English for Professional Communication

Texts to Improve Summarizing

Учебное пособие «Text to Improve Summarizing: развитие навыков аннотирования профессионально-ориентированных текстов у студентов-магистрантов» входит в серию «English for Professional Communication». формирование и развитие навыков работы с профессионально-ориентированными текстами на английском языке у магистрантов 2 курса юридического факультета направлений подготовки 40.04.01 «Юриспруденция» и 41.04.04 «Политология» и магистрантов 1 и 2 курсов Института истории и международных отношений направления подготовки 46.04.01 «История».

Содержание

Введение

Настоящее учебное пособие входит в серию «English for Professional Communication», назначение которой – обучение различным аспектам общения на английском языке в сфере профессиональной коммуникации.

Цель пособия «Text to Improve Summarizing: развитие навыков аннотирования профессионально-ориентированных текстов у студентов-магистрантов» – формирование и развитие навыков работы с профессионально-ориентированными текстами на английском языке у магистрантов 2 курса юридического факультета направлений подготовки 40.04.01 «Юриспруденция» и 41.04.04 «Политология» и магистрантов 1 и 2 курсов Института истории и международных отношений направления подготовки 46.04.01 «История».

Пособие способствует выработке у студентов навыков литературной письменной речи; умения создавать и редактировать тексты профессионального назначения, анализировать логику рассуждений и высказываний.

«Text to Improve Summarizing: развитие навыков аннотирования профессионально-ориентированных текстов у студентов-магистрантов» состоит из трех глав, в которых приводятся рекомендации по аннотированию, примеры аннотаций, написанных студентами в рамках одного из проектов, реализованных авторами, а также тексты профессиональной направленности из энциклопедий *Encyclopædia Britannica*" и " *The Oxford Companion to British History*".

Приведенные в настоящем пособии материалы могут быть использованы студентами других направлений подготовки, в том случае, если рабочие программы дисциплины «Иностранный язык (английский язык)» в рамках этих направлений предполагают освоение общественно-политической тематики.

Часть 1. Рекомендации по аннотированию

Аннотирование заключается в максимальном сокращении объема источника информации при существенном сохранении его основного содержания. Аннотация как результат аннотирования, соответственно, представляет собой предельно сжатую характеристику первоисточника, имеющую чисто информационное значение; аннотация не может заменить самого материала и дает общее представление об основном содержании книги, статьи.

Составляют аннотации разнообразных типов текстов: статьей (публицистических, научных, научно-популярных и др.); монографий; диссертационных исследований; художественных произведений; судебных решений; отчетов компаний. В некоторых случаях может быть необходимым написать аннотацию не целого текста, а его отдельной части (главы, части, раздела).

Аннотация как сжатое описание первоисточника необходима для того, чтобы напомнить о содержании прочитанной некоторое время назад книги, статьи и т.д. (например, в процессе работы над определенной проблемой, когда нужно оценить степень ее исследованности; в данном случае анализ оригинального текста и его фиксация своими словами помогает избежать плагиата); составить представление о содержании оригинального текста и решить, стоит ли читать его целиком; оформить заявку на конференцию, на исследовательские гранты; включить как обязательную часть в публикуемую статью или монографию; облегчить работу специалистов, создающих информационные базы.

Исследователи выделяют несколько разновидностей аннотаций. Выделение той или иной разновидности аннотаций обычно основывается на

каком-то значимом критерии. Так, выделяют рекомендательные и критические аннотации. Такие аннотации состоят из двух частей - вводной и описательной. Вводная часть включает название работы на иностранном языке, перевод названия, выходные данные источника (книги, журнала и т.д.), количество страниц, таблиц, рисунков, библиографии; описательная часть у рекомендательных аннотаций содержит перечень преимуществ и положительных сторон, а у критических – перечень недостатков и отрицательных сторон.

По **охвату содержания** аннотируемого документа, а также **читательскому назначению** различают аннотации общие, характеризующие документ в целом и рассчитанные на широкий круг читателей, и специализированные, раскрывающие документы лишь в определенных аспектах, интересующих узкого специалиста[1].

В качестве основного критерия может выступать **объем аннотации**. Объем аннотаций может варьироваться: от одного предложения до 30% объема оригинального текста. В первом случае говорят о сжатой аннотации, во втором – о детальной. Детальная аннотация включает сведения об авторе, название, изложение основной идеи текста. Детальная аннотация может повторять структуру оригинального текста только в сжатом виде или представлять собой резюме аналитико-синтетического характера. Детальная аннотация может включать примеры и цитаты из текста оригинала.

Описывая детальную аннотацию, мы затронули вопрос структуре: из каких частей состоит аннотация и какую информацию она включает. В самом общем виде структуру аннотации можно представить следующим образом:

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[1] Маркушевская Л.П., Цапаева Ю.А. Аннотирование и реферирование (Методические рекомендации для самостоятельной работы студентов). СПб ГУ ИТМО, 2008.

- библиографическое описание (автор статьи / книги, номер тома или издания, место издания, количество страниц, иллюстраций);
- общие сведения (сжатая характеристика) материала;
- дополнительные сведения (о работе и его авторе).

Более прагматически ориентированные западные коллеги отказываются от абстракций и предлагают шаблон, который не только повторяет приведенную выше структуру аннотации, но и предлагает всем, осваивающим жанр аннотации, схему, по которой можно составлять собственные аннотации, следуя строгой структуре и используя вполне конкретное языковое наполнение[2]:

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In "Title of the Piece" (source and date of piece),
author shows that: central idea of the piece. The
author  supports  the  main  idea  by  using
_____  and  showing  that
_____.
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Качественная аннотация должна давать объективное представление об аннотируемом источнике, т.е. должна отвечать на следующие вопросы: Кто что где и когда сделал? Какова главная идея текста? Какие доводы и доказательства приводит автор в защиту своей точки зрения?. При составлении аннотации необходимо руководствоваться следующими правилами:

- излагать сжатое содержание первоисточника своими словами;
- избегать оценочных суждений и критики аннотируемого текста, выражения собственного мнения о прочитанном;
- избегать ненужных и неуместных деталей, примеров из первоисточника;

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[2] Writing a Summary // Santa Monica College Reading Lab. [Электронный ресурс]. URL: http://homepage.smc.edu/reading_lab/writing_a_summary.htm (дата обращения 28.10.2016).

- включать цитаты из оригинального текста только в том случае, если на это есть веская причина.

Подготовка к написанию аннотации и сам процесс включают несколько этапов. Опишем их в качестве руководства к действию:

- Прочитайте текст, на который собираетесь писать аннотацию.
- Перечитайте текст и разделите его на части согласно рассматриваемым в нем идеям, положениям; дайте каждой части название; подчеркните ключевые слова и словосочетания.
- Напишите по одному предложению в качестве краткого содержания каждой части.
- Сформулируйте центральную идею, которая объединяет вместе все предложения, представляющие краткое изложение отдельных частей.
- Напишите черновую версию аннотации в соответствии с принятой структурой.
- Отредактируйте черновой вариант; уберите все ненужные детали; исключите повторы.
- Перепишите или напечатайте окончательный вариант аннотации.

При написании аннотации рекомендуется использовать широкий спектр слов, позволяющих передать мнение, утверждения и мысли автора первоисточника. Приведем примеры некоторых из них:

При написании аннотации рекомендуется использовать широкий спектр слов, позволяющих передать мнение, утверждения и мысли автора первоисточника[3]. Приведем примеры некоторых из них:

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[3] Маркушевская Л.П., Цапаева Ю.А. Аннотирование и реферирование (Методические рекомендации для самостоятельной работы студентов). СПб ГУ ИТМО, 2008. – 51 с.; Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (MEDAL). International Students Edition: over 100,000 references. – Oxford: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc, 2002.

Вводная часть	*The article deals with …*
	As the title implies, the article describes …
	The paper is concerned with…
	The paper looks at recent research dealing with…
	The article begins with the description of…
	The article begins with …
	The article offers a profile of…
Основная часть	*According to X,*
	In X's opinion,
	In X's view,
	The author / writer / researcher sets out to prove that…
	The author / writer / researcher puts a lot of emphasis / gives emphasis to / underlines / highlights / stresses
	It is known that…
	The fact that … is stressed.
	It is reported that …
	It draws our attention to…
	The author / writer / researcher provides an explanation / solid evidence / description
	The author / writer / researcher puts forward a theory / advance / propose
	The author / writer / researcher goes into the causes
	The author / writer / researcher casts doubt on the previous research
	The author goes on to describe / state / consider…
	The author carries out an exploration / research / experiment
	The author / article gives a description
	The author / writer / researcher argues

	The author / writer / researcher asserts
	The author / writer / researcher believes
	The author / writer / researcher claims
	The author / writer / researcher confirms
	The author / writer / researcher hypothesizes
	The author / writer / researcher insists
	The author / writer / researcher maintains
	The author / writer / researcher observes
	The author / writer / researcher notes
	The author / writer / researcher points out
	The author / writer / researcher questions
	The author / writer / researcher says
	The author / writer / researcher states
	The main idea of the article is…
	It gives a detailed analysis of…
	First / firstly / first of all,…
	Second / Secondly,…
	Third / Thirdly,…
	In addition to…
	Furthermore,…
	Moreover,…
	Similarly,…
	Equally,…
	Although…
	However,…
Заключительная часть	*The author / writer / researcher concludes that…*
	The author / writer / researcher concludes by stating that …
	The following conclusions are drawn…
	In conclusion / to conclude,…

	At the end of the article the author sums up...
	In sum,…
	In summary, to sum up,…
	The article is of great help to …
	The article is of interest to …

При написании аннотации рекомендуется использовать сложные предложения, инфинитивные и причастные обороты, разнообразные вводные слова и конструкции в страдательном залоге.

В начале раздела мы отмечали, что аннотация может предварять разнообразные тексты. Здесь мы остановимся на трех разновидностях аннотаций: аннотация статьи в научном журнале (journal abstract), пояснительная записка к отчету (executive summary), краткое описание проекта (project summary).

Аннотация статьи в научном журнале обычно состоит 150-200 слов и раскрывает следующие аспекты статьи: предмет и объект исследования, цели и задачи исследования, используемые методы, актуальность исследуемой темы. Аннотацию составляют тогда, когда статья уже готова. Аннотация – самодостаточное и законченное произведение, которое может быть понято отдельно от первоисточника.

Пояснительная записка к отчету обычно занимает одну страницу и содержит информацию о рассматриваемом вопросе, цели, результатах, а также рекомендации и комментарии. Пояснительная записка – очень важная часть отчета. Зачастую решения по каким-то проектам принимаются после прочтения именно пояснительной записки.

Краткое описание проекта приобретает особое значения при подаче заявки на грант. Обычно краткое описание проекта включает в себя наименование организации и контактную информацию; цель и задачи реализации проекта, для которого запрашивается финансирование; информацию о целевой аудитории; этапы реализации проекта; информацию о средствах реализации проекта; информацию о планируемых результатах; объем запрашиваемого финансирования.

Еще раз напомним, что обязательным требованием к аннотации является объективность передачи содержания первоисточника, поэтому следует с осторожностью относиться к использованию прилагательных, выражающих оценку. Рекомендуется по возможности избегать употребления следующих прилагательных: positive, good, strong, conservative, hard, easy, interesting / negative, bad, weak, liberal, difficult, funny, well-supported[4].

Задание 1. Предлагаем вам проанализировать аннотации, написанные студентами в рамках одного из проектов:

1. The article «Cyberspace and Identity» by Sherry Turkle applies to the life in "virtual worlds". Turkle's goal is analysis: does "identity play" (play on the Internet with different names, descriptions and stuff) challenge our identity or not. The author concludes: it became common to see the self as a multiple, distributed, "time-sharing" system that means that our identity on the computer is the sum of our distributed presence there (in other words, our identity is divided there as we can make different actions on the net simultaneously). This process differs from playing different social roles; this process is like a distribution of the self. The author also states: it's necessary to achieve something – certain knowledge, skills – before people can move ahead easily to further development. Modern virtual social life can play a role of self-reparation because all needed information for this development can be discovered in windows on the Internet. According to Turkle cyberspace gives people more than just

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[4] The Writing Studio of Colorado State University. [Электронный ресурс]. URL: http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/guide.cfm?guideid=30 (дата обращения 28.10.2016).

new friends and information – it allows people to play multiple roles and even opposite sex in order to explore unexamined aspects of their sexuality and self. The author is not implying that "parallel lives" cause the dramatic increase of people with symptoms of multiple-personality disorder: a man stays to be healthy being multiple if he feels a unity of his mind. The author calls to using of the virtual life to reflect constructively on the real one, to aware of our selves. It possibly will allow to use virtual experiences for personal and social transformation.

2. A. Keen in his article «Social Media can open our eyes to the value of physical life» gives different critical arguments of the social media revolution which destroys the physical economy of culture and human literacy including personal conversation. Humanization faced to the possibility of "dehumanization". The most part of article is based on the opinion of Robert Scoble – a recognized expert in technologies and social media who keeps a blog now. He actually offers the "third way" for supporters and opponents of social media. It consists in the fact that social media causing an appetite for reality just represents a means rather than an end to human interaction. So the author makes a conclusion that rather than "dehumanisation", social media may lead to a greater appreciation for the richness and depth of real human interaction and bring people to fully appreciate the value of physical life.

3. "Fahrenheit 451" is one of the most famous novels by Ray Bradbury which presents a future American society which can become real if people don't read. The story shows how mass media destroys interest in reading literature and personal communication that deprives people of opportunity to be individual and original, sociable, cheerful and open-minded, able to think. In such society books are outlawed; more than that, they are declared offensive to minority groups and firemen are given the task of eradicating this threat to public happiness. Utopia of such life is demonstrated by the fact that the main character – Guy Montag, fireman, whose duties are to burn books – after all changes his social position (which actually was dictated by the regime and state politics) and joins to a secret

group of wandering intellectual exiles who memorize books in order to preserve their contents and one day to rebuilt society. The key point of the novel is the states that maybe the books of the past have messages how to save society from its own destruction and that people focusing on technologies and progress mustn't forget about their spirituality, literacy and nature.

4. In "Social Media can open our eyes to the value of physical life" Andrew Keen writes about the problem of social media and its impact on human interaction. The author presents the opinions of social media dystopians, like Archbishop Nichols of Westminster who thinks that internet communication is ruining our appreciation of physical interaction, and utopians, like Robert Scoble, who claims that after spending time online talking freely to people that you've never met you will also value more quiet evenings and face-to-face conversations with your family and friends. The author concludes that radical opinion should be avoided and suggests that lack of intimacy will result in deeper appreciation of real human interaction rather that in 'dehumanisation'.

5. The author of "Cyberspace and Identity", Sherry Turkle, focuses on the creation of a virtual personality and points out its several aspects. Her main point is that one may try on multiple masks and selves according to their mood, often at the same time. This leads to various psychological effects, among them solving identity problems and working out what is called psychological moratorium by E. Erikson. The author describes the case of a person who used different virtual personalities to express different aspects of his self and externalize them from his inner world to comparatively real life. She continues with her personal experience and different approaches to the study of Self and points out that what could be viewed as multiple personalities disorder is actually a part of a new cultural context which allows for the presence of multiple yet healthy selves expressed through online personalities. Turkle claims that we have moved from psychoanalytical Freudian culture to a new, computer one. She concludes that facing the cyberspace and its

opportunities one should cultivate awareness and knowledge of their self.

6. In his novel "Fahrenheit 451" Ray Bradbury describes the new society, based on consumption and mass culture. Through the eyes of the main character, Guy Montag, the author pictures the world where books are burnt, the ability to think and reflect is a crime, and people care only about pleasure and fun. At the beginning Montag, a fireman whose job is burning books, belongs to this world, but gradually through a series of shocking events and meeting different-thinking people he changes. Montag meets Clarisse McClellan, whose romantic ideas and unusual questions set the basis for the change in his way of thinking; he witnesses his wife's suicide attempt and burning a woman alive, reads stolen books and talks to a former English professor Faber, coming to the conclusion that the revolution is necessary. What is presented by the government as idyllic, happy, progressive lifestyle in fact has nothing inside. People are empty, all stuffed with the same ideas, opinions and habits that they get from the TV. Montag lacks knowledge and can hardly avoid the infuence of Captain Beatty, an apologist of book burning, who gives Montag a brief insight into the development of their society and praises the current order of things. We find out that the process of dehumanisation was natural: with the growth of mass culture people lost interest in books and deep movies, and gradually only the intellectual bubble-gum was left. With the support of Faber Montag confronts Beatty and kills him when Montag's own house is burnt and he himself accused of keeping the books. Finally Montag escapes the city and joins a group of people who learn books by heart to preserve them for the next generations. Meanwhile a nuclear war starts and in a split-second ends, and this group, including Montag now, is ready to try and rebuild the society.

7. Turkle S. in the article « Cyberspace and Identity » deals with the problem of online life and its impact on the identity. Nowadays people have an opportunity to create site-specific personae, to exist in many wolds and to play different roles at

the same time. Therefore the problem of multiple-personality is actual as never before. The author of the article, provides rather deep coverage of the issue, finds links with Freudian ideas. Finally, he concludes that it is high time to rethink our attitude to computer and psychoanalytic cultures and to make constructive conclusions.

8. In his article Keen A. «Social Media can open our eyes to the value of physical life» rises the problem of dehumanization of social life due to the the social media. He presents different views on the matter in the USA and Great Britain. The author emphasizes the on-going battle between supporters and opponents of social media.The question of the consequences of communication by social networks is quiet urgent. But there is a possible third way, which is discussed with Robert Scoble, ex Microsoft technologist. The author concludes that social media is creating an appetite for the complexity of life and gives an opportunity to appreciate the value of physical life.

9. Ray Bradbury's dystopian novel "Fahrenheit 451" presents future society of the USA: people have lost their identities, inner life of a person is forgotten,heart-to-heart conversations are impossible, keeping books is illegal and firemen burn houses where books are found. Guy Montag, a fireman, is the protagonist of the novel who's life isn't much different. Little by little he realizes the situation and tries to change this world by all means. The author rises important problems of our future, dehumanization of the society, loss of people's identities in the modern world. However, Ray Bradbury leaves humanity a chance to survive, as there are still people preserving the content of the most important books for future generations.

Часть 2. Тексты по юриспруденции

Administrative Law

Adopted from Britannica Student Library. Encyclopædia Britannica. Chicago: Encyclopædia Britannica, 2007.

The executive branches of government, from the local to the national level, are empowered to administer laws for the welfare of society. To accomplish this end, agencies, departments, bureaus, and commissions are set up as part of an executive branch. These administrative bodies are created by legislative bodies to carry out a wide variety of functions both on behalf of government and for the public. These functions include the overseeing of education, traffic control, tax collecting, defense, highway and bridge construction, quality control of consumer goods, slum clearance, and public transportation, among others.

Administrative bodies are empowered by legislatures with the authority to do their work. Their power may be allocated in two ways: specific statutory directions that tell an agency exactly how it shall operate, or discretionary authorization that allows an agency to devise its own regulations.

In many cases, it is a mixture of the two. The term administrative law has come to mean both the regulations that govern the internal operation of an agency or department and the procedures it may use in the performance of its tasks.

The powers that agencies have are called delegated powers; they do not originate in the constitution of a nation as do the powers of the legislature, the courts, and the executive branch. Because the powers are delegated, or granted, they must be subject to some check by a higher authority so that agencies do not exercise their power in a way that would be detrimental to the public good. The

process by which the activities of agencies are checked and controlled by the courts is called judicial review.

Judicial review inquires into the legal competence of public agencies, the validity of their regulations, and the fairness and adequacy of their procedures. If, for instance, a government department decided to build a new highway through a city, citizens could sue the government to stop the project until all environmental issues had been considered. A court or tribunal would then have the task of deciding the validity of the case.

International Law

Adopted from Britannica Student Library. Encyclopædia Britannica. Chicago: Encyclopædia Britannica, 2007.

The body of rules and customs by which sovereign states are guided in their relations with each other is called international law. It is based only on mutual consent of sovereign states, and it is effective either because the nations of the world recognize that it is to their best interests to accept it or because stronger nations are able to force their point of view upon weaker ones.

Generally, in ancient and medieval times, international relations were regulated by special treaties between rulers. Among the city-states of ancient Greece there were a few principles of international procedure, such as the protection of ambassadors, but there was no body of recognized law.

The medieval Italian city-states were the first to work out a code comparable to modern international law. Those city-states were near neighbors, closely allied in blood, but bitter rivals in commerce. A few wise rulers developed a system of passports, established the distinction between armies and civilians in war, and set rules for warfare.

International law is formed by the mutual consent of nations, given either by international practice or by treaty agreement. Such practices and agreements may involve only two nations (bilateral agreements) or they may extend to many nations (multilateral agreements).

Each nation may decide how it shall act to secure respect for its rights under international law. For example, if a nation believes that fishermen of another nation are invading its own fishing grounds, the question may first be discussed by diplomatic representatives. If settlement is not possible in this way, the question at issue may be referred to an arbitration commission.

In the use of force to redress injuries received, a nation is limited to action proportional to the original offense. Such action is called reprisal. A threat of immediate injury, such as a bandit raid across the frontier, may be met directly by the limited use of force to remove the danger or indirectly by pressure upon the offending nation. Such pressure or intervention in the internal affairs of another sovereign state was formerly regarded as illegal. Now, however, it is generally accepted as necessary, especially when the interests of a powerful state are endangered by disorder in a neighboring weaker one.

Criminal Law

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In all advanced legal systems treason, murder, aggravated assault, theft, robbery, burglary, arson, and rape are considered to be major offenses of criminal law. Criminal law not only determines what is criminal conduct but also regulates the methods of capturing, charging, and trying suspected criminals; imposes penalties on convicted offenders; and determines the methods by which a convicted person can challenge and seek to overturn the conviction. Criminal law

is one of two main branches of what is known in Western society as positive law; the other is civil law.

A crime is defined as such by law. This first principle of legality is the keystone of criminal law. The principle directs that laws defining offenses be clear and strictly interpreted. And it forbids the application of the law retroactively, meaning a law must have been in effect at the time the act was committed. The United States Constitution, in Section 9 of Article I, forbids the passing of what are called "ex post facto" laws—those that would make some act a crime that was not illegal when done or that increase the punishment for crimes previously committed.

Legal systems traditionally do not allow double jeopardy, meaning prosecuting someone more than once for the same offense. It is possible at times for an individual to be tried for essentially the same act in two different jurisdictions, or areas of authority. In the United States a person may be tried for murder in a state court and later tried for the violation of the victim's civil rights in a federal court.

All systems of law have statutes of limitation, or laws that restrict the length of time within which legal proceedings may be brought against a person. Such statutes are enacted to protect against stale claims after evidence has been lost, memories have faded, or witnesses have died or disappeared. The periods vary depending on the seriousness of the offense. In German law, for instance, the periods range from three months for petty misdemeanors to 30 years for crimes involving a life sentence. In many countries, including the United States, there is no statute of limitations for certain serious crimes such as murder.

Contracts

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Most simply, a contract is a promise that is enforceable by law. Because it is enforceable, there have arisen in Great Britain, continental Europe, the United States, and numerous other areas complex bodies of contract law to clarify the nature of contracts and the problems associated with their enforcement. A contract is said to exist when an offer is made and then accepted. All contracts must be entered into both willingly and freely, and an offer generally cannot be rejected once it has been accepted.

During the years when a few studios—such as Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, Paramount, and Warner Brothers—dominated the motion picture industry, they kept many actors and actresses "under contract." This meant that these performers could make movies only for their respective studios unless they were expressly freed from this obligation and allowed to work for someone else. Today the whole entertainment industry operates on the basis of short-term contracts. Entertainers perform a service as described in a contract, and they are paid for that service by those with whom the agreement was made. The professional sports industry—baseball, football, basketball, hockey, and others—also operates under a system of contracts in which a service is performed by one individual—a quarterback, for instance—and he is paid by the team owners.

Most contracts involve business dealings. In fact, the modern use of contracts originated during the late Middle Ages among merchants. One of the most common types of contract is a loan agreement. When people borrow money, they sign a contract to repay it with interest over a specific number of months or years. Usually the borrower puts up some kind of collateral to secure the loan: a pledge to repay the loan or lose the collateral. The collateral is something of equal or greater value than the amount borrowed. If the loan is for a new automobile, for example, the seller may take back the automobile if the loan is not repaid on time. When a home is purchased, it itself becomes the collateral for the long-term loan, or mortgage. Loans in amounts equal to the full value of the collateral are rare.

Trusts

In an economic and legal sense, the word trust has been used in two ways. In one sense it refers to a kind of business monopoly—such as the famous Standard Oil Trust established in 1882. This type of trust is covered in the article Monopolies and Cartels. In the sense of this article, a trust is a form of property that a person, group of persons, or company holds and manages for the benefit of another.

If, for example, a very wealthy man had a number of young grandchildren to whom he wanted to leave his fortune, he might create a trust for them. He could put a large portion of his wealth—real estate, stocks, and bonds—into trust. He might stipulate that the grandchildren, on attaining age 21, could receive a monthly income from the interest on the property held in trust but not touch the property itself—known as the principal—until they were 30. At that age each grandchild might receive a proportion of the principal.

Certain features are found in all trusts. All trusts must consist of settlor, trust property, trustee, beneficiary, and trust instrument.

The settlor is the individual who owns property and takes the legal steps to put it into trust. There can be no trust without some identifiable property. This may consist of real estate, stocks, bonds, insurance policies, government securities, bank accounts, mortgages, and other forms of property.

When a trust is created, title to the property and the responsibility for managing it is vested in a trustee. This may be an individual such as a relative, friend, or business associate whom the settlor believes will deal responsibly with his affairs. Or the trust may be assigned to a corporation such as a bank or trust company. Because of the complexity of handling large trust properties, a very large proportion of trusts are now handled by corporations.

No private trust can exist without beneficiaries. These are identifiable persons or corporations, or a class of persons such as the children of the settlor. Provision may be made for the addition or removal of beneficiaries, as persons are born or die, or under other circumstances. In the case of charitable trusts, the beneficiaries are not identifiable persons. Society in general is considered to be the beneficiary, and those who receive the benefits—perhaps the poor—are merely the means through which the trust benefits go to society or to the state.

Careers in Law

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Legal education varies from country to country. In England, law can be studied in college and a bachelor's degree is awarded, usually after four years. But additional training is required to become an experienced, practicing lawyer. The graduate is articled, or apprenticed, to one or more senior lawyers for at least a year before being licensed to practice as a solicitor. Solicitors may not represent clients in court; only barristers may do that. There are associations of barristers who control the admission of candidates to argue cases in the courts.

In the United States, lawyers are required to be college graduates and to attend a law school for three years. Upon graduating from law school, the student receives the degree of *Juris Doctor* (doctor of law). In addition, the law school graduate must pass an examination before being admitted to the bar. (The legal profession is called the bar because, when the profession was developing in England many centuries ago, there was a fence in courtrooms separating the judges' area from the rest of the room. This fence was called the bar, and it became customary to say that a lawyer was called to the bar, meaning he was called upon to practice his profession.)

Whereas in England, the practice of law is regulated by associations of barristers, in the United States it is governed by the courts. Bar associations in the

United States may discipline a lawyer or recommend disbarment, but the courts have the final say in the disposition of the matter.

The field of law is so vast that lawyers, in addition to going into private practice or joining law firms, find employment in other ways. Some work exclusively for corporations. Others work in all branches at every level of government. Each government department usually has a full-time legal staff. A legal education is also useful in other occupations. About 10 percent of the chief executive officers of large corporations are lawyers. Most politicians and many bankers, stockbrokers, and businessmen have had a legal education.

Political science (1)

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One meaning of the Greek word *politeia* is "government." The word was used in ancient Greece as a general term to describe the way city-states were ruled, and it is derived from the word *polis,* which means "city-state." Today the word politics refers to all aspects and types of government. Political science is a more specific term. It means the systematic study of government by the best scientific methods available. As such it is one of the social sciences, along with cultural anthropology, economics, geography, and sociology. Political science is also closely related to law because lawmaking is one of the chief functions of government.

The scope of political science is as broad as the nature of government. It studies comparative types of governments; the structure, function, and agencies of governments; the roles of citizens; decision-making processes; special-interest groups and lobbying; the power of elites in society; voting patterns; the operation and influence of political parties; the shaping of public opinion and its impact on government; and the relations of media and other institutions to government. Organizations such as the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan gather vast amounts of data on elections and voter behavior.

Modern political science originated during the 19th century, when people believed that almost any subject matter could be turned into a scientific discipline. The subject matter itself, however, is very old. Government is one of the most fundamental human institutions and therefore has been written about for many centuries. Much of the writing is philosophical and theoretical. While it discusses what government is, its chief interest is in determining what government should be. Much of the literature tends to be utopian, describing supposedly ideal states that have little possibility of realization

Plato's 'Republic' is an excellent example of political philosophy because in it he describes the ideal state and its functions. Other political philosophers include the Roman orator Cicero, author of another 'Republic'; St. Augustine of Hippo, author of 'The City of God'; Thomas Aquinas and Dante, both of whom wrote on kingship; Niccolò Machiavelli, author of 'The Prince'; Thomas Hobbes, who summed up his ideas of the state in 'Leviathan'; Montesquieu, author of 'The Spirit of Laws'; John Locke, who wrote 'Two Treatises on Government'; and Edmund Burke, author of 'Reflections on the Revolution in France'.

Political science (2)

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Political science is concerned with the actual workings of government, not with the ideal state. The founder of the subject was Aristotle in the 4th century BC. His best-known book on government is 'Politics', but he also composed a study of the Athenian constitutions. 'Politics' examines the different kinds of city-states, compares forms of government, presents the causes of revolution, and concludes with an elaborate plan for educating citizens in their responsibilities.

Although Aristotle pioneered the field of political science, the subject remained within the scope of philosophy until the 19th century. The natural and physical sciences had by then broken away from philosophy. The social sciences

were the last to do so, possibly because of disagreement about whether such subjects could be considered true sciences.

One of the starting points in the development of modern political science came in the writings of the French socialist Claude-Henri de Rouvroy, comte de St-Simon. He suggested in 1813 that politics and ethics should both become what he called positive sciences whose authority would rest upon objective evidence rather than mere speculation. He was followed in this viewpoint by the philosopher August Comte, author of 'Plan of the Scientific Operations Necessary for the Reorganization of Society' (1822). Another proponent of the scientific study of government was Ludwig Gumplowicz, a Polish-born professor of sociology in Graz, Austria. He studied the nature of groups and concluded that social movements are the result of social interaction, not of individual actions.

Political science was taken up enthusiastically in the United States, a nation with a history of political experimentation. Some of the most notable works on government were written about the American system. The debates about ratification of the Constitution led to the writing of the federalist papers by John Jay, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton in 1787. In the 1830s Alexis de Tocqueville published his 'Democracy in America', probably the best analysis of United States political institutions ever written. Two generations later the British writer James Bryce published 'The American Commonwealth'.

Politics has played a significant role in the American consciousness ever since the colonial era. As early as 1642, before the term political science was coined, Henry Dunster, president of Harvard College, added to the curriculum a course on ethics and politics.

Political party

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Government policy is made by elected officials who are members of political parties. In the United States most elected officials are members of either

the Democratic or Republican party, though occasionally members of smaller parties are also elected.

Political parties are organizations that wish to achieve control of the process of government. They differ from interest groups that only want to have an influence on government policy through lobbying or education of the public. A party gains control of government by getting more of its candidates elected to office than its opposition parties do. In Great Britain, for example, more Conservative party candidates won representation in Parliament in the elections of April 1992 than did Labour party candidates. The Conservatives, therefore, were able to have their leader—John Major—continue in office as prime minister. They were also able to decide which programs the government should adopt, and they had enough votes in Parliament to pass their legislation.

Political parties are the products of representative democracy. During the centuries when laws were made by kings and their advisers, parties could not exist because there were no elected officials. Parties began to emerge in Europe and North America in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, when elected legislatures became a dominant force in government.

In the earliest decades in which political parties existed, their memberships were quite small. In the United States and England, for example, most citizens were not allowed to vote. Party membership, therefore, consisted mainly of landowners, members of the nobility, factory owners, merchants, and other wealthy individuals. By the third decade of the 19th century in the United States, and somewhat later in Europe, the right to vote was extended to include most white males. When more people could vote, party memberships increased. By the middle of the 20th century, after women had gained the right to vote in most nations, political parties became more dependent upon mass support.

In the 20th century political parties have spread throughout the world, largely in imitation of Europe and North America. Large parties have arisen throughout Africa. Many of these have a base of support in ethnic or tribal groups.

In the Middle East party affiliation often depends upon membership in religious organizations. This is true in Israel as well as in Islamic countries.

One-party governments

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During the 20th century there have been three types of one-party governments: Communist, Fascist, and Third World. The Communists came to power in Russia in the October Revolution of 1917, with the success of Lenin's Bolshevik wing of the Social-Democratic Workers' party. After World War II Communist regimes were established in much of Eastern Europe. In 1949 Mao Zedong's Chinese Communist party came to power. All effective political power was in the hands of the party and the first secretary of the party was the regime's dominant figure. Most Communist governments were totalitarian, but this did not imply perpetual conflict between people and party. In 1989 the face of Eastern European politics completely changed. The Communist party lost its political monopoly in East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia. Even Albania overthrew its neo-Stalinist system by 1992. Multiparty elections were held in many Eastern European countries in 1990. In 1991 the Communist party lost control in the Soviet Union and the country ceased to exist.

Five years after the Russian Revolution a Fascist party, led by Benito Mussolini, came to power in Italy. Whereas Communists contended that they spoke for the workers, Fascists believed in the right of the elite to govern the masses. As a result, in Italy—as well as in Spain and Portugal later—the Fascist party never played as dominant a role as did the Communist party in the Soviet Union. Industrialists, bankers, and other powerful figures tended to dominate policy. The party's function was focused on policing the state, eliminating political opposition, and controlling the military.

In Germany the National Socialist (Nazi) party of Adolf Hitler, though Fascist in outlook, exerted much greater control of the nation than did the Fascists in Italy or the Falange in Spain. Germany under the Nazis differed from other Fascist countries in that Hitler personally, not the party, was the government. There was no pretense at a rule of law.

In the Third World the Communist governments of North Korea, Vietnam, and Cambodia were similar to those that existed in the Soviet Union. In other developing nations, however, single-party governments tend to call themselves either socialist or reformist, but they rarely have any strong leaning toward Communism. Often a one-party system is proclaimed to keep one individual in power for life. Third World single-party governments have generally proved to be inefficient and corrupt.

Cabinet government

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Although there are many constitutional democracies in the world today, most are organized in ways that mirror the governments of either the United States or the United Kingdom. One component of government that is common to both types is a cabinet, or a body of advisers to the chief of state. In both systems the cabinet members also serve as the heads of government departments, but in other respects the bodies are quite different.

The United States has what is called a presidential system of government. This system is based on the principle of separation of powers. There is a single executive, and the executive office, or that of the president, is separate from the legislative branch, or Congress, which consists of the House of Representatives and the Senate. The Cabinet members are part of the executive and therefore are prohibited from simultaneously serving as members of Congress or in the federal judiciary. They may, however, appear before Congressional committees to give

information or advice. Many countries in Latin America and Africa have adopted the American model. Examples include Brazil, Mexico, Kenya, and South Africa.

The United Kingdom has a parliamentary form of government. There is no separation of powers as in the United States. There are two executives: one is the ceremonial head of state, who is the reigning king or queen, and the other is the prime minister. The executive branch is headed by the prime minister, who appoints a Cabinet that is made up of members of Parliament, which in turn consists of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. This system is also called a cabinet form of government in recognition of the central role of the Cabinet.

Most constitutional democracies have followed the British model, often with modifications. Examples include Italy, Germany, Sweden, Japan, Canada, Australia, India, Israel, and The Netherlands. The position of head of state in many of these countries is occupied by an appointed or elected official rather than a hereditary one.

Although not widely adopted, a third model combines the presidential and parliamentary systems. France, under the constitution of 1958, has what is sometimes called a semipresidential system of government. Its president is directly elected and has extensive powers, including the power to dissolve the National Assembly, the more powerful of the two legislative houses. The president appoints a cabinet, or Council of Ministers, to administer the country and presides over its meetings.

Government Stability

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In most presidential systems of government the president's term of office is fixed. This enables presidents to serve their full terms even if they become

unpopular or lack support in the legislature. For this reason, governments in presidential systems are fairly stable. In parliamentary systems elections may occur at any time. In the United Kingdom if the government loses a vote on an important issue, or if a majority of the House of Commons votes against it on a vote of confidence, the government resigns. The leader of the opposition party may then be asked to form a new government, or, more likely, an election is held to decide which party shall have a majority. In parliamentary systems the government may also lose its majority in the legislature as a result of general elections. In the United Kingdom one party usually wins a majority in the House of Commons. In most other European countries, however, no single party is generally able to command a strong majority in the legislature. In this situation, it is necessary to form a coalition government: the cabinet consists of ministers from two or more parties, and the prime minister is normally a member of the party that received the largest number of votes.

In most European countries coalition cabinets are the rule. Although coalition cabinets have been fairly stable in some countries, such as Switzerland and Germany, they tend to provide less stable governments than the one-party cabinets of the United Kingdom. In France, during the Third Republic from 1870 to 1940, there were no fewer than 110 different governments. In Italy there were 67 ministries in the 74 years between 1848 and 1922, when Benito Mussolini came to power. Whereas France stabilized its government under the Fifth Republic, beginning in 1958, Italian governments remained unstable. From the end of World War II to the end of the 20th century, Italy had more than 50 governments, though in many of them the same individuals appeared again and again.

Because of the great diversity of parties in most parliamentary systems, even forming a coalition can be time-consuming. After elections in The Netherlands in 1972, it took 165 days to form a government. In Israel, which often has about 25 parties in its 120-seat Knesset (legislature), government formation can also take a very long time. And once a coalition is formed, it can be upset easily if there is a

realignment of parties over some issue or if an issue on which the coalition partners disagree becomes prominent.

Parliament

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The legislature, or lawmaking body, of the <u>United Kingdom</u>, <u>Canada</u>, <u>Australia</u>, <u>India</u>, and most other <u>Commonwealth</u> nations is called a parliament. The legislative assembly of the <u>European Union</u> is called the European Parliament. Many individual European nations and <u>Japan</u> also have parliamentary-type legislatures, though they use other names. Japan's legislature, for example, is called the Diet, while <u>Sweden</u>'s is the Riksdag.

Most parliaments, like the Congress of the United States, are bicameral— they have two houses. Bicameral legislatures usually consist of an "upper" house of elected, appointed, or sometimes hereditary members and a larger "lower" house of popularly elected members. The term upper reflects the greater traditional prestige of the upper house and the social standing of its members, who traditionally represented the elite. The members of the lower house, on the other hand, traditionally represented the common people. One of the oldest parliaments, and the one on which most modern parliaments are modeled, is that of the United Kingdom, made up of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The oldest still-functioning parliament is the <u>Isle of Man</u>'s Tynwald, which dates from the period of Scandinavian occupation in the early Middle Ages. It is composed of an upper house called the Legislative Council and a lower house called the House of Keys. Australia uses the terms Senate and House of Representatives, while Canada has a Senate and a House of Commons. Several European countries, including Sweden and Finland, have unicameral, or one-house, legislatures.

The word parliament is related to the French verb *parler,* which means "to speak," and to the English word parley—a discussion or conference. Legislatures

are places where elected representatives of the people meet to debate and to discuss proposed laws and other national business.

The federal government of the United States is noted for its separation of powers: it has three distinct branches—the presidency, the Congress, and the federal courts. No individual who is serving in one branch may, at the same time, be a member of another branch. In most parliamentary systems this separation does not exist in such a clear-cut fashion.

In Britain the prime minister is always a member of Parliament (MP), as are all the ministers, or heads of departments. A prime minister always holds office as leader of the majority party.

Sessions of Parliament

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Under a law passed in 1911 a general election for all members of the House of Commons must be held every five years. Elections, however, may be called at any time within that period. Dissolution of Parliament and new elections can be forced by opposition parties. If, for instance, the ruling party loses a vote of confidence in Parliament on a critical issue, a general election may be called. Or if the ruling party believes it is riding a crest of popularity, it may call an election. Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher called such an election for June 1987, and her party won by a considerable margin. If a vacancy occurs in the Commons, a by-election is held to fill the seat.

After a general election the monarch appoints as prime minister the leader of the party that has the majority of members in the Commons. If no party has a majority, the one with the most members must reach an agreement with one or more other parties to form a coalition government. In times of national crisis a coalition government may be formed even if one party has a majority. The government of Prime Minister Winston Churchill during World War II was such a coalition.

The opening of a new Parliament takes place shortly after an election. Sessions of a sitting Parliament normally begin in late October or early November. The opening of a session is a formal ceremonial affair. The monarch reads a speech to both houses outlining the government's goals for the session. A Parliament cannot be legally constituted without the presence of the monarch and the rest of the government.

The primary officials of the Commons are the speaker, the chairman of Ways and Means, two deputy chairmen, the clerk, the sergeant at arms, and heads of such departments as the library, the administration, and the official report. The speaker of the house presides over and regulates debate and rules on points of order. He does not speak during debate or vote on bills, unless a vote is tied. Each party has a whip, whose duty it is to assure attendance of members during votes. There is also an officially recognized leader of the opposition, a member of the largest minority party.

Proposed legislation usually originates with the Cabinet. Every bill gets a public reading, which is basically an order to get it printed. At the second reading debate begins. The bill is then sent to the proper committee of the Commons for a clause-by-clause analysis. Committees are organized in relation to the Cabinet departments—defense, foreign policy, agriculture, energy, environment, and so forth. In some cases the whole house may act as a committee.

Elections

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Alternatives are central to elections. The word election is derived from the Latin verb legere, meaning "to choose." Elections are the process through which citizens choose who will represent them in government or what will be done about a particular public issue. If there is to be a real choice, there must be alternatives. If public officials are being chosen, there must be at least two candidates. If an issue is being decided, voters must be free to say yes or no.

In some countries, the people have at least some say in creating governments to run their public affairs, while in others government runs the affairs of the people without their consent. Both types of government usually have elections, and both claim that elected officials represent the people. The difference between the two types of elections is the presence or lack of alternatives. In constitutional democracies—such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, India, the United States, and countries of the European Union—there are two or more political parties, each of which runs slates of candidates for office. The people are allowed to vote for those who they believe will do the best job.

In other nations that call themselves republics or democracies—such as China, North Korea, and Cuba—opposition parties are either outlawed or severely limited. In the Soviet Union until 1989 there was only one candidate for each office on the ballot. An election could not therefore be a choice among alternatives. It could only be a seal of approval on choices already made by the government. Those who were elected in this process did not represent the people in the government; they represented the government to the people.

That every citizen of a nation should be allowed to vote for public officials is a fairly modern idea. It dates from the 18th century, when such writers as John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and Thomas Jefferson voiced the idea of civil rights for all citizens. The events of the American and French revolutions enabled this idea to be put into practice.

Originally, from the ancient world until the early modern period, what was represented in government were certain wealthy and powerful vested interests. These included landowners, nobles, corporations, and churches. The common people did not count for much in the councils of government. They had no voice in selecting the people who would rule over them, and their interests carried little weight. They simply did the work and supplied the military manpower.

Часть 3. Тексты по истории

Agricultural revolution

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 11-12.

This was traditionally regarded as a movement which took place simultaneously with the industrial revolution, and involved the invention and introduction of new crop rotations in which roots and artificial crops were cultivated, and which involved also improvements in livestock breeding, and the reorganization of the land as a result of parliamentary enclosure. Taken together, these changes were held to have raised the output and productivity of land in such a way that the population was fed (with some help from imports) without resort to massive labour inputs which would have slowed down the industrial revolution by restricting the flow of labour from the countryside to the town. Consequently agricultural productivity and labour productivity must both have risen; indeed, the twin achievements of18th- and 19th-cent. agriculture are seen as the ability to match population growth with rising agricultural production, and structural economic change with major gains in labour productivity.

Without much doubt the end results deduced by this argument are correct. Food supply did more or less keep pace with population and urbanization, although there was some slack in demand c.1750 and a shortfall by 1815 of about 5 per cent, which was largely met by importing grain from Ireland. By 1850 an estimated 6.5 million extra mouths were being fed from home production compared with 1750. However, questions have been raised about the nature, and particularly the timing, of the agricultural revolution. Originally it was believed to have taken place alongside, and to have been a necessary concomitant to, the industrial revolution. Recent research hasraised questions about this linkage. Although there is general agreement that English agriculture underwent a fundamental technological transformation between the mid-16th and the mid-19th cents. which had a decisive

impact on 'productivity' in terms of grain yields per acre, the timing and mechanics of this transformation remain in question.

American War of Independence, 1775-83.

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 25-26

The roots of American independence go as deep as the original settlements -- colonists of a dissenting disposition with little cause for affection for their mother country, the development of a more egalitarian society without bishops or noblemen, colonial assemblies gaining political experience and anxious to extend their privileges, and a population increasing in size, prosperity, and confidence. In 1715 the colonists numbered fewer than half a million, of whom 70,000 were negro slaves. By 1770 there were more than 2 million. The ties with England were already weakening as many of the new settlers -- Germans, Swiss, or Ulster-Irish -- had no English connections.

The crisis was triggered off by the **Seven Years War,** during which the British drove the French out of Canada. It had often been remarked that only the threat of falling prey to Spain or France kept the colonists in check. That check was removed at exactly the moment that the British became alarmed at the rising cost of the plantations: they were anxious to reduce clashes with the Indians and determined that the Americans should bear more of the imperial burden. The first objective produced a prohibition on expansion across the Allegheny mountains, the second produced Grenville's Stamp Act of 1764, which led to a storm of protest. Though the Stamp Act was repealed in 1766, the Declaratory Act which reaffirmed British sovereignty deprived the gesture of much of its appeal. The imposition of the Townshend duties provoked violence and the situation escalated. The Boston massacre of 1770 was followed by the seizure of the Gaspée in 1772 and the Boston Tea Party in 1773. By 1774 the Americans had summoned a congress to concert resistance and most Britons were convinced that the lawlessness of the colonists could not be tolerated.

Once fighting began at Lexington in 1775, Britain faced a difficult military task. To occupy and garrison so vast a country was out of the question. But many Americans, especially in the south, remained loyal to the crown and British armed intervention could give them the upper hand against the patriots. The first phase finished when Burgoyne's grandiose plan to drive down the Hudson river from Canada and cut off New England ended in capitulation at Saratoga in October 1777. Though the disaster could have been retrieved, it brought France and Spain into the conflict and placed in jeopardy Britain's command of the seas. Nevertheless the issue remained in doubt and Washington experienced great difficulty in holding his troops together. In 1780 Cornwallis led a major expedition to the southern colonies. He was cut off and his surrender at Yorktown in October 1781 brought the conflict to an end. American independence was recognized by the treaty of Versailles in 1783.

The short-term consequences were less dramatic than many expected. Though Britain's eclipse as a world power was confidently predicted, her economic recovery was swift, and the colonial development of Australia, New Zealand, India, and parts of Africa went some way to compensating for the loss of the first British empire. But in the long run there was a great shift of power across the Atlantic and the population of the USA passed that of the mother country soon after the American Civil War, in the 1860s. In the long perspective of world events, the colonization and the loss of America, together with the spread of the English language and English parliamentary institutions, seems the single most important development in British history.

Anarchism

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", p. 27.

Though mistrust of the state and a desire for cheap and limited government is a commonplace in the British political tradition, formal anarchism has received little support. Anarchist elements have been traced in the Commonwealth period,

though they were more probably collective agrarianists, and the theory developed only after the French Revolution in the 1790s. Paine declared that government was, at best, a necessary evil: 'a great part of what is called government is mere imposition.' Spence and Godwin went further. Spence's vision of the future was of parish communities, with minimal powers reserved for the state, while Godwin insisted that government was a 'brute engine', which had caused all the vices of mankind. Neither had many disciples, though Shelley followed his father-in-law Godwin in calling government 'a mighty calamity'. The Cato Street conspiracy to murder the cabinet in 1820, the work of some of Spence's supporters, gave anarchism a lurid image. The First International split in 1871 between the supporters of Marx, who wanted a proletarian state, and those of Bakunin who argued, with some prescience, that it might itself become an engine of despotism. The small British groups made little impact. Sheffield anarchists in 1891 produced a short-lived paper and a group of Walsall anarchists were convicted at Stafford assizes in 1892 of conspiring to manufacture bombs. An even more sensational episode was the siege of 100 Sidney Street, Stepney, in 1911, with two foreign anarchists holed up, while the home secretary, Winston Churchill, helped to supervise a shoot-out. Peter the Painter (otherwise Peter Piaktoff) escaped the flames and disappeared from history. There was some interest in anarchist theory among left-wing circles involved in the Spanish Civil War in the 1930s. But fear of anarchy, an important ingredient of the conservative tradition, was always in Britain more influential than anarchism itself.

Anne Boleyn (c. 1507-36), 2nd queen of Henry VIII

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", p. 36.

The entanglement of personal motives with great political issues, which makes history both difficult and fascinating, is rarely more apparent than in Anne Boleyn's three years as queen to Henry VIII. She has been accused of bringing

about the Reformation single-handedly. Sir Thomas Boleyn, descended from London merchants, was a courtier and became gentleman of the bedchamber to Henry VIII. Anne spent several years at the court of France. Returning in 1522 she was given a post in the household of Catherine of Aragon. The king's interest at this time was in her sister Mary, who became his mistress. Anne was dark-haired, with large eyes, composed and cultivated, with a mole on her neck and a malformed finger. By 1527 Henry was initiating annulment proceedings against Catherine, but not until 1532, it seems, did he and Anne become lovers -- suggesting some steadiness of purpose on her part. Meanwhile her father had been given the Garter in 1523, created Viscount Rochford in 1525, and advanced to be earl of Wiltshire in 1529: her brother George was created Baron Rochfordc. 1530. Anne herself was made marchioness of Pembroke in September 1532. Henry's suit to the papacy had stalled. But early in January 1533 Anne knew she was pregnant and was married privately to Henry on the 24th. The birth of a princess, Elizabeth, on 7 September 1533 was a disappointment, but more ominous was a miscarriage in September 1534. The king was already beginning to look elsewhere: perhaps the excitement of the protracted chase had made the joys of possession rather brief. Publicly, Anne's position was strong -- the Princess Mary had been declared illegitimate, and Anne's marriage was protected by a new Treason Law. But in January 1536 Catherine of Aragon died -- ironically a mishap for Anne, since it opened up the possibility of another marriage free from any dubiety. Anne was once more pregnant but at the end of the month, alarmed by news of Henry's heavy fall at a joust, she gave premature birth to a dead son. Henry was now paying marked attention to Jane Seymour, one of Anne's ladies-in-waiting. At the end of April 1536, Anne was accused of adultery with several men and incest with her brother George. On 2 May she was taken to the Tower, and just over a fortnight later, after a trial presided over by her uncle Norfolk, she was executed. The charges against her were preposterous and she denied them with dignity, but she had never been popular and they served their turn. Her daughter Elizabeth was deprived of her rank, but succeeded to the throne 22 years later.

Anti-slavery

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 38-39.

Slavery was regarded in later 18th-cent. Britain as essential to the exploitation of the West Indian colonies where, it was believed, only negroes were capable of working on the sugar plantations. As those colonies were thought to be the keystone of imperial prosperity there was strong opposition to any interference with the institution, particularly from centres like Bristol and Liverpool whose economies depended on the plantations or on the Atlantic slave trade which supplied them.

The moral objections to slavery arose mainly from the evangelical movement of the second half of the century, reflecting concern for the spiritual and physical welfare of all mankind. A national committee of nine quakers and three Anglicans was set up in London in 1787, headed by Granville Sharp with Thomas Clarkson as secretary. It was decided to aim first at the suppression of the slave trade, whose cruelty was the subject of widespread propaganda. In 1788 William Wilberforce, the son of a Hull merchant, joined the cause after his evangelical conversion, and supplied parliamentary leadership. He persuaded his friend William Pitt to give it unofficial backing and commitees were set up in provincial towns, the most active being in Manchester. Over a hundred petitions were submitted in support of Wilberforce's parliamentary motion to end the trade in 1789. However, the economic arguments in favour of the trade prevailed, and after another unsuccessful attempt in 1791, the abolitionist cause suffered from the reaction against the French Revolution. The agitation was revived by Clarkson's speaking tours in 1804, by which time the economic importance of the West Indies had lessened, and in 1807 Lord Grenville, an early convert, gave his government's backing to an abolition bill, forcing it through the Lords.

The campaign to abolish slavery itself throughout the British empire began in earnest in 1823, when the Anti-Slavery Society was formed in London by

evangelicals, quakers, and methodists. The leaders included James Cropper, a quaker merchant from Liverpool, Joseph Sturge, a Birmingham corn merchant, and in Parliament Henry Brougham, T. F. Buxton, T. B. Macaulay, and Wilberforce. A campaign during the 1830 general election encouraged Grey's government to put through a bill abolishing slavery in the British empire in 1833, substituting apprenticeship for seven years. 'This vestige of slavery was abolished from 1 August 1838. The movements against slavery and the slave trade marked an important stage in the development of middle-class pressure groups both in London and in the industrial provinces.

Cambridge University

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 155-156.

Cambridge University dates back to 1209, when, after a serious clash with the townspeople, some of the clerks at Oxford migrated to Cambridge. The first college, on a very modest scale, was Peterhouse, established in 1284 by Hugh de Balsham, bishop of Ely. Although it modelled itself mainly on the Oxford pattern, with the teachers forming the studium generale or corporation, Cambridge did not escape ecclesiastical control from Ely until the 15th cent. Royal patronage led to expansion: Henry VI founded King's College in 1441 and Henry VIII established Trinity College in 1546.

After the Reformation, the poor students largely disappeared, to be replaced by the sons of aristocratic and wealthy families. Many of the leading figures of the Renaissance of learning were associated with Cambridge, including Erasmus, long resident at Queen's College, Ascham, and Fisher. An Elizabethan statute of 1570 had the effect of making the wealthy constituent colleges more independent of the university. As puritanism flourished in East Anglia, and many of the students were local, Cambridge supported the parliamentary cause in the Civil War, while Oxford was the headquarters of the royalists: these political sympathies died hard and in the 18th cent. Whiggish Cambridge gave a much more enthusiastic welcome to the

Hanoverians than did Oxford. Academically, Cambridge was characterized by the growth of science, or natural philosophy as it was called, with Newton at Trinity its best-known exponent.

By the middle of the 19th cent. reform was long overdue. Cambridge supported the notion of a royal commission which investigated the two universities from 1850. Two Acts, in 1856 and 1877, did much to break the oligarchical nature of the government of the university. In 1871 Anglican religious exclusiveness was ended. Cambridge's scientific reputation was further enhanced with the opening of the Cavendish Laboratory in 1873, which became famous for its work in experimental physics. Two women's colleges were established at this time, Girton in 1869, Newnham in 1871.

The majority of the heads of colleges are called master. For the first six centuries of its existence, Cambridge, like Oxford, was a seminary, and until 1871 fellows were required to be celibates in holy orders. There are now over 30 colleges. The older foundations date from the Middle Ages, like Corpus Christi College (1352), Pembroke (1357), and Trinity Hall (1390). Several are Tudor, such as Christ's (1505), Trinity, and Emmanuel (1584). Downing was founded in 1800 after a protracted and troublesome legal action over the original bequest by Sir George Downing in 1717. Selwyn and St Edmunds came in the late 19th cent. (1882, 1896). During the 1960s, no fewer than six new colleges came into existence, Churchill (1960), Darwin (1964), Lucy Cavendish (1965), Clare Hall (1966), Fitzwilliam (1966), and Wolfson (1969). Robinson College opened in 1977.

Catholic emancipation

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", p. 177.

Catholic emancipation was achieved by an Act of Parliament of 1829, enabling Roman catholics in Britain to participate fully in public and political life by abolishing the Test and Corporation Acts. It resulted from Daniel O'Connell's campaign to liberate the Irish majority from the political and economic domination of the Anglo-Irish ascendancy. O'Connell's electoral success in the Co. Clare by-election convinced Willington that, short of a standing army, there was no means of controlling Ireland, other than to accede to the demands of the majority English catholics played little part in the campaign. Its effect in resolving the Irish question was only partial, but the impact on British constitutional and religious history was immense. By splitting the Tory Party, with the ultra Tories regarding the actions of Wellington and Peel in bringing in the measure as a gross betrayal, it prepared the way for the Whig victory of 1830 and for the decade of reform which followed.

The Act itself (to Geo. IV c. 7), entitled An Act for the Relief of His Majesty's Roman Catholic Subjects, was carried against the strong opposition of the king and passed on 13 April 1829. It made provision for catholics to serve as members of lay corporations and (except catholic clergy) to sit in Parliament. Most crown offices were opened to catholics, save those of lord chancellor, keeper of the great seal, lord-lieutenant of Ireland and high commissioner of the Church of Scotland. No catholic prelate was to assume a title used by the Church of England, clergy were not to wear clerical dress outside church, and an unenforced ban was placed on religious orders.

The Act shattered the assumption that Britain was de jure and de facto a protestant nation, though the Act of Settlement (1701) forbidding the monarch from being a catholic, or marrying a catholic, remained in force. But Parliament, henceforth open to both protestant and catholic dissenters, was no longer the political forum of the established church.

Attempts by such a heterodox body to legislate for the Church of England were greeted with dismay by certain clerics. The unity of church and state,

enshrined in the revolution settlement of 1689, had been shattered, with consequences few churchmen liked to consider.

Chartism

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 194-195.

Chartism (1837-54) was the first attempt to build an independent political party representing the interests of the labouring and unprivileged sections of the nation. For many of its followers chartism was basically 'a knife and fork question'. Yet its programme was a series of political demands. The link between economic ills and political representation was constantly elaborated in chartist pamphlets and oratory.

The chartists were so named because they formulated their demands in a six-point charter: universal (manhood) suffrage, annual parliaments, vote by (secret) ballot, abolition of property qualifications for MPs, payment of MPs, and equal electoral districts. The object was to make the charter the law of the land by legal, constitutional means if possible, or by force if necessary -- or by a mixture of both: 'peaceably if we can, forcibly if we must.' Great efforts were made to collect support for a petition to the House of Commons on behalf of the charter, but on each occasion the House rejected its demands. Alternative methods were therefore advocated. There were plans for making the central body of chartist delegates, the national convention, a people's parliament which would bypass Westminster; a general strike ('national holiday') was attempted in August 1839; and local riots, and perhaps an abortive insurrection (the Newport rising) in November 1839, showed that 'physical force' might not be ruled out.

In its origins chartism was an umbrella movement which drew together many strands of radical grievance. In London and the provinces Working Men's Associations were formed in 1837, building on the remains of earlier radical reform organizations. In Birmingham, the movement at first was closely allied with

middle-class radicals and currency reformers. In Leeds, Owenite socialists combined with middle-class radicals and physical-force militants to launch the Leeds Working Men's Association. In other towns of the West Riding and the industrial North local movements and grievances (including the 1834 New Poor Law) provided a basis for chartism, which was thus not so much a national movement as a series of local and regional movements, loosely federated. This posed a problem of concerted action which was never solved. Attempts to build a national organization repeatedly fell apart; and the most effective link between chartists was the widely read chartist newspaper the Northern Star.

The geography of chartism reflected the national economic and social structure. Wherever there was a substantial number of skilled artisans, especially shoemakers, printers, tailors, and cabinet-makers, a chartist organization on the lines of the Working Men's Associations was to be expected, with an emphasis on self-help, independence, and propaganda for universal suffrage. Such was the movement in London or Birmingham. But in areas where there were substantial numbers of distressed hand-loom weavers or framework-knitters (as in Lancashire, the West Riding, and the midlands) chartism assumed a fiercer visage and adopted a more strident tone, expressed in mass demonstrations and torchlight meetings on the moors.

Just as the local variations of chartism were related to the structure of the economy, so the chronology of the movement reflected the cycle of booms and slumps between 1836 and 1851. The first climax of chartism came in the winter of 1839 during a severe trade depression. in 1842 a second peak of chartist activity was reached, arising out of mass unemployment in the northern towns. The last great flare-up of chartism came in 1848, following a winter of economic recession and inspired by revolutions on the continent. In periods of relative prosperity (1843-7 and after 1848) chartism lost its mass support. It then became a movement promoting education, temperance, municipal reforms, and settlement on the land -- while never losing faith that universal suffrage would some day, somehow, be

won. After 1848, as a curious epilogue, a group of chartists tried to steer the movement towards socialism and the international working-class movement of Marx and Engels.

The chartists failed to achieve their six points which, with the exception of annual parliaments, were realized later.

Churchill, Sir Winston Leonard Spencer

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 205-206.

Churchill, Sir Winston Leonard Spencer (1874-1965). Britains greatest prime minister, saviour of his country, inspiring orator, and winner of the Nobel prize for literature; Churchill was born at Blenheim palace in 1874, the elder son of Lord Randolph Churchill and grandson of the 7th duke of Marlborough. His mother was the American heiress Jennie Jerome. Educated at Harrow and Sandhurst, he served with the 4th Hussars in Cuba, Malakand, Tirah, and Sudan (1895-8) and rode in the lancers' charge at Omdurman. Between 1899 and 1900 he was a war correspondent in South Africa, where he was captured by the Boers but escaped. He enjoyed wars and was the first prime minister since the duke of Wellington to have fought in battle. He saw active service in the trenches for a few months in 1916 and during the Second World War, when London was being bombed, confessed that he 'loved the bangs'. After 1945 his martial spirit was held against him and ill-founded accusations of war-mongering were made.

In 1900entered the House of Commons as a Conservative but crossed the floor within four years to join the Liberals on the issue of free trade. Returned as a Liberal at the next election, he gained his first ministerial experience under Campbell-Bannerman as under-secretary for the colonies. Asquith brought him into the cabinet at the age of 33 as president of the Board of Trade (1908) and moved him to the Home Office before he had reached the age of 35 (1910). By now Churchill had married Clementine Hozier (1908)-to whom he proposed four

times before he won acceptance. She was to provide him with a stable emotional base for the rest of his life. Meanwhile, along with Lloyd George, he played a major part in laying the foundations of the welfare state by establishing labour exchanges and social insurance. His tenure of the Home Office, on the other hand, is remembered for the myth that he sent troops to Wales to crush the striking miners of Tonypandy (1910) and for his appearance at the siege of Sidney Street (1911).

In 1911 he became 1st lord of the Admiralty and a historical figure of significance for the first time. Completing the work of the recently retired Admiral Fisher, he replaced dreadnoughts with super-dreadnoughts, established a naval air service, and began the conversion of the fleet from coal to oil. In the words of historian M. D. R. Foot, 'the outbreak of war in 1914 found much the world's strongest fleet fully mobilised at its war stations, and able to exercise an international impact, which, over four and a quarter years proved decisive. It was as much Fisher's achievement as Churchill's, but neither could have achieved as much as he did without the other.'

Having the fleet ready was one of Churchill's contributions to the British war effort between 1914 and 1918. Another was the part he played in the development of the tank. However, he was remembered most of all for conceiving the 1915 Dardanelles campaign, designed to shorten the war by removing Turkey and allowing the western allies to link up with Russia. Approved by the war cabinet and given the half-hearted support of Fisher (who had been recalled in 1914 but who in Churchill's own words 'went mad' the following year), the attack on Gallipoli failed due to naval delays and the lack of troops to effect a surprise landing. In its wake, Asquith was forced to form a coalition with the Conservatives, who loathed Churchill as a renegade, and had him transferred from the Admiralty to become chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. Lacking any influence over the course of the war, Churchill resigned the position and took command of a battalion of the Royal Scots Fusiliers in France. A few months later

he was recalled by Lloyd George to become minister of munitions, although his influence on events remained minimal. Between 1918 and 1920 he was secretary of state for war and air, in which capacity he was responsible for running down the planned post-war Royal Air Force from 154 squadrons to 24, with only two for home defence. He was also responsible for ensuring that demobilization proceeded peacefully, a task which he fulfilled successfully. His attempts, on the other hand, to persuade his colleagues to overthrow the Bolsheviks in Russia were unsuccessful. Intervention did take place -- to prevent allied stores falling into German hands -- but Churchill had to organize the withdrawal of British troops. His true instincts, however, became well known and played their part in building up his image as an arch-enemy of the organized working class. The Tonypandy myth, plus his role during the 1926 General Strike, helped consolidate this reputation.

In 1921 he became colonial secretary and made a treaty with the Irish Free State. He also negotiated a peace settlement with the Arabs, advised by T. E. Lawrence. Although he opposed Lloyd George's policy towards the Turks, he gave his prime minister vociferous support over the Chanak crisis of 1922. When the coalition fell a few months later, he was defeated in the 1922 election and began work on his history of the First World War, the first volume of which was published in 1923 (it was completed in 1931). A friend quipped: ' Winston has written an enormous book about himself and called it The World Crisis.'

Returning to the Commons in October 1924, he was offered the chancellorship of the Exchequer by Baldwin and rejoined the Conservative Party. In 1925 he put Great Britain back on the gold standard, unfortunately at the pre-war parity of £1 = $1, which was of little help to British exporters. Three years later he introduced the 'ten-year rule', whereby the service estimates would be prepared on the assumption that no war was likely for the next ten years. Meanwhile, he was only prevented from running down the navy as he had already run down the RAF by the threatened resignation of the entire Board of Admiralty.

Even so, much of the grand fleet he had controlled before 1914 was broken up. In the General Strike of 1926, he took overall command of the government newspaper the British Gazette. This reinforced the hostility of organized labour towards him, but in fact he was not as bellicose against the miners as people assumed. Churchill's star, however, was set to wane. With the fall of Baldwin's government in 1929, he was out of office for the next ten years.

Churchill himself turned the 1930s into his wilderness years by choosing to wander in the political desert. His attacks on constitutional progress in India, inspired by a romantic vision of the India of his youth, and his defence of Edward VIII found little response among a British public used to the idea of independent dominions and determined not to have an American divorcee as queen at any price. Nor was Churchill able to capture the public imagination as the ideological foe of fascism. He admired Mussolini and sympathized with Franco during the spanish Civil War. Finally, on the great economic questions of the day -- unemployment, protection, recovery -- he had little to say, unlike Lloyd George, who in the words of A. J. P. Taylor 'produced a rich stock of creative ideas'.

In the 1930s, however, Churchill did take up the cause of resistance to Nazi Germany. There were many obstacles to this and British governments were all too well aware of them: pacifist sentiment after the First World War; belief in the League of Nations; sympathy for Germany's desire to rewrite the treaty of Versailles; not least, fear of the bomber. The Treasury in particular opposed rearmament, also with good cause: America's refusal to provide loans; war debts from the First World War; fear of inflation and the crowding-out of civilian investment; difficulties with management and labour if the economy had to be directed; a possible taxpayers' revolt; the lack of sufficient gold and foreign currency reserves to import both food and raw materials in wartime. After a year of war, Britain, it predicted, would be bankrupt. The chiefs of staff, for their part, advised that it would be impossible to fight a war on three fronts simultaneously against Germany, Italy, and Japan around the globe. Britain would simply lose.

The Foreign Office, finally, asked just who our allies were going to be. America was neutral, the dominions unpredictable, and even if the Soviets could be brought in, an alliance with them might push Franco into the arms of the axis and close off the Mediterranean. The appeasers, therefore, had a good case. Churchill, on the other hand, was a sort of appeaser too. He did not believe that war was inevitable and knew that Hitler wanted Britain as an ally. However, he believed that a grand alliance against the dictator would make him moderate his plans, at which stage his grievances could be considered. If not, perhaps he could be overthrown before it came to war. But if Germany would not see reason, then war it would be. He envisaged that war, however, as one in which Britain would make her contribution with sea and air power. He thought a continental army a mistake.

When war came, Churchill returned to the Admiralty, although he acted as if he were already prime minister. Almost immediately he became involved in a madcap scheme to send an expeditionary force to Norway, ostensibly to help save Finland from the Russians, but in practice to cut off Swedish iron ore from the Germans. The lack of air cover, however, plus shambohc planning meant that the whole campaign was a disaster. Ironically, Chamberlain was blamed and Churchill became prime minister at the head of a national government.

As war leader, Churchillwas a mixture of ruthlessness and impetuosity. Concerned to do everything possible to win the war, in practice he had few means of doing so. Still, he did what he could, which meant the bombing offensive, plus the Mediterranean campaign. Determined to have action, he prodded and sacked his generals and made many mistakes -- sinking the French fleet at Oran, invading Greece, defending Crete, neglecting the Far East. Yet his position as prime minister was secure, since he had become in the summer of 1940 the spirit of British resistance incarnate, defying the Nazis with speeches of supreme eloquence that reflected the emotional mood of the nation precisely. His real hope of victory depended on the entry of the USA, and, when that happened, Churchill persuaded

the Americans both to make Europe the primary theatre of the war and to participate in the north African campaign. When Hitler attacked Stalin, he immediately offered aid to the Soviets, his only war aim being the destruction of Nazi Germany. Towards the end of the war, in October 1944, aware of US plans to send their troops home once the war was over, he signed the Percentages agreement with Stalin, dividing the Balkans into spheres of influence and saving Greece from communism.

As war leader, Churchill had little time for the home front. Nor was he much interested in post-war planning. When the Beveridge Report was published in 1942, he doubted whether a bankrupt Britain would be able to afford the welfare state which it envisaged. In any case, he had left domestic affairs to Attlee and his Labour colleagues, which proved a mistake. For it was to them that the electorate turned in July 1945 once victory had been secured over Germany. Churchill was still adored and respected, but the voters guessed correctly that he was not the man for post-war reconstruction. As leader of the Conservative Party and of the opposition, on the other hand, he was more politically secure than he had ever been before in peacetime. His voice continued to be heard in international affairs and, just as he had warned against the rising threat from Hitler, he now warned against the 'iron curtain' which was descending over Europe. He also spoke out in favour of a united Europe, although he never meant that Britain should be part of it.

In 1951 he returned as prime minister. He was now 77 years old, had suffered two strokes, and would suffer two more. Yet his government was highly successful. Eden shone as foreign secretary, Macmillan built a record number of council houses, and nothing was done to undermine the welfare state, inherited from Labour. Churchill attempted to arrange a summit conference with the Soviets after the death of Stalin in 1953, but Eisenhower would hear none of it. He in turn rejected Eisenhower's request the following year to involve the British in Vietnam to save the French, In April 1955 he agreed to retire as prime minister, completing a career without equal among democratic politicians. He died, still an MP, in 1965,

was given a state funeral, and was buried in Bladon churchyard. No attempts to revise or belittle his reputation have yet proved successful.

Eastern Question

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", p. 320.

Eastern Question. This was the problem created by the slow collapse of the Ottoman (Turkish) empire, which seemed likely to leave a power vacuum in the Balkans and lead to a general European war. Turkey's weakness became apparent in a series of wars with Russia in the late 18th cent. In 1783 Russia obtained the Crimea. Greece gained her independence, in an agreement brokered by Britain, France, and Russia, after an armed struggle (1821-30). European opinion was divided by anxiety for the balance of power, if Turkey ceased to be a great power, and sympathy for the Christian subjects of a Muslim and decayed empire, reinforced in the case of Greece by memories of her classical glories. The British feared that, if the Turkish empire broke up, Russian power would be enhanced and would become an increasing threat to the British empire in India. Russia gained some territory by the treaty of Adrianople at the end of the Russo-Turkish war of 1828-9 but Russian policy was thereafter governed by the conviction that an intact Turkish empire provided a buffer state which would be preferable to a partition. The Crimean War of 1854-6, in which Britain, France, and Turkey fought Russia, was the result of miscalculations, arising from France and Russia's over-vigorous championing of the rights of catholic and orthodox Christians respectively, and Britain's misplaced fears that Russia wished to partition the empire and seize Constantinople (Istanbul). Nationalist feelings in the Balkans grew and the problem flared up again in the 1870s. The Bosnians rose in 1875, followed by the Bulgarians in 1876. The Bulgarians were repressed with particular brutality (the 'Bulgarian Horrors'). Russia declared war on Turkey but the other powers thought the peace treaty (treaty of San Stefano, 1877) too favourable to Russia and amended it at the Congress of Berlin (1878). European opinion wavered over the

next 30 years between the comparative stability provided by the Ottoman empire and the volatility of the emerging Balkan states. The situation was complicated by the rival ambitions of the latter. Serbia and Bulgaria, for example, fought each other in 1885. It was also feared that the emergence of Slav states in the Balkans would destabilize the Austrian empire. It can plausibly be argued that the Eastern Question caused the First World War. Austria angered Serbia by annexing Bosnia in 1908. Russia helped to organize the Balkan League of Serbia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Greece, which went to war with Turkey in 1912. Militarily they were successful but they then fought between themselves over the spoils. The situation was still unstable when the heir to the Austrian throne was assassinated in the Bosnian capital, Sarajevo, in 1914. The Austrians blamed the Serbs. Russia, which had been unable to aid the Serbs in 1908, now backed them. Ultimatums, mobilizations, and war followed within weeks.

Fools and jesters

Adopted from "The Oxford Companion to British History", pp. 382-383.

Fools and jesters. Laughter-makers were employed at court in the classical world and in many ancient monarchies. They had various functions -- to entertain, to prick solemnity, to defuse awkward situations. They were often allowed considerable licence, though pertness had its dangers. Some were genuinely foolish (John Stultum = ' Stupid') but were tolerated on the principle that there are truths that only madmen know. The heyday of the court fool seems to have been late medieval and early modern, and the jester's costume -- green and yellow patchwork garments, cap, bells, and stick -- was introduced in the 15th cent. Most fools had their own specialities -- singing, dancing, juggling, tumbling, or mimicry. Many of the royal fools are known to us. Martinet of Gascony served Edward I; John Scogan was at Edward IV's court and a jest-book attributed to him came out as late as 1570; Will Somers, said to be a good mimic, served Henry VIII, who also took over Wolsey's fool, Patch; Jeffrey Hudson, dwarf and fool to Charles I, turned cavalry leader during the civil wars. Great noblemen and ecclesiastics also had

their fools. Patison, More's fool, was painted by Holbein with his master; the priory of Worcester kept a fool and the prior went in person to order his costume.

Few fools are to be found in the 18th cent. Court life became more dignified and ceremonious; taste changed and buffoonery went out of fashion; the great teeming households full of servants and retainers gave way to a more private existence; card-playing and conversation left little room for full-time jesters; 18th-cent. polite society no longer found dwarfs or little men funny in themselves. Shake speare's fools -- Touchstone and Lear's fool -- have a more complex role, singing and diverting, but also acting as chorus on events. Their laughter is often shot through with melancholy and Olivia's clown brings down the curtain in Twelfth Night with 'the rain it raineth every day'.

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