

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--755

He evidently spent the summer in Cambridge. By September, his letters to Martha were distinctly delusional. In one he referred to "the Indian wheel of life.... If a person is always correct and right ... there is good reason to hope."

.46

Alarmed, Martha wrote to Esmiol saying that her brother sounded

"optimistic but not well" She quoted him saying that "I have

put my delusions aside" but she was sure that the delusions were now

back in full force

.41

Esmiol wrote back in early October saying that he had seen Nash

and that "he was about the same as last time" He urged her to

express her concern directly to her brother

.41

A day later, Nash wrote to Martha reassuring her that his optimism was well-founded but admitting there were always

dangers to worry about" But in the next breath, he went on to say

that he'd had an "interesting" letter from Alicia about "a large

gift of money" Martha later recalled that Nash, in his delusional periods, was always hinting that "something great

-----  
--756

was about to happen" I I

By November, the tone of his letters had become paranoid, as in

one to Virginia: "I'm very disillusioned in the past ... hoping

also that my future relations with all the relatives and  
A756

especially you and Martha will be much better." At  
Thanksgiving he wrote: I didn't have much to be thankful for  
this

Thanksgivinge" He planned to go to Roanoke for Christmas and  
to

spend New Year's-Alicia's birthday comin Princeton." Vasquez  
, who

had an apartment near Nash's, was running into Nash wanderin  
g

around Harvard Square the way he later wandered around Princ  
eton:

He was concerned with the politics of Mao Tse-tung, that sor  
t of

thing. In Harvard Square, he was talking about a committee t  
hat

was communicating with foreign governments who manipulated t  
he

news in

The New York Times

in order to send messages to him. He had this idea that with  
this

information he could find out how negotiations between vario  
us

powers were goingdd14

Nash was still attending the Harvard math colloquiurn on  
Thursdays. "He was very peculiar;" Vasquez recalled. "He bel  
ieved

that there were

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--757

magic numbers, dangerous numbers. He was saving the world."  
Soon Kohn was getting letters from his neighbors, the landlo  
rds

of the house, complaining that Nash wasn't taking out the ga  
rbage

and that his apartment was full of piles of newspapers." Fag  
i

recalled feeling horribly embarrassed and responsible. "Joe  
wanted to give up the apartment. He tried to reach Norman. H  
e

couldn't, so he called me. So I called Nash every hour on th  
e

hour. I was worried. I got this crazy idea to call up this  
minister he had been seeing. The minister told me Nash was o  
ut of

town." 56

just after the New Year, Nash left Boston for the West Coast  
. He

traveled first to San Francisco where he spent several days

visiting his cousin Richard Nash. He called his cousin first  
,  
who, in turn, called Martha. "He blamed Martha for hospitali-  
zing  
himea"recalled Richard Nash. "It was very hard for her to ta-  
ke."  
He came to my office. He was good-looking, very muscular. He  
was  
softspoken but his voice was much stronger than now. He was  
a lot  
of fun to talk to. He liked to talk a lot late into the nigh-  
t.  
Sometimes he spoke rationally, almost poetically. He

-----  
--758

was very concerned about not being able to contribute. "I st-  
arted  
out so well"he said. "I think of myself as a valuable pers-  
on.  
But I'm not contributing"Other times he made no sense. He  
had  
these things he was concerned about. He went to see a Cathol-  
ic  
priest in San Francisco. I said, "I thought you were an athe-  
ist."

17

Richard Nash, a broker, would drive to work in San Franciso  
and  
take Nash with him. Once there, "He'd get on the bus and go  
all  
around." Dick Nash expressed astonishment that Nash mastered  
complex schedules, went all over, but always managed to meet  
Dick  
at the appointed place for the return trip at exactly the ri-  
ght  
time.  
After that, Dick Nash recalled, "John called me at odd hours  
. He  
had no  
awareness of time. I told him to stop calling me after bedti-  
me.

Then I'd get calls with just breathing. I was rude. I wish  
A758

I'd been nicer."

After leaving San Francisco, Nash went next to Seattle, arriving

there on February 3.11 He almost certainly went there to visit

Amasa Forrester, the only person he knew in Seattle. He seems to

have spent nearly a month with Forrester, because

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--759

he did not arrive in Santa Monica, his next destination, until

Easter, which fell in mid-March that year.19 There, apparently,

Shapley and other acquaintances from RAND refused to see him

.  
Nash visited Jacob Bricker in Los Angeles as well. Bricker recalled that Nash "was acting really wild"060

Nash apparently called Esmiol from time to time, although he

disregarded Esmiol's pleas that he return to Boston and resume

his treatment. Martha also called Esmiol a number of times that

month. Esmiol's idea was to use the promise of a job at MIT as a

lever to get Nash back into treatment.61

Martin was talking about letting Nash teach a section of linear

algebra the following

fall.61

Levinson, still hopeful, was planning on Nash's being at MIT. He

solicited a letter of recommendation from Armand Borel at the

Institute. Borel's letter, dated May 17, was a strong endorsement:

In the last eight years or so, he has been very much hampered by

his health problems. Even then, he has

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--760

managed to produce some interesting work.... Nash is clearly one

of the most individualistic among the presently active mathematicians. He does not work systematically at long range

programs, whose progress along more or less foreseen lines c

an be  
rather confidently expected but is more the pioneer type who  
proceeds along new paths. He is thus rather unpredictable; b  
ut in  
a way it makes it appear more likely that he might score new  
successes in spite of his ups and downs in health. Any  
contribution in mathematics on the level of his past work wo  
uld  
be extremely valuable, and so I feel strongly that he should  
be  
supported .61

It's not clear exactly when Nash returned to Cambridge. But  
when  
he did, he was extremely ill. After a terrible scene, John D  
avid  
locked him out on the porch on a freezing nightdd64 Nash tol  
d  
Palais at some point that he'd stopped taking medication. "W  
hy,  
when they were making you well, did you stop taking drugs" "H  
e  
answered, "If I take drugs I stop hearing the voices  
dis061

A letter from Nash to Moser captures something of

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--761

Nash's state of mind when he returned to Cambridge in late M  
ay.  
Nash gives his return address as Heilwigklang University, Ha  
rbin,  
Manchuria.  
The Oblast in Russia, on the Manchurian border ... there's t  
he  
city of Birbidzhan.... If all the atomic powers of the secur  
ity  
council of the United Nations did an action, and they were

numbered 0, 1,2,3,4 then one would be able to say nobody

A761

did it, everybody did it, all did it ...

The letter was signed "Chiang Hsin (New River)dd066

Fagi ran into John on the subway, His manner was slippery, s  
hady,

shy, almost ashamed, a peculiar smile pulling at the corners  
of

his mouth. She asked where he was going. He answered: "Home  
to

Roanoke to stay with my mother for a

whiledd067

Nash left Cambridge on June 26, leaving his apartment in a  
shambles. He drove to Princeton, stayed in a hotel "for  
propriety"r than with Alicia and John Charles, and proceeded  
to

Roanoke a few days

laterdd61

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--762

Fagi called Joe Kohn and said she'd get a moving van and sen  
d

Nash his furniture. "I felt so guilty that I said to myself,  
I'll

get his stuff moved out. I did, too, everything except the  
bathroom scale. I never even went into the bathroomdd069 Ann  
a

Rosa, Kohn's wife, went into the Parker Street apartment: "T  
here

were folded bags, one upon another, and cereal boxes. Not aw  
ful,

but signs of compulsiondd010 A few days later, Norman Levins  
on

wrote to Martha: For the past two years John has been employ  
ed as

a research associate on my contract. John doesn't want to li  
ve

here and I couldn't convince him to stay. A few days ago Joh  
n

left 38 Parker Street. There were piles of rubbish. Hints of  
bank

accounts. Also other accounts here and abroad. John was very

disturbed this past year. But in 1965-1966 he functioned ver  
y

well and did fine work."

in a Strange World

Roanoke, 1967-70

And then a Plank in Reason, broke, And I dropped down, and d  
own

An d h it a World, a t e very plunge..

- Emm

-----  
--763

Y DicKmsolation,  
Number 280

TE

SUMMER NASH TURNED

forty, in 1968, he looked into the mirror in the bathroom of his mother's apartment and saw what he later called "a cadaver, almost."` Hollow-cheeked, sunken-eyed, gray-haired, with his

shoulders hunched forward, he looked more like an old man than

one just entering middle age. He wrote to a friend: "You should

pity me ... aging and drying processes have taken their toll."

I Images of death-in-life crowded his mind: in a letter to another

friend he invoked the images of the Parsee "Towers of Silence" in

Bombay, where followers of Zoroaster leave their dead to be devoured by vultures.`

He had been living in Roanoke for nearly a year. He still had his

Rambler and some savings, but eight years of illness had exhausted his former wife and friends and ruined much of his

credit with the world. He had nowhere else to go. For him, Roanoke was a pretty little city at the foot of the Appalachians

and the headquarters of the Norfolk and Western Railroad company was

the end of the line.

A763

He lived with Virginia in a small garden apartment

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--764

on Grandin Road Martha and Charlie lived a few streets

away. No one knew him there. The existence of someone with schizophrenia has been compared to that of the person living in a

glass prison pounding on the walls, unable to be heard, yet very

visible. Martha recalled in

1994: "Roanoke was not a good place to be. There were no intellectuals there. He'd be too much alone. He would wander

around town whistling

On many days, he simply paced round and round the apartment, his

long fingers curled around one of Virginia's delicate Japanese

teacups (a souvenir of her

long-ago summer in Berkeley), sipping Formosa oolong, whistling

Bach.

7

The sleepwalker's gait and fixed, faraway expression gave few

hints of the vast and unending dramas unfolding in his mind.

"Apparently I am simply passing time visiting my mother," he

wrote, "but actually I've been under persecutions which I'm hoping will ease."

His daily rounds extended no farther than the library or the

shops at the end of Grandin Road, but in his own mind, he traveled to the remotest

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--765

reaches of the globe: Cairo, Zebak, Kabul, Bangui, Thebes, Guyana, Mongolia. In these faraway places, he lived in refugee

camp, foreign embassies, prisons, bomb shelters. At other times,

he felt that he was inhabiting an Inferno, a purgatory, or a

polluted heaven ("a decayed rotting house infested by rats and

termites and other vermin"). His identities, like the return

addresses on his letters, were like the skins of an onion. Underneath each one lurked another: He was C.O.R.P.S.E. (a Palestinian Arab refugee), a great Japanese shogun, C 142 3,

Esau, Uhomme d'Or, Chin Hsiang, Job, Jorap Castro, Janos Nor ses,

even, at times, a mouse. His companions were samurai, devils

, prophets, Nazis, priests, and judges. Baleful deities-Napole on,

Iblis, Mora, Satan, Platinum Man, Titan, Nahipotleeron, Napo leon

Shickelgruber-

threatened him. He lived in constant fear of annihilation, b oth

of the world (genocide, Armageddon, the Apocalypse, Final Da y of

Judgment, Day of Resolution of Singularities) and of himself

(death and bankruptcy). Certain dates

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--766

struck him as ominous, among them May 29.

Persistent, complex, and compelling delusions are among the

defining symptoms of schizophreniadd9 Delusions are false

beliefs, beliefs that constitute a dramatic rejection of

consensual reality. Often, they involve misinterpretations o f

perceptions or experiences. They are thought, nowadays, to a rise

primarily because of the gross distortions in sensory data a nd

the way thought and emotion are processed deep in the brain.

Thus, their convoluted and mysterious logic is sometimes see n as

the product of the mind's solitary struggle to make sense  
A766

of the strange and uncanny. E. Fuller Torrey, a researcher at St.

Elizabeth's in Washington, D.C., and author of  
Surviving Schizophrenia,

calls them "logical outgrowths of what the brain is  
experiencing" as well as "heroic efforts to maintain some sort  
of

mental equilibrium." "The syndrome we now call schizophrenia  
was

once called "dementia praecox," but, in fact, the delusional

states typical of schizophrenia often have little in common  
with

the dementia associated with, for example, Alzheimer's disease."

Rather than

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--767

cloudiness, confusion, and meaninglessness, there is  
hyperawareness, over-acuity, and an uncanny wakefulness. Urgent  
preoccupations, elaborate rationales, and ingenious theories

dominate. However literal, tangential, or self-contradictory  
thought is not random but adheres to obscure and

hard-to-understand rules. And the ability accurately to apprehend  
certain aspects of everyday reality remains curiously intact  
. Had

anyone asked Nash what year it was or who was in the White House

or where he was living, he could no doubt have answered perfectly

accurately, had he wished to.  
A Man All Alone in a Strange World

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Indeed, even as he entertained the most surreal notions, Nash

displayed an ironic awareness that his insights were essentially

private, unique to himself, and bound to seem strange or  
unbelievable to others. "This concept that I want to describe ...

will perhaps sound absurd" is the sort of preface of which  
he

was quite capable. "His sentences were filled with phrases like

"consider, if, may be thought of as," as if he were

conducting a thought experiment or realizing that someone reading what he wrote would have to translate it into another language.

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Like all other manifestations of the syndrome, delusions are not unique to schizophrenia; they can be present in a variety of mental disorders, including mania, depression, and a variety of somatic illnesses. But the types of delusions that Nash suffered from are particularly characteristic of schizophrenia, specifically of paranoid schizophrenia, the variant of the syndrome from which Nash apparently suffered." Their content was, as it often is, both grandiose and persecutory, often shifting from one to the other in the space of moments or even including both at the same time. At different times, as we know, Nash thought of himself as uniquely powerful, as a prince or an emperor; at other times he thought of himself as extraordinarily weak and vulnerable, as a refugee or a defendant in a trial. As is quite typical, his beliefs were what is called referential, in that he believed that a host of environmental clues -- from newspaper passages to particular numbers -- were specifically directed at him and that he alone was capable of appreciating their true meaning. And his delusions were multiple, a particularly common feature of paranoid schizophrenia, although all were organized, in

subtle ways, around coherent themes. Bizarreness is thought  
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to be especially characteristic of schizophrenic delusions. Nash's delusions were clearly implausible, difficult to penetrate, and not obviously derived from life experiences. Yet

they were less bizarre, on the whole, than many delusions reported by other people with schizophrenia, and their connections to Nash's life history and his immediate circumstances, though indirect, were often discernible (or would

have been had anyone who knew him well been willing to study in

the same spirit as the loyal wife of Balzac's Louis Lambert)

Many people with schizophrenia believe that their thoughts have

been captured by outside forces, or that outside forces have

inserted thoughts into their minds, but such beliefs did not seem

to play a predominant role in Nash's thinking. Occasionally, as

in Rome, he might think that thoughts were being inserted directly into his mind via machines, or, as in Cambridge in early

1959, that his actions were being directed by God. But, by and

large, Nash maintained a sense of himself, or selves, as the

primary actor. And many of his beliefs -- such as that he was a

conscientious objector in danger of being drafted; that he was

stateless; that mathematicians belonging to the American

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Mathematical Society were ruining his career; that various persons, posing as sympathizers, were conspiring, with malevolent

intent, to have him incarcerated in a mental institution were

no more implausible than, say, a belief that one is being spied

on by the police or the CIA. Thus, in a sense, the breakdown of

reality and boundaries between self and outside world had limits

for him, even in Roanoke.

In particular, although Nash later referred to his delusional

states as "the time  
of my irrationality" he kept the role of the thinker, the  
theorist, the scholar trying to make sense of complicated  
phenomena. He was "perfecting the ideology of liberation from  
slavery" finding "a simple method" creating "a model" or "a  
theory". The actions he referred to are mostly feats of mind  
, or  
involve language. At most, he was "negotiating" or "petitioning"  
or  
trying to persuade. His letters were Joycean monologues, written  
in a private language of his own invention, full of dreamlike  
logic and subtle non sequiturs. His theories were astronomical,  
game theoretical, geopolitical, and religious. And while, years  
later, Nash often referred to pleasant aspects

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of the delusional state, it seems clear that these waking dreams  
were extremely unpleasant, full of anxiety and dread.  
Before the 1967 Arab-Israeli war, he explained, he was a  
left-wing Palestinian Arab refugee, a member of the PLO, and  
a  
refugee making a "g-indent" in Israel's border, petitioning  
Arab  
nations to protect him from "falling under the power of the  
Israeli state.

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Soon afterward, he imagined that he was a go board whose four  
sides were labeled Los Angeles, Boston, Seattle, and Bluefield.  
He was covered with white stones representing Confucians and

black stones representing Muhammadans. The "first-order"

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game was being played by his sons, John David and John Charles.

The "second-order, "derivative game was "an ideological conflict

between me, personally and the Jews collectively."

A few weeks later he was thinking of another go board whose four

sides were labeled with cars that he had owned: Studebaker, Olds,

Mercedes, Plymouth Belvedere. He thought it might be possible to

construct "an elaborate oscilloscope display

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... a repentingness function."

16

It seemed to him also that certain truths were "visible in the

starsdd" He realized that Saturn is associated with Esau and Adam,

with whom he identified, and that Titan, Saturn's second moon,

was Jacob as well as an enemy of Buddha, Iblis. "I've discovered

a B theory of Saturn.... The B theory is simply that Jack Bricker

is Satan. `Iblisianism` is a frightening problem connected to the

Final day of Judgement." 17

At this point, the grandiose delusions in which Nash was a powerful figure, the Prince of Peace, the Left Foot of God, and

the Emperor of Antarctica were no longer in evidence; instead,

the theme became predominantly persecutory. He discerned that

"the root of all evil, as far as my personal life is concerned

(life history) are Jews, in particular Jack Bricker who is Hitler, a trinity of evil comprised of Mora, Iblis and

Napoleondd" These were, he said, simply "Jack Bricker in relation

to medd" I I At another point, he said, referring to Bricker,

"Imagine if there would be a person who pats a

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guy on the back ... with compliments and praises, while at the

same time stabbing him in the abdomen with a deadly rabbit punchdd019 Seeing the picture so clearly, he concluded that he

must petition the Jews and also mathematicians and Arabs "so that

they have the opportunity for redress of wrongs,"

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which must, however, "not be too openly revealeddd" He also had

the idea that he must turn to churches, foreign governments, and

civil-rights organizations for help. In the story of Jacob and

Esau, told in Genesis, Nash saw a parable full of meaning for his

own lifedd20 Jacob and Esau are brothers, the sons of Isaac and

Rebekah, who love each other. Esau is the elder, and his father,

Isaac, loves him, but Rebekah, their mother, loves Jacob more. As

the story unfolds, Esau is twice supplanted by Jacob. First,

Jacob tricks Esau into making a bad bargain and selling his birthright. Then, Jacob steals the blessing of the now blind

Isaac, who had intended it for Esau. He does so by impersonating

his brother. NV-HEN Esau discovers Jacob's deception, Isaac

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rejects his claim: "See, away from the fatness of the earth shall

your home be stand away from the dew of heaven on high./0Yr sword

you shall live stand you shall serve your brotherbb/b when you

break loose easty shall break his yoke from your neck." Esau, full

of hatred for his brother, tells himself, "The days of mourning

for my father are approaching; then I will kill my brother  
A774

Jacob."

Nash believed that he had been cast out ("I've been in a situation of loss of favor") and ostracized. He was constantly threatened with bankruptcy and expropriation: "If accounts are held for a trustee, in effect, who is as good as defunct, through lack of `rational consistency! . . . It's as if accounts are held for persons suffering in an Inferno. They can never benefit from them because it's as if they were supposed to come from the Inferno -- to the bank offices -- and collect, but they need, as it were, a revolutionary ending of the Inferno before having any sort of possibility of benefiting from their accounts

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There is a presumption of guilt. Punishment, penitence, contrition, atonement, confession, and repentance are constant themes -- along with fears of

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exposure and the need for indirection and secrecy command seem directly connected, but not limited, to his feelings about homosexuality. He refers to "the really dubious things that I have done in all the history of my personal life" including "draft dodging, truancy."

Arrests, trials, and imprisonment were also recurring themes

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Like Joseph K in Kafka's novel  
The Trial,

Nash imagined that he was on trial "sufficiently complete in absentia" He recognizes that "it is as if the accused is his own chief accuser ... the road of self-accusation is a road that

leads to death not redemption." He thinks of a "court of inquiry" investigating "the life histories and ... interactions" of Jacob and Esau, whom he identifies as Bricker and himself

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These are guilty, fearful dreams. Nash's state of imprisonment did not, it seems, refer to his illness, for he did not regard himself as ill except physically. It was existential. To Eleanor he wrote, "U see, U must sympathize more with the true needs of liberation, liberation from slavery,

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liberation from 'castration,' liberation from prison, liberation from isolation ... I'm a refugee, in fact, from false symbols and dangerous symbols. At times, he felt that he was in danger of crucifixion. His own needs, he said, were "to be free, and to be safe and for friends. He was always, he said, "in fear of `death` (Indian style) through an Armageddon with Iblis ... at the Day of Judgement." Even in these very dark hours he clung to a vision of liberation which later became, more concretely, a wish for sexual liberation. "I'm hoping fervently to be saved (delivered) before reaching 40 in age" he had written a few weeks before his birthday. "One cannot substitute free life and love of the 40's for the lost possibilities of the 20's and 30's and also teens." "Nash was acutely aware of the passage of time. "It does seem to me that I've been as if the victim of an excessively long wait

for liberation.... It's as if there wasn't a ransom

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forthcoming, as if from Kuwait, which would have really substantially shortened the time of waiting for me."

He was waiting for deliverance: "I see, it seems surprisingly

clearly, how there's as it were, a time

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of grace before that time, a precious time of grace which is

forever lost if not seized carpe them and fully effective in its

significance."

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Nash was also hearing voices, voices that frightened him: "My

head is as if a bloated windbag, with Voices which dispute within

Hallucinations can involve any of the senses-hearing, smell,

taste, touch, sight-but voices, one or several, familiar or strange but distinct from one's own thoughts, are the most characteristic of schizophrenia." These are quite distinct from

the hallucinations that are part of religious experience, or the

humming inside one's head, hearing one's name called occasionally, or hallucinations that occur while failing asleep

or waking up. The content of schizophrenic hallucinations can be

benign, but they usually involve ridicule, criticism, and threats, typically related to the content of the delusional theme. The integration of voices with thought can produce an

acute sense of reality.

The so-called negative symptoms of schizophrenia are, most clinicians agree, even more crippling than the delusions and

hallucinations. The terms used to describe them are derived from the

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Greek: affective flattening, alogia, and avolition. There was no

trace of the sharp looks, the enthusiastic gesturing, the brash

body language that announced, "I'm Nash with a capital N" He is

face was blank, his eyes empty, as if the fires of delusion had consumed everything that was once alive and left an empty husk. One would feel comforted if one could believe that Nash, at this terrible time in his life, was at least spared the sight of his own condition. One of the consequences of chronic schizophrenia, noted long ago and verified since by numerous studies, is a curious insensitivity to physical pain. This insensitivity is often so great that there are high rates of premature deaths from physical illnesses among A Man All Alone in a Strange World 329 schizophrenics, at least in the era when such people spent most of their lives in institutions. Might there not be a similar dulling that would anesthetize one to psychic pain? Possibly. But for Nash there were moments of lucid self-knowledge, unbearable in their sadness: "So long a time has passed. I feel there are many sad tragedies. Today I feel very sad and depressed."

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It is often difficult to distinguish the effects of disease from those of its treatment. But Nash's condition during the two and a half years he spent in Roanoke was probably almost purely the consequence of his disease. Six years had passed since Nash had

received insulin treatments and well over a year since he  
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had been taking neuroleptics regularly. While some of his me-  
mory  
loss was, no doubt, a result of the insulin treatments of th-  
e  
first half of 1961 and some of his-extreme quietness in the  
early  
months following his return to Cambridge no doubt reflected  
the  
side effects of Stelazine, his condition in Roanoke is a str-  
ong  
testament that lassitude, indifference, and the peculiaritie-  
s of  
his thought were primarily the consequences of his illness a-  
nd  
not of the early attempts to treat it. The popular view that  
antipsychotics were chemical straitjackets that suppressed c-  
lear  
thinking and voluntary activity seems not to be borne out in  
Nash's case. If anything, the only periods when he was relat-  
ively  
free of hallucinations, delusions, and the erosion of will w-  
ere  
the periods following either insulin treatment or the use of  
antipsychotics. In other words, rather than reducing Nash to  
a  
zombie, medication seemed to have

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reduced zombielike behavior.  
Nash was clearly among the majority of those with schizophre-  
nia  
who benefited from traditional antipsychotics. These drugs w-  
ere  
the only ones available between 1952 and 1988, when the more  
effective Clozapine arrived on the scene." Peter Newman, an  
economist at Johns Hopkins, was editing a volume of importan-  
t  
contributions to mathematical economics. He wanted to includ-  
e  
Nash's NAS note on Nash equilibrium.  
The first problem was finding him. I found him teaching or  
something at a small women's college near Roanoke. I wrote t-  
o him  
there to ask his permission to reprint the article. What I g-  
ot

back was an envelope on which my address was written in different-colored crayons. There was also a list of "yous" in different languages: Du, Vous, You, etc., and a plea for universal brotherhood. There was nothing inside the envelope at all. I then asked the in-house editor at the Johns Hopkins Press to call Nash. He did and he said it was the strangest telephone conversation he'd ever had in his life. Then we tried Solomon Lefschetz, since he was the one who sponsored the note.

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Calling Lefschetz wasn't easy either. Lefschetz only said, "Ah yes. He is not what he was" I had to give it up. Later, when the book was reviewed, reviewers chided me for not including the Nash equilibrium. Nash was constantly fearful that Martha and Virginia would hospitalize him again. As he said in one letter, "It is the mechanism of how all the persons involved would collaborate in hospitalizing me which endangers me and which I fear." Most letters from this period end with a paragraph like the following:  
Let me beg (humbly) of U that U will favor the view that I ought to be guarded against the danger of hospitalization in the mental hospital (involuntarily or "falsely").... simply for personal intellectual survival as a "conscious" and "reasonably conscientious" human being ... and "good memory retention."

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For Virginia, Nash's illness was something that Martha later called, in her tactful and understated way, "a private sorrow." "

Virginia never talked about it

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with the few acquaintances she had in Roanoke, mostly people she

had met playing bridge, and only rarely with Martha. Her friends

couldn't possibly have understood what it was like for her.

It

was also a practical nightmare. Nash was making so many long-distance telephone calls that Virginia had to put a lock on

her phone.

Martha, whose second child was born in 1969, was at least angry.

"It was so frustrating day by day. You wondered, is this ever

going to get any better?" She realized, at least, that Roanoke was

not a kind environment. "Only one time did I ask for

help," recalled Martha. "The minister stopped me after church and

told me I should be helping my mother more. He didn't ask whether

I needed help. Later on I called and asked would he come to call.

He didn't come. The retired minister came but he wasn't the one I

wanted."

Virginia and Nash were nearly evicted from their apartment at one

point. Martha's voice is still full of outrage thirty years later. There had been a fire that started in the incinerator

Nash was home at the time. He called the fire department. "The

landlord accused John of setting it," was Martha recalled. He had

talked to the neighbors, who were

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up in arms. They found this large, strange man who walked around

the grounds of the apartment complex alarming. It was only by

begging that Martha was able to convince the landlord to let Virginia and Nash move back in.

Virginia died shortly before Thanksgiving in 1969. Afterward Nash

was sure there was something sinister about her death. He also

felt that perhaps he had done wrong by going to the corner store

to buy her whiskey. Martha recalled, "When Mother died, it was

not a good time. We weren't close. He felt threatened. He felt

that I would put him in a hospital." At this point, Eleanor got a

court order to force Nash to continue child-support payments

. When his money had run out, Virginia had taken over the payments.

She also left small legacies for both her grandsons.

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Nash then lived briefly with Martha and Charlie, but Martha found

it impossi-

ble to cope with her brother. "Once Mother was gone, I couldn't

clean with him in my home. I was here with the children and he's

wandering around drinking tea and whistling. He'd take ideas and

twist them into something

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strange."

Martha arranged to have Nash committed right after Christmas :

After Mother died, I was afraid he'd leave town. I was hoping to

get the hospital to appoint a committee so he could get Social

Security and also get it for his son.

We went to a judge. We got a court order. The court sent  
A784  
the police to pick him up. We had my mother's lawyer, Leonard  
Muse. You could get someone committed for observation. You didn't  
have to establish anything very drastic. In the hospital they  
decided whether to keep somebody. De Jarnette decided that John  
had paranoid ideas but that he was capable of maintaining  
himself.  
Nash was released from DeJarnette State Sanitorium in Staunton,  
Virginia, in February. He wrote a final letter to Martha,  
breaking off all relations with her because of her role in his  
hospitalization. Then he boarded a bus for Princeton.  
Princeton, 1970's  
Much Madness is divinest Sense To a discerning Eye....  
- Emm

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--785

Y Dskwsoation,  
Number 435

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IMPERSONAL NEW GRANITE-CLAD TOWER, built with defense dollars at  
the height of the Vietnam War, had replaced the old Fine Hall and  
neighboring Jadwin Hall. Math and physics majors spent most of  
their waking hours below ground where the architects had situated  
the library which had formerly occupied the highest floor of Old  
Fine -- as well as the new computer center. Within a few days or  
weeks, the embryo scientist or mathematician would discover "a  
very peculiar, thin, silent man walking the halls, night and  
day," with sunken eyes and a sad, immobile face. On rare occasions,  
they might catch a glimpse of the wraith usually  
clad in khaki pants, plaid shirt, and bright red high-top Keds  
comprinting painstakingly on one of the numerous blackboards that  
lined the subterranean corridors linking Jadwin and New Fine

More often, students would emerge from an 8:00 A.M. lecture to find an enigmatic epistle written the night before: "Mao Tse-Tung's Bar Mitzvah was 13 years, 13 months and 13 days after

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Brezhnev's circumcision," for example. Or I agree with Harvard: There is a brain flat. Or a letter from Nikita Khrushchev to Moses with arcane mathematical statements involving

the factoring of very long, ten-

to fifteen-digit numbers into two large primes.

"Nobody knew where they came from," recalled Mark Reboul, who

graduated in 1977. "Nobody knew what they meant."

Eventually, some sophomore or junior would clue in the newcomer

that the author of the messages, aka the Phantom, was a mathematical genius who had "flipped" while giving a lecture;

while trying to solve an impossibly difficult problem; after

discovering that someone else had scooped him on a major result;

or upon learning that his wife had fallen in love with a mathematical rival. He had friends in high places at the university, the older student would add. Students were not to

bother him.

Among the students, the Phantom was often held up as a cautionary

figure:

Anybody who was too much of a grind or who lacked social graces

was warned that he or she was "going  
A786

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to wind up like the Phantom.0"Yet if a new student complained

that having him around made him feel uncomfortable, he was immediately warned: "He was a better mathematician than you'll ever beff"I I

Few students ever exchanged a word with the Phantom, although

some of the brasher ones occasionally bummed a cigarette or asked

for a light, for the Phantom was now a heavy smoker. One new

physics student once erased two or three of the messages only to

encounter the Phantom in front of the blackboard writing a few

days later, "sweating, trembling, and practically cryingdd"Th

he student never erased another."

Students and young faculty members studied the Phantom's messages

and sometimes copied them down verbatim. The messages created an

aura around the Phantom and confirmed the legends of his genius.

Frank Wilczek, a physicist at the Institute for Advanced Study

who lives in Einstein's old house on Mercer Street, was an assistant professor at the university at the time. He remembered

feeling "intrigued and impressed"and "in the presence of a great

mind.0"Mark Schneider, a physics professor

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at Grinnell who was a graduate student in 1979, recalled: "We all

found the remarkable connections, level of detail, and breadth of

knowledge ... exceptional, which is why I ... collected a few

dozen of the best of these."

14

Shortly after Hironaka won a Fields prize for his brilliant proof

of the resolution of singularities, one of Nash's messages read:

$N_1 + 11 + X_1 + 01 + N_1 = 0$

Can Hironaka resolve this singularity?"

Some of the messages seemed purely mathematical, at least until

one looked at them more closely, as in this 1979 message:

Open Letter to Prof. Heisuke Hironaka

$0 = E_{11} + V_{11} + E_1 + R_{11} + E_1 + T_{1,9}$

plus  $T_{10}$

$2^3 2$

The above algebraic variety of dimension 6, represented in affine

7-space is singular, having a point singularity at the origin

$(0,0,0,0,0,0,0)$  of the coordinates.

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The question is: How singular comparatively, is the above 6-variety, that is, what is the comparative degree of its singularity, compared with other singularities of such a sort as

to provide standards of comparison"16

Others contained indirect references to past events: Indian Limbo

$B = (RX) + (MO) + (OP) + I + (QU) + 4 + (ME) + 3$

plus

$(OT) + 2$

plus

AAP  
OT suggests "Occupational Therapy" as in Dr. O.T. Beetle, M.D.

AAP equals PR (2) -- 1, as a number. 17

And still others were slyly humorous:

A789

True or False Question

Statement: President Jimmy Carter is suffering from the disease

of xanthochromatosis, the same disease which previously affected

the careers of Nixon and Agnew, so that the disease has presumably jumped the gap of the apparently immune northern republicans Ford and Rockefeller and reinfected

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--790

Air Force One via the person of Jimmy Carter.

The above statement is true. The above statement is false."

During one period, all the messages featured a commentator named

Ya Ya Fontana who made mysterious pronouncements about current

events, principally in the Middle Eastdd19 In another period

Alexandre Grothendieck's name appeared frequentlydd10 In still

another, Diophantine equations come equations like x-plus y-

z, comdominated."

Margaret Wertheim, author of

Pythagoras' Trousers,

a history of mathematics, has pointed out that "people look to

the order of numbers when the world falls apartdd011 Nash's romance with numerology blossomed when his world was falling

apart, suggesting once again that delusions -- like "mystical,

cultic religious efflorescence"

- aren't merely the ravings of madmen but conscious, painstaking,

and often desperate attempts to make sense out of chaos.

Nash was making up numbers out of names and was often

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extremely worried about what he found. "He was quite agitated

when he thought that the numbers were portents of something serious `was recalled Peter Cziffra, the head librarian at Fine

Hall. Hale Trotter, a mathematician on the Princeton faculty

'recalled, "I'd say hello and he'd initiate a conversation. I

remember one in which he was very concerned about the simila

rity

of the telephone number of the United States Senate and the telephone number of the Kremlin. He was doing the arithmetic

correctly but the reasoning for it was crazy." "

Nash did a lot of telephoning in those years. Early on, Peter

Cziffra remembers, Nash tried to call public figures as well as

people at the university: "It was a little odd.... He wanted to

talk about something that had been in the paper. A crisis in

Russia that he wanted to talk about with somebody.

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William Browder, who was now chairman of the mathematics department, recalled:

Nash was the greatest numerologist the world has ever seen.

He

would do these incredible manipulations with numbers. One day he

called me and started with the

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date of Khrushchev's birth and worked right through to the Dow

Jones average. He kept manipulating and putting in new numbers.

What he came out with at the end was my Social Security number.

He didn't say it was my Social Security number and I wouldn't

admit that it was. I tried not to give him satisfaction. Nash was

never trying to convince anyone of anything. He was doing  
A792  
things from a scholarly point of view. Everything he talked  
about  
always had a very scientific flavor. He was trying to gain a  
n  
understanding of something. It was pure numerology, not appl  
ied."  
One has a distinct sense that Nash's condition had stabilize  
d. To  
go to the blackboard took courage. To share ideas that Nash  
felt  
were important, and yet that might seem crazy to others, imp  
lied  
a willingness to make connections with the community at larg  
e. To  
stay in one place and not to run away, to labor at articulati  
ng  
his delusions in a way that attracted an audience that value  
d  
them must be seen as evidence of some progression back to  
consensual forms of reality and behavior. And, at the same t  
ime,  
to have his delusions seen not just as bizarre and  
unintelligible, but as having an intrinsic value, was surely  
one  
aspect of these "lost years" that

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paved the way for an eventual remission. As James Glass, the  
author of  
Private Terror|Public Places and Delusion, put  
it upon hearing about Nash's years in Princeton: "It seemed  
to  
serve as a containing place for his madnessdd016 It is obvio  
us  
that, for Nash, Princeton functioned as a therapeutic commun  
ity.  
It was quiet and safe; its lecture halls, libraries, and din  
ing  
halls were open to him; its members were for the most part  
respectful; human contact was available, but not intrusive.  
Here  
he found what he so desperately wanted in Roanoke: safety,  
freedom, friends. As Glass put it, "Being freer to express  
himself, without fearing that someone would shut him up or f  
ill  
him up with medication, must have helped pull him out of his  
disastrous retreat into hermetic linguistic isolation."

Roger Lewin, a psychiatrist at Shepherd Pratt in Baltimore, said,

"It seems that Nash's schizophrenia diminished in the way it appeared to others and that his madness became confined to intellectual and delusional projections rather than to wrapping him completely in behavioral

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expressions." These are descriptions similar to those Nash himself has given of these years in Princeton: "I thought I was a Messianic godlike figure with secret ideas. I became a person of delusionally influenced thinking but of relatively moderate behavior and thus tended to avoid hospitalization and the direct attention of psychiatrists."

The immense effort -- the reading, computations, and writing

-- of producing the messages may have played a role in preventing Nash's mental capacities from deteriorating. The messages had

their own history and evolved over time. At some point, probably starting in the mid-1970's, Nash began writing epigrams and epistles based on calculations in base 26.19 Base 26, of course,

uses twenty-six symbols, the number of letters in the English alphabet, just as the base 10 of everyday arithmetic employs the integers zero through nine. Thus, if a calculation came out "rightea"x produced actual words.

Here was Nash, who as a boy had delighted in inventing secret codes, with his great mathematical ability and mystical

preoccupations, and with plenty of time on his hands,  
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taking names, converting them into numbers

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based on the letter-number correspondence, factoring the  
resulting numbers, and then comparing the primes in the hope  
of

discovering "secret" messages. Daniel Feenberg, a graduate  
student of economics who ran into Nash at the computer center

around

1975, recalled: "Nash had an obsessive concern with Nelson  
Rockefeller. He would take the letters, assign numbers to each

letter, get a very large number, and then analyze that number  
for

hidden meaning. It had the same relationship to mathematics  
as

astrology to astronomy." 10 This, of course, is not only  
time-consuming but remarkably difficult, and the odds of finding

meaningful words or combination of words minute.

Nash worked on one of those old-fashioned Friden-Marchant  
calculators with a tiny, glowing, green CRT." He must have  
written an algorithm for doing base 26 arithmetic. Performing

these calculations would have been tremendously tedious and  
would

have required writing down intermediate results as he went a  
long,

since these calculators had very little storage capacity and

weren't programmable. Generating the equations that constituted

the core of his blackboard messages was not just fancy  
arithmetic,

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--796

however. As one of the former physics students remarked, "It

would have taken deep abstraction of the sort that real  
mathematicians perform." "

On one occasion, Feenberg wrote a computer program for Nash:

He asked me if computer programming was something he should  
do.

He'd seen me working with computers. He wanted to factor a  
twelve-digit number, which he felt was a composite number. He  
had

already tested it against the first seventy thousand primes

on a  
desk calculator. He had done it twice. He'd found no mistake  
, but  
he hadn't found a factor. I said we could do it. It took onl  
y  
about five minutes to write the program and test it. The ans  
wer  
came back: His number was a composite number that was the pr  
oduct  
of two primes."

Nash was beginning to develop an interest in learning how to  
use  
the computer. (If one spent time in the computing center one  
bad  
to sit at those ancient  
desk calculators by the hour, shuffling decks of computer ca  
rds.)

Hale Trotter, who was working half-time in the computer cent  
er in  
those days, described it: "It was the old days. We fed cards  
into  
the computer. There was a large `ready room` with a big coun  
ter,  
a card reader, table, and chairs and

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--797

another room with a calculator. There was always lots of pap  
er

arounddd014

At the time, Trotter recalled, he kept track of people's com  
puter

time but nobody was billed. At some point the administration

decided that he had to charge individual research accounts.  
Students and faculty alike had to open accounts and get  
passwords. Trotter initially told Nash that Nash could use h  
is

account number. At weekly meetings, the subject of

A797

regularizing the situation with Nash came up. Some students were

wondering what was going on with Trotter's name on Nash's output.

Someone suggested, said Trotter, "Why not give him his own account?" Everybody agreed to give him a free account. "He never,

never made any trouble. If anything, he was embarrassingly diffident. Sometimes if one was having a conversation with Nash,

it was hard to break away."

For most of the 1970's, Nash conducted his elaborate researches

in the reference room of Firestone Library, where he was known to

successive generations of students as "the library crazy man" and

later as "the mad genius of Firestone." In the late 1970's, he

was often the last to leave the library at midnight. He spent

evenings in the

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--798

reference room, his floppy golf hat on the broad wooden table

with a neat pile of books. He could spend two or three hours

standing at the card catalog.

Charles Gillespie, a historian of science and editor of the Dictionary of Scientific Biography,

had an office on the third floor of Firestone Library. Every day

Nash would arrive at Firestone, marching down the walk, eyes

straight ahead and briefcase in hand. He almost always headed for

the third floor stacks, in a section of the library devoted to

religion and philosophy. Gillespie always said good morning.

Nash

was always silent.

16

Nash did, however, occasionally strike up acquaintanceships, as

when he got to know two Iranian students during the summer of

1975. Amir Assadi, a big, smiling bear of a man, now on the mathematics faculty at the University of Wisconsin, recalled

:

My brother spent the summer with me while I was studying for my generals. He used to wait for me in the common room. I'd seen Nash around and heard about

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--799

him, but one day when I walked in he and my brother were talking intensely and I joined him. After that, I always said hello and we talked occasionally. He was extremely gentle and very shy. He seemed just so lonely. We were among the few people who talked to him. But he spoke freely to my brother. I suppose he saw a lonely foreigner. Usually the conversations were quite short, but sometimes he

would go

on and on. It seemed scholarly to us. He didn't act bizarre.

He

used to read the Encyclopaedia Britannica.

He had enormous knowledge. Nash was interested in Zoroastrian religion. Zarathustra was an ancient Iranian prophet. He wasn't

mad. He wasn't someone who "had a yellow camel [i.e., crazy]" The religion he founded was based on three principles:

good deeds, good thoughts, good expressions. Fire was holy. Light

and darkness were always locked in struggle. Fires always burned in

Zoroastrian temples. They are monotheists. Nash would ask us to

verify this and that. Occasionally we went and really read

something.

A799

In Iran the sense of sympathy and deep regret for a person being lonely is very great. We felt

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--800

sorry."

Nash's daily rounds in those years followed a predictable pattern. He would get up, not too early, and ride the Dinky into town, buy a copy of The New York Times, walk over to Olden Lane, eat breakfast or lunch at the Institute, and wander back to the university, where he could be found either in Fine or in Firestone. For some time, he became a regular at Fine Hall teas. The year Joseph Kohn became chairman of the math department, 1972, Kohn spent "many sleepless nights" over Nash.

Some of the math department secretaries had come to him at various times saying that Nash's behavior worried them. Kohn couldn't remember exactly what the behavior was but guessed that it involved stating. In any case, he brushed the women's complaints aside, saying that there was nothing to worry about, but privately he wasn't so sure.

With a few exceptions, such as Trotter, the faculty tended to avoid him. Claudia Goldin, who was on the economics faculty at the time, recalled: He was an intriguing mystery. He just seemed to be around. Here was this giant and all of us were standing on his

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--801

shoulders. But what kind of shoulders were they? For academics, there's always this fear, All you have is your brain. The idea that anything could go wrong with it is so threatening. It's threatening for everybody, of course, but for academics that's all of xdd19 Mostly it was students who knew a bit of his legend,

who generally found him nonthreatening, who sought him out. Feenberg, for example, had lunch with Nash. "Everyone knew he was a great man and just having lunch was an interesting experience.

It was sad also. Here was this presence, this very famous person in our midst that people outside of Princeton often thought was

deadd040  
in 1978, largely thanks to the kindness of his old classmate from graduate school and RAND, Lloyd Shapley, Nash was finally awarded

a mathematical prize. He was awarded the John von Neumann Theory

Prize by the Operations Research Society and the Institute for

Management Science jointly with Carl Lemke, a mathematician, of

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute

.41

Nash won for his invention of noncooperative equilibrium; Lemke

for his work in computing Nash

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--802

equilibria

.41

Lloyd Shapley was on the prize committee. It was his idea. "

I

felt sentiment and nostalgia"he recalled43 Shapley, having

received the honor himself the year before, thought: "Here's a

chance to do something for Nash." He was motivated, he later

said, by the hope that honoring Nash would somehow help Alicia

and Johnny. "My sentiment, such as it was, was based on picturing

him growing up. Here's this kid growing up and his dad

A802

isn't there. This might do something to increase his self-esteem.

His father isn't there, but he's great, his work is being recognized."

44

Nash was not, however, invited to the prize ceremony in Washington. Instead, Alan Hoffman, a mathematician at IBM and

the second member of the prize committee, went down to Princeton

to present Nash with the award. He said: "We gathered in Also

Tucker's office. Al and Harold Kuhn were there, so we chatted a

while. Nash was sitting in the corner. Let me tell you, seeing

this man who was a genius and now functioning at subadolescent

level really was tragic. There's a difference between knowing and

seeing.

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--803

Princeton, 1970-90

I have been sheltered here and thus avoided homelessness. comJOHN

NASH,  
1992

WHEN ALICIA OFFERED to let Nash live with her in 1970, she was

moved by pity, loyalty, and the realization that no one else on

earth would take him in. His mother was dead, his sister unable

to accept the burden. Alicia was, divorced or no, his wife.

Whatever her reservations about living with her mentally ill

exhusband, they played no role in her thinking: She was simply

not prepared to turn her back on him.

Alicia also was moved by the conviction that she had something

more to offer Nash than physical shelter. She believed, perhaps

somewhat wishfully, that living in an academic community among

his own kind, without the threat of further hospitalization,

would help him get well. She took Nash's own assessment of h

is  
needs -- for safety, freedom, and friendship --  
literally. In a letter to Martha written at Nash's request i  
n  
late 1968, when he was convinced that his mother and sister  
planned to hospitalize him again, Alicia had argued that  
hospitalization was unnecessary and harmful: "Much of his pa  
st  
hospitalization I now

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--804

feel was a mistake and had no beneficial permanent effects,  
rather the opposite. If he is to make a lasting adjustment,  
I  
think this has to be done under normal conditionsdd"I  
In 1968, Alicia had attributed her change of heart not just  
to  
the fact that Nash had relapsed despite aggressive treatment  
but,  
more important, to her own experiences since her divorce, wh  
ich  
gave her new insights into Nash's plight. She wrote to Marth  
a, "I  
feel that I now understand his difficulties much better than  
I  
ever did in the past, having experienced some of his type of  
problems personally." I Like many of those who tried to help  
Nash, Alicia was moved by a very personal and direct  
identification with his suffering.  
Alicia's beauty and vulnerability, a mix made even more pote  
nt  
because of her history of personal tragedy, made it likely t  
hat  
someone would fall in love with her.  
Forty-something, a professor of mathematics, John Coleman Mo  
ore

might have inhabited the pages of an F. Scott Fitzgerald

A804

novel rather than an office at Fine Hall. His dark good looks,  
formal manners, and custom-made suits distinguished him from the  
rather scruffy ranks of fellow

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--805

mathematicians. And his command of French and intimate knowledge  
of his native New York and assorted European capitals lent him a  
sophisticated aura. A bachelor, Moore was also a ladies' man

When they returned from their separate years in Paris, Moore,  
Nash, and Alicia sometimes had dinners A trois. But it wasn't  
until after the Nashes' divorce, in mid-1963, and after Moore,  
described by a former girlfriend as "rigid and

primbb'3  
suffered a devastating mental collapse of his own that the  
relationship turned romantic. Plagued by alcoholism and severe  
depression, Moore was hospitalized at a swank, psychoanalytically  
oriented hospital outside Philadelphia

.4  
During two and one-half lonely years in which Moore remained  
in  
the hospital, other than Donald Spencer and George Whitehead,  
his  
thesis adviser from MIT, Alicia was his only regular visitor

Whitehead, who ran into Alicia a few times there, recalled:  
"There were lots of people in P-town who didn't come and see

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--806

him. He was remarkably thankful for visitorsdd"I  
The friendship, born out of shared experiences and mutual  
sympathy, blossomed into romance .6Moore returned to Princeton  
and his teaching duties in the summer of 1965, about the same  
time that Nash moved to Boston. He became Alicia's regular escort  
at Princeton dinner parties, concerts, and the like. Whether  
it

was a great love match, as her marriage to Nash had been, is n't clear. Moore, for all his charm and kindness, had little of the sort of charisma that had attracted Alicia so wildly to Nash. She yearned for someone who could take care of her, though. And for some time it appeared that they would marry. At the time that Nash left Princeton, Alicia was still working at RCA. Her mother, who moved in with her after the death of her husband, kept house for Alicia as she had done in Cambridge years earlier. Mrs. Larde also helped take care of Johnny, who had grown into an extremely bright and altogether adorable boy, tall, sweetfaced, and still very blond. Things started to unravel when Alicia suddenly lost her job at RCA. The company's space division

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--807

had been periodically buffeted by contract cancellations and layoffs. Alicia, who was frequently absent, often late, or simply too depressed when she was at work to be effective, was particularly vulnerable. She found another job fairly quickly, but it didn't last. She could not seem to get on her feet again. For a grim period that lasted several years, she drifted from job to job and was frequently unemployed, a fact to which she alluded obliquely in her letter to Martha. Alicia was determined to get a job that matched her educational credentials, but few aerospace companies were hiring female engineers in that era, and Alicia

was turned down for more than thirty such positions.

A807

"There were times when I was going to interviews every day all

day," she later recalled. "But I never got any offers. It was

very depressing." I

Things got so bad after her unemployment benefits ran out that

she was forced to go on welfare and to use food stamps. Her

hope of marrying Moore came to nothing. He backed away, finding

the prospect of taking on a stepson as well as a wife "too much." Her mother "held everything together," Alicia later

said, but it was very hard." Alicia and her mother were forced to

give up the nice

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--808

house they were sharing on Franklin Street in the heart of Princeton proper." Alicia found a tiny nineteenth-century frame

house in Princeton Junction, long ago swathed in Insulbrick, to

rent. It was in poor repair, but cheap and convenient for commuting, since it was literally across the road from the railroad station. Johnny, who was twelve by this time, was extremely unhappy over having to leave his school and friends.

But Alicia had little choice.

Nash moved to the Junction with her, contributing some of his

small income from the trust left by Virginia to pay the rent and

household expenses. Alicia referred to him as a "boarder;" but

in fact they ate meals together and Nash spent a fair amount of

time with Johnny, sometimes helping him with his homework or

playing chess with him. Alicia had taught her son, who would

later become a chess master, how to play.

Nash was very withdrawn, very quiet. "He was not a

troublemaker," Odette recalled. "Haphazardly dressed, his gray

hair long, his expression blank, he would wander up and down

Nassau Street. Teenagers would taunt him, planting themselves

s in  
his path, waving their arms, shouting rude things

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--809

directly into his startled facedd16 Alicia was a proud woman

'  
always sensitive to appearances; her loyalty and compassion  
outweighed her concern for what others might think.

She was patient. She bit her tongue. She made very few deman  
ds on

Nash. Looking back, her gentle manner probably played a  
substantial role in his recoverydd"Had she threatened or  
pressured Nash, he very well might have wound up on the stre  
et.

This point was made by Richard Keefe, a psychiatrist at Duke  
University. Contrary to conventional wisdom, which held that

families of the mentally ill should "let it all out," more r  
ecent

research suggests that people with schizophrenia are no more  
able

to tolerate the expression of strong emotion than patients  
recovering from a heart attack or cancer surgery."

Alicia is a scrupulously honest person. She says of the role  
she

has played in protecting Nash simply, "Sometimes you don't p  
lan

things. They just turn out that waydd019 She does see that i  
t

helped him, though, saying, "Did the way he was treated help  
him

get better? Oh, I think so. He had his room and board, his b  
asic

needs taken care of, and not too much pressure. That's what  
you

need: being taken care of and not too much pressure."

810

In 1973, Alicia's circumstances started to improve. She had filed a sex discrimination suit against Boeing, one of the companies that had turned her down for a job in the late 1960's. It was a feisty thing to do, and the suit, which eventually netted her a modest out-of-court settlement, helped boost her morale. She got a programming job at Con Edison in New York City, where her old college friend Joyce Davis was working. It wasn't easy. She got up every morning at four-thirty to make the two-hour commute from Princeton junction to Con Edison's Gramercy Park headquarters in downtown Manhattan and came home well past eight every evening. She often felt frustrated by the work itself, her boss, Anna Bailey, another acquaintance from MIT, recalled. She felt that her brains and education weren't being sufficiently recognized."

But now that she was making a good salary again, she was able to enroll Johnny in the Peddie School, a private preparatory school in Hightstown, about ten miles west of Princeton." Johnny, who

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--811

had become moody and difficult at home, was nonetheless an excellent student. By the end of his sophomore year, when he won a Rensselaer Medal in a national competition, he had a 4.0 average. And he was showing a marked interest in and a talent for mathematics. "John talked to Johnny a lot about mathematics when he was growing up," Alicia later recalled, adding, "If his father hadn't been a mathematician, Johnny would have been a doctor or a lawyer." Johnny started hanging around the Fine Arts Hall common room to play chess and go and talk mathematics with various graduate students. Amir Assadi remembered him as "gentle,

a nice kid, a tiny bit awkward, like other mathematicians ..  
until they find their context."

16

Johnny was obviously gifted. Assadi recalled that he was studying  
disv high-powered math books." Sometimes father and son would  
come to Fine Hall together. Johnny didn't seem embarrassed, but  
neither did he ever refer to his father when talking to the  
students. Assadi recalled, "He disappeared one day. When he came  
back he'd shaved his head and had become a born-again

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--812

Christian."

In 1976, Solomon Leader was visiting his friend Harry Gonshor-the  
same Gonshor who had been part of Nash's crowd at MIT, now a

professor on the Princeton faculty comat the Carrier Clinic  
d17

As the orderly ushered Leader through the locked door of the  
ward, a tall, wild-eyed young man suddenly loomed before him  
, "Do

you know who I am?" he shouted right into Leader's face. "Do  
you

want to be saved" Leader noticed he was clutching a Bible.

Afterward, Gonshor told him that the man was the son of John

Nash.

By the time Johnny was hospitalized at Carrier at his mother's

initiative, he had been truant for nearly a year." He had dropped

all of his old friends. For many months, he had refused to leave

his room. When his mother or grandmother tried to intervene, he

lashed out at them. He had begun reading the Bible obsessively

and talking about redemption and damnationdd19 Soon he  
A812

began hanging out with members of a small fundamentalist sec  
t,  
the Way Ministry, and handing out leaflets and buttonholing  
strangers on street corners in Princeton."

It was not immediately obvious to Alicia or her mother that  
Johnny's troubling behavior was anything more than

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--813

an outburst of adolescent rebellion. In time it became clear  
that

Johnny was hearing voices and that he believed that he was a  
great religious figure. When Alicia tried to get him into  
treatment, he ran away. He stayed away for weeks and Alicia  
had

to go to the police for help in tracking him down and bringi  
ng  
him back. And then, when her son was in Carrier, Alicia lear  
ned  
that the thing she most dreaded, had dreaded all along, was  
true.

Her brilliant son was suffering from the same illness as his  
father."

Johnny seemed to improve quickly after the first hospitaliza  
tion.

But he did not return to school for three yearsdd"Alicia nev  
er  
talked about him at work except when she was forced to ask f  
or

time off." She never told anyone at Con Edison that John Nas  
h was  
living with her again. Like Virginia Nash a decade earlier,  
she

treated her woes as her private sorrow. She tried to cope wi  
th

Johnny's refusal to take medication, his constant running aw  
ay,

his periodic need for hospitalization, and the terrible drai  
n on

her slender resources without giving in to her own depressio  
n.

"You sacrifice so much, you put so much into it, and then it  
all

goesea"she said laterdd14  
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--814

As the trouble with Johnny overwhelmed her, Alicia turned to  
her

friend Gaby Borel for support. Gaby accompanied Alicia on visits to Carrier, and later to Trenton Psychiatric, talked with her on the telephone, and invited the Nashes to dinner." Moore confirms this: "Gaby is the closest female friend Alicia has around here. Gaby is very good. Nobody else was around consistently."

16  
Gaby's tribute to Alicia's stoicism holds true to this day: "At first, you cannot tell anything about her. You do not realize who she is. She has put a sort of shield around herself. But she is a very brave and faithful woman."

In 1977, John David Stier made a cameo appearance in Nash's life. Father and son had been in touch by letter at least since 1971, John David's senior year in high school. Nash had become quite concerned about his son's college plans, and Alicia had written Arthur Mattuck to ask him to advise John David. John David enrolled at Bunker Hill Community College and supported himself by working as an orderly. Four years later, he applied to a number of four-year

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--815  
schools, was offered several scholarships, and in 1976 transferred to Amherst, one of the most elite liberal arts colleges in the country. That fall Norton Starr, a professor of mathematics at Amherst, hired a student to do some yard work for him. Afterward, Starr invited him into the house for a cold drink. As they chatted, the

young man learned that Starr had done his Ph.D. at MIT.

A815

Had he known a mathematician there named John Nash? Only by sight and reputation, Starr replied. "He's my father" the young man said. Starr looked at him searchingly. He looked at the young man again. "My God, you do look just like him," he said. Shortly

afterward, John David drove down to Princeton to visit his father. Alicia was friendly. He met his brother, Johnny, for the first time.

The following Christmas, Johnny came up to Boston to stay with Eleanor and John David. Eleanor welcomed him warmly, cooked him nice meals, fussed over him. He came without a winter coat, so Eleanor bought him a down jacket. Johnny was well-behaved around his older brother, but could turn nasty when he was alone with her. At the end of the holiday, Eleanor recalled, "he didn't want to let John go. So John took him back

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--816

to school with  
hiMdd041

The reunion between Nash and John Stier did not lead to a lasting reconciliation. "It just sort of petered out" John Stier recalled. His father was more interested in talking about his own problems than his son's. "When I asked him for advice, he'd answer with something about Nixon" he said. Nash's confidences were unsettling. Nash had some idea that his son, having attained his majority, would play "an essential and significant personal role in my personal long-awaited `gay liberation!" He had waited a long time, as he said at the time, to "tell him about my life and problems and life history" Eleanor Stier recalled that he did SDD41 John David eventually stopped returning his father's calls.

The two would not meet again for seventeen years. "I haven't always wanted to have contact with him," John David said. "Having a mentally ill father was rather disturbing." More often than commonly realized, schizophrenia can be an episodic illness, especially in the years following its initial onset. Periods of acute psychosis may be interspersed with periods of

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--817

relative calm in which symptoms diminish dramatically either as a result of treatment or spontaneously. This was the pattern for

Johnny.

In 1979, on the first day of the fall semester at Rider College

in Lawrenceville, New Jersey, Kenneth Fields, the chairman of the

mathematics department, was asked to talk with a freshman who had

made a pest of himself at the math orientation session, questioning everything and protesting that the presentation was

not rigorous enough

.47

"I don't need to take calculus," the young man said when he arrived in Fields's office. "I'm going to major in math." Since

Rider rarely attracted students with an interest or background in

mathematics, Fields was intrigued. Quizzing the student as they

walked around the campus, he quickly concluded that no mathematics course at Rider was advanced enough for this young

man and offered to tutor him personally. "By the way,  
A817

what's your name" he finally asked. "John Nashea" the student  
replied. Seeing Fields's look of astonishment, he added, "You  
u may  
have heard of my father. He solved the embedding theorem." F  
or  
Fields, who had been an

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--818

undergraduate at MIT in the 1960's and was familiar with the  
Nash  
legend, it was an amazing moment.  
Fields proceeded to meet with Johnny weekly. Johnny took a while  
to buckle down, but he was soon plowing through difficult texts  
in linear algebra, advanced calculus, and differential geometry.

"It was obvious that he was a real mathematician," said Fields. He was also bright and friendly, a  
fundamentalist Christian who made friends with other religious,  
intellectually precocious students. He talked to Fields, who  
has  
several relatives who suffer from schizophrenia, about his mental  
illness. Occasionally he would do a riff on extraterrestrials,  
and on one occasion he threatened a history professor. By and  
large, said Fields, Johnny's symptoms seemed to be under control.  
He got straight A's and won an academic prize in his sophomore  
year. Fields soon concluded that Johnny was wasting his time  
at  
Rider and belonged in a Ph.D. program. In 1981, despite his  
lack  
of a high school or college diploma, Johnny was accepted at  
Rutgers University with a full scholarship.

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--819

Once there, he breezed through his qualifying examinations.  
From  
time to time he would threaten to drop out of school and Fields  
would get frantic calls from Alicia begging him to talk to  
Johnny. When Fields did, Johnny would answer, "Why do I have  
to

do anything? My father doesn't have to do anything. My mother supports him. Why can't she support me?" "But he didn't drop out. He succeeded brilliantly.

Melvyn Nathanson, then a professor of mathematics at Rutgers, liked to assign what he called simple versions of unsolved classical problems in his graduate course on number theory. "I gave one the first week," he recalled. "Johnny came back with the solution the following week. I gave another one that week and a week later he had that solution too. It was extraordinary." Johnny wrote a joint paper with Nathanson that became the first chapter of his dissertation. He then wrote a second paper on his own, which Nathanson called "beautiful" and which also became part of the thesis. "His third paper was an important generalization of a theorem proved by Paul Erdős in the 1930's for a special

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--820

case of so-called B sequences. Neither Erdős nor anyone else had succeeded in proving that the theorem held for other sequences, and Johnny's successful attack on the problem would generate a flurry of papers by other number theorists. When Johnny got his Ph.D. from Rutgers in 1985, said Nathanson, he seemed poised for a long and productive career as a first-rate research mathematician. An offer of a one-year instructorship at Marshall University in West Virginia seemed like the first of the

usual steps that eventually carry new mathematics Ph.D's  
A820

to tenured positions somewhere in academia. While Johnny was  
in

graduate school, Alicia Larde returned to El Salvador for go  
od

and Alicia Nash moved to a job as a computer programmer at N  
ew

Jersey Transit in Newarkdd"Things seemed rather hopeful.

PART FIVE

The Most Worthy

As you know, he has had his illness, but right now he fine,  
ft

not attributable to One or several things. It just a questio  
n

Oflivinga quiet life. ALSO-ICIA NA-SH,

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--821

1994

PETER

SARNAK,

a brash thirty-five-year-old number theorist whose primary  
interest is the Riemann Hypothesis, joined the Princeton fac  
ulty

in the fall of 1990. He had just given a seminar. The tall,  
thin,

white-haired man who had been sitting in the back asked for a  
a

copy of Sarnak's paper after the crowd had dispersed.

Sarnak, who had been a student of Paul Cohen's at Stanford,  
knew

Nash by reputation as well as by sight, naturally. Having be  
en

told many times Nash was completely mad, he wanted to be kin  
d. He

promised to send Nash the paper. A few days later, at teatim  
e,

Nash approached him again. He had a few questions, he said,  
avoiding looking Sarnak in the face. At first, Sarnak just  
listened politely. But within a few minutes, Sarnak found hi  
mslf

having to concentrate quite hard. Later, as he turned the  
conversation over in his mind, he felt rather astonished. Na  
sh

had spotted a real problem in one of Sarnak's arguments. Wha  
t's

more, he also suggested a way around it. "The way he views t  
hings

is very different from other peopleea"Sarnak said

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--822

later. "He comes up with instant insights I don't know I'd ever

get to. Very, very outstanding insights. Very unusual insightsdd"I

They talked from time to time. After each conversation, Nash

would disappear for a few days and then return with a sheaf of

computer printouts. Nash was obviously very, very good with the

computer. He would think up some miniature problem, usually very

ingeniously, and then play with it. If something worked on a

small scale, in his head, Sarnak realized, Nash would go to the

computer to try to find out if it was "also true the next few

w hundred thousand times."

What really bowled Sarnak over, though, was that Nash seemed

perfectly rational, a far cry from the supposedly demented man he

had heard other mathematicians describe. Sarnak was more than a

little outraged. Here was this giant and he had been all but

forgotten by the mathematics profession. And the justification

for the neglect was obviously no longer valid, if it had ever

been.

That was 1990. In retrospect, it is impossible to say exactly

when Nash's miraculous remission, which began to be noted by

mathematicians around Princeton roughly at the beginning  
A822

of this decade, really began. But, in contrast to the onset

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of his illness, which became full-blown in a matter of months,  
the remission took place over a period of years. It was, by his  
own account, a slow evolution, "a gradual tapering off in the  
1970's and 1980's."

Hale Trotter, who saw Nash nearly every day in the computer  
center during those years, confirms this: "My impression was  
of a  
very gradual sort of improvement. In the early stages he was

making up numbers out of names and being worried by what he  
found. Gradually, that went away. Then it was more mathematical  
numerology. Playing with formulas and factoring. It wasn't  
coherent math research, but it had lost its bizarre quality.

Later it was real research

As early as 1983, Nash was beginning to come out of his shell  
and  
making friends with students. Marc Ducey, a graduate student  
in

economics, sought Nash out in 1983. "I felt bold enough at the  
time to want to meet this legend. He discovered that he  
and

Nash shared an interest in the stock market. "We'd be walking  
along Nassau Street and we'd be talking about the market." Ducey  
recalled.

Nash struck Ducey as a "stock picker" and on occasion  
Ducey followed his advice (with less than stellar

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results, it must be said). The following year, when Ducey was  
working on his thesis and was unable to solve the model he wanted  
to use, Nash helped to bail him out. "The calculation of an  
infinite product was involved," Ducey recalled. "I was unable  
to

do it, so I showed it to Nash. He suggested I use Stirling's  
formula to compute the product and then he wrote down a few

lines

of equations to indicate how this should be done. All during

this time, Nash struck Dudey as no odder than other mathematicians he had encountered.

By 1985, Daniel Feenberg, who had helped Nash factor a number

derived from Rockefeller's name a decade earlier and was now a

visiting professor at Princeton, had lunch with Nash. He was

deeply struck by the change he saw in Nash. "He seemed so much

better. He described his work in the theory of prime numbers . I'm

not competent to judge it, but it seemed like real mathematics,

like disreal research. That was very gratifying."

The changes were for the most part visible only to a few. Edward

G. Nilges, a programmer who worked in Princeton University's

computer center from 1987 to

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--825

1992, recalled that Nash "acted frightened and silent" at first.

In Nilges's last year or two in Princeton, however, Nash was

asking him questions about the Internet and about programs he was

working on. Nilges was impressed: "Nash's computer programs were

startlingly elegant."

And in 1992, when Shapley visited Princeton, he and Nash had

lunch and were able, for the first time in many, many years, to

have quite an enjoyable conversation. "Nash was quite sharp then," Shapley recalled. "He was free of this distraction. He'd

learned how to use the computer. He was working on the Big A825

Bang. I was very pleased."

That Nash, after so many years of severe illness, was now within

the normal range for the `mathematical personality` "raises a

great many questions. Had Nash really recovered? How rare is such

a recovery? Did the "recovery" indicate he had never really had

schizophrenia, which, as everyone knows, is incurable? Were his

psychotic episodes in the late 1950's through the 1970's really

symptoms of bipolar illness, which is generally less debilitating

and carries better odds of recovery?

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Absent a re-diagnosis based on Nash's psychiatric records, no

absolutely definitive answer is possible. Psychotic symptoms

alone, psychiatrists now agree, "do not make a schizophrenic

, " and distinguishing between schizophrenia and bipolar illness

when symptoms first appear remains difficult even with today's more

precise diagnostic criteria. Nonetheless, there are strong

reasons for believing that Nash's initial diagnosis was, in

fact, correct and that he is one of a very small number of individuals

who suffered a long and severe course of schizophrenia to

experience a dramatic remission. The fact that Nash's younger son has also been diagnosed with

paranoid schizophrenia and schizoaffective disorder is strong

evidence that Nash himself had schizophrenia. In contrast

to the Freudian theories popular in the 1950's, when Nash was first

diagnosed, schizophrenia is now thought to have a strong genetic

component. 11

The duration and severity of Nash's symptoms compared to his inability to

do work that was, prior to and since his illness, the principle

pal  
passion of his life, and his withdrawal from most human contact  
also powerful evidence. Moreover, Nash has described his

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--827

illness not in terms of highs and lows, bouts of mania followed  
by disabling depression, but rather in terms of a persistent

dreamlike state and bizarre beliefs in terms not dissimilar to  
those used by other people with schizophrenia." He has spoken of  
being preoccupied by delusions, of being unable to work, and of  
withdrawing from the people around him. Mostly, however, he has  
defined it as an inability to reason." Indeed, he has told Harold

Kuhn and others that he is still plagued by paranoid thoughts,  
even voices, although, in comparison to the past, the noise level

has been turned way down." Nash has compared rationality to dieting,  
implying a constant, conscious struggle. It is a matter

of policing one's thoughts, he has said, trying to recognize  
paranoid ideas and rejecting them, just the way somebody who  
wants to lose weight has to decide consciously to avoid fats or  
sweets.

14

While psychiatry has made progress in defining disease, definitions  
of recovery remain controversial. The absence of

obvious symptoms, as George Winokur and Min Tsuang wrote, does

not necessarily mean that [individuals] are well, since they  
still may be suffering from a

defect state that is stabilized and with which they have

828

now learned to cope with such an assessment, possibly appropriate

to Nash's state in the late 1970's and early 1980's, seems overly

pessimistic now. Both the perceptions of those who know Nash and

his own indicate a more expansive, far-reaching change. "John has

definitely recovered," said Kenneth Fields of Rider College, who

has known Nash since the late 1970's and has had a great deal of

firsthand experience with people who suffer from schizophrenia.

It would be more accurate to describe Nash's recovery as a "remission." And, it turns out, the remission, though miraculous,

is not unique. Until a few years ago, nobody knew much about the life history of people with schizophrenia. The only studies dated to the 1970's and were done

by psychiatrists who worked at state hospitals. Since the only

older people who were still there to be studied were still sick

enough to require constant hospitalization, schizophrenia was

viewed as a degenerative disease. Its assault on the brain was

thought to continue, more or less evenly, until death. Manfred

Bleuler, a German psychiatrist, was the first researcher to systematically challenge this

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view. In a twenty-year follow-up of more than two hundred patients, he found 20 percent "fully recovered." Moreover, he

concluded that long-lasting recoveries did not result from treatment and hence appeared to be spontaneous. Then a German

team at the University of Bonn did a long-term follow-up of patients who had been admitted to one of the city's psychiatric

hospitals during the late 1940's and early 1950's.

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Going back to the records, they reviewed the diagnosis of schizophrenia and chose only patients whose histories and symptoms were consistent with modern definitions of the disease.

ase.

There were about five hundred. Then they located the people or their families and, through interviews with the patients and people who knew them, created detailed portraits of what had happened to them.

Many -- about a quarter -- had died, mostly suicides. Some were still institutionalized, apparently unresponsive to any drugs or to electroshock treatment, which was used far more extensively than in the United States. Another group was living with their families, but still had symptoms, especially the

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negative symptoms of lethargy, lack of drive, and lack of interest and pleasure in life. But a surprisingly large group --

perhaps a quarter -- seemed to be symptom-free, living independently, with a circle of friends and jobs in the professions for which they had been trained or had held before

they got sick. Most of these had not been under the care of a physician for years,

The researchers were extremely surprised. As news of the study

results spread through the small global community of schizophrenia researchers, a team in the United States at the

University of Vermont decided to undertake a similar long-term

study. Despite their initial skepticism, their results were

remarkably similar"Ten years after the disease struck,  
A830

most patients were still extremely sick. Thirty years later,  
however, a significant minority were leading fairly normal lives.

Only about  
5 percent conformed completely to the backward image. Most of  
those who committed suicide, it turned out, did so in the first  
ten years of the disease. These appeared to be people who got  
t  
well enough between acute episodes to appreciate the awfulness of  
what lay ahead of them and succumbed to despair. And most of  
the  
damage

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--831

to thinking and emotion from the disease seemed to occur in  
those

years as well. After that, symptoms seemed to level out.

Subsequent research has somewhat tempered these optimistic  
conclusions.`,, All long-term studies are plagued by

uncertainties about diagnoses and by differences over what  
constitutes "recovery"dd"A study by Winokur and Tsuang of 170

patients, perhaps the most rigorous, found that thirty years

after the onset of the illness, just 8 percent could be  
considered well. 19

Thus, while Nash's dramatic recovery is not unique, it is  
relatively rare.

While none of the studies was able to pinpoint factors that  
favored recovery, they suggest that someone with Nash's history

prior to the onset of his illness-high social class, high IQ

,  
high achievement, with no schizophrenic relatives, who gets  
the

disease relatively late in the third decade, who experiences  
very

acute symptoms early and gets sick at the time of some great  
life

change comhas the best chance of remissiondd10 On the other  
hand,

young men like Nash for whom the contrast between early  
achievement and the state to which they are reduced by the

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--832

disease is greatest are also most likely to commit suicide. Since suicides are relatively rare for hospitalized patients, Martha may have saved Nash's life by insisting, during the 1960's, that he be hospitalized. Whether or not insulin shock and antipsychotic drugs, which apparently produced the temporary remissions Nash experienced in the first half of the 1960's, increased the odds of a remission later in life is unclear. While a larger number of patients who got sick during the 1950's, when antipsychotic drugs became available on a wide scale, were among those who were symptom free in late middle age, early treatment with drugs wasn't a particularly accurate indicator of what would happen later. At the same time, Nash's refusal to take the antipsychotic drugs after 1970, and indeed during most of the periods when he wasn't in the hospital during the 1960's, may have been fortunate. Taken regularly, such drugs, in a high percentage of cases, produce horrible, persistent symptoms like tardive dyskinesia, stiffening of head and neck muscles and involuntary movements, including of the tongue -- and a mental fog, all of which would have made his gentle

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reentry into the world of mathematics a near impossibility. 21  
Nash's remission did not come about, as many people later

assumed, because of some new treatment. "I emerged from  
A833

irrational thinking"he said in 1996, "ultimately, without  
medicine other than the natural hormonal changes of aging."

He described the process as one that involved both a growing  
awareness of the sterility of his delusional state and a grow  
ing  
capacity for rejecting delusional thought. He wrote in 1995:

Gradually I began to intellectually reject some of the  
delusionally influenced lines of thinking which had been  
characteristic of my orientation. This began, most recogniza  
bly,  
with the rejection of politically-oriented thinking as  
essentially a hopeless waste of intellectual effort.

14

He believes, rightly or wrongly, that he willed his own reco  
very:

Actually, it can be analogous to the role of willpower in  
effectively dieting: if one makes an effoyt to "rationalize"  
one's

thinking then one can simply recognize and reject the irrati  
onal

hypotheses of delusional thinking."

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--834

"A key step was a resolution not to concern myself in politi  
cs

relative to my secret world because it was ineffectualea"he  
wrote

in his Nobel autobiography. "This in turn led me to renounce

anything relative to religious issues, or teaching or intend  
ing

to teach.

"I began to study mathematical problems and to learn the com  
puter

as it existed at the time. I was helped (by mathematicians w  
ho

got me computer time)dd011 By the late 1980's, Nash's name w  
as

appearing in the titles of dozens of articles in leading  
economics journalsdd"B Nash himself remained in obscurity. M

any

younger researchers, of course, simply assumed he was dead.

Others thought that he was languishing in a mental hospital  
or

had heard that he had a lobotomydd"Even the best-informed sa

w

him, for the most part, as a sort of ghost. In particular, with the exception of the 1978 von Neumann Prize as the result of Lloyd Shapley's efforts as the recognition and honors routinely accorded scholars of his stature simply failed to materialize.<sup>19</sup> One particularly egregious episode in the academic year 1987-88 illustrated just how powerfully the perceptions of Nash's mental illness worked

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to reinforce his marginalized status, even in the field, economics, that he had helped to revolutionize. Being elected a Fellow in the Econometric Society is, as one former president of the society put it, tantamount to getting one's membership card in the club of bona-fide economic theorists." By 1987, there were some 350 living Fellows, including every past and future Nobel Laureate to date but Douglass North (presumably excluded because he is an economic historian, not a mathematical economist), as well as every leading contributor to game theory-Kuhn, Shapley, Shubik, Aumann, Harsanyi, Selten, and so forth as well as Nash. In late 1988, Ariel Rubinstein, a recently elected Fellow, was surprised to discover this "historic mistake" and promptly nominated Nash.<sup>20</sup> The nomination came too late for the November 1989 election. Further, the society's bylaws required any candidate proposed by

a sole sponsor to pass muster with the society's

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five-member nominating committee—one of whose main tasks was  
, in  
any case, to "determine whether

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previous nominating committees had overlooked p"and to corre  
ct  
such oversights." As a result, the nomination was forwarded  
to

the committee, which took it up in the spring of 1989. By th  
en,

Rubinstein, a game theorist who holds professorships at the  
University of Tel Aviv and Princeton University, was a membe  
r of

the committee. The other members, all professors of economic  
s,

were Mervyn King at the London School of Economics (also a  
vice-chairman of the Bank of England), Beth Allen at the  
University of Minnesota, Gary Chamberlain at Harvard, and Tr  
uman

Bewley at Yaleddl4

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The proposal to put Nash on the ballot sparked an intense  
controversy be-

tween Rubinstein and the rest of the committee, one that dra  
gged

on for months. From the start, the issue was Nash's mental  
illness. Mervyn King said in 1996: "People felt in some vagu  
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sense this was relevant." Other committee members pointed o  
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that Nash had no recent publications, was not even a member  
of

the society, and was unlikely to participate actively, if  
elected.

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At one point Truman Bewley, the committee's chairman, wrote  
to

Rubinstein, "I doubt [Nash] would be elected, since he is we  
ll

known to have been crazy for years,"ddmissing the nomination  
as

"frivolous."

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When Rubinstein refused to back down, Bewley asked him to fi  
nd

out more about "the current status of Nash's healthdd"Af

Rubinstein objected that no other candidates were being similarly

investigated, Bewley made his own inquiries, calling, among others, his colleague at Yale Martin Shubik, who had known Nash

in graduate school and had received some of Nash's "mad" letters.

Bewley reported back to the committee: "Regarding Nash, I inquired and learned that he is still crazy. Fellowship is an

activity more than a reward for past work. The fellows are the

ultimate governing body of the Econometric Society."

In June, the committee voted four to one to keep Nash off the

November

1989 ballot. Rubinstein was the sole dissenter. Beth Allen recalled, "People were asked to give a rank ordering. Nash didn't

make it. Ariel had

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a fit. He insisted Nash be put on the ballot anyway." Bewley made

it clear that the matter was closed, a decision he later regretted. "It was the wrong decision," he said in 1996.<sup>19</sup> The

episode is reminiscent of the Institute for Advanced Study's

refusal, for many years, to grant a mathematics professorship to

the world-renowned logician Kurt Gödel.<sup>41</sup> But, in that case

, there was considerably more justification, since the Institute's

tiny mathematics faculty feared that G6del's well-known  
A838

paranoia and terror of decision-making would hamstring its  
ability to conduct business, which included the selection of  
each

year's visiting scholarSdd41

The crowning irony of this affair is that when Nash did get  
on

the ballot, in the election for 1990 (because Rubinstein  
circumvented the nominating committee by submitting a joint  
nomination with Kenneth Binmore, at the University of Michig  
an,

and Roger Myerson, at Northwestern Universityggea41 he recei  
ved,

according to the Secretary of the society, Julie Gordon, "th  
e

overwhelming majority of the votesdd041

You will have to wait to find out [the story of Nash prize]  
in

fifiyyears. We will never reveal it.

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CARL-OL-OF JA-COBsoation,  
secretary general, Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, Februa  
ry  
1997

IT  
is  
TuESDAY,  
October 12, 1994. J6rgen Weibull, a personable young profess  
or of  
economics, looks at his watch for perhaps the fiftieth time.

` He  
is standing near the front of the massive Sessions Hall of t  
he

Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences coma jewelbox of a room wi  
th a

heavily ornamented ceiling and portrait-lined walls comwh, a  
t the

moment, is crowded with reporters and camera crews, jammed i  
n

narrow aisles between the U-shaped tables. Near-pandemonium  
reigns. Everybody is milling around, speculating in loud voi  
ces

about the delay. Weibull had been so elated when he left his

office at the University of Stockholm that midmorning that h  
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half walked, half ran through the highway underpass and up t  
he

hill to the academy half a mile away. Assar Lindbeck, the chairman of the prize committee, had asked him if he wouldn't mind being on hand to answer questions at the

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--840

press conference -- quite an honor. But now Weibull's mouth feels dry, his shoulders ache, and he can feel the first twinges of a headache as he tries to imagine what has gone wrong. The Nobel press conference had, as usual, been called for eleven-thirty. These staid, heavily scripted events are always held right after the final, ceremonial vote and always start on time. But it is one o'clock and there is no sign of any academy officials and no word either. All the reporters are saying that nothing like this has ever happened before. Suddenly, the enormous doors to his left swing open and a small knot of academy officials burst into the hall, all wearing slightly dazed expressions, like moviegoers stepping out of a theater into daylight. They hurry past the milling, shouting throng, ignoring the questions, brushing aside the demands for explanations. But Weibull, who is standing near the table with the microphones, manages to catch Lindbeck's eye for a fraction of a second. The relief is overwhelming. "Lindbeck didn't signal

or anything like that," he said later, "but I saw right  
A840

away that everything had turned out all

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right." And the relief turns into something like joy when he

listens to Carl-Olof Jacobson, the academy's handsome, silver-haired secretary general, read the first few words of the press release:

"John Forbes Nash, Jr., of Princeton, New Jersey. . ."

The behind-the-scenes saga of John Nash's Nobel Prize is almost

as extraordinary as the fact that the mathematician became a

Laureate at all. For years after the idea of a prize for game

theory was first considered, even Nash's most ardent admirers

considered the likelihood of his winning impossibly remote.

But much later, when the prize was virtually his, after he had

been told that he had won it, and within an hour of the official

notification, the

ne plus ultra

of honors very nearly eluded him with far-reaching

consequences for the future of the economics prize itself.

This previously untold story is one that the Royal Swedish

Academy of Sciences and the Nobel Foundation committed on

preserving the Olympian aura that surrounds the prizes--have

tried very hard to keep under wraps. The academy is one

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of the most secretive of societies, and all details of the nominations, inquiries, deliberations, and votes--of the lengthy

selection process are among the most closely guarded secrets

in the world. The very statutes of the prize demand it:

Proposals received for the award of a prize, and investigations

and opinions concerning the award of a prize may not be divulged.

Should divergent opinions have been expressed in connection with

the decision of the prize-winning body concerning the award of

the prize, these may not be included in the record or otherwise divulged. A prize-winning body may, however, after due consideration in each individual case, permit access to material which formed the basis for evaluation and decision concerning a prize, for purposes of historical research. Such permission may not be granted until at least 50 years have elapsed after the date on which the decision in question was taken.` There have been breaches, of course. In the 1960's and 1970's, advance rumors of the literature Laureates used to trickle out of the Academy of Arts and Letters with notorious regularity.` In 1994, a member of the

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--843  
Norewegian Nobel Committee quit over the impending peace prize to the Palestinian leader Yasir Arafat, and took his protest to the media. Michael Sohlman, the executive director of the Nobel Foundation, still sounds furious when he recounts the incident7  
But, few, if any, cracks have appeared, figuratively or otherwise, in the gray Beaux Arts walls of the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, guardian of the physics, chemistry, and economics prizes. If not for the mysterious one-and-a-halfhour delay on the day that the Nash prize was announced, the academy

might well have succeeded in protecting the secrecy of the  
A843  
process. As it was, academy officials not only refused to explain  
the delay but denied that it was in any way significant. Indeed,  
they very quickly began to assert that it had never happened

Recently, Karl-Göran Måler, a member of the economics prize committee in 1994 and privy to all of the events that transpired,  
said, "I do not recall any delay." I  
The prize in economics is something of a

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--844  
stepchild Alfred Nobel, the Swedish industrialist and inventor, did not have the dismal science in mind when he wrote  
his famous 1894 will creating Nobel Prizes in physics, chemistry,  
medicine, literature, and peace. The economics prize was not  
created until nearly seventy years later, the brainchild of the  
then head of the Swedish central bank. The prize is financed by  
the bank and administered by the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences and the Nobel Foundation. It is not, in fact, a Nobel  
Prize, but rather "The Central Bank of Sweden Prize in Economic  
Science in Memory of Alfred Nobel." To the public, that is a  
distinction without much of a difference. The early winners of  
the economics prize -- among them Paul Samuelson, Kenneth Arrow,  
and Gunnar Myrdal- were generally acknowledged to be intellectual  
giants and lent their distinction to the prize. And, so far at  
least, it has become "the ultimate symbol of excellence for  
scientists and laymen alike" and does in fact make economics  
Nobelists "life peers in the world community of scholars." 01  
1  
The criteria, rules, and procedures for the economics prize  
are  
patterned after those that apply

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to the science prizesdd"Candidates must be living. No more than three can share a prize, which is less of a problem in economics than in physical science, where teamwork is more the norm. Though many people, even those who participate in the nominating process, have failed to appreciate it, the Nobel is not a prize for outstanding individuals nor is it a lifetime achievement

award. The prize is awarded for specific achievements, inventions, and discoveries. These can be theories, analytical methods, or purely empirical results. As in physics, in which mathematics plays as big a role as in economics, there is a strong bias against prizes for only mathematics." (Nobel himself is said to have hated mathematicians, though some of the best stories about why--revolving around sexual and professional jealousy -- turn out to have been apocryphal). I I The prize selection process is also virtually identical to the cycles for the science prizes.

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A five-member prize committee, composed of senior Swedish economists, gathers nominations and referees reports from elite academics around the world. The committee makes its choice every spring,

usually in April. The so-called Social Sciences Class-all  
846

academy members in economics and other social sciences  
comendorses the candidate or candidates in early fall, usual  
ly  
late August or early September. And the academy votes on the  
nominees in early October, on the day that the winner or win  
ners  
are announced.

On paper, at least, all the members of the prize committee a  
re as  
distinguished as the candidates, and the selection of winner  
s is  
a detached, disinterested, and, ultimately, democratic exerc  
ise  
in scientific judgment comz divorced from personal likes and

dislikes, prejudices, or political and pecuniary considerati  
ons  
as the business of determining the winners in a sports  
tournament. There is some, even a  
good deal, of truth in this idealized description of what  
actually goes on, but it is not anything like the whole stor  
y.

Assar Lindbeck, who joined the prize committee in 1969 and b  
ecame  
its chairman in 1980, has dominated the economics selections  
for  
the entire history of the Nobel Prize." Tall, red-haired,  
powerfully built, he looks like the

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--847

boss of a machine tool shop or a mine. He is from the far no  
rth  
of Sweden, a little crude, a little uptight, more than a lit  
tle  
brusque. He has opinions, strong ones, about nearly all topi  
cs  
that engage his lively mind, and as a result is quite unpopu  
lar  
in the academy. But he is not without a certain earthy charm  
. His  
sense of humor is sly and dry. He is a Sunday painter comsho  
wing  
up at prize committee meetings with paint spatters on his  
horn-rimmed glasses. A large -- and extremely graphic -- ero  
tic  
painting hangs in his office at the university.

Lindbeck is Sweden's most important economist. Top academic  
economists in Sweden, where academia, government, and indust

ry  
have long been closely entwined, have traditionally wielded  
a  
great deal more political power than their American counterparts.  
16 Bertil Ohlin, the committee's first chairman, was for years  
the leader of Sweden's opposition. Gunnar Myrdal, who won the  
prize in 1974, was a minister in the Social Democratic  
government. Lindbeck himself was a protégé of Prime Minister  
Olof Palme, has held many political advisory posts, and has  
been  
involved in most public policy

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--848

debates since the 1960's.  
Unlike Ohlin and Myrdal, Lindbeck never abandoned his research  
career to become a full-time politician. Indeed, he is generally  
considered a likely contender for a Nobel himself. Even today, at  
age sixty-eight, there is a small assembly line on the shelves  
behind his desk at the University of Stockholm: impressively  
large piles of paper marked "Articles Under  
Preparation," "Articles Submitted," and "Articles Accepted."  
And  
he has used his political savvy and prestige to build up  
economics departments and research institutes. "He's kind of  
a  
mafia leader, a fixer," was said Karl-Gustaf Larsson, an adjunct  
member of the economics prize committee and a professor of  
resource economics at the University of Umea.

He adds:

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I never did any resource economics, but I became a professor of resource economics. [Lindbeck] has good ideas about who to move here and there. He listens. He has his own opinions. I like him. He's a very sound guy. Very smart.

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Lindbeck has a reputation for getting his way. His style is that of a central banker rather than a chief executive officer. As his longtime friend Wer put it, "Assar never controlled with commandsdd011 In an article Lindbeck wrote on the economic prize in the mid-1980's, he bragged: "So far the proposals of the prize committee to the Academy have been unanimous. A consensus has in fact developed quite 'automatically' within the committee, as if by some kind of invisible hand, after intensive discussionsdd019 The invisible hand, of course, was his own. "You could put it that wayea"said Wgren, laughing. "You can sdy it's unanimous. ... But he's a dominating person. We don't vote officially. You agreedd010 Kerstin Fredga, the president of the Swedish Academy of Sciences, said at one point, "Very few people have ever dared say no to Assardd"I I Ironically, by December 1994, when Fredga made the remark, it was no longer true.

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John Nash's name first appeared as a candidate for a Nobel in the mid-1980'sdd11 The Nobel selection process is like a giant funnel, At any given time, the economics prize committee has a dozen "investigations" running of fields and clusters of possible candidates. But, fairly quickly, the focus shifts to the hot test

fields and candidates. By 1984, the "obvious" Nobels had been handed out to the likes of Samuelson, Arrow, and James Tobin. The committee was looking further afield among newer branches of economics, and nothing was newer or hotter at that particular moment than game theory." In 1984, the prize committee contacted a young researcher at Hebrew University in Jerusalem. A combat veteran and an activist in Israel's peace movement, Ariel Rubinstein took months to write a painstaking ten-page report on potential candidates for a prize in game theory. He placed Nash at the top of the list. The 1982 paper that established Rubinstein as one of the leading researchers in game theory was an extension of Nash's 1950 bargaining paper. Rubinstein's sense of indebtedness to Nash and his

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--851

appreciation for Nash's original achievement were thus very vivid. Having encountered Nash on a visit to Princeton, Rubinstein also could not help but be struck by the stark contrast between Nash's past contributions and his current circumstances. His outrage was fueled partly by a firsthand encounter with the stigma of mental illness: his mother was once hospitalized for depression, and Rubinstein never forgot the lack

of basic human respect accorded her by doctors and

A851  
relativesdd16

The Nobel Prize committee did not take up the matter again until

1987, when it commissioned a second report, this time from Weibulldd17 After he submitted it, Lindbeck told him that the

committee wanted to ask him some questions and asked him to attend a couple of committee meetings at the Royal Academy. Weibull was, of course, pledged to complete secrecy.

When Weibull walked into the paneled room, introductions were

hardly necessary. As a member of Sweden's small academic elite,

Weibull already knew the five men, mostly academics, sitting

around the enormous table. He was nonetheless slightly awed,

realizing from the committee's questions that

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--852

he was being given the opportunity to participate at the earliest

stage of a historic decision. "My impression ... [was] that it

was the first time that the committee had met to consider thisdd018 Weibull presented a verbal summary of his report, telling the committee about the central ideas in game theory

, their importance for economic research, and the key contributors. He, too, had placed Nash at the top of his list

of half a dozen seminal thinkers.

The committee's questions were carefully phrased to hide the

members' own opinions, and focused, in the first session, on

whether game theory was just a fad or really an important tool

for investigating a wide range of interesting economic problems.

By the second meeting, however, Lindbeck, the committee chairman,

zeroed in on Nash. Was what Nash did merely mathematics? Lindbeck

asked. Did he simply formalize ideas that economists had formulated at least a hundred years earlier? Was it true that

Nash had stopped doing research in game theory in the early 1950's? That question was the closest anyone came to mention

ing  
the subject of Nash's mental illnessdd19

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--853

When Weibull left the meeting, he thought that there was a good chance that the committee would eventually agree to award a prize in game theory, but he had no reason, given Nash's illness and the decades that had passed since his early papers, to believe that Nash would make the cut.

Eric Fisher, a visitor at Stockholm University's Institute for International Economics that year, recalled being quizzed by

Assar Lindbeck about Nash's mental state. Fisher had been an undergraduate at Princeton, where he used to see Nash hanging out in the foyer of Firestone Library. Lindbeck wanted to know whether Nash was "competent enough to handle the publicity that

winning [a Nobel] might entaildd010

It was two years later, the fall of 1989, that Weibull hurried

across the Princeton University campus to meet Nash for the first

time." After weeks of delicate negotiation, with the chairman of

the mathematics department acting as a go-between, the elusive

mathematician had finally agreed to have lunch. Weibull had a

specific motive for the meeting. Lindbeck had pulled him aside

shortly before his departure from Sweden and asked him to report

back to him on Nash's mental

state. There was some talk, Lindbeck said, that Nash had  
854

some sort of remission and was behaving quite reasonably. Was it

true? Weibull was about to find out.

Weibull knew instantly that the tall, white-haired, frail-looking

man standing in the driveway in front of Prospect House, Princeton's Florentine faculty club, was Nash. He was standing

there rather awkwardly, smoking, looking down at the ground,

obviously dressed up for the occasion, wearing white tennis shoes

but also a long-sleeved dress shirt and long pants. As Weibull

drew nearer, he could see that Nash was deathly nervous. When

Weibull gave him his ready, friendly smile and extended his hand,

Nash was unable to meet his eye and, after the briefest of handshakes, instantly put his hand back into his pocket.

They ate, not in the main, formal restaurant, but downstairs in a

small cafeteria. Weibull, a gentle, soft-spoken man, asked Nash

questions about his work. Sometimes the conversation took odd

turns. When Weibull asked Nash about refining the Nash equilibrium concept by, perhaps, taking into account irrational

moves by players, Nash answered him

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--855

by talking, not about irrationality, but about immortality. But

on the whole, Nash struck Weibull as no more eccentric, irrational, or paranoid than many other academics. Weibull learned interesting details about Nash's game theory papers that

he hadn't known. Nash had gotten his idea for the bargaining

solution as an undergraduate at Carnegie Tech by thinking about

trade agreements between nations. While he had used both Brouwer's and Kakutani's fixed-point theorems to prove his equilibrium result, he still thought that the proof relying on

Brouwer was both more beautiful, and more apt. He said that von

Neumann had opposed his idea of equilibrium, but that Tucker

had supported him. Afterward, though, what stood out for Weibull about the meeting, and the thing that transformed him that day from a detached observer and objective informant into an ardent advocate, was something Nash said before they walked into the club. "Can I go in?" Nash had asked uncertainly. "I'm not faculty" This great man did not feel that he had a right to eat in the faculty club struck Weibull as an injustice that demanded remedy. By the summer of 1993, rumors about a possible

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prize in game theory were rampant. A very small, very select symposium on game theory had taken place in mid-June, at what used to be Alfred Nobel's old dynamite factory in Bjorkborn, a few hundred kilometers north of Stockholm. Such symposia, sponsored by the prize committee, are invariably seen as Nobel beauty contests. This one was organized by Karl-Göran Maler with the help of Jörgen Weibull and a Cambridge economist, Partha Dasgupta. Lindbeck, who was spending the spring term in Cambridge, oversaw the preparations by telephone. The dozen or so invited speakers represented two generations of leading game-theory researchers, mostly theorists and experimentalists, among them John Harsanyi, Reinhard Selten, Robert Aumann, David Kreps, Ariel Rubinstein, Alvin Roth, Paul Milgrom, and Eric

Maskin. The topic? Rationality and Equilibrium in  
A856

Strategic Interaction.

Most of the participants took it for granted that they were performing for the benefit of the prize committee and assumed that the three graybeards in the group, Harsanyi, Selten, and Aumann, were the likely Laureates. Aumann, the white-bear

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--857

Israeli dean of game theory, was strutting around "as if he had already won." Much was made of the choice of topic, which was theoretical and focused on noncooperative as opposed to cooperative games, and those who hadn't been invited most obviously, of course.

As it turned out, the prize committee was far from committing itself to a candidate. Protestations that the main motivation for the symposium was to create an opportunity for the committee

"to educate itself," Torsten Persson of the prize committee put

it later, were accurate. Only one other prize committee member

besides MA-LER was even there—and that was Ingemar Stahl. His

brother, Ingolf, was one of the speakers, and Ingemar intimated

that he had come to hear him. But everyone assumed that he was

there to act as a spy for the committee.

A few weeks later, Harold Kuhn, the professor of mathematics and

economics at Princeton University, got an urgent fax from Stockholm. It was from Weibull, who wanted Kuhn to send a number

of documents, among them Nash's Ph.D. thesis and a RAND memorandum—"no later than mid-August please." Weibull also

asked Kuhn to get him a transcript of an

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--858

interview with Nash conducted by Robert Leonard, the historian.

Leonard, who had not taped the interview, wrote Kuhn a note

in  
which he said that the request "sent my mind reeling in the  
Swedish direction."

31

In Stockholm, meanwhile, the prize committee was about to re  
port

to the so-called Ninth Class of the academy—all the academy  
members in the social sciences. 19 The bulk of the report, o  
f

course, was devoted to the proposed candidates for 1993, two

economics historians, Robert Fogel of the University of Chic  
ago

and Douglass North of Washington University in St. Louis. Bu  
t the

committee also updated the class on two or three other propo  
sals

that constituted the top choices for subsequent prizes. One  
of

them was a prize in game theory; Nash was on the short list  
of

half a dozen candidates<sup>40</sup>

Nearly the only point the prize committee had agreed on was  
that

it wanted to go ahead with a prize in game theory in 1994, t  
he

fiftieth anniversary of John von Neumann and Oskar Morgenste  
rn's

great opus.

Lindbeck and the others were still toying with "every possib  
le

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--859

configuration" of two and three winners

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The short list comthe candidates that the committee had focu  
sed

most of its attention on comhad scarcely changed since the p  
rize

was first conceived<sup>41</sup> Apart from Nash it included Lloyd

Shapley, whom Nash had known as a graduate student at  
A859

Princeton. Shapley was the most direct intellectual descenda  
nt of

von Neumann and Morgenstern and the clear leader of the fiel  
d in  
the

1950's and 1960's when most of the work was in cooperative  
theory. Reinhard Selten and John Harsanyi, who had elaborate  
d the

theory of noncooperative games, were also on it. Harsanyi's  
breakthroughs permitted analysis of games of incomplete  
information while Selten developed a way to discriminate bet  
ween

reasonable and unreasonable outcomes in games. Aumann, who  
developed the role of common knowledge in games, was also on  
the

list. And Thomas Schelling, who invented the notion of the  
strategic value of brinkmanship, was being considered becaus  
e of

his broad vision for the application of game theory to the s  
ocial  
sciences.

The prize decision is made in stages

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--860

Each year the committee starts meeting soon after the Januar  
y 31

deadline for the two hundred or so nominations that the comm  
ittee

solicits from prominent economists around the world. By Apri  
l,

the committee decides on a particular candidate or candidate  
s. In

late August, it submits the proposal comalong with a documen  
t

several inches thick that includes the referee reports,  
publications, and other supporting material comto the Ninth  
Class

for endorsement. The academy then votes on the candidates in

early October. But, as everyone involved was well aware, the

power truly resides in the committee and,  
until recently, in one man, Assar Lindbeck. #6Fgren said, "T  
he

prize committee meets for a whole year. It's technically  
impossible for the higher body to make the decisiondd044

Debate in the committee was unusually contentious from the f  
irst

meeting, attended by Lindbeck, Måler, Stahl, Persson and Larsson  
Svenssondd41 Lindbeck had come to the conclusion that the prize  
should be for contributions to noncooperative theory alone.  
These  
were the ideas that had proved fruitful for economics, "the most  
important so far"z Lindbeck later said, adding "cooperative  
theory

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--861

has a few interesting applications in economics, but perhaps  
more  
in political sciencedd046 Although Måler sided with Lindbeck  
from  
the start, convincing the rest of the committee was harder than  
the latter anticipated. "It seemed self-evident afterward. But it  
took a long time to come to this conclusion. And to convince

othersdd041

Of

course, he later admitted, narrowing the prize down in this  
way  
would immediately knock out some of the obvious contenders,  
namely Shapley and Schellingdd41 And here was the real bone  
of  
contention: Focusing on noncooperative theory also meant that it  
would be difficult to deny Nash the prize. "Once we decided  
to  
limit the prize to noncooperative theory then it was very easy to  
decide who were the ... [key contributors). Then it was obvious  
that Nash is [part of the] Nobeldd049 Lindbeck proposed a

three-way prize for the definition of equilibria in  
A861

noncooperative games: Nash, Harsanyi, and Selten. This was where the debate got nasty.

The person on the committee least intimidated by Lindbeck and best equipped intellectually

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--862

to challenge him was Ingemar Stahl, a sixty-year-old professor at

Lund with a joint appointment in economics and law." Stahl is a

quick study and a brilliant debater, a man who delights in taking

contrarian, often extreme positions, in any debate. He had long

been one of the most active committee members and had written

many of the committee's prize proposals since the early 1980's.

Stahl is short, with a large head and a big belly. His detractors

call him Zwergel or "little dwarf" behind his back. A onetime wunderkind who never quite lived up to his early promise, Stahl

owes the prestigious chair at Lund, his academy membership, and

his longtime position on the prize committee more to his political connections and his high-profile posture in public

policy debates than to his research output. Like Lindbeck, Stahl

began his upward climb early, while he was still in high school,

as a protégé of various Social Democratic politicians, including Palme, but he had gone over to the conservative opposition in the late 1960's. Stahl was deeply and adamantly

opposed to awarding the prize to Nash. From the start, he was

highly

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--863

skeptical of game theory, indeed he is of all pure theory. He

is an institutionalist, likes intuitive rather than formal reasoning, and is leery of mathematics and "technicians." He

was, for example, a main mover behind the prizes for James Buchanan and in

1986 and Ronald Coase in 1991 --  
economists whose theories focus on the way governments and legal  
structures affect the workings of  
365

markets. He also prides himself on grasping Nobel politics.  
The  
more he learned about Nash, the less he liked the idea of giving  
Nash a prize. In particular, he considered giving the prize  
to  
Nash the kind of ill-considered gesture that was likely to result  
in embarrassment and, more important, make the committee look  
bad.

"I knew he had been illeal"he said later. "I didn't think many  
people knew about it. I guess I heard Hbrmander's version."  
51

Stahl had done quite a bit of digging. In the early fall, he  
had  
made a call to Lars H6rmander, Sweden's most eminent  
mathematician and winner of the

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--864

1962 Fields Medal." Hbrmander had just retired from the  
University of Lund. Stahl identified himself as a member of  
the  
Nobel Prize committee. He'd heard that Hbrmander had known Nash  
quite well in the 1950's and 1960's, he said. The committee  
was  
thinking of giving Nash a Nobel Prize. Could H6rmander give  
him  
the lowdown on Nash?  
Hbrmander was surprised. Like most other pure mathematicians  
, he

didn't think much of Nash's work in game theory. And the  
A864

last time H6rmander had laid eyes on Nash was in the academi  
c  
year 1977-78. Hbrmander had been in Princeton and he had see  
n

Nash hanging around Fine Hall. Nash was "a ghostdd"H6rmander  
didn't think Nash had recognized him or had even been aware  
of  
his presence. Hbrmander hadn't even tried to speak with him.

To  
give such a man a prize seemed to him "absurd, risky."  
14

Hbrmander was precise and frank. His memories of Nash were  
extremely distasteful. He recalled Nash's decision to give u  
p his  
citizenship; his deportation, first from Switzerland, then f  
rom  
France; Nash's bizarre behavior at the 1962 conference in

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--865

Paris; the stream of anonymous cards, with their hints of en  
vy  
and hostility, that came after Hbrmander won the Fields in 1  
962.

Stahl had also made inquiries among several psychiatrists he  
knew

who, he says, described the illness as unlike depression or  
mania, where the self remains intermittently at least  
recognizable. "I knew this type of illness"he said later.

"I  
know some psychiatrists here. Some of the best head shrinker  
s.

When I talked to them I found out that with this disease the  
re is

a complete change of personality. He is not the man who did  
the  
thing." "

Lindbeck, relying on reports from Weibull and Kuhn, was tell  
ing

committee members that Nash was much improved, that he had,  
in

fact, recovered his sanity. 16 About this, too, Stahl was de  
eplly

skeptical. The psychiatrists he spoke to told him that  
schizophrenia is a chronic, unremitting, degenerative diseas  
e.

"It's a very tragic illness. It gets calmed down but actuall  
y

recovering is another matter." "

Stahl knew that there was great sympathy for Nash. And he could see that Lindbeck had made up his mind. So he didn't attack frontally, but simply

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--866

raised question after question. "He'd throw out an argument and somebody would shoot it down" said another member of the committee. "Then he'd shift to another argument. He tried to irritate and confuse us ... to raise doubts."

18

Stahl would say, "He's sick.... You can't have a person like that"

He asked what would happen at the ceremony, "Would he come? Could

he handle it? It's a big show"

He quoted Hbrmander and others who had known Nash in the 1950's and

1960's. He read them what he considered a particularly damning quotation from a book by Martin Shubik, who had known Nash as a graduate student.

"The most damning thing" Stahl repeated later, was something

Martin Shubik wrote in one of his books: that "you can only understand the Nash equilibrium if you have met Nash. Ifs a game

and it's played alone"

He brought up Nash's work for RAND: "These guys worked with the atom bomb during the cold war. It would be a shameful thing for

the prizedd061

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He brought up Nash's lack of interest in game theory after graduate school. As Lindbeck, Jacobson, the academy's secretary

general, and others later hinted, Stahl was not the first member

of a Nobel Prize committee who was motivated by deep animus toward a particular candidate or who embraced a wide range of

intellectual objections in an effort to derail the candidate dd61

But as the spring wore on, Stahl made a great many midnight phone

calls. He seemed, Weibull later recalled, to be trying out a ny

and all arguments against Nash's candidacydd61

What was certainly the case throughout those months, a member of

the Swedish academy said, was a growing feeling on Stahl's and

others' part that "a few bad choices would sink the prize. Nash

was of course a very weak prize. People were afraid that the

thing would blow up. A big scandaldd061 And David Warsh, a syndicated columnist in whom Stahl evidently confided, subsequently wrote, "The whole intellectual world is watching to

see what the Swedish Academy of Sciences is going to do about

Nash. The Swedes are known to be worried about what Nash might

saydd066 Christer Kiselman, head

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--868

of the mathematics class of the academy at the time and a member

of the academy's governing council, remembers talking to Stahl.

He recalls that Stahl told him that Nash's work was done too long

ago and was too mathematical to warrant a prizedd61 Kiselman

, whose son Ola has suffered from schizophrenia since age sixteen,

had a different interpretation: "[Stahl) was afraid of schizophrenia. So he had some prejudices. So he thought other

r

people would think the same way. He was afraid of some scandal that would reflect on the committee."

61

One by one Lindbeck knocked down Stahl's objections. Lindbeck has a reputation for courage. He has never been afraid to take unpopular positions, even at the risk of alienating his political allies. In the late 1970's, for example, he had publicly opposed a favorite Social Democrat proposal to promote worker ownership of manufacturing concerns that had become trendy. Now Lindbeck took the position that Stahl's objections—that Nash was a mathematician, that Nash had stopped being interested in game theory forty years

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--869

earlier, that Nash was mentally ill, was irrelevant. He too was worried that Nash would do something peculiar at the ceremony, but he was sure that could be managed. In any case, it was no basis for denying the prize to someone who was, on intellectual grounds, obviously worthy. Besides, he found that his emotions were involved. Most Laureates were already famous and much honored. The Nobel was only a crowning glory. But in Nash's case it was quite different. Lindbeck thought a great deal about the "misery of his life" and that Nash had been, for all intents and purposes, forgotten.

Later, he was to say, "Nash was different. He had gotten no recognition and was living in real misery. We helped lift him

into daylight. We resurrected him in a way. It was

A869

emotionally satisfying.0"The only other time Lindbeck had felt

similarly was when a Viennese libertarian and critic of Keynes,

Friedrich von Hayek, won. "Hayek was so hated, so despised..

.. He'd been in a very deep depression, he told me. It was terribly

satisfying to indicate his greatness.""

The committee listened to Stahl, but it soon became

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--870

clear that he wasn't going to win allies. The younger men, Svenson and Persson, were keen on a game-theory prize, and the

older ones weren't inclined to pick a fight with Lindbeck.

The normal procedure when there are unresolved disagreements is

to append a formal reservation -- a minority opinion -- to the

committee reportdd14Such reservations, which are duly reported to

the full academy at the voting session, are not unheard of in

physics or chemistry." And, although they are not reported in the

announcements at the time of the decision, they become part of

the official record and may be made public after fifty years

. Things were different in the economics committee. Lindbeck was

extremely proud of its record and apparently regarded unanimity

as necessary in maintaining the prize's credibilitydd16

As the report to the Ninth Class was being readied, Stahl threatened to register a formal reservationdd"In the end-whether

because of pressure from Lindbeck, advice from his old friend

Maler, or simply a reluctance to go down in history as first to

break the former pattern of unanimity-he did not. The Class,

which is used to going along with committee proposals, endorsed

the proposal.

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--871

To Lindbeck, this was the end of the matter. He had prevailed, as he usually did. He felt, however, that extraordinary measures were necessary to make sure that everything would go smoothly once the media furor broke. He took an unprecedented step. He telephoned Kuhn in Princeton and told him that "it's ninety-nine percent certain now" that Nash would get the prize. "The votes were unanimous," he told Kuhn, not giving any hint of the controversy." He gave Kuhn permission to inform the president of Princeton University of the impending award so that the university could make arrangements. As it turns out, Kuhn had to wait until after Labor Day to pass along his exciting news.

71  
Harold Shapiro, president of Princeton, was away on vacation

For once, Lindbeck, for all his political savvy, was wrong. It was not just that Stahl, who was far angrier than Lindbeck appreciated at the time, was a powder keg waiting to explode. Rather, Lindbeck's own long reign, and, indeed, the economics prize itself, were on shakier ground than he imagined. Powerful critics of both within the academy, including a former secretary general of the academy and a number of

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--872

prominent physicists, were itching to do something. This prize had become an issue for them. Few people outside Sweden, indeed, few outside the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, realize how controversial, even vulnerable, the economics prize has been

since its creation in 1968 and continues to be to the  
A872

present.

The economics prize has never been especially popular within  
the

academy, "Many people question the Nobel Prize [in economics  
]

hereea"said one longtime member." Oldtimers still thought it  
had

been a grave mistake to add a new Nobel to the original priz  
es.

They thought it cheapened the currency and had, after the  
"mistake" of accepting the economics prize, successfully fou  
ght

off efforts to establish other prizes that used the Nobel na  
me.

Erik Dahmen, an economist who was a close adviser to one of  
the

richest families in Sweden, the Wallenbergs, calls it "the  
so-called Nobel Prize in economics.0" He adds:

This is not

really

a Nobel Prize. It should never be spoken of together with th  
e

other prizes. The academy should never have accepted the pri  
ze in

economics. I have been against

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--873

the prize since I became a member of the academy.

One physicist said: "The economics prize was just a way of  
jumping on the Nobel bandwagon, piggybacking on the Nobel."

Economics was not held in high regard by many of the natural

scientists who dominated the academy. It is not, they said,  
a

sufficiently scientific field to deserve equal footing with  
hard

sciences like physics and chemistry. Ideas, they said, slipp  
ed in

and out of fashion, but one could not point to scientific  
progress, a body of theories and empirical facts about which

there was certainty and near-universal agreement. Anders

Karlquist, a physicist, said, "It's not as solid and big an  
enterprise as chemistry and physics." Lars GA-RDING, a

mathematician at the academy, for example, said later that N  
ash's

prize was for "a very small thing."

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Finally, there is a widespread feeling, particularly on the part of natural scientists and mathematicians, that the shallowness of the field was leading to a sharp and rapid decline in the quality of Laureates come decline that would necessarily

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--874

worsen with time. Bengt Nagel, secretary of the physics Nobel Prize committee, jokingly quotes an economist who is supposed to have said in the early 1980's, "All the mighty firs have fallen.

Now there are only bushes left."

There are occasional calls to abolish the prize. After Myrdal won the prize, he is supposed to have suggested abolishing the prize because there were no longer any prizeworthy candidates

recently as 1994, Kjell Olof Feldt, the former minister of finance and soon-to-be chairman of the board of the Bank of Sweden which finances the prize suggested in a lengthy article

in a political monthly that the prize be done away with."

But although many academy members regret that the prize was established in

the first place, said Karlquist, they "realize that it's a fact

of life.", By 1994, in fact, the critics' objective was to wrest

control of the prize from the economists. Lindbeck was personally

unpopular. It was particularly galling that membership in  
A874  
the economics prize committee seemed to be a lifetime sinecu  
re  
and that its members could choose winners without any real  
accountability to the

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--875

academy.

In February, an academy committee had "suggested"t the econo  
mics  
prize committee be forced to operate by the same rules that  
apply  
to the physics and chemistry committeesdd19 The suggestion w  
as  
not binding, but it was a warning note, the first concrete s  
ign  
that critics of the prize were gaining momentum, and it carr  
ied  
with it the promise that the academy council would, when it  
got  
around to it, appoint another group specifically mandated to  
deal  
with the matter of the economics prize. The imposition, as f  
or  
other standing committees, of term limits would, of course,  
have  
a drastic and immediate effect on the economics committee. I  
t  
would eliminate Lindbeck, Miler, and Stahl, the three longti  
me  
members, and virtually end their reign. The other, and more  
drastic, suggestion was to widen the membership to include  
non-economists and, most radically, to transform the economi  
cs  
Nobel into, in effect, "the Nobel Prize in social sciences,"  
a  
notion that appealed not only to natural scientists, but als  
o to  
the psychologists, sociologists, and other non-economists in  
the  
academy's Ninth Classdd90  
Thus the debate between Lindbeck and Stahl over

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--876

whether Nash was a suitable candidate for the prize, a debat  
e  
that really turned on whether the choice of Nash would embar  
rass  
the committee, took place in an unusually hostile atmosphere  
and

under intense scrutiny. The future of the prize committee and the prize looked more vulnerable than they had in times past. All of these behind-the-scenes opinions and maneuvers explain why, between early September and early October, Stahl acquired a powerful set of allies who joined him for reasons quite apart from Nash's candidacy. The stage was set. In the end, Nash and the two other candidates for the 1994 economics prize passed by a mere handful of votes, the first in the history to skirt so close to defeat. It is a peculiarity, indeed a major administrative and logistical headache, of the Nobel Prize process that no award can really be said to exist until the members of the fall body of the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences have had their say. They have "the sole right to decide" a Nobel Foundation booklet puts it: "Even a unanimous committee recommendation may be overruled. Only when the plenary session has cast ballots and the votes are counted and the results

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--877

announced do the secretary general and members of the prize committee march off to telephone the winners. They then proceed to the Sessions Hall to announce the winners' names to the world press. Other prizes, like the Fields Medal for mathematics or the John Bates Clark medal for economics, by contrast, are settled months ahead of time, their winners notified after a leisurely interval and carefully instructed to sit on the secret until the

awarding institutions get around to issuing their press  
A877

releases or holding their festivities. Presumably, the inconvenience of the last-minute Nobel vote is outweighed by the benefit of being able to avoid leaks before the official announcement. The Nobel vote, moreover, is traditionally a mostly ceremonial affair, the final flourish after a lengthy selection procedure that is more or less completely dominated by the senior members of the prize committees. In the case of the economics prize, a few dozen random academicians come a fraction of the number who turn out for the physics or chemistry prizes, the other two Nobel awards administered by the academy- assemble in the second week of October largely for the pleasure of hearing

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--878

a distinguished lecture on the proposed candidates' contributions to scientific progress. As one academy member put it, "Members attend less for the vote itself than for a chance to hear the presentations."

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In some recent years, the modest quorum of forty academy members has proved difficult to achieve. According to the rules, academy members have three options. They may vote for the candidate or candidates proposed by the committee and endorsed by the Social Sciences Class. They may vote for an alternative candidate of their own choosing. Or they may vote not to give a prize that year. The winner or winners must obtain a simple majority of votes. Until 1994, no candidates proposed by the committee had ever failed to gain a wide majority of votes. The academy meeting that began promptly at 10:00 A.M. on Tuesday, October 12, in a rather small, poorly lit auditorium tucked in a far corner of the academy's ground floor<sup>96</sup> promised to be no more or

less  
interesting than previous years' meetings. Fewer

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--879

than sixty members were scattered around the room, but, as the officials present noted with satisfaction, there was no question of not getting a quorum. (A couple of years earlier, thirty-nine members had sat in that room waiting for a fortieth -- who did finally show upddgg91 Kerstin Fredga, the astrophysicist who was the academy's president, and Carl-Olof Jacobson were sitting side by side on the stage. The ballot box was perched at the end of the platform. The five members of the prize committee who belonged to the academy were sitting near the front of the room. Lindbeck was at the podium in a few long strides. Wearing his thick blackrimmed glasses and usual frown of concentration, Lindbeck dove right into his subject, an overview of the entire process by which the committee had arrived at its recommendation for a prize in game theory, Always intense, Lindbeck stuttered with excitement, waved his long arms, and made a good many very dry jokesdd91 He was followed by Jacobson, low-keyed by contrast, who gave the official endorsement of the Social Sciences Class. Both men claimed that the decisions by the committee as well as the Class were, as always,

unanimous. Lindbeck added that unanimity had come about "as  
880

if by an Invisible Hand `was his standing joke. Finally, M51  
er

got up and launched the main presentation, a lecture on the  
contributions of the three candidates.

The lecture was quite disappointing. M51er, never a brillian  
t

speaker, was more nervous and unsure of himself than usualdd  
99 He

quickly became mired in technicalities and jargon. He read m  
ost

of it, His wife had left him a few weeks

earlier, he was agitated and depressed, and he had had a ter  
rible

time preparing the talk.

All this took something like an hour. Had things proceeded a  
s

usual there would have been a few rather perfunctory and mos  
tly

polite questions from the floor, perhaps a standard monologu  
e by

one of the oldtimers about the dubiousness of the economics  
prize

in the first place, before a general silence, a passing-out  
of

plain squares of white paper and number two pencils, quick  
scribbles, folding, and the drifting down of academicians to  
the

stage to stuff their ballots in the box.

Instead, all hell broke loose. Later the president of the No  
bel

Foundation remarked wryly that "Troy could only have been  
destroyed by someone inside

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--881

the walls. And that's what happened here." "No one recalls  
whether

Stahl launched

the first verbal grenade, but it was soon obvious to Lindbec  
k and

M51er that they were in the midst of an ambush. Stahl challe  
nged

Maler to give a single major example showing that the theory  
had

any empirical validity whatsoever. Wer, who was in particula  
rly

poor shape to answer questions, fumbled. Stahl did not contra  
ry to

a story six weeks later in

Dagens Nyheter,

one of Sweden's two dailies comd anything as crass, or risky  
, as  
to urge the academy to withhold the prize to Nash because of  
the  
mathematician's mental illness." " Instead, he argued, forcef  
ully  
and brilliantly, that a prize for non-cooperative game theor  
y was  
too narrow, too insubstantial, too technical. He reminded th  
e  
audience that Nash's contribution had been made nearly half  
a  
century earlier and that it was more mathematics than econom  
ics.  
He derided Harsanyi and Selten for being "boring,0"mere  
techniciansdd"Other members of the audience soon chimed in.  
Stahl did not make the mistake of merely

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--882

criticizing the committee's proposal, which, after all, he h  
ad  
signed. He had an alternative, he said.",` In light of the  
members' unhappiness, in light of unanswered questions, in l  
ight  
of Wer's clearly unsatisfactory report, might it not be more  
  
prudent to postpone the prize in game theory? Why not vote  
instead to give the prize to Robert Lucas, the University of  
  
Chicago professor whom the committee had virtually decided t  
o  
propose for the following year."` Everybody, he reminded the  
m,  
was enthusiastic about Lucas, who had invented a theory to  
explain why governments` efforts to manage the business cycl  
e  
were doomed to failure com"rational expectations"- and was

clearly one of the most important economists of the  
A882

century. It was an unassailable choice.

Lindbeck, who had at first seemed stunned by the audacity of

Stahl's surprise attack, told the members in no uncertain terms

what Stahl was implying. He reminded the members that Stahl had

signed on to the game-theory prize and accused Stahl of wishing

to scuffle the prize because of Nash's illness. He told the membership that it would be a grave injustice to withhold the

prize. He did not

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--883

tell them that, in an absolute breach of the Nobel rules, he had

already informed Princeton University's president, Alicia Nash,

and Nash himself that he was getting the prize. But those facts

were very much in his mind as he appealed to the members.

114

By the time Carl-Olof Jacobson called for the vote, the atmosphere in the room was tense and bitter. An unusually large

number of academicians stayed to

hear the vote count. Two members of the academy chosen by the

president and Jacobson removed the ballots in front of the audience and tallied the votes. The paper was handed to Jacobson,

and Jacobson read the votes one name at a time. For Lindbeck it

was, as he later said, a moment of unbearable suspense. Mr. Nash

... Mr. Harsanyi ... Mr. Selten ... Mr. Lucas ... no prize..

..

A few moments later, Fredga, Jacobson, Lindbeck, and Wer, very

much shaken, were the only ones left in the room. Their candidates had gotten all that they needed: a slim majority of

the votes. Later, in public, these individuals would all

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--884

deny that anything extraordinary had happened. They would pretend

that Wer's report had been unusually long, that there had be

en a  
great many questions, that the Laureates had been difficult  
to  
reach, or simply state baldly that the delay had never occur  
red.

But behind closed doors, within the academy, there would be  
shock, consternation, and fingerpointing. "It was a unique e  
vent.

It had never happened beforeea"said one member of the academ  
y.

"It's not good for the academy to have close votesea"said  
Kiselman."` The very next day the council hastily appointed  
an ad

hoc committee "to study the future of the economics prize."

1116

Afterward, a committee member friendly to Stahl would say th  
at

Stahl had been "used by the physicistsdd0101 Stahl's double-  
cross

had backfired. Instead of being regarded as the man who save  
d the

prize committee from an embarrassing mistake, he had set int  
o

motion the very consequences he feared. Like players in So L  
ong

Sucker, the game that Nash and his friends at Princeton had  
invented forty years earlier, Lindbeck and MA-ER formed a  
temporary coalition with the critics of the economics prize.

They  
threw themselves behind the rules changes. They were

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--885

determined to punish Stahl and get him off the committee --  
even

if the new rules meant that they bad to step aside as well.  
One

prize committee member called their strategy "elegantdd0101  
Had

Nash known about it, he would have appreciated it as a textb  
ook

execution of McCarthy's Revenge Rule, especially because  
A885

Lindbeck could reasonably expect to get elected to the committee again after a three-year interlude, but Stahl, who had provoked the scandal and compounded his sin by talking to a reporter, was out for good.

The consequences did not end there. According to several members of the academy, the ad hoc committee went on record to recommend changing the very nature of the economics prize. In its report, issued a few months later, in February 1995, the committee issued an instruction that essentially redefined the economics prize as a prize in social sciences, open to great contributions in fields like political science, psychology, and sociology.

It also ordered the committee membership to be opened to two non-economists. No public announcement of these far-reaching changes was made. But within a year, Lindbeck, Wer, and Stahl were gone; two social

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--886

scientists who weren't economists—a statistician and a sociologist—were members of the prize committee; and among the top candidates for the prize was Amos Tversky, an Israeli psychologist who works on irrationality in decision making."

In the auditorium on October 12, the three men rushed over to a small committee room."` Jacobson was armed with a page of telephone numbers for the Laureates. It was he who would inform

the Laureates of the honor that was about to grace them. They tried to reach Selten first since Selten was in Germany and, unlike Nash or Harsanyi, would not necessarily be asleep. It was

early in the morning for Nash in New Jersey and the middle of the night for Harsanyi in California. As it turns out, Selten was out grocery shopping. Jacobson then tried Harsanyi and, when he got

him, quickly put Wer, who knew Harsanyi well, on the line to quickly assure him, with much joviality, that Jacobson was not some student or, worse, reporter playing a trick on him." Nash was the last to be called. Jacobson waited expectantly as the telephone rang. Unbeknownst to most of Jacobson's colleagues at the

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--887

academy, he had a brother who, like Nash, had been diagnosed with schizophrenia as a young man in the 1950's and had been institutionalized ever since." It was a moment of incredible poignancy for Jacobson, "the greatest moment" he later said, of his twenty-year tenure at the academy. "He was unusually calm" he said afterward. "That was my thought.

'He is taking this very calmly.'

114

Washington, D.C., December 1994

ON

THE AFTERNOON-OF

December 5, 1994, John Nash was riding in a taxi headed to Newark

Airport on his way to Stockholm, where he would, in a few days'

time, receive from the King of Sweden the gold medal engraved

with the portrait of Alfred Nobel. At around the same time, a

few hundred miles to the south, in downtown Washington, D.C.

''

Vice-President Al Gore was announcing with great fanfare  
A887  
the opening of "the greatest auction ever."

There was, as  
The New York Times  
would later report, no fast-talking auctioneer, no

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--888  
banging gavel, no Old Masters. On the auction block was thi  
n  
airwaves that could be used for the new wireless gadgets  
like  
telephones, pagers, faxes -- worth billions and billions of  
dollars, enough licenses for every major American city to ha  
ve  
three competing cellular phone services. In the secret war r  
ooms  
and bidding booths were CEO's of the world's biggest  
communications conglomerates and an unlikely group of blu  
e-sky  
economic theoreticians who were advising them. When the auct  
ion  
finally closed the following March, the winning bids totaled  
more  
than \$7 billion, making it the biggest sale in American hist  
ory  
of public assets and one of the most successful (and lucrati  
ve)  
applications of economic theory to public policy ever. Michael  
Rothschild, dean of Princeton's Woodrow Wilson School, later  
called it "a demonstration that people thinking hard about a  
problem can make the world work better ... a triumph of pure  
thought."

The juxtaposition of Core and Nash, the high-tech auction an  
d the  
medieval pomp of the Nobel ceremony, was hardly an accident.

The  
FCC auction was designed by young economists who were using

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--889  
tools created by John Nash, John Harsanyi, and Reinhard Selt  
en.  
Their ideas were specifically designed for analyzing rivalry  
and  
cooperation among a small number of rational players with a

mix  
of conflicting and similar interests: people, governments, and  
corporations command even animal species.`

The prize itself was a long-overdue acknowledgment by the Nobel  
committee that a sea change in economics, one that had been  
under  
way for more than a decade, had taken place. As a discipline  
,  
economics had long been dominated by Adam Smith's brilliant  
metaphor of the Invisible Hand. Smith's concept of perfect  
competition envisions so many buyers and sellers that no single  
buyer or seller has to worry about the reactions of others.  
It is  
a powerful idea, one that predicted how free-market economies  
would evolve and gave policymakers a guide for encouraging  
growth and dividing the economic pie fairly. But in the world  
of  
megamergers, big government, massive foreign direct investment,  
and wholesale privatization, where the game is played by a  
handful of players, each taking into account the others' actions,  
each pursuing his own best

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--890

strategies, game theory has come to the fore.`  
After decades of resistance, Paul Samuelson used to joke about  
"the swamp of n-person game theory"ful-a younger generation  
of  
theorists began using game theory in areas from trade to  
industrial organization to public finance in the late

1970's and early 1980's Game theory opened up "terrain  
A890  
for systematic thinking that was previously closed." Indeed,  
as  
game theory and information economics have become increasing  
ly  
entwined, markets traditionally seen as fitting the purely  
competitive mold have increasingly been studied using game-t  
heory  
assumptions. The latest generation of texts used in top grad  
uate  
schools today all recast the basic theories of the firm and  
the  
consumer, the foundation of economics, in terms of strategic  
games."

"Concepts, terminology and models from game theory have come  
to  
dominate many areas of economicsea"said Avinash Dixit, an  
economist at Princeton who uses game theory in work on  
international trade and is the author of  
Thinking Strategically,  
"At last we are seeing the realization of the true

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--891

potential of the revolution launched by von Neumann and  
Morgenstern."And because most economic applications of game

theory use the Nash equilibrium concept, "Nash is the point  
of  
departuredd011

The revolution has gone far beyond research journals,  
experimental laboratories at Caltech and the University of  
Pittsburgh, and classrooms of elite business schools and  
universities. The current generation of economic policynake  
rs  
comincluding Lawrence Summers, undersecretary of the treasur  
y,  
Joseph Stiglitz, chairman of the Council of Economic Adviser  
s,  
and Vice-President Al Gore-are steeped in the stuff, which,  
they  
say, is useful for thinking about everything from budget  
proposals to Federal Reserve policy to pollution cleanups.  
The most dramatic use of game theory is by governments from  
Australia to Mexico to sell scarce public resources to buyer  
s  
best able to develop them. The radio spectrum, T-bills, oil  
leases, timber, and pollution rights are now sold in auction  
s  
designed by game theorists comwith far greater success than

that  
of earlier policies."

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--892

Economists like Nobel Laureate Ronald Coase have advocated the use of auctions by government since the 1950's. Auctions have long been used in markets where sellers of unusual items -- from vintage wines to movie rights -- have no idea what bidders are willing to pay. Their basic purpose is to make bidders reveal how much they value the item. But the arguments of Coase and others were stated in abstract, entirely theoretical terms, and little thought was given to how such auctions would actually be conducted. Congress remained skeptical. Before 1994, Washington simply gave away licenses for free. Until 1982, it had been up to regulators to decide which companies deserved the licenses. Needless to say, the process was dominated by political pressures, outrageously expensive paperwork, and long delays. The pace of licensing lagged hopelessly behind market shifts and new technologies. After 1982, Washington awarded licenses using lotteries, with the winners free to resell licenses. Although the reform did speed up the granting of licenses, the process was still hugely inefficient-and unfair.

Bidders with no intention of operating an actual telephone  
A892  
business

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--893

spent millions to get into the game for the purpose of reapi  
ng a  
windfall. Further, although telephone companies were forced  
to  
pay the costs of obtaining licenses, Washington (and taxpaye  
rs)  
did not get the benefit of any revenues. There had to be a b  
etter  
way.

A young generation of game theorists, including Paul Milgrom  
,  
John Roberts, and Robert Wilson at the Stanford B-school, ca  
me up  
with that better waydd"Their chief contribution consisted of  
recognizing, as Milgrorn said, that "the mere design  
of some  
auction wasn't enough.... (Gletting the auction design right  
was  
also critically important"

16

In particular, they concluded that the most obvious auction  
designs -- auctioning licenses one by one in sequence using  
simultaneous sealed bids comwas the way least likely to succ  
eed  
in getting licenses into the hands of corporations that coul  
d use  
them best comWashington's stated objective.  
Game theorists treat an auction like a game with rules and t  
ry to  
evaluate how a given set of rules, taken together, is apt to  
affect the bidders'

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--894

behavior. They take stock of the options the rules allow, th  
e  
payoffs to the bidders associated with the options, and bidd  
ers'  
expectations about their competitors' likely choices.  
Why did these economists conclude that traditional auction  
formats would not work? Mainly because the value of each  
individual license to a user depends  
- as is the case with a Rembrandt or a Picasso -- on what ot  
her  
licenses the user is able to obtain. Some licenses are perfe

ct

substitutes for one another. That would be the case for similar

spectrum bands to provide a given service. But others are complements. That would be the case for licenses to provide paging services in different parts of the country.

"To permit the efficient license assignment, an auction must

allow bidders to consider various packages of licenses, combining

complements and switching among substitutes during the course of

the auction. Designing an auction to allow this is quite difficult," writes Paul Milgrom, one of the economists who designed the FCC auction of which Gore was speaking."

A second source of complexity, Milgrom says, is that the purpose

of the licenses is

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--895

to create businesses for new services with unknown technology and

unknown consumer demand. Since bidders' opinions are bound to be

wildly divergent, it is possible that license assignment would

depend more on bidders' opti-

mism than on their ability to create a desired service."`

Ideally, an auction design can minimize that problem.

As Congress and the FCC inched closer to the notion of auctioning

off spectrum rights, Australia and New Zealand both conducted

spectrum auctionsdd19 That they proved to be costly flops  
A895

and political disasters illustrated that the devil really wa  
s in

the details. In New Zealand, the government ran a so-called  
second price auction, and newspapers were full of stories ab  
out

winners who paid far below their bids, In one case, the high  
bid

was NZDD7 million, the second bid NZDD5,000, and the winner  
paid

the lower price. In another, an Otago University student bid  
NZ\$I

for a television license in a small city. Nobody else bid, s  
o he

got it for one dollar. The government expected the cellular  
licenses to fetch NZDD240 million. The actual revenue was NZ  
DD36

million, one-seventh of the advance

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--896

estimate. In Australia, a botched auction, in which parvenu  
bidders pulled the wool over the government's eyes, delayed  
the

introduction of pay television by almost a year.

The FCC's chief economist was an advocate of auctions, but n  
o

game theorists were involved in the first stage of the FCC  
auction design. The theorists` phones started ringing only b  
y

accident after the FCC issued a tentative proposal for an au  
ction

format with dozens of footnotes to the theoretical literatur  
e on

auctionsdd10 That was how Milgrom and his colleague Robert  
Wilson, leading auction theorists, got into the game.

Milgrom and Wilson proposed that the FCC adopt a simultaneou  
s,

multipleround auctiondd" In a simultaneous auction, a bunch o  
f

licenses are sold at the same time. Multiple rounds mean tha  
t,

after the first round of bidding, prices are announced, and  
bidders have a chance to withdraw or raise one another's bid  
s.

This is repeated round after round until the auction is over  
. The

chief advantage of this format is that it allows bidders to  
take

account of interdependencies among licenses. just as sequent  
ial,

closed-bid auctions let sellers discover what bidders are willing to pay for

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--897

individual items, the simultaneous, ascending-bid auction lets them discover the market value of different groupings of items.

This early proposal-which the FCC eventually adopted-did not cover seemingly small but critical details

Should there be deposits? Minimum bid increments? Time limits? Should the bidding system be wholly computerized or executed by hand? and so forth.

Milgrom, Roberts, and another game theorist, Preston McAfee, an adviser to AirTbus, provided proposals on these issues. The FCC

hired another game theorist, John McMillan, of the University of California at San Diego, to help evaluate the effect of every

proposed rule. According to Milgrom, "Game theory played a central role in the analysis of the rules. Ideas of Nash equilibrium, rationalizability, backward induction, and incomplete information, though rarely named explicitly, were the

real basis of daily decisions about the details of the auction

process." By late spring 1995, Washington had raised more than

\$10 billion from spectrum auctions. The press and the politicians were ecstatic.

Corporate bidders were largely able

to protect themselves from predatory bidding and were able  
898

to assemble an economically sensible set of licenses. It was  
, as

John McMillan said, a triumph for game theory"14

50 Reawakening

Princeton, 1995-97

Mathematics is a young man game. Yet it is not bearable to  
contemplate a brief distinction and burgeoning of activity...

followed by a lifetime of boredom.

comNoRBERT WIENER

ON

THE AFTERNOON

of the Nobel announcement, after the press conference, a small

champagne party was in progress in Fine Hall. Nash made a short

speech. He was not inclined to give speeches, he said, but he

had three things to say. First, he hoped that getting the Nobel

would improve his credit rating because he really wanted a credit

card. Second, he said that one is supposed to say that one is

really glad he is sharing the prize, but he wished he had won the

whole thing because he really needed the money badly. Third, Nash

said that he had won for game theory and that he felt that game

theory was like string theory, a subject

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--899

of great intrinsic intellectual interest that the world wishes to

imagine can be of some utility. He said it with enough skepticism

in his voice to make it funny.

All the Swedes' fears -- not to mention Harold Kuhn's own private

worries -- about how Nash would cope with the pomp in Stockholm

proved groundless. Everything went swimmingly. The receptions.

The press briefings. The Nobel award ceremony itself. The lecture

in Uppsala afterward. Indeed, in the weeks between the

announcement of the prize and the ceremony, Nash did and felt

t

things that had lain beyond his grasp for decades. When he first arrived in Stockholm, J6rgen Weibull recalled, he behaved pretty much as Weibull had remembered from Princeton a few years before:

"He didn't look you in the eye. He mumbled. Socially he was very tentative, very uncertain. But his mood went up from day to day.

He got less and less unhappy."`

Harold Kuhn, who was to lead a Nobel seminar honoring Nash's work, and his wife Estelle accompanied Nash and Alicia to Stockholm.` It was exhilarating. The nicest moment of the week, so full of grand scenes and ceremonies, came when

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--900

Nash had his much-dreaded private audience with the King. By

tradition, the King spends

a couple of minutes alone with each Laureate. When Nash's turn

came, he grimaced and frowned so much that Harold was afraid he

might refuse to go into the King's chambers at the last minute,

but finally he followed the aide inside.

Five minutes passed, then seven. Finally, after a full ten minutes, Nash emerged, looking relaxed, even amused. "What did

you talk about" everybody asked at once. Quite a bit, it turned

out. In 1958, John told Harold and Estelle, he and Alicia had

taken a grand tour of Europe and had driven up into the south of

Sweden in their new Mercedes 180. The King had been a student in

Uppsala then, addicted to fast sports cars. Around that  
A900

time, the Swedes were shifting from driving on the left to  
driving on the right. Nash and the King had spent ten minute  
s  
chatting about the pitfalls of driving fast on the lefthand  
side  
of the road.

At dusk, Nash and Weibull were riding in a limousine through  
the  
countryside north of Stockholm. The farmhouses were lighting  
up  
one at a time, the sky was beginning to glimmer. Nash reache  
d  
over to Weibull and said, "Look, Jargen. It's so beautifuldd  
Obled

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--901

They were on their way back from Uppsala where Nash had give  
n a  
talk comhis  
first in three decades. ` Nash hadn't been asked to give the  
customary hour-long Nobel lecture in Stockholm. The lecture  
at  
the University of Uppsala was arranged by Christer  
Kiselmandd6Nash's chosen topic was a problem that had intere  
sted  
him before his illness and that he had taken up again since  
his  
remission: developing a mathematically correct theory of a  
non-expanding universe that is consistent with known physica  
l  
observations. The conventional view, of course, is that the  
universe is expanding, and attempting to overturn the consen  
sus  
is exactly the kind of contrarian intellectual bet that Nash  
has  
always enjoyed. Nash's talk on "the possibility that the uni  
verse  
isn't expanding"bbgan with tensor calculus and general relat  
ivity  
comstuff so difficult that Einstein used to say he understoo  
d it  
only in moments of exceptional mental clarity. Though he lat  
er  
confessed to nervousness, he spoke without notes, clearly an  
d  
convincingly, according to Weibull, who has a doctorate in  
physics. ` Physicists and mathematicians in the audience said  
afterward that Nash's

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--902

ideas were interesting, made sense, and were expressed with the appropriate degree of skepticism.

It is a quiet life, despite the fairytale of Stockholm and the

lofty status of Laureate. The Nashes still live in the Insul brick

house with the hydrangeas out front, next to the alley and a cross

from the Princeton train station. There is a new boiler, a new

roof, a few new items of furniture, but that's about it. (Nash

was also able to pay down his half of the mortgage.) The few

friends they see regularly, among them Jim Manganaro, Felix and

Eva Browder, and of course Armand and Gaby Borel, are pretty much

the people they have been seeing for some years. Their daily

routines have changed less than one might think, dominated as

they are by the twin needs of earning a living and caring for

Johnny. Alicia takes the train to

Newark every day. Nash, who no longer drives, rides the

"Dinky" in town, eats lunch at the Institute, and spends the

afternoons in the library or, on rare occasions, in his new office. Very often, when Johnny is not in the hospital or on

the

road, he takes Johnny with him.

It is a life resumed, but time did not stand still

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--903

while Nash was dreaming. Like Rip Van Winkle, Odysseus, and countless fictional space travelers, he wakes to find that the

world he left behind has moved on in his absence. The

A903

brilliant young men that were are retiring or dying. The children

are middle-aged. The slender beauty, his wife, is now a mature

woman in her sixties. And there is his own seventieth birthday

fast approaching.

There are days when he feels that he has escaped the ravages of

time, when he believes he can pick up where he left off, when he

feels "like a person who wants to do the research he might have

done in his 30's and 40's at the delayed time of his 60's and

70's" In his Nobel autobiography, he writes:

Statistically, it would seem improbable that any mathematician or

scientist, at the age of 66, would be able through continued

research efforts to add to his or her previous achievements.

However, I am still making the effort, and it is conceivable that

with the gap period of 25 years of partially deluded thinking

providing a sort of vacation, my situation may be atypical.

Thus

I have hopes of being able to achieve something of value through

my current studies or with any new ideas that come in the future.

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--904

But many days he is not able to work. As Nash once told Harold

Kuhn, "The Phantom was not in until very late, after 6:00 Pm.

because even a Phantom can have ordinary human problems and need

to go to a doctor." And there are other days when he discovers an

error in his calculations or learns that a promising idea has

already been mined by someone else, or when he hears of new experimental data that seem to make certain speculations of his

seem less interesting.

On such days, he is full of regrets. The Nobel cannot restore

e  
what has been lost. For Nash, the primary pleasure in life h  
ad  
always come from creative work rather than from emotional  
closeness to other people. Thus, recognition for his past  
achievements, while a balm, has also cast a harsh light on t  
he  
vexing issue of what he is capable of doing now. As Nash put  
it  
in 1995, getting a Nobel after a long period of mental illne  
ss  
was not impressive; what would be impressive is persons who  
AFTER  
a time of mental illness achieve a high level of mental  
functioning (and not just a high level of social  
respectability.)"

Nash gave the starkest assessment of his own situation in fr  
ont  
of an audience of psychiatrists to whom

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--905

he had been introduced as "a symbol of hopedd" In answer to a  
question at the end of his 1996 Madrid lecture, he said, "To  
recover rationality after being irrational, to recover a nor  
mal  
life, is a great thingff" B then he paused, stepped back, and  
said  
in a far stronger, more assertive voice: "But maybe it is no  
t  
such a great thing. Suppose you have an artist. He's rationa  
l,  
But suppose he cannot paint. He can function normally. Is it  
really a cure? Is it really a salvation? ... I feel I am not  
a  
good example of a person who recovered unless I can do some  
good  
workea" adding in a wistful, barely audible whisper, "althoug  
h I  
am rather oldddd" I I  
These thoughts were much in Nash's mind when he turned down  
an

offer of thirty thousand dollars from the Princeton  
A905

University Press in 1995 to publish his collected works.

"Psychologically I have a problem since I have been,  
unfortunately, a long time without any publication"he said to

Harold Kuhn. He was saying, in short, that he doesn't want to

close the door on future work by acknowledging that his life  
time

oeuvre is complete. As Nash says, "I did not want to publish  
a

collected works simply because I wanted to think of

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--906

myself as, and assume the posture of, a mathematician, still

actively engaged in research and not just resting on his lau  
rels

(as they say). And of course I knew that if a collected work  
s was

not published at this time, then it could be published later

when, hopefully, I would have nice new things to add to it."

" In

these feelings, however, he is not so different from his  
brilliant contemporaries. They, too, are having to face, or  
have

already faced, the prospect that they are likely never to ma  
tch

their past achievements. Some have remained more active than

others. But aging is a fact of life, and an especially strin  
gent

one for a mathematician. It is, for most of them, a young ma  
n's

game.

It takes extraordinary courage to return to research after a

hiatus of nearly thirty years. But this is exactly what Nash  
did.

As he told the Madrid audience, "I am again engaged in scien  
tific

study. I am avoiding routine problems and instead I am  
'dabbling.' his

Nash had been thinking about a mathematical theory of the  
universe since before his meeting with Einstein. Since the  
lecture in Uppsala, he has suffered various setbacks. In Aug  
ust

1995, he said, "I got results that indicated I had made a  
-----

--907

fundamental error a long time ago and that I must reformulate ...

[the] theorydd"Apparently "there was stuff being lost in a singular integration and when I considered distributed matter

instead of a point particle, I found the lost stuff which had

been erroneously ignored"- adding, with characteristic objectivity, that "this is good since I have avoided publishing a

version based on errors." He went on to describe the specific

error: There was a discrepancy in the field ... which spoiled

things. Recalculation revealed ... there had been errors in the

calculation. Now I must finish up the calculation for a distributed mass of gravitating matter, at least to the first

order level of approximation. This level itself could bring an

interesting (distinctive result)."

Reawakening

383

This evaluation of the difficulties encountered in his research

gives a good

idea that the problems Nash is working on are ambitious, that he

has lost none of his taste for making high-risk bets (whether on

ideas or stocks!), and that his thinking is still sharp. And even

if his chances of achieving a new breakthrough are

statistically small, as he says, the pleasures of thinking  
908

about problems are once again his.

The truth, however, is that the research has not been the ma  
in

thing in his present life. The important theme has been  
reconnecting to family, friends, and community. This has bec  
ome

the urgent undertaking. The old fear that he depended on oth  
ers

and that they depended on him has faded. The wish to reconci  
le,

to care for those who need him, is uppermost. He and his sis  
ter

Martha, estranged for nearly twenty-five years, now talk on  
the

telephone once a week. Johnny, of course, is the main thing,  
the

constant.

It was Nash who had told the women to call the policedd14 Jo  
hnnny

had been living at home. He had been all right for a while,  
but

then he began to wear a paper crown. One afternoon, he wante  
d

some money. Because he believed he was a sovereign, he thoug  
ht

that he should be able to get money from Sovereign Bank. But  
the

ATM in front of the bank would not spit out any cash. In fac  
t, it

would not return his bank card. Agitated and unhappy, Johnny

called his mother, who has an account at Sovereign, and dema  
nded

she meet him at the ATM and get his

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--909

card out of the machine. Alicia told John, who insisted on g  
oing

with her. The couple tried, vainly, to extract Johnny's card

They also tried, unsuccessfully, to soothe Johnny. At that p  
oint,

their son became enraged, picked up a big stick, and started  
to

poke first his mother, then his father. Some bystanders acro  
ss

the street stopped when they saw the young man threatening t  
he

two elderly people. Nash shouted for one of them to call the

police. A squad car pulled up. The police took Johnny, whom they knew well, back to Trenton State. Johnny was in the hospital when his parents got the news from Stockholm informing them of Nash's Nobel. Nash and Micia called him first. He thought that they were pulling his leg, that it was a joke, and hung up on them. Later he saw his father's face on CNN." The subject of Johnny's future is extremely painful. Nash had spoken matter-of-factly about it. Alicia, looking miserable, said nothing and instead sank deep into her seat and closed her eyes. She finally interjected, "He just wants to get on with his life." The hopeful path that Johnny seemed to be on in his early twenties had long ago petered out. Whether

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--910

because of the stress of teaching, the social isolation, or because the remission had simply run its course, the year at Marshall University was a disaster. He had come home and has not worked since. "Of course I've been a bad example," Nash admits. Johnny wanted to get a job, Nash said, but he seemed to think he would be able to get one in a college mathematics department. He had been writing letters introducing himself as the son of a Nobel Laureate and asking for a position. Now Nash was telling the Kuhns that Johnny would not take his medicine when he was not in the hospital. Alicia adds, "He goes to the hospital, he gets better, but when he gets home he doesn't like to take his medication." Then he would get sick again, hearing voices and

having delusions, He would be hospitalized again and get  
A910

better. Then it would start all over again. Watching over Jo  
hnnny

is now Nash's main task in life. Except when Johnny is "on t  
he

road" wandering around the country on Greyhound buses, Nash  
is

his caretaker. Nash takes it for granted that his son is his

responsibility. As Nash said on one occasion, "My time of  
delusional thinking is, presumably,

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--911

in the past, but my son's time of it is right now.0"They get  
up

in the morning together after Alicia has gone to work. They  
eat

breakfast together. Nash takes him to the library, to the  
institute, to Fine Hall. On Monday evenings they all attend  
family therapy together. Nash has tried to get his son inter  
ested

in the computer and plays computer chess with him. He has sa  
id:

`Ultimately computers could be a good sort of occupational  
therapy (as perhaps I was benefited in an OT [occupational  
therapy] fashion by [Hale] Trotter's help in letting me get  
familiar with computer use.) 19

Johnny is thirty-eight years old. He is tall and handsome li  
ke

his father, and he and his father share an interest in  
mathematics and chess. But Johnny's illness has dragged on f  
or

more than half his life, a quarter of a century. He has been

treated with the newest generation of drugs, including Cloza  
ril,

Risperadol, and, most recently, Zyprexa. These drugs, which  
have

enabled him, for the most part, to stay out of the hospital,  
have

not given him a life. Time hardly passes for him. He no long  
er

competes in chess tournaments comonce his greatest joy. He n  
o

longer reads, saying that he has not been able to for a  
-----

--912

long time. He is often angry and occasionally violentdd10

Life with Johnny is a tremendous strain on Nash and Alicia.

Nash

calls it being "perturbed,0"tyrannizedea"and he is often preoccupied with the "drift and danger of degradation." It is a constant disruption even when, as is often the case, Johnny is roaming around the country on Greyhound buses. For instance,

Alicia and John go to the Olive Garden to celebrate Nash's birthday, and Johnny calls to say that he has lost his ATM card and has no money. The evening is spent wiring him funds. "We're at our wits` end"Alicia said recently. "You work so hard ... and then he's out of it. The Nobel hasn't helped Johnny at all."

Johnny draws Nash and Alicia together and tears them apart. There are deep conflicts. They blame each other for Johnny's misbehavior comwhen he destroys things in the house, attacks them, acts inappropriately in public. Nash feels that Alicia expects him to be the bad cop, a role he's not happy with, w hile she is the soft one. But they rely on each other. They agree every day on

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--913

what one or the other should do. They also agree when it is time to hospital ize him. Nash is more judgmental and apt to hold Johnny responsi ble for his illness. He's sometimes quite cruel, telling Harold Kuhn and others at times that people like Johnny ought to be jail ed or that he has chosen to be as he is: "I don't think of my son ...

as entirely a sufferer. In part, he is simply

A913

choosing

to escape from `the world! "11

Despite such moments of insensitivity, the truth is that Nash

expresses hope and pleasure when there is the prospect of a new

medication, a new therapy, or when he gets an idea -- like teaching Johnny how to play chess on the computer that he thinks

will help him. When his friend Avinash Dixit invites him for

dinner, he immediately asks if he might bring Johnny along

At Dixit's, Johnny takes out a chess set, and father and son sit

down to play. Nash is "less than mediocre" At one point, he says

he wants to take back a bad move. Johnny lets him. Then Nash

wants to take back another.

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--914

"Dad, if you keep doing that, you'll win" says Johnny.

"But when I play against the computer, I'm allowed to take back

moves" Nash says.

"But, Dad" protests Johnny, "I'm not a computer! I'm a human being!"

Men it is time to go to the pharmacy for Johnny's "meds," Nash

accompanies Alicia When it is time to attend an open house at

the outpatient program where Johnny is sometimes enrolled, Nash

is there and on time Alicia sees this and feels supported by

him. She feels that she couldn't do without him.

Marriage is easily the most mysterious of human relationships.

Attachments that seem superficial can become surprisingly deep

and lasting. Such is the bond between Nash and Alicia. In retrospect, one feels that this is not an accidental pairing

that these two people needed each other. Strong-minded, pragmatic, and independent as she is, Alicia's girlish infatuation has survived the disillusionments, hardships, and

disappointments. She takes Nash clothes shopping. She frets,

when  
he travels, that he'll be kidnaped by terrorists or killed i  
n a

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--915

plane crash or merely worn out. When his ankle swells from a  
sprain, she leaves a dinner party and sits with him for four  
hours in the emergency room. More telling, she looks at an o  
ld  
photograph of him in bathing trunks at a poolside in Califor  
nia  
and says with a giggle, "Aren't his legs beautiful?"

17

He, meanwhile, sets his clock by her. Stubborn, reserved,  
self-centered, and jealous of his time (and money) as he is,  
Nash

does nothing without consulting Alicia first, defers to her  
wishes, and tries to help her, whether it is by washing the  
dishes, straightening out a problem at the bank, or going wi  
th

her to family therapy every Monday night. She is the one to  
whom

he faithfully reports the day's events, whom he ran into, wh  
at  
the lecture was about, what he ate for lunch. They argue abo  
ut

money, the housework, Johnny, social engagements, but he has  
committed himself to making her life easier and more joyful.

Nash is trying to be more sensitive and accommodating. He sa  
id,  
self-critically, "I know I have my social faults and I make  
Alicia very angry when she is saying

something that I can anticipate before she's finished and  
916

then I start saying something as if what she's saying is not  
of

an importance." " He accepts, with some humor, that his genius

does not make him the authority on all matters. When it comes to

refinancing their mortgage or choosing between gas and oil heat,

he complains humorously that Alicia does not take him seriously

as an "economics sage ... notwithstanding the Nobel

He does, of course, often wound her. But he catches himself, too,

and makes amends. A typical exchange: at Gaby and Armand Borel's

dinner party Alicia announces to the assembled company that

their son has received a tentative offer to teach mathematics at

a small college in Mexico. Nash engages in an act of cruelty

"Yes," he says, "my son is in a mental hospital in Arkansas but

he got a job offer!" He is laughing at the absurdity of this

juxtaposition. This is too much for Alicia. "You have to be fair

to Johnny," she returns. Nash says nothing. But later in the

evening he goes to some lengths to make amends. He brings an

offering, maps of Mexico, that he found in books on the

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--917

Borel's shelves, to Alicia. He takes the opportunity during a

conversation about Andrew Wiles's successful proof of Fermat's

Last Theorem -- to point out that Johnny had done some

"classical" number theory in graduate school. Johnny had published

"one correct result, one incorrect, but the correct one was a

breakthrough of sorts," he tells the other guests. Alicia responds by paying attention, by taking in what he means.

Much of the renewal of their marriage has taken place since the

Nobel. There is now a sense of reciprocity. It is as if regaining

the respect of his peers has made Nash feel that he has more to offer the people in his life, and has made those close to him, especially Alicia, feel that he has more to give. This has become self-reinforcing. At one time, before the Nobel, Alicia referred to Nash as her "boarder" and they lived essentially like two distantly related individuals under the same roof. Now there is even some discussion of remarrying, although in what was perhaps an assertion of Nash's old insistence on "rationality" they gave the idea up as impractical, as so many older couples have in light of the attendant tax and Social Security

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--918

penalties. However, a certificate is not of real importance. They are a real couple again. John Stier took the first step in ending his twenty-year estrangement from his father, mailing him a copy of the June 1993 Boston Globe column that speculated on Nash's chances of winning a Nobel. " He sent the clipping anonymously, but Nash immediately guessed its source. He was unsure whether to interpret John Stier's gesture as a taunt or a friendly overture. He told Harold Kuhn that something in the way the letter was addressed to him hinted at mockery. But the following February, two months after his triumph in Stockholm, Nash boarded a shuttle bound for Boston to spend a weekend getting reacquainted with his older son. Such an encounter, inspired by hopes of putting their sad history behind them, was bound to be bittersweet, an occasion that

revived as many painful memories, disappointments, and

A918

misunderstandings as it unlocked happier feel-

ingsd11 When the two men finally met face to face, John Stier

was no longer the nineteen-year-old Amherst College history

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--919

major Nash remembered from their last encounter, but a man of

forty-four comenarly as old as Nash had been in 1972, when they

had last seen each other. Physically, he resembled his father to

a striking degree. The impressive stature, broad shoulders, luminous eyes, English complexion, and finely modeled nose were

all Nash's. But in his life's choices comand in his ability to

derive great satisfaction from helping others-he was his mother's

son. John Stier had stayed in Boston, remaining single and pursuing a career as a registered nurse. At the time, he was

thinking of returning to graduate school to obtain an advanced

degree in nursing.

In the two days they spent in each other's company comthe most

time they had ever been together at one stretch -- they touched

on personal topics only occasionally. Indeed, they were mostly

with other people; it was important for Nash to have others confirm the reconciliation. They sat looking at old photographs

with Eleanor, had a meal with Arthur Mattuck, the closest friend

of Nash's "first family," and visited Marvin Minsky in his artificial intelligence laboratory at MIT. At one point, Nash

telephoned Martha from

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--920

John Stier's apartment and put his son on the phone."

When father and son did venture into personal territory, Nash

was, as usual, full of the best intentions. He wished to show his

son how vitally important he was to him, he wanted to share with

him some of his own recent good fortune, he wanted to give him the benefit of paternal advice. He was motivated by love and by a sense of responsibility. He told John that he would divide his estate equally between him and his brother and he invited him to accompany him to a conference in Berlin. All this was to the good. But, as in so many other relationships in his life, Nash's intentions weren't always matched by the emotional means to carry them out satisfactorily. Even as he tried to draw his son closer, he said and did things that could only be called insensitive and alienating. He did not try to hide his own feelings of disappointment. He criticized his son's appearance, calling him fat (which he is not). He criticized his son's choice of profession, suggesting that nursing was beneath a son of his and urging him to go to medical school instead of pursuing a master's in nursing. He hinted strongly that he hoped John would help care for his younger

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--921

brother, but then angered him by saying it would do Johnny good to be around a "less intelligent older brother." Finally, he said he wanted John to change his name to Nash, a suggestion meant to be magnanimous, but which actually proved hurtful since it implied that he meant for John to renounce all that he was and had been. Eleanor, of course, felt injured. A few months later, Nash did take John Stier to Berlin with him.

The tensions of their first reunion surfaced agdd16Nash  
A921  
remorselessly needled his son about trifles, making him turn  
out  
the light when he wanted to read, not letting him order dess  
ert,  
telling him not to cat butter or bread. Yet even so, John St  
ier  
felt great pride when Nash gave his lecturesdd17;And Nash wa  
s  
able to write to Harold Kuhn, "Berlin was a great experience

...  
my son enjoyed the trip."`  
A Nobel award has a finality about it. Yet despite the uniqu  
e  
honor, life continues beyond the fairytale celebration in  
Stockholm. More so than for other Laureates, Nash's immediat  
e  
future is uncertain. Nobody knows whether his remission is  
permanent. People have relapsed after many years of being  
symptom-free. The present is precious.

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--922  
Unlike a game of Hex, outcomes in real life aren't predeterm  
ined  
by the first or even the fiftieth move. The extraordinary jo  
urney  
of this American genius, this man who surprises people,  
continues. The self-deprecating humor suggests greater  
self-awareness. The straight-from-the-heart talk with friend  
s  
about sadness, pleasure, and attachment suggests a wider ran  
ge of  
emotional experiences. The daily effort to give others their  
due,  
and to recognize their right to ask this of him, bespeaks a  
very  
different man from the often cold and arrogant youth. And th  
e  
disjunction of thought and emotion that characterized Nash's  
personality, not just when he was ill, but even before are m  
uch  
less evident today. In deed, if not always in word, Nash has  
come  
to a life in which thought and emotion are more closely entw  
ined,  
where getting and giving are central, and relationships are  
more  
symmetrical. He may be less than he was intellectually, he m  
ay

never achieve another breakthrough, but he has become a great  
deal more than he ever was -- "a very fine person" as Alicia  
put it once.

As we leave him now he is perhaps just hurrying under the  
Eisenhart gate on his way to Fine Hall ... or sitting next to  
Alicia on the living-room sofa watching Dr. Mo on the big  
television ...

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--923

or losing a game of chess to Johnny ... or spending  
105 minutes on the telephone comforting Lloyd Shapley after  
his wife's death ... or giving Harold Kuhn a look like a naughty

boy's when Harold asks whether the lecture notes for Pisa are  
ready ... or sitting at the institute math table with his lunch  
tray, nodding while Enrico Bombieri, who has just read the love  
letters of Carrington, bemoans the lost art of letter writing ...  
or, after listening to an astronomy lecture, gazing through a  
telescope at some distant star glimmering in the night sky..

..  
THE FESTIVE SCENE

at the turn-of-the-century frame house opposite the train station

might have been that of a golden wedding anniversary: the  
handsome older couple posing for pictures with family and  
friends, the basket of pale yellow roses, the 1950's photo of the  
bride and groom on display for the occasion.

In fact, John and Alicia Nash were about to say "I do" for the  
second time, after a nearly forty-year gap in their marriage  
, For

them it was yet another stepda big step, "according to  
A923

John-in piecing together lives cruelly shattered by  
schizophrenia. "The

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--924

divorce shouldn't have happenedea"he told me. "We saw this a  
s a  
kind of retraction of thatdd"Alicia said simply, "We thought  
it  
would be a good idea. After all, we've been together most of  
our  
lives."

After Mayor Carole Carson pronounced them man and wife, John  
was

asked to kiss his bride again for the camera. "A second take  
""he

quipped. "Just like a movie."

A few moments before the ceremony Alicia's cousin spoke to m  
e

about "the amazing metamorphosis"he had witnessed in John's  
life

since the Nobel. It's not just the many other honors and spe  
aking

invitations from around the world that have followed, or the  
much

wider audience that now appreciates the full range of exciti  
ng

intellectual contributions made during his brief but brillia  
nt

career, or even the glamour of having his remarkable story t  
old

by Hollywood. At seventy-three, John looks and sounds wonder  
fully

well. He feels increasingly certain that he won't suffer a  
relapse. "It's like a continous process rather than just wak  
ing

up from a dreamea"he told a  
New York Times

reporter recently. "When I dream ... it

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--925

sometimes happens that I go back to the system of delusions  
that's typical of how I was ... and then I wake and then I'm

rational again." Growing self-confidence may be one reason t  
hat

he is less embarrassed by talking about his past, and now sp  
eaks

to groups that see his experience as "something that helps t  
o

reduce the stigma against people with mental illness." For the first time since resigning from MIT in 1959, he now enjoys a modicum of personal security for himself and his family. Little things that the rest of us take for granted -- having a driver's license again, or getting a credit card -- mean a lot. "I feel I can go into a coffee place and spend a few dollars," Nash told me last year when I was working on a story about how economics Laureates spend their prize checks. "Lots of other academics do that," he said. "If I was really poor, I couldn't do that. I was like that."

Once threatened by homelessness, John values his home and personal belongings as few of us can. Back at the house after the ceremony, he was looking at a 1950 Parker Brothers version of Hex, the game he'd invented as a Princeton graduate student. He once owned a copy, he said. "I lost so many of my possessions due to my mental illness."

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--926

He has been able to return to mathematics. "I am working," he told the Times reporter. He no longer dreams of picking up where he left off, but is glad to be able to do serious work and make a contribution. John is once more a fixture at the math table at the Institute for Advanced Study and at tea in the Fine Hall

common room. He now has a grant from the National Science  
A926

Foundation. The other day he gave a seminar at the Institute  
about his new research on the theory of bargaining. "It actu-  
ally  
wouldn't have been possible in those earlier days because I'  
m  
using computational facilities that didn't exist in the '50'  
s and  
'60's" he said. "I'm ready to do a publication now."  
Even more important, his remission and the Nobel have enable-  
d him  
to renew broken ties. He has reconnected with old acquaintan-  
ces  
from Bluefield, Carnegie, Princeton, and MIT. After today's  
ceremony, he gossiped happily with a mathematician and an  
engineer he first met in his twenties. He and Alicia were go-  
ing  
to spend their second honeymoon among friends in Switzerland  
,  
where John will be giving a talk at a

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--927

memorial celebration for Jargen Moser, who died last year.  
John has been able to share his good fortune with those clos-  
est  
to him. He's been in touch with John David, the older son wh-  
o was  
once lost to him. He spends much of his time with his younge-  
r  
son, John Charles. On his wedding day, he proudly described  
a  
mathematical result that Johnny has lately been trying to  
publish. He and his sister, Martha, still talk on the phone  
every  
week. And, as today's scene suggests, he has come to acknowl-  
edge  
Alicia's central role in his life.  
As for his biographer, John's attitude has changed dramatica-  
lly.  
While this book was being written, he said to a  
New York Times  
reporter, "I adopted a position of Swiss neutrality" Since  
its  
publication, however, "A lot of my friends, family, and rela-  
tions  
persuaded me it was a good thing" Besides, there is so much  
in  
the book that he had forgotten or never even knew. At this p-  
oint

in life, he made it clear, retrieving some of the past has been something of a solace.

When John met Russell Crowe, who plays

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--928

him in the movie inspired by his life, he told me that his first

words to the Australian actor were, "You're going to have to go

through all these transformations!" Even in the three years since

the publication of this book, the transformations in Nash's life

have been as remarkable as any that will be portrayed on screen.

Princeton junction, New Jersey, June 1, 2001

Prologue

1. George W. Mackey, professor of mathematics, Harvard University, interview, Cambridge, Mass., 12.14.95.

2. See, for example, David Halberstam, *The Fifties*

(New York: Fawcett Columbine, 1993). 3. Mikhail Gromov, professor

of mathematics, Institut des Hautes-Études, Bures-sur-Yvette,

France, and Courant Institute, interview, 12.16.97.

war era is based on judgment of fellow mathematicians when he wrote: "To some, this brief paper, written

at a e 21

for which he has won a Nobel prize in economics, may seem  
929

like the least of his achievements

Nash, Jr. in a special volume,

Duke Mathematical Journal,

vol. 81, no. I (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1995),

the

game theorist Harold W. Kuhn calls Nash "one of the most original

mathematical minds of this century."

4. Paul R. Halmos, "The Legend of John von Neumann;"

American Mathematical Monthly, vol.

80 (1973), pp. 382-94.

5. Donald J. Newman, professor of mathematics, Temple University,

interview, Philadelphia, 3.2.96.

6. Harold W. Kuhn, professor of mathematics, Princeton

University, interview, 7.26.95.

7. John Forbes Nash, Jr., remarks at the American Economics

Association Nobel luncheon, San Francisco, 1.5.96; plenary

lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry, Madrid, 8.26.96.

8. John Nash, "Parallel Control;" RAND

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--930

Memorandum no. 1361, 8.7.54; plenary lecture, Madrid,  
8.26.96, op. cit.

9. Interviews with Newman, 3.2.96; Eleanor Stier, 3.13.96.

10. John Nash, plenary lecture, Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

11. Jurgen Moser, professor of mathematics, ETH, Zurich,  
interview, New York City, 3.21.96,

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Solomon Leader, professor of mathematics, Rutgers University

'  
interview, 6.9.95

2, The portrait of Solomon Lefschetz is based on interviews  
with

Harold W. Kuhn, 11.97; William Baumol, 1.95; Donald Spencer,

11.18.95; Eugenio Calabi, 3.2-96; Martin Davis, 2.20.96; Mel  
vin

Hausner,

2.6.96; Solomon Leader, 6.9.95; and other contemporaries of  
Nash's at Princeton. Also consulted were several memoirs,

including Solomon Lefschetz, "Reminiscences of a Mathematica  
l

Immigrant in the United States,"

American Mathematical Monthly,

vol. 77 (1970); A. W. Tucker, Solomon Lefschetz.- A Reminisc  
ence;

Sir William H d e

Solomon Leischetz, 1884-1972;

Phillip Griffiths, Donald Spencer, and George Whitehead,

Solomon L,

tional Academy of Sciences, 1992);

GianmXltz:

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Biographical Memoirs  
(Washington, D.C.: Na  
Carlo Rota,  
Indiscrete Thoughts,  
op. cit.

3. Lefschetz's obituary in  
The New York Times

(October 7 `1972) credits him for "develop[ing] [the  
Annals of Mathematics]

into one of the world's foremost mathematical journals." 4.

"It

should be noted that although Lefschetz was Jewish, he was n  
ot

above engaging in a mild form of anti-semitism. He told Henr  
y

Wallman that he was the last Jewish graduate student that wo  
uld

be admitted to Princeton because Jews could not get a job an  
yway

and so why bother "Ralph Phillips, "Reminiscences of the  
1930's,"

The Mathematical lmtelhencer,

vol. 16, no. 3 (1994). Lefichtzs attitude toward Jewish stud  
ents

was well known. Phillips's impressions were confirmed by Lea  
der,

interview, 6.9.95; Kuhn, interview,

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--963

11.97; Davis, interview, 2.20.96; and Hausner, interview, 2.  
6.96.

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5. Baumol, interview, 1.95.

6. See, for example, Gian-Carlo Rota, "Fine Hall in Its Gold  
en

Agea"op. cit. DOD personnel security application, 3.10.56,  
Princeton University Archives. 7. Solomon Lefschetz, "A Self

Portrait:` typewritten, 1.54, Princeton University Archives.

8. lbiand ...

9. Don24 Sluininencer, interviews, 11.28.95; 11.29.95; 11.30  
.95.

10. Rota, op. cit.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid.

13. Leader, interview, 6.9.95.

14. Davis, interview, 2.6.96.

15. Hausner, interview, 2.6.96.

16. Leader, interview, 6.9.95.
17. Spencer, interviews.
18. Virginia Chaplin, "Princeton and Mathematicsea"op. cit.;

Davis, interview, 2.20.96; Hartley Rogers, interview,

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1.26.96.

19. Ibid.

20. Hausner, interview.

21. Ibid.

22. Ibid.

23. Joseph Kohn, interview, 7.25.96. 24. Robert Kanigel,  
The Man "o Knew Infinity

(New York: Pocket Books, 1991); G. H. Hardy, "The Indian  
Mathematician Ramanuiane"lecture delivered at the Harvard  
Tercentenary Conference of Arts and Sciences, August 31, 193

6,

reprinted in A

Century ofMathematics

(Washington, D.C.: Mathematical Association of America, A964

1994), people. 110.

25. Hardy, op. cit.

26. J. Davies, op. cit.; Gerard Washnitzer, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, interview, 9.25.96.

27. Graduate Catalog, Princeton University, various years; Report to the President, Princeton University, various years.

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28. Letter from John Nash Forbes, Jr., to Solomon Lefschetz referring to request for private room, 4.46; Calabi, interview,

29. Interviews with Kuhn, 11.97; Washnitzer, 9.25.96; Felix Browder, 11.2.96, Calabi, 3.12.96; John Tukey, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, 9.30.97; John Isbell, professor of mathematics, State University of New York at Buffalo, 8.97; Leader, 6.9.95; Davis, 2.6.96.

30. Kuhn, interview.

31. Davis, interview.

32. Interviews with Washnitzer and Kuhn.

33. Washnitzer, interview.

34. Tukey, interview.

35. Kuhn, interview.

36. Calabi, interview.

37. Martin Shubik, "Came Theory at Princeton: A Personal Reminiscence" Cowles Foundation Preliminary Paper 901019, undated.

38. Interviews with Hausner; Davis; Kuhn; Spencer; Leader; Rogers; Calabi; and John McCarthy, professor of computer science,

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Stanford University, 2.4.96.

39. Hausner, interview, 2.6.96.

40. Interviews with Davis, Leader, Spencer; Rota, op. cit.

41. Rota, op. cit.

42. Isbell, interview.

43. Tukey, interview.

44. David Yarmush, interview, 2.6.96. 45. Princeton Alumni Directory 1997. 46. John W. Milnor, professor of mathematics and

director, Institute for Mathematical Sciences, State University

of New York at Stony Brook, interviews, 10.28.94 and 7.95.

47. Interviews with Kuhn, Hausner, John McCarthy.

48. Interviews with Hausner and Davis.

5: Genius

1. Kai Lai Chung, professor of mathematics, Stanford University

ity,  
interview, 1.96; letter, 2.6.96.

2. Abraham Pais,  
Subtle Is the Lord: The Science and Life of Albert Einstein  
(New York: Oxford University Press,

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1982).

3. Interviews with Charlotte Truesdell, 8.14.96; Martin Davi  
s,

2.20.96; Hartley Rogers, 2.16.96; and John McCarthy, 2.4.96;  
John

Forbes Nash, Jr., Personnel Security Questionnaire, 5.26.50,

Princeton University Archives. 4. "Trivial" Melvin Hausner,

interview; "burbling" Patrick Billingsley, professor of

statistics, University of Chicago, interview, 8.12.97;  
A967

"hackerea"Hausner, interview.

5. Rogers, interview.

6. Davis, interview.

7. Peggy Murray, former secretary, department of mathematics

Princeton University, interview, 8.25.97.

8. Davis, interview.

9. John Milnor, interview, 9.26.95. 10. John Nash,

autobiographical essay, Les Prix Nohel 1994,

op. cit.

11. Mentioned by many of his contemporaries, this was confir  
med

by Nash in a conversation with Harold Kuhn. 12. Harold Kuhn,

personal communication,

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8.96.

13. E enio Calabi, interview,

14. l ui T

15. Interviews with Solomon Leader and Calabi.

16. Letter from John Nash to Solomon Lefschetz, 4.48.

17. Calabi, interview.

18. John Milnor, "A Nobel Prize for John Nash,"

The Mathematical Inteffigencer,

vol. 17, no. 3 (199 5), people. 5.

19. Leader, interview, 6.9.96.

20. Ibid.

21. David Gale, interview, 9.20.95. 22. Davis, interview.

23. Kuhn, interview, 9.96.

24. Hausner, interview.

25. Milner, interview, 9.26.95.

26. Norman Steenrod, letter, 1950, quoted by Harold Kuhn,

introduction, "A Celebration of John F. Nash, Jr.;"`

Duke Mathematical journal,

vol. 8 1, no. 2 (1996).

27. E. T. Bell,

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Men ofMathematics,

op. cit.

28. Steenrod, letter, 2.5.53.

29. For this assessment, I relied on Hale Trotter and Harold

Kuhn.

30. Milnor, interview.

31. Kuhn, interview, 8.97.

32. Ed Regis,

Who Got Einstein OlWce?

op. cit.; Denis Brian,  
Einstein: A LITC,

op. cit.

33. John Forbes Nash, Jr., plenary lecture, World Congress o  
f

Psychiatry, Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

34. Ibid.

35. Regis, op. cit.

36. Ibid.; also Brian, op. cit.

37. Brian, op. cit.

38. Ibid.

39. Nash, as told to Harold Kuhn; see also Brian, op.  
A969  
cit., for description of Kemeny's assistantship under Einstein  
in in  
1948-49.

40. Brian, op. cit.

41. John Nash, as told to Kuhn, November

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1997.

42. Ibid.

43, Ibid.

44. Ibid.

45. Calabi, interview,

46. William Browder, professor of mathematics, Princeton  
University, interview, 12.6.96.

47. Steenrod, letter, 2.5.53.

48. Milnor, interview, 9.26.95.

49. Interviews with Leader and Kuhn.

50. Princeton University Archives.

51, Ibid.

51 Melvin Peisakoff, interview, 6.3.97. 53. RAO ers, interview.

54. Calabi, interview.

55. Hausner, interview.

56. Rogers, interview.

57. Hausner, interview.

58. Felix Browder, interview, 11.2.95. 59. Leader, interview

60. Harold Kuhn witnessed the scene, and Mel Peisakoff confirmed  
that it took place.

61. Donald Spencer, interview.

62. Letter from Al Tucker to Alfred Koerner,

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10.8.56.

63. The portrait of Artin is based on Gian-Carlo Rota,  
Indiscrete Thoughts,  
op. cit., as well as recollection of John Tate; Spencer,  
interview, 11.18.96; Hauser, interview; and materials from the  
Princeton University Archives.

64. Spencer, interview.

6: Games

1. Albert W. Tucker, as told to Harold Kuhn, interview.

2. Interviews with Marvin Minsky, professor of science, MIT,

2.13.96; John Tukey, 9.30.97; David Gale, 9.20.96; Melvin  
Hausner, 1.26.96 and 2.20.96; and John Conway, professor of  
mathematics, Princeton University, 10.94; John Isbell, e-mai

ls,

1.25.96, 1.26.97, 1.27.97. 3. Isbell, e-mails.

4. Letter from John Nash to Martin Shubik, undated (1950 or 1951); Hausner, interviews and e-mails.

5. William Poundstone,  
Pdsoneea6 Dilemma,

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op. cit.; John Williams,  
The Compleat Strategyst (New  
York: McGraw Hill, 1954).

6. Poundstone '0 Cit.

7. Solomon Leale,, interview, 6.9.95. 8. Martha Nash Legg,  
interview, 8.1.95. 9. Isbell, e-mails.

10. Hartley Rogers, interview, 1.26.96. 11. Ibid.  
A972  
12. Ibid.  
13. Nash may have had the idea while he was at Carnegie. This, in any case, is Hans Weinberger's recollection, interview, 10.28.95.  
14. Martin Gardner, Mathematical Puzzles and Diversions (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1959), pp. 65-70.  
15. Gardner's comment, in 1959, was that Hex "may well become one of the most widely played and thoughtfully analyzed new mathematical games of the century."  
16. Gale, interview, 9.20.95.  
17. Dinner at which John Nash, David Gale, and the author were present, January 5,
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- 1996, San Francisco.  
David Gale, interview.  
19. Ibid.  
20. Phillip Wolfe, mathematician, IBM, interview, 9.9.96.  
21. John MILDOR-RATHER,  
"A Nobel Prize for John Nash;" op. cit.  
22. Ibid.; Gardner, op. cit.  
23. Gale, interview.  
24. Ibid.  
25. Ibid.  
26. Kuhn, interview.  
27. Ibid.  
28. Milnor, interview, 9.26.95.

7: John von Neumann

1. See, for example, Stanislaw Ulam, "John von Neumann, 1903-1957," Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society, vol. 64, no. 3, part 2 (May 1958); Stanislaw Ulam, Adventures of a Mathematician (New York: Scribner's, 1983); Paul
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- R. Halmos "The Legend of John von Neumann," American Mathematical Monthly, vol. 80 (1973); William Poundstone, Prisoner Dilemma, op. cit.; Ed Regis, Who Got Einstein? op. cit.  
2. Poundstone, op. cit.

3. Ulam, "John von Neumann" op. cit.; Poundstone, op. cit., pp. 94-96.
4. Harold Kuhn, interview, 1. 10.96. 5. In remarks at a Nobel luncheon at the American Economics Association meeting on 1. 5.96, Nash traced from Newton to von Neumann to himself. Nash shared von Neumann's interest in game theory, hydrodynamic turbulence, and computer architecture. theory, quite. each of these areas are a stochastic variable
6. See, for example, Ulam, "John von Neumann" op. cit.
7. Norman McRae,

John von Neumann  
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(New York: Pantheon Books, 1992), pp. 3 50-56.

8. John von Neumann,  
The Computer and the Brain

(New Haven: Yale University Press, 1959).

9. See, for example, G. H. Hardy, A Mathematician  
Apology (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1967),  
with

a foreword by C. P. Snow.

10. Ulam, "John von Neumann:" op. cit.

11. Poundstone, op. cit.,

12. Poundstone,  
Prisoner Dilemma,  
people. 190.

13. Clay Blair, Jr., "Passing of a Great Mind;" Life (Februa  
ry  
1957), pp. 89-90, as quoted by Poundstone, op. cit., people.  
143.

14. Poundstone, op. cit.

15. Ulam, "John von Neumannea"op. cit.

16. Harold Kuhn, interview, 3.97.

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17. Paul R. Halmos, "The Legend of John von Neumann;" op. ci  
t.

18. Ibid.

19. Poundstone, op. cit.

20. Halmos, op. cit.

22. Poundstone, op. cit.

23. Ulam,  
Adventures of a Mathematician,  
op. cit.

2 plus Ulan), "John von Neumannea"op. cit.

25, Ibid.

26. Ibid., people. 10; Robert J. Leonard, "From Parlor Games  
to

Social Scienceea"op, cit.

27. Richard Duffin, interview, 10.94.

28. Halmos, op. cit.

29. Ulam, "John von Neumann," op. cit., pp. 35-39.

30. Interviews with Donald Spencer, 11.18.95; David Gale,  
9.20.95; and Harold Kuhn, 9.23.95.

31. Poundstone, op. cit.

32. Herman H. Goldstine, "A Brief History of the Computerea"  
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Century of Mathematics in America, Part I

op. cit.

33. John von Neumann, as quoted in *ibid.* 8: *The Theory of Games*

1. John von Neumann and Oskar Morgenstern, *The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1944, 1947, 1953).

2. Both von Neumann and Morgenstern came to the seminar. Albert

W. Tucker, interview, 10.94. See also Martin Shubik, "Game Theory

and Princeton, 1940-1955: A Personal Reminiscence" Cowles Foundation Preliminary Paper, undated, people. 3; David Gale

interview, 9.20.95; and Harold Kuhn, interview, 9.20.95.

3, A. W. Tucker, "Combinatorial Problems Related to Mathematical

Aspects of Logistics: Final Summary Report" U.S. Department

of

the Navy, Office of Naval Research, Logistics Branch, February

ry

28, 1957), people. 1.

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4. Melvin Hausner, interview, 2.6.96.

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5. Interviews with David Yarmush, 2.6.96, and John Mayberry,

4.15.96.

6. David Gale, interview.

7. Kuhn, interview.

and Ibid.; Hausner, interview.

9. Robert J. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to Social Scienceea  
"op.

cit.

10. See, for example, H. W. Kuhn and A. W. Tucker, "John von

Neumann's Work in the Theory of Games and Mathematical  
Economics,"

Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society

(May 1958).

11. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to Social Scienceea"op. cit.

12. Ibid.

13. Ibid.

14. Dorothy Morgenstern Thomas, interview, 1.25.96. Morgenstern

kept a portrait of the kaiser hanging in his home.

15. Letter from George Mowbry to author, 4.5.95.

16. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to Social Scienceea"op. cit.

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17. As quoted in ibid.

18. Ibid.

19. Ibid.

20. Ibid.

21. Ibid.

22. Ibid.

23. Ibid.

24. Ibid.

25. A. W. Tucker, who knew both men well, said, "If he hadn't

been forced to write a book, it wouldn't have gotten  
writteneea"interview, 10.94. Von Neumann was interested in  
economics before he met Morgenstern.

26. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to Social Scienceea"op. cit.

27. Ibid.

28. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, op. cit., people. 6.

29. Leonid Hurwicz, "The Theory of Economic Behavior,"  
The American Economic Review

(1945), pp. 909-25.

30. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, op. cit., people. 7.

31. Ibid., people. 3.

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32. Ibid.

33. Ibid., people. 4.

34. Ibid., people. 7,

35. Ibid., people. 1

36. Ibid.

37. fbiand, people. 6.

38.

New York Times,

3.46.

39. See, for example, Herbert Simon,

The American journal of Sociology,

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no. 50 (1945), pp. 58-60. Hurwicz, op. cit.; Jacob Marschak,

"Neumann's and Morgenstern's New Approach to Static Economics,"

Journal of Political Economy,

no. 54 (1946), pp. 97-115; John McDonald, "A Theory of Strategy,"

Fortune

(June 1949), pp. 100-110.

40. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to Social Science" op. cit

42. Ibid.

43. Shubik, "Game Theory and Princeton" op. cit., pp. 2

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44. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, op. cit. See also Falwell, Milgate, and Newman, op. cit.

45. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, op. cit. 46. Ibid.

47. See, for example, John C. Harsanyi, "Nobel Seminar" in Les Prix Nobel 1994.

48. Von Neumann and Morgenstern, op. cit. 49. Ibid.

50. Ibid.

51. Harsanyi, op. cit.

9: The Bargaining Problem

1. John Forbes Nash, Jr., "The Bargaining Problem," Econometrica,

vol. 18 (1950), pp. 155-62.

2. Nash's bargaining solution was "virtually unanticipated in

the literature" according to Roger B. Myerson, "John Nash's Contribution to Economics,"

Games and Economic Behavior,

no. 14 (1996), pp. 291. See also Ariel Rubinstein, "John

Nash: The Master of Economic Modeling,"

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The Scandinavian Journal of Economics,

vol. 97, no. 1 (1995), pp. 11 --

12; John C. Harsanyi, "Bargaining," in Eatwell, Milgate, and

Newman, op. cit., pp. 56-60; Andrew Schotter, interview,

10.25.96; Ariel Rubinstein, interview, 11.25.96; James W.

Friedman, professor of economics, University of North Carolina,

interview, 10.2.96.

3. "This is the classical problem of exchange and, more specifically, of bilateral monopoly as treated by Cournot,

Bowley, Tintnet, Fellner and othersea"Nash, "The Bargaining  
Problemea"p. 155. As Harold Kuhn points out, Nash's delineat  
ion  
of the history of the problem was undoubtedly supplied by Os  
kar  
Morgenstern, "It is now clear that Nash had not read those  
writersea"Harold Kuhn, "Nobel Seminar," Les Prix Nobel 1994.

For a delightful short history of exchange, including the  
references to pharaohs and kings, see Robert L. Heilbroner,  
The  
Worldly

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Philosophers,

6th edition (New York: Touchstone, 1992), people. 27.

4. John C. Harsanyi, "Approaches to the Bargaining Problem B  
efore

and After the Theory of Games: A Critical Discussion of  
Zeuthen's, Hick's and Nash's Theories," Econometrica,

vol. 24 (1956), pp. 144-57.

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5. In his now-classic reformulation of the Nash bargaining model,

Ariel Rubinstein traces the bargaining problem to Edgeworth,

"Mathematical Psychics: An Essay on the Application of Mathematics to the Moral Sciences" (London: C. Kegan Paul, 1881),

reprinted in *Mathematical Psychics and Other Essays* (Mountain

Center, Calif.: James and Gordon, 1995). Martin Shubik writes,

"Even as a graduate student I was struck by the contrast between

cooperative game theory, the seeds of which I regarded as already

present in Edgeworth and noncooperative theory which was present

in Cournot;" Martin Shubik,

*Collected Works*,

forthcoming, pp. 6. For lively accounts of

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Edgeworth's life and contributions, see Heilbroner, *op. cit.*, pp.

174-76, and John Maynard Keynes "Obituary of Francis Isidoro Edgeworth, March 26, 1926" reprinted in Edgeworth, *op. cit.*

6. Heilbroner, *op. cit.* pp. 17-3.

7. *Ibid.* pp. 174.

8. Edgeworth, *op. cit.*

9. *Ibid.*

10. *Ibid.*

11. Harsanyi, *op. cit.*

12. John von Neumann and Oskar Morgenstern, *The Theory of Games and Economic Behavior*, *op. cit.*, pp. 9.

"It may also be regarded as a nonzero-sum two-person game." Nash, "The Bargaining Problem" *op. cit.*, pp. 155; "even though von Neumann and Morgenstern's theory of

games was an essential step toward a strong bargaining theory,

their own analysis of two-person bargaining games did not go

significantly beyond the weak bargaining theory of neoclassical

economics." Harsanyi, "Bargaining" *op. cit.*, pp. 56-57.

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13. See, for example, Robert J. Leonard, "From Parlor Games to

Social Scienceea"op. cit., for a history of the axiomatic approach, and a superb interpretive discussion of "axiomatic s" in

Robert J. Aumann, "Game Theory," in John Eatwell, Murray Milgate,

and Peter Newman,

The New Falgrave,

op. cit., pp. 26-28.

14. Von Neumann and Morgenstern used the axiomatic method to

derive their theory of expected or von utilities in the second,

1947, edition of

Theory of Games and Economic Behavior. `dividual Valu

problem in social sciences, I believe, was Kenneth J. Arrow's

Ph.D. thesis

Social Choice and In es

(New York: John Wiley and Sons, 195 1). Lloyd S. Shapley's "

A Value of N-Person

Gamesea"Contributions to the Theory of Games II

(Princeton: Princeton University Press, 195 3), pp. 307-17,

is another stellar

example.

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15. John Nash, "The Bargaining Problem", *Journal of Economic Theory*, 1950, pp. 15-5.

16. John Nash,  
Nobel Prize 1994,  
*op. cit.*, pp. 276-77.

17. The sketch of Bart Hoeselitz is based on an interview with his

friend Sherman Robinson, professor of economics, University of

Chicago, 7.95, and questionnaires, letters, and a curriculum

vitae from Carnegie Mellon University archives.

18. This bit of history about international trade theory after

World War II was supplied by Kenneth Rogoff, professor of economics, Princeton University, interview.

19. John Nash,  
Nobel Prize 1994,  
*op. cit.*, pp. 176-77.

20. Nash told Myerson that he was inspired by a problem posed by

Hoeselitz. Roger Myerson, professor of economics, Northwestern

University, interview, 8.7.97.

21. Myerson, e-mail, 8.11.97.

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22. Letter from John Nash to Martin Shubik, undated (written in

1950 or 1951).

23. Harold Kuhn was for many years convinced that Nash had mailed

a copy of his first draft to Von Neumann while he was still at

Carnegie. Also interviews with David Gale, 9.20.95, and William

Browder,

12.6.96.

24. After historian Robert Leonard published the established

version of the origins of the paper in "Reading Cournot, Reading

Nash: The Creation and Stabilisation of the Nash Equilibrium",

The Economic Journal,

no. 164 (May 1994), pp. 497, Nash corrected the record at a

lunch with Harold Kuhn and Roger Myerson, 5.96, Kuhn, person

al

communication, 5.96.

25. John Nash, "The Bargaining Problem" op. cit., people. 155.

26. John Nash,  
Les Prix Nobel 1994,  
op. cit., people. 277.

10: Nash's Rival Idea

1. Harold Kuhn, interview, 4.14.97.

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2. Albert William Tucker, interview, 10.94.

3. The beer party scene was reconstructed from the recollections

of Melvin Hausner, 2.6.96, Martin Davis, 2.20.96, and Hartley

Rogers, 1. 16.96, who attended several such parties in the course

of their graduate school careers.

4. Davis, interview.

5. Ibid. Amazingly, Davis was able, forty years later, to recall

the entire song, a few lines of which are given here, interview.

6. Kuhn, interview, 4.16.97.

7. Ibid.

8. Henri Poincaré, quoted in E. T. Bell,  
Men of Mathematics,

op. cit., people. 5 5 1.

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9. John Nash to Robert Leonard, e-mail, 2.20.93. Further details

supplied by Harold Kuhn, interview, 4.17.97.

10, "All the graduate students were afraid of himea"ac to Donald

Spencer, interview, 11.8.95.

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11. Von Neumann's dress and manner are described by George Mowbry

in a letter, 4.5.95. Harold Kuhn, interview, 5.2.97.

12. See, for example, Norman McRae, John von Neumann, op. cit., pp. 350-56

13. As told to Harold Kuhn, 4.17.97. 14. John Nash, Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

15. Silvano Arieti, Creativity,

op. cit., people. 294.

16. J. Nash to R. Leonard, e-mail. 17. Ibid.

18. The conversation between Nash and Gale was recounted by Gale

in an interview, 9.20.95. Gale also suggested that Nash use Kakutani's fixed point theorem instead of Brouwer's to simplify

the proof, a suggestion that Nash followed in the note in the

National Academy of Sciences

Proceedings.

19. John F. Nash, Jr., "Equilibrium Points in N-Person Games,"-municated

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by S. Lefschetz, 11.16.49, pp. 48-49.

20. Gale, interview.

21. Tucker, interview, 10.94.

22. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 12.12.95.

23. Tucker's account of Minsky's thesis on computers and the

brain, "Neural Networks and the Brain Problemea" is given in an

interview with Stephen B. Maurer published in the Two Year College Mathematics journal, vol. 14, no. 3 (June 1983).

24. Tucker, interview.

25. Harold Kuhn, "Nobel Seminar,"

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit., people. 283.

26. Tucker, interview, 10.94.

27. Ibid.

28. Ibid.

29. John Nash,  
Les Prix Nobel 1994,  
op. cit.

30. Tucker, interview.

31. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to Solomon Lefschetz, 5.10.  
50.

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32. Ibid.

33. See, for example, introduction, John Eatwell, Murray Mil  
gate,  
and Peter Newman,  
The New P-4longrave,  
op. cit.

34. "It so happens that the concept of the two-person zero-s  
um

games has

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very few

real life application see "John C. Harsanyi, "Nobel Seminar,"

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit., people. 285.

35. Ibid.

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37. Avinash Dixit and Barry Nalebuff, Thinking Strategically

,

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38. Ibid.

39. "Nowadays it almost seems to be obvious that the correct

application of Darwinism to problems of social interaction among

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according to Reinhard Selten, "Nobel Seminar,"

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

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op. cit., people. 288.

40. "Game Theory" in Eatwell, Milgate, and Newman, op. cit.

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people. xiii. 41. Michael Intriligator, personal communication,

6.27.95.

43. Von Neumann, as Nash always acknowledged, nonetheless helped

to gain attention for Nash's ideas. For example, the preface to

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work on noncooperative games, people. vii.

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1. T. S. Ferguson, "Biographical Note on Lloyd Shapley;" in Stochastic Games and Related Topics in Honor of Professor L. S.

Shapley, edited by T. E. S. Raghavan, T. S. Ferguson, T. Parthasarathy, and O. J. Vrieze (Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1989).

2. See, for example, Carl Sagan, Broca Brain

(New York: Random House, 1979).

3. David Halberstam,

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The Fifties,

op. cit.

4. The description of Shapley's experiences during the war,

at

Princeton, and at RAND draw on the recollections of Harold Kuhn,

11.18.96; Norman Shapiro, 2.9.96; Martin Shubik, 9.27.95 and

12.13.96; Melvin Hausner, 2.6.96; Eugenio Calabi, 3.2.96; John

Danskin, 10.19.96; William Lucas, 6.27.95; Hartley Rogers, 1.26.96; John McCarthy, 2.4.96; Marvin Minsky, 2.13.96; Robert

Wilson, 3.7.96; Michael Intriligator, 6.27.95.

5. Letter from John von Neumann, 1.54.

6. Solomon Leader, interview, 6.9.95. 7. Rogers, interview, 1.26.96.

8. "It was like ESP. Shapley seemed to know where all of the

pieces were all of the time" Minsky, interview.

9. Hausner, interview, 2.6.96.

10. Danskin, interview, 10.19.95.

11. Letter from Lloyd Shapley to Solomon Lefschetz, 4.4.49.

12. Interviews with Nancy Nimitz, 5.21.96, and Kuhn, 994 4.4.96.
13. Shapiro, interview, 12.13.96.
14. Intr`linin ator, interview, 6.27.95. 15. Shubi , interview, 12.13.96.
16. Lloyd S. Shapley, interview, 10.94.
17. Ibid.
18. Shubik, interview, 12.13.96.
19. Interviews with Shapley, Shubik, McCarthy, Calabi.
20. Calabi, interview.
21. Ibid.
22. Ibid.
23. Shubik, interview, 9.27.95.
24. Shubik, interview, 9.27.95.
25. Letter from Nash to Martin Shubik, undated (1950 or 1951 ).
26. McCarthy, interview.
- 27, McCarthy, interview.
28. Hausner, interview, 2.6.96; M. Hausner, J. Nash, L. Shapley, and M. Shubik, "So Long Sucker-A Four-Person Gameea"mimeo provided by Hausner.
29. Interviews with Shubik and McCarthy.

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30. John Nash and Lloyd Shapley, "A Simple Three-Person Poker Game;` Annals of Mathematics, no. 24 (1950).
31. "To some extent there was a competition between Nash, Shapley, and meea"Shubik, interview, 12.13.96,
32. Shapley, interview.
33. Shapley, Additive and Non-Additive Set Functions, Ph.D. thesis, Princeton University, 1953. Shapley published his famous result-the so-called Shapley value coma value for n-person games, in 1953.
34. Martin Shubik, "Came Theory at Princeton, op. cit., people. 6: "We all believed that a problem of importance was the characterization of the concept of threat in a twoperson game and the incorporation of the use of threat in determining the influence of the employment of threat in a bargaining situation. [Nash, Shapley, and I worked on this problem, but Nash managed to formulate a good model of the two person bargain utilizin

g  
threat moves to start withdd"Shubik is referring here to Nas  
h's  
"Two-Person Cooperative Games;`

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published in  
Econometrics

in 1953 but actually written in August 1950 during Nash's fi  
rst  
summer at RAND.

35. Letter from Albert W. Tucker, 1953.

36 lbiand

37 Letter from Frederick Bohnenblust, spring 1953.

38. Letter from John von Neumann, 1.54. 39. Kuhn, interview,

11.18.96.

12: The War of Wits

1. John McDonald, "The War of Wits," Fortune  
(March 195 1).

2. William Poundstone,  
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Prisoner Dilemma,  
op. cit.; Fred Kaplan,  
The Wizards of Armageddon, op.  
cit.;  
The RAND Corporation: The First Fifteen Years (Santa Monica,  
Calif.: RAND, November 1963) and  
40th Year Anniversary  
(Santa Monica: RAND, 1963); John D. Williams, An Address,  
6.21.50; Bruce

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L. R. Smith,  
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A  
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"Miscellaneous Reminiscences,"  
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3. Herman Kahn,  
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(Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1960), as quoted in  
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4. Isaac Asimov,  
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(New York: Bantam Books, 1991).  
5. Poundstone, op. cit.  
6. Kaplan, op. cit., people. 52.  
7. Ibid., people. 10.  
8. Oskar Morgenstern,  
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(New York: Random House, 1959), as

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quoted in Poundstone, op. cit., pp. 84-85.  
9. McDonald, "The War of Witsea" op. cit.  
10. The account of RAND's beginnings is based on Poundstone,  
op.  
cit.  
11. Ibid., people. 93.  
12. See, for example, Stanislaw Ulam, Adventures of a  
Mathematician, op.  
cit.; Richard Rhodes,

The Making of the Atomic Bomb

(New York: Simon and Schuster, 1986); Hodges,

Abu Turing: The Enigma,

op. cit.

13. Mina Rees, "The Mathematical Sciences and World War IIEA

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cit.

14. The sketch of RAND's mathematics, economics, and compute  
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groups is based largely on interviews with RAND staff and  
consultants from the early Cold War period, including Kenn  
eth

Arrow, 6.26.95; Bruno Augenstein, 6.13.96; Richard Best, 5.2  
2.96;

Bernice Brown, 5.22.96; John Danskin, 10.19.95; Martha Dresh  
er,

5.21.96; Theodore Harris, 5.24.96; Mario Juncosa, 5.21.96  
999  
and 5.24.96; William Karush, 5.96; William F. Lucas, 6.26.95  
;  
John W Milnor, 9.95; John McCarthy, 2.4.96; Alexander M. Mood,  
5.23.96; Evar Nering, 6.18.96; Nancy Nimitz, 5.21.96; Melvin  
Peisakoff, 6.3.96; Harold N. Shapiro, 2.20.96; Norman Shapiro,  
2.29.96; Lloyd S. Shapley, 11.94; Herbert Simon, 10.16.95; Robert  
Specht, 2.96; Albert W. Tucker, 12.94; Willis H. Ware, 5.24.  
.96;  
Robert W. Wilson, 8.96; Charles Wolf, Jr., 5.22.96.  
15. Augenstein, interview, 6.13.96.  
16. R. Duncan Luce, interview, 1996. 17. The descriptions of

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(Totowa, N.J.: Barnes and Noble, 1985), pp. 6-9.

18. Kenneth Arrow, professor of economics, Stanford University,  
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21. Interviews with Alexander M. Mood, professor of mathematics,  
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22. Kaplan, op. cit., people. 51.

23. Bernice Brown, retired statistician, RAND, interview,  
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24. Augenstein, interview.

25. Arrow, interview.

26.

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op. cit., people. 667.

27. David Halberstam,

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28. Ibid.

29. Ibid., people. 46.

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31. Martha Drescher, interview.  
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32. Best, interview.

33. Halberstam,

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Chronicle of the Twentieth Century,

op. cit., people. 677.

34. Halberstam, op. cit., people. 49.

35.

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op. cit., people. 750.

36. Best, interview.

37. Ibid.

38. Letter from Col. Walter Hardie, U.S. Air Force, to RAND,

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39. As told to Harold Kuhn, interview, 8.97.

40. Letter from John Nash to John and Virginia Nash, 11.10.5

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41. Best, interview.

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42. The Eisenhower guidelines refer to DOD directive 52206, 1953

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43. Danskin, interview.

44. Robert Specht, interview, 10.96. 45. John Williams,

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The Compleat Strategyst,

op. cit.

46. The account of mathematicians` work habits is based on interviews with Brown, Mood, Juncosa, Danskin, and Shapiro.

47. Interviews with Mood and Juncosa. 48'Juncosa, interview.

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50. The description of Williams is based on interviews with Best,

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1. Kenneth Arrow interview, 6.26-95.

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2. M. Dresher aQ L. S. Shapley Summary OfRAND

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3. Arrow, interview.

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4. Fred Kaplan

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5. Thomas C. chelling,

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6. Ibid. Lucas, "The

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11. McDonald, op. cit.  
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2 1, Albert W. Tucker, interview 12.94.  
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22. See, for example, Avinash Dixit and Barry M ` Murray Mil  
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25. Harold Kuhn, interview, 7.96.  
26. Poundstone, op. cit.; also Kagel and Roth, op. cit.

27. John F. Nash, Jr., as quoted in Kagel and Roth, op. cit.

Personal Reminiscences" in  
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29. The first version of Nash's analysis of the 31.50). A final

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8.8.50.

30. Kaplan, op. cit.

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(Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press,

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2. Recommendations of 5.11.50 by Solomon Lcfschetz, chairman

,  
mathematics department, to president, Princeton University,  
that

John Forbes Nash, Jr., be appointed research assistant,  
three-quarters time, on A. W Tucker's ONR Contract A-727.

3. See, for example, David Halberstam, The Fifties,

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4. Proceedings of the International Congress of Mathematicia  
ns,

August 30-September 6, 1950, vol. 1, people. 516.

5. Letter from John Nash to Albert W. Tucker, 9.10.50. Lette  
r

from John Nash to Solomon Lefichetz, undated (probably writt  
en

between April 10 and April 26, 1948), gives the clearest  
statement of why Nash wanted to avoid the draft: "Should the  
re

come a war involving the U.S. I think I should be more usefu  
l,

and better off, working on some research project than foing,

sayeaeainffthe infantry."

6. Letter from Fred D. Rigby, Office of Nava Research Washin  
gton,

D.C., to Albert W. Tucker, 9.15.50.

7. Letter from J. Nash to A. W Tucker, 9.10.50.

8. Letters from A. W. Tucker to Local Board No. 12, 9.13.50;

Raymond L. Woodrow to Local Board No.  
12, 9.15.50 and 9.18.50; Raymond J. Woodrow, Committee on Project  
Research and Inventions, Princeton University, to Local Board  
No.  
12, Bluefield, WdVa., re

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occupational deferment for John F. Nash, Jr. (with reference  
to  
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9.10.50.  
10. Ibid.  
11. Halberstam, op. cit.  
12. Hans Weinberger, interview, 10.28.95. 13. Harold Kuhn,  
interview, 9.6.96. 14. Gottesman,  
Schizophrenia Genesis,  
op. cit., pp. 152-55; also Bruce Dohrenwind, professor of social  
psychology, Columbia University, interview, 1.16.98. 15. H.  
Steinberg and J. Durrell, "A Stressful Situation as a Precipitant  
of Schizophrenic Symptoms,"

British journal of Psychiatry, vol.

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I I I (1968), pp. 1097-1106, as quoted in Gottesman, Schizophrenia Genesis, op. cit.

16. Notes of telephone call from Alice Henry, secretary, department of mathematics, Princeton University, re I-A classification of John Nash and request that Dean

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Douglas Brown write a letter to ONR to be forwarded to the Bluefield draft board, 9.15.50.

17. "Information Needed in National Emergency" form filled out

9.50 by John F. Nash, Jr., refers to I-A status, pending application for II-A, ONR and RAND research roles.

18. Letter from Raymond J. Woodrow, Committee on Project Research and Inventions, Princeton University, to commanding officer,

Office of Naval Research, New York Branch, re deferment for John

F. Nash, Jr., 9.18.50. 19. Letter from W. S. Keller, Office of

Naval Research, New York Branch, to Selective Service Board No.

12, Bluefield, WV-A., re deferment for John F. Nash, Jr., 9.28.50.

20. Richard Best, interview, 5.96.

21. Melvin Peisakoff, interview, 5.96. 22. Best, interview.

23. Letter from Raymond J. Woodrow to John Nash, 10.6,50.

24. Ibid.; letter from L. L. Vivian, ONR, New York Branch, to

commanding officer, ONR, New York Branch Office, re

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notification of Nash by draft board that active service postponed

until June 30, 1951, and continued I-A status, 11.22,50. 15:  
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Beautiful Theorem

1. Richard J. Duffin, interview, 10.26.95.

2. "He can hold his own in pure mathematics, but his real strength seems to lie on the frontier between mathematics and the

biological and social sciences" letter from Albert W. Tucker to

Marshall Stone, 12.14.51.

3. John Nash, "Algebraic Approximations of Manifolds," Proceedings of the International Congress of Mathematicians,

vol.  
1 (1950), people. 516, and "Real Algebraic Manifolds,"  
Annals of Mathematics,  
vol. 56, no. 3 (November 1952; received October 8, 1951). For  
or  
expositions of Nash's result, see John Milnor, "A Nobel Prize  
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John Nash" op. cit., pp. 14-15, and Harold W Kuhn, introduc  
tion,  
"A Celebration of John F. Nash, Jr.,"

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Duke Mathematical Journal

vol. 81, no. 1 (1995), people. iii.

4. Harold Kuhn, interview, 11.30.97. 5. See, for example, Ju  
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Barrow-Green, *Reincarnation and the Three-Body Problem* (Providence,

R.I.: American Mathematical Society, 1977); also Kuhn, inter  
view.

6. George Hinman, interview, 10.30.97. 7. John F. Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit. "Wiener's Life" in

8. See, for example, E. T. Bell,

*Men of Mathematics*,

op. cit., and Norman Levinson

"Norbert Wiener 1894-1964,"

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Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society,  
vol. 72, no. I 1part 11, people. 8.

9. Martin Davis, interview, 2.6.96.

10. Norman Steenrod, letter of recommendation, 2.51, as quoted by

Kuhn, introduction, "A Celebration of John F. Nash, Jr." op. cit.

11. John Nash, "Algebraic Approximations of Manifolds" op. cit.,  
people.

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516.

12. Solomon Lefschetz, President's Report, Princeton University  
Archives, 7.18.80.

13. Solomon Lefschetz, memorandum, 3.9.49, on Spencer's  
appointment as visiting professor at Princeton in academic year

1948-49; Donald Spencer, interviews, 11.28.95 and 11.29.95.

14. Lefschetz, memorandum, 3.9.49.

15. Donald Clayton Spencer, Biography, 10.61, Princeton  
University Archives.

16. See, for example, "Analysis, Complex,"  
Encyclopaedia Britannica (1962).

17. Kodaira won the Fields in 1954; David C. Spencer, "Ki-in  
ihiko

Kodaira (1915-1997),"

American Mathematical Monthly,  
2.98.

18. Spencer won the 136cher in 1947, Biography, op. cit.

19. Lefschetz, memorandum, 3.9.49.

20. Joseph Kohn, professor of

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mathematics, Princeton University, interview, 7.19.95.

21. Ibid. Also Phillip Griffiths, director, Institute for  
Advanced Study, interview, 5.26.95.

22. In his recommendation for Spencer's appointment as visiting  
g

professor in 1949, Lefschetz remarks 'on

on his "warm and sympathetic personality. Spencer had an unusual

willingness to reach out to colleagues in trouble. He became

deeply involved in helping Max Shiffman, a bright young  
mathematician at Stanford who was diagnosed with schizophrenia;

John Moore, a mathematician who suffered a severe depression  
; and  
John Nash after Nash returned to Princeton in the early 1960  
's.

See Spencer, op. cit.

23. Spencer, op. cit.

24. As slightly restated by Milnor, "A Nobel Prize for John  
Nashea"op. cit., people. 14.

25. Intersectional Nomination: Class Five; 1996 Election, Jo  
hn F.

Nash, Jr.

26. Michael Artin, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview,

12.2.97.

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27. See, for example, Michael Artin and Barry Mazur, "On Per  
iodic  
Points,"

Annals of Mathematics, no.

81 (1965), pp. 82-99. Milnor calls this an  
"important" application.

28. Barry Mazur, professor of mathematics, Harvard  
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University, interview, 12.3.97.

29. Nash cites, for example, H. Seifert, "Algebraische  
Approximation von Mannigfaltigkeiten,"

Math. Zeit.,

vol. 41 (1936), pp. 1-17.

30. Ibid.

31. Steenrod, letter, 2.5.1, as quoted by Kuhn, introduction,  
"A

Celebration of John F. Nash, Jr." op. cit.

32. Spencer, op. cit.

33. Nash, as told to Harold Kuhn, private communication, 12.  
2.97.

The subsequent Nash-Moser theorem has even more profound  
implications for celestial mechanics. See Chapter 30.

34. Albert W. Tucker, interview, 11.94.

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Nash still dabbled in game theory, perhaps partly to maintain  
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RAND connection. For example, he wrote "N-Person Games: An  
Example and a Proof," RAND Memorandum, RM-615, June 4, 1951,  
as

well as, with graduate students Martin Shubik and John Mayberry,  
"A

Comparison of Treatments of a Duopoly Situation" RAND  
Memorandum P-222, July 10, 1951.

35. Kuhn, interview.

36. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to Hassler Whitney, 4.5.55

37. Arlin supervised the honors calculus program, according to  
John Tate (interview, 6.29.97), he took very seriously. Later

documents refer to Nash's having been a poor teacher; the  
comments undoubtedly stem from his experiences in 1950-51.

38. "There is no doubt that the department should look towards  
keeping Milner permanently as a member of our faculty:" Solomon

Lefschetz, President's Report, Princeton University Archives  
, 9.5

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39. Letter from A. W. Tucker to H. Whitney, op. cit.

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40. William Ted Martin, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview,  
9.7.95.

41. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to Marshall Stone, 2.26.55

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42. Nash told Kuhn that his desire to live in Boston played a role in his accepting the MIT position, Kuhn, personal communication, 7.97. 16: MIT
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- disLindsay Russell, interview, 1. 14.96. 2. Patrick Corcoran, retired captain, Cambridge City Police, interview, 8.12.97.
3. Felix Browder, interview, 11. 14.95. 4. Gian-Carlo Rota, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview, 10.29.94. 5. Paul A. Samuelson, professor of economics, MIT, interview, 11.94.
6. Harvey Burstein, former FBI agent who set up the campus police at MIT, interview, 7.3.97.
7. Samuelson, interview.
8. William Ted Martin, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview, 9.7.95.
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9. Samuelson, interview.
10. Department of Physics, MIT, communication, 1.98.
11. Course catalog, MIT, various years. 12. Samuelson, interview.

13. Ibid.

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14. Arthur Mattuck, professor of mathematics, MIT, e-mail, 6.23.97. 15. Joseph Kohn, professor of mathematics, Princeton

University, interview, 7.25.95.

16. Samuelson, interview. See also Report to the President, MIT,

various years. 17. Jerome Lettvin, professor of electrical engineering and bioengineering, MIT, interview, 7.25.97; Emma

Duchane, interview, 6.26.97.

18.

Samuelson, interview.

19. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview.

20. Hearing before Committee on Un-American Activities (HUAC),

House of Representatives, Eightythird Congress, First Session,

Washington, D.C., April 22 and 23, 1953.

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21. Samuelson, interview.

22. Martin, interview.

23. Ibid.

24. See, for example, Wiener's obituary, New York Times, 3.19.64; Paul Samuelson, "Some Memories of Norbert Wiener" 1964,

Xerox provided by Samuelson; and Norbert Wiener, Ex-Prodip, (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1953) and IA-RN a Mathematician

(New York: Simon and Schuster, 1956). 25. Samuelson, "Some Memories of Norbert Wiener" op. cit.

26. Ibid.

27. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 9.11.95.

28. Samuelson, "Some Memories of Norbert Weinerea" op. cit.

29. Z. Levinson, interview.

30. Ibid.

31. Ibid.

32. Ibid.

33. Note from John Nash to N. Wiener, 11. 17.5 2.

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34. Letter from John Nash to Albert W. Tucker, 10. 58.

35. Jerome Neuwirth, professor of mathematics, University of Connecticut at Storrs, interview, 5.21.97.

36. The sketch of Levinson is based on recollections of his widow, Zipporah Levinson; Arthur Mattuck; F. Browder, 11.2.95;

Gian-Carlo Rota, 11.94; and many others. Also Kenneth Hoffma

n,

Memorandum to President J. B. Wiesner, 3.14.74; William Tcd  
Martin et al., obituary of Norman Levinson, 12.17.75.

37. HUAC, op. cit. See also Chapter 19.

38. Arthur Mattuck, "Norman Levinson and the Distribution of

Primesea"address to MIT shareholders,  
10.6.78.

17: Bad Boys

1. Donald J. Newman, professor of mathematics, Temple Univer  
sity,

interview, 12.28.95; Leopold Flatto, Bell Laboratories,  
interview, 4.25.96,

2. Sigurdur Helgason, professor of

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mathematics, MIT, interview, 2.13.96.

3. Course catalog, MIT, various years. 4. Arthur Mattuck,  
interview, 11.7.95. 5. Robert Aumann, professor of mathemati  
cs,

Hebrew University, interview, 6.25.95.

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6. Joseph Kohn, interview, 7.19.95. 7. Ibid.

8. Auniann, interview.

9. Seymour Haber, professor of mathematics, Temple University,

interviews, 3.14.95 and 3.19.95.

10. George Whitehead, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview,

12.12.95. 11. Eva Browder, interview, 9.6.97.

12. Barry Mazur, interview, 12.3.97. 13. Harold Kuhn quotes Nash

taking credit for introducing the tea hour at MIT in his introduction to the special volume in honor of Nash, "A Celebration of John F. Nash, Jr." op. cit.

14. Isadore M. Singer, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview,

12.13.95. 15. Kohn, interview.

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16. Singer, interview.

17. Jerome Neuwirth, interview, 5.21.97. 18. Mattuck, interview,

2.13.96.

19. Descriptions of this legendary crowd are based on interviews

with Kohn; Felix Browder, 11.2.95,

11.10.95, 9.6.97; Aumann; Neuwirth; Newman; H. F. Mattson,

10.29.97 and 11.18.97; Larry Wallen,

5.16.97 and 5.20.97; Mattuck; Paul Cohen, 1.5.96; Jacob Bricker,

5.22.97; and others.

20. F. Browder, interview, 9.6.97.

21. Haber, interview.

22. Ibid.

23. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96.

24. Neuwirth, interview.

25. Ibid.

26. Mattuck, interview, 2.13.96.

27. Interviews with Neuwirth and F. Browder, 11.2.95.

28. Jurgen Moser, professor of mathematics, Eidgenbssische Technische Hochschule, Zurich, interview,

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3.23.96.

29. Marvin Minsky, professor of science, MIT, interview, 2.13.96.

30. Herta Newman, interview, 3.2.96. 31. Andrew Browder,

professor of mathematics, Brown University, interview, 6.18.97.

32. Haber, interview.

34. D. Newman, interview, 2.4.96.
35. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 9.11.95.
36. Neuwirth, interview.
37. D. Newman, interview.
38. Ibid.
39. Lawrence Wallen, professor of mathematics, University of Hawaii, interviews, 5.20.97 and 6.4.97.
40. Kohn, interview.
41. H. F. Mattson, professor of computer science, Syracuse University, interview, 5.16.97; also Wallen, interview.
42. I. C. Lagarias, "The Leo Collection: Anecdote and Stories" AT&T Bell Laboratories, 4.29.95 (Xerox).
43. Mat tuck, interview, 5.21.95, and

Neuwirth, interview.

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44. Neuwirth, interview.

45. The sketch of Donald J. Newman is based on an interview with

him and on interviews with Flatto, Kohn, Mattuck, Singer, and

Harold S. Shapiro, professor of mathematics, Royal Institute of

Technology, Stockholm, Sweden, e-mail, 5.21.97.

46. Singer, interview, 12.13.95.

47. Mattuck, interview, 11.7.95.

48. D. Newman, interview, 3.2.96.

49. Helgason, interview, 12.3.94; also interviews with Mattuck

and Singer.

50. Flatto, interview.

51. Ibid.

52. Ibid.

53. Singer, interview.

54. Haber, interview.

55. Ibid.

56. Flatto, interview.

57. Ibid.

58. Ibid.

59. Neuwirth, interview.

60. Ibid.

61. D. Newman, interview, 3.2.96.

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62. Ibid.

63. H. Newman, interview.

64. Fred Brauer, professor of mathematics, University of Wisconsin, interview, 5.22.97.

18: Experiments

1. Harold N. Shapiro, professor of mathematics, Courant Institute, interview, 2.20.96.

2. John Milnor, interview, 9.26.95. 3. The account of the cross-country trip is based largely on recollections of Martha

Nash Legg, interviews,

8.29.95 and 3.29.96, and Ruth Hincks Morgenson, interview, 6.22.97.

4. John Nash to Harold Kuhn, personal communication, 6.24.97 ;

also Morgenson, interview.

5. M. Legg, interview.

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid.

8. Ibid.; Milnor, interview.

9. John M. Danskin, interview, 10.29.95.

10. M. Legg, interview.

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11. Ibid .

12. John Milnor, "Games Against Nature" in  
Decision Processes,

edited by R. M. Thrall, C. H. Coombs, and R. L. Davis (New York:

John Wiley and Sons, 1954).

13. "Some Games and Machines for Playing Them" RAND Memorandum,

D-I 164, 2.2.52.

14. John Nash and R. M. Thrall, "Some War Games" RAND  
Memorandum, D-1379, 9.10.52.

15. G. Kalisch, J. Milnor, J. Nash, and E. Nering, "Some  
A1026

Experimental N-Person Games"RAND Memorandum, RM-948, 8.2 5  
.5 2.

16. M. Legg, interview.

17. The description of the experiment is based on, apart from the

original paper, Evar Nering, professor of mathematics, University

of Minnesota, interview, 6.18.96; R. Duncan Luce and Howard  
Raiffa,

Games and Decisions

(New York: John Wiley and Sons,

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1957), pp. 259-69; John H. Kagel and Alvin E. Roth, The  
Handbook of Experimental Economics,

op. cit., pp. 10-11.

18. Kagel and Roth, op. cit.

19. Milnor, interview, 10.28.94.

20. John Milnor, "A Nobel Prize for John Nash"op. cit.

21. See, for example, Kagel and Roth, op. cit.

22. Milnor, interview, 1.27.98.

23. Letter from John Nash to John Milnor, 12.27.64.

19: Reds

1. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 9.11-95

2. Hearing before Committee on Un-American Activities, House  
of

Representatives, Washington, D.C.,

4.22.5 3 and 4.23.5 3. Unless otherwise noted, all references to

the hearing are based on this transcript.

3. David Halberstam,

The Fifties,

op. cit.

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4. Letter from Harold W. Dodds, president, Princeton University,

to Colonel S. R. Gerard, Screening Division, Western Industrial

Personnel Security Board, 10. 14.54, Princeton University  
Archives.

5. See, for example, F. David Peat, Infinite Potential. The  
Life

and Times of David Bohm

(Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1997). 6. Z. Levinson,

interview.

7. Ibid. See also Felix Browder, interview, 11.10.95.

8. Z. Levinson, interview.

9. Ibid.

10.  
The Tech,  
spring 19 5 3, various issues.
11. Z. Levinson, interview.
12. Ibid.
- 13, William Ted Martin, interview.
14. Z. Levinson, interview.
15. Fred Brauer, e-mail, 6.23.97; Arthur H. Copeland, profes  
sor  
of mathematics, University of New Hampshire, e-mail, 6.24.97  
;  
Arthur Mattuck,

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e-mail, 6.25.97.

16. John Nash, plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry  
,  
Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

20: Geometry

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1. Letter from Warren Ambrose to Paul Halmos, undated (written spring 1953).

2. The portrait of Ambrose is based on the recollections of Isadore Singer, 2.13.95; Lawrence Wallen, 6.4.97; Felix Browder, 11.2.95; Zipporah Levinson, 9.11.95; William Ted Martin, 9.7.95; H. F. Mattson, 10. 29.97, 11 18. 97,

11.28.97; Gian-Carlo Rota, 10.94; George Mackey, 12.14.95.

3. See, for example, I. M. Singer and H. Wn, "A Tribute to Warren

Ambrose," Notices of the AMS

(April

1996).

4. Robert Aumann, interview, 6.28.95. 5. Gabriel Stolzenberg

professor of mathematics, Northeastern University, interview

4.2,96.

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6. Leopold Flatto, interview, 4.15.96. See also "The Leo Collection: Anecdotes and Stories" ATANDT Bell Laboratories 4.29.94.

7. Ibid.

8. George Mackey, interview, 12.14.95. 9. Felix Browder, interview, 11.2.95. 10. Flatto, interview.

11. Despite its apocryphal ring, the story appears to be true and

has been confirmed by Nash. Harold Kuhn, personal communication,

8,97. 12. Armand Borel, professor of mathematics, Institute for

Advanced Study, interview, 3.1.96.

13. F. Browder, interview.

14. Ibid.

15. Joseph Kohn, interview, 7.19.95. Phrasing the question precisely, Ambrose would have used the adverb "isometrically

mea distion t preserve distances"- after "embedding."

16. Shlomo Sternberg, professor of mathematics, Harvard University, interview, 3.5.96.

17. Mikhail Gromov, interview, 12.16.97.

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18. John Forbes Nash, Jr., Les Prix Nobel 1994, op. cit.

19. Gromov, interview.

20. John Conway, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, interview, 10.94. 21. Jürgen Moser, e-mail, 12.24.97. 22, Richard Palais, professor of mathematics, Brandeis University, interview, 11.6.95. 23. Moser, interview. 24, Donald J, Newman, interview, 3.2.96. 25. Jürgen Moser, "A Rapidly Convergent Iteration Method and

Non-linear Partial Differential Equations, 1, IVA-NNALIDELLA Sculfi, Normale Superiore and Pisa, vol. 20 (1966), pp. 265-315, 499-535. 26. See, for example, Kiyosi Itô, ed., Encyclopedic Dictionary of Mathematics (Mathematical Society of Japan; Cambridge: MIT Press, 1987), page 1076, Lars Hörmander, "The Boundary Problems of Physical Geodesy,"

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Archive for Rational Mechanics and Analysis, vol. 62, no. 1 (1976), pp. 1-52; and S. Klainerman,

Communications in Pure and Applied Mathematics, vol. 33  
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(1980), pp. 43-101 -

27. John Nash, "C' Isometric Imbeddings,"

Annals of Mathematics,

vol. 60, no. 3 (November 1954), pp. 383-96.

28, Kohn, interview.

29. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

30. Rota, interview, 11.14.95.

31. Flatto, interview.

32. Jacob Schwartz, professor of computer science, Courant  
Institute, interview, 1.29.96.

33. Isadore Singer, interview, 12.14.95. 34. Paul J. Cohen,  
professor of mathematics, Stanford University, interview, 1.  
6.96.

35. Moser, interview, 3.23.96.

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36. The Nash-Federer correspondence wasn't saved, and Federer  
r

declined to be interviewed (personal communication, 6.25.96)

. The

account is based on the recollections of several individuals

,  
including Wendell Fleming (interview, 6.97), a longtime  
collaborator and friend of Federer.

37. Fleming, interview.

38. John Nash, "The Imbedding Problem for Riemannian Manifolds,"

Annals of Mathematics,

vol. 63, no. I (January 1956, received October 29, 1954, revised

August 20, 1955).

39. Borel, interview.

40 Letter from John Forbes Nash, Jr., to Virginia and John Nash,

Sr., 4.54. 41. Rota, interview.

42. Stolzenberg, interview, 4.2.96.

43. Ibid.

44. Schwartz, interview.

45. Moser, interview.

46. Ibid.

47. Ibid.

48. Rota, interview, 10.94.

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49. George Whitehead, professor of mathematics, MIT, interview,

12.12.95. 50. Flatto, interview.

51. Lawrence Wallen, interview, 6.4.97. Part T%vo: SEPARATE  
LWES

21: Singularity

1. Postcard from John Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 1968. B stood  
for

Jacob Bricker, T for Ervin D. Thorson, F for Herbert Amasa  
Forrester, and R for Donald V. Reynolds.

22: A Special Friendship

I . Letter from John Forbes Nash, Jr., to Martha Nash Legg,  
11.4.65.

2. Ibid.

3. Herta Newman, interview, 3.2.96.

4. D. Newman, interview.

5. Joseph Kohn, interview, 2.15.96. 6. H. Newman, interview.

7. D. Newman, interview.

8. In his 11.4.65 letter, Nash describes Thorson as one of t  
hree

"special friendships" Thorson was working in Santa  
Al034

Monica, California, at Douglas Aircraft.

9. The references to Tin Nash's letters continued

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until at least 1968, usually in conjunction with references  
to B

(for Bricker) and F 10. M. Legg, interview, 3.30.96.

11. Douglas Aircraft could supply no biographical or profess  
ional

information on Thorson (Donald Hanson, personal communicatio  
n,

6.17.97). Nash did not recall Thorson when asked about him b  
y

Harold Kuhn (6.97). What details are known of Thorson are ba  
sed

solely on an obituary in the

Hernet News

and a brief conversation with his surviving sister, Nelda  
Troutman, 5.28.97.

12. Hanson, interview.

13. Ibid.

14. Troutman, interview, 5.28.97.

15. Ibid,

16. Ibid.

17. Under the Eisenhower guidelines, homosexuals were not  
permitted to have security clearances.

23ccEleanor

1. The description of Nash's stay at Mrs. Grant's house is b  
ased

on interviews with Lindsay Russell,  
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1. 14.96, 4.23.96, and 7.97.

2. Postcard from John Nash, Jr., to Virginia and John Nash,  
Sr.,

9.52.

3. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 9.3.95. 4. Eleanor Stier,  
interview, 2.14.96.

5. Ibid., 3.15.96.

6. Ibid., 2.14.96 and 3.18.96.

7. Arthur Mattock, interview, 11.7.95. 8. Eleanor's history  
was

taken from interviews with her, 3.15.95, and John David Stie  
r,

9.20.97.

9. E. Stier, interview, 2.14.96.

10. ibid., 3.15.96.

11. That Nash was interested in, and experimented with, vari  
ous

drugs was recalled by Donald Newman, interview, 3.2.96. Eleanor  
nor  
Stier confirmed this, interview, 3.18.96, although neither  
witnessed Nash's experiments, if indeed they ever took place

.  
Their possible significance is twofold. First, it suggests Nash's  
concern with enhancing his mental powers but also his concerns  
about his own "manliness,"

12. E. Stier, interview, 3.13.96.

13. Ibid.

14. M. Legg, interview.

15. E. Stier, interview, 3.15.96,

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Confirmed by Jacob Bricker, interview, 5.22.97, and Arthur  
Mattuck, interview.

16. Bricker, interview.

17. E. Stier, interview, 7.95.

18. Ibid.

19. Bricker, interview.  
A1037
20. E. Stier, interview, 3.15.96.
21. John David Stier, interview, 6.29.96.
22. E Stier, interview, 3.15.96.
23. J. D. Stier, interview, 9.20.97. 24. E. Stier, interview  
,  
3.15.96.
25. Ibid.
26. Ibid, 3.18.96.
27. Ibid., 3.18.96, and J. D. Stier, interview, 9.20.97.
28. I. D. Stier, interview, 9.20.97. 29. A. Mattuck, interview.  
ew.
30. E. Stier, interview, 3.18.96.
31. Bricker, interview; Mattuck, interview.
32. E. Stier, interview, 3.18.96.
33. Mattuck, interview.
34. E. Stier, interview, 3.18.96.

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35. Ibid., 3.15.96.
36. Mattuck, interview,  
3T Best, interview, 5.22.96.
- 38, Mattuck, interview, 5.21.97.
39. Bricker, interview.
40. E. Stier, interview.
41. Ibid., 3.18.96.
42. Ibid.
43. I. D. Stier, interview, 9.20.97. 44. Ibid.
- 24: Jack  
1. Donald J. Newman, interview, 3.12.96.  
2. Arthur Mattuck, interview, 5.21.97. 3 The portrait of Bri  
cker  
is based on interviews with Mattuck; Newman; Herb Kamowitz;  
Jerome Neuwirth, 5 .23,97 and 6.5.97; Leopold Flatto, 4.25.9  
6;  
Lawrence Wallen, 5.20.97.
4. Jacob Bricker, interview, 5.22.97. 5. Jack Kotick, interv  
iew,  
1.21.98. 6. D. Newman, interview, 3.12.96.
7. Ibid., 1.25.98.
8. Eleanor Stier, interview.
9. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg,

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- 11.4.65.
10. Herta Newman, interview, 3.2.96. 11. Sheldon M. Novick,  
Henryjames: The Young Master  
(New York: Random House, 1996).
12. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg.
13. Alfred C. Kinsey et at.,

Sexual Behavior of the Human Male (Philadelphia: Saunders, 1948).

14. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg.

15. Bricker, interview, 5.22.97.

16. Neuwirth, interviews.

17. Mattuck, interviews, 5.20,97 and 5.28.97.

18. Bricker, interview, 5.22.97.

19. Postcard from John Nash to Jacob Bricker, 8.3.67.

20. Letter from John Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 7.10.68,  
"Mattuckine" seems to be a reference to the Mattachine Society,  
Y,

the first American advocacy group for homosexuals, founded in

1951 (source: Neil Miller, Out

of the Past: Gay and Lesbian History from 1869 to the  
A1039  
Present

[New York: Vintage Books, 1995],

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pp. 334-38).

21. Bricker, interview.

22. Bricker, interview, 1.26.98.

25: The Arrest

IininNash mostly pursued his growing interest in computers a  
nd

wrote a paper in which he proposed the idea of parallel cont  
rol.

"Higher Dimensional Core Arrays for Machine Memoriesea"RAND  
Memorandum, D-2495, 7.22.54; "Parallel Control," RAND Memora  
ndum,

RM-1 361, 827.54. He wrote two other papers as well, includi  
ng

"Continuous Iteration Method for Solution of Differential  
Gamesea"RAND Memorandum, RM-1326, 8.18.54.

2.

The Evening Outlook

(Santa Monica, California), summer 1954, various dates.

3. Ibid.

4. Melvin P. Peisakoff, interview, 6.3.97.

5. Richard Best, interview, 5.22.96. All direct quotations  
attributed to Best throughout chapter 25 come from the 5.22.

96

interview.

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6. Letter from John Nash toArthur Mattuck, 1.15.73. In a  
reference to his 1954 arrest, Nash named the arresting offic  
er.

7. Best, interview.

8. Ibid.

9. DOD Directive 52206, 1953; Executive Order 10450, 1953;

Greene very. McElroy,

360 US 474, 1959.

10. Best, interview.

11. "The C Law: An Empirical Study of Enforcement and  
Administration in Los I vol. 13 (1966), pp. 643, 691.

"Solicitation"and "police deco S"- Thomas E. Lodge, "there M  
ay Be

Harm in Asking: Homosexual Solicitations and the Fighting Wo  
'l

"Doctrineeaa"in

Homosexuality, Crimmoloby and the Law,

edited by Wayne R. Dynes and Steven Donaldson (New York: Gar  
land

Publishing, 1992), pp. 461-93. "In 1961 every state in the United States had sodomy laws" f Lesbians, Gay Men and the Law, edited by William B. Rubenstein (New York: The New Press, 1993), people. xvi.

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12. See, for example, Jerel McCrary and Lewis Gutierrez, "The

Homosexual Person in the Military and in National Security Employment,"

Journal of Homosexuality,

vol. 5, nos. 1 and 2 (Fall 1979-Winter 1980); Ellen Schrecker,

The Age of McCarthyism: A Brief History with Documents

(New York: St. Martin's Press,

1994).

13. McCrary and Gutierrez, op. cit.

14. Nancy Nimitz, retired economist, RAND Corporation, interview,

5.21.96.

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15. Best, interview.

16. Ibid.

17. Ibid.

18. McCrary and Gutierrez, op. cit.

19. Best, interview.

20. Ibid.; "The Consenting Adult Homosexual and the Law" op  
cit.

21. Best, interview.

22. Ibid.

23. Ibid.

24. Ibid.

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25. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia and John Nash, Sr.,  
9.54.

26. Alexander M. Mood, interview, 5.22.96.

27. RAND mathematics department roster, 1954, RAND Archives.

28. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 1. 15.73.

29. John W. Milnor, interview, 1.27.98.

30. Lloyd Shapley retold the story of Nash's arrest at a  
Thanksgiving dinner in 1994. Norman Shapiro, former RAND  
employee, interview, 2.29.96.

31. Felix Browder, interview, 9.6.97. Browder's recollection  
was

that "Norman Levinson had to take care of it" and that Levi  
nson

later regarded the affair as a sign of "approaching  
schizophrenia."

32. As quoted by N. Shapiro, interview. "Lloyd Shapley said it was  
John."

33. Irving I. Gottesman, professor of psychology, University of

Virginia, interview, 1. 16.98.

34. Nikki Erlenmeyer-Kimling, professor of

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genetics and development, Columbia University, interview,  
1.17.98.

35. "J. C. C. McKinsey (obituary), Proceedings and Addresses  
of  
the American Philosophical Association,  
vol. 27 (1954).

36. Andrew

Hodges (see AJ-AN Turing. The Enigma,  
op. cit.

26: Alicia

1. Alicia Nash, interviews, 10.94 and 4.18.97.
2. Peter Munstead, chief librarian, music library, MIT, interview, 9.19.97; also Lawrence Wallen, interview, 6.4.97.
3. The portrait of Alicia at age twenty-one is based largely on interviews with two women who knew her as an undergraduate at MIT: Joyce Davis, 5.17.97 and 6.30.97, and e-mails, various dates; and Emma Duchane, 4.30.96 and 6.26.97. It also draws on interviews with Wallen, 6.5.97; Arthur Mattuck, 11.7.97; Hertha Newman, 3.2.96; Jacob Bricker, 5.22.97.

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5. Ibid.
6. J. Davis, interview.
7. Ibid.
8. The Larde family history is based on interviews with Alicia

Nash, Odette Larde, Enrique L. Larde, and the senior  
A1045  
Enrique Larde's self-published history,  
The Crown Prince Rudolf- His Mysterious Life After Mayerling

(Pittsburgh: Dorrance Publishing, 1994). 9. E. Larde,  
The Crown Prince Rudolf  
op. cit.

10. A. Nash, interview, 5.14.97.

11. O. Larde, interview, 1.7.97.

12. See, for example, Patricia Parkman, Nonviolent Insurrection  
in El Salvador (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1988).

13. O. Larde, interview.

14. Tinker Cassell, Veterans Administration, Biloxi, Mississippi,  
interview, 8.97.

15. The sketch of Marymount is based on interviews with A. Nash,  
4,18.97; Elizabeth

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Keegen,  
4.18.97; Sister Kathleen Fagan, Marymount High School, 5.22.  
97;

Sister Raymond, Marymount High School,  
5.22.97.

16. Sister Raymond, interview.

17. Fagan, interview.

18. A. Nash, interview.

19. Duchane, interview.

20. A. Nash, interview.

21. O. Larde, interview.

22. J. Davis, interview.

23. Sister Raymond, interview.

24. A. Nash, interview.

25. Sister Raymond, interview.

26.

The Tech,

9.5 1.

27. A. Nash, interview, 8.22.95.

28. J. Davis, interview.

29. Ibid.

30. Duchane, interview.

31. J. Davis, interview.

32. Letters from Joyce Davis to her parents, 1951-53.

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33. J. Davis, interview.

34. Letter from Alicia Nash to Joyce Davis, June or July 1952.

35. J. Davis, interview.
  36. Ibid.
  37. H. Newman, interview, 3.2.96.
  38. Duchane, interview.
  39. A. Nash, interview, 11.94.
  40. J. Davis, interview.
  41. Letter from J. Davis to her parents, 4.24.54.
  42. Letter from A. Nash to J. Davis, June or July 1954.
  43. A. Nash, interview, 7.18.96.
  44. John Moore, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,  
interview, 10.6.95.
- 27: The Courtship

1. Arthur Mattuck, interview, 11.7.95.
2. Letter from A1047 Alicia Nash to Joyce Davis, 7.55.
3. Ibid.
4. Emma Duchane, interview, 4.30.96.
5. Jacob Bricker, interview, 5.22.97.
6. Duchane, interview, 6.26.97.

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7. Ibid.
8. Ibid., 4.30.96.
9. Ibid., 6.26.97.
10. Mattuck, interview.
11. Eleanor Stier, interview, 2.14.96.
12. Duchane, interview, 4.30.96.
13. "Grant in Aid, Support for Dr. John F. Nash, Jr., as Alfred F. Sloan Research Fellow in Mathematics," 5.15.56; also, Report for 1955-56, Alfred F. Sloan Foundation, New York, New York.
14. "The application is quasi-tentative ... the draft blem a

complicationd"Letter from John Nash to Albert W. Tucker, undated (probably written in early faW01955).

15. Letter from John Nash to Hassler Whitney, 10.55; John Forbes Nash, Jr., membership application, Institute for Advanced Study, 5.23.55. Nash's application was formally approved in January (source: letter from Robert Oppenheimer to John Nash, 1.17.56).

16. Letter from A. Nash to J. Davis, 2.56.
17. Nesmith Ankeny, who joined the MIT faculty in the fall of 1955, witnessed the

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incident and related the anecdote to Harold and Estelle Kuhn not long after it occurred (source: Harold Kuhn, e-mail, 5.21.97, and interview, 5.22.97).

18. J. Davis, interview, 5.19.97.

28: Seattle  
1. The Institute on Differential Geometry took place from mid-June to the end of July 1956 at the University of Washington in Seattle. Dates and participants given in a memorandum from

m

Carl B, Allendoerfer, chairman, department of mathematics, University of Washington, Seattle, 5.23.56.

2. John Milner, e-mail, 8.97,

3. Eugenio Calabi, interview, 3.2.96; John Isbell, professor of

mathematics, State University of New York at Buffalo, interview,

6.14.97; Raoul Bott, professor of mathematics, Harvard University, interview, 11.5.95.

4. E-mail from John Nash to Harold Kuhn, 4.16.96.

5. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg, 11.4.65.

6. The description of Forrester is based on:

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-1050

Arthur Mattuck, interview, 5.21.97, e-mail, 6.13.97; Isbell,

interview, 6.14.97; Calabi, interview, 3.2.96; Albert Nijenhuis,

interview, 6.17.97, e-mails, 6.13.97; Victor Klee, e-mails, 6.13.97, 6.14.97, 6.16.97; Kuhn, e-mails, 4.16.96, 4.17.96,

4.18.96; Joseph Kohn, interview, 4.17.96; John Walter, interview,

6.13.97; Robert L. Vaught, interview, 6.13.97; Ramesh Gangolli,

interview, 6.16.97. Mary Sheetz provided the dates of Forrester's

employment at the University of Washington, e-mail, 6.16.97.

7. Nijenhuis, interview.

8. Mattuck, interview.

9. Isbell, interview.  
A1050  
10. Vaught, interview.  
11. Nijenhuis, interview.  
12. Vaught, interview.  
13. Ibid.  
14. Walter, interview.  
15. Nash was in Seattle in February of 1967, apparently for a  
month. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 2.67.

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-1051

16. Klee, interview.  
17. This scene is reconstructed on the basis of recollection  
s  
from Martha Nash Legg, interview, 9.2.95.  
18. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia and John Nash, Sr.,  
7.12.56.  
19, Jerome Neuwirth, interview, 5.21.97. 20. Jacob Bricker,  
interview, 5.22.97. 29: Death and Marriage  
1. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia and John Nash, Sr., 8  
.1  
1.56  
2. Ibid., 9.18.56.  
3. Elizabeth Hardwick, "Boston: A Lost Ideal,"  
Harper's,  
December 1959, quoted in Paul Mariani, *Lost Puritan; A Life  
of Robert Lowell* (New York: Norton, 1994), people. 27 1. 4.  
Postcards from John Nash to Virginia and John Nash, Sr., 8.5  
3,  
9.5 3, 12.2.5 3, 1.2.5 5.  
5. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96. 6. Harold Kuhn,  
interview, 8.97.  
7. M. Legg, interview.  
8. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg,

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-1052

from Paris, 9.28.59.  
9. M. Legg, interview.  
10. Letter from J. Nash to H. Kuhn, 8.97. 11. Death certific  
ate  
of John Nash, Sr., 9.12.56.  
12. M. Legg, interview.  
13. Eleanor Stier, interview, 3.15.96. 14. Natasha Brunswick  
,  
interview, 9.25.95.  
15. Leo Goodman, as told to Harold Kuhn, 1.95.  
16. Alicia Nash, interview, 5.14.97. 17. Letter from Alicia  
Nash  
to Joyce Davis, 10.26.56.  
18. Ibid.

19. Sylvia Plath,  
The Belljar  
(New York: Harper and Row, 197 1).
20. M. Legg, interview.
21. John Nash, dinner party at Gaby and Armand Borel's, 3.22  
.96,
22. M. Legg, interview.
23. A. Nash, interview, 10. 11.97; also M. Legg, interview.
24. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash,

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-1053

2.57.

25. Enrique Larde, interview, 12.21.95. Part Three: A SLOW F  
IRE

BURNING

30: Olden Lane and Washington Square

1. Institute for Advanced Study, Directory, 1956-57,  
A1053  
Institute for Advanced Study Archive, Princeton, New Jersey.  
2.

Regis,  
Who Got Einstein Office?,  
op. cit., people. S.

3. John Danskin, interview, 10.19.95. 4. Paul S. Cohen, professor  
of mathematics, Stanford University, interview, 1.6.96.

5. Peter Lax, professor of mathematics, Courant Institute,  
interview, 2.29.96.

6. Cathleen Morawetz, professor of mathematics, Courant  
Institute, interview, 2.29.96.

7. George Boehn, "The New Uses of the Abstract,"  
Fortune,  
July 1958.

8. Constance Reid,  
Courant in Gottingen and New York: The Story

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-1054

of an Improbable Mathematician (New York: Springer Verlag, 1  
976).

9. Ibid.

10. Ibid.

11. Lax, interview.

12. Boehm, "The New Uses of the Abstractea"op. cit.

13. Nash told Harold Kuhn that he kept a car in New York Cit  
y  
that year and that parking it caused him innumerable headach  
es,

personal communication, 7.97.

14. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia and John Nash, Sr.,  
8.11.56.

15. Natasha Brunswick, interview, 9.25.95.

16. Tilla Weinstein, professor of mathematics, Rutgers  
University, interview, 8.25.97.

17. Morawetz, interview.

18. Lars Hbrmander, professor of mathematics, University of  
Lund,  
interview, 2.13.97.

19. Lax, interview.

20. Hbrmander, interview.

21. John Isbell, e-mail, 3.28.95.

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-1055

22. Boehm, "The New Uses of the Abstractea"op. cit.

the American Mathematical Societ

23. Stanislaw Ulam, "John von Neumann, 1903-57,"

Bulletin of

vol. 64, no. 3, part ii (May 1958). 24. John Nash, "Continui

ty of

Solutions of Parabolic and Elliptic Equations,"  
American Journal of Mathematics,  
vol. 80 (1958), pp. 931-54.

25. See Chapters 2 and 16.

26. John Nash, "Continuity of Solutions of Parabolic and Elliptic

Equations," op. cit. 27. Louis Nirenberg, professor of  
mathematics, Courant Institute, interview, 10.94. See also Lax,

interview.

28. Ibid.

29 Ibid.

30. Lax, interview.

31. Ibid.

32. Nirenberg, interview.

A1055

33. Hörmander, interview.

34. Ibid.

35. Lax, interview.

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-1056

36. Nirenberg, interview.

37. Armand Borel, professor of mathematics, Institute for Advanced Study, interview, 3.1.96.

38. Lax, interview.

39. Morawetz, interview; Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 10.94.

40. Paul R. Garabedian, professor of mathematics, Courant Institute, interview, 2.20.96.

41. "Ennio De Giorgi, 1928-1996" and "Interview with Ennio De

Giorgi,"

Notices of the American Mathematical Society, 10.97.

42. John Nash, Jr.,  
Les Prix Nobel 1994,  
op. cit.

43. Rota, interview.

44. Lax, interview.

45. Letter from John Nash to Robert Oppenheimer, 7.10.57.

46. Ibid.

47. John Nash, plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry  
,  
Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

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-1057

48. Institute for Advanced Study, directories, various years

49. Letter from J. Nash to R. Oppenheimer. 50. John Nash, plenary  
lecture, op. cit, 31: The Bomb Factory

1. Richard Emery, attorney, interview, 4.4.96.

2. Ibid.

3. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 9.57.

4. Emma Duchane, interview, 6,26.96. 5. Alicia Nash, interview,  
7.1.97.

6, Duchane, interview.

7. Hartley Rogers, interview, 2.16.96. 8. Zipporah Levinson,  
interview, 9.11.95.

9. A. Nash, interview, 10.94.

10. Nash's chief result was initially published in a note  
submitted by Marston Morse of the Institute for Advanced  
Studies on 6.10.57 in the  
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, no. 43 (19  
57),

pp. 754-58. The full paper was submitted to the  
American Journal of Mathematics

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-1058

nearly a year later, on

5.26.58, and published in vol. 80 (1958), pp. 931-58.

11. Elias Stein, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,

interview, 12.2.95. 12. Lennart Carleson, professor of  
mathematics, University of Stockholm, interview, 10.3.95.

13. Ibid.

14. Stein, interview.

15. Ibid.

16. Ibid.

17. Paul R. Garabedian, interview, 2.20.96.

18. George Boehm, "The New Mathematics," two-part series, A1058

Fortune

(June and July 1958).

19. Martha recalled Nash's telling her that he was considering

accepting a post at Caltech in order to raise the likelihood of

an offer from Harvard, possibly because Harvard and MIT had an

informal nonraiding policy. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.30.96.

20. Letter from John Nash to Albert W.

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-1059

Tucker, 10.58.

21. At that time, tenure was normally not awarded until the candidate's seventh year. At MIT, unlike some other institutions,

tenure was paired with promotion to full, not associate,

professor. 22. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 10.94. 23. John Forbes

Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

24.

Awards, Honors and Prizes,

8th edition, vol. 11 (Detroit: Gale Research, 1989), people. 129.

25. Lars H6rmander, interview, 2.13.97. 26. Confidential source.

27.

Proceedings, International Congress of Mathematicians, 1958 (Providence, R.I.: American Mathematical Society, 1960).

28. Jtirgen Moser, interview, 3.71.96. 29.

Proceedings, International Congress of Mathematicians, op. Cit.

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-1060

30. Confidential source.

31. Confidential source.

32. Moser, e-mail, 12.24.97.

33. Peter Lax, interview, 2.6.96.

34. Moser, interview, 3.21.96.

35. Ibid.

36. For the history of the B6cher Prize, see the Web site for the

American Mathematical Society.

37. Letter from Lars H6tionnander to author, 1.3.96; H6rmander,

interview, 2.13.97. 38. H6rmander, e-mail, 12.16.97.

39. Ibid.

32: Secrets

1. John Forbes Nash, Jr., plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry, Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

2. G. H. Hardy,

The Mathematician Apolo (Cambridge, UK.: Cambridge University

Press, 1967), with a foreword by C. P. Snow. 3, Paul S. Cohen,

interview, 1.5.96. 4. Stanislaw Ulam, "John von Neumann, 1903-1957" op. cit., people. 5. 5. Hardy, op. cit.

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-1061

6. Felix Browder, interview, 11. 10.95.

7. Harold Kuhn, interview, 7.95.

8. Ibid.

9. John Nash, plenary lecture, op. cit. 10. Elias Stein, interview, 12.28.95. 11. Cohen, interview.

12. E. T. Bell,

Men of Mathematics,  
A1061

op. cit.

13. Enrico Bombieri, interview, 12.6.95. 14. Bell, op. cit.

15. Andrew Wiles, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,

personal communication, 6.97.

16. Lars H6rmander, interview, 2.13.97. 17. F. Browder, interview.

18. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

19. Bell, op. cit.

20. Ibid.

21. Ibid.

22. Jacob Schwartz, professor of computer science, Courant Institute, interview,

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-1062

1.29.96.

23. Jerome Neuwirth, interview, 5.27.97. 24. Stein, interview.

25. Ibid.

26. Richard Palais, professor of mathematics, Brandeis University, interview, 11.6.95.

27. Bell, op. cit.

28. Atle Selberg, interview.

29. Eugenio Calabi, interview, 3.2.96. 30. Letter from John Nash

to Martha Nash Legg, 11.4.65.

31. Stein, interview.

32. H6rmander, interview.

33. Harold Kuhn, e-mail, 7.97.

34. Paul A. Samuelson, interview.

35. William Ted Martin, interview, 9.7.95.

36. Robert Solow, professor of economics, MIT, interview, 1.95.

37. Martin, interview.

38. Cathleen Morawetz, interview, 2.29.96.

39. Alicia Nash, interview, 1.3.97. 40. Ibid.

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-1063

41. John Nash, personal communication, 3.22.96.

42. Eva Browder, interview, 9.6.97.

43. Ibid.

44. A. Nash, interview

45. F. Browder, interview.

46. John Moore, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,

interview, 10.5.95.

33: Schemes

1. Alicia Nash, interview, 7.1.97.
2. Ibid.
3. Letter from John Nash to Albert W. Tucker, early October 1958.
4. George Mackey, interview, 1.21.96. 5. Letter from C. Ralph Buncher, professor of biostatistics and epidemiology, University of Cincinnati Medical Center, to author, 5.20.96.
6. A. Nash, interview.
7. John Nash, letter to A. Tucker, 10. 5 8.
8. Ibid.
9. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96. 10. Paul A. Samuelson, interview,

3.13.96.

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11. Saunders McLane, former chairman, department of mathematics,

University of Chicago, interview,

3.4.96.

12. Shlomo Sternberg, interview, 3.5.96. 13. Ibid. Also membership application, Institute for Advanced Studies, fall

1958. 14. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to John Nash, 10.8.58

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15. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to Sloan Foundation, 10.8.58.

16. Letter from Albert W. Tucker to Guggenheim Foundation, 11.26.58.

17. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 11.14.95.

18. Robert Solow, emeritus professor of economics, MIT, interview, 1.95.

19. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 10. 15.5 8.

20.

New York Times, 11.

14.6 3.

21. Paul S. Cohen won the Fields in 1966 and the 136cher in 1964.

The sketch of

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-1065

Paul Cohen is based on interviews with Raoul Bott, 11.95 and

11.5.96; Lennart Carleson, 10.18.95; Elias Stein, 12.28.95;

Felix

Browder, 11.2.95; Adriano Garsia, professor of mathematics, University of California at San Diego, 12.31.95; Lars H6rman

der,

2.13.97; Jargen Moser, 3.21.96; Jerome Neuwirth, 5.27.97.

22. Cohen, interview, 1.5.96.

23. Stein, interview, 12.28.95.

24. Ibid.

25. Garsia, interview, 12.31.95.

26. Cohen, interview.

27. Garsia, interview; Neuwirth, interview, 5.27.97.

28. F. Browder, interview, 11.10.95. 29. Ibid., 11.2.95.

34: The Emperor of Antarctica

1. Richard Emery, interview, 4.4.96. The party scene described by

Emery is also based on the recollections of Jurgen and Gertrude

Moser, John and Karen Tate, Adriano Garsia, Gian-Carlo Rota, and

Alicia Nash.

2. Alicia Nash, interview, 2.7.96.

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3. Paul S. Cohen, interview, 1.5.96.

4. Al Vasquez, professor of mathematics, City University of New

York, interview, 6.17.97.

5. Raoul Bott, interview, 11.5.95.

6. Emma Duchane, interview, 6.26.97. 7. Letter from C. Ralph

Buncher to author, 5.20.96; also letter from Henry Y. Wan, professor of economics, Cornell University, to author, 6.5.96.

Tony Phillips, professor of mathematics, State University of New

York at Stony Brook, interview, 8.26.97, recalled Nash's question

to the class.

8. Ramesh Gangolli, professor of mathematics, University of Washington, interview, 6.12.95. Also, Alberto R. Galmarino, professor of mathematics, Northeastern University, interview

6.95. 9. Atle Selberg, interviews, 8.16.95 and 1.23.96.

10. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 10.29.94; Gangolli, interview;

Galmarino, interview. Martha Nash Le put this episode  
A1066

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-1067

later, but Gangolli and Galmarino recall that Nash didn't meet  
his classes for the last couple of weeks of the term which ended

1.21.59 and Rota recalled that Nash stopped by his apartment  
before "driving south."

II. Jerome Neuwirth, interview, 6.4.97; also Carsia, interview,  
12.31.95.

12. Hartley Rogers, interview, 2.16.96. 13. Ducharie, interview,  
4.30.96.

14. Confidential source.

15. Vasquez, interview.

16. Kate Tate, interview, 8.11.97. 17. John Nash, plenary  
lecture, op. cit. 18. A. Nash, interview.

19. Cohen, interview.

20. Vasquez, interview.

21. Harold Kuhn, interview, 8.94.

22. Cohen, interview.

23. Neuwirth, interview.

24. Moser, interview, 3.23.96.

25. William Ted Martin, interview, 9.7.95.

26. Felix Browder, interview, 11.2.95; Paul A. Samuelson,  
interview, 10.94. 27. John Danskin, interview, 10.19.96.

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28. The account of this incident is based on interviews with  
the

following sources: Sigurdur Helgason,  
2.13.96; F. Browder; Samuelson, 10.94 and 3.15.96; Harold Kuhn,  
interview, 1.95. Browder, who later became chairman of the

Chicago department, recalled seeing the letter in the files.

Efforts by the current chairman to locate it proved fruitless.

29. Vasquez, interview.

30. E nio Calabi, interview, 3.2.96. Iu

31. l . y

32. Selberg, interview.

33. Program, 5 54th Meeting, Columbia University, New York,  
February 28, 1959,

Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society,  
vol. 65 (1959), people. 149.

34. Harold N. Shapiro, interview, 2.29.96.

35. Peter Lax, interview, 2.6.96. 36. Donald J. Newman,  
interview, 3.2.96.

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-1069

37. Cathleen Morawetz, interview, 2.29.96.

38. F. Browder, interview.

35: In the Eye of the Storm

I . Alicia Nash, interview, 7.1.97.

2. Emma Duchane, interview, 6.26.97. 3. A. Nash, interview.

4. Donald V. Reynolds, interview, 6.29.97.

5. A. Nash, interview.

6. Duchane, interview.

7. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96. 8. Duchane, interview.

9. A. Nash, interview.

10. Duchane, interview.

11. A. Nash, interview.

12. Duchane, interview.

A1069

13. Ibid.

14. William Ted Martin, interview, 9.7.95.

15. Cian-CaTlo Rota, interview, 10.29.94.

16. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 3.12.59.

17. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg,

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3.12.59.

18. A. Nash, interview, 7.1.97.

19. Al Vasquez, interview, 6.17.97. 20. Duchane, interview,

21. Ibiand

22. Paul S. Cohen, interview, 1.5.96, 23. Gertrude Moser,  
interview, 8.25.95. 24. Kay Whitehead, professor of mathemat  
ics,

Tufts University interview, 12.12.95.

36: Day Breaks in Bowditch Hall

1. Paul S. Cohen, interview, 1.5.96. 2. Adriano Garsia,  
interview, 12.31.95, 3. Cohen, interview.

4. My description of how MIT's psychiatric service likely ha  
ndled

Nash's commitment is based on interviews with Benson Rowell  
Snyder, who was hired by P

7.24.97; Wade Rockwood, interview, 7.26.97; Mert)

Burstein, former FBI agent who was brought in by Stratton to

expand MIT's campus olice, interview, 7.3.97.

5. The description of how Nash was taken to McLean against h  
is

will is baselon a  
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contemporaneous account by a former dean of Tufts Medical Sc  
hool,

A. Warren Stearns, who in rvievved Nash s ortly after his te  
shc

commitment (letter fron Stearns to Bernard Bradley, 4.14.59)  
, and

a further elaboration by Nash (E-mail,  
5.15.98).

6. Snyder, interview.

7. For a portrait of McLean as it was in the 1950's, I relie  
d on

an official history by S. B. Sutton, A  
History ofMcLean Hospital

(Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Press, 1986); annual

reports; firsthand accounts by Sylvia Plath, Robert Lowell,  
and

Ray Charles, as well as Suzanna Kayseri's more r nt reationt

'Girl  
'ecec`

Interrupted-

and interviews with individuals associated with McLean in th  
at

era, including Pau Howard, former associate psychiatrist in  
chief

and director of the clinical service, 2.15.95; Kahne; Joseph

Brenner,

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-1072

7.23.97; Arthur Cain, psychiatrist, 8.20.97; Alfred Pope, se  
nior

neuropathologist, McLean Hospital, and professor of  
neuropathology, Harvard Medical School, 12.13.95 and 2,16.96

. 8.

Robert Garber, former president, American Psychiatric  
Association, interview, 5.6.96. 9. Sylvia Plath,

The Belljar,

op. cit.; Ray Charles,

Brother Ray

(New York: Da Capo, 1978, 1992). 10. Letter from A. W. A1072

Steams to B. Bradley, 5.1 plus 5 3.

11. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 9.11.95.

12. Emma Duchane, interview, 6.26.97. 13. Robert Lowell was hospitalized at McLean at the end of April 1959. Lowell was confined to Bowditch, as he had been two years earlier when he

wrote "Day Breaks at Bowditch Hallea"one of the poems in To the Union Dead

Several of Nash's visitors, including Gian-Carlo Rota, Isadore Singer, and

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-1073

Arthur Mattuck, recall encounters with Lowell, and therefore it

seems that Nash, too, was confined to Bowditch. Since we have no

firsthand reports from Nash, I have made use of Lowell's irripresiss"ns from 1957 and 1959, augmented by the impressions of

some of Lowell's visitors, including his wife, writer Elizabeth

Hardwick, letter, 8.8.97; poet Stanley Kunitz, interview, 8.2.97;

and Lowell's executor, Frank Bidart, interview, 7.27.97. See also

Ian

Hamilton,

Robert Lowell: A Biography

(New York: Random House, 1982); Paul Mariani,

The Lost

Puritan,

op. cit., and interview, 7.28.97; Peter Davison,

The Fading Smile: Poets in Boston, 1955-1960, from Robert Frost

to Robert Lowell to Sylvia Plath

(New York: Knopf, 1994), and interview, 8.11.97.

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14. "I've been conditioning here for about a month"letter from

Robert Lowell to Edmund Wilson,

5.19.59, from Bowditch House; "in the hospital I spent a mad

month or more rewriting everything in my three books"letter

from Robert Lowell to Elizabeth Bishop, 7.24.59.

15. Elizabeth Hardwick, personal communication, 9.8.97.

16. Arthur Mattuck, e-mail, 8,8.97. 17. "The house I was in

was  
divided between ex-paranoid boys and senile old menea"letter  
from  
Robert Lowell to Peter Taylor, 3.15.58, 18. Letter from R. L  
owell

to E. Bishop, 3.15.58.

19. Ibid.; also "Waking in the Blue"Robert Lowell,  
Life Studies and For the Union Dead  
(New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1992). Quotes in this  
and  
the following paragraphs are taken from "Waking"unless other  
wise  
noted.

20. From "Waking in the Blue"; also Duchane, interview.

21. Letter from R. Lowell to E. Bishop; also "Waking in the  
Blue."

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-1075

22. Seymour Krim, "The Insanity Bitea" in  
View of a Nearsighted Cannoneer  
(New York: E. P. Dutton,  
1968).

23. Al Vasquez, interview, 6,17.97. 24. Z. Levinson, intervi  
ew,

25. Vasquez, interview.

26. Carsia, interview.

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27. Jiirgen Moser, interview, 3.23.96. 28. Duchane, interview w.

29. George Mackey, interview, 12.14.95.

30. Herta Newman, interview, 3.2,96. 31. Felix Browder, interview, 1.2.95. 32. Gian-Carlo Rota, interview, 10.29.94.

34. This is Jerome Lettvin's term, Jerome Lettvin, professor of electrical engineering, MIT, interview, 7.25.97.

35, John McCarthy, interview, 2.4.96. 36. Arthur Mattuck, interview, 11.7.95. 37. I am assuming that Nash's treatment was similar to that of other patients and have based my account

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-1076

on the recollections of Paul Howard, clinical director of McLean at the time, as well as other McLean staffers, including Joseph

Brenner, psychiatrist, interview, 7.25.97; Cain, interview; Kahne, interview.

38. Letter from A. W. Stearns to B. Bradley, 5.20.59.

39. Kahne, interview.

40. Brenner, interview, 7.23.97.

41. Z. Levinson, interview.

42. Cohen, interview; F. Browder, interview.

43. Francine M. Benes, psychiatrist, McLean Hospital, interview, 2.13.96. 44. See, for example, MaTiani, op. cit., and Hamilton,

op. cit.

45. Kahne, interview; also Howard, interview. 46. Kahne, interview.

47. Howard, interview.

48. Brenner, interview.

49. Z. Levinson, interview.

50. Isadore Singer, interview, 12.13.95. 51. Letter from A. W.

Stearns to B. Bradley, 5.20.59.

52. Duchane, interview.

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53. Letter from A. W. Stearns to B. Bradley, 5.20.59.

54. Taffy Griffiths, physician, Princeton, 5.20.59, and interview, 7.95. 55, Notes of a telephone conversation between A.

Warren Stearns and Bernard E. Bradley, attorney,

5.13.59. In an interview (8.19.97), Bradley said that he han

dled

many similar cases, but did not recall Nash.

56. The sketch of A. Warren Stearns is based on a biographic  
al

essay provided by the Tufts University

archives; an interview with his son Charles Stearns, 3.14.96

; and

an interview with Paul Samuelson, who knew Stearns, 3.15.96.

57.

A. W. Stearns and B. Bradley phone conversation, 5.14.59.

58. Letter from A. W. Stearns to B. Bradley, 5.20.59.

59. Ibid.

60. Letter from Robert A. Crimes, attorney, Hardy, Hall and  
Grimes, to A. Warren Stearns, 6.18.59.

61. Letter from A. W. Stearns to B. Bradley,

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5.20.59.

62. Ibid.

37: Mad Hatter's Tea

1. Emma Duchane, interview, 6.26.97. The sketch of Alicia Na  
sh

and the final months of her pregnancy are based on this.

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2. Confidential source.
3. Confidential source.
4. Michael Artin, interview, 12.12.95.
5. Confidential source.
6. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 9.11.95.
7. Al V s uez, interview, 6.17.97. a 7r,
8. Letter orn John Nash to Lars 1-16rmander, undated (arrive d around 6.1.59).
9. Gab Borel, interview, 9.94.
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0. n Nash, flenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry, Ma drid, 8.26.96, op. cit. Il. Paul Samueson, interview, 3.16,97.
12. Z. Levinson, interview.
13. William Ted Martin, interview, 9.7.95.

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14. A. Warren Stearns, note for file, 6.15.59.
  15. Samuelson, interview.
  16. Letter from Henry Y. Wan, Jr., to author, 6.5.96.
  17. Enrique Larde, interview, 12.21.95.
  18. John Danskin, interview, 10.19.95.
  19. Alicia Nash, interview, 7.1.97.
- Part Four: THE LOST YEARS
- 38: Citoyen du Monde
1. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 7.18.59.
  2. Ibid., 7.20.59.
  3. Janet Flanner, Paris Journal 1944-1965 (New York: Atheneum, 1965).
  4. John Moore, interview, 10.6.97.
  5. Alicia Nash, interview, 8.15.97.
  6. Odette Larde, interview, 12.8.95.
  7. International Herald Tribune, 7.10.59, 7.11.59, 7.12.59, 8.7.59.
  8. Interviews with Joseph Baratta, historian, 8.12.97; Francis Bourne, 8.12.97; David Gallup, attorney, 8.12.97.

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9. New York Times, 5.27.48; Garry Davis, World Citizen Foundation, interview, 8.13.97. See also Art Buchwald, I'll Always Have Paris (New York: C. P. Putnam and Sons, 1996), and Garry Davis, My County Is the World: The Adventures of a World Citizen (New York: C. P. Putnam and Sons, 1961).
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New York Times,  
9.18.48.

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International Herald Tribune,  
6.16.49.

12. Buchwald, op. cit.

13.

International Herald Tribune, 6.16.49. 14. Louis Sass,  
Madness and Modernism,  
op. cit., pp. 324-25.

15. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 7.29.59.

16. Section 1481 of the 1941 Immigration and  
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Naturalization Act.

17. Edward A. Betancourt, Overseas Citizens Services, Immigr  
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and Naturalization Service, interview, 8.26.97. 18. 1941  
Immigration and Naturalization Act.

19. John Nash, plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry  
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Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

20. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96.

21. Armand Borel, interview, 3.1.96.

22. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 7.31.59.

23. Ibid.

24. Denis Brian,  
Einstein: A Life,  
op. cit.

25.

International Herald Tribune,  
various issues, August 1959.

26. John Nash, plenary lecture, op. cit. 27. See, for exampl  
e,  
Paul Hofmann, Switzerland

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(New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1994).

28. Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, *Frankenstein or the Modern  
Prometheus*

(New York: Penguin,  
1985).

29. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 8.12.59.

30. As quoted by Sass, op. cit.

31. Letter from John Nash to Lars Hbrmander, 2.10.60.

32. Zurbuchen, *Le Directeur, Contrble de I'HABITANT*, Geneva,  
9.29.59, provided by Schweizerisches Bundesarchiv.

33. Franz Kafka,  
The Castle

(New York: Scholastic Books, 1992), with an introduction by  
Irving Howe.

34. Ibid.

35. Ibid.

36. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 9.28.59.

37. Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees of July 28  
, 195  
1, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Geneva.

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38. Zurbuchen, op. cit.

39. Ibid.

40. Direktion der Eidg. Militarverwaltung, Berne to Contr6fu

le de

I'HABITANT, Geneva, 11.21.59.

41. John Nash, plenary lecture, op. cit. 42. Ibid.

43. Harold Kuhn, interview, 1.95.

44. John Haslam, as quoted by Sass, op. cit.

45. Sass, op. cit.

46. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 9.28.59.

47. Letter from M. Legg to John Nash, 9.59. 48. A. Nash,  
interview.

49. Telegram from Amory Houghton, U.S. ambassador to France,  
to

Secretary of State Christian A. Herter, 12.15.59.

50. Letter from J. Nash to L. H6rmander, from Paris, 1. 18.6  
0.

5 1. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 10. 11. 59.

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52. After returning to the U.S., Nash claimed to be a resident of

Liechtenstein, which levied no income tax, and refused to sign

U.S. tax forms

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(source: H. Kuhn, interview, 8.92).

53. O. Larde, interview, 12.8.96.

54. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 11. 10. 59.

55. The anecdote concerns Paul Erdos and was told by Donald Spencer, interview, 11.28.95.

56. O. Larde, interview, 12.8.95.

57. M. Legg, interview, 3.29.96.

58. Sass, op. cit.

59. Letter from John Nash to Norbert Wiener, 12.9.95.

60. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 12.13.59.

61. Franz Kafka,

The Metamorphosis

(New York: Schocken Books, 1995). 62. Irving Howe introduction,

Kafka,

The Castle, op.

Cit.

63. James M. Glass,

Delusion

(Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1985).

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64. Telegram from A. Houghton to C. A. Herter.

65. Telegram from Henry S. Villard, U.S. consul to Switzerland,

to Secretary of State Christian A. Herter, 12.16.59. 66. Ibi and

67. Theodore Friend, obituary of Edward Hill Cox, 8.4.75, Swarthmore College Archive.

68. A. Nash, interview.

69. Telegram from A. Houghton to C. A. Herter.

70. Telegram from H. S. Villard to C. A. Herter.

71. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 12.26.59; O. Larde, interview, 12.8.95. 72. O. Larde, interview, 12.8.95,

73. Shiing-shen Chern, professor of mathematics, University of

California at Berkeley, interview, 6.17.97.

74. A. Nash, interview.

75. "Alexandre Grothendieckea"History of Mathematics Archive

,  
School of Mathematical and Computational Sciences, University of

St. Andrews, Scotland; see also interviews with Nick

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Katz, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, 8.26.97;

Arthur Mattock, 9.19.97; Paulo Ribenboim, professor of mathematics, Queens University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada, 9.28.97; Tony Phillips, 8.26.97.

76. O. Larde, interview, 12.8.85.

77. A. Nash, interview.

78. Felix Browder, interview, 9.6.97. See also Larkin Farinholt's

obituary,

New York Times,

7.17.90, for details of his career.

79. Letter from J. Nash to L. Hrbmander, 2.10.60.

80. John Nash, plenary lecture, op. cit. 81. Letter from Lar  
s

H6rmander to John Nash, 2.12.60,  
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82. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 3.2.60.

83. John Nash, conversation with author, 6.25.95.

84. F. Browder, interview.

85. Ibid.

86. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 3.60. 87. Michael Artin,  
interview, 12.12.95.

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88. Al Vasquez, interview, 6.17,97.

89. Cathleen Morawetz, interview, 2.29.96.

90. John Danskin, interview, 10,19.95. 91. M. Legg, interview  
w.

92. Eleanor Stier, interview, 3.18.96. 93. Letter from J. Na  
sh to

V. Nash, 4.9.60. 94. Ibid.

95. Telegram from AJ-LYN C. Donaldson, Department of State,  
to

Virginia Nash, 4.21.60.

96. Emma Duchane, interview, 4.30.95. 97. Vasquez, interview

98. A. Nash, interview.

99. G. Davis, interview.

39: Absolute Zero

1. Alicia Nash, interview, 8.15.97.

2. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 8.1.95. 3. Interviews with J  
ohn

Danskin, 10.19.95, and Joyce Davis, 5.30.97. 4. Handwritten  
note

from Alicia Nash to Joyce Davis, summer 1960.

5. Odette Larde, interview, 12.7.95. 6. A. Nash, interview.

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7. Jean-Pierre Cauvin, professor of French, University of Te  
xas

at Austin, interview, 8.25.97; also Agnes Sherman, interview

8,26.96.

8. O. Larde, interview.

9. Cauvin, interview.

10. Danskin, interview.

11. Ibid.

12. Elvira Leader, interview, 6.9.95. 13. Solomon Leader,  
interview, 6.9.95. 14. Danskin, interview.

15. Samuel C. Howell, memorandum to file, 11.10.60.

16. Notes of conversations between Oskar Morgenstern and Dou  
glas

Brown, Princeton University Archives, 11.2.50.

17. Letter from Raymond J. Woodrow to John F. Nash, Jr.,

- 10.21.60.
18. Letter from Donald Spencer to Jean Leray, 10.31,60.
19. Ibid.
20. Burton Randol, professor of mathematics, City University of New York, interview, 8.26.97.
21. Ibid.

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23. Ibid.
24. Confidential source.
25. Confidential source.
26. Randol, interview.
27. Danskin, interview.
28. Martin Shubik, interview, 10.94.
29. Paul Zweifel, interview, 9.6.95. 30. Edmond Nelson, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, interview, 8.17.95.
31. Armand Borel, interview, 3.1.96.

32. Danskin, interview. Robert Coheen, president of  
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Princeton University, was unable to confirm these events, wh  
ich  
would have been handled by someone on the campus security de  
tail  
in any case, interview, 9.10.97.  
33. A. Nash, interview.  
34. O. Larde, interview.  
35. Confidential source.  
40: Tower of Silence  
1. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 8.2.95. 2. Ibid.  
I University Press, 1994), and "Abuse in  
AmerIntemationaljournaloofIawandPsychistry,  
vol. 3 (1980), pp. 295-3 10. Also

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interview with Grob, professor of history, Rutgers Universit  
y,  
8.4.97.

4. See biographies of Dorothea Dix, including Rachel Basker,

Angel of Mercy.- The Story of Dorothea Dix (New York: Messne  
r,  
195 5); also Penny Colman,  
Breaking the Chains: The Crusade of Dorothea Lynde  
Dix (White Hall, Va.: Shoetree Press, 1992).

5. Descriptions of Trenton State are based on interviews wit  
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psychiatrists who were affiliated with the hospital, includi  
ng

Robert Garber, former president, American Psychiatric  
Association, 5.6.96; Peter Baurnecker, 5.1.96, 5.2.96, 5.9.9  
6;

Arthur A. Sugarman, 8.2 5.97.

6. Baurnecker, interview.

7. Ibid.

8. Ariel Rubinstein, e-mail, 2.3.97. 9. Baurnecker, intervie  
w.

Bprobably refers to Jacob Bricker (see Chapter 44). 10. John

Danskin, interview, 10. 19.96. For an account of the hijacki  
ng,

see

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Time

magazine, 2.3.61.

11. M. Legg, interview.

12. Danskin, interview.

13. Robert Winters, interview, 8.9.95. 14. Letter from Rober

t

Winters to Joseph Tobin, 2.2.61.

15. Letter from Robert Winters to Harold Magee, 2.2.59. Also

interview with Tobin, 6.10.97. 16. Seymour Krim, "The Insani  
ty

Bitea"op. cit.

17. Baurnecker, interview.

18. Phillip Ehrlich, psychiatrist, Princeton Hospital, inter  
view,

8.24.97. 19. Baumecker, interview.

20. M. Legg, interview.

21. Interviews with Garber and Baumecker.

22. Baumecker, interview.

23. Danskin, interview.

24. Garber, interview.

25. Baumecker, interview.

26. Ibid.

27. Burton Randol, interview, 8.25.97. 28. Lenore McCall,  
Between Us and the Dark

(Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1947).

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29. Baumecker, interview.

30. Garber, interview.

31. Jerome Lettvin, interview, 7.25.97. 32. Grob,

The Mad Among Us,

op. cit., people. 18 5.

33. Garber, interview.

34. Letter from John Nash to Alexander Mood, 12.17.94, one o  
f

many references Nash has made to his insulin treatments and  
memory loss.

35. Richard Nash, interview, 1.6.96.

36. Interviews with Grob and Lettvin.

37. Baumecker, interview.

38. Ibid.

39. Ibid.

40. Postcard from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 7.14.61. Nash  
says

he's due to be released the following day.

41. Baurnecker, interview.

42. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 7.14.61.

41: An Interlude of Enforced Rationality

1. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

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Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

2. Louis Sass,

Madness and Modernism,

op. cit.

3. A decline in measured intelligence within a short time of  
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onset of schizophrenia has been documented in a series of  
studies. Jed Wyatt, personal communication, 6.97.

4. Letter from John Nash to Donald Spencer, undated, spring  
1961.

5. Interviews with Armand Borel, 3.1.96, and Atle Selberg,  
1.23.96.

6. Letter from Atle Selberg to John Nash, 9.25.61; letter fr  
om

Robert Oppenheimer to John Nash,

10.3.61.

7. John Nash, membership application, 7.17.61, Institute for  
Advanced Study Archive.

8. Letter from J. Nash to D. Spencer.

9. Shlomo Sternberg, interview, 3.5.96. Also postcards from  
John

Nash to Virginia Nash, 8.1.61 and

8.3.61.

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10. Alicia Nash, interview, 8.15.96.

11. Interviews with John Danskin, 10.19.95, and Odette Larde

12.7.95. 12. 0. Larde, interview.

13. "Recent Advances in Game Theory" Princeton, October 4-6  
, 196

14. Reinhard Selten, professor of economics, University of

Bonn, interview, 6.27.95.

15. John Harsanyi, interview, 6.27.95. 16. Harold Kuhn, personal

communication, 8.97.

17. John Nash, "Le Problème de Cauchy Pour Les Equations  
Differentielles; d'une Fluide GÉNÉRALE,"

Bulletin de la Société Mathématique de France,

vol. 90 (1962), pp. 487-97. Submitted 1.19.62.

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18. John Nash,  
Les Prix Nobel 1994,  
disment

19. According to the  
Encyclopedia oAL-THEMATICS,

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"Mathematical study of [the Cauchy problem for the general  
Navier-Stokes equation) has become active since J. Nash and  
N.

Itaya proved the existence of unique regular solutions local  
in  
time."

20. Selberg, interview.

21. Gillian Richardson, interview, 12.14.97.

22. Karl Uitti, professor of French, Princeton University,  
interview, 8.22.97, 23. Confidential source.

24. Uitti, interview.

25. Jean-Pierre Cauvin, interview, 8,25.97.

26. Hubert Goldschmidt, Columbia University, interview, 3.20  
.97.

27. Letter from Robert Oppenheimer to Leon Motchane, Institu  
t des  
Hautes etudes, 4.26.62.

28. Memorandum from Robert Oppenheimer to Atle Selberg, 4.26  
.62.

29. Stefan A. Burr, professor of computer science, City Coll  
ege  
of New York, interview, 5.95.

30. A. Borel, interview.

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31. Ibid.

32. Gaby Borel, interview, 10.94.

33. Al Vasquez, interview, 6.17.97. 34. Lloyd S. Shapley,  
interview, 10.94.

35. Ibid.

36. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 7.62.

37. Ed Nelson, professor of mathematics, Princeton Universit  
y,

interview, 8.17.95. 38.-Lars Mirmander, interview, 2.13.97.

39.

John Nash, personal communication with Harold Kuhn, 8.97.

40. H6rmander, interview.

41. Ibid.

42. Death certificate of Carlos Larde, State Department of  
Health, New Jersey, 7.2.62.

43. Postcard from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg, 7.24.63.

44. John Danskin, interview, 10.19.95. 45. Confidential sour

ce.

46. Proceedings, International Congress of Mathematicians, Stockholm, 1962.

47. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg,

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9.20.62.

48. Unsigned postcard to mathematics department, Princeton University, 9.1.62.

49. Uitti, interview.

50. Letter from John Nash to M. Legg, 11.19.62.

51. Ibid., 1.26.63.

52. M. Legg, interview, 3.30.96.

53.

Alicia L Nash vs. John Forbes Nash, Complaint, Superior Court of

New Jersey, Mercer County,

12.27.62; Frank L. Scott, attorney, interview, 8.12.97.  
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54. M. Legg, interview, 8.2.95.

55. A.

Nash vs. J. Nash,  
op. cit.

56. judgment Nisi,

Alicia Nash vs. John Forbes Nash, Superior Court of New Jersey,

Mercer County,

5.1.63.

57. Final Judgment (Divorce), Alicia L. Nash and John Forbes  
Nash, 8.2.63.

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58. Robert Winters, interview, 8.9.95.

59. Letter from James G. Miller to Albert E. Meder, Jr.,  
treasurer, American Mathematical Society,  
4.2.63.

60. Harold Kuhn, interview, 8.95.

61. Letter from William Ted Martin to Albert W. Tucker, 4.1.  
63.

62. Ibid.

63. Letter from Albert E. Meder to William Ted Martin, 3.28.  
63.

64. Confidential source.

65. Donald Spencer, interview, 11.28.95. 66. Winters, interview.

67. Letter from Martha Nash Legg to Donald Spencer, 4.24.63.

42: The "Blowing Up" Problem

1. Robert Garber, interview, 5.6.96.

2. Ken Kesey,

One Flew Over the Cuckoo Nest

(New York: Viking, 1962); Joanne Greenberg,

I Never Promised You a Rose Garden

(New York: Signet, 1964); Thomas S.

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Szasz,

The Myth of Mental Illness (New  
York: Hoeber-Harper, 1961).

3. William Otis, psychiatrist, interview, 5.3.96.

4. Garber, interview.

5. Alicia Nash, interview, 8.15.97.

6. Otis, interview.

7. A. Nash, interview.

8. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.30.96. 9. Garber, interview.

10. Ibid.

11. Frank L. Scott, interview, 11. 12.97.
12. Garber, interview.
13. Letter from John Nash to Norbert Wiener, 5.1.63.
14. Interviews with A. Nash; Donald Spencer, 11.28.95; Gaby Borel, 3.14.96.
15. Howard Mele declined to be interviewed, 4.9.96.
16. New Jersey Board of Medicine.
17. Interviews with Garber and Otis.
18. Belle Parment, social worker, interview,

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8.24.97.

19. Letter from J. Nash to NddWiener.
20. Garber, interview.

21. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 8.10.63.  
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22. Ibid., 8.22.63.  
23. Ibid., 8.29.63.  
24. Richard S. E. Keefe and Phillip D. Harvey,  
Understanding Schizophrenia  
(New York: Free Press,  
1994), people. 48.  
25. Louisa Cauvin, interview, 8.25.97. 26. Armand Borel,  
interview, 3.1.96.  
27. Ibid.  
28. Memorandum from Robert Oppenheimer to Atle Selberg, 9.30  
.63.  
29. Letter from David Gale to Deane Montgomery, 1.3.64.  
30. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 10.31.63.  
31. Ibid., 3.14.64.  
32. Ibid., 10.31.64 and 12.13.64.  
33 John Nash, plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry,  
Madrid, 8.26.96,  
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op. cit.

34. Heisuke Hironaka, "On Nash Blowing Upea" in  
Arithmetic and Geometry If  
(Boston: Birkhauser,  
1983).

35 William Browder, interview.

36. Memorandum from John Milnor to Dean of Faculty J. Dougl  
s  
Brown, 4.8.64. 37. Ibid.

38. Letter from Howard S. Mele to John Milnor, 3.30.64.

39. Garber, interview.

40. Letter from H. S. Mele to J. Milnor. 41. Memorandum from  
J.

Douglas Brown to Robert F. Goheen, 4.6.64.

42. Letter from Ernest J. Johnson to John Nash, 5,1.64.

43. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 2.18.64. 44. Ibid., 3.14  
.64.

45. Ibid., 3.64.

46. During the spring, Nash wrote to a colleague in Europe s  
aying  
that he hoped to accept a visiting position at the Institut  
des  
Hautes 9mentudes near Paris, arranged by Alexandre  
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Grothendieck.

47. M. Legg, interview, 3.29.96.

48. Ibid.

49. Letter from John Nash to Martha NaEh Legg, 4.64.

50. Karl Uifti, interview, 8.22.97.
51. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 2.18.64.
52. Letter from John Nash to a colleague, 5.64 or 6.64.
53. Letter from John Nash to Robert Oppenheimer, 5.24.64.
54. The 1964 Summer Research Institute on Algebraic Geometry  
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American Mathematical Society, Notices, October 1963; also J  
ohn  
Tate, professor of mathematics, University of Texas, intervi  
ew,  
6,20.97.
55. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 8.31.64. 56. Ibid.
57. John Nash, plenary lecture, op. cit. 58. Ibid.
59. Ibid.
60. Letter from John Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 11.13.71.

61. Harold Kuhn, e-mail, 5.96.

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62. Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 8,31.64. 63. Postcard from

John Nash to Virginia Nash, 9.2.64.

64. Jean Pierre Serre, e-mail, 2.15.96.

65. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 9.7.64.

66. Memorandum from A. W. Tucker to J. D. Brown, 9.18.64.

67. Postcard from J. Nash to V. Nash, 9.64.

68. Atle Selberg, interview, 1.23.96. 69. Letter from John Nash

to John Milnor, 12.27.64.

70. Interviews with John Danskin, 10.9.96; also with William

Lucas, professor of mathematics, Claremont Graduate School, 6.27.95, and Herbert Scarf, professor of mathematics, Yale University,

8.97.

71. Danskin, interview.

72. Kuhn, interview.

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73. Richard C. Palais, professor of mathematics, Brandeis University, interview, 11.6.95.

74. A. Borel, interview.

75 Palais, interview.

76, Letter from J. Nash to V. Nash, 7.29.65. 43: Solitude

1. Letter from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg, 1.16.66.

2. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.29.96. 3. Letter from J. Nash

to M. Legg, 7.27.65. 4. Ibid., 8.2.65.

5. John David Stier, interviews, 6.29.96 and 9.20.97.

6. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 10.31.65.

7. Ibid., 5.1.66.

8. Ibid.

9. J. D. Stier, interviews, 6.29.96 and 9.20.97. Except where

noted, the facts of John David Stier's childhood are drawn from

these interviews.

10. Eleanor Stier, interview, 3.25.96. 11. J. D. Stier,

interview, 9.20.97. 12. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 1.

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16.66.

13. Ibid., 2.22.66.

14. Ibid., 2.27.66.

15. Ibid., 4.24.66.

16. Ibid., 5.8.66.

17. Letter from John Nash to Virginia Nash, 10.31.65.

18. Ibid.

19. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 11.14.65.
20. Letters from J. Nash to V. Nash, 10.31.65 and 1.16.65.
21. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 11.28.65.
22. Ibid.
23. Ibid., 1.9,66.
24. Letters from J. Nash to V. Nash, 1.16.65, and to M. Legg  
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2.22.66; also Joan Berkowitz, interview,  
8.28.97.
25. Palais, interview.
26. Al Vasquez, interview, 6.17,97. 27. "Analyticity of Solutions  
of Implicit Function Problems with Analytic Data," Annals  
of Mathematics,

vol. 84 (1966), pp. 345-55. 28, Harold Kuhn, interview,  
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7.17.97. 29. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 9.19.66.  
30. Egbert Brieskorn, professor of mathematics, University of  
Bonn, interview, 1.27.98.  
31. Letters from J. Nash to M. Legg, 12.5.65 and 5.1.66.  
32. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 2.27.66. 33. Letter from J.  
Nash  
to V. NT, 1.9.66. 34. Kuhn, interview, 5.9.66 and The paper was  
not  
rejected, according to Nash, but the editors asked for revis  
ions  
that he never made.  
35. Mikhail  
GOMOV,  
interview, 12.15.97.  
36. This point was raised by Francine M. Benes, psychiatrist  
,  
McLean Hospital, interview, 2.13.96.  
37. John Nash visited Gian-Carlo Rota in New York City some  
time  
during his first year in Boston, Rota recalled that at lunch  
Nash  
traced patterns on his plate and complained that shock treat  
ments  
had caused him "to forget all my  
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mathematics," interview, 10.29.94. 38. Richard Wyatt, person  
al  
communication, 6.97.  
39. This was Max Shiffman at Stanford University. Donald Spe  
ncer,  
interview, 11.29.95.  
40. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 6.26.96.  
41. Zipporah Levinson, interview, 11.15.96.  
42. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 5.22.66.  
43. Letter from John Nash to Harold Kuhn, 5.17.66.  
44. Palais, interview.  
45. Vasquez, interview.  
46. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 9.1.66. 47. Martha Legg  
quoting her letter of 9.28.66 to Pattison Esmiol.  
48. M. Legg, interview.  
49. Letter from Pattison Esmiol to Martha Nash Legg, 10.7.66  
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50. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 10.8.66.  
51. M. Legg, interview.  
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52. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 11.66.

53. Ibid., 11.28.66.
54. Vasquez, interview.
55. Joseph Kohn, interview, 1.16.96. 56. Z. Levinson, interview,  
11. 15.96. 57. Richard Nash, interview, San Francisco, 1.6.96.
58. Letter from J. Nash to M. Legg, 2.67, saying that he had been  
in Seattle since February,
59. Postcard from John Nash to Martha Nash Legg, 3.11,67, saying  
that he had been in Santa Monica for about ten days and would be  
returning to Roanoke by March 22.
60. Jacob Bricker, interview, 5.22.97. 61. Letter from P. Esmiol  
to M. Legg, 4.19.67.
- 62, Gilbert Strand, professor of mathematics, MIT, e-mail,  
6.5.97.
63. Letter from Armand BOT-EL to Norman Levinson, 5.17.67.
64. Greeting card from John Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 1. 15,73
65. Palais, interview.

66. Letter from John Nash to Itirgen Moser, 5.23.67,  
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67. Z. Levinson, interview, 11. 15.96. 6and Letter from J. N  
ash  
to M. Legg, 6.26.67. 69. Z. Levinson, interview.  
70. Anna Rosa Kohn, interview, 1. 16,96.  
71. Letter from Norman Levinson to Martha Nash Legg, 630.67.

44: A Man All Alone in a Strange World 1. Letter from John N  
ash  
to Arthur Mattuck, 8.5.68.  
2. Ibid.  
3. Letter from John Nash to a colleague, 1967. 4. Martha Nas  
h  
Legg, interview, 3.2.96. 5. James Glass,  
Delusion  
(Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1985).  
6, M. Legg, interview, 10.94.  
7. Ibid., 8.31.95.  
8. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 8.8.67.  
9. See, for example,  
Diagnosticand Statistical Manual ofMental

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(Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Press, 1987). Ming T

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Tsuang, Stephen V. Faraone, and Max Day, "Schizophrenic  
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10. E. Fuller Torrey,  
Surviving Schizophrenia

(New York: Harper and Row, 1988).

11. ` . . . symptoms of clouded consciousness and disorientat  
ion

in schizophrenia are relatively rateea"Richard S. E. Keefe a  
nd

Phillip D. Harvey,  
Undmtanandng Schizophrenia,  
op. cit.

12. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 3.18.68.

13. See, for example, Torrey, op. cit. Also Glass, op, cit.,  
and

James Glass, professor of government and politics, Universit  
y of  
Maryland, research affiliate of the Sheppard and Enoch Pratt

Hospital, interview, 10.94.

14. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 7.24.67.

15. Ibid., 8ddand67.  
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16. Ibid., 9.9.67.
17. Ibid., 10.7.67.
18. Ibid., 9.9.67.
20. References to the story of Jacob and Esau appear in numerous letters and postcards written by Nash between 1967 and 1969, including 8.8.67, 9.25.67, 10.7.67, 11.8.67, 12.24.67, and 6.16.69.
21. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 1.20.68.
22. Ibid., 2.22.68.
23. Ibid., 3.10.68.
24. Ibid., 6.16.69.
25. Letter from John Nash to Eleanor Stier, 8.20.68.
26. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 8.11.67.
27. Ibid., 11.8.67.
28. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 3.18.68.
29. Ibid., 2.27.68.

30. Ibid., 4.24.69.

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31. See, for example, Keefe and Harvey, op. cit., people. 110.

32. Letter from J. Nash to A. Mattuck, 11.

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11.69.

33. See, for example, Keefe and Harvey, op. cit., pp. 6-7.

34. Peter Newman, interview, 12.12.95. 35. Letter from J. Nash to

V. Nash, 8.8.68. 36. The example given combines phrases from two

letters to Arthur Mattuck, 9.9.67 and 3.18.68. Nash ended virtually every letter in this period with a variation on this

paragraph.

37. M, Legg, interview, 3.2.96. The account of the remainder of

Nash's interlude in Roanoke comes from this interview.

45: Phantom of Fine Hall

1. Joseph Kohn, interview, 7.25.95. 2. David Raoul Derbes, University of Chicago, e-mail, 3.27.95; Daniel Rohrlich, University of Tel Aviv, e-mail, 9.3.97.

3. Derbes, e-mail.

4. Sylvain Cappell, professor of mathematics, Courant Institute,

2.29.96. 5. Lee Mosher, professor of mathematics, Rutgers University at Newark, interview, 9.20.97.

6. Derbes, e-mail.

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7. Mark Reboul, interview, 8.30.97.

8. Steven Epstein, e-mail, 3.28.95.

9. Sara Beek, University of Tel Aviv, e-mail, 5.31.95.

10. Ibid.

11. Ibid,

12. Ibiand

13, Frank Wilczek, zrofessor of physics, Institute for Advanced

Study, interview, 9.11.97.

14. Letter from May B. Schneider, professor of physics, Grinnell

College, to author, 9.20.95.

15. Letter from David A. Cox, professor of mathematics, Amherst

College, to author, 3.27.95.

16. Letter from M. Schneider to author, 9.28.95.

17. Marc D. Rayman, chief mission engineer, New Millennium Program, NASA, e-mail, 11.24.95.

18. Letter from M. Schneider to author.

19. Wilezek, interview.  
20. Ibid.

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21. Harold Kuhn, interview, 8.30.97.

22. Margaret Wertheim, "When I Plus I Makes Neither 2 Nor I  
Iea"New York Times,  
1997.

23. Hale Trotter, fessor of mathematics, Princeton Universit  
y,  
interview, 11.29.95. 0`

24. Peter CziffTa, Yirbrarian, Fine Hall, interview, 8.26.97

25. William Browder, interview, 12.6.95. 26. James Class,  
interview, 10.94. 27. Ibid.

28. Roger Lewin, professor of psychiatry, University of Mary  
land,  
interview, 10.94. 29. Steven Bottone, e-mail, 9.2.97. 30. Da  
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Feenberg, research associate, National Bureau of Economic

Research, interview, 10.94.

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31. Trotter, interview, 9.11.97.

32. Reboul, interview.

33. Feenberg, interview.

34. Trotter, interview, 9.30.96,

35. Marc Fisher, reporter,

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Washington Post,

e-mail, 3.29.95.

36. Charles Gillespie, professor of history, Princeton University, interview, 7.26.95.

37. Amir H. Assadi, professor of mathematics, University of Wisconsin, interview, 12.13.95.

38. Kohn, interview.

39. Claudia Goldin, professor of economics, Harvard University, interview, 8.30.95.

40. Feenberg, interview.

41. Alicia Nash, interview, 12.6.97. 42. Interviews with Alan

Hoffman, 10.94; Lloyd Shapley, 10.94; George Nernhauser, 8.29.97; Albert W Tucker, 10.94.

43. Shapley, interview.

44. [bid,

45. Nernhauser, interview.

46. Hoffman, interview.

47. [bid.

46: A Quiet Life

1. Letter from Alicia Nash to Martha Nash Legg

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and Virginia Nash, 11.8.68.

2. [bid.

3. Gillian Richardson, interview, 12.14.95.

4. John Coleman Moore, professor of mathematics, Princeton University, interview, 10.6.95.

5. George Whitehead, interview, 12.12.95,

6. Interviews with Moore, also with Gaby Borel, 10.94 and 3.14,96.

7. Herb Cork, RCA, interview, 4.23.96.

8. Alicia Nash, private communication, 12.6.97.

9. Martha Nash Legg, interview, 3.30.96; confirmed by Alicia Nash

in private communication. 10. Interview with Moore, and with G.

Borel, 10.6.95.

11. A. Nash, private communication, and interview, 12.28.95,

12. A. Nash, interview, 12.28.95.

13. Ibid., 1.10.95.

14. Ibid.

15. Odette Larde, interview, 12.8.95.

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16. Moore, interview, 10.94. 17. Richard Keefe, interview, 5 .95.

18. Richard S. E. Keefe and Phillip D. Harvey,  
Understanding Schizophrenia,  
op. cit., people. 9.

19. A. Nash, interview, 1.10.95.

20. A. Nash, private communication, 12.6.97.

21. Joyce Davis, interview, 5.30.96. 22. Anna Bailey, interv  
iew,

5.29.97. 23. A. Nash, interview, 1.10.95. In addition,  
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24. David Salowitz, "It's Not a Matter of Degrees: John Nash  
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High School or College Degree, Seeks Ph.D.,"  
The Princeton Packet, 7.1.81.

25. A. Nash, interview, 1.10.95.

26. Amir Assadi, interview, 2.4.96. 27. Solomon Leader,  
interview.

28. A. Nash, interview, 5.16.95.

29. Salowitz, op. cit.

30. Ibid.

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31. A. Nash, interview, 5.16.95. Also letter from John Nash  
to

Richard Keefe, 1.14.95.

32. Salowitz, op. cit.

33. Bailey, interview.

34. A. Nash, interview, 5.16.95.

35. Armand Borel, interview, 3.1.96.

36. Moore, interview, 10.5.94.

37. G. Borel, interview, 10.94.

38. John David Stier, interview, 9.20.97.

39. Letter from Alicia Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 1117.71.

40. 1, D. Stier, interview,

41. Norton Starr, professor of mathematics, Amherst College,

interviews, 7.95 and 1.20.98.

42. Eleanor Stier, interview, 3.18.96. 43. John Stier, inter  
view,

1.21.98.

44. Letter from John Nash to Arthur Mattuck, 1. 15.73.

45. E. Stier, interview, 3.18.96.

46. Irving I. Gottesman, professor of psychology, University  
of

Virginia, interview, 1.16.98.

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47. Kenneth L. Fields, professor of mathematics, Rider Unive  
rsity

(formerly Rider College), interview, 1,30.98.

48. Melvyn B. Nathanson, professor of mathematics, Graduate  
Center of the City University of New York, interview, 1.31.9  
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49. John C. M. Nash (with Melvyn B. Nathanson), "Cofinite Su  
bsets

of Asymptotic Bases for the Positive Integers,"  
journal of Number Theory,

vol. 20, no. 3 (1985), pp. 363-72; John C. M. Nash, "Results  
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Bases in Additive Number Theory"Ph.D. thesis, Rutgers  
University, 1985.

50. John C. M. Nash, "Some Applications of a Theorem of M.  
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44, no. 1 (1993), pp. 1-8.

51. John C. M. Nash, "On

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Sequences,"

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52. Alicia Nash, interview, 9.97.

Part Five: THE MOST WORTHY

47: Remission

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disPeter Sarnak, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,

interview, 8.25.95. 2. E-mail from John Nash to Harold Kuhn,

6.20.96.

3. Hale Trotter, interviews, 11.29.95 and 9.10.97.

4. Mark Ducey, professor of economics, Rice University, interviews, 10.94 and 6.24.95.

5. Daniel Feenberg, interview, 10.94. 6. Letter from Edward G.

Nilges to author, 8.19.95.

7. Lloyd S. Shapley, interview, 10.94. 8. George Winokur and Ming

T. Tsuang, *The Natural History of Manic, Depression and Schizophrenia*

(Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Press, 1996), people . 28.

9. Letter from John Nash to Richard Keefe,

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1.14.95. Nash gives Johnny's diagnosis as "paranoid schizophrenia" and "schizo-affective disorder."

10. See, for example, Irving I. Gottesman, *Schizophrenia Genesis,*

op. cit., people. 18; Michael R. Trimble, *Biographical Psychiatry*

(New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1996), pp. 184-8 5.

11. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

12. John Nash, plenary lecture, World Congress of Psychiatry

, Madrid, 8.26.96, op. cit.

13. Harold Kuhn, interview, 9.95.

14. Letter from John Nash to Richard Keefe, 1.14.95. Nash has

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15. Winokur and Tsuang, op. cit., people. 30; also Manfred Bleuler,

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(New Haven: Yale University Press,

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16. Gerd Huber, Gisela Gross, Reinhold Scbuttler, and Maria Linz,

"Longitudinal Studies of Schizophrenic Patients,"

Schizophrenia Bulletin,  
vol. 6, no. 4 (1980)

17. C. M. Harding, G. W. Brooks, T. Ashikaga, J. S. Strauss,  
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A. Brier, "The Vermont Longitudinal Study of Persons with Se  
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Mental Illness, I and II," American journal of Psychiatry,  
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the study had no significant symptoms and were functioning  
satisfactorily; 50 percent were still psychotic; and the  
remainder were somewhere in between. Only two subjects, both  
of

whom had been hospitalized only once, were considered truly  
well.

18. Richard Wyatt, head of neuropsychiatry,

National Institute of Mental Health, personal  
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communication, 12.97. See also Winokur and Tsuang, op. cit.  
pp.  
199-217.

19. Winokur and Tsuang, op. cit., pp. 267-6.

20. Huber et al., op. cit.

21. Richard Wyatt, interview, 5.5.96. 22. E. Fuller Torrey,  
Surviving Schizophrenia,  
op. cit.

23. E-mail from J. Nash to H. Kuhn, 6.1.95.

24. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

25. Letter from J. Nash to R. Keefe.

26. John Forbes Nash, Jr.,

Les Prix Nobel 1994,

op. cit.

27. Social Science Citation Index, various dates.

28. John Conway, professor of mathematics, Princeton University,

interview, 10.94. 29. Nash's work on Riemannian embeddings and

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partial differential equations would likely have made him a  
strong candidate for a Fields in the 1960's and his contribu  
tions

to game theory might easily have been honored with a Nobel a  
s

early as 1983, when Gerard Debreu won for his work on genera  
l

'Tininbrium theory. He would certainly have garnered lesser  
honors such as membership in the National equals y of Scienc  
es

and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

30. Amartya Sen, professor of economics, Harvard University,

interview, 12.92.

31. Fellows of the Econometric Society as of January 1988,  
Econometrica,

vol. 56, not. 3 (May 1988).

32. Ariel Rubinstein, professor of economics, University of  
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Aviv and Princeton University, interviews,  
1.96 and 2.96.

33. Mervyn King, professor of economics, London School of  
Economics, and vice-chairman, Bank of England, interview,  
2.28.96.

34. Letter from Julie Gordon, executive director, The Econom  
etric

Society,

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to author, 2.2.96.

35. King, interview.

36. Interviews with Gary Chamberlain, professor of economics

Harvard University, 2.28.96; Beth E. Allen, professor of economics, University of Minnesota, 2.26.96.

37. Letter from Truman Bewley, professor of economics, Yale University, to Ariel Rubinstein, undated (spring 1989).

38. Ibid., 6.4.89.

39. Truman Bewley, interview, 2.20.96. 40. John Dawson, Logical Dilemmas.- The Life and Work of Kurt Gddel, op. cit.

41. Ibid.

42. Ken Binmore, Roger Myerson, Ariel Rubinstein, "Norninati on of

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43. Letter from J. Gordon to author, 1.31.96. 48: The Prize  
1. 16rgen W. Weibull, Stockholm School of Economics and memb  
er  
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2. Ibid.

3. Carl-Olof Jacobson, secretary-general of the Royal Swedis  
h  
Academy of Sciences, interview, 2.12.97.

4. Kenneth Bimur, game theorist at the London School of  
Economics, for example, recently wrote to Harold Kuhn (e-mai  
l,  
1.7.98) that he had nominated Nash for the Nobel once in the

1980's. "I didn't persist in nominating him because nobody s  
eemed  
to take the idea seriously."

5. Statutes of the Nobel Foundation, 4.27.95 -

6. Michael Sohlman, executive director, Nobel Foundation,  
interview, 2.11 97.

7. Ibid.

8. Karl-Gbran Wer, executive director, Beijer Institute of t  
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Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, interview, 2.12.97. 9. As  
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Lindbeck, "The Prize in Economic Science in Memory of Alfred

Nobel,"

journal ofEconomic Literature,  
vol. 23 (March 1985), pp. 37-56.

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10. Harriet Zuckerman, Scienti5c Elite: Nobel Laureates in t  
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(London: Free Press,  
1977).

11. Lindbeck, op. cit.

12. See, for example, John E. Morrill, "A Nobel Prize in  
Mathematics,"

The American Mathematical Monthly,

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Hdrmander, "Why Is There No Nobel Prize in Mathematics?" The

Mathematical Inteffigencer

(July 1985), pp. 73-74.

14. Jacobson, interview.

15. The sketch of Lindbeck is based on the author's interview with him in Stockholm on 2.12.97, two autobiographical essays, and the impressions of members of the prize committee and the Academy of Sciences, including Carl-Olof Jacobson, 2,12.97,- Karl-Gustaf Wgren, professor of economics, University of Umea, 2.12.97; Karl-G6ran Mler, 2.12.97; J6rgen Weibull and Torsten

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Persson, visiting professor, Harvard University, 10.4.94 and

3.7.97. 16. Persson, interview, 3.7.97.

17. Ldf ren, interview.

18. M5 er, interview.

19. Lindbeck, "The Prize in Economic Science" op. cit.

20. Lo-fgren, interview.

21. Kerstin Fredga, as told to Harold Kuhn at the 12.94 Nobel ceremony in Stockholm, 1.95.

22. By the late 1980's, Harold Kuhn and other game theorists were nominating Nash. Others, however, saw no point in doing so. "I did

not nominate him" Shubik later recalled. "He was better  
A1128

than several of the other people I nominated. It seemed that they'd throw him out because he's nuts. The other reason was that I thought the bargaining work was better than the stuff on noncooperative equilibrium" interview, 12.13.96.

23. Lindbeck, interview, 2.12.97.

24. Ariel Rubinstein, interview, 6.26.95. 25. Ariel Rubinstein,

"Perfect Equilibrium in a Bargaining Model,"

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Econometrica,  
no. 50 (1982), pp. 97-109.

26. Rubinstein, interview, 6.95.

27. Weibull, interview, 1.14.96.

28. Ibid.

M Ibid.

30. E-mail from Eric Fisher, assistant professor of economics,  
Ohio State University, to author, 7.25.95.

31. Weibull, interview, 11.6.96.

32. Gene Grossman, professor of economics, Princeton University,  
interview, 9.93. Grossman was the first to point out to the  
author, a reporter at

The New York Times,

that Nash might share a Nobel.

33. Nobel Symposium on Game Theory: Rationality and Equilibrium  
in Strategic Interaction, Bjorkbom, Sweden, June 18-20, 1993

34. Confidential source who attended the conference, 35. Person,  
interview.

36. Confidential source who attended the conference. 37. Fax  
from

16wen Weibull to Harold Kuhn, 7.14.93.  
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38. Letter from Robert J. Leonard to Harold Kuhn, 7.27.93.

39. Jacobson, interview.

40. Lindbeck, interview.

41. Ibid.

42. Confidential source.

43. Jacobson, interview.

44. Wgren, interview.

45. Lindbeck, interview.

46. Ibid.

47. Ibid.

48, Shapley's most important work is in cooperative game theory

while Schelling's work is in applications of game theory.

49. Lindbeck, interview.

50. Ibid.

51. The sketch of Stahl is based on interviews with his brother

Ingolf Stahl, 2.12.97; Wer; Lindbeck; Wgren; Weibull; David

Warsh, columnist,

Boston Globe,

2.5.97; and others.

52. Ingemar Stahl, professor of law, Lund University, interview,

2.4.97.

53. Letter from Lars Hbrmander to Ingemar Stahl,

9.10.93, with Nash bibliography. 54. Ibid.  
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55. Ingemar Stahl, interview.  
5and Ibid.

57. Ibid.

58. Confidential source present at the discussion.

59. Ibid.

60. Ingemar Stahl, interview.

61. Confidential source.

62. Ibid.

63. Interviews with Lindbeck and Jacobson. 64. Weibull,  
interview.

65. Confidential source.

66. David Warsh, "Game Theory Plays Strategic Role in Econom  
ics'

Most Interesting Problemsea"Chicago

Tribune,

7,24,94.

67. Christer Kiselman, professor of mathematics, University  
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Uppsala, interview, 3.5.97.

68. Ibid.

69. Confidential source.

70. Weibull, interview, 11.6.96.

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71. Lindbeck, interview.

72. Ibid.

73. Ibid.

74. Jacobson, interview.

75. Confidential source.

76. Lindbeck, interview.

77. Ibid.; also confidential source.

78. As quoted by Harold Kuhn, interview, 1.95.

79. E-mail from Harold Kuhn to Harold Shapiro, president,  
Princeton University, 9.1.94.

80. Confidential source.

81. Erik Dahmen, professor of economics, Stockholm Institute  
of

Economics, and member, Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences,  
interview, 2.12.97.

82. Confidential source.

83. Anders Karlquist, interview, 3.17.97. 84. Lars CA-RDING,

professor of mathematics, Lund University, personal  
communication, 2.10.97.

85. Bengt Nagel, personal communication, 2.10.97.

86. Confidential source.

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87. Kiell Olof Feldt, 1 Nationalekonomns Atervandsgrand,"

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(March 1994).

88. Karlquist, interview.

89. Confidential source.

90. Lindbeck, interview.

91. Confidential source.

92. Ibid.

93. Statutes of the Nobel Foundation.

94. Confidential source.

95. Ibid.

96. Jacobson, interview.  
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97. Confidential source.  
98. Jacobson, interview.  
99. Ingemar Stahl, interview.  
100. SohIman, interview.  
101. Johann Schuck, reporter, article in Dagens Nyheter,  
12.10.94. Schuck broke the story of the behind-the-scenes fight  
between Stahl and Lindbeek that delayed the announcement of  
the  
prize. A translation was provided by Hans Carlsson, professor  
of  
economics, Lund University, 12.4.95. 102. Confidential source.  
e.

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103. Ibid.  
104. Harold Kuhn informed Alicia Nash on Friday, October 7,  
and  
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announcement.  
105. Kiselman, interview.  
106. Confidential source with access to the report.  
107. Confidential source.  
108. Ibid.  
109. Confidential source with access to the report.  
110. Confidential source.  
112. Miler, interview.  
113. Jacobson, interview.  
114, [bid.  
49: The Greatest Auction Ever  
1. Harold Kuhn, interview, 1.95.  
2. William Safire, "The Greatest Auction Ever,"  
New York Times, 3.16.95,  
as quoted by Paul Milgrom,  
Auction Theory for Privatization  
(New York: Cambridge University Press, forthcoming).

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3. Edmund Andrews, "Wireless Bidders Jostle for Positionea"N  
ew  
York Times,  
12.5.94.  
4. Milgrom,  
Auction Theory for Privatiation,  
op. cit.  
5. Michael Rothschild, dean of the Woodrow Wilson School, re  
marks  
at conference, "Market Design: Spectrum Auctions and Beyond:  
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