

UNIVERSITÀ CA' FOSCARI DI VENEZIA

L I N G U E S T R A N I E R E A F I N I S P E C I A L I

2

Collana diretta da Dario Calimani

Da molti anni, lo studio della *lingua straniera* — per lo più inglese — a *fini speciali* ha avuto per oggetto primario la lingua commerciale. Ogni altro approccio, anche negli ambiti universitari più diversi, si è spesso dovuto servire di testi di carattere generico, sia sul piano linguistico che su quello dei contenuti.

A rendere pressante, per ogni ambito professionale e culturale, la necessità di comunicare nelle maggiori lingue europee con precisa cognizione dei diversi lessici specialistici, è l'ormai diffusa realtà del “villaggio globale” e delle sue più dirette implicazioni.

Da queste considerazioni, e da esperienze pluriennali di insegnamento universitario, deriva l'esigenza di agili strumenti didattici, improntati a fini pratici e funzionali piuttosto che genericamente culturali, per un insegnamento della lingua più funzionale alle aree disciplinari dei diversi Corsi di laurea. Una nuova strategia didattica che, coniugando insieme competenze linguistiche diverse, ha come scopo primario la concentrazione dell'impegno e l'incisività del risultato.

La presente collana intende rispondere a queste esigenze. Lo studente adulto potrà così acquisire rapida padronanza di strutture grammaticali, lessico di base e forme idiomatiche, appropriandosi al tempo stesso del lessico specialistico del suo specifico campo di interesse.

Una finalizzazione sempre più mirata della didattica delle lingue straniere sembra ormai il passaporto d'obbligo per un laureato alle porte dell'Europa.

Dario Calimani

Volumi della collana:

English for the Arts

English for Economics

English for History and Philosophy

English for Welfare Services

Volumi in preparazione

English for Science

Deutsch für Geisteswissenschaftler

Le discours historique et philosophique en Français

Geraldine Ludbrook

English for History and Philosophy

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INTRODUCTION

English for History and Philosophy has been written for university students whose knowledge of English is limited to what they have learned in a general language course, but whose needs are increasingly directed towards specific language skills. It aims at providing students with the linguistic proficiency necessary to deal confidently with the kind of English text they may find themselves required to read during their undergraduate studies or when involved in post-graduate research. Every attempt has been made to create a flexible study tool, combining authentic reading material, a practical review of relevant grammar points, and some contrastive analysis to provide greater clarity for Italian students.

The first part of the book is made up of fifteen units, each of which opens with a short text introducing the topic of the unit and placing it in a cultural and historical context. The themes have been chosen with the specific objective of introducing the Italian student to aspects of British institutions and culture that they may not have encountered in their previous studies. A second longer reading passage provides an authentic text related to the issue under examination. A chronological layout has been chosen for the presentation of the various topics, touching on significant moments in British history and thought, which has permitted the introduction of a wide range of linguistic questions: from historical aspects, including archaic vocabulary, spelling and grammar, to contemporary issues, such as American English, neologisms, and political correctness.

Each reading passage is accompanied by a glossary of the most difficult words, compiled with attention to the common problems faced by Italian students. Words that often confuse students due to their similarity to Italian while having a different meaning in English are indicated with an asterisk. Appendix IV contains a list of the most common of these so-called ‘false friends’. Where extremely technical vocabulary is found, the glossaries have been subdivided to provide sets of specialist words. At the end of each unit, there is a short list of further useful words related to specific topics, to which the student is invited to add. All the irregular verbs in the glossaries are supplied with their past forms, and Appendix I lists the most common irregular verbs.

Notes on each passage draw attention to other difficulties, clarifying them or referring students to other parts of the book where more detailed information can be found. This section often contains interesting additional historical, so-

cial or cultural material. Three short comprehension questions then invite the student to skim the text for specific points. The Word Study sections in each unit focus on morphology and word formation, an important and flexible aspect of the English language, to assist recognition of unknown vocabulary. The prefixes and suffixes are brought together in Appendix II, where their main meanings and functions are set out and examples are given.

Each unit contains a series of grammar exercises, accompanied by an outline of the grammar point in question. This is not intended as a complete explanation, but rather a review of the main difficulties likely to be encountered in texts of this kind with practice at a pre-intermediate/intermediate level. A Key to the exercises at the end of the book will be useful for those students studying the material without the help of a teacher.

As the elements of grammar introduced are closely linked to the reading passages, some attention has been focussed on formal aspects of the language, such as choices of vocabulary and register, which are necessary for a more academic approach to English. In addition, some archaic words and structures are explained to facilitate understanding of authentic texts. An innovative element in this regard is the consideration given to historical developments in the English language, and notes to the reading passages point to archaic vocabulary, spelling and grammatical structures. The Appendices, too, reflect this approach: Appendix III revises numbers and dates; Appendix V lists weights and measures, including historical notes and units; and Appendix VI is a short essay on the history of the English language. Appendix VII contains some useful websites for consultation by students of history and philosophy.

While the principal aim of the book is to assist students in developing their reading skills, attention has also been given to writing practice based on language functions, such as stating and contrasting, comparing, cause and effect, describing trends.

Finally, eight further reading passages have been included to provide students with the opportunity to put into practice the various reading strategies and skills developed throughout the course. Students are given a series of suggestions as to how they can make best use of this material. It is to be hoped that they will then be able to continue the application of the competencies acquired in their future studies.

Geraldine Ludbrook

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Grateful thanks to Professor P.F. Strawson to reproduce the extract from his article “Self, mind and body” and to Professor Colin Allen for permission to use his article “Animal Consciousness”.

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UNIT 1

THE BRITISH LEGAL SYSTEM

The British legal system has its origins in Anglo-Saxon traditions when each shire and hundred had a local court that dispensed justice in accordance with local custom and the wishes of the local barons. The Norman Conquest that followed the defeat of King Harold of England by William the Duke of Normandy in 1066 did not totally uproot English law, institutions and customs. William set about imposing a national system of law, strengthening the principles of law that were common to the whole realm: the Common Law. With the Assize of Clarendon (1164) and the Assize of Northampton (1176), a system based on custom and precedent established by court decisions was instituted, and judges travelled throughout the country to enforce the king's justice. The Normans also probably brought the jury to England. Early juries were generally made up of people with personal knowledge of a dispute. Later, formally produced evidence became the basis for decision by an objective jury.

In the 12th and 13th centuries, after the foundation of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, English students no longer travelled to Paris to study law. The universities, however, were also ecclesiastical institutions, and when a regular training in English law for secular lawyers was established, it was based in London in an area between the City of London and Westminster. There the students resided in the four Inns of Court and Chancery, which were built close together just outside the City wall. This area in the centre of London is still the heart of the English legal world.

The legal system in Scotland differs from that of England and Wales. Due to close trading and academic links with mainland Europe, Scottish law is based on Civil Law. Unlike Common Law, Civil Law is based on codified principles, and Civil Law courts do not generally employ trial by jury or the law of evidence. The English and Scottish Parliaments were united in 1707 by the Treaty of Union, which retained a separate system of private and local law, thus creating a legal system that combined both civil and common law principles. England, Scotland and Wales, however, share the same commercial and fiscal laws.

Today, lay magistrates hear most cases. However, in more serious matters the accused has the right to choose to be judged by his peers, i.e. by a jury. Prosecutions are brought by an independent barrister for the Crown, so that the judge does not directly elicit evidence as to guilt or innocence; the jury decides whether guilt has been proved beyond reasonable doubt on the basis

of the evidence presented by the Crown. Civil courts deal with disputes other than criminal, and are integrated by Tribunals for specific areas of law, such as social security and employment, as well as informal court procedures dealing with small claims.

The Magistrates' Court is the lowest level of criminal court in England and Wales. Here, Justices of the Peace try almost all cases. These lay magistrates are not professional paid judges; their knowledge of the law comes mainly from their experience. The Clerk of the Court, who is a trained lawyer, gives them legal advice.

The Crown Courts, which were introduced in 1971, try more serious criminal cases before a jury made up of twelve people chosen at random from the electoral register.

Most civil cases are heard in the County Courts, which deal with less important cases of minor complexity. More weighty and complex civil cases are handled by the High Court. The Chancery Division deals with land, property and inheritance matters, intellectual property issues (patents, trademarks and copyright), and industrial disputes. The Queen's Bench Division manages common law business such as tort and contractual disputes. There is also a Family Division.

There are different kinds of lawyers in the English legal system. A barrister pleads in the higher courts; a solicitor advises clients on matters of law, draws up legal documents, such as wills, and prepares cases for barristers; a notary, or notary public, is a public official who is legally authorised to take oaths, attest and certify certain documents.

Joining the European Community in 1972 had an important effect on the constitution and laws of Britain. Regulations drafted by the European Commission, and the provisions of the Treaty of Rome are directly applicable by British courts. The European Court of Justice may be referred to for a preliminary ruling when there are problems of interpretation. In 1999, the European Convention on Human Rights was incorporated into British law.

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<http://old.britcouncil.org/governance/uklaw/system.index.htm>.

GLOSSARY

shire = contea	to deal (dealt, dealt) with = occuparsi di
hundred = suddivisione di contea	employment = lavoro
defeat = sconfitta	claim = ricorso
to uproot = sradicare	to try = processare, giudicare
to set (set, set) about = accingersi	Clerk of the Court = cancelliere
to strengthen = rafforzare	trained = esperto
realm = regno	at random = a caso
evidence = prova	weighty = importante
training = formazione	to handle = trattare
secular = laico	matter = materia
inn = locanda	patents = brevetti
trading links = legami commerciali	copyright = diritti d'autore
mainland = continentale	Chancery = Cancelleria
unlike = a differenza di	Queen's Bench = alta giurisdizione di common law
to employ = usare, valersi di	tort = torto, danno
trial = processo	to plead (pleaded, pled) = patrocinare, difendere
to share = condividere	to advise = consigliare
to hear (heard, heard) a case = esaminare, giudicare una causa	to draw (drew, drawn) up = redigere, stendere
lay = non professionale	will = testamento
right = diritto	to perform = eseguire
to choose (chose, chose) = scegliere	to act for = rappresentare
peers = pari	oath = giuramento
to bring (brought, brought) a prosecution = intentare un processo	to join = entrare a far parte di
to elicit = sollecitare	to draft = redigere
guilt = colpevolezza	provision = disposizione
to prove beyond all reasonable doubt = provare al di là di ogni ragionevole dubbio	ruling = decisione

NOTES

Great Britain (GB) is made up of England, Scotland and Wales. The official name of the country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (the UK), which is made up of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The British Isles is a geographical term used for the two major islands of Great Britain and Ireland and the other smaller surrounding islands. The collective name given to the people of Britain is Britons. The official language of the country is English, although Scottish, Irish, and Welsh, languages of Celtic origins, are still spoken in these countries.

Note the difference between *to set about* ('start') and *to set up* ('establish'). Other *set + preposition/adverb* combinations are *to set down* ('record'), *to set off* ('depart'), *to set out* ('present or explain').

Several verbs are written with the ending *-ise* while the related noun is written *-ice*: *to advise – advice; to practise – practice*. In American English, the noun is also written *-ise*.

The plural of *notary public* is *notaries public*. See Unit 5 for other irregular plural forms.

WORD STUDY

The prefixes *un-*, *in-*, *im-*, *il-* are often used to make adjectives negative. The prefix *in-* tends to be used before words of Latinate origins; *il-* before an initial *l*; *im-* before the letters *b, m, p*.

Use one of the prefixes to modify the meaning of the following sentences:

- 1) Jack is an extremely happy man.
- 2) His behaviour is most correct.
- 3) It is also legal.
- 4) And I think even moral.
- 5) Their accident was very fortunate.
- 6) He is no longer dependent.
- 7) A solution is possible.
- 8) Your handwriting is legible

GRAMMAR REVIEW

SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

The Simple Present tense is used

- (a) to express general truths and states:

England, Scotland and Wales share the same commercial and fiscal laws.

- (b) to describe habits or general actions:

A barrister pleads in the higher courts.

- (c) to refer to a single, instantaneous event:

I enclose the papers for the trial.

It is often used with frequency adverbs, such as *always, often, sometimes, usually, rarely, never*.

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The Present Continuous tense is used

- (a) to express an activity happening now:

The court is trying the case this morning.

- (b) to refer to an event that is not completed:

The judge is dealing with several cases this month.

It is generally used with time expressions such as *at present, now, nowadays*.

FUTURE REFERENCE

Both the Simple Present and the Present Continuous tenses can be used to refer to future time.

The Simple Present can be used for a planned action or series of actions within a predetermined time frame, especially timetables:

The court meets next Monday. My train leaves at 10 pm.

The Present Continuous can be used to refer to a planned future arrangement with an expression of future time: *We are seeing the solicitor tomorrow.*

See Unit 11 for other ways of referring to the future.

PAST REFERENCE

The Simple Present may also be used to refer to past time:

- (a) in dramatic narration (historic present):

The people in the courtroom stare at the prisoner as he declares his innocence.

- (b) to refer to writers and their works:

Shakespeare explores questions of good and evil in his tragedies.

- (c) in newspaper headlines:

MP kills wife.

Exercise 1

Choose between the simple present and the present continuous tense.

- 1) Every year the legal system *tries / is trying* thousands of cases.
- 2) It *gets / is getting* more and more difficult to cope with crime.
- 3) The government *hopes / is hoping* to introduce some reforms.

- 4) It *discusses / is discussing* the question next week.
- 5) I *agree / am agreeing* with most of the proposals.
- 6) The legal system *needs / is needing* attention, too.
- 7) Today, lawyers and magistrates *work / are working* towards reform.
- 8) They usually *meet / are meeting* once a month to discuss current issues.

The negative of the Simple Present is formed by the use of the auxiliary verb *do not* or *does not* before the infinitive of the main verb:

The Magistrates' Court doesn't (does not) handle serious criminal cases.

The negative of the Present Continuous tense is formed by adding *not* to the auxiliary verb *to be*:

The barristers aren't (are not) representing him any more.

Exercise 2

Make the following sentences negative.

- 1) The county court hears criminal cases.
- 2) Law graduates are paid while they train.
- 3) Britain has a unified legal system.
- 4) Barristers work in the lower courts.
- 5) She is working as a JP at the moment.
- 6) She is enjoying the work.
- 7) Her colleagues are advising her on some matters.
- 8) They are giving her a lot of help.

The interrogative form of the Simple Present tense uses the auxiliary verb *do* or *does* with the infinitive of the main verb:

Does the County Court deal with civil cases?

The interrogative form of the Present Continuous tense places the appropriate form of the verb *to be* before the subject of the sentence:

Is the solicitor preparing the case?

Exercise 3

Write questions for these answers.

- 1) _____
No, I'm a lawyer.
- 2) _____
He's a criminal lawyer.
- 3) _____
They're working in London at the moment.
- 4) _____
Yes, the sentence is final.
- 5) _____
She prefers criminal law to family law.
- 6) _____
I rarely see my lawyer – about once a month.
- 7) _____
I'm meeting him next week.
- 8) _____
It is his fault I am in gaol.

STATE AND DYNAMIC VERBS

Verbs that refer to states are not normally used in the progressive tenses.

There are five groups of state verbs:

- (a) verbs expressing feelings (*like, love, hate, enjoy, etc.*)
- (b) verbs referring to intellectual states (*forget, understand, know, etc.*)
- (c) verbs about wants (*want, need, etc.*)
- (d) verbs of perception (*feel, hear, see, smell, taste*)
- (e) verbs of being/having/owning (*appear, seem, belong, possess, etc.*)

Some state verbs can have a dynamic meaning:

<i>He always thinks he's right.</i>	(opinion)
<i>We're thinking about the problem.</i>	(considering)
<i>We have a car.</i>	(possession)
<i>The new law is having a positive effect.</i>	(making)
<i>She is an experienced lawyer.</i>	(state)
<i>She is being very aggressive today.</i>	(behaving)
<i>He doesn't hear very well.</i>	(perception)
<i>The court is hearing the witness.</i>	(listening formally to)

When we refer to temporary states, the state verbs can be used in a continuous form. Compare:

I enjoy sport.

I'm not enjoying this game much.

I live in London.

I'm living in Oxford while I am at university.

Some verbs can have both forms with very little difference in meaning:

They feel / are feeling very optimistic. *My back hurts / is hurting.*

Exercise 4

Choose the correct form – Simple Present or Present Continuous.

- 1) We *see / are seeing* a lawyer tomorrow.
- 2) He *wants / is wanting* to act for me in court.
- 3) Legal representation *costs / is costing* a lot nowadays.
- 4) The court *hears / is hearing* the case at this very minute.
- 5) My solicitor *thinks / is thinking* about what step to take.
- 6) The judge *is / is being* very severe in her judgements today.
- 7) She *has / is having* no regrets about the legal action she took.
- 8) I *think / am thinking* you did the right thing to leave her.

Exercise 5

Correct the mistake in each sentence.

- 1) I'm preferring to study law.
- 2) England and Scotland are sharing the same laws.
- 3) The Prime Minister speaks to the High Court judges next week.
- 4) He is seeming very certain about his position.
- 5) My brother is hating his tutor.
- 6) He is never studying hard.
- 7) I think of following the same course as him.
- 8) I have a talk with his tutor soon.

SOME EXPRESSIONS OF PRESENT TIME

now	<i>She has qualified as a lawyer now.</i>
at present	<i>There are no grounds at present of making an appeal.</i>
today	<i>English law is undergoing important change today.</i>
nowadays	<i>Nowadays legal aid is available for people with little money.</i>
the present day	<i>He studies law from its origins to the present day.</i>
these days	<i>These days lawyers are trained in European law.</i>
in this day and age	<i>Even in this day and age people don't know the law.</i>
in the 21st century	<i>In the 21st century different legal systems will be united.</i>

FURTHER READING

The Constitutions of Clarendon is the name given to sixteen articles issued by Henry II of England at the Assize of Clarendon in 1164. An important step in the development of English law, the Constitutions extended the jurisdiction of civil over church courts.

THE CONSTITUTIONS OF CLARENDON 1164

From the year of our Lord's incarnation 1164, the fourth year of the papacy of Alexander the tenth, of the most illustrious Henry, king of the English, in the presence of the same king, was made this remembrance or recognition of a certain part of the customs, liberties, and dignities of his predecessors, that is to say of King Henry his grandfather and others, which ought to be observed and held in the kingdom. And because of discensions and discords which had arisen between the clergy and the lord king's justices and the barons of the kingdom concerning the customs and dignities, this recognition has been made before the archbishops and bishops and clergy, and the earls and barons and great men of the kingdom. And these same customs declared by the archbishops, bishops, earls, and barons, and by the nobler and older men of the kingdom, Thomas archbishop of Canterbury and Roger archbishop of York and Gilbert bishop of London and Henry bishop of Winchester and Nigel bishop of Ely and William bishop of Norwich and Robert bishop of

Lincoln and Hilary bishop of Chichester and Jocelin bishop of Salisbury and Richard bishop of Chester and Bartholomew bishop of Exeter and Robert bishop of Hereford and David bishop of St. David's and Roger elect of Worcester conceded and on the word of truth firmly promised by word of mouth should be held and observed for the lord king and his heirs in good faith and without subtlety [...]

A certain part of the customs and dignities which were recognised is contained in the present writing. Of which part these are the articles:

1. If a controversy arise between laymen, or between laymen and clerks, or between clerks concerning patronage and presentation of churches, it shall be treated or concluded in the court of the lord king.
2. Churches of the lord king's fee cannot be permanently bestowed without his consent and grant.
3. Clerks charged and accused of any matter, summoned by the king's justice, shall come into his court to answer there to whatever it shall seem to the king's court should be answered there; and in the church court to what it seems should be answered there; however the king's justice shall send into the court of holy Church for the purpose of seeing how the matter shall be treated there. And if the clerk be convicted or confess, the church ought not to protect him further.
4. It is not permitted the archbishops, bishops, and priests of the kingdom to leave the kingdom without the lord king's permission. And if they do leave they are to give security, if the lord king please, that they will seek no evil or damage to king or kingdom in going, in making their stay, or in returning.
5. Excommunicate persons ought not to give security for an indefinite time, or give an oath, but only security and pledge for submitting to the judgement of the church in order that they may be absolved.
6. Laymen ought not to be accused save by dependable and lawful accusers and witnesses in the presence of the bishop, yet so that the archdeacon lose not this right or anything which he ought to have thence. And if there should be those who are deemed culpable, but whom no one wishes or dares to accuse, the sheriff, upon the bishop's request, shall cause twelve lawful men of the neighbourhood or the vill to take oath before the bishop that they will show the truth of the matter according to their conscience.

7. No one who holds of the king in chief or any of the officials of his demesne is to be excommunicated or his lands placed under interdict unless the lord king, if he be in the land, or his justiciar, if he be outside the kingdom, first gives his consent, that he may do for him what is right: yet so that what pertains to the royal court be concluded there, and what looks to the church court be sent thither to be concluded there.

8. As to appeals which may arise, they should pass from the archdeacon to the bishop, and from the bishop to the archbishop. And if the archbishop fail in furnishing justice, the matter should come to the lord king at the last, that at his command the litigation be concluded in the archbishop's court; and so because it should not pass further without the lord king's consent.

9. If litigation arise between a clerk concerning any holding which the clerk would bring to charitable tenure but the layman to lay fee, it shall be determined on the decision of the king's chief justice by the recognition of twelve lawful men in the presence of the king's justice himself whether the holding pertain to charitable tenure or to lay fee. And if the recognition declare it to be charitable tenure, it shall be litigated in the church court, but if lay fee, unless both plead under the same bishop or baron, the litigation shall be in the royal court. But if both plead concerning that fief under the same bishop or baron, it shall be litigated in his court; yet so that he who was first seised lose not his seisin on account of the recognition that was made, until the matter be determined by the plea.

10. If any one who is of a city, castle, borough, or demesne manor of the king shall be cited by archdeacon or bishop for any offence for which he ought to be held answerable to them and despite their summonses he refuse to do what is right, it is fully permissible to place him under interdict, but he ought not to be excommunicated before the king's chief official of that vill shall agree, in order that he may authoritatively constrain him to come to his trial. But if the king's official fail in this, he himself shall be in the lord king's mercy; and then the bishop shall be able to coerce the accused man by ecclesiastical authority.

11. Archbishops, bishops, and all ecclesiastics of the kingdom who hold of the king in chief have their possessions of the lord king as barony and answer for them to the king's justices and ministers and follow and do all royal rights and customs; and they ought, just like other barons, to be present at the judgements of the lord king's court along with the barons, until it come in judgement to loss of limbs or death.

12. When an archbishopric or bishopric, or an abbey or priory of the king's demesne shall be vacant, it ought to be in his hands, and he shall assume its revenues and expenses as pertaining to his demesne. And when the time comes to provide for the church, the lord king should notify the more important clergy of the church, and the election should be held in the lord king's own chapel with the assent of the lord king and on the advice of the clergy of the realm whom he has summoned for the purpose. And there, before he be consecrated, let the elect perform homage and fealty to the lord king as his liege lord for life, limbs, and earthly honour, saving his order.

13. If any of the great men of the kingdom should forcibly prevent archbishop, bishop, or archdeacon from administering justice in which he or his men were concerned, then the lord king ought to bring such an one to justice. And if it should happen that any one deforce the lord king of his right, archbishops, bishops, and archdeacons ought to constrain him to make satisfaction to the lord king.

14. Chattels which have been forfeited to the king are not to be held in churches or cemeteries against the king's justice, because they belong to the king whether they be found inside churches or outside.

15. Pleas concerning debts, which are owed on the basis of an oath or in connection with which no oath has been taken, are in the king's justice.

16. Sons of villeins should not be ordained without the consent of the lord on whose land it is ascertained they were born.

The declaration of the above-mentioned royal customs and dignities has been made by the archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, and the nobler and older men of the kingdom, at Clarendon on the fourth day before the Purification of the Blessed Virgin Mary, lord Henry being present there with the lord king his father. There are, indeed, many other great customs and dignities of holy mother church and of the lord king and barons of the kingdom, which are not included in this writing, but which are to be preserved to holy church and to the lord king and his heirs and the barons of the kingdom, and are to be kept inviolate for ever.

Source: *The Constitutions of Clarendon 1164*, translated in Albert Beebe White and Wallace Notestein, eds. *Source Problems in English History* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1915).

GLOSSARY

to issue = emettere	evil = male
dignity = carica	oath = giuramento
held = mantenuto	pledge = pegno
kingdom = regno	save = salvo, eccetto
to arise (arose, arisen) = sorgere	dependable = fidato, affidabile
clergy = clero	witness = testimone
bishop = vescovo	to be deemed = essere considerato
earl = titolo nobiliare inglese (conte)	to look to = dipendere
on the word of truth = in fede	litigation = controversia
by word of mouth = oralmente, a parole	holding = proprietà
heir = erede	plea = decisione
in good faith = in buona fede	answerable = responsabile
subtlety = sotterfugi	to coerce = costringere
laymen = laici	limb = arto
writing = scrittura	bishopric = vescovato
to bestow = conferire, concedere	revenue = reddito
grant = permesso	to perform homage = rendere omag- gio
to be charged (with) = essere accu- sato	saving = eccetto, salvo
to summon = convocare	to deforce = negare, disconoscere
to be convicted (of) = essere condan- nato	chattels = beni
security = garanzia	to forfeit = perdere per confisca
	to ordain = consacrare

MIDDLE AGE TERMS

elect = vescovo nominato ma non ancora in carica	lay fee = proprietà laica
clerk = ecclesiastico	justice = giudice
patronage = facoltà di assegnare uf- fici ecclesiastici	fief = feudo
presentation = raccomandazione per la nomina di un prelato	seisin = possesso
fee = feudo	borough = borgo
steward = giudice	to seise = entrare legalmente in pos- sesso
vill = distretto territoriale feudale	demesne manor = proprietà terriera con maniero annesso
demesne = dominio	fealty = giuramento del vassallo
justiciar = giudice	liege lord = signore, sovrano
charitable tenure = possesso reli- gioso	villein = vassallo

NOTES

The verbs *to raise* and *to rise* are often confused. *To raise* is a transitive verb; *to rise* (*rose*, *risen*) is intransitive:

The King's officials raised taxes and duties.

Taxes and duties rose every year.

The verb *to arise* (*arose*, *arisen*) is also intransitive and means ‘to come into being’, or ‘to ascend’:

Controversies arose between laymen. *The King said, “Arise, Sir John.”*

Note the archaic use of the subjunctive: *If a controversy arise....* See Unit 5.

The genitive 's is used with names of churches, which are often abbreviated: *St. David's* (Church). See Unit 5 for other uses of the possessive case.

Note the archaic adverb *thither* (là, colà). It is often found with the adverb *hither* (qui, in qua). See Unit 3 for other archaic adverbs.

The construction *an one* is also archaic: *the lord king should bring such an one to justice.* See Unit 7 for the use of the indefinite article.

The Assize was held on the fourth day before the Purification of the Blessed Virgin Mary, i.e. on January 11th. It is interesting to note that the Gregorian calendar, which was devised in 1582 to replace the Julian calendar, was introduced in Britain only as late as 1752.

COMPREHENSION

1. Why was the Assize of Clarendon held?
2. Who took part in the Assize?
3. Which article of the Constitution describes the jury and its function?

WORD STUDY

The prefix *arch-* is added to nouns to mean ‘the greatest’ or ‘worst’:

He is the Archbishop of Canterbury. *He killed his arch-enemy in battle.*

The suffix *-arch* has the meaning leader or ruler:

monarch *patriarch*

archpriest *archduke* *archangel* *archrival* *archetype*

Choose one of the nouns for each of the sentences below.

- 1) Gabriel and Michael are _____.
- 2) The _____ replaced the bishop after his death.
- 3) Neither the King nor his _____, the Duke of York, won the battle.
- 4) He is the _____ of a successful ruler.
- 5) _____ Francis Ferdinand of Austria was assassinated in 1914.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

FORMAL ASPECTS OF NEGATION

Formal written English tends to use the non-contracted negative forms:

Civil Law does not employ trial by jury.

Negative meaning is often conveyed by a negative word used with a positive verb form:

Some people have no respect for the law.

Nobody appeared in court today.

Neither party wished to go to court.

They never confessed to the crime.

Reform can wait no longer.

Nothing will alter the results.

The informal expressions *not...any*, *not...much*, *not...many* can be replaced by the more formal *little* and *few*:

The investigation revealed no new results. (= didn't reveal any new results)

Little evidence has been presented by the defence. (= not much evidence)

There are few solutions to that problem. (= not many solutions)

Exercise 6

Re-write these sentences in a more formal style.

- 1) There aren't many possibilities of changing that law.
- 2) The candidates didn't have much difficulty with the exam.
- 3) His lawyer doesn't have any witness to call on.
- 4) There wasn't anyone at the hearing.
- 5) I don't need any more books.

A double negative can be used to express a positive idea:

No-one has nothing to say. (= Everyone has something to say.)

Not may be used to cancel a negative prefix:

Judge Brown is not infrequently severe in her judgements. (= is frequently)

It is not unknown for her to give long gaol terms. (= is known)

Other examples of negative phrases:

She sentenced a prisoner to life imprisonment not long ago. (= a short time)

She is not too kind in her attitudes to criminals. (= rather unkind)

She was appointed by none other than Mrs Thatcher. (= by Mrs Thatcher herself)

Exercise 7

Re-write the following sentences using a negative word or phrase. Do not change the meaning:

- 1) Susan is happy about her results.
- 2) Everybody wants someone to talk to.
- 3) There was quite a lot of support for the reform.
- 4) Both his mother and his father are alive.
- 5) I haven't ever been in trouble with the law.

TRANSLATION

In Italian there is little difference between the two forms of the simple and continuous present tenses: *Ascolto la musica. Sto ascoltando la musica.*

In English there is a clear difference between the two forms: *I (often) listen to music. I am listening to music (now).*

Time in English is measured in length:

a long time = molto tempo

a long time ago = molto tempo fa

before long = tra non molto

a short time = poco tempo

a short time ago = poco fa

shortly after = poco tempo dopo

Unlike Italian, in English time expressions tend to be placed at the end of the sentence. They are used at the beginning usually only for greater emphasis.

He's going to court tomorrow. Domani verrà processato.
Tomorrow he's going to court, and next week he's going to prison.

Frequency adverbs are placed before the main verb but after the verb *to be*.

<i>I often see him</i>	Lo vedo spesso.
<i>He is always in a hurry.</i>	È sempre di corsa.

See Unit 13 for adverbs used at the beginning of a sentence for greater emphasis.

- 1) Il prigioniero si dichiara innocente.
- 2) È accusato di furto.
- 3) È rappresentato da un noto penalista.
- 4) Il suo avvocato non presenterà molte prove a suo favore oggi pomeriggio.
- 5) Chiamerà anche pochi testimoni.
- 6) La giuria l'ha trovato colpevole.
- 7) Il giudice l'ha condannato dopo un lungo processo.
- 8) Starà in galera per molto tempo.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: The law and the legal system

acquittal = assoluzione

bail = cauzione

bailiff = ufficiale giudiziario

conviction = condanna

courthouse = aula tribunale

defence = difesa

defendant = querelato

dock = banco degli imputati

jurisprudence = scienza del diritto

juror = giurato

law-abiding = rispettoso della legge

lawful = legittimo

lawsuit = causa civile

plaintiff = querelante

probation = libertà condizionata

public prosecutor = pubblico ministero

statement = deposizione

to be under oath = essere sotto giuramento

to commit perjury = dichiarare il falso

to have a criminal record = avere precedenti penali

UNIT 2

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The origins of the British Parliament are to be found in the 11th-century Witan, also called the Witenagemot, assemblies of higher ecclesiastics and magnates that met to counsel the Saxon Kings on matters such as judicial problems. During the 13th century, the councils began to be attended by representatives of counties, cities and boroughs. In the 14th century, two distinct houses emerged: one made up of shire and borough representatives became known as the Commons; the other of religious leaders (Lords Spiritual) and magnates (Lords Temporal) became known as the Upper House.

By the 15th century, membership of the Lords Temporal had become almost entirely hereditary, and members were summoned by writ rather than chosen by the monarch. The Lords Temporal were known as “peers”, i.e. equal among themselves, but with five ranks: duke, marquis, earl, viscount and baron. Until the suppression of the monasteries in 1539, the Lords Spiritual consisted of bishops, abbots and priors. After 1539, only bishops attended and the Lords Temporal formed the majority for the first time.

The independence of the British Parliament was determined finally by the English Civil War (1642-48) between Charles I, a king who claimed to rule by divine right, and the mainly Puritan “Parliamentarians”, who upheld the right to govern independently from the Crown. The king surrendered in 1645, but then his escape led to the second Civil War the following year. In 1648, 143 royalist members of Parliament were expelled. The remaining members, known as the Rump Parliament, had Charles beheaded for treason in 1649. Following the Civil War, the primary role of the Commons in financial matters was given an official basis through resolutions passed in 1671 and 1678. The 1689 Bill of Rights, promoted by the Commons, established the authority of Parliament over the King.

The Acts of Union (1707 with Scotland and 1800 with Ireland) entitled Scottish and Irish peers to elect representatives to sit in the Lords. The first Life Peerages were created with the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary (Law Lords) to fulfil the judicial function of the House of Lords. An important change came after 1909, under Prime Minister Herbert Asquith, when the Lords refused to pass the Liberal Government’s budget: the Parliamentary Act 1911 provided that the Lords could no longer amend finance bills and reduced its ability to delay other bills. These restrictions were further tightened in the Parliament Act 1949. An-

other major change came in 1998 with the re-establishment of the Scottish parliament with certain tax-related powers after a referendum held in 1997.

The oldest English title dates back to 1264 but fewer than 100 ancient peerages survive from before the civil war. Peers by succession, traditionally an elder son who inherits his title, simply take an oath of allegiance when they become a member of the House of Lords. Since 1958, Life Peers have included women, and may be created by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister. They are introduced to the Lords in a special ceremony, and the title lapses at their death.

The House of Lords plays the role of a revising chamber, altering some aspects of bills. Today it is undergoing radical reform. In 1999, for example, under Prime Minister Tony Blair, 600 hereditary peers were removed by law from the House, ending their centuries-old dominance of the Lords. Other ceremonies, such as the introduction of newly-created peers and the opening of Parliament, have also been modernised. However, certain traditions still continue. For instance, the Lords still wear ceremonial ermine robes, the seats in the House of Lords are red and those in the Commons are green, the Lord High Chancellor sits on the Woolsack, a cushion originally stuffed with English wool symbolising the vital importance of wool to the economy.

The most important political institution is the House of Commons, which discusses and approves all legislation and is elected directly by the people. The Prime Minister is the leader of the party with a majority of members in the legislature. Cabinet is made up of government ministers, who may be selected from either House. The House of Commons is presided over by a non-partisan Speaker, selected by Commons.

Both Houses of Parliament hold their sessions in the Palace of Westminster on the north bank of the River Thames. The original palace was built by Edward the Confessor as a royal abode; William the Conqueror, who wished to be recognised as the rightful King of England, was crowned there. Gradually all the most important functions of the government were moved to Westminster, and in the 16th century it became the meeting place for Parliament. The Palace survived the Gunpowder Plot, a conspiracy by English Catholics to blow up the English Parliament and King James I on 5th November 1605.

References

- S.E. Rasmussen, *London: the unique city* (London: Pelican, 1934).
United Kingdom Parliament at <http://www.parliament.uk/>

GLOSSARY

magnate = notabile	to pass = approvare
council = consiglio	budget = bilancio
* to attend = presenziare a	to amend = emendare
house = camera	bill = progetto di legge
membership = appartenenza	to delay = ritardare, bloccare
to summon = convocare	to date back to = risalire a
writ = decreto	to lapse = decadere
rank = rango	to undergo (underwent, undergone) = attraversare, vivere
to claim = affermare	centuries-old = secolare
to uphold (upheld, upheld) = sostenere	robe = toga
to lead (led, led) to = condurre a	ermine = ermellino
Rump Parliament = Parlamento Rotto	stuffed = imbottito
to behead = decapitare	partisan = di parte
Bill of Rights = legge sui diritti del cittadino	Speaker = Presidente della Camera
act = legge	session = seduta
to entitle = concedere un diritto	bank = riva, sponda
to sit (sat, sat) in Parliament = essere deputato	abode = dimora
peerage = titolo di Pari	rightful = legittimo
to fulfil = eseguire	conspiracy = complotto
	to blow (blew, blown) up = far saltare in aria

NOTES

The words *majority* and *minority* are collective nouns and can be followed by a singular or plural verb (see Unit 5). The adjective *major* simply means ‘important’; *maggiori* corresponds to the English ‘greater, bigger’.

Do not confuse *politics* (la politica, scienze politiche) with *policy* (una politica). The adjective for both is *political*.

Past participles can be used as adjectives: *a cushion stuffed with wool*. Often they are used with an adverb or adverb participle:

tax-related powers *newly-created peers*

A *shire* was an Old English administrative district made up of a group of *hundreds*, smaller subdivisions each with its own court. In modern English it is used as a synonym for county. A *county* was originally the land under the jurisdiction of an earl or count. Today it is one of the units of local government in England and Wales. A *borough* was originally a town incorporated

by royal charter and often fortified by walls. It is found in the names of many British towns and cities: *Peterborough, Marlborough, Loughborough*.

WORD STUDY

The suffixes *-ion*, and *-ment* can be used to form nouns from verbs.

Make nouns from the following verbs. Write a sentence using each new word.

- 1) govern _____
- 2) institute _____
- 3) administrate _____
- 4) state _____
- 5) elect _____
- 6) amend _____
- 7) nominate _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

SIMPLE PAST TENSE

The Simple Past Tense is used to describe single actions that happened at a definite time in the past and are now finished. It is also used to describe a series of events, states and habits:

The King surrendered in 1645.

In the 14th century, two distinct Houses emerged.

The Lords Spiritual consisted of bishops, abbots, and priors.

With regular verbs the tense is formed by adding *-ed* or *-d* to the infinitive and the same form is used for all subjects. The past tense of the verb *to be* is *was/were*:

Royalist members were expelled from Parliament.

Another change was the re-establishment of the Scottish parliament.

The past tenses of the most common irregular verbs are found in Appendix I.

The negative of the Simple Past is formed by the use of *did not* (*didn't*) before the infinitive of the main verb:

The Lords did not pass the Liberal Government's budget.

The interrogative form of the Simple Past uses *did*:

Did the King claim to rule by divine right?

Exercise 1

Put the following sentences, which contain irregular verbs from the first two units, into (1) the Simple Past tense; (2) Simple Past negative; (3) Simple Past interrogative.

1) Parliament meets every day.

2) The eldest son takes an oath of allegiance.

3) Peers make up the House of Lords.

4) War leads to parliamentary change.

5) Further change comes after revolution.

6) The Queen chooses the Life Peers.

7) King Edward builds the Palace of Westminster.

8) The magnates bring judicial problems to the assemblies.

Exercise 2

Insert the correct form of the verb in each of the sentences below.

- 1) Winston Churchill _____ in 1874 and _____ in 1965. (to be born - to die)
- 2) He _____ in India, the Sudan and South Africa. (to fight)
- 3) Later he _____ the First Lord of the Admiralty. (to become)
- 4) He _____ Chancellor of the Exchequer from 1924 to 1929. (to be)
- 5) After World War II _____ out, he was made Prime Minister. (to break)
- 6) He is remembered because he _____ peace with Hitler. (not to make)
- 7) He _____ several histories, biographies, and memoirs. (to write)
- 8) Not many people know that he _____ the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1953. (to win)

PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

The Past Continuous tense is used to express a past activity that took place over a period of time or for actions that were in progress when something else happened. It is often used for description, whereas the Simple Past tense is used to describe past events and habits:

While Parliament was debating, the Prime Minister was reading a letter.

The Opposition leader left the Chamber while the PM was making a speech.

The past continuous tense can be used to express a repeated past action when used with a frequency adverb, usually *always*. This expresses some annoyance with the action:

He was always arriving late. They were always making trouble.

The negative of the Past Continuous tense is formed by adding *not* to the verb *to be*:

He wasn't paying much attention to the discussion.

The interrogative form of the Past Continuous tense places the appropriate form of the verb *to be* before the subject of the sentence:

Was he thinking about some other matter?

Exercise 3

Choose the correct verb form - Simple Past or Past Continuous - in the following sentences.

- 1) Some years ago the BBC *started / was starting* broadcasting parliamentary sessions.
- 2) Finally, the general public *saw / was seeing* what really goes on in the chamber.
- 3) On the first day, the broadcast showed that some of the members *slept / were sleeping* during the speeches.
- 4) Others *talked / were talking* or *read / were reading* newspapers.
- 5) Another day, during discussion time, one member *got / was getting* angry with a member of the opposition.
- 6) He *lost / was losing* his temper and *started / was starting* shouting.
- 7) The Speaker *called / was calling* him to order.
- 8) But he *didn't listen / wasn't listening* and *had / was having* to leave the Chamber.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

The Past Perfect tense is formed by the auxiliary verb *had* with the past participle of the main verb: *By the 15th century, membership of the Lords Temporal had become entirely hereditary.*

The past participles of the most common irregular verbs are found in Appendix I.

The main functions of this tense is to indicate which of two connected actions in the past happened first. The second action is expressed by the Simple Past: *Meetings of clergy and magnates had taken place since the 11th century.*

The Past Perfect tense is not always necessary if the order of events is made clear by a time expression. Then the Simple Past tense can be used: *Before the Parliament formed, meetings between clergy and magnates took place.*

The connection between the two events is often indicated by an adverb of time such as: *when, as soon as, after, before.*

The Past Perfect is often used with the preposition *by* and a time phrase to express ‘at that time or before’, ‘not later than’: *by the end of the 13th century.*

The Past Perfect tense is used in indirect speech provided that the introductory verb is in the past tense: *He said that he had been an MP for 5 years.*

See Unit 12 for more on indirect speech.

The Past Perfect tense is also used in hypothetical sentences (see Unit 13).

Exercise 4

Join the following pairs of sentences using the conjunction in brackets. Change one verb form into the Past Perfect.

- 1) The Prime Minister died. His deputy came to power. (after)
-

- 2) The new government won the election. They revived the economy. (as soon as)
-

- 3) James Johnson was elected. He moved to London. (when)
-

- 4) He stayed in a hotel. He found a suitable place. (until)
-

- 5) An economic crisis started. The Government decided to hold an election. (after)
-

6) The election was held. Each party published election pamphlets. (before)

7) The election was held. The new government thanked all their supporters.
(after)

8) They felt secure. They created more jobs. (after)

SOME EXPRESSIONS OF PAST TIME

yesterday *The politics of today are different from those of yesterday.*

yesteryear *The modern-day politician has replaced those of yesteryear.*

in former times *The PM should be remembered as she was in former times.*

in the olden days *In the olden days, politicians showed greater skill.*

long ago *Disraeli was PM long ago under Queen Victoria.*

FURTHER READING

A Benedictine historian, Thomas Walsingham (died c. 1422) was a monk at St. Albans Abbey, where he was in charge of the scriptorium. Little is known of his life beyond his historical work. He wrote six chronicles of the history of the English: (1) Chronica Majora, now lost, but which was written before 1388. (2) Chronicum Angliae, covering the years 1328 to 1388. (3) The Gesta Abbatum of St. Albans Abbey, compiled between 1390 and 1394. (4) A chronicle of St. Albans, compiled about 1393, that covers the years 1272 to 1393. (5) Historia Anglicana, also called Historia Brevis by earlier writers, which covers the years 1272 to 1422. (6) Ypodigma Neustriae, a compilation intended to provide Henry V with a summary of the history of his predecessors, the dukes of Normandy, and partly borrowed from the Historia Normannorum of William of Jumièges.

THE GOOD PARLIAMENT OF 1376

In the year of our lord 1376 a parliament was held at London by command of the king, which began about the octave of St. George and lasted almost continuously for nine weeks. There the king urgently demanded a subsidy from the common people.

But the knights of the shire, divinely inspired, as it is believed, diligently treated together on this matter and refused to answer these requests without the counsel of the magnates. Therefore the knights petitioned that there should be sent to them certain bishops, by whose advice they might be informed so as to reply more circumspectly to the requests of the king. When the bishops had been fetched to the counsels of the knights, and when they had heard their charges and had made themselves acquainted with the petitions which the knights intended to put forward, they realised that the matter which had been taken in hand was an arduous one and could not be brought to a successful conclusion without great and weighty counsel. Certainly the matter demanded great energy. They told the knights that they would need to work in every fashion and manner, and that the knights should summon four of the most loyal barons of the realm, men who dearly loved the king and the royal dignity, to help what they had begun. Fortified by the protection of these people, they would evade more easily the traps of the envious, if any were prepared against them, and would stand more courageously for the advantage of the whole kingdom and for the profit and honour of the king. They were going to treat with the king notwithstanding that he would find it hard to accept what was intended for the safety of his body and mind and for the advantage and profit of his kingdom.

The knights followed the wise advice of the bishops, and, together with the bishops, they petitioned the council for four barons, without whom they declared that they neither would nor could treat about anything. Therefore, by their election, four barons were sent to them, namely Henry Percy, Richard Stafford, Guy Brienne and Roger Beauchamp. They caused these knights to be sworn of their counsels and that they would give good aid to them if it should happen to be needed. The barons promised loyal counsel and aid, but not unless as many earls who were loyal to the realm, strong in spirit and powerful in their possessions, were added to their undertakings and councils. They therefore decided, by common decree, that four earls should be chosen, namely Edmund Mortimer Earl of March, Thomas Beauchamp Earl of Warwick, William Ufford Earl of Suffolk and Ralph Stafford Earl of Stafford.

Together with the bishops and barons, the commons petitioned for these earls and received them. Immediately they made them swear to be in their counsels. Nor was it difficult to extort these oaths from them, for every one of them ardently wished to further the honour of the king, the advantage of the realm and the peace of the people. When, therefore, the above nobles had treated with the knights on the royal request, it was agreed amongst them that they should unanimously refuse the royal requests until certain abuses and defects had been corrected, and until certain persons who seemed to have impoverished the king and the kingdom, to have vilely tarnished his fame and greatly to have diminished his power, should have been eliminated, and their excesses properly punished according to their kind.

When they had done this, a natural question arose amongst them as to which knight should speak on behalf of the king, the kingdom and the common people. For they feared certain deceitful persons amongst the king's secretaries who had obtained full grace and favour with the king, and who would, they knew, prepare traps for them, on account of the fact that they had for the first time planned to bring their defects into the open.

But whilst they were disturbed about such things, God lifted up the spirit of a certain knight of their company whose name was Peter de la Mare, pouring into his heart abundant wisdom from his treasures, and an unhoisted-for eloquence. He gave him also such great perseverance and constancy that he was neither terrified by the threats of his adversaries nor confused by the plotting of the envious; but he was always ready to suffer all things for truth and justice. . . Thus the trustworthy Peter began to speak, trusting in the help of God. He stood with his colleagues before the Lords, of whom the greatest was John Duke of Lancaster, whose deeds always stood out in discord with his name; for he always, as it is believed, lacked both human and divine grace. [...]

After this reply, the commons were directed that, if they thought there were other matters still needing correction, they were to report them, in the usual manner, before the duke. They replied that first the things they had deposed before him ought to be duly carried out. Therefore the above knights of the shire, on behalf of the community and through the mouth of Peter de la Mare, petitioned that the duke and his fellow judges would provide remedy and correction for such great excesses.

When these things had happened, and the end of the parliament was already approaching, the knights considered the king's mental incapacity and the free opportunity which some of his familiars had to appropriate the kingdom. Lest these should be permitted, by pretext of the king's wish, to do what they had

earlier wished to do, the knights petitioned, in the name of the people, that twelve men, peers of the realm and faithful, discreet and devoid of greed, should continually be in the councils of the king and of the kingdom. At least six of them should be with the king at all times, for the less important business. When anything weighty was to be discussed, all twelve should be present. The commons were stirred by the greed of certain Englishmen, to whom the king had given too much power in managing the affairs of the kingdom, with whom everything was for sale, namely faith and justice which they owed to the king and to the people. For this reason the knights petitioned the lords as described above. The duke, judging their petition to be just (only in word; he revolved something different in his secret heart), adjudged it to be granted, directing that those lords should be elected by the people. They were elected accordingly.

And it was decreed in this parliament that if any of the said lords was discovered to have received gifts, or to have been disloyal in the obedience he showed either to the king or to the community, he should forthwith be removed from the government and be held infamous for all time; he should pay the king five times what he had accepted, and his body should be at the mercy of the king. And in order that all these things might achieve enduring strength, there were sent knights from parliament to the king who begged his assent and confirmation of all the statutes in the aforesaid parliament, and that this parliament might be ratified according to the custom of parliament and should be classified by the king under the name of parliament. All of which the king promised that he would hold agreeable and determined. And here ended the parliament which has been described above.

Source: Thomas Walsingham, *Chronicon Angliae*, trans. E. M. Thompson (London: Rolls Series, 1874).

GLOSSARY

***to demand** = esigere, pretendere
subsidy = contributo
to treat = discutere
to petition = fare una petizione
to fetch = andare a prendere
charge = incarico, onere
acquainted = a conoscenza
to put (put, put) forward = presentare
weighty = ponderato
fashion = maniera
***to evade** = evitare, eludere

notwithstanding = nonostante
to cause = far fare
to swear (swore, sworn) = giurare
aid = aiuto
as many = un numero uguale
to beg = supplicare
undertaking = impegno
to further = favorire, promuovere
to tarnish = macchiare
on behalf of = a nome di
deceitful = disonesto, falso

to pour = versare
wisdom = saggezza
unhoped-for = insperato
threats = minacce
plotting = complottare
to suffer = sopportare
trustworthy = fidato, leale
deed = azione
duly = debitamente
enduring = durevole

lest = per paura che
devoid = privo
greed = avidità
to stir = commuovere, emozionare
just = giusto
to revolve = rivolgere (nella mente)
gift = dono
forthwith = immediatamente

NOTES

The *octave of St. George* is the eighth day after the feast of St. George, patron saint of England, held on 23rd April.

Do not confuse the verbs *to bring* (portare qui) and *to take* (portare via). The verb *to fetch* describes a complete action, ‘to go and bring back’.

The word *lest* can be translated *per paura che*. It is commonly followed by the subjunctive modal *should*:

Lest these should be permitted to do what they had earlier wished to do, the knights petitioned that twelve men should continually be in the councils of the king.

See Unit 11 for other subjunctive forms.

Note the words used to refer to things mentioned previously:

<i>the above nobles</i>	<i>as described above</i>
<i>the said lords</i>	<i>the aforesaid parliament</i>

COMPREHENSION

1. What episode led to the Good Parliament?
2. Why were the bishops and barons consulted?
3. Why were twelve peers chosen to advise the King?

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-dom* is used to form nouns indicating:

- a) state or condition: *freedom*
- b) rank or office: *earldom*
- c) domain: *kingdom*

Christendom martyrdom wisdom dukedom serfdom

Use one of the nouns above in each of the following sentences.

- 1) The nobleman ruled his _____ justly and well.
- 2) The _____ of the king was famous.
- 3) The people were ready to suffer _____ for their beliefs.
- 4) The news of the Pope's death spread throughout _____.
- 5) _____ was a system of working the land.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

OTHER PAST FORMS

USED TO

Past habits and states may also be expressed using the modal auxiliary *used to*. Unlike the simple past tense, *used to* indicates that the habit or state is discontinued: *I used to live in London before I moved to Oxford.*

Note the negative and interrogative forms of *used to*:

Did you use to live here? I didn't use to get up early when I was a student.

Used to only refers to past time; present habits and states are expressed with the Simple Present and *always*: *I always get up early.*

WOULD

The modal auxiliary *would* is also used to express a repeated past action.

I would (used to) get up early when I was a student.

However, it cannot be used for past states:

I used to be (I was) much less lazy then. (not would)

Exercise 5

Rewrite the sentences using *would* or *used to*. Both forms may sometimes be used.

- 1) The King lived in Buckingham Palace.

2) He drove through Hyde Park in his coach every morning.

3) He walked in the gardens with his courtiers every afternoon.

4) He always played pall mall when he should have been working.

5) The King swam in a pool in the park.

6) He was also a fine sportsman.

7) He played games and shot with bows and arrows.

8) He even fed the ducks and walked the dogs.

UNREAL PASTS

In certain structures, a past tense can have a present or future meaning:

(a) in adverbial clauses of condition and concession:

If I had some money, I would give it to you. (See Unit 13)

If only I had some money, I would give it to you.

Even if he arrived, it would be too late

He acts as if he were the king. (Note the subjunctive use of *were*.)

They talk as though they knew what to say.

(b) in subclauses after certain expressions of supposition and wishes:

It's time / It's high time the government called an election.

I wish he weren't Prime Minister.

Suppose we went to England next year.

I'd prefer you didn't smoke in here.

Exercise 6

Use the Simple Past tense in the following sentences.

- 1) They'd prefer the strike _____ (be) called off.
- 2) I wish Peter Brown _____ (be) our representative.
- 3) I think it's time the mayor _____ (make) some changes.
- 4) I'd be happy even if he _____ (draw) up new proposals.
- 5) The party always speaks as if it _____ (be) still in power.
- 6) Suppose you _____ (stand) for parliament!
- 7) I'd prefer you _____ (not vote) for me.
- 8) He wouldn't have such a bad reputation if he _____ (behave) better.

TRANSLATION

When narrating singular events, the Simple Past corresponds to the **passato prossimo** or to the **passato remoto**:

The government passed the bill last night.

Il governo ha approvato la legge ieri sera.

The first assemblies met in the 13th century.

I primi consigli si riunirono nel XIII secolo.

When describing past habits or states, it can correspond to the **imperfetto**:

The Parliament upheld the right to govern independently.

Il parlamento sosteneva il diritto di governare autonomamente.

The Past Progressive also corresponds to the **imperfetto** or the **passato progressivo**:

When the High Court was trying him, the King refused to speak.

Mentre la Corte Alta lo processava / stava processando, il re rifiutò di parlare.

The Past Perfect corresponds to the **trapassato**:

By the 15th century, membership of the Lords had become hereditary.

Entro il XV secolo, partecipazione alla Camera dei Lord era diventata ereditaria.

In hypothetical contexts, the Past Perfect corresponds to the **congiuntivo imperfetto**:

If the King hadn't escaped, his position would have been stronger.

Se il re non fosse scappato, la sua posizione sarebbe stata più forte.

- 1) La proposta di legge fu emendata più volte.
- 2) Il sindaco è entrato in carica l'anno scorso.
- 3) La seduta della Camera durò tre ore.
- 4) Nel medioevo i re ascoltarono i consigli dei notabili.
- 5) Il duca aveva governato con grande saggezza prima della rivolta.
- 6) Mentre l'opposizione discuteva, il governo approvò il bilancio.
- 7) È ora che il Primo Ministro decida la sua politica economica.
- 8) Se non fosse stato un sostenitore dell'estrema destra, sarebbe stato eletto.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: The Parliament

act = legge

bill = proposta di legge

cabinet reshuffle = rimpasto ministeriale

Chancellor of the Exchequer = Ministro del Tesoro

franchise = diritto di voto

Home Office = Ministero dell'Interno

Lord Chancellor = Ministro di Grazia e Giustizia

policy = una linea politica

politics = la politica

Prime Minister = primo ministro

shadow cabinet = governo ombra

to amend a bill = emendare una proposta di legge

to approve a bill = approvare una proposta di legge

to dissolve parliament = sciogliere il parlamento

to pass a resolution = approvare una deliberazione

to run for office = essere candidato

to sit in parliament = essere membro del parlamento

to table a motion = presentare una mozione

to take office = entrare in carica

vote of no-confidence = voto di sfiducia

UNIT 3

THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND

Christianity probably already existed in Britain in the third century. The Romans later also brought Christianity in the fourth century, but it was nearly destroyed by invasions of pagan Anglo Saxons in the fifth century. It became the dominant religion through the merging of Celtic Christianity with St. Augustine's missionary work from Rome in 597. However, English civil power and the Church developed together with increasing disagreement. The two major points of conflict were the Church's wealth and its ties with Rome.

The situation came to a head in the 1530s when King Henry VIII wished to obtain a divorce from Queen Katharine of Aragon as she had been unable to produce a male heir. The Pope, however, would not grant the divorce. After lengthy attempts to reverse this decision, the King issued the Act of Supremacy in 1534, in which he proclaimed himself Supreme Head of the Church of England, which thus began its separate existence from Rome.

Henry later suppressed the monasteries, confiscating their vast wealth and, by order of Archbishop Thomas Cranmer (1489-1556), authorised the Great Bible, an English translation from the Latin and Greek, which was placed in every church and read aloud. The new Church simplified the liturgy, in English rather than Latin, and set it out in a new Book of Common Prayer (1549), which was designed to give the people of England a shared pattern of worship.

Following her parents' divorce, Mary I (1516-58), also known as Mary Tudor, the daughter of Henry VIII and Katharine of Aragon, was forced to acknowledge herself illegitimate and to renounce the Roman Catholic Church. However, in 1553 Mary succeeded her half-brother, Edward VI and, following her marriage in 1554 to Philip of Spain and a consequent Spanish alliance, papal authority was re-established. Mary became known as Bloody Mary because of the religious persecution of Protestants that took place during her reign.

On Mary's death, Elizabeth I (1533-1603) became Queen of England, ruling until 1603. Elizabeth made peace with France and Scotland, at the same time helping Protestants in these countries. Following Mary Queen of Scots' flight to England and imprisonment, Elizabeth became a target of successive conspiracies by English Catholics. As a result she ordered Mary's execution. In response to papal excommunication she approved anti-Catholic legislation and renewed royal supremacy over the Church.

The now independent church kept to a middle ground—the *via media*—between the Roman Catholic Church and the churches of the Protestant Reformation. During the English Civil War the Long Parliament (1646) established Presbyterianism, but with the Restoration (1660), the episcopacy was restored and the Prayer Book was made the only legal service book by the Act of Uniformity (1662).

Since that time, the Church of England has seen some internal controversies. One of the most important was the Oxford Movement, which was begun by John Henry Newman. Ordained in the Church of England, from 1833 to 1841 he published a series of *Tracts for the Times*, which gave its name to the Tractarian Movement, in which he emphasised a sense of continuity and unbroken connection between the primitive Church and the Church of England, highlighting common points between the different branches of the Church which recognise the doctrine of Apostolic Succession. The Oxford Movement was part of the general Christian uprising stirred up by the French Revolution. In particular, it wished to revive the concept of Christianity as a revelation from on high, and to restore the idea of the Church and the dignity of the sacraments. The reaction in Oxford was of enormous Anglican outrage, and Newman converted to Catholicism in 1845.

Today the Church of England is organised into two provinces led by the archbishops of Canterbury (south) and York (north). Each province is made up of dioceses, each of which is divided into parishes. Each parish is overseen by a parish priest (usually called a vicar or rector) who may marry. Her Majesty the Queen is the Supreme Governor of the Church of England. She appoints archbishops, bishops and deans of cathedrals on the advice of the Prime Minister. The two archbishops and 24 senior bishops sit in the House of Lords, making a major contribution to Parliament's work. The General Synod, which governs the Church of England, is elected from the laity and clergy of each diocese and meets in London or York at least twice annually to consider legislation for the Church. In 1992, the General Synod voted to permit women to be ordained priests. Although the Church of England has been working towards increased harmony with the Catholic Church, some doctrinal differences still remain. These include the infallibility of the Pope, belief in transubstantiation, and the confession of sins to a priest.

References

- A.G. Dickens, *The English Reformation* (London, Glasgow: Fontana, 1969).
P. Ferris, *The Church of England*. (London, Reading: Pelican, 1964).

GLOSSARY

to merge = mescolarsi, unirsi
disagreement = dissenso
wealth = ricchezza
tie = legame
to come to a head = giungere ad un punto critico
to grant = concedere
lengthy = lungo
to reverse = revocare, annullare
to issue = emettere
aloud = ad alta voce
to set (set, set) out = disporre
prayer = preghiera
pattern = modello
worship = culto
following = in seguito a
to acknowledge = riconoscere
to renounce = rinnegare
half-brother = fratellastro
re-establishment = restaurazione
to take (took, taken) place = avere luogo

flight = fuga
target = bersaglio
conspiracy = complotto
to keep to = seguire
ground = linea, percorso
service = funzione
unbroken = ininterrotto
to highlight = mettere in risalto
branch = ramo
uprising = sollevazione
outrage = oltraggio, offesa
to lead (led, led) = guidare
to appoint = nominare
parish = parrocchia
to oversee (oversaw, overseen) = dirigere
vicar = curato, parrocco
dean = decano
laity = i laici
clergy = clero
sin = peccato

NOTES

Capital letters are used for titles:

the King of England

the Archbishop of Canterbury

With general reference, capitals are not generally used:

the kings and queens of England

an archbishop

Some words are written with capitals to indicate an abstract sense and without to indicate a concrete sense:

the Church (= the body)

a church (= the building)

the State (= the nation)

a state (= a condition)

the East, the West (= ethnological)

east, west (= direction)

the Government (= the present body)

a government (= general reference)

An *established* church is the official religion for a nation.

The Church of Scotland was established in 1690.

The female form of *priest* is *woman priest*. The word *priestess* refers to non-Christian religions.

The Church of England has three sister churches: the Church of Ireland, the Scottish Episcopal Church and the Church in Wales. The Reformation in Scotland led to the replacement of the medieval church by the Church of Scotland, or Presbyterian Church. It has no bishops but is governed by its ministers and elders.

The term ‘Free Churches’ is used to describe the Protestant churches in Britain which, unlike the Churches of England and Scotland, are not established churches. The major Free Churches are the Methodist, Baptist, United Reformed and Salvation Army churches. They vary greatly in doctrine, worship and government, and all allow both men and women to become ministers.

WORD STUDY

The prefixes *anti-* and *pro-* indicate attitude. *Anti-* suggests an attitude against or opposing whereas *pro-* means in favour of or supporting.

The prefix *counter-* indicates action in opposition to something.

Add the most suitable prefix in each sentence.

- 1) The _____ nuclear demonstration broke up in violence.
- 2) The _____ Reformation was a reaction to the Protestant reformation.
- 3) _____ monarchist feeling is getting stronger in Australia today.
- 4) He has always been very _____ social and reserved.
- 5) Turn the dial _____ clockwise, then push the button.
- 6) The colonel has very strong _____ war views.
- 7) Her _____ argument to my position was rather weak.
- 8) Younger voters tend to be more _____ European.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

The Present Perfect tense is formed by the auxiliary verb *have* or *has* and the past participle of the main verb, which in regular verbs is made by adding *-ed* to the infinitive:

The Church of England has existed since 1534.

The past participles of the most common irregular verbs are found in Appendix I.

The two main functions of this tense are:

(a) to indicate an action that happens between some indefinite time in the past and the present:

The Church of England has (recently) admitted women as priests.

(b) to indicate an action that began in the past and continues (or its effects continue) into the present:

The Church of England has been separate from Rome since 1534.

The Present Perfect tense is often used with time expressions:

(a) indicating unfinished time: *today, this morning, this year.*

(b) indicating the beginning of a period of time: *since 1534.*

(c) indicating the length of a period of time: *for 300 years.*

It is also used with adverbs of indefinite time: *already, always, often, recently, ever, never, just.* The adverbs are generally placed directly before the main verb:

The Church of England has always permitted priests to marry.

Has the Church of England recently admitted women?

The negative of the Present Perfect tense is formed by adding *not* to the auxiliary verb *have*:

The General Synod has not (hasn't) met this year.

The interrogative of the Present Perfect tense places the appropriate form of the auxiliary verb *have* before the subject of the sentence:

Has he been appointed archbishop?

Exercise 1

Find the past participles for the following verbs and write a sentence for each using the Present Perfect tense.

- 1) sleep _____
- 2) put _____
- 3) become _____
- 4) get _____
- 5) keep _____
- 6) spend _____

Exercise 2

Put the verbs in brackets in the Present Perfect tense.

- 1) My brother _____ (recently - decide) to become a priest.
- 2) He _____ (always - be) interested in religion.
- 3) He _____ (never - want) to do any other kind of job.
- 4) My parents _____ (try) to dissuade him many times.
- 5) They _____ (always - hope) he would become a doctor.
- 6) However, he _____ (be) sure of his choice for years.
- 7) He _____ (already - take) several courses in theology.
- 8) And he _____ (just - go) on a spiritual retreat.

Exercise 3

Choose the correct tense – Simple Present, Simple Past or Present Perfect.

- 1) Henry VIII *proclaimed / has proclaimed* himself head of the Church.
- 2) The English *use / have used* the Book of Common Prayer since 1549.
- 3) The Archbishop of Canterbury *just visited / has just visited* Rome.
- 4) He *was / has been* our parish priest for 10 years before he died.
- 5) What *did he do / has he done* when he left the priesthood last year?
- 6) The Pope *met / has met* with Anglican clergy recently.

- 7) Religious persecution *did not take / has not taken* place for centuries.
- 8) Civil and religious authorities *already resolved / have already resolved* their differences.

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

The Present Perfect Continuous refers to:

(a) an action that lasts up to the present:
I have been waiting for you for hours.

(b) an incomplete activity: *The Church of England has been working towards increased harmony with the Catholic Church, but some differences remain.*

(c) a repeated activity: *I have been writing letters all day.*

It is generally used to emphasise the duration of the action, and so is often used with time expressions that also reflect length: *all day, for ages, for years.*

If the continuous action is interrupted by a mention of the number of times an action has happened or the number of actions that have been performed—how many, how often—the Simple Present Perfect is used.

Compare: *I have been reading all day.* È tutto il giorno che leggo.

I have read two chapters of my book today. Ho letto due capitoli oggi.

As with the other continuous tenses, the Present Perfect Continuous is not used with state verbs except in special cases (see Unit 1).

Exercise 4

Choose the most suitable form.

- 1) It's a long time since I *have seen / have been seeing* your brother.
- 2) Susan and Peter *have seen / have been seeing* each other for months.
- 3) *I've written / I've been writing* my essay all day.
- 4) And *I've only finished / I've only been finishing* five pages.
- 5) Jack *has stayed / has been staying* with me while he completes his studies.
- 6) *I've lived / I've been living* in London all my life.
- 7) *He's been / He's* a minister since he left school.
- 8) *It hasn't rained / It hasn't been raining* for weeks.

TIME PREPOSITIONS

AT a time, at an age

<i>at 9 o'clock</i>	<i>at midnight</i>	<i>at the age of</i>
<i>at the beginning of the film</i>		<i>at the end of the book</i>
<i>at first</i> = in the beginning	<i>At first/In the beginning he opposed their union.</i>	
<i>at last</i> = in the end	<i>At last/In the end, he agreed to it.</i>	

ON a day, on a date

<i>on Monday</i>	<i>on 7th June</i>	<i>on Christmas Day</i>
<i>on time</i> = at the exact time	<i>The train is always on time.</i>	

IN a month, season, year

<i>in June</i>	<i>in summer</i>	<i>in 2000</i>
<i>in time</i> = not late	<i>He arrived in time to see the bride leave the church.</i>	

FROM...TO/UNTIL

He worked from 10 to (until) 12.

SINCE = from a specific time

<i>since yesterday</i>	<i>since 1950</i>	<i>since I was a child</i>
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FOR = period of time

<i>for 3 hours</i>	<i>for a long time</i>	<i>for years</i>
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BY = before/not later than a specific point in time

<i>by 1900</i>	<i>by the end of the year</i>	<i>by the time he was 10</i>
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WITHIN = before a certain length of time has passed

<i>within 48 hours</i>	<i>within three days</i>	<i>within a year</i>
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DURING + noun

<i>during the Middle Ages</i>	<i>during her childhood</i>	<i>during the meeting</i>
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AFTER and **AFTERWARDS**

<i>after</i> (preposition) + noun/ pronoun	<i>after the party</i>	<i>after I had finished</i>
<i>after</i> (adverb)	<i>They lived happily ever after.</i>	
<i>afterwards</i> (adverb)	<i>I went to the library. Afterwards, I went home.</i>	

Exercise 5

Choose a suitable preposition for each sentence.

<i>after</i>	<i>at</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>during</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>from</i>
<i>in</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>until</i>	<i>within</i>	

- 1) I haven't seen Susan _____ we studied together in Oxford.
- 2) She graduated _____ the age of twenty.
- 3) _____ she had finished university, she decided to become a nun.
- 4) _____ 1995 _____ 1996 she lived in a convent.
- 5) _____ her twenty-second birthday she became a novice, and
_____ 1998 she joined the Carmelite order.
- 6) _____ the time she was thirty she had become Mother Superior.
- 7) _____ the first ten years of her career, she made significant changes to the convent.
- 8) Next year she is going to the US _____ a year to further her studies.

FURTHER READING

Thomas Cranmer (1489-1556) was educated at Cambridge University, where he became a fellow of Jesus College and was ordained. He came into contact with continental reformed theology that emphasised the strong role of both the Bible and secular authority over the authority of the Pope in governing the Church.

When, in 1529, the divorce proceedings between the King, Henry VIII, and the Queen, Catherine of Aragon, were on the point of breaking down, Cranmer played an important role by suggesting that the question of the King's marriage be considered by the universities of Europe. In 1533 Cranmer was consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury. He was later accused of treason by Mary I, and sentenced to death by burning at the stake.

LETTER ON HENRY VIII'S DIVORCE

Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, to Mr. Hawkyns the Ambassador at the Emperor's Court; upon the Divorce of Queen Catherine, and the Coronation of Queen Anne Boleyn. 1533.

In my most heartie wise I commend me unto you and even so, would be right glad to hear of your welfare, etc. This is to advertise you that inasmuch as you now and then take some pains in writing unto me, I would be loath you should think your labor utterly lost and forgotten for lack of writing again; therefore and because I reckon you to be some deal desirous of such news as hath been here with us of late in the King's Graces matters, I intend to inform you a parte thereof [...].

And first as touching the small determination and concluding of the matter of divorce between my Lady Catherine and the King's Grace, which said matter after the Convocation in that behalf had determined and agreed according to the former consent of the Universities, it was thought convenient by the King and his learned Council that I should repair unto Dunstable, which is within 4 miles unto Ampell, where the said Lady Catherine keepeth her house, and there to call her before me, to hear the final sentence in this said matter. Notwithstanding she would not at all obey thereunto, for when she was by doctor Lee cited to appear by [the end of] a day, she utterly refused the same, saying that inasmuch as her cause was before the Pope she would have none other judge; and therefore would not take me for her judge. Nevertheless the 8th day of May, according to the said appointment, I came unto Dunstable, my lord of Lincoln being assistant unto me, and my Lord of Winchester, Doctor Bell [...] with diverse others learned in the Law being counsellors in the law for the King's part; and so there at our coming kept a court for the appearance of the said Lady Catherine, where were examined certain witnesses which testified that she was lawfully cited and called to appear [...] And the morrow after Ascension day I gave final sentence therein, how it was indispensable for the Pope to license any such marriages.

This done, and after our re-journeying home again, the Kings Highness prepared all things convenient for the Coronation of the Queen, which also was after such a manner as followeth. The Thursday next before the feast of Pentecost, the King and the Queen being at Greenwich, all the crafts of London thereunto well appointed, in several barges decked after the most gorgeous and sumptuous manner, with diverse pageants thereunto belonging, repaired and waited all together upon the Mayor of London; and so, well furnished, came all unto Greenwich, where they tarried and waited for the Queens

coming to her barge; which so done, they brought her unto the Tower, trumpets, shawms, and other diverse instruments all the ways playing and making great melody, which, as is reported, was as comely done as never was like in any time nigh unto our remembrance. And so her Grace came to the Tower at Thursday at night, about 5 of the clock [...] In the morning there assembled with me at Westminster church the bishop of York, the bishop of London, the bishop of Winchester, the bishop of Lincoln, the bishop of Bath, and the bishop of Saint Asse, the Abbot of Westminster with ten or twelve more abbots, we all revested ourselves in our *pontificalibus*, and so furnished, with our crosses and croziers, proceeded out of the Abbeu in a procession unto Westminster Hall, where we received the Queen apparelled in a robe of purple velvet, and all the ladies and gentlewomen in robes and gowns of scarlet according to the manner used before time in such besynes; and so her Grace, sustained on each side with two bishops, the bishop of Lincoln and the bishop of Winchester, came forth in procession unto the Church of Westminster [...] my Lord of Suffolk bearing before her the crown, and two other lords bearing also before her a scepter and a white rod, and so entered up into the high altar, where diverse ceremonies used about her, I did set the crown on her head, and then was sung Te Deum, etc [...].

But now Sir you may not imagine that this Coronation was before her marriage, for she was married much about Saint Pauls day last, as the condition thereof doth well appear, by reason she is now somewhat big with child. Notwithstanding, it hath been reported throughout a great part of the realm that I married [them after the Coronation]; which was plainly false, for I myself knew not thereof a fortnight after it was done. And many other things be also reported of me, which be mere lies and tales.

Source: Henry Ellis, ed. *Original Letters of Illustrative of English History, including Numerous Royal Letters*. London, 1825. Vol 3, pp. 34-39.
Archaic spellings have in places been reduced.

GLOSSARY

heartie (hearty) = sincero, cordiale

wise (arch.) = modo, maniera

to commend someone unto someone

(arch.) = salutare

to be loath = essere spiacente

utterly = completamente

to reckon = credere

of late = di recente

in that behalf = per quel motivo

to repair = recarsi

inasmuch = poiché

craft = barca

appointed = equipaggiato

barge = grande barca a remi

decked = ornato

gorgeous = sfarzoso

pageant = corteo, processione

to tarry = rimanere in attesa

shawm = oboe antico
comely = in maniera graziosa
nigh = vicino
pontificalibus = vestimenti e insegne
 episcopali
furnished = abbigliato
crozier = pastorale (bastone)

apparelled = vestito
gown = vestito lungo (da donna)
besynes (business) = attività
to bear (bore, born) = portare
scepter = scettro
rod = bastone

THE ACT OF SUPREMACY

The Parliamentary Act from 1534 gave legal sanction to Henry as Head of the Church of England.

Albeit the king's Majesty justly and rightfully is and ought to be the supreme head of the Church of England, and so is recognised by the clergy of this realm in their convocations, yet nevertheless, for corroboration and confirmation thereof, and for increase of virtue in Christ's religion within this realm of England, and to repress and extirpate all errors, heresies, and other enormities and abuses heretofore used in the same, be it enacted, by authority of this present Parliament, that the king, our sovereign lord, his heirs and successors, kings of this realm, shall be taken, accepted, and reputed the only supreme head in earth of the Church of England, called *Anglicans Ecclesia*; and shall have and enjoy, annexed and united to the imperial crown of this realm, as well the title and style thereof, as all honours, dignities, pre-eminent titles, jurisdictions, privileges, authorities, immunities, profits, and commodities to the said dignity of the supreme head of the same Church belonging and appertaining; and that our said sovereign lord, his heirs and successors, kings of this realm, shall have full power and authority from time to time to visit, repress, redress, record, order, correct, restrain, and amend all such errors, heresies, abuses, offences, contempts and enormities, whatsoever they be, which by any manner of spiritual authority or jurisdiction ought or may lawfully be reformed, repressed, ordered, redressed, corrected, restrained, or amended, most to the pleasure of Almighty God, the increase of virtue in Christ's religion, and for the conservation of the peace, unity, and tranquillity of this realm; any usage, foreign land, foreign authority, prescription, or any other thing or things to the contrary hereof notwithstanding.

Source: Milton Viorst, ed., *The Great Documents of Western Civilization*. New York; 1965, pp. 97-98.

GLOSSARY

albeit = benché
to enact = decretare
to restrain = controllare

to redress = correggere, rettificare
annexed = annesso
offence = reato

NOTES

The verb *to advertise* (*this is to advertise you...*) is an obsolete usage meaning *informare* or *avvertire*. In modern English its meaning is *fare pubblicità a, reclamizzare*, and the related noun is *advertisement*. This should not be confused with the verb *to advise*, related noun *advice*, meaning *consigliare*.

The use of the adjective *said* (*which said matter / the said dignity*) is today limited to legal documents and contracts.

COMPREHENSION

1. Why did Archbishop Cranmer go to Dunstable?
2. Where did the Coronation take place?
3. Was Anne Boleyn married before or after her coronation? Why does Cranmer specify the matter?

WORD STUDY

The prefix *re-* is added to words to indicate a repetition: *remarry re-educate*. It also indicates return to a previous condition: *renew reunite re-journey*. In both cases it is unnecessary to add an adverb such as *back* or *again*.

Write sentences with the following words.

- 1) reconstruct _____
- 2) re-read _____
- 3) reformulate _____
- 4) re-order _____
- 5) re-establish _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

Archaic spelling and vocabulary have been greatly reduced in the edited versions of these two texts. However, some aspects of 16th-century English remain. See Unit 4 and Appendix VI for further details on Early Modern English.

Spelling

The final inflective *-e* and some archaic spellings are still found:

parte *besynes* *Abbeu.*

Verb forms

The *-th/-eth* verb endings have been kept: *hath* *keepeth.*

Grammar

Archaic adverbs are used throughout the passages: *thereunto* *therein.*

Sentences are long with few connectives. The apostrophe for the genitive case is sometimes omitted.

Vocabulary

Some archaic words are found: *nigh* (near), *unto* (to), *apparelled* (dressed).

Some examples of the archaic verbs are *to advertise*, *to commend* (recommend), *to repair unto* (to go to), *to tarry* (to delay).

There are two examples of archaic phrases that have been blended in modern English: *all the ways* (always) *of the clock* (o'clock). See Unit 8 for others.

FORMAL AND ARCHAIC ADVERBS

The following archaic adverbs are sometimes still used in legal texts:

thereby = by this; near that place

therefor = for this

therein/herein = in that/this place

thereinafter/hereinafter = from that/this point on

thereinto = into that place

thereof/hereof = of or concerning

thereunto = to that (place)

hereat = because of this

hereby = by means of this

hereinafter = in a following part

hereinbefore = in a previous part

heretofore = previous; before this time

hereupon = upon this; after this/that time

herewith = together with this

Exercise 6

Look at the following examples of archaic adverbs from the reading text and find the nouns they refer to.

- 1) *I intend to inform you a part thereof* _____
- 2) *Notwithstanding that she would not at all obey thereunto* _____
- 3) *I myself knew not thereof* _____
- 4) *any other thing or things to the contrary hereof* _____

PROBLEMS WITH TIME EXPRESSIONS

to-day / to-morrow

These archaic hyphenated spellings derive from the original meaning *to the day / to the morrow*.

tonight

This is a reference to future time and should not be confused with the Italian *stanotte* (last night), which can have a past reference.

I had a bad dream last night. *I'm going to the cinema tonight.*

last night / yesterday morning

Last is not generally used with *morning, afternoon, evening*. Note also the expressions *the night before last* (l'altra notte), *the day after tomorrow* (domani dopo), *the day before yesterday* (l'altro ieri).

in three days' time

The saxon genitive is used with time expressions (see Unit 5). This is a reference to future time. *He's graduating in two months' time.*

this time next / last year

Used to compare present and future/past time.

This time last year I was sitting my final exams. But this time next year I will have graduated.

eventually

Do not confuse *eventually* (in the end) with *eventualmente* (if necessary).

He was not happy about the decision, but eventually he agreed.

presently

This is an expression of future time meaning 'in a few moments'.

I'll be with you presently.

lately

This adverb (ultimamente), and the archaic form *of late*, should not be confused with the adjective *late* (in ritardo), which is often used to modify time expressions: *in the late (early) 19th century*.

He has been very busy lately.

once

This adverb (una volta) is also used in expressions such as *at once* (immediatamente, allo stesso tempo), *once more/again* (ancora una volta), *once and for all* (una volta per sempre). The expression *Once upon a time...* begins fairy stories (C'era una volta...).

I once had an accident.

Come here at once.

I'll read the book once more.

The plan is at once good and bad.

I'll tell you once and for all to be quiet!

Exercise 7

Choose the most appropriate word to complete each sentence.

*afterwards
after*

*eventually
lately*

*yet
once*

*nowadays
late*

- 1) You arrived _____ today. You're usually on time.
- 2) I'm sure you'll feel better _____ you have had a rest.
- 3) _____ women hold important jobs.
- 4) I finished the exam quickly. _____ I went for a drink with my friends
- 5) He's been very strange _____. Is something worrying him?
- 6) We used to work together _____, but don't any longer.
- 7) They haven't managed to finish the project _____.
- 8) I'm sure you'll have a good job offer _____. Be patient.

TRANSLATION

The Present Perfect tense generally corresponds to the **passato prossimo**.

The Queen has appointed the new Archbishop of Canterbury.

La Regina ha nominato il nuovo Arcivescovo di Canterbury.

It can also be translated with the **presente indicativo** when it indicates a period of time that continues from the past to the present, with the prepositions *for* and *since*.

He has been a priest since he was twenty-five.

Fa il prete da quando aveva venticinque anni.

The Present Perfect Continuous is translated in the same manner.

I have been thinking about you recently.

Ti ho pensato ultimamente.

I have been waiting for you for hours.

Ti aspetto da ore.

- 1) Il Papa è andato in pellegrinaggio a Gerusalemme.
- 2) I monaci vivono nel monastero; le monache nel convento.
- 3) Fa il chierichetto da 2 anni e alla fine vorrebbe farsi prete.
- 4) Il clero e i laici non hanno sempre convissuto in armonia.
- 5) La chiesa anglicana discute il problema del divorzio da molti anni.
- 6) Si è convertito al buddismo.
- 7) L'attuale arcivescovo è in carica da 25 anni.
- 8) I romani portarono il cristianesimo nel IV secolo.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: The Church

believer = credente

Christendom = mondo cristiano

Christianity = cristianesimo

convent = convento

faith = fede

heathen = pagano

liturgy = liturgia

mass = messa

monastery = monastero

monk = monaco

nun = monaca

papacy = papato

pilgrimage = pellegrinaggio

secular = profano

see = vescovato

to bless = benedire

to enter the priesthood = farsi
prete

to pray = pregare

to take holy orders = entrare in
un ordine

to worship = adorare

UNIT 4

THE ENGLISH BIBLE

Little is known about the early history of the Bible in English. It is believed that in the 8th and 9th centuries various writers, including the Venerable Bede and King Alfred, translated parts or all of the Bible stories into Old English. Aelfric, Archbishop of Canterbury from 994 to 1005, is thought to have translated the first seven books of the Bible, and other translations are reported to have existed. However, very little remains of these writings.

The first whole translation of the Bible into the English language is attributed to John Wycliffe (1320-1384). An English theologian and religious reformer, Wycliffe rejected the biblical basis of papal power and questioned the doctrine of the transubstantiation of the host, thus anticipating the Protestant Reformation, and was declared a heretic in 1408. His manuscript circulated illegally for almost 150 years before the first printed English Bible appeared. For more than a century, the Wycliffe Bible was the only vernacular edition available, and it was not actually printed until 1850.

By 1500, vernacular editions of the Bible were being published in French, Italian, Spanish, and German. The German Protestant reformer Martin Luther translated the New Testament into German in 1522 and the rest of the Bible in 1534.

William Tyndale (c.1494-1536) was an English religious reformer whose translation of the New Testament was in part based on Luther's German version. Forbidden by the Church in England, Tyndale's translation was completed in Germany, but by 1530 six editions, numbering about 15,000 copies, had been published and smuggled into England. Tyndale was later caught, condemned to death, strangled and burned at the stake.

In 1539, after the break with the Church of Rome, Thomas Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury, commissioned Myles Coverdale to publish the "Great Bible" at the request of King Henry VIII. It became the first English Bible authorised for public use and read aloud in churches.

In 1543 Parliament banned the use of Tyndale's New Testament as a reaction against the reform movement, and made it a crime to read it publicly to others. In 1553, after the accession of Mary Tudor and the subsequent persecution of Protestants, English Reformers escaped to Geneva. The revision of the whole Bible they undertook in 1560, known as the Geneva Bible, was used throughout the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

In 1604, King James I of England authorised six committees of about 50 scholars to prepare a revision of earlier English translations of the Bible. The scholars were laymen as well as Anglican and Puritan clergy, and included ranking Oriental and Greek scholars of the time. Two of the committees were at Oxford, two at Cambridge, and two at Westminster. They drew on all of the previously published English translations, on some Latin versions, and even on Luther's German translation, and consulted Hebrew and Greek texts available to them. The work was greatly influenced by William Tyndale's New Testament. One third of the text was carried over from Tyndale's translation. The King James Bible took seven years to complete and was published in 1611. It was known as the King James (or Authorised) Version, and it became the most widely used translation in the English-speaking world.

The first Catholic Bible was known as the Rheims and Douay Version, named originally for the Catholic College in Rheims, before it moved to Douay in 1609-10, where it was translated from the Latin Vulgate version. It was revised between 1749 and 1763 to produce the Rheims-Douay Bible, which is the foundation on which nearly all English Catholic versions are still based. Some recent Roman Catholic editions are the Westminster Version and the New American Bible (1970).

A Revised Version of the King James Bible appeared in 1881, which drew on advances in scholarship to produce a more accurate text. Since then numerous other versions have been published, including the American Standard Version (1901), the Revised Standard Version with modernised language (1952), and the New King James Version (1982), an up-dated version of the King James Version.

Compare the versions of these lines from **John 3:16**:

1st Ed. King James (1611): For God so loued the world, that he gaue his only begotten Sonne: that whosoeuer beleeueth in him, should not perish, but haue euerlasting life.

New Jerusalem Bible (1990): For this is how God loved the world: he gave his only Son, so that everyone who believes in him may not perish but may have eternal life.

Reference

L.M. Vance, *A Brief History of English Bible Translations* (Vance Publishing, 1993).

GLOSSARY

to reject = rifiutare	to ban = proibire
to question = mettere in discussione	crime = delitto, reato
host = ostia	accession = ascesa
vernacular = in volgare	to undertake (undertook, under-taken) = intraprendere
to print = stampare	*scholar = studioso
available = disponibile	laymen = laico
to forbid (forbade, forbidden) = proibire	ranking = illustre, eminente
to number = contare, ammontare a	to draw (drew, drawn) on = attingere a
to smuggle = contrabbandare	to carry over = riportare
to strangle = strangolare, soffocare	English-speaking = di lingua inglese
stake = rogo	up-dated = aggiornato
aloud = ad alta voce	to perish = perire

NOTES

The adverb *actually* corresponds to the Italian *in realtà*, *veramente*. *Attualmente* is the English *at present*. See Appendix IV for other ‘false friends’.

The adjective *early*, and its comparative and superlative forms *earlier* and *earliest*, can be used with the meaning *primo* or *antico*:

<i>the early history of the Bible</i>	<i>earlier English translations</i>
la prima storia della Bibbia	le traduzioni inglesi precedenti
<i>the early Church</i>	<i>early writers</i>
la Chiesa primitiva	gli scrittori antichi

Note the difference between *writing* (scrittura), *handwriting* (calligrafia), *manuscript* (manoscritto), and *writings* (scritti).

WORD STUDY

The suffixes *-er* and *-or* are added to verbs to form nouns for the person or object that performs the action of the verb:

to translate → *translator* *to reform* → *reformer*

The suffix *-ee* is used to form nouns indicating the person who is the recipient of the action. Some common pairs are: *employer* → *employee*

Make nouns from the following verbs using *-er* or *-or*, and write a sentence using each one.

- 1) to compute _____
- 2) to invest _____
- 3) to work _____
- 4) to solicit _____
- 5) to act _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

PASSIVE VOICE

The Passive form of the verb is formed by the appropriate tense of the verb *to be* plus the Past Participle. The object of the active form becomes the subject of the passive form.

Active: *They attribute the translation to Wycliffe.*

They are translating the Bible.

Passive: *The translation is attributed to Wycliffe.*

The Bible is being translated.

The Passive is used when the doer of the action is unknown, and there is more interest in the action or its result. The preposition *by* is used only when it is necessary to identify the agent:

The Bible was translated into English in 1382.

The Bible was translated first by Wycliffe and later by Tyndale.

Exercise 1

Re-write the following passive sentences from the reading passage in the active form. Use the subject pronoun *they*.

1) The first whole translation of the Bible is attributed to John Wycliffe.

2) Wycliffe was declared a heretic in 1408.

3) Vernacular versions of the Bible were being published in French.

4) By 1530 six editions had been published and smuggled into England.

5) Numerous other versions have been published.

6) New versions are being issued all the time.

If the verb has both a direct and an indirect object, the passive may be formed in two ways.

They wrote him a letter.

He was written a letter. A letter was written to him.

However, the second form with the direct object as the subject of the passive verb is less usual.

Exercise 2

Transform the following sentences into the passive in two ways.

1) The foundation has given John a prize.

2) They presented him with a gold medal.

3) He is showing me the award tonight.

4) He'll send it to his mother.

5) He's going to sell a second book to the publisher.

The Passive can be used with modal auxiliary verbs: *can, may, will, shall, could, might, should, must*.

The modal verb is followed by the passive infinitive without *to*:
A new translation will be made. It may be published next year.

In past reference it is followed by the perfect infinitive passive:
It should have been done years ago.

Exercise 3

Re-write the following sentences in the passive. Use *by + agent* only when necessary.

- 1) Everyone can borrow books from the library.
-

- 2) You must bring them back on time.
-

- 3) Otherwise you may have to pay a small fine.
-

- 4) The librarian could ban you from the library.
-

- 5) I might have taken the book back late.
-

- 6) I could have lost the book.
-

- 7) He would have given me a fine.
-

- 8) I should have looked for it.
-

If the verb is followed by a preposition and object, the preposition must be retained in the passive sentence. This also applies to phrasal and prepositional verbs:

The lawyer looked at all the documents.

All the documents were looked at by the lawyer.

Exercise 4

Re-write the following sentences in the passive. The preposition or adverb must follow the verb. Use *by + agent* only when necessary.

- 1) She writes to her publisher once a week.
-

- 2) I had to look up the word in the dictionary.
-

- 3) They took out the introduction from the book.
-

- 4) She is putting up a notice about the programme next week.
-

- 5) The students have never listened to their teacher.
-

- 6) The office deals with all problems.
-

- 7) Has OUP taken over that small publisher?
-

- 8) They were drawing on different sources for the dictionary.
-

Passive constructions are very commonly found in formal and scientific English to express impersonal concepts.

In particular, passive constructions are used to report statements or information in an impersonal manner. See Unit 6 for other impersonal verb phrases.

Compare:

We predicted that the proof would be wrong.
It was predicted that the proof would be wrong.

People say that the politician is corrupt.
It is said that the politician is corrupt.

Some of the verbs most commonly used in this way are: *believe, consider, estimate, expect, hope, know, say, state, suggest, suppose, think, understand.*

Exercise 5

Re-write the following sentences using an impersonal construction with *it* and the passive form.

1) People know that he is a very good translator.

2) People have said that his translation was the most accurate.

3) People estimated that his book would sell well.

4) People will suppose that he has become very wealthy.

5) People thought he would win the prize.

6) People are saying that he will change his profession in the near future.

7) People understand he is tired of the lack of privacy.

8) People hope he will change his mind.

FURTHER READING

THE KING JAMES VERSION

Original Preface [1611]

Epistle and Dedicatore

To the most high and mightie Prince, James by the grace of God King of Great Britaine, France and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. The translators of The Bible, wish Grace, Mercie, and Peace, through Jesus Christ our Lord. Great and manifold were the blessings (most dread Soveraigne) which Almighty GOD, the Father of all Mercies, bestowed upon us the people of ENGLAND, when first he sent your Majesties Royall person to rule and raigne over us. For whereas it was the expectation of many, who wished not well unto our ZION, that upon the setting of that bright Occidentall Starre Queene ELIZABETH of most happy memory, some thicke and palpable cloudes of darkenesse would so have overshadowed this land, that men should have bene in doubt which way they were to walke, and that it should hardly be knownen, who was to direct the unsettled State: the appearance of your MAJESTIE, as of the Sunne in his strength, instantly dispelled those supposed and surmised mists, and gave unto all that were well affected, exceeding cause of comfort; especially when we beheld the government established in your HIGHNESSE, and your hopefull Seed, by an undoubted Title, and this also accompanied with Peace and tranquillitie, at home and abroad.

But amongst all our Joyes, there was no one that more filled our hearts, than the blessed continuance of the Preaching of GODS sacred word amongst us, which is that inestimable treasure, which excelleth all the riches of the earth, because the fruit thereof extendeth it selfe, not onely to the time spent in this transitory world, but directeth and disposeth men unto that Eternall happinesse which is above in Heaven.

Then, not to suffer this to fall to the ground, but rather to take it up, and to continue it in that state, wherein the famous predecessor of your HIGHNESSE did leave it; Nay, to goe forward with the confidence and resolution of a man in maintaining the trueth of CHRIST, and propagating it farre and neere, is that which hath so bound and firmly knit the hearts of all your MAJESTIES loyall and Religious people unto you, that your very Name is precious among them, their eye doeth behold you with comfort, and they blesse you in their hearts, as that sanctified person, who under GOD, is the immediate authour of their true happinesse. And this their contentment doeth not diminish or decay, but every day increaseth and taketh strength, when they observe that the zeale of your Majestie towards the house of GOD, doth not slacke or goe backward, but is

more and more kindled, manifesting it selfe abroad in the furthest parts of Christendome, by writing in defence of the Trueth, (which hath given such a blow unto that man of Sinne, as will not be healed) and every day at home, by Religious and learned discourse, by frequenting the house of GOD, by hearing the word preached, by cherishing the teachers therof, by caring for the Church as a most tender and loving nourcng Father.

There are infinite arguments of this right Christian and Religious affection in your MAJESTIE: but none is more forcible to declare it to others, than the vehement and perpetuated desire of the accomplishing and publishing of this Worke, which now with all humilitie we present unto your MAJESTIE. For when your Highnesse had once out of deepe judgment apprehended, how convenient it was, That out of the Originall sacred tonges, together with comparing of the labours, both in our owne and other forreigne Languages, of many worthy men who went before us, there should be one more exact Translation of the holy Scriptures into the English tongue; your MAJESTIE did never desist, to urge and to excite those to whom it was commended, that the worke might be hastened, and that the businesse might be expedited in so decent a maner, as a matter of such importance might justly require.

And now at last, by the Mercy of GOD, and the continuance of our Labours, it being brought unto such a conclusion, as that we have great hope that the Church of England shall reap good fruit thereby; we hold it our duety to offer it to your MAJESTIE, not onely as to our King and Soveraigne, but as to the principall moover and Author of the Worke. Humbly craving of your most Sacred Majestie, that since things of this quality have ever bene subject to the censures of ill meaning and discontented persons, it may receive approbation and Patronage from so learned and judicious a Prince as your Highnesse is, whose allowance and acceptance of our Labours, shall more honour us and incourage us, then all the calumniations and hard interpretations of other men shall dismay us. So that, if on the one side we shall be traduced by Popish persons at home or abroad, who therefore will maligne us, because we are poore Instruments to make GODS holy Trueth to be yet more and more knownen unto the people, whom they desire still to keepe in ignorance and darknesse: or if on the other side, we shall be maligned by selfe-conceited brethren, who runne their owne wayes, and give liking unto nothing but what is framed by themselves, and hammered on their Anvile; we may rest secure, supported within by the trueth and innocencie of a good conscience, having walked the wayes of simplicitie and integritie, as before the Lord; And sustained without, by the powerfull Protection of your Majesties grace and favour, which will ever give countenance to honest and Christian endevours, against bitter censures, and uncharitable imputations.

The LORD of Heaven and earth blesse your Majestie with many and happy dayes, that as his Heavenly hand hath enriched your Highnesse with many singular, and extraordinary Graces; so you may be the wonder of the world in this later age, for happinesse and true felicitie, to the honour of that Great GOD, and the good of his Church, through JESUS CHRIST our Lord and onely Saviour.

GLOSSARY

mightyie (mighty) = potente	to accomplish = compiere, realizzare
manifold = molteplice	to apprehend = percepire
blessing = benedizione	*convenient = opportuno
dread (arc.) = venerabile	tongue = lingua
to bestow = concedere	worthy = degno
almighty = onnipotente	to urge = incoraggiare
to raigne (reign) = regnare	to hasten = accelerare
whereas = mentre	decent = adeguato
to overshadow = oscurare	to reap (reap) = raccogliere
unsetled (unsettled) = agitato	to crave = desiderare
to dispel = disperdere	approbation = approvazione
supposed = presunto	patronage = patrocinio, protezione
surmised = sospettato	learned = dotto
mist = nebbia	to dismay = costernare
well affected = ben disposto	to traduce = diffamare, calunniare
to behold = guardare	Popish (spreg.) = papista
to bind (bound, bound) = legare	self-conceited = presuntuoso
to knit = unire	brethren (arc.) = fratelli
contentment = appagamento	to frame = formulare
to decay = indebolirsi	to hammer = battere, martellare
to slack = allentare	anvile (anvil) = incudine
to kindle = accendere	to give (gave, given) countenance to = dare appoggio a
blow = colpo	endeavour (endeavour) = tentativo
to cherish = curare con amore	uncharitable = ingeneroso
nourcing (nourishing) = nutriente	
forcible = efficace	

NOTES

The symbol & is known as ‘ampersand’, a shortened form of *and per se and*. It means ‘and’. The symbol &c. is an abbreviation of *et cetera (etc.)*

See Unit 6 for the use of the prefix *be-*: *bestowed beheld*.

The verb *to present* is translated with *presentare, donare*: *He presented the actor with the prize*. It can also be used to mean *presentarsi*: *He presented*

himself for the exam. However, the verb *to introduce* is used for *far conoscere*: *He introduced me to his mother.* The noun *present* is *dono* or *regalo*, and the verb *regalare* is translated *to give (a present)*.

The English word *convenient* (comodo, opportuno) should not be confused with the Italian word *conveniente* (cheap, good value). See Appendix IV for other ‘false friends’.

COMPREHENSION

1. Who is writing the Preface?
2. Who is the work dedicated to?
3. Who are the “Popish persons” mentioned?

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ness* is used to form nouns, generally from adjectives, indicating a state or quality:

sadness *kindness* *hopelessness* *friendliness*

Write sentences using the following nouns from the reading passage.

- 1) highness _____
- 2) darkness _____
- 3) happiness _____
- 4) business _____

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

Early Modern English differs from Modern English in several ways.

Spelling

Spellings have not yet been standardised.

- The final *-e* remains from the Old English inflections, but is no longer pronounced.
- The letters *i*, *y* and *j* are still interchangeable, as are the letters *u* and *v*.
- Initial capital letters are used with some nouns and adjectives.
- Words are sometimes written in capital letters or italics to give them particular emphasis.

Verb forms

The suffix *-eth* is still used for the third person singular he/she/it.

Grammar

The pronouns *thou/thy/thee* that had previously been used for familiar address are replaced by *ye/your/you*, the plural forms used for respectful address. The auxiliary verb *do* is used in affirmative as well as in negative sentences. The interrogative form is often formed by inversion of the verb and subject, without the use of an auxiliary verb. The double negative is still permitted. In addition, there are some differences in word order and the frequent use of the conjunctions *and* and *but* instead of relative clauses. The progressive tenses are not used.

Vocabulary

Some words and expressions are archaic and no longer used; others have changed in meaning.

Exercise 6

Re-write the following words and phrases in contemporary English.

<i>mightie</i>	<i>Mercie</i>
<i>Soveraigne</i>	<i>raigne</i>
<i>Thicke</i>	<i>walke</i>
<i>Occidentall Starre</i>	<i>unsetled</i>
<i>Knowen</i>	<i>bene</i>
<i>farre and neere</i>	<i>nay</i>
<i>their eye doeth behold you</i>	<i>dread</i>
<i>their contentment doeth not diminish</i>	<i>brethren</i>
<i>your MAJESTIE never did desist</i>	<i>GODS holy Trueth</i>
<i>your Majesties Royall person</i>	

TRANSLATION

The passive is more commonly used in English than in Italian. Often it is translated with the impersonal *si* form.

English is spoken here.

Qui si parla inglese.

He was said to be rich.

Si diceva che egli fosse ricco.

It is hoped he will change his mind.

Si spera che cambierà idea.

The passive continuous form is either translated with a simple passive or an continuous active form.

It is being translated.
He was being persecuted.

Viene tradotto. / Lo stanno traducendo.
 Era perseguitato. / Lo stavano perseguitando.

- 1) La traduzione della Bibbia fu contestata dai teologi
- 2) I dodici apostoli insegnarono la fede cristiana.
- 3) La fonte per la traduzione fu la versione latina.
- 4) Il martire fu condannato a morte e messo al rogo.
- 5) L'eretico sostiene credenze contrarie all'insegnamento della chiesa.
- 6) Si leggevano i libri banditi in segreto.
- 7) L'antico manoscritto è stato trascritto dagli studiosi.
- 8) Si cerca una maggiore armonia tra le chiese cristiane.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Theology

Apocrypha = libri apocrifi

apostle = apostolo

disciple = discepolo

doctrine = dottrina

Doomsday = Giudizio Universale

epistle = epistola

gospel = vangelo

heresy = eresia

host = ostia

martyr = martire

persecution = persecuzione

prophecy = profezia

reformer = riformatore

revealed truth = verità rivelata

salvation = salvezza

scriptures = Sacra Scrittura, Bibbia

source = fonte

theology = teologia

to dispute = contestare

transubstantiation = transustanziazione

UNIT 5

THE NEW SCIENTIFIC METHOD

An experimentally controlled mathematical science of nature similar to the science of our own day did not become firmly established in Western society until the 17th and 18th centuries. The new findings and approaches that resulted from scientific inquiry during that period and the century preceding it—especially in astronomy, physics, and biology—marked a major turning point in human history. They weakened the Mediaeval view of the world and man's place in it by showing Aristotelian physics and cosmology on which that view was based to be faulty; they challenged established understandings of human reason and of how the examination of nature must be conducted; and they produced tools of intellectual and physical analysis that brought about enormous changes to scientific thought.

The most sensational revolution in the conception of the world took place in astronomy and mechanics. It is generally agreed that it was Galileo Galilei (1564-1642) who laid the bases of the modern science of mechanics. His predecessor, Copernicus (1473-1543), had published his heliocentric theory challenging Ptolemy's geocentric theory of the heavens in *De Revolutionibus Orbium Coelestium* in 1543. But the real demolition of Mediaeval cosmology came from the later work of Galileo, Kepler, and Newton. Galileo constructed a telescope with which he examined the heavens and his discoveries, published in 1610, clearly illustrated the Copernican notion of the universe. Moreover, Galileo also tried to construct a theory of mechanics that was fully in accord with the conjecture of a moving earth in his great *Dialogue on the Two Chief Systems of the World, the Ptolemaic and the Copernican*. The Inquisition later forced him to denounce the Copernican theory as heretical, and the *Dialogue*, together with the astronomical writings of Copernicus and Kepler, was placed on the Index, where they remained until 1835.

Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) devoted years of work to a search for the correct planetary orbits, and in 1609 announced his discovery that the planets move on elliptical orbits with the sun at one focus. This helped forge a method of inquiry into nature that is characteristic of modern science. The new scientific method united the mathematical analysis of quantitatively specified properties with the scrupulous testing of the analysis by accurate observation.

Yet much still had to be done before the assumption that nature was to be understood as a mechanical order could completely replace the traditional account of events. A philosophical basis for interpreting animate as well as inanimate processes in mechanical terms needed to be developed. And a science of mechanics whose range of application included both terrestrial and celestial

phenomena was also necessary. The former was in considerable measure the work of René Descartes (1596-1650), the latter of Isaac Newton (1642-1727).

Descartes' philosophical views were closely related to his scientific work, especially to his important contributions to the development of analytic geometry, mechanics, and optics. He presented a sketch of a universal mechanics that attributed all changes in the motions of bodies to impacts between them. With the exception of God and the human soul, he believed that all other animate or inanimate things could be explained in such mechanical terms. Newton, like Descartes, believed that the fundamental principles concerning the forces of nature must be formulated in mathematical terms. Unlike Descartes, however, he claimed these principles were inductive conclusions drawn from properly analysed experiments or observations. Newton expounded the complementary roles of mathematical reasoning and experiment in the study of nature, and so combined important components in the rationalist and empiricist philosophies of knowledge that went into the shaping of the new science.

In this period, considerable advances were also made in other sectors of physics, in chemistry, and in the life sciences. Many of these inquiries resulted in theoretical or experimental discoveries that contributed to the development of commerce, manufacture, and the military arts. Indeed, the chief value of the new science to some minds consisted in the greater control over nature it made possible, a view of the goal of scientific inquiry for which Francis Bacon (1561-1626) was an eloquent advocate long before the new science achieved its major triumphs.

By the end of the 17th century, a number of societies for the experimental study of nature were formed in various countries to provide opportunities for exchanging scientific ideas, carrying out experimental research, and witnessing scientific demonstrations. The *Royal Society of London for Promoting Natural Knowledge*, incorporated by royal charter in 1662, grew out of weekly meetings of scientists and other interested persons that began to be held in 1645 in London. Members of the Society were not professional scientists. However, the Curator of Experiments, a scientist of proved competence, was responsible for the experimental investigations. In 1665 the Society began to publish its *Philosophical Transactions*, one of the earliest scientific journals, in order to disseminate scientific knowledge at home and abroad.

Reference

M. Ashley, *The Golden Century. Europe 1598-1715* (London: Cardinal, 1975).

GLOSSARY

finding = scoperta

inquiry = ricerca

to mark = segnare

turning point = svolta

to undermine = minare, scardinare

untenable = insostenibile

to challenge = contestare

entrenched = radicato, consolidato

tool = strumento

***eventually** = alla fine

to occur = accadere

to lay (laid, laid) the foundations =
gettare le basi

indebted = obbligato

to set (set, set) out = esporre

assumption = assunto

to force = costringere

to devote = dedicare

***decade** = decennio

focus (pl. foci) = fuoco (geometria)

to forge = forgiare

task = compito

range = ambito, campo

in outline = in abbozzo

motion = movimento

to maintain = affermare

to draw (drew, drawn) from =
trarre da

properly = correttamente

life sciences = scienze naturali

view = visione

goal = obiettivo

***advocate** = sostenitore

to achieve = realizzare

to engage in = impegnarsi in

to witness = assistere

charter = statuto

to grow (grew, grown) out of =
nascere da

***journal** = rivista

to disseminate = diffondere

NOTES

There are numerous English verbs formed from an adjective by the addition of the *-en* suffix. Some common verbs are: *weaken, brighten, darken, deepen, harden, soften, thicken, tighten*. The verb *strengthen* is formed from the noun *strength*.

Note also the other nouns formed from the present participle of verbs:

findings

writings

understandings

WORD STUDY

The suffixes *-er, -or* and *-ist* can be used to refer to people engaged in a profession:

lawyer

administrator

pianist

Use the suffixes above to form the names of the professions. Write a sentence using each new word.

- 1) economics _____
- 2) translate _____
- 3) science _____
- 4) astronomy _____
- 5) teach _____
- 6) biology _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Nouns are divided into two general classes:

countable nouns: *telescope, planet, task, meeting.*

uncountable nouns: *science, history, time, work.*

Some nouns belong to both classes. Countable nouns often take on an abstract meaning when used as uncountable nouns:

That painting is a work of art. *Work on the experiment is continuing.*
He has a new theory. *Theory must be combined with practice.*

Some uncountable nouns can be used as countable nouns in more formal English to describe a type in a technical sense:

I need some money. *The bank invests moneys in real estate.*
People don't understand his work. *The native peoples of the Pacific.*

Exercise 1

Find the following nouns in the reading passage and decide whether they are used as countable or uncountable nouns.

inquiry *physics* *orbits* *basis* *reasoning* *nature*

Information is one of the several nouns that are countable in Italian but uncountable in English. They have a plural meaning but no plural form, and are always followed by a singular verb: *His information is always accurate.*

The indefinite article *a/an* is never used:

I need some information. *Have they given you any information?*

If it is necessary to specify the singular, expressions like *a piece of, an item of, a bit of* may be used: *a bit of useful information, a piece of advice, a sheet of paper, a bottle of wine, an item of news.*

Some other uncountable nouns in English are: *advice, behaviour, business, furniture, luggage/baggage, money, music, news, progress, travel, research, work.*

Exercise 2

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

- 1) Her researches are going well.
- 2) Put the luggages in the hall.
- 3) The news are very interesting.
- 4) They didn't earn many money from the project.
- 5) What a modern furniture!
- 6) He's hoping to find a new work.
- 7) Researchers are making great progresses in that field.
- 8) He makes a lot of business travels.

NOUN PLURALS

The plural of a noun is usually made by adding the suffix *-s* to the singular noun: *figure → figures planet → planets*

If the noun ends in *-ch, -o, -sh, -ss, -x, -zz*, the suffix *-es* is added:
loss → losses church → churches

If the noun ends in vowel *-y* (after a consonant), the plural is formed with the suffix *-ies*:

society → societies property → properties

If the noun ends in consonantal *-y* (after a vowel), the spelling is regular:
day → days play → plays

If the noun ends in *-f* or *-fe*, the plural is in many cases formed with *-ves*:
life → lives self → selves

Sometimes there is an internal vowel change: *man* → *men* *mouse* → *mice*

PLURAL NOUNS

As mentioned above, uncountable nouns do not have a plural form and are never used with a plural verb. Some nouns instead are always used with a plural verb:

People are increasingly interested in scientific progress.

The goods were bought and sold.

Some of the most common nouns that are always plural in English are: *police, clothes, trousers, pyjamas, scissors, glasses, scales, arms, savings*.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Collective nouns can take either a singular or plural verb.

The verb is singular if the word refers to a single group or unit:

The government is increasing funding to its medical research projects.

The verb is plural if the word refers to the individuals who make up the unit:

The government are voting to increase their own salaries.

Some of the most common collective nouns in English are: *army, class, family, majority, minority, staff, team*.

FOREIGN PLURALS

Foreign words—mainly Italian—that end in *-o*, can take their original plural suffix *-i* (mainly for musical terms) or, more commonly, the plural is formed with the English suffix *-s*: *concerto* → *concerti* or *concertos*.

Some words that are Greek or Latin in origin retain their original plurals:

crisis → *crises* *erratum* → *errata* *radius* → *radii*

COMPOUND NOUNS

In compound words, the last word is usually made plural:

life sciences *school teachers* *world languages* *swimming pools*

However, occasionally it is the first word that is made plural:

sisters-in-law *passers-by* *notaries public*

If the first word contains the words *man* or *woman*, both words are made plural: *menservants* *gentlemen farmers* *women doctors*

Exercise 3

Make the following nouns plural: some plurals have spelling variations, some nouns have no plural, some form their plural with a vowel change, some are foreign words.

belief	half	phenomenon
boy	hypothesis	potato
chairman	labour market	reply
child	mechanics	series
crisis	medium	tempo
criterion	mother-in-law	woman student
formula	person	zoo

POSSESSIVE FORMS

The possessive is formed with the addition of an apostrophe and *-s* to the name of the possessor:

Ptolemy's geocentric theory *man's place in the world*

The apostrophe alone is added to plural nouns ending in *-s* and to proper names ending in *-s*:

scientists' discoveries *Descartes' views*

The possessive is used with people and animals, and with personified objects, such as countries and cities: *London's parks*

the earth's orbit *Nature's beauty* *England's capital*

It can also be used with time expressions:

today's lecture *this year's course* *in three weeks' time*

The *of + noun* construction is used to indicate possession with things:

a science of nature *Ptolemy's theory of the heavens*

Sometimes the *of + noun* construction can be replaced by a *noun + noun* construction. See Unit 8 for further details.

The *-s* construction can be used after the *of + noun* construction:

a theory of Ptolemy's (= one of Ptolemy's theories)

an essay of Galileo's (= one of Galileo's essays)

Exercise 4

Re-write the sentences using a possessive form.

- 1) I read about the experiment in *Nature* of this month.
-

- 2) We are going to meet at the house where John lives.
-

- 3) The movement of the earth was investigated by scientists.
-

- 4) I'll see you in a week.
-

- 5) That school for girls has an excellent academic record.
-

- 6) The exam this year is more difficult than that of last year.
-

- 7) He has written a very good story for children.
-

- 8) The world of today is getting more and more violent.
-

VOCABULARY PRACTICE**Exercise 5**

Complete the sentences with a noun from the verb given in brackets. All the nouns appear in the reading passage.

- 1) We really need to give more _____ to the project. (think)
- 2) Copernicus' important _____ was the heliocentric theory of the heavens. (discover)
- 3) Galileo's _____ were placed on the Index. (write)
- 4) His _____ about mechanics was very accurate. (assume)

- 5) Newton made inductive _____. (conclude)
- 6) Scientific _____ were published by the Royal Society. (find)
- 7) The _____ of mechanics to astronomy was a breakthrough.
(apply)
- 8) The 17th century saw the rise of scientific _____. (know)

FURTHER READING

After his studies at Oxford, Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) travelled extensively on the Continent. In England he knew Bacon, Herbert of Cherbury, Ben Johnson, and other leading scholars of the time. During a trip to the Continent in 1634-1637, Thomas Hobbes met Galileo and was greatly influenced by his work on the motions of celestial bodies, incorporating some of Galileo's observations into his own metaphysics. After his return to England he wrote a treatise of his new scientific theory of the state, Elements of Law natural and politic, introducing the scientific method of discovering truth about the world through hypothesis, experimentation, observation and conclusion to the English public. In November 1640, when the Long Parliament began to threaten civil war, Hobbes fled to France where in 1646 he was appointed to teach mathematics to Charles, Prince of Wales. While in Paris, Hobbes composed three treatises, dealing respectively with matter or body, with human nature, and with society. In 1651, he published his greatest work Leviathan; or, The Matter, Forme, and Power of a Commonwealth Ecclesiastical and Civil, a bleak picture of human beings in the state of nature.

LEVIATHAN

Chapter Five

Of Reason and Science

WHEN man *reasoneth*, he does nothing else but conceive a sum total, from *addition* of parcels; or conceive a remainder, from *subtraction* of one sum from another: which, if it be done by words, is conceiving of the consequence of the names of all the parts, to the name of the whole; or from the names of the whole and one part, to the name of the other part. And though in some things, as in numbers, besides adding and subtracting, men name other operations, as *multiplying* and *dividing*; yet they are the same: for multiplication is but adding together of things equal; and division, but subtracting of one thing, as often as

we can. These operations are not incident to numbers only, but to all manner of things that can be added together, and taken one out of another. For as arithmeticians teach to add and subtract in *numbers*, so the geometricians teach the same in *lines, figures* (solid and superficial), *angles, proportions, times*, degrees of *swiftness, force, power*, and the like; the logicians teach the same in *consequences of words*, adding together two *names* to make an *affirmation*, and two *affirmations* to make a *syllogism*, and *many syllogisms* to make a *demonstration*; and from the *sum*, or *conclusion* of a *syllogism*, they subtract one *proposition* to find the other. Writers of politics add together *pactions* to find men's *duties*; and lawyers, *laws*, and *facts* to find what is *right* and *wrong* in the actions of private men. In sum, in what matter soever there is place for *addition* and *subtraction*, there also is place for *reason*; and where these have no place, there *reason* has nothing at all to do.

Out of all which we may define (that is to say, determine) what that is, which is meant by this word *reason* when we reckon it amongst the faculties of the mind. For REASON, in this sense, is nothing but reckoning (that is, adding and subtracting) of the consequences of general names agreed upon for the *marking* and *signifying* of our thoughts; I say *marking* them, when we reckon by ourselves; and *signifying*, when we demonstrate or approve our reckonings to other men.

And as in arithmetic unpractised men must, and professors themselves may often, err, and cast up false; so also in any other subject of reasoning, the ablest, most attentive, and most practised men may deceive themselves, and infer false conclusions; not but that reason itself is always right reason, as well as arithmetic is a certain and infallible art: but no one man's reason, nor the reason of any one number of men, makes the certainty; no more than an account is therefore well cast up because a great many men have unanimously approved it. And therefore, as when there is a controversy in an account, the parties must by their own accord set up for right reason the reason of some arbitrator, or judge, to whose sentence they will both stand, or their controversy must either come to blows, or be undecided, for want of a right reason constituted by Nature [...].

The use and end of reason is not the finding of the sum and truth of one, or a few consequences, remote from the first definitions and settled significations of names; but to begin at these, and proceed from one consequence to another. For there can be no certainty of the last conclusion without a certainty of all those affirmations and negations on which it was grounded and inferred. As when a master of a family, in taking an account, casteth up the sums of all the bills of expense into one sum; and not regarding how each bill

is summed up, by those that give them in account, nor what it is he pays for, he advantages himself no more than if he allowed the account in gross, trusting to every of the accountant's skill and honesty: so also in reasoning of all other things, he that takes up conclusions on the trust of authors, and doth not fetch them from the first items in every reckoning (which are the significations of names settled by definitions), loses his labour, and does not know anything, but only believeth.

When a man reckons without the use of words, which may be done in particular things, as when upon the sight of any one thing, we conjecture what was likely to have preceded, or is likely to follow upon it; if that which he thought likely to follow follows not, or that which he thought likely to have preceded it hath not preceded it, this is called ERROR; to which even the most prudent men are subject. But when we reason in words of general signification, and fall upon a general inference which is false; though it be commonly called *error*, it is indeed an ABSURDITY, or senseless speech. For error is but a deception, in presuming that somewhat is past, or to come; of which, though it were not past, or not to come, yet there was no impossibility discoverable. But when we make a general assertion, unless it be a true one, the possibility of it is inconceivable. And words whereby we conceive nothing but the sound are those we call *absurd*, *insignificant*, and *nonsense*. And therefore if a man should talk to me of a *round quadrangle*; or *accidents of bread in cheese*; or *immaterial substances*; or of a *free subject*; a *free will*; or any *free*, but free from being hindered by opposition; I should not say he were in an error, but that his words were without meaning; that is to say, absurd.

I have said before, in the second chapter, that a man did excel all other animals in this faculty, that when he conceived anything whatsoever, he was apt to enquire the consequences of it, and what effects he could do with it. And now I add this other degree of the same excellence, that he can by words reduce the consequences he finds to general rules, called *theorems*, or *aphorisms*; that is, he can reason, or reckon, not only in number, but in all other things whereof one may be added unto or subtracted from another.

But this privilege is allayed by another; and that is by the privilege of absurdity, to which no living creature is subject, but men only. And of men, those are of all most subject to it that profess philosophy. For it is most true that Cicero saith of them somewhere; that there can be nothing so absurd but may be found in the books of philosophers. And the reason is manifest. For there is not one of them that begins his ratiocination from the definitions or explications of the names they are to use; which is a method that hath been used only in geometry, whose conclusions have thereby been made indisputable. [...]

To him that can avoid these things, it is not easy to fall into any absurdity, unless it be by the length of an account; wherein he may perhaps forget what went before. For all men by nature reason alike, and well, when they have good principles. For who is so stupid as both to mistake in geometry, and also to persist in it, when another detects his error to him?

By this it appears that reason is not, as sense and memory, born with us; nor gotten by experience only, as prudence is; but attained by industry: first in apt imposing of names; and secondly by getting a good and orderly method in proceeding from the elements, which are names, to assertions made by connexion of one of them to another; and so to syllogisms, which are the connexions of one assertion to another, till we come to a knowledge of all the consequences of names appertaining to the subject in hand; and that is it, men call SCIENCE. And whereas sense and memory are but knowledge of fact, which is a thing past and irrevocable; *Science* is the knowledge of consequences, and dependence of one fact upon another; by which, out of that we can presently do, we know how to do something else when we will, or the like, another time: because when we see how anything comes about, upon what causes, and by what manner; when the like causes come into our power, we see how to make it produce the like effects. [...]

Source: Thomas Hobbes, *Leviathan; or, The Matter, Forme, and Power of a Commonwealth Ecclesiasticall and Civill*, 1651. Chapter V.

Ed. William Molesworth. (London: John Bohm, 1834).

Archaic spellings have been reduced in this edition.

GLOSSARY

to conceive = concepire

parcel = parte

remainder = resto, avanzo

to add = addizionare

swiftness = rapidità

like = cosa simile

paction (arch.) = patto

in sum = in breve

what...soever = qualunque

to reckon = calcolare

to cast (cast, cast) up = sommare

to deceive oneself = ingannarsi

to set (set, set) up = provvedere

to infer = dedurre

to stand to = attenersi a

to come (came, come) to blows = venire alle mani

settled = fissato, stabilito

to ground = fondare, basare

bill of expense = fattura

gross = totale lordo

to trust = fidarsi

to fetch = dedurre

item = voce

sight = vista

to hinder = impedire

apt to = capace di

allayed = attenuato

NOTES

The spelling in this edition has largely been modernized. Note, however, Hobbes' use of italics and capital letters for emphasis.

The preposition *but* has the meaning *tranne, eccetto*:

When man reasoneth, he does nothing but conceive a sum total.

In formal English, the verb *to reckon* means *calcolare, dedurre*. In informal English, it has the more general meaning of *considerare, supporre*.

Compare: *The experts reckoned the experiment would be successful.* (formal)
I reckon he'll be able to help me with my mathematics. (informal)

Note the archaic use of *one*:

no one man (= no man / no-one) *any one number of men* (= any number)

The verb *to err* is a more formal alternative of *to make a mistake*:

Professors themselves may often err. The related noun is *error*.

The present subjunctive is today very rare in English and takes the form of the infinitive without to. Note the example here: *which, if it be done by words...* See Unit 11 for other forms of the subjunctive with modal auxiliaries.

The archaic past participle *gotten* (*gotten by experience*) has been replaced in modern English by *got*. It is still used in American English.

COMPREHENSION

1. What science does Hobbes compare the process of reasoning to?
2. How does Hobbes think reason should be used to find truth?
3. What group of scholars does Hobbes say Cicero makes fun of?

WORD STUDY

The verb *to multiply* means 'to increase in number and quantity'. The prefix *multi-* is used to mean 'many' or 'much': *a multi-lateral agreement*.

Find the words beginning with *multi-* which match these definitions.

- 1) A large business operating in several nations is a _____.
- 2) A person with a fortune of several million pounds is a _____.
- 3) A society comprising people of many races is _____.
- 4) A society with people of different cultures is _____.
- 5) Someone who can speak more than two languages is _____.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

MAKE AND DO

It is sometimes difficult to choose between these two verbs that have similar meanings.

Do is used:

- for an unspecified activity:
What do you do? What are you doing?
- with reference to work:
I'm doing a lot of work. Do you do the housework? Have you done that job? She hasn't done her homework.

Some common expressions with *do*:

good / harm / a favour / one's best.

Make often indicates the idea of creation or construction:

I've made a plan. Don't make so much noise. You've made a mistake.

Some common expressions with *make*:

a suggestion / a decision / an effort / a mistake / a noise / friends / money / peace / war.

Note the following examples of *do* and *make* from the reading passage:

When a man reasoneth he does nothing else....

There reason has nothing else to do...

We know how to do something else.

to make an affirmation / a syllogism / a demonstration / a general assertion.

Exercise 6

Put *make* or *do* before the following nouns.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1) _____ a change | 5) _____ a difference |
| 2) _____ justice | 6) _____ trouble |
| 3) _____ a choice | 7) _____ an exercise |
| 4) _____ wrong | 8) _____ a confession |

AS AND LIKE

As is a conjunction and so is generally followed by a verb:

Write as Peter does.

Do as I say not as I do.

Like is a preposition and is used only with a noun, pronoun or gerund:

Write like Peter.

Do like me.

Both *as* and *like* can be used with nouns. *As* indicates a real comparison, *like* an unreal one.

Compare:

He works as a slave. (= He is a slave.)

He works like a slave. (= He works very hard, but is not a real slave.)

I'm not speaking to you as a teacher, but as a friend. (= I am your friend.)

He speaks like a friend, but his actions are not at all friendly. (= He is not a friend.)

Exercise 7

Choose *as* or *like* to complete each sentence.

- 1) He knows the language well so he acted _____ their interpreter.
- 2) _____ Peter, I want to become a botanist
- 3) Scientists receive research funds _____ they do in other countries.
- 4) Simon uses this room _____ his study.
- 5) He really works hard, just _____ his father.
- 6) They performed the experiment _____ they had done twice already.
- 7) She works _____ a botanist but dresses _____ a fashion model.

8) _____ a teacher, he reads a lot of books on education.

OTHER EXPRESSIONS WITH AS

as ... as = tanto...quanto

as often as we can...

(such) as = come ad esempio

And though in some things, as in numbers, ...

as = siccome, poiché

As he was unable to calculate the answer, he failed the exam.

as = mentre, quando, man mano che

The army got weaker as the war Continued.

as if/as though = come se

He acts as if/though he were king.

as to/as for = in quanto a, per quanto riguarda

As to/for that question, they have not decided yet.

as far as = per quanto, per quel che

As far as I know he has finished his studies.

as yet = finora

As yet nothing is known about the accident.

as/so long as = finché

I will never forget you as/so long as I live.

as soon as = non appena che

I shall come as soon as I can.

as of/from = a partire da

It will be law as of/from 1st May.

as ... so = così ...come

For as arithmeticians teach to add and subtract in numbers, so the geometricians teach the same in lines....

so as to = così ...da

For who is so stupid as both to mistake in geometry, and also to persist in it..

as well = pure, anche

You can come as well.

as it were = per così dire

He is a genius, as it were.

OTHER EXPRESSIONS WITH LIKE

like = simile a

He is like his father.

like = allo stesso modo di

He drinks like a fish.

like = (sostantivo) simile, pari
I never saw his like.

like = (aggettivo) simile
the like causes ... the like effects

alike = (aggettivo predicativo)
 simile, somigliante (see Unit 7)
The sisters are alike.

alike = (avverbio) allo stesso
 modo

*For all men by nature reason
 alike.*

likely = probabile
*If that which he thought likely to
 follow follows not.*

likewise = similmente, altrettanto
He did likewise.

-like = (aggettivo) a somiglianza
 di, tipico di
His walk was very cat-like.

Exercise 8

Choose *as* or *like* or related words to complete each sentence.

- 1) _____ you can see, the results are very satisfactory.
- 2) It looks _____ though they will publish my article.
- 3) My findings and Jane's were very _____.
- 4) _____ Newton grew older, he became more interested in optics.
- 5) Galileo was already famous when he was _____ old as I am.
- 6) Copernicus studied celestial bodies. Brahe did _____.
- 7) Although he was very intelligent, his behaviour was somewhat child _____.
- 8) _____ far as they knew, the sun revolved around the earth.

TRANSLATION

- 1) Lavora come matematico. Altrettanto fa suo fratello.
- 2) Non tutti ragionano nella stessa maniera.

- 3) Poiché l'esperimento riuscì, pubblicò i risultati.
- 4) Per quanto riguarda i suoi studi, smetterà non appena può.
- 5) Si comporta come se fosse già un chimico professionale.
- 6) Non si sa ancora niente del corso di informatica.
- 7) Manderò l'articolo ad una rivista internazionale come *Nature*.
- 8) A partire dall'anno prossimo studierò astronomia.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Science

applied science = scienze applicate

astronomy = astronomia

chemistry = chimica

electronics = elettronica

experiment = sperimento

geometry = geometria

computer science = informatica

mathematics = matematica

mechanics = meccanica

minus = meno

natural science = scienze naturali

physical science = scienze fisiche

physics = fisica

plus = più

to add = sommare

to divide = dividere

to double/treble = raddoppiare/triplicare

to halve = dividere a metà

to multiply = moltiplicare

to subtract = sottrarre

UNIT 6

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

The seventeenth century was a period of general political crisis in Europe, which resounded in the revolutions and revolts that took place in the middle of the century. There were rebellions in the 1640s against the Spanish in Catalonia, Portugal, Sicily, Naples and Andalusia; France saw two civil wars from 1648 to 1649; and in the Netherlands, a bloodless revolution followed the death of Prince William of Orange in 1650. The English revolution was a constitutional revolution that began in 1640 and developed into a civil war in 1642.

During the reigns of James I and Charles I, the Puritans had gained significant influence, especially in the towns, and were antagonistic to the leaders of the Church, wanting to reduce their secular powers. They were supported by a growing number of Puritan sympathisers in the House of Commons. The feeling was exacerbated by Charles I's marriage to the French princess Henrietta Maria and the fears of a return of Roman Catholicism. This period also saw the rise of a rich gentry and a more powerful merchant class. Both groups were extremely influential in the House of Commons.

Charles was also extremely unpopular as he had revived feudal impositions, increased customs duties and levied taxes—all without parliamentary consent—to finance his war against the Spaniards. After a period of eleven years in which he had managed to govern without calling a parliament, he was forced to summon the Long Parliament to help him out of a financial crisis. The House of Commons took advantage of the King's financial difficulties to insist on a wide-ranging set of constitutional reforms that gave Parliament a much more prominent and secure place in the constitution, power over taxes, and abolished such arbitrary courts as the notorious Star Chamber.

The political crisis soon escalated into civil war. The Long Parliament split into rival parties in the autumn of 1641, the Royalists (Cavaliers) forming a King's party in opposition to the Parliamentarians (Roundheads). Charles attempted unsuccessfully to arrest the leading opposition members of parliament in January 1642, and then fled from London for the north. He thus entered the first civil war (August 1642–April 1646) from a weakened position, because the Parliamentarians held London and the machinery of central government. The Parliamentarians were not, however, able to secure their dominance until the reorganisation of their forces into the New Model Army under the command of General Fairfax in January 1645. Militant Puritanism was thus closely united to the Parliamentarian cause. The royalist and parliamentarian armies met in the

important battle of Naseby in 1645 in which the King's men were outnumbered and defeated.

The victorious Parliamentarians then divided into two factions. The more conservative group, the Presbyterians and Scots, allied themselves with Charles. The more radical party, the Independents, backed by Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) and the army, attempted a settlement, failed, and remained hostile to Charles. The brief second civil war (February-August 1648) ended with Cromwell's crushing defeat of the Scottish army at Preston in August 1648. It was soon followed by the purge of Presbyterian members of Parliament (Pride's Purge) in December 1648, the trial and then the execution of Charles on January 30, 1649, the abolition of the monarchy and House of Lords in February 1649, and the establishment of the Commonwealth.

In this period an informal alliance of agitators and pamphleteers known as the Levellers had come together to demand constitutional reform and the abolition of the class system. In the autumn of 1647 the Levellers briefly challenged Cromwell for control of the army, but Cromwell decided to crush the movement and defeated the Leveller army mutiny in May 1649.

Cromwell became Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland in 1653 and ruled until his death in 1658. His son Richard succeeded him as Protector, but was soon overthrown. In May 1659 Parliament was once more recalled, but only five months later it was dissolved by the army troops, and a new royalist Parliament was installed.

In May 1660, King Charles I's son, Charles II (1630-85), was invited to return to London as king. The restored monarchy was much weaker than it had been previously, and it was the land-owning gentry as represented in Parliament who were the ultimate victors of the English revolution.

References

- M. Ashley, *The Golden Century. Europe 1598-1715* (London: Cardinal, 1975).
- C. Hill, *Intellectual Origins of the English Revolution* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1982).

GLOSSARY

to resound = risonare

bloodless = senza spargimento di sangue

to gain (influence) = acquistare

to exacerbate = intensificare

rise = crescita

gentry = piccola nobiltà
merchant = mercantile
to revive = ripristinare
customs duties = imposte di dogane
to levy = imporre (una tassa)
to summon = convocare
wide-ranging = ampio
to escalate = aggravarsi
to split (split, split) = dividersi
leading = principale
to flee (fled, fled) = fuggire
weakened = indebolito
to secure = assicurare
to outnumber = superare di numero

to back = appoggiare, sostenere
settlement = accordo
to fail = non riuscire
to crush = schiacciare
defeat = sconfitta
purge = epurazione
pamphleteer = scrittore di opuscoli
***to demand** = esigere
to overthrow (overthrew, overthrown) = rovesciare
mutiny = ribellione
to install = insediare
land-owning gentry = piccola nobiltà terrieriera

NOTES

We say *to gain influence, an advantage, weight, speed, time, but to earn money, praise, admiration, a reputation.*

The prefix *out-* corresponds to the Italian prefixes *sopra-, super-, sur-*. Some other words like *to outnumber* (superare in numero) are *to outlast* (durare più a lungo di), *to outlive* (sopravvivere a), *to outclass* (surclassare), *to outfight* (superare in battaglia), *to outgrow* (sorpassare in statura, altezza).

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ism* can be used to form uncountable nouns that refer to religious and political beliefs: *nationalism* *Buddhism* *fascism*.

The suffixes *-ian* and *-ist* can refer to people with specific beliefs or members of a group: *feminist* *Parliamentarian*.

Choose the correct word in each sentence.

atheist
Roman Catholicism

Christian
royalist

pacifist
communism

- 1) The supporter of a monarch is called a _____.
- 2) A person who believes in Jesus Christ is a _____.
- 3) _____ is a movement that advocates a classless society.
- 4) A _____ believes that no violence is justifiable.

5) The religion of the church headed by the Pope is _____.

6) An _____ denies the existence of God.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

INFINITIVE OR -ING FORM

Certain verbs are followed by the infinitive form of another verb:

The King had managed to govern without calling a parliament.

Some of the most common of these verbs are: *agree, choose, decide, expect, hope, manage, promise, refuse, seem, want, would like, would love, would prefer.*

Other verbs are generally followed by the *-ing* form of another verb:

He admitted wanting to crush the rebellion.

Some of the most common of these verbs are: *admit, appreciate, avoid, delay, dislike, enjoy, finish, imagine, mind, practise, risk, suggest.*

Some verbs can be followed by either infinitive or *-ing* form without any change in meaning:

They intend to crush / crushing the movement.

However two *-ing* forms are not generally used together:

*He is intending to crush (**not** crushing) the movement.*

Some examples are: *begin, continue, intend, recommend, start.*

Other verbs change their meaning when followed by the infinitive or the *-ing* form. Compare:

(a) *I must remember to apply.* (= I will apply in the future.)
I remember applying. (= I applied in the past.)

(b) *I stopped smoking.* (= I ceased the habit of smoking.)
I stopped to smoke. (= I stopped in order to smoke.)

(c) *I tried to learn a language.* (= I attempted to learn a language.)
I was bored, so I tried learning a language.
(= I made the experiment of learning a language as a solution.)

Exercise 1

Choose the correct form of the verb

- 1) The Parliament promised *to modify / modifying* the law.
- 2) The King had to seem *to accept / accepting* the changes.
- 3) The Roundheads wanted the Parliament *to have / having* more power.
- 4) The Parliamentarians decided *to take / taking* London.
- 5) They suggested *to make / making* a settlement with the army.
- 6) Cromwell refused *to listen / listening* to the Levellers.
- 7) Later, Cromwell's son risked *to lose / losing* control of the army.
- 8) He avoided *to do / doing* this by resigning after a few months.

Exercise 2

Put the verb into either the infinitive or -ing form

- 1) When Charles returned to the throne he tried _____ the Stuarts' power. (restore)
- 2) He wanted _____ the Church of England. (strengthen)
- 3) His advisors suggested _____ dissident sects. (dissolve)
- 4) But Charles tried _____ popularity with them as an alternative solution. (gain)
- 5) Both Charles and James I refused _____ financial dependence on the Parliament. (accept)
- 6) William of Orange and Mary were invited _____ to England. (come)
- 7) James considered _____ to France. (flee)
- 8) William and Mary swore _____ the Bill of Rights. (respect)

INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE

The infinitive is used to express purpose:

The Levellers came together to demand constitutional reform.

Purpose can also be indicated with the construction *in order to*:
Cromwell took control of the army in order to depose the King.

Exercise 3

Answer the questions with an infinitive construction.

1) Why did the Puritans attack Church leaders?

To _____.

2) Why did Charles increase taxes and duties?

To _____.

3) Why did the Levellers meet?

To _____.

4) Why was Charles II invited to return to London?

To _____.

INFINITIVE WITH OR WITHOUT TO

Some verbs are followed by the infinitive without *to* (the bare infinitive).

The most common of these are *make* and *let*:

The Army made the King sign the bill.

The King let his Ministers break the law.

Some verbs can be used with a noun or pronoun before the infinitive:

The King wanted the Parliament to give him more money.

The Parliamentarians asked the King to open negotiations.

The most common of these verbs are: *ask, beg, choose, expect, help, like, need, prefer, prepare, promise, want, wish*.

Some verbs must be used with a noun or pronoun before the infinitive:

The Army allowed the King to escape.

They forced him to reach a settlement.

The most common of these verbs are: *advise, allow, challenge, command, enable, encourage, forbid, force, invite, order, permit, persuade, recommend, remind, request, tell*.

Exercise 4

Choose the correct verb form.

- 1) A parliament was called *to rescue / rescue* the King from financial ruin.
- 2) The Irish Parliament allowed the King *to have / have* some money.
- 3) The King postponed *to ask / asking* for more funds until the spring.
- 4) He made the Bishops *to give / give* him £120,000.
- 5) The Commons refused *to provide / providing* such a large amount.
- 6) The King's supporters advised *to appeal / him to appeal* to the Lords.
- 7) The Lords were prepared *to let / letting* him have some money.
- 8) But they wanted *that he reduced / him to reduce* taxes in exchange.

INFINITIVE AND -ING FORM AS NOUNS

The infinitive or an infinitive phrase can be used as a noun:

To win the war is important.

If the action is used in a general sense, the *-ing* form can be used:

Winning a war is important.

However, it is more usual to use the construction introduced by *it*:

It is important to win the war.

Exercise 5

Complete the following sentences with an infinitive construction.

- 1) It was vital _____.
- 2) It has been necessary _____.
- 3) It is impossible _____.
- 4) It will be useful _____.

Re-write the sentences using the *-ing* form as a noun.

- 5) _____.
- 6) _____.
- 7) _____.
- 8) _____.

FURTHER READING

In 1649, Oliver Cromwell imprisoned several Levellers in the Tower of London. These radicals defended their ideas in the following statement, arguing that their ideas were not as extreme as they had been portrayed.

STATEMENT OF THE LEVELLERS (1649)

(A Manifestation from Lt. Col. John Lilburn, Mr. William Walwyn, Mr. Thomas Price, and Mr. Richard Overton (now prisoners in the Tower) and others, commonly (though unjustly) styled Levellers.)

The community amongst the primitive Christians was voluntary, not coactive; they brought their goods and laid them at the Apostles' feet; they were not enjoined to bring them; it was the effect of their charity and heavenly mindedness which the blessed Apostles begat in them, and not the injunctions of any constitution [...]. It was not esteemed a duty but reckoned a voluntary act occasioned by the abundant measure of faith that was in these Christians and Apostles.

We profess that we never had it in our thoughts to level men's estates, it being the utmost of our aims that the commonwealth be reduced to such pass that every man may with as much security as may be enjoy his property.

We know very well that in all ages those men that engage themselves against tyranny, unjust and arbitrary proceedings in magistrates, have suffered under such appellations, the People being purposely frightened from that which is good by insinuation of imaginary evil.

But be it so: we must notwithstanding discharge our duties which being performed the success is in God's hands to whose pleasure we must leave the clearing of men's spirits, our only certainty being tranquillity of mind and peace of conscience.

For distinction of orders and dignities, we think them so far needful as they are animosities of virtue or requisite for the maintenance of the magistracy and government; we think they were never intended for the nourishment of ambition or subjugation of the People, but only to preserve the due respect and obedience in the People which is necessary for the better execution of the laws.

That we are for government and against popular confusion we conceive all our actions declare when rightly considered, our aim having been all along to

reduce it as near as might be to perfection; and certainly we know very well the pravity and corruption of man's heart is such that there could be no living without it; and that though tyranny is so excessively bad, yet of the two extremes confusion is the worst. 'Tis somewhat strange consequence to infer that because we have laboured so earnestly for a good government, therefore we would have none at all: because we would have the dead and exorbitant branches pruned and better scions grafted, therefore we would pluck the tree up by the roots.

Yet thus have we been misconceived and misrepresented to the world, under which we must suffer till God sees it fitting in his good time to clear such harsh mistakes, by which many, even good, men keep a distance from us[...]

Whereas it is said, we are atheists and antiscripturalists, we profess that we believe there is one eternal and omnipotent God, the author and preserver of all things in the world. To whose will and directions, written first in our hearts and afterwards in his blessed Word, we ought to square our actions and conversations. And though we are not so strict upon the formal and ceremonial part of his service, the method, manner and personal injunction being not so clearly made out unto us, nor the necessary requisites which his officers and ministers ought to be furnished withal as yet appearing to us in any that pretend thereunto; yet for the manifestation of God's love in Christ, it is clearly assented unto by us as being, in our apprehensions, the most eminent and the most excellent in the world and as proceeding from no other but that God who is goodness itself: and we humbly desire his Majesty daily more and more to conform our hearts to a willing and sincere obedience thereunto [...]

We aim not at power in ourselves, our principles and desires being in no measure of self-concernment: nor do we rely for obtaining the same upon strength, or a forcible obstruction; but solely upon that inbred and persuasive power that is in all good and just things, to make their own way in the hearts of men, and so to procure their own Establishment.

GLOSSARY

styled = chiamato

primitive = primi

coactive = coatto

to enjoin = ingiungere

charity = carità, benevolenza

blessed = santo

mindedness = disposizione

begat (arch.) = generato

occasioned = determinato

to profess = dichiarare

***estate** = proprietà terriera

utmost = ultimo

to such pass = a tale punto

to engage oneself = impegnarsi

appellation = nome

purposely = intenzionalmente

frighted (arch.) = spaventato
evil = male
to discharge (a duty) = adempiere a
clearing = purificazione
needful (arch.) = necessario
animosities = cause
for ... against = a favore ... contro
pravity (arch.) = depravazione
earnestly = in buona fede
exorbitant = eccessivo
to prune = potare
exorbitant = superfluo
to graft = innestare

scion = pollone
to pluck up = sradicare
misconceived = fraintendere
fitting = giusto
will = volontà
to square = conformare
to make out = capire
to furnish withal = provvedere a
to assent to = riconoscere
apprehension = percezione
self-concernment = interesse perso-
nale
inbred = innato

WOMEN'S PETITION (1649)

The Humble Petition of divers well-affected women of the Cities of London and Westminster, etc. Sheweth, that since we are assured of our creation in the image of God, and of an interest in Christ equal unto men, as also of a proportional share in the freedoms of this Commonwealth, we cannot but wonder and grieve that we should appear so despicable in your eyes, as to be thought unworthy to petition or represent our grievances to this honourable House.

Have we not an equal interest with the men of this Nation, in those liberties and securities contained in the Petition of Right, and the other good laws of the land? Are any of our lives, limbs, liberties or goods to be taken from us more than from men, but by due process of law and conviction of twelve sworn men of the neighbourhood?

And can you imagine us to be so sottish or stupid, as not to perceive, or not to be sensible when daily those strong defences of our peace and welfare are broken down, and trod under foot by force and arbitrary power?

Would you have us keep at home in our houses, when men of such faithfulness and integrity as the FOUR PRISONERS our friends in the Tower are fetched out of their beds, and forced from their houses by soldiers, to the affrighting and undoing of themselves, their wives, children and families? Are not our husbands, ourselves, our children and families by the same rule as liable to the like unjust cruelties as they? [...] Doth not the Petition of Right declare that no person ought to be judged by Law Martial (except in time of war)? And are we Christians and shall we sit still and keep at home, while such men as have borne continual testimony against the injustice of all times, and unrighteousness of men, be picked out and delivered up to the slaughter?

No.... Let it be accounted folly, presumption [...] or whatsoever in us [...] we will never forsake them, nor ever cease to importune you [...] for justice [...] that we, our husbands, children, friends and servants may not be liable to be thus abused, violated and butchered at men's wills and pleasures[...]

Source: J. O'Faolain and L Martines, *Not in God's Image: Women in History from the Greeks to the Victorians* (London: Temple Smith, 1973).

GLOSSARY

well-affected = ben disposto

to wonder = stupirsi

to grieve = addolorarsi

despicable = spregevole

unworthy = indegno

grievance = lagnanza

security = garanzia

limb = arto

due process of law = regolare procedure legale

sworn = sotto giuramento

sottish = idiota

to tread (trod, trodden) underfoot =

calpestare

to keep (kept, kept) = restare

affrighting = spavento

undoing = rovina

liable to = soggetto a

unrighteousness = malvagità

to deliver up to = consegnare a

slaughter = macello

to forsake (forsook, forsaken) = abbandonare

to abuse = maltrattare

to butcher = massacrare

COMPREHENSION

1. Do the Levellers want to eliminate private property?
2. Do they aim at creating popular uprising?
3. What does the Women's Petition request?

NOTES

Lt. Col. = *Lieutenant Colonel* (Tenente Colonello). Abbreviations of other military offices: *Maj.* = *Major* (Maggiore), *Pte.* = *Private* (Soldato semplice), *Sergt.* = *Sergeant* (Sergente).

The word *manifestation* is used generically to indicate 'display': *a manifestation of grief*. In a political context, the word *demonstration* is used: *an anti-war demonstration*. Here it is an archaic form of *manifesto*.

Do not confuse the intransitive verb *to lie* (*lay, lain*) and the transitive verb *to lay* (*laid, laid*).

The goods lay at the Apostles' feet.

They laid the goods at the Apostles' feet.

The verb *to lie* is also a regular verb meaning *mentire*:

He lied to the court.

WORD STUDY

The prefix *be-* is added to verbs, adjectives and nouns to form transitive verbs: *The King was beheaded. Charles tried to befriend the dissident sects.*

Choose the correct form of the most suitable verb for each sentence.

beget becloud bewilder bewitch behold

- 1) He tried to _____ the issue by introducing useless detail.
- 2) Their clever arguments _____ and confused her.
- 3) They _____ anger in the soldier's eyes.
- 4) The prince was _____ by the beauty of the princess.
- 5) Economic difficulties _____ political tension.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

OTHER INFINITIVE STRUCTURES

Note the forms of the infinitive:

present infinitive: *to tell*

negative infinitive: *not to tell*

continuous infinitive: *to be telling*

perfect infinitive: *to have told*

perfect continuous infinitive: *to have been telling*

present infinitive passive: *to be told*

perfect infinitive passive: *to have been told*

IMPERSONAL VERB PHRASES

A passive form with the infinitive can be used to express an impersonal statement. It is often used to imply a certain caution on the part of the author.

He is said to be a member of the rebel movement.

The King is thought to be about to abdicate.

This may also be expressed with the subject *it*.

It is said (that) he is a member of the rebel movement.

It is thought (that) the King is about to abdicate.

The passive + infinitive is used mainly with the following verbs: *allege, believe, consider, declare, estimate, expect, know, say, suppose, think, understand*.

The continuous infinitive is used when the action is progressive:

The government is expected to be increasing prices next week.

= *It is expected the government will be increasing prices next week.*

The perfect infinitive is used when the action is past:

The army is estimated to have killed 100 men.

= *It is estimated the army has killed/killed 100 men.*

Exercise 6

Rewrite the sentences using a passive + infinitive construction.

- 1) People think he needs more political support.

He _____.

- 2) The secret services estimate they are planning an attack.

They _____.

- 3) People believe the government is spending too little on defence.

The government _____.

- 4) The people thought the King had escaped.

The King _____.

- 5) They reported Cromwell had overthrown his Major Generals.

Cromwell _____.

- 6) They expected the royal couple were travelling to England.

The royal couple _____.

- 7) The Parliament alleged the King had been receiving too much money.

The King _____.

- 8) They say the opposing armies are waging a new campaign in Scotland.

The opposing armies _____.

TRANSLATION

The English infinitive corresponds to various Italian forms.

I hope to see you.
They came to see me.
They came to talk to me.
He had nothing to say.
To see is to believe.

Spero di vederti.
 Vennero a trovarmi.
 Vennero per parlarmi.
 Non aveva niente da dire.
 Vedere è credere.

The Italian infinitive after verbs of opinion corresponds in English to the indicative when both phrases have the same subject.

He thought he was a great king.
They knew they were right.

Credeva di essere un grande re.
 Sapevano di avere ragione.

In some constructions the infinitive corresponds to an Italian **congiuntivo**.

He wants me to go.
They wanted the King to go.
The King ordered them to go.
They don't permit the King to go.
They expected him to go.
He is said to be a good King.

Vuole che io vada.
 Volevano che il re andasse.
 Il re ordinò che andassero.
 Non permettono che il re vada.
 Si aspettarono che egli andasse.
 Si dice che egli sia un buon re.

- 1) L'esercito fu sotto il comando del generale Fairfax.
- 2) Le truppe ribelli decisero di ritirarsi dopo la sconfitta.
- 3) Gli eserciti si incontrarono per combattere.
- 4) Si stima che 10,000 soldati abbiano perso la vita durante il massacro.
- 5) Il re fu decapitato e la monarchia abolita.
- 6) Il generale comandava una cavalleria più forte di quella del nemico.
- 7) I pacifisti facevano da mediatori nel negoziato.
- 8) Si dice che il sovrano voglia che il generale si ritiri.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Revolution and war

alliance = alleanza

arms = armi

cavalry = cavalleria

coup d'etat = colpo di stato

ferment = agitazione

guerrilla warfare = guerriglia

infantry = fanteria

mutiny = ammutinamento

siege = assedio

to charge = caricare

to fight hand-to-hand = lottare

corpo a corpo

to surrender = arrendersi

to wage war = muover guerra

to win a battle = vincere una
battaglia

to withdraw = ritirarsi

troops = truppe

truce = tregua

uprising = insurrezione

warfare = guerra, stato di guerra

weapon = arma

UNIT 7

BRITISH EMPIRICISM

Empiricism (from the Greek *empeiria* “experience” or “experiment”) is generally defined as “the thesis that all knowledge—or at least all knowledge of matters of fact as distinct from that of purely logical relations between concepts—is based on experience”. During the 17th and 18th centuries, the British empiricist school—greatly influenced by the work of Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) and Francis Bacon (1561-1626) who, in his *Novum Organum* (1620) stressed the primacy of experience, particularly the observation of nature—is associated with the rise of experimental science.

Continental Rationalists belonging to the 17th-century philosophical doctrine, whose most important representatives were Descartes, Spinoza and Leibniz, maintained that knowledge of the nature of what exists can be obtained through reason alone. Other concepts are then deductively drawn from these. They also held the view that everything is explicable, i.e. that knowledge can be brought under a single unified system. Descartes in particular asserted that all principles of science and knowledge are founded on ideas that are innate in the mind and can be seized by the method of reason.

Unlike the Continental Rationalists, British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas. They argued that the mind is at first a *tabula rasa* and that it is only subsequently formed by both sense experience and internal mental experiences, such as emotions and self-reflection. Locke’s *Essay concerning Human Understanding* (1690) sets out the thesis contradicting the concept of innate ideas.

Although British Empiricists disavowed innate ideas, in favour of ideas from experience, they did not reject the notion of instinct or innateness in general. They claimed that we have inborn propensities that regulate our bodily functions, produce emotions, and even direct our thinking. Like Bacon, British Empiricists also moved away from deductive proofs and used an inductive method of arguing which was more conducive to the data of experience. In spite of their advocacy of inductive argumentation, British Empiricists still made wide use of deductive arguments.

Three principal philosophers are associated with British Empiricism: John Locke (1632-1704), George Berkeley (1685-1753), and David Hume (1711-1776).

Until the rise of English idealism around 1850, all British philosophy after Locke was greatly influenced by his empiricism. Locke was a scholar at Ox-

ford, which was then the centre for scientific activity associated with John Wilkins and Robert Boyle, and Locke soon became involved in practical studies of medicine and chemistry. His interest in philosophy grew from his reading of Descartes. Locke's monumental *Essay concerning Human Understanding* aims to determine the origins, nature and limits of human understanding. Unable to accept either the old scholastic philosophy or Descartes' rationalist response, Locke attempted to put forward a detailed account of human understanding following empiricist ideas that also took into account the current achievements in science.

George Berkeley (1685-1753) trained in philosophy at Trinity College Dublin, and continued the tradition of the Cambridge Platonists. They were a group of philosophers and theologians active in Cambridge in the later 17th century. They looked to the Platonic and Neoplatonic traditions to establish a basis for Christian theology in a period when religion was under attack after the challenge to Aristotelian mechanics by the recent scientific advances of Galileo and Newton. The Cambridge Platonists were opposed both to the mechanical philosophy of Descartes, Locke, Boyle and Newton and the complete materialism of Hobbes and Spinoza, and their thought was influenced by religious tolerance and a system of absolute standards of right and wrong, seen as rooted in reason.

Berkeley raised many problems for this materialist tradition. He attacked the doctrine of abstract ideas; he made great use of the implications of the representative theory of perception; and he refuted the distinction between primary qualities (such as solidity, extension, shape) and secondary qualities (such as sounds, tastes, colours and smells). Berkeley called his alternative to the views he criticised "immaterialism". It is the doctrine that to be is to perceive or to be perceived. The universe, thus, has only two kinds of entities in it, spirits (which perceive) and ideas (which are perceived). His most important work was *A Treatise concerning the Principles of Human Knowledge* published in 1710.

References

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T.L. Beauchamp, "Editor's Introduction" in *An Enquiry concerning Human Understanding* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1989).

GLOSSARY

knowledge = conoscenza, sapere
matter of fact = fatto materiale, realtà
to stress = accentuare, mettere in rilievo
primacy = primato
to maintain = sostenere, affermare
to draw (drew, drawn) from = trarre da
view = opinione
to seize = afferrare, cogliere
unlike = a differenza di
to reject = rifiutare, rinnegare
to argue = sostenere
subsequently = successivamente
to set (set, set) out = esporre
to disavow = sconfessare, rinnegare
inborn = innato
propensity = propensione, inclinazione
bodily = corporeo
to direct = direzionare
proof = prova
to argue = argomentare
conducive = contribuente, tendente

advocacy = sostegno
***scholar** = studioso
to grow (grew, grown) from = nascere da
to aim to = mirare a
understanding = conoscenza, comprensione
to put (put, put) forward = proporre, avanzare
to take (took, taken) into account = tenere conto di
achievement = conquista, successo
to train = formare, preparare
to look to = ricorrere a
challenge = sfida, opposizione
advance = progresso
right = giusto, bene
wrong = sbagliato, male
to be rooted in = fondato, radicato
to raise = sollevare
to refute = confutare
taste = sapore
shape = forma

NOTES

As adjectives, the words *right/wrong* mean *giusto/sbagliato*. As nouns, they can be translated as *bene/male*.

Be careful with the word *scholar* meaning *studioso*, which is not to be confused with the Italian *scolaro (pupil)*. Another related word is *scholarship*, which can be both countable (*borsa di studio*) or uncountable (*sapere, erudizione*).

WORD STUDY

Unit 1 looked at the negative prefixes *un-*, *in-*, *im-*, *il-*. Other negative prefixes are *a-* (absence of the quality indicated in the adjective), *dis-* (opposite processes or qualities) and *non-* (negation, refusal or exclusion):

apolitical *disagree* *non-conformist.*

Use one of the negative prefixes *a-*, *dis-*, or *non-* in the following sentences.

- 1) They used _____ cooperation as a protest against the defence policy.
 - 2) He tried to _____ unite the two factions to create further dissent.
 - 3) I believe they are _____ moral - they have no moral code at all.
 - 4) _____ Euclidean geometry developed in the mid-19th century.
 - 5) An _____ symmetric relation is an aspect of logic.
 - 6) I felt great _____ satisfaction over the election results.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

INDEFINITE ARTICLE

The indefinite article *a* or *an* is used before singular countable nouns; *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant, or a consonant sound:

<i>a book</i>	<i>a text</i>	<i>a university</i>	<i>a European</i>
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an is used before words beginning with a vowel, or a vowel sound:
an edition *an accident* *an X-ray* *an hour*

The indefinite article can be used with a singular noun to indicate general classification: *A philosopher can be difficult to understand.*

It is also used in expressions of ratio:

once a month twice a year three times a week 100 km an hour

The use of the indefinite article changes the meaning of the words *few* and *little*:

I have read a few books this year. (= some, but not many)

Few books will give you the right answer. (= hardly any)

I have a little time. I will give you a hand.

(= some, but not much)

I have little time left to finish the essay. (= hardly any)

Note, however, that *quite a few* means ‘a lot of’.

I can't come out with you; I have got quite a few books to read by Monday.

The indefinite article should not be confused with the number *one*, which is used to indicate *one only/not more than one*:

He set out a philosophical idea. *They proposed (only) one solution.*

Exercise 1

Use *a / an / one / - /* in the following sentences.

- 1) _____ of his theories was disproved immediately.
- 2) Empiricism is _____ school of thought.
- 3) He studies the relation between _____ experience and _____ knowledge.
- 4) I don't have even _____ idea to contribute to the discussion.
- 5) But I do have _____ few suggestions to make.
- 6) Hobbes was _____ forerunner of Empiricism in Britain.
- 7) The acquisition of experience is _____ universal process.
- 8) He only ever makes _____ little use of _____ deductive statements.

DEFINITE ARTICLE

The definite article *the* is used to indicate a *particular* thing or things.

The definite article is always used with singular countable nouns in *specific* contexts:

I studied the text for the course. We bought the book he needed.

The definite article is used before uncountable nouns in *specific* contexts:

The death of the King was tragic. The time he spent at university was happy.

The definite article is used before plural countable nouns in *specific* contexts:

The theories he made were wrong. The texts we read are interesting.

The article is **not** used before uncountable nouns in *generic* contexts:

Death is inevitable. I need time to think.

The article is **not** used before plural countable nouns in *generic* contexts:

Theories are often insufficient. Philosophical texts can be difficult.

The context is made *specific*:

(a) when the object is unique: *the earth, the sky.*

(b) when a noun is mentioned for a second time:

She holds an interesting view; the view is very controversial.

(c) when the noun is made definite by the addition of a clause:

the time (that) he spent at university the text (that is) used in the course.

(d) when clearly implied by the context:

The teacher spoke to the students. (= the students in the classroom).

(e) with the construction *the ... of*:

the death of the King the time of my life.

Note that reference is **not** made specific by an adjective:

I love literature.

I love modern English literature.

but

I love the literature of England.

I love the literature (that) he writes.

Like the indefinite article, the definite article can also be used with a singular noun for a class of animal or thing:

The dog is man's best friend.

The philosopher seeks truth.

The definite article is used before superlatives and ordinal numbers:

the best

the worst

the first, second, third

The definite article is generally **not** used:

(a) with possessive adjectives: *This is my book.*

(b) with names of meals: *We have breakfast at 8 a.m.*

(c) with the names of games: *He enjoys tennis at weekends.*

(d) with vehicles defining means of transport: *They go to work by car/by bus.*

(e) with the names of people: *Here is Ms Smith.*

(f) with the names of countries, unless plural:

He went to Spain then to the Netherlands and the United States.

Exercise 2

Use *the* when necessary in the following sentences.

- 1) _____ philosophers have often been occupied with _____ Nature.
- 2) He is examining _____ nature of _____ goodness.
- 3) _____ my theory was wrong.
- 4) _____ values of _____ world are examined in this book.
- 5) I hope to be able to study _____ ethics he teaches.
- 6) _____ recent advances in _____ science give rise to _____ new issues.
- 7) I came to _____ conclusion that _____ power leads to _____ corruption.
- 8) _____ power he had over her was frightening.

Exercise 3

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

- 1) The smoking is very bad for you.
- 2) He is working as doctor at the moment.
- 3) He lived for many years in the France.
- 4) He earns £50,000 the year.
- 5) She worked for all of the life in Oxford.
- 6) This interesting book is about the disappointed people.
- 7) The Professor Black is retiring soon.
- 8) Mrs Peters called while you were at meeting.

Note the difference between the following pairs of sentences.

- | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (a) <i>This is the most interesting book I have ever read.</i> (= il più interessante)
<i>This is a most interesting book.</i> (= molto interessante) |
| (b) <i>I'll be at Cambridge University next year.</i> (= l'anno prossimo)
<i>I was in New York in 2000 and in Chicago the next year.</i> (= l'anno successivo) |
| (c) <i>He wrote a book last year.</i> (= l'anno scorso)
<i>This is the last book he wrote before his death.</i> (= l'ultimo libro)
<i>This is his latest publication.</i> (= la più recente) |

Exercise 4

Choose the correct expression.

last *the last* *most* *the most* *next* *the next*

- 1) He was _____ brilliant student in the class.
- 2) I worked so hard _____ month that I need a holiday.
- 3) They have finished the article. _____ year they will write a book.
- 4) He was _____ anxious about the exam results.
- 5) The first time I sat the test I failed. _____ time I passed.
- 6) _____ thing I want to do is to revise all my notes.

Exercise 5

Use *a / the / - / one* when necessary.

David Hume was _____ philosopher and historian who lived in _____ Scotland. He was _____ second son of _____ minor nobleman. Hume made _____ lot of money from _____ sales of _____ his various publications. He was _____ best known during _____ his lifetime for his work in _____ field of _____ history. He wrote _____ history of _____ England which was _____ best-seller for nearly _____ hundred years.

FURTHER READING

David Hume (1711-76), Scottish philosopher and historian, carried the empiricism of Locke and George Berkeley to a more extreme form of scepticism. He rejected the possibility of certain knowledge, and aimed to demonstrate that causal relation in nature law is derived from the conjunction of impressions. Hume's scepticism is also evident in his writings on religion, in which he rejected any rational or natural theology. Besides his chief work, A Treatise of Human Nature, the first book of which was later republished under the title An Enquiry concerning Human Understanding (1748), Hume also wrote Political Discourses (1752), The Natural History of Religion (1755), and a History of England (1754-62).

A Treatise of Human Nature (1739-40) is divided into three books. Book I, Of the Understanding, aims at explaining man's process of knowing, describing the origin of ideas, the ideas of space and time, causation, and the testimony of the senses

A TREATISE OF HUMAN NATURE

Book I OF THE UNDERSTANDING

Part IV: OF THE SCEPTICAL AND OTHER SYSTEMS OF PHILOSOPHY.

Section VI *On Personal Identity*

[...] We now proceed to explain the nature of *personal identity*, which has become so great a question in philosophy, especially of late years in *England*, where all the abstruser sciences are study'd with a peculiar ardour and appli-

cation. And here 'tis evident, the same method of reasoning must be continu'd, which has so successfully explain'd the identity of plants, and animals, and ships, and houses, and of all the compounded and changeable productions either of art or nature. The identity, which we ascribe to the mind of man, is only a fictitious one, and of a like kind with that which we ascribe to vegetables and animal bodies. It cannot, therefore, have a different origin, but must proceed from a like operation of the imagination upon like objects.

But lest this argument shou'd not convince the reader; tho' in my opinion perfectly decisive; let him weigh the following reasoning, which is still closer and more immediate. 'Tis evident, that the identity, which we attribute to the human mind, however perfect we may imagine it to be, is not able to run the different perceptions into one, and make them lose their characters of distinction and difference, which are essential to them. 'Tis still true, that every distinct perception, which enters into the composition of the mind, is a distinct existence, and is different, and distinguishable, and separable from every other perception, either contemporary or successive. But, as, notwithstanding this distinction and separability, we suppose the whole train of perceptions to be united by identity, a question naturally arises concerning this relation of identity; whether it be something that really binds our several perceptions together, or only associates their ideas in the imagination. That is, in other words, whether in pronouncing concerning the identity of a person, we observe some real bond among his perceptions, or only feel one among the ideas we form of them. This question we might easily decide, if we wou'd recollect what has been already prov'd at large, that the understanding never observes any real connexion among objects, and that even the union of cause and effect, when strictly examin'd, resolves itself into a customary association of ideas. For from thence it evidently follows, that identity is nothing really belonging to these different perceptions, and uniting them together; but is merely a quality, which we attribute to them, because of the union of their ideas in the imagination, when we reflect upon them. Now the only qualities, which can give ideas an union in the imagination, are these three relations above-mention'd. These are the uniting principles in the ideal world, and without them every distinct object is separable by the mind, and may be separately consider'd, and appears not to have any more connexion with any other object, than if disjoin'd by the greatest difference and remoteness. 'Tis, therefore, on some of these three relations of resemblance, contiguity and causation, that identity depends; and as the very essence of these relations consists in their producing an easy transition of ideas; it follows, that our notions of personal identity, proceed from the smooth and uninterrupted progress of the thought along a train of connected ideas, according to the principles above-explain'd.

The only question, therefore, which remains, is, by what relations this uninterrupted progress of our thought is produc'd, when we consider the successive existence of a mind or thinking person. And here 'tis evident we must confine ourselves to resemblance and causation, and must drop continuity, which has little or no influence in the present case.

To begin with *resemblance*; suppose we cou'd see clearly into the breast of another, and observe that succession of perceptions, which constitutes his mind or thinking principle, and suppose that he always preserves the memory of a considerable part of past perceptions; 'tis evident that nothing cou'd more contribute to the bestowing a relation on this succession amidst all its variations. For what is the memory but a faculty, by which we raise up the images of past perceptions? And as an image necessarily resembles its object, must not the frequent placing of these resembling perceptions in the chain of thought, convey the imagination more easily from one link to another, and make the whole seem like the continuance of one object? In this particular, then, the memory not only discovers the identity, but also contributes to its production, by producing the relation of resemblance among the perceptions. The case is the same whether we consider ourselves or others.

As to *causation*; we may observe that the true idea of the human mind, is to consider it as a system of different perceptions or different existences, which are link'd together by the relation of cause and effect, and mutually produce, destroy, influence, and modify each other. Our impressions give rise to their correspondent ideas; and these ideas in their turn produce other impressions. One thought chases another, and draws after it a third, by which it is expell'd in its turn. In this respect, I cannot compare the soul more properly to any thing than to a republic or commonwealth, in which the several members are united by the reciprocal ties of government and subordination, and give rise to other persons, who propagate the same republic in the incessant changes of its parts. And as the same individual republic may not only change its members, but also its laws and constitutions; in like manner the same person may vary his character and disposition, as well as his impressions and ideas, without losing his identity. Whatever changes he endures, his several parts are still connected by the relation of causation. And in this view our identity with regard to the passions serves to corroborate that with regard to the imagination, by the making our distant perceptions influence each other, and by giving us a present concern for our past or future pains or pleasures.

As memory alone acquaints us with the continuance and extent of the succession of perceptions, 'tis to be considered, upon that account chiefly, as the source of personal identity. Had we no memory, we never shou'd have any notion of causation, nor consequently of that chain of causes and effects,

which constitute our self or person. But having once acquir'd this notion of causation from the memory, we can extend the same chain of causes and effects, which constitute our self or person. But having once acquir'd this notion of causation from the memory, we can extend the same chain of causes, and consequently the identity of our persons beyond our memory, and comprehend times, and circumstances, and actions, which we have entirely forgot, but suppose in general to have existed. For how few of our past actions are there, of which we have any memory? Who can tell me, for instance, what were his thoughts and actions on the first of *January* 1715, the 11th of *March* 1719, and the 3d of *August* 1733? Or will he affirm, because he has entirely forgot the incidents of these days, that the present self is not the same person with the self of that time; and by that means overturn all the most establish'd notions of personal identity? In this view, therefore, memory does not so much *produce* as *discover* personal identity, by shewing us the relation of cause and effect among our different perceptions. 'Twill be incumbent on those, who affirm that memory produces entirely our personal identity, to give a reason why we can thus extend our identity beyond our memory.

The whole of this doctrine leads us to a conclusion, which is of great importance to the present affair, *viz.* that all the nice and subtle questions concerning personal identity can never possibly be decided, and are to be regarded rather as grammatical than as philosophical difficulties. Identity depends on the relation of ideas; and these relations produce identity, by means of that easy transition they occasion. But as the relations, and the easiness of the transition may diminish by insensible degrees, we have no just standard, by which we can decide any dispute concerning the time, when they acquire or lose a title to the name of identity. All the disputes concerning the identity of connected objects are merely verbal, except in so far as the relation of parts gives rise to some fiction or imaginary principle of union, as we have already observ'd.

What I have said concerning the first origin and uncertainty of our notion of identity, as apply'd to the human mind, may be extended with little or no variation to that of *simplicity*. An object, whose different co-existent parts are bound together by a close relation, operates upon the imagination after much the same manner as one perfectly simple and indivisible, and requires not a much greater stretch of thought in order to its conception. From this similarity of operation we attribute a simplicity to it, and feign a principle of union as the support of this simplicity, and the center of all the different parts and qualities of the object. [...]

Source: David Hume, *A Treatise of Human Nature*, 1739-40. Bk.I Pt.IV, Sec. VI.

Archaic spellings have been reduced in this edition.

GLOSSARY

late = recente	to raise up = evocare
abstruser = più astruso	placing = collocazione
to ascribe to = ascrivere, attribuire a	to convey = trasportare
fictitious = fittizio, immaginario	as to = per quanto riguarda
like = simile	to chase = inseguire
lest = per paura che	to draw (drew, drawn) after =
to weigh = considerare	trascinare dietro
notwithstanding = nonostante	commonwealth = comunità
train = corso	tie = legame
to arise = sorgere	disposition = temperamento
to bind (bound, bound) = legare	to endure = sopportare, subire
bond = legame	to acquaint = far conoscere
to recollect = ricordarsi	*incident = avvenimento
at large = in generale	to overturn = capovolgere
strictly = con precisione	viz. (videlicet) = cioè, ossia
customary = abituale	to occasion = dar luogo a
remoteness = distanza	insensible = impercettibile
smooth = agevole	to be incumbent on = spettare a
to drop = abbandonare	just = giusto, imparziale
breast = petto	stretch = sforzo
to bestow = dare	to feign = fingere

NOTES

The apostrophe is used to indicate a missing letter:

(a) in contractions of verbs:

don't, mustn't

(b) in poetic or archaic forms:

'n' (and) e'er (ever) o'er (over)

(c) in dates to indicate missing numbers:

in the '60s (1960s)

This passage contains several examples of archaic contractions:

'twill (it will) *'tis* (it is) *tho'* (though) *shou'd* (should) *cou'd* (could)
continu'd (continued) *study'd* (studied) *prov'd* (proved)

Note also the archaic spelling of *connexion*. The modern spelling is *connection*, although the older form is sometimes still found in American English, as are *reflexion* and *infexion*. Other archaic spellings are *shewing* (showing) and *subtile* (subtle).

WORD STUDY

The prefix *a-* is used to indicate the absence of a quality: *amoral apolitical*. (See Word Study above).

It is also used to indicate a condition or state: *asleep awake*.

Adjectives and adverbs of this kind usually act as predicates:

He is ashamed. *The ship is afloat in the water.*

In more formal, literary English, the prefix has the meaning of ‘on, in, towards’:

He is abed. (= in bed) *The passengers went aboard the ship.* (= on board)

An archaic use is with a present participle to indicate ‘in the act or process of’:

The king went a-hunting. *He came a-running.*

Choose a suitable word to complete the following sentences.

abroad *aground* *alive* *alone* *ashore* *aware*

- 1) He has lived _____ since his wife died.
- 2) The ship ran _____ in the shallow water.
- 3) Are you _____ of the problems involved?
- 4) That criminal is wanted dead or _____.
- 5) The crew went _____ after the ship docked.
- 6) We are hoping to go _____ next summer.

COMPREHENSION

Are the following statements true or false?

1. Hume believes that the identity of animate and inanimate things is determined in the same way.
2. In his view, resemblance, causation and contiguity are vital factors in determining identity.
3. Hume says the question of identity is a purely philosophical one.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

Here is a list of verbs that are commonly used for statements and to express disagreement.

STATEMENT		CONTRAST	
<i>to advocate</i>	<i>to declare</i>	<i>to attack</i>	<i>to diverge</i>
<i>to affirm</i>	<i>to formulate</i>	<i>to challenge</i>	<i>to negate</i>
<i>to allege</i>	<i>to hold</i>	<i>to contradict</i>	<i>to oppose</i>
<i>to argue</i>	<i>to maintain</i>	<i>to deny</i>	<i>to question</i>
<i>to assert</i>	<i>to observe</i>	<i>to disagree</i>	<i>to refute</i>
<i>to claim</i>	<i>to say</i>	<i>to disavow</i>	<i>to reject</i>
<i>to confirm</i>	<i>to state</i>	<i>to disclaim</i>	<i>to repudiate</i>

Exercise 6

Some of these verbs appear in the first reading passage for Unit 7. Read the passage underlining the verbs, and note how they are used.

MODIFYING CONNECTORS: CONTRAST

There are several ways of combining two opposing or contrasting statements.

- 1) *British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas.*
- 2) *Continental Rationalists accepted it.*

but (general and informal)

British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas, *but* Continental Rationalists accepted it.

however (more formal and emphatic)

British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas. *However*, Continental Rationalists accepted it.

Or, more formally: Continental Rationalists, *however*, accepted it.

although/though + subject + verb (concession)

Although British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas, Continental Rationalists accepted it.

British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas *although* Continental Rationalists accepted it.

despite (in spite of) + noun/pronoun/gerund (emphatic concession)

Despite the fact that British Empiricists rejected the theory of innate ideas, Continental Rationalists accepted it.

Exercise 7

Join these pairs of sentences using one of the connectives above:

- 1) Britain will increase spending for universities. The universities say the amount is inadequate.
- 2) The number of university students is rising. The number of teachers is dropping.
- 3) Extra funds have been spent on research and training. Some say standards are dropping.
- 4) University education is becoming more expensive. The government is paying a decreasing proportion of expenditure.
- 5) Students are selected carefully for admission. Some very bright students are rejected.

Agreement and disagreement may be indicated by the use of certain adverbs and phrases.

AGREEMENT

I argued my viewpoint was valid. *Equally*, I held his attitude was wrong. Mark took my support for granted. John did *likewise*. They considered the debate concluded. *Similarly*, I wished to end it. He criticised my point of view *in the same way* as he had challenged hers. *Like* Susan, I believe he is right.

DISAGREEMENT

She didn't agree with me. *On the contrary*, she rejected what I had said. He didn't contradict me openly. *Instead*, he questioned my reasoning. Peter maintains that it is true. *By contrast*, Susan holds it is false. He has had a great deal of success. *By comparison*, she has been a failure. *On the one hand*, I advocate his position. *On the other*, I must attack it. *Unlike* John, I say his standpoint is sound.

Exercise 8

Write similar sentences expressing agreement and disagreement.
Use the suggestions to help you.

- 1) argue for - argue against - electoral reform
- 2) support - advocate - euthanasia
- 3) reject - disagree with - women priests
- 4) in favour of - opposed to - abortion
- 5) defend - disapprove of - divorce

TRANSLATION

Note some differences in the use of the definite and indefinite articles in Italian and English:

<i>He is a doctor.</i>	Fa il medico.
<i>Man is / Men are mortal.</i>	L'uomo è mortale. L'uomo coraggioso è forte.
<i>A brave man is strong.</i>	Gli inglesi bevono il tè alle 17.
<i>The English have tea at 5 o'clock.</i>	L'anno scorso / il prossimo mese
<i>Last year / next month</i>	È nato nella primavera del 1980.
<i>He was born in spring in 1980.</i>	L'Italia / gli Stati Uniti
<i>Italy / the United States</i>	Ho perso gli occhiali.
<i>I've lost my glasses.</i>	Dammi la mano.
<i>Give me your hand.</i>	Mettiti il cappotto.
<i>Put on your coat.</i>	

- 1) Non è in grado di provare la sua teoria.
- 2) A differenza di mia sorella, sostengo un certo pragmatismo.
- 3) Adams propone una tesi anticonformista che contrasta con il suo modo di agire.
- 4) I neoplatonici difendono il realismo morale ma rifiutano forme riduttive di materialismo.
- 5) La sua analisi della questione è poco soggettiva.
- 6) Lo studente afferra gli elementi fondamentali, ma gli sfuggono le idee più astratte.
- 7) La conclusione viene dedotta dalla premessa.
- 8) Fa uso di argomenti a favore di un approccio religioso.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Philosophical thought**aesthetics** = estetica**causation** = causalità**conscience** = coscienza**epistemology** = epistemologia**ethics** = etica**existentialism** = esistenzialismo**fallacy** = ragionamento fallace**falsity** = falsità**idealism** = idealismo**issue** = questione**logic** = logica**maxim** = massima**metaphysics** = metafisica**paradox** = paradosso**pragmatism** = pragmatismo**presumption** = presupposizione**proof** = prova**stoicism** = stoicismo**thought** = pensiero**to predict** = predire

UNIT 8

EXPLORATION AND EXPANSION

The British Empire was established over three centuries and was the result mainly of commerce and trade, political motives, and emigration. At its height in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, it included 25 percent of the world's population and area.

The foundations of the first British Empire were laid in the late 16th century by chartered companies. These were commercial ventures encouraged by the Crown. In the 17th century, sugar and tobacco plantations were founded in the Caribbean and the south-eastern regions of North America. During the same period, the north-eastern regions were settled by religious dissenters who emigrated from Britain. Lucrative trade followed of the exchange of African slaves for West Indian molasses and sugar, English cloth and manufactures, and American fish and timber.

In the early 17th century, Britain reinforced mercantilist policies to increase national wealth: duties were imposed on foreign wheat; the export of manufactured goods and the import of raw materials required for the home market were encouraged; and the import of goods which competed with home production was forbidden. Navigation Acts were passed in 1651 and 1660 to enforce the carriage of goods to England in English ships or in ships of the country which had produced the goods. The East India Company was formed in 1600 by royal charter to attempt to break the Dutch control of the lucrative spice trade from the East Indies. It developed a monopoly on British trading in the East, furthering expansion into India, and laid the bases for the British Empire in India.

During the Seven Years' War from 1756-63, Britain took over from the French in Canada and India. However, the financial burdens of the war led the government to impose taxes and duties on the American colonists, who objected to the concept of taxation without representation. In addition, the British mercantilist policies regulated trade with colonies in the interests of the mother country, provoking further colonial opposition. In 1774, the discontent was fuelled by other acts limiting the geographical and political freedom of the colonists, and between 1775 and 1783 the American Revolution won independence from Britain for the thirteen colonies that then became the United States of America.

The later British Empire swelled to admit new possessions after the French Revolutionary wars at the end of the 18th century, including Ceylon, British Guyana, and Malta. Thanks to technical improvements in navigational in-

struments, such as the sextant and the marine chronometer, navigation had been greatly facilitated, and improved scientific methods of surveying, cartography, and natural description all allowed for a more accurate picture of the world.

The most influential additions were in the Pacific. Considerable attention was paid to this area as greater knowledge of the non-European world stimulated interest in its huge range of exotic flora and fauna and its geography. Another factor that lay behind the increased interest in new lands were the problems raised for Britain by the loss of the American colonies, which had refused to continue the transportation of British convicts. In this period, British gaols were greatly overcrowded as a result of the heavy penalties inflicted in an attempt to control crime in the rapidly-growing urban centres. Conditions were so critical that hulks had been fitted out on the Thames as a temporary measure.

In 1768 an expedition headed by Captain James Cook (1728-79) on board the *Endeavour* set out ostensibly to observe the transit of the planet Venus across the face of the sun from Tahiti in the South Pacific. Having carried out the main scientific task, Cook sailed westward. He had in fact received secret orders to continue his voyage to seek the undiscovered southern land, *Terra Australis Incognita*, which many geographers believed existed in the southern hemisphere. After charting the existence of the two islands that make up New Zealand—later settled in the 1800s—Cook again headed west and sighted the east coast of New Holland, now Australia. He followed the coast north and anchored in what he named Botany Bay. The expedition then sailed up the east coast of Australia and returned to Britain in 1771.

The decision to establish a new penal colony was not taken immediately. Opposition to the plan partly came from the fear of interfering with the monopoly rights of the East India Company. In the end, it was decided that Botany Bay would serve both as a satisfactory solution for the transportation of convicts and also as a good base for trade with China, Japan and the Spice Islands. In addition, it was thought it might provide suitable asylum for the Americans colonists who had remained loyal to Britain. In 1786 the British Admiralty commissioned a convict fleet to sail for New South Wales, and in 1787 the First Fleet set sail from Plymouth.

References

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A.G.L. Shaw, *The Story of Australia*. 5th edition. (London: Faber & Faber, 1983).

GLOSSARY

trade = commercio	mother country = madrepatria
height = culmine	to fuel = alimentare
chartered company = società commerciale dotata di privilegi	to swell = ingrossare
venture = affare commerciale rischioso	sextant = sestante
to settle = colonizzare	surveying = rilevamento topografico
dissenter = dissidente	transportation (arch.) =
molasses = melassa	deportazione
cloth = tessuto	convict = carcerato
timber = legname	to inflict a penalty = infliggere una pena
wealth = ricchezza	crime = criminalità
duties = tariffe doganali	hulk = scafo di nave in disuso
raw materials = materie prime	to fit out = adattare
to compete with = competere con	ostensibly = apparentemente
home production = produzione nazionale	to sail = navigare
forbidden = vietato	task = compito
to enforce = imporre	to seek (sought, sought) = cercare
carriage = trasporto	undiscovered = sconosciuto
charter = atto di concessione	to head = dirigersi
to take (took, taken) over from = subentrare a	to sight = avvistare
burden = peso	to anchor = gettar l'ancora
	Admiralty = Ammiragliato
	fleet = flotta; flottiglia
	to set (set, set) sail = salpare

NOTES

Travel is usually used as a verb: *They travelled to India.*

As a noun, it is generally uncountable: *Air travel is very comfortable.*

Travelling can also be used as a generic noun: *I enjoy travelling.*

The plural form can be used for a long journey to several different places: *Gulliver's Travels.* *Captain Cook's travels in the Pacific.*

Otherwise, more specific nouns must be used:

The journey to London took three hours.

He went to Paris on a business trip.

Columbus's voyage took him to America.

They took a tour of European capitals.

My cruise in the Mediterranean was fantastic.

WORD STUDY

The prefix *over-* is used to give the idea of excess:

British gaols were greatly overcrowded.

The prefix *under-* gives the idea of insufficiency or inadequacy:

The rich farmland was underutilised.

Choose the most suitable word for each sentence from the list below.

overemphasis

overloaded

overtaxed

underdeveloped

underestimated

underprivileged

- 1) The British government _____ the difficulties in the colony.
- 2) Foreign goods were _____ by mercantilist policies.
- 3) Many of the convicts were simply _____.
- 4) The hulks on the Thames were _____ with prisoners.
- 5) There was an _____ given to the opportunities in the new settlement.
- 6) The _____ countryside was soon transformed into farms.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

WORD FUNCTIONS I

One of the characteristics of English is that the same word can have different functions.

Verbs can be used as nouns:

to laugh

a laugh

Adjectives can be used as nouns:

a daily newspaper

a daily

Nouns can be used as verbs:

cash

to cash a cheque

Adjectives can be used as verbs:

dry paint

to dry

The word *round*, for example, may be used in the following ways:

a round ball (adjective)

a round of drinks (noun)

He rounded the bend. (verb)

He drove round Britain. (preposition)

Come round this evening. (adverb)

Exercise 1

Make sentences using the following words in different ways.

cover sail empty map good trade

NOUNS AS ADJECTIVES

In English nouns often take on the function of adjectives:

mother country convict fleet.

-*ing* forms may also have this function:

trading post sailing ship.

Proper names and numbers may also act as adjectives:

<i>a Shakespeare play</i>	<i>a 1990 model</i>	<i>a 1950s style</i>
= by Shakespeare	= from the year 1990	= from the 1950s

In English, compound nouns may be:

- two separate words: *house arrest*
- joined by a hyphen: *house-warming*
- one single word: *household*.

There are no clear rules as to the use of the hyphen with compound words, and sometimes more than one form is used:

girl friend or *girlfriend* *starting point* or *starting-point*.

Exercise 2

Match a noun in column A with a noun from column B to form compound nouns. Write a sentence using each new word.

A	B	
1) home	a) plantation	_____
2) government	b) rush	_____
3) sugar	c) economy	_____
4) gold	d) land	_____
5) world	e) policy	_____

Exercise 3

Compound nouns can sometimes be quite complex:

trade union membership *world trade regulation policy*

Form compound nouns from each of the following phrases. Remember that the adjectival nouns do not usually take a plural form.

1) Course for the management of business

2) Device for the measuring of water level

3) Issues regarding university education

4) Remedies for travel sickness

5) Research concerned with ocean exploration

6) Plans to develop the east coast

7) A system operated by a computer

8) Services for the transportation of food

HYPHENS

Besides joining compound nouns, hyphens are also used:

(a) in adjective + noun used attributively:

nineteenth-century exploration *a ten-year plan.*

(b) with prefixes: *self-sufficient* *co-ordinate* *anti-fascist.*

(c) in words derived from verb + preposition or adverb:

an industrial walk-out *a social get-together.*

(d) in writing numbers: *twenty-one thirty-second two-thirds.*

(e) to split a word at the end of a line. Words should be split between syllables, after a prefix or before a suffix. Words of one syllable should not be broken.

Exercise 4

Use a hyphen in the following sentences where necessary.

- 1) Her ex husband is a used car dealer.
- 2) The doctor took some X rays.
- 3) Travel in the twenty first century is very rapid.
- 4) My sister in law is forty five.
- 5) My four year old son is semi independent.
- 6) Send me an up to date programme.
- 7) The students are holding a protest sit in.
- 8) The nineteenth century was a period of great exploration.

ADJECTIVES AS NOUNS

Adjectives can be used as nouns to indicate groups of people. Although a plural verb is used, the adjective remains singular:

The rich live in big houses. The unemployed do not.

Nationality adjectives may also refer to the people of a country. In this case, the nouns ending in *-an* must take a plural form:

the English the French the Chinese the Germans the Italians.

Some irregular forms are: *the Greeks, the Scots the Israelis the Swedes the Spaniards.*

The Germans are considered hard-working by the English. The Italians are regarded as passionate and talkative. The Irish and the Turks are thought to be religious, and the Russians tough and brave.

Exercise 5

Write the nationality nouns for each country. Remember that a capital letter is required.

Britain	_____	Holland	_____
China	_____	Ireland	_____
England	_____	Italy	_____
France	_____	Scotland	_____
Germany	_____	Spain	_____
Greece	_____	Wales	_____

ACRONYMS

Acronyms are initial letters of words or parts of words: *the BBC* (British Broadcasting Corporation), *TV* (television). Increasingly, they tend to be written without full stops.

Acronyms are generally written with capital letters. Some exceptions are:
a.m. (ante meridiem) *p.m.* (post meridiem) *a.s.a.p.* (as soon as possible).

Acronyms may sometimes contain prepositions or conjunctions:

C. of E. (Church of England) *B&B* (bed and breakfast).

Although acronyms are usually pronounced letter by letter, some are read as words. Some examples are:

NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation)

BASIC (Beginners' All-Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code)

Anzac (Australia and New Zealand Army Corps).

The plural of most acronyms is formed with the suffix *-s*:

GPs (General Practitioners) *MPs* (Members of Parliament).

However, note the plurals of the Latin acronyms:

PS (*postscriptum*) → *PSS* *MS* (*manuscriptum*) → *MSS*.

The acronym *BC* (before Christ) is written after the date, and the acronym *AD* (*anno domini*) is written before it: *500 BC* *AD 2000*.

Exercise 6

Use a dictionary to find the meanings of the following acronyms. They may have more than one meaning.

<i>BA</i>	<i>NSW</i>
<i>EU</i>	<i>NZ</i>
<i>GNP</i>	<i>Ph.D.</i>
<i>HRH</i>	<i>PM</i>

FURTHER READING

Amongst the crew of the Endeavour was Joseph Banks (1743-1820), a Fellow of the Royal Society. He was the Senior Scientific Officer on board the Endeavour together with the botanist Daniel Solander, a pupil of Linnaeus. Banks took a great interest in the plant and animal life of the new continent, collecting many samples of plants and arranging for paintings of the local landscapes. Here he describes the first sighting of natives in Botany Bay.

THE ENDEAVOUR JOURNAL**1770 April 19.**

With the first day light this morn the Land was seen, at 10 it was pretty plainly to be observd; it made in sloping hills, coverd in Part with trees or bushes, but interspersd with large tracts of sand. At Noon the land much the same. We were now sailing along shore 5 or 6 Leagues from it, with a brisk breeze of wind and cloudy unsettled weather, when we were calld upon deck to see three water spouts, which at the same time made their appearance in different places but all between us and the land [...]

1770 April 28.

The land this morn appeard Clifffy and barren without wood. An opening appearing like a harbour was seen and we stood directly in for it. A small smoak arising from a very barren place directed our glasses that way and we soon saw about 10 people, who on our approach left the fire and retird to a little emmidence where they could conveniently see the ship; soon after this two Canoes carrying 2 men each landed on the beach under them, the men hauld up their boats and went to their fellows upon the hill. Our boat which had been sent ahead to sound now aproachd the place and they all retird higher up on the hill; we saw however that at the beach or landing place one man at least was hid

among some rocks who never that we could see left that place. Our boat proceeded along shore and the Indians followd her at a distance. When she came back the officer who was in her told me that in a cove a little within the harbour they came down to the beach and invited our people to land by many signs and word[s] which he did not at all understand; all however were armd with long pikes and a wooden weapon made something like a short scymetar. During this time a few of the Indians who had not followd the boat remaind on the rocks opposite the ship, threatning and menacing with their pikes and swords—two in particular who were painted with white, their faces seemingly only dusted over with it, their bodies painted with broad strokes drawn over their breasts and backs resembling much a soldiers cross belts, and their legs and thighs also with such like broad strokes drawn round them which imitated broad garters or bracelets. Each of these held in his hand a wooden weapon about 2 1/2 feet long, in shape much resembling a scymeter; the blades of these lookd whitish and some though[t] shining insomuch that they were almost of opinion that they were made of some kind of metal, but myself thought they were no more than wood smeard over with the same white pigment with which they paint their bodies. These two seemd to talk earnestly together, at times brandishing their crooked weapons at us as in token of defiance. By noon we were within the mouth of the inlet which appeard to be very good. Under the South head of it were four small canoes; in each of these was one man who held in his hand a long pole with which he struck fish, venturing with his little imbarcation almost into the surf. These people seemd to be totaly engag'd in what they were about: the ship passd within a quarter of a mile of them and yet they scarce lifted their eyes from their employment; I was almost inclnd to think that attentive to their business and deafned by the noise of the surf they neither saw nor heard her go past them. At 1 we came to an anchor abreast of a small village consisting of about 6 or 8 houses. Soon after this an old woman followd by three children came out of the wood; she carried several peice[s] of stick and the children also had their little burthens; when she came to the houses 3 more younger children came out of one of them to meet her. She often lookd at the ship but expressd neither surprize nor concern. Soon after this she lighted a fire and the four Canoes came in from fishing; the people landed, hauld up their boats and began to dress their dinner to all appearance totaly unmovd at us, tho we were within a little more than 1/2 a mile of them. Of all these people we had seen so distinctly through our glasses we had not been able to observe the least signs of Cloathing: myself to the best of my judgement plainly discernd that the woman did not copy our mother Eve even in the fig leaf.

After dinner the boats were mann'd and we set out from the ship intending to land at the place where we saw these people, hoping that as they regarded the ships coming in to the bay so little they would as little regard our landing. We

were in this however mistaken, for as soon as we aproachd the rocks two of the men came down upon them, each armd with a lance of about 10 feet long and a short stick which he seemd to handle as if it was a machine to throw the lance. They calld to us very loud in a harsh sounding Language of which neither us or Tupia understood a word, shaking their lances and menacing, in all appearance resolvd to dispute our landing to the utmost tho they were but two and we 30 or 40 at least. In this manner we parleyd with them for about a quarter of an hour, they waving to us to be gone, we again signing that we wanted water and that we meant them no harm. They remaind resolute so a musquet was fird over them, the Effect of which was that the Youngest of the two dropd a bundle of lances on the rock at the instant in which he heard the report; he however snatchd them up again and both renewd their threats and opposition. A Musquet loaded with small shot was now fird at the Eldest of the two who was about 40 yards from the boat; it struck him on the legs but he minded it very little so another was immediately fird at him; on this he ran up to the house about 100 yards distant and soon returnd with a sheild. In the mean time we had landed on the rock. He immediately threw a lance at us and the young man another which fell among the thickest of us but hurt nobody; 2 more musquets with small shot were then fird at them on which the Eldest threw one more lance and then ran away as did the other. We went up to the houses, in one of which we found the children hid behind the sheild and a peice of bark in one of the houses. We were conscious from the distance the people had been from us when we fird that the shot could have done them no material harm; we therefore resolvd to leave the children on the spot without even opening their shelter. We therefore threw into the house to them some beads, ribbands, cloths &c. as presents and went away. We however thought it no improper measure to take away with us all the lances which we could find about the houses, amounting in number to forty or fifty. They were of various lenghs, from 15 to 6 feet in lengh; both those which were thrown at us and all we found except one had 4 prongs headed with very sharp fish bones, which were besmeard with a greenish colourd gum that at first gave me some suspicions of Poison. The people were blacker than any we have seen in the Voyage tho by no means negroes; their beards were thick and bushy and they seemd to have a redundancy of hair upon those parts of the body where it commonly grows; the hair of their heads was bushy and thick but by no means wooley like that of a Negro; they were of a common size, lean and seemd active and nimble; their voices were coarse and strong. Upon examining the lances we had taken from them we found that the very most of them had been usd in striking fish, at least we concluded so from sea weed which was found stuck in among the four prongs.— Having taken the resolution before mentiond we returnd to the ship in order to get rid of our load of lances, and having done that went to that place at the mouth of the harbour

where we had seen the people in the morn; here however we found nobody.—At night many moving lights were seen in different parts of the bay such as we had been usd to see at the Islands; from hence we supposd that the people here strike fish in the same manner.

GLOSSARY

plainly = chiaramente	engaged = impegnato
sloping = declinanti	scarce = appena
interspersed = inframezzato	deafened = assordato
noon = mezzogiorno	abreast = di fianco
brisk = frizzante	burthen (burden) = carico
unsettled = agitato	concern = preoccupazione
water spout = tromba marina	to dress (food) = preparare
to last = durare	fig leaf = foglia di fico
cliffy = dirupato	to regard = considerare
barren = arido	harsh sounding = dal tono sgrade-
to stand in for = far rotta verso	vole
approach = avvicinarsi	to the utmost = fino all'ultimo
eminence (eminence) = altura	to parley = parlamentare
*conveniently = facilmente	to mean no harm = non volere fare
to haul up = trascinare	del male
fellow = compagno	bundle = fascia
to hide (hid, hidden) = nascondersi	to snatch up = raccogliere in fretta
seemingly = a quanto pareva	bark = corteccia
dusted = impolverato	spot = posto
broad = largo	shelter = rifugio
stroke = tratto	bead = perlina di vetro
breast = petto	ribband (riband) = nastro
thigh = coscia	prong = dente
garter = giarrettiera	gum = resina
whitish = biancastro	poison = veleno
shining = lustro	bushy = folto
to smear = spalmare	wooley (woolly) = lanoso
insomuch that = a tal punto che	lean = asciutto
to brandish = brandire	nimble = agile
crooked = curvo	coarse = rozzo
in token of = come segno di	stuck = appiccicato
to venture = avventurare	to get (got got) rid of = liberarsi da
surf = onde	load = carico

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS

shore = costa
harbour = porto

head = promontorio
cove / inlet = insenatura

NAVAL TERMS

league = lega
deck = ponte
mast = albero
glasses = binocolo

to land = sbarcare
to sound = sondare
to man (a ship) = equipaggiare
seaweed = alga marina

MILITARY TERMS

pike = picca
weapon = arma
to be armed = essere armati
scymenter (scimitar) = scimitarra
sword = spada
cross belt = cartucciera a tracolla
blade = lama

lance = lancia
musquet (musket) = moschetto
to load = caricare
to fire = sparare, fare fuoco
report = scoppio
shot = pallini (di piombo)
sheild (shield) = scudo

COMPREHENSION

1. What natural phenomenon was observed on April 19?
2. What was the natives' first reaction to the white people?
3. How did the white people and the natives communicate?

NOTES

This passage contains several archaic stylistic elements:

- contractions:
observd *joind* *disappeard* *fird* *tho*
- random capitalisation:
Land *League* *Column* *Cliffy*
- non-standard spelling:
generaly *smoak* *lengthened* *peice* *burthens.*

The word *fellow* is used in two ways in the passage: *Joseph Banks was a Fellow* (membro, socio) *of the Royal Society. The men [...] went to their fellows* (compagni) *upon the hill.* It can also be used as a familiar reference to a person: *He's a good fellow* (tipo, persona).

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ish* is used to form nationality adjectives: *Scottish* *Irish*. It also can mean 'like', in a rather derogatory manner: *She is very childish.* It can also indicate 'approximately', especially with time expressions or numbers:

The blades of the weapons looked whitish.

He is thirtyish.

Let's meet at 10-ish.

Make words with *-ish* and choose the most suitable word for each sentence.

boy

yellow

hot

seven

tall

- 1) It was _____ so we all went for a swim.
- 2) Although he was middle-aged he had never lost his _____ charm.
- 3) The boat leaves at _____. Don't be late.
- 4) I have just had malaria and my skin is still a little _____.
- 5) He is growing very fast. I think he'll be _____ when he's an adult.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

WORD FUNCTIONS II -ING FORMS

The *-ing* form can have different functions in English. Note the following examples from the reading passage.

- 1) *we were now sailing along shore*

The *-ing* form is used as part of the past continuous tense (see Unit 2).

- 2) *an opening appear*

In this example the *-ing* form acts as a noun (see Unit 6).

3) *a harsh sounding language*

Here the *-ing* form is used as an adjective describing the noun *language*.

4) *two Canoes carrying 2 men each landed on the beach*

In this example the *-ing* form takes the place of a relative clause (see Unit 14): *two Canoes [that were] carrying 2 men each*

5) *Upon examining the lances we had taken from them*

In this case, the *-ing* form follows a preposition.

Exercise 7

Look at some other examples of the *-ing* form from the passage. Identify the function of each.

- 1) a small village *consisting* of about 6 or 8 houses
- 2) the least signs of *Cloathing*
- 3) most of them had been used in *striking* fish
- 4) many *moving* lights

Exercise 8

Rewrite the following words and sentences using an *-ing* form.

1) a boat to sail in _____

2) a gun to hunt with _____

3) Cook liked to make contact with the natives.

4) Do not smoke here. _____

5) He is thinking of _____. (to emigrate)

6) He was rescued after _____ for hours. (to swim)

7) Tens of natives who resembled negroes stood on the beach.

8) To sail to Australia took several months.

WORD CLIPPING**Exercise 9**

Words can be shortened with the subtraction of a part of the word. Write the clipped forms of the following words.

newspaper telephone photograph advertisement aeroplane

WORD BLENDING**Exercise 10**

Words can be blended to create portmanteau words. Decide what words have been combined to form the following ones, and guess their meaning.

brunch Chunnel Oxbridge smog Eurovision workaholic

Some historical blendings that form modern words:

farewell (fare ye well)

o'clock (of the clock)

goodbye (God be with ye)

always (all the ways)

today (to the day)

tomorrow (to the morrow)

bloody (by Our Lady)

EPONYMS

These are words that derive from the names of people. Some of the best-known in English are:

sandwich cardigan wellington boycott dunce

Find out which people gave their names to these words.

TRANSLATION

- 1) I maltesi e gli indiani furono sudditi britannici.
- 2) Dopo la rivoluzione americana si cercarono nuovi paesi da colonizzare.
- 3) Nessuna delle due isole era mai stata visitata prima.

- 4) La traversata del Pacifico durò sei mesi.
- 5) Gli africani furono venduti al mercato degli schiavi.
- 6) Le colonie fornivano materie prime.
- 7) Tutta la nazione ammirava le scoperte di Cook.
- 8) Molte nazioni volevano controllare il commercio dello zucchero.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Exploration and ships

bark (arch.) = nave

compass = bussola

crossing = attraversata

deck = ponte

master = commandante (di nave)

merchant ship = nave mercantile

port = sinistra (di una nave)

quay = banchina, molo

rigging = attrezzatura di nave

sailor = marinaio

seafarer = uomo di mare

shipwreck = naufragio

starboard = dritta

to cast off = mollare gli ormeggi

to disembark = sbarcare

to drop anchor = gettare l'ancora

to embark = salire a bordo

to moor = ormeggiare

to survey = misurare, rilevare

vessel = vascello

UNIT 9

MONEY AND BANKS

The earliest history of money goes back to very ancient times. It was probably invented by the Chinese and, by the fourth century BC, coinage of money had long been established in Ancient Greece. Money—both coins and paper currency—was a commodity that, because it is durable and divisible, played an immediate role in exchange, eliminating the inconveniences of barter. It was also a suitable way of storing wealth.

However, money took on a new role with the establishment of banks. Banks were able to control, increase or diminish the supply of money according to need, and the funds made available could then be used for investment or for the requirements of the state. The earliest modern developments of the banks were found in Italy between the thirteenth and sixteenth centuries. At first banks were simply a place of deposit and, when the money was used as a means of payment, the coin was physically transferred to the creditor. Later the lending and borrowing of money was introduced. This brought with it the system of bank notes which attested the possession of metal on deposit. The bearer of one of the notes could either demand the gold or coins from the bank that had issued the note, or pass the note on to another creditor or supplier. In the meantime, the original metal remained in the bank vaults and could also be lent. The regulation of lending and money creation by smaller banks was governed through the gradual establishment of central banks.

The Bank of England was established in 1694 and almost immediately started to issue notes in return for deposits. During the 18th century there was a gradual move toward fixed denomination notes which by 1745 were being partly printed in denominations ranging from £20 to £1,000. In the latter half of the century gold shortages caused by war and revolution led to the production of £10, £5, £2 and £1 notes. The first fully printed notes appeared in 1855.

The first formal monetary system of modern times was the international Gold Standard in which, during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, gold served as an instrument of exchange and the only standard of value. It broke down in 1914 mainly due to a lack of liquidity.

During and immediately after the Second World War almost every country on the European continent saw the destruction and reform of their currencies. Germany reformed her currency in 1948 after having experienced two hyper-inflations in one generation. The former German-occupied countries, from France to Norway, got rid of their wartime inflation by means of overnight cur-

rency reforms whereby their grossly inflated wartime currencies were reduced by up to a hundred-fold or more, thus not only providing the basis for a sound new currency but also penalising collaborators, profiteers, and tax-evaders.

The first steps towards the introduction of a single European currency were taken almost 30 years ago when the six initial Member States of the European Economic Community proposed a plan for the creation of an economic and monetary union. In 1979 the European Monetary System (EMS) was established. In June 1988, it was decided to achieve Economic and Monetary Union in a three-stage process. The first stage focussed mainly on the increased co-ordination of economic and monetary policies between the Member States. In November 1993 the Maastricht Treaty was ratified, thereby creating the legal foundations for a supranational monetary union in Europe.

In 1994, the second stage of EMU began. At that time the European Monetary Institute (EMI) was created as the precursor to the European Central Bank. Its task was to carry out preparatory work and to set up the conditions necessary for the transition to the third stage of EMU. In that phase, Member States increased their efforts to conduct disciplined economic and monetary policies so as to fulfil the essential conditions for the adoption of a single currency, in particular the so-called convergence criteria which concerned inflation rates, budget deficits, government debt ratios, exchange rates and interest rates. The European Central Bank was established in 1998 in Frankfurt.

On 1 January 1999, the Euro was launched and 11 countries gave up their monetary sovereignty, transferring the task of conducting the single monetary policy to a supranational institution. From 1 January 2002, there will be a transition period of a maximum of two months for the withdrawal of national currencies. From 1 March 2002, Euro banknotes and coins will become the sole cash accepted in the 12 countries of the Euro area. and the changeover will be complete.

References

- J.K. Galbraith, *A History of Economics* (London: Penguin, 1987).
European Central Bank web site: <http://www.ecb.de/>

GLOSSARY

to go (went, gone) back to = risalire a
coin = moneta metallica
currency = moneta circolante
***commodity** = merce, bene
durable = resistente
barter = baratto
to store = accumulare
wealth = ricchezza
supply = offerta
lending = erogazione di prestito
borrowing = assunzione di prestito
bearer = portatore
to issue (notes) = emettere banconote
vault = caveau
denomination = taglio
shortage = scarsità

exchange = scambio
to break (broke, broken) down = crollare
former = precedente
to get (got, got) rid of = liberarsi da
-fold = volte
sound = solido
profiteers = profittatore
to achieve = raggiungere
stage = fase
to fulfil = soddisfare
rate = tasso
to launch = varare
to give (gave, given) up = rinunciare
sovereignty = sovranità
cash = denaro, contanti
changeover = conversione

NOTES

Note the difference between *to lend* (dare in prestito) and *to borrow* (prendere a prestito):

The bank lent me the money to buy my house.

I borrowed a lot of money from the bank.

Nouns from the verb *to lend* are *loan* or *lending*.

I took out a loan to buy my house.

Lending and borrowing are controlled by the Central Bank.

In American English *loan* can also be used as a verb:

The bank will loan us the money.

The suffix *-fold* is used with numbers to form adverbs to express the amount of increase:

Profits grew hundred-fold (= increased one hundred times).

WORD STUDY

The suffixes *-able* and *-ible* are used to form adjectives:

durable

divisible

available

Choose a suitable adjective in each sentence.

comfortable
sensible

suitable
terrible

reasonable
variable

- 1) The interest rate the bank offered was _____.
- 2) Even though he has retired, he has an adequate income and is quite _____.
- 3) She has always been very _____ with her money and has never wasted any.
- 4) I chose a _____ interest rate on my mortgage rather than a fixed one.
- 5) The drop in profits created a _____ crisis.
- 6) The bank manager helped me decide on a loan that was _____ for my income.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES

Although variations are possible, the usual order of adjectives is:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------|
| (a) general description | (e) colour |
| (b) size | (f) origin |
| (c) age | (g) material |
| (d) shape | (h) purpose |

Examples:

- a small gold coin*
an old note-issuing bank
early modern developments
the former German-occupied countries
a big round wooden kitchen table
a large modern blue and white Italian water jug

Exercise 1

Rewrite the descriptions putting the adjectives in the correct order.

- 1) *bank*: Swiss, large _____
- 2) *institute*: modern, lending _____
- 3) *policy*: monetary, effective _____
- 4) *coin*: silver, round _____
- 5) *task*: small, preparatory _____
- 6) *development*: economic, rapid _____
- 7) *banknote*: old, English _____
- 8) *state*: member, new _____

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

One syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding *-er* and *-est* to the positive form:

<i>high</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>the highest</i>
<i>low</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>the lowest</i>

Adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative by adding *more* and *the most* to the positive form:

<i>available</i>	<i>more available</i>	<i>the most available</i>
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Adjectives of two syllables follow one or other of the two rules:

<i>likely</i>	<i>more likely</i>	<i>the most likely</i>
<i>clever</i>	<i>cleverer</i>	<i>the cleverest</i>

Some irregular forms:

<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>the worst</i>
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>the best</i>
<i>little</i> (quantity)	<i>less</i>	<i>the least</i>
<i>many/much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>the most</i>

Exercise 2

Write a sentence using each adjective in its comparative or superlative form.

- 1) dramatic _____
- 2) fast _____
- 3) likely _____
- 4) modern _____
- 5) strict _____

Exercise 3

Choose the correct form in these sentences.

- 1) *Better / Best* planning is necessary to improve the economy.
- 2) Long-term projects are the *more / most* successful.
- 3) The Bank of England is one of the *older / oldest* central banks in Europe.
- 4) Poor countries have *less / least* power than *richer / richest* countries.
- 5) Economists have found the *most fast / fastest* way to reduce the deficit.
- 6) Europe's economy is in a *worse / worst* state than the US economy.
- 7) The *last / latest* economic forecasts are encouraging.
- 8) Today the situation is looking *hopefuller / more hopeful*.

COMPARATIVE STRUCTURES

To express the same degree we use *as ... as*:

The interest rate at Midwest was as high as that at Barclay's.

With negative verb forms, we can also use the construction *so ... as*:

The national debt in India is not as/so high as in Pakistan.

The idea of parallel increase is expressed by *the + comparative ... the + comparative*:

The more planning is done, the quicker a solution will be found.

The sooner the problem of debt is resolved, the better it will be.

Gradual increase or decrease is expressed by two comparatives, especially with the verbs *get* and *become*:

The situation is becoming more and more difficult to control.

The numbers are getting higher and higher.

Exercise 4

Put one suitable word in each space.

- 1) Monetary policy is just _____ necessary as careful budgeting.
- 2) The world economy is getting _____ and more favourable.
- 3) The sooner tax rules are changed _____ better.
- 4) Profits from overseas operations are becoming fewer and _____.
- 5) The growth rate of the economy is higher _____ in the past.
- 6) There have never been so many company takeovers _____ in the last 12 months.
- 7) The _____ competition there is, the lower prices fall.
- 8) _____ and _____ people can afford to buy houses.

Exercise 5

Choose the most suitable word or phrase for each sentence.

- 1) The government's project will give companies _____ protection.
/ farther / much more / as better / a lot /
- 2) The economic crisis is getting _____ serious.
/ more and more / less and less / further and further / most and most /
- 3) It is estimated that _____ one in ten businesses will close soon.
/ as much as / as many as / as far as / as long as /
- 4) Releasing information is becoming _____ since the law on privacy was passed.
/ much harder / as harder / just as hardly / more hardly /

ADJECTIVES + INFINITIVES

Adjectives are used with the infinitive in certain impersonal expressions:

It is easy (difficult, important, interesting, necessary, possible, usual) to get a bank loan.

Sometimes the adjective + infinitive may be part of a construction with *for*:

It is possible for people with good jobs to get a bank loan.

It is hard for unemployed people to get financial help.

Exercise 6

Construct sentences from the columns below.

	difficult necessary		developing countries to get richer. small businesses to grow quickly.
It is	possible important unwise	for	banks to approve large loans without security. young people to find employment quickly. self-employed people to be insured.

FURTHER READING

Adam Smith (1723-90) was born in Scotland, and educated at the universities of Glasgow and Oxford. From 1748 to 1751 a close association between Smith and the Scottish philosopher David Hume contributed much to the development of Smith's ethical and economic theories.

Smith was appointed professor of logic in 1751 and then professor of moral philosophy in 1752 at the University of Glasgow. He later published his ethical teachings in his first major work, Theory of Moral Sentiments (1759). Travelling in France and Switzerland, Smith met many of the leading Continental philosophers of the Physiocratic school, which based its political and economic doctrines on the supremacy of natural law, wealth, and order.

Smith's An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations (1776) attempts to separate the study of political economy from the fields of political science, ethics, and jurisprudence. It analyses the processes whereby economic wealth is produced and distributed, and demonstrates that the fundamental sources of all income are rent, wages, and profits.

AN INQUIRY INTO THE NATURE AND CAUSES OF THE WEALTH OF NATIONS 1776

INTRODUCTION AND PLAN OF THE WORK

THE annual labour of every nation is the fund which originally supplies it with all the necessaries and conveniences of life which it annually consumes, and which consist always either in the immediate produce of that labour, or in what is purchased with that produce from other nations. According therefore as this produce, or what is purchased with it, bears a greater or smaller proportion to the number of those who are to consume it, the nation will be better or worse supplied with all the necessaries and conveniences for which it has occasion.

But this proportion must in every nation be regulated by two different circumstances; first, by the skill, dexterity, and judgement with which its labour is generally applied; and, secondly, by the proportion between the number of those who are employed in useful labour, and that of those who are not so employed. Whatever be the soil, climate, or extent of territory of any particular nation, the abundance or scantiness of its annual supply must, in that particular situation, depend upon those two circumstances.

The abundance or scantiness of this supply, too, seems to depend more upon the former of those two circumstances than upon the latter. Among the savage nations of hunters and fishers, every individual who is able to work, is more or less employed in useful labour, and endeavours to provide, as well as he can, the necessaries and conveniences of life, for himself, or such of his family or tribe as are either too old, or too young, or too infirm to go a hunting and fishing. Such nations, however, are so miserably poor that, from mere want, they are frequently reduced, or, at least, think themselves reduced, to the necessity sometimes of directly destroying, and sometimes of abandoning their infants, their old people, and those afflicted with lingering diseases, to perish with hunger, or to be devoured by wild beasts. Among civilised and thriving nations, on the contrary, though a great number of people do not labour at all, many of whom consume the produce of ten times, frequently of a

hundred times more labour than the greater part of those who work; yet the produce of the whole labour of the society is so great that all are often abundantly supplied, and a workman, even of the lowest and poorest order, if he is frugal and industrious, may enjoy a greater share of the necessaries and conveniences of life than it is possible for any savage to acquire.

The causes of this improvement, in the productive powers of labour, and the order, according to which its produce is naturally distributed among the different ranks and conditions of men in the society, make the subject of the first book of this Inquiry.

Whatever be the actual state of the skill, dexterity, and judgement with which labour is applied in any nation, the abundance or scantiness of its annual supply must depend, during the continuance of that state, upon the proportion between the number of those who are annually employed in useful labour, and that of those who are not so employed. The number of useful and productive labourers, it will hereafter appear, is everywhere in proportion to the quantity of capital stock which is employed in setting them to work, and to the particular way in which it is so employed. The second book, therefore, treats of the nature of capital stock, of the manner in which it is gradually accumulated, and of the different quantities of labour which it puts into motion, according to the different ways in which it is employed.

Nations tolerably well advanced as to skill, dexterity, and judgement, in the application of labour, have followed very different plans in the general conduct or direction of it; those plans have not all been equally favourable to the greatness of its produce. The policy of some nations has given extraordinary encouragement to the industry of the country; that of others to the industry of towns. Scarce any nation has dealt equally and impartially with every sort of industry. Since the downfall of the Roman empire, the policy of Europe has been more favourable to arts, manufactures, and commerce, the industry of towns, than to agriculture, the industry of the country. The circumstances which seem to have introduced and established this policy are explained in the third book.

Though those different plans were, perhaps, first introduced by the private interests and prejudices of particular orders of men, without any regard to, or foresight of, their consequences upon the general welfare of the society; yet they have given occasion to very different theories of political economy; of which some magnify the importance of that industry which is carried on in towns, others of that which is carried on in the country. Those theories have had a considerable influence, not only upon the opinions of men of learning,

but upon the public conduct of princes and sovereign states. I have endeavoured, in the fourth book, to explain, as fully and distinctly as I can, those different theories, and the principal effects which they have produced in different ages and nations.

To explain in what has consisted the revenue of the great body of the people, or what has been the nature of those funds which, in different ages and nations, have supplied their annual consumption, is the object of these four first books. The fifth and last book treats of the revenue of the sovereign, or commonwealth. In this book I have endeavoured to show, first, what are the necessary expenses of the sovereign, or commonwealth; which of those expenses ought to be defrayed by the general contribution of the whole society; and which of them by that of some particular part only, or of some particular members of it: secondly, what are the different methods in which the whole society may be made to contribute towards defraying the expenses incumbent on the whole society, and what are the principal advantages and inconveniences of each of those methods: and, thirdly and lastly, what are the reasons and causes which have induced almost all modern governments to mortgage some part of this revenue, or to contract debts, and what have been the effects of those debts upon the real wealth, the annual produce of the land and labour of the society.

Source: Adam Smith, “Introduction” in *An Inquiry Into The Nature And Causes Of The Wealth Of Nations*, 1776.

Archaic spellings have been reduced in this edition.

GLOSSARY

labour = lavoro, manodopera

to supply with = fornire di

to purchase = acquistare

to bear (bore, borne) = sopportare

dexterity = destrezza

judgement = giudizio

employed = occupato, impiegato

soil = terra

scantiness = insufficienza

the former...the latter =

il primo...il secondo

hunter = cacciatore

fisher = pescatore

to endeavour = cercare, tentare

for want of = per mancanza di

lingering = lento, protratto

to perish of hunger = morire di fame

thriving = prospero

share = quota

rank = rango

capital stock = stock di capitale

policy = politica

to deal (dealt, dealt) with =

occuparsi di

downfall = caduta

foresight = previsione

welfare = benessere

to give (gave, given) occasion to =

causare, determinare

to magnify = esaltare

to carry on = svolgere

learning = cultura

revenue = reddito

commonwealth = stato, cosa pubblica

to defray = sostenere (una spesa)

to be incumbent on = spettare a

to mortgage = ipotecare

NOTES

The word *welfare* has a general meaning of ‘health, happiness and prosperity’ (benessere): *the general welfare of the society*. In an economic context, its meaning is ‘assistance given to people in need’ (stato assistenziale): *the welfare state*.

Note how the author sequences his ideas:
first..., secondly..., thirdly and lastly

Other sequences may be:

*first (of all)..., secondly..., thirdly..., next..., then..., finally/lastly/last of all...
 One,.... Two, Three,
 First,... Furthermore,.... Finally,
 To begin/start with,.... Moreover,.... To conclude,*

See Appendix III for the use of numbers in English.

COMPREHENSION

1. In Smith’s view, what two elements proportion production and consumption?
2. What does he say European policies regarding labour application have favoured?
3. What three main points does Smith examine concerning revenue?

WORD STUDY

The word *work* can be used to form compound nouns. Choose the correct word to link with *work* in the following sentences.

book *force* *house* *load* *table*

- 1) I sat at my work _____ trying to finish my essay.
- 2) You must reduce your work _____. You are doing too much.
- 3) The country’s work _____ is getting older and older.
- 4) Write all the answers in your work _____.
- 5) In the past, poor people were forced to live in the work _____.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

FORMAL AND INFORMAL VOCABULARY

It is important to be aware of the differences in the choice of vocabulary in formal and informal English. Words of Latinate origins tend to be used in more formal language; words of Germanic origins are generally used in less formal contexts. Compare the following pairs of words:

<i>to ask – to question</i>	<i>to rise – to ascend</i>	<i>to buy – to purchase</i>
<i>old – ancient</i>	<i>goodness – virtue</i>	<i>end – final</i>

Exercise 7

This passage uses some formal verbs of Latinate origin. Use a dictionary to help you match the formal verb in column A with the less formal equivalent in column B.

A

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| 1) <i>to supply</i> | (a) to die |
| 2) <i>to consume</i> | (b) to eat |
| 3) <i>to perish</i> | (c) to try |
| 4) <i>to devour</i> | (d) to provide with |
| 5) <i>to endeavour</i> | (e) to use up |

B

Do the same with the following nouns.

A

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 6) <i>nation</i> | (a) behaviour |
| 7) <i>abundance</i> | (b) country |
| 8) <i>conduct</i> | (c) child |
| 9) <i>revenue</i> | (d) plentifulness |
| 10) <i>infant</i> | (e) income |

B

VOCABULARY PRACTICE

In English *work* is generally an uncountable noun or a verb.

His work is very hard. He works in a factory.

Job is instead a countable noun: *He has a new job.*

Work can also be a countable noun in specific contexts.

a work of art the complete works of Shakespeare road works

Labour generally refers to productive work done for wages.

the annual labour of every country the labour force

Other related words are:

employment (more formal)

Some people prefer part-time to full time employment.

occupation (official term used in forms)

Occupation: Teacher

profession (for jobs requiring university education)

He entered the legal profession.

trade (generally a craft requiring skill and experience)

He is a carpenter by trade.

Exercise 8

Choose the correct word related to work in the following sentences.

- 1) Some students find _____ jobs during the university holidays.

/ overtime / temporary / part-time /

- 2) They do this to _____ enough money to pay for their studies.

/ gain / win / earn /

- 3) Workers who always arrive late may be _____ from their job.

/ sacked / thrown / pushed /

- 4) If they are unhappy with their job, they may choose to _____ and look for another one. */ retire / dismiss / resign /*

- 5) Today, a new _____ may be difficult to find.

/ work / position / employment /

- 6) You may have to put in a(n) _____ for many jobs.

/ application / promotion / resignation /

- 7) New employees have a(n) _____ with the personnel officer.
/ discussion / talk / interview /
- 8) _____ must always respect the needs of the people working for them.
/ Employees / Employers / Staff /

COMPARING

Exercise 9

Revise the comparison of adjectives and comparative structures.

Look at the table below.

Write a short passage comparing Britain, Italy and the United States.

	Britain	Italy	United States
Population (est.)	58,610,000	57,579,000	272,878,000
Area (sq. km.)	244,044	301,225	9,372,143
Wages/Earnings	+ 5.3	+ 2.1	+ 3.8
Unemployment (now)	+ 11.3	+ 11.2	+ 3.9
Unemployment (a year ago)	+ 10.5	+ 11.7	+ 4.3

TRANSLATION

In English, adjectives are generally followed by a noun. To avoid repetition of a noun, a pronoun is used.

He wants the English dictionary, not the French one.

Vuole il dizionario di inglese, non quello di francese.

The superlative form of the adjective and class adjectives can act as nouns.

<i>He is the best.</i>	<i>The rich and the poor.</i>	<i>The unemployed.</i>
È il migliore.	I ricchi e i poveri.	I disoccupati.

Adjectives in English are invariable, and generally precede the noun they describe. (See Unit 7 for the adjectives that can only be used as predicates (*alone, awake* etc.).)

<i>a good job</i>	un buon lavoro
<i>a wise policy</i>	una politica saggia
<i>useful, well-paid jobs</i>	lavori utili e ben pagati

- 1) Prima di tutto devi finire gli studi. Poi puoi cercare un lavoro.
- 2) Il suo primo lavoro era noioso ma il secondo era ancora più noioso.
- 3) La disoccupazione sale sempre di più.
- 4) Prima il governo ridurrà il debito pubblico prima l'economia migliorerà.
- 5) La situazione è seria quanto lo è stata l'anno scorso.
- 6) Sempre meno persone hanno lavori interessanti e ben pagati.
- 7) Il tasso d'inflazione non è mai stato così alto.
- 8) La banca centrale europea ha abbassato i tassi d'interesse, poi ha aumentato le spese per l'istruzione, e infine ha rafforzato gli scambi internazionali.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Economic terms

banker = banchiere	legal tender = moneta a corso legale
budget = bilancio	public debt = debito pubblico
coin = moneta metallica	slump = recessione
creditor = creditore	stock exchange = borsa
currency = moneta circolante	supply = offerta
debtor = debitore	to boost the economy = rilanciare l'economia
deficit = disavanzo, scoperto	to cash a cheque = incassare un assegno
demand = domanda	to circulate = circolare
gross domestic product (GDP) = prodotto interno lordo (PIL)	to invest = investire
inflation rate = tasso di inflazione	
interest rate = tasso d'interesse	

UNIT 10

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The century between 1750 and 1850 was a period of enormous economic and social change in Britain. The face of the countryside altered as open fields were hedged or fenced, villages grew into towns, roads were improved, and railways were built, mainly in the north of England.

Economic and industrial development was accompanied by rapid population growth. Britain's population grew from approximately 11 million in 1801, when the first census was taken, to 16.5 million in 1831. This was mainly due to the drop in the mortality rate, which went from over 36% in 1740 to about 21% in 1821, thanks to better diet, higher standards of cleanliness, and more sanitary housing. There was also a shift of the population from the countryside to the cities where people were employed in factories and, by the middle of the century, Britain was no longer a predominantly rural nation; more than half its people lived in towns.

The scientific thought of Robert Boyle and Isaac Newton was one of the main bases to industrial development. Under the influence of the rationalist philosophy, scholars turned from the humanities to physical science to technology. Physicists, chemists and geologists were in close contact with industrialists and entrepreneurs. The link between science and practice can be seen in the members of the Royal Society during this period, which included engineers, ironmasters, industrial chemists and instrument makers. The two inventions that were most to favour the expansion of industrialisation were the steam engine, developed in 1765 by James Watt (1736-1819), and the locomotive, created by George Stephenson (1781-1848).

The potential of the locomotive engine to move goods cheaply and to transport raw materials was only realised in the 1820s. The first railway was opened in 1825 and between 1845 and 1847 a basic railroad network covering the major towns, industrial areas, and ports was laid out by railroad pioneers such as George Stephenson, George Hudson, and Thomas Brassey. Steamships were also developed, and in 1838 two steam-powered ships made their first crossing of the Atlantic Ocean.

The steam engine was first applied in cotton mills to speed up spinning and weaving, and the subsequent growth of large urban factories was rapid. Steam-driven machinery was also an important factor in increasing the output of the mines to meet the greater demand for coal as fuel for large-scale pro-

duction. Another industry that expanded during this period was the smelting of iron and its manufacture, followed by the production and working of steel.

Britain exported textiles, iron and manufactured goods of all kinds, and the export income was greatly stimulated by the development of free trade—in which restrictions like tariffs, trade quotas and import licenses were abolished—during the 1840s. After 1850, trade expanded even more rapidly than it had in the first half of the century, boosting further economic growth.

As industrial expansion accelerated, the small private banks were no longer able to meet the needs of a factory economy. After 1826 Parliament permitted the setting up of more reliable joint-stock banks, which provided the manufacturers with the liquid resources they needed. The Bank Charter Act of 1844 established the role of the Bank of England as the central note-issuing authority and guarantor of the rest of the banking system. The growth of trade led to the consolidation of the Stock Exchange and the rise of provincial exchanges to deal in specific commodities. By 1870, Britain was not only the centre of the world's industry and trade but also its financial capital.

Despite the rapid increase in personal wealth, a wide range of social problems accompanied urban development. Child and female labour was increasingly used in factories, especially in textile works. Although some enlightened employers provided their young employees with adequate accommodation and education, most factory apprentices worked in inhuman conditions, from twelve to fifteen hours a day, for six days a week. In 1802, Robert Peel (1788-1850), who would later be Prime Minister, introduced legislation that limited hours of work and prescribed minimum standards of hygiene and education for apprentices. Later Factory Acts regulated minimum conditions of hours and labour for other workers. The trade union movement was now taking shape and labour unions were legalised in 1825. In the early 1830s a single Grand National Consolidated Trades Union was formed. However, agreements among workers to seek better hours and wages were punishable as conspiracy until 1871.

References

- T.S. Ashton, *The Industrial Revolution 1760-1830* (London: Oxford University Press, 1964).
- P. Mantoux, *The Industrial Revolution in the 18th Century* (London: Jonathan Cape, 1961).

GLOSSARY

to hedge = chiudere con siepe
to fence = cintare
census = censimento
drop = calo
mortality rate = tasso di mortalità
diet = alimentazione, dieta
cleanliness = pulizia
housing = alloggio
shift = spostamento
humanities = materie umanistiche
physical science = scienze naturali
entrepreneur = imprenditore
ironmaster = padrone di ferriera
raw material = materia prima
steam engine = macchina a vapore
to realise = capire
to lay (laid, laid) out = tracciare
cotton mills = cotonificio
spinning = filatura
weaving = tessitura
output = produzione
coal = carbone
fuel = combustibile
smelting = fusione

iron = ferro
steel = acciaio
export income = reddito da esportazione
free trade = libero scambio
trade quota = commercio contingenato
to boost = aumentare
to meet (met, met) needs = soddisfare esigenze
setting up = fondazione
reliable = affidabile
joint stock banks = banca a capitale azionario
to issue notes = emettere banconote
Stock Exchange = Borsa
commodity = merce
labour = lavoro
enlightened = illuminato
accommodation = alloggio
apprentice = apprendista
trade union = sindacato
conspiracy = congiura

NOTES

Note the formation of verbs from nouns:

hedge → *to hedge* (to enclose or separate with a hedge)

fence → *to fence* (to construct a fence on or around some land)

Some other examples are:

roof → *to roof*

wall → *to wall*

bottle → *to bottle*

Some nouns can be both countable and uncountable (see Unit 5). Two such examples are: *iron* (ferro) *an iron* (ferro da stiro) and *trade* (commercio) *a trade* (mestiere).

Do not confuse *factory* (fabbrica) with *fattoria* (farm). See Appendix IV for other ‘false friends’.

WORD STUDY

The particles *in* and *out* can be used as prefixes to indicate direction:
the output of the mines (what is put out or produced)
the financial input (what is put in or invested).

Add the prefixes *in-* and *out-* to the following words to complete the sentences.

patient *side* *come* *doors* *ward* *look*

- 1) He did not stay in the hospital. He was treated as an _____.
- 2) My _____ has increased with all the extra work I am doing.
- 3) Despite his _____ calm, he was furious.
- 4) Come _____. It's freezing _____.
- 5) The _____ of the financial operation was very successful.
- 6) He has a very positive _____ on life.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

ADVERBS OF MANNER

Adverbs that indicate the manner or nature of something are generally formed with the addition of the suffix *-ly* to the adjective:

cheap → *cheaply* *rapid* → *rapidly* *slow* → *slowly*

There are some exceptions to this rule.

The adjective *good* becomes *well* as an adverb:

They made a good investment. *They invested well.*

Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form:

<i>fast development</i>	<i>it developed fast</i>
<i>a hard job</i>	<i>he works hard</i>

Some adjectives end with *-ly* and cannot be used as adverbs:

<i>a daily newspaper</i>	<i>a friendly greeting</i>
<i>The paper is published every day.</i>	<i>He greeted me in a friendly way.</i>

Exercise 1

Re-write the following sentences transforming the nouns into verbs and the adjectives into adverbs.

1) Fast growth of the economy is predicted.

2) The industry is making steady progress.

3) The economists have made a close study of the outcome.

4) There will be a significant cut in interest rates.

5) There was a slight rise in unemployment

6) The apprentices received good treatment.

7) There is a wide range of social problems.

8) The export income received great stimulus.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Adverbs that end in *-ly* form their comparative and superlative by adding *more* and *the most* to the positive form:

slowly *more slowly* *the most slowly*

Other adverbs form their comparative and superlative by adding *-er* and *the ... -est* to the positive form:

fast *faster* *the fastest*

The adverbs *well* and *badly* use the same comparative forms as their adjectives:

<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>the best</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>the worst</i>

Exercise 2

Write the comparative or superlative form of the adverb in each sentence.

- 1) Children and women worked _____ in factories than on farms.
(hard)
- 2) Industrialisation was introduced _____ in Britain than in the rest of Europe. (early)
- 3) Industrialisation worked _____ of all where raw materials were plentiful. (well)
- 4) Cotton was spun and woven _____ than by hand. (quickly)
- 5) People were employed _____ in factories than on the land. (usefully)
- 6) Railroads were laid out _____ after 1845. (rapidly)
- 7) People worked _____ in textile works than in other factories, but _____ of all in coal mines. (badly)
- 8) British expansion grew _____ of all in the 1800s. (fast)

ADVERBS OF FREQUENCY

always, never, occasionally, often, twice etc.

Adverbs of frequency are normally placed:

(a) after the simple tenses of *to be*:

Industrial expansion was often very rapid.

(b) before the simple tenses of all other verbs:

Industrialisation usually boosted trade.

(c) before the past participle in compound tenses:

Conditions for factory workers have always improved in recent years.

Have you never noticed?

See Unit 13 for inversion with negative adverbs (*never, rarely, etc.*)

Exercise 3

Put the adverbs in the correct place in the following sentences.

- 1) She has had a day off work in her life. (never)
- 2) Children went to school in the 19th century. (rarely)
- 3) The workers were against the employers. (always)
- 4) Conditions were very harsh. (sometimes)
- 5) People returned to the country. (seldom)
- 6) Such rapid development hadn't been seen before. (ever)
- 7) I have tried to work faster and more efficiently. (often)
- 8) The unions are able to resolve industrial disputes. (usually)

ADVERBS OF DEGREE

fairly, hardly, almost, quite, very, nearly, etc.

Adverbs of degree modify other adverbs or adjectives. They are normally placed before the adverb or adjective they modify. The adverb *enough*, however, follows the adjective or adverb.

Exercise 4

Put the adverbs in the correct place in the following sentences.

- 1) Conditions are better now. (far)
- 2) They earn more money than in the past. (much)
- 3) My new job is enjoyable. (quite)
- 4) She suffered badly when she lost her job. (rather)
- 5) This training course is useful. (very)
- 6) We work quickly. (fairly)
- 7) You don't work quickly. (enough)
- 8) The production line is moving slowly. (too)

FORMAL USE OF ADVERBS

In informal English, adverbs (with the exception of adverbs of frequency and degree) are usually placed at the beginning or the end of a sentence:

Now we will start the lesson. *The study examined the issue carefully.*

In formal English, adverbs can be placed in the middle of the sentence, before the main verb:

We will now start the lesson. *The study carefully examined the issue.*

Remember that in English the adverb can never divide the verb from its complement:

I like my job very much. or *I very much like my job.*

not *I like very much my job.*

VOCABULARY PRACTICE

Exercise 5

Use a suitable form of the word at the end of each sentence.

- 1) _____ and industrialists worked together. (science)
- 2) Motors powered by _____ are used in factories. (electric)
- 3) Mechanical _____ saves manpower. (to equip)
- 4) Industrialisation led to mass _____. (to produce)
- 5) He is studying at university to become an _____. (engine)

FURTHER READING

The first major advancement in weaving technology was the introduction of the loom which facilitates warp and weft arrangement. Thanks to this innovation, cloth could be produced faster and with far greater quality than before. The fly shuttle was the next big step in weaving development. Invented in 1733 by John Kay in England, the fly shuttle automatically passes the loom. This makes the weaving process quicker and easier, and allows for the production of extremely broad cloth.

Further improvements were Hargreaves' Spinning Jenny (1770), Arkwright's Spinning Machine (1769-1775) and Crompton's Spinning Mule (1779). The first power loom was developed in 1785; a re-designed version was intro-

duced in 1787. In 1803, William Radcliffe introduced his patented dressing frame, which fed, starched, sized and dried threads into the warp, permitting uninterrupted weaving.

ON POWER LOOMS, 1828

The principal estates being gone from the family, my father resorted to the common but never-failing resource for subsistence at that period, viz. - the loom for men, and the cards and hand-wheel for women and boys. He married a spinster, (in my etymology of the word) and my mother taught me (while too young to weave) to earn my bread by carding and spinning cotton, winding linen or cotton weft for my father and elder brothers at the loom, until I became of sufficient age and strength for my father to put me into a loom. After the practical experience of a few years, any young man who was industrious and careful, might then from his earnings as a weaver, lay by sufficient to set him up as a manufacturer, and though but few of the great body of weavers had the courage to embark in the attempt, I was one of those few. Availing myself of the improvements that came out while I was in my teens, by the time I was married, (at the age of 24, in 1785) with my little savings, and a practical knowledge of every process from the cotton-bag to the piece of cloth, such as carding by hand or by the engine, spinning by the hand-wheel or jenny, winding, warping, sizing, looming the web, and weaving either by hand or fly-shuttle, I was ready to commence business for myself; and by the year 1789, I was well established, and employed many hands both in spinning and weaving, as a master manufacturer.

From 1789 to 1794, my chief business was the sale of muslin warps, sized and ready for the loom, (being the first who sold cotton twist in that state, chiefly to Mr Oldknow, the father of the muslin trade in our country.) Some warps I sent to Glasgow and Paisley. I also manufactured a few muslins myself, and had a warehouse in Manchester for my general business....

In the year 1770, the land in our township was occupied by between fifty to sixty farmers; rents, to the best of my recollection, did not exceed 10s. per statute acre, and out of these fifty or sixty farmers, there were only six or seven who raised their rents directly from the produce of their farms; all the rest got their rent partly in some branch of trade, such as spinning and weaving woollen, linen, or cotton. The cottagers were employed entirely in this manner, except for a few weeks in the harvest. Being one of those cottagers, and intimately acquainted with all the rest, as well as every farmer, I am the better able to relate particularly how the change from the old system of hand-labour to the new one of machinery operated in raising the price of land in the subdivision I am speaking of. Cottage rents at that time, with convenient

loom-shop and a small garden attached, were from one and a-half to two guineas per annum. The father of a family would earn from eight shillings to half a guinea at his loom, and his sons, if he had one, two or three along side of him, six or eight shillings each per week; but the great sheet anchor of all cottages and small farms, was the labour attached to the hand-wheel, and when it is considered that it required six to eight hands to prepare and spin yarn, of any of the three materials I have mentioned, sufficient for the consumption of one weaver, - this shews clearly the inexhaustible source there was for labour for every person from the age of seven to eighty years (who retained their sight and could move their hands) to earn their bread, say one to three shillings per week without going to the parish. The better class of cottagers and even small farmers also helped to earn what might aid in making up their rents, and supporting their families respectably. [...]

From the year 1770 to 1788 a complete change had gradually been effected in the spinning of yarns - that of wool had disappeared altogether, and that of linen was also nearly gone - cotton, cotton, cotton, was become the almost universal material for employment, the hand wheels, with the exception of one establishment were all thrown into lumber-rooms, the yarn was all spun on common jennies, the carding for all numbers, up to 40 hanks in the pound, was done on carding engines; but the finer numbers of 60 to 80 were still carded by hand, it being a general opinion at that time that machine-carding would never answer for fine numbers. In weaving no great alteration had taken place during these 18 years, save the introduction of the fly-shuttle, a change in the woollen looms to fustians and calico, and the linen nearly gone, except the few fabrics in which there was a mixture of cotton. To the best of my recollection there was no increase of looms during this period, - but rather a decrease. Although our family and some others in the neighbourhood during the latter half of the time, earned from three to four fold-wages to what the same families had heretofore done, yet, upon the whole, the district was not much benefited by the change; for what was gained by some families who had the advantage of machinery, might, in a great measure, be said to be lost to the others, who had been compelled to throw their old cards and hand-wheels aside as lumber.

One of the formidable consequences of this change now began to make its appearance, the poor's rate, which previous to this change had only been known in a comparatively nominal way by an annual meeting at Easter to appoint a new overseer, and the old one to make up his accounts which nobody thought it worth while to look into, as they only contained the expenses of his journey to a petty sessions at a distance, and a few cases of very old persons, 70 to 90 years of age, (whose eyes or hands failed them) having had a weekly allowance. Relief to persons who could not get employment, or bastardy, were alike unknown

on their books, - this I state partly traditionally, and partly from many years under my own observance. There was no material advance in the rent of land or cottages during this period, but in the articles of butcher's meat, butter, cheese, and sundry necessaries of life, there had been some increase of price. The next fifteen years, viz. from 1788 to 1803, which fifteen years I will call the golden age of this great trade, which has been ever since in a gradual decline. [...]

[...] I shall confine myself to the families in my own neighbourhood. These families, up to the time I have been speaking of, whether as cottagers or small farmers, had supported themselves by the different occupations I have mentioned in spinning and manufacturing, as their progenitors from the earliest institutions of society had done before them. But the mule-twist now coming into vogue, for the warp, as well as weft, added to the water-twist and common jenny yarns, with an increasing demand for every fabric the loom could produce, put all hands in request of every age and description. The fabrics made from wool or linen vanished, while the old loom-shops being insufficient, every lumber-room, even old barns, cart-houses, and outbuildings of any description were repaired, windows broke through the old blank walls, and all fitted up for loom-shops. This source of making room being at length exhausted, new weavers' cottages with loom-shops rose up in every direction; all immediately filled, and when in full work the weekly circulation of money as the price of labour only rose to five times the amount ever before experienced in this sub-division, every family bringing home weekly 40, 60, 80, 100, or even 120 shillings per week! ! [...]

[...] the operative weavers on *machine yarns*, both as cottagers and small farmers, even with three times their former rents, they might be truly said to be placed in a higher state of "wealth, peace, and godliness," by the great demand for, and high price of, their labour, than they had ever before experienced. Their dwellings and small gardens clean and neat, - all the family well clad, - the men with each a watch in his pocket, and the women dressed to their own fancy, - *the church crowded to excess every Sunday*, - every house well furnished with a clock in elegant mahogany or fancy case, - handsome tea services in Staffordshire ware, with silver or plated sugar-tongs and spoons, - Birmingham, Potteries, and Sheffield wares for necessary use and ornament, wherever a corner cupboard or shelf could be placed to *shew them off*. - many cottage families had their cow, paying so much for the summer's grass, and about a statute acre of land laid out for them in some croft or corner, which they dressed up as a meadow for hay in the winter.

Source: William Radcliffe, *Origin of the New System of Manufacture, Commonly Called Power Loom Weaving* (London, 1828).

GLOSSARY

to allow for = consentire	poor's rate = contributo per i poveri
patented = brevettato	overseer = responsabile
to feed (fed, fed) = alimentare	to look into = investigare
estate = tenuta	petty sessions = udienza per reati?
earnings = guadagni	minori
to lay (laid, laid) by = mettere da parte	to fail = indebolirsi
to set (set, set) up as = iniziare un'attività in proprio come	allowance = indennità
savings = risparmi	relief = sussidio
rent = affitto	bastardy = illegittimità
statute acre = acro legale	sundry = vari
cottagers = chi abita in un cottage, affittuari	in vogue = di moda
harvest = raccolto	bran = crusca
guinea = ghinea (sterlina d'oro)	to fit (fit, fit) up = fornire di
sheet anchor = ancora di salvezza	to one's fancy = secondo il proprio gusto
parish = parrocchia (carità)	fancy = di lusso
to aid = assistere	handsome = bello
to make (made, made) up = completare	ware = vasellame
lumber room = ripostiglio	plated = placcato argento
hank = matassa	sugar-tongs = mollette per lo zucchero
fustians = fustagno	croft = piccolo podere
	hay = fieno

TECHNICAL WEAVING TERMS

weaving = tessitura	wheel = filatoio
loom = telaio	spinster = filatrice; donna nubile
warp = ordito	to card cotton = cardare il cotone
weft = trama	to spin = filare
cloth = tessuto	jenny = giannetta
fly shuttle = spola	web = tessuto
mule = filatoio intermittente	twist = filo ritorto
dressing frame = apprettatrice	muslin = mussola
to size = imbozzimare	yarn = filato
to starch = inamidare	hank = matassa
thread = filo	fustian = fustagno
card = carda	*fabric = stoffa

NOTES

The adjective *old* has two comparative and superlative forms: *older - oldest* are used to compare the age of people and things:

My house is older than yours.

elder - eldest are used to imply seniority rather than age, generally within a family context:

My father and elder brothers are weavers.

However, *elder* cannot be used in the comparative construction with *than*:

My brothers are older than I am.

The suffix *-ster* is used to indicate people engaged in an occupation or activity: *spinster* *songster* *gangster*.

Note the difference between *to pay* (an amount of money) and *to pay for* (make payment for something in exchange):

I paid him the money. *I paid for the ticket.*

Other verbs are *to pay back* (restituire), *to pay off* (liquidare), *to pay in* (depositare).

Note the abbreviation of the word *shilling*: *10 s.* The *guinea* was a gold coin worth 21 shillings that was removed from circulation in 1813. The coin was originally made of gold from Guinea (Africa). See Appendix V for other monetary units.

Do not confuse the nouns *cloth* (stoffa, telo), *clothes* (vestiti), and *clothing* (vestiario). Or the verbs *to clothe* (fornire di vestiti) and *to be/get dressed* (vestirsi), and *to dress* (vestire or, formal, vestirsi, cambiarsi).

The Poor Law of 1733 stipulated that the alleged father was responsible for the maintenance of his illegitimate child. If he failed to support the child, he could be arrested and put in prison until he agreed to do so. In the meantime, the local parish authorities issued funds (the poor's rate) to maintain the mother and her child. Under the New Poor Law (1834) all illegitimate children were to be the responsibility of their mothers until they were 16 years old. The mothers of illegitimate children were placed in the same category as widows for poor relief. They had to support themselves and their offspring or enter the parish workhouse.

COMPREHENSION

1. What year was William Radcliffe born?
2. Were people richer or poorer after the introduction of mechanisation?
3. Who received the “poor’s rate”?

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ful* is used to form adjectives and means ‘with’:

any young man who was industrious and careful

Its opposite *-less* means ‘without’:

She has been jobless for a year.

Use the suffixes *-less* and *-ful* to create adjectives from the following nouns and write a sentence with each new word.

- 1) success _____
- 2) taste _____
- 3) rest _____
- 4) help _____
- 5) thought _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

DESCRIBING TRENDS

The following verbs can be used to describe trends:

<i>to go up</i>	<i>to go down</i>
<i>to rise</i>	<i>to fall</i>
<i>to increase</i>	<i>to decrease</i>
<i>to grow</i>	<i>to drop</i>
<i>to soar</i>	<i>to plummet</i>
<i>to peak</i>	<i>to crash</i>

Adverbs: *rapidly, sharply, slightly, slowly, steadily, steeply*.

Some other useful terms:

minimum / maximum

the highest/lowest level ever recorded

the highest/lowest rate since the early 1780s

to be unchanged

to fluctuate

to level off

an upward/downward trend

an increase/advance (in)

a decline/drop (in)

Notice also the use of the prepositions:

at = no movement or change

Unemployment was unchanged at 6.2%

from ... to = ‘change starting at and moving to’

Unemployment will rise from 6.4% to 7.3%

by = ‘a difference of’

The economy will grow by 0.7%.

Exercise 6

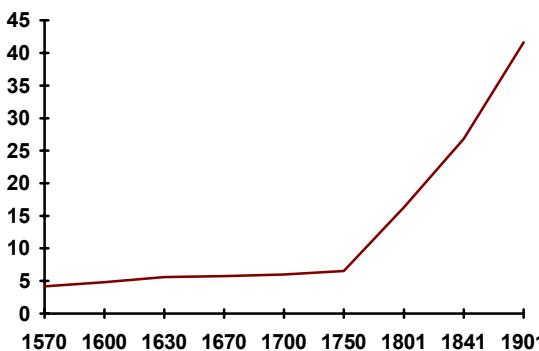
Read the three descriptions of demographic trends noting the use of verbs, adverbs and prepositions.

1. Between 1851 and 1911, the population of Great Britain nearly doubled, increasing from 20.8 million to over 40 million. From 1911 to 1971 it grew by a further third, to 54.4 million. But over the next twenty years, only another 3% was added (mostly in the 1980s). The 1991 population was 56.2 million.
2. From the later 19th century, there was a steady and continuing reduction in deaths among young males. There were fast falls in the 1940s and 1950s, but little if any subsequent reduction. Among men aged 45-54, the death rate fell in Scotland from about 20 per 1000 around 1900 to 12.0 in 1921-25. It was still 8.7 in 1975-79, then fell more rapidly to 6.1 by 1989-91.
3. The birth rate rose sharply during and after World War Two, fell back in the early 1950s, then rose strongly to peak at 2.9 in 1964. Thereafter it declined to only 1.7 in 1977, then rose to approximately 1.8 in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Exercise 7

Write a short description of the population trends illustrated in the graph below.

**Population growth in Great Britain 1570-1901
(in millions)**

**TRANSLATION**

- 1) La crescita economica è molto più rapida dell'anno scorso.
- 2) Le cifre più recenti indicano che l'occupazione è in crescita.
- 3) Fra il 1801 e il 1831 la popolazione raddoppiò.
- 4) L'introduzione della macchina a vapore accelerò molto i processi di filatura e tessitura.
- 5) I sindacati riuscirono a rendere sempre migliori le condizioni di lavoro.
- 6) La Gran Bretagna fu il paese più industrializzato del mondo.
- 7) La filatrice e le sorelle maggiori guadagnarono quattro ghinee al mese.
- 8) La tendenza ascendente fu seguita da un calo prima di stabilizzarsi al 10 per cento.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Industry and work

***salary** = stipendio

***to process** = trattare

boss = capo

coalmine = miniera di carbone

entrepreneur = imprenditore

foundry = fonderia

fuel = combustibile

iron and steel industry = siderurgia

rurgia

machinery = macchinario

manufactured goods = manufatti

mass production = produzione in serie

overseer = supervisore

production line = catena di montaggio

redundant worker = operaio in esubero

skilled worker = operaio specializzato

steel works = acciaieria

strike = sciopero

to industrialise = industrializzare

to manufacture = produrre industrialmente

to smelt = fondere

wage = salario, paga

UNIT 11

CHARLES DARWIN AND NATURAL SELECTION

Charles Darwin (1809-1882) was the grandson of Erasmus Darwin (1730-1802), physician, naturalist, and an early theorist of evolution. After failing to complete his medical studies at Edinburgh, Darwin then went to Cambridge to study for the Anglican priesthood. While at Cambridge he met John Henslow, professor of biology, who encouraged his interest in nature. It was Henslow who arranged for him to act as a naturalist on board the HMS Beagle on a voyage to complete an unfinished survey of Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego and to map out the shores of Chile and Peru. The voyage took five years and on his return home Darwin published his journal describing the natural history observations made on the voyage. This was to form the basis of his later evolutionary thought.

Darwin's idea of natural selection as a possible mechanism for evolution had been influenced by his reading of Thomas Malthus' *Essay on the Principle of Population*. In this work, Malthus contended that as population increases exponentially and the food supply arithmetically, there must be competition between the weak and the strong for survival. Applying this theory to the notes and material he had collected on the *Beagle*, Darwin began to be certain of the mutability of species and, by 1842, Darwin had already sketched out his theory on natural selection in a preliminary essay. However, the work remained unpublished for almost twenty years until Darwin read a paper by the naturalist Alfred Russell Wallace that contained very similar ideas to Darwin's own. There followed a joint presentation before the Linnaean Society in 1858. Darwin completed his *On the Origin of Species* the following year. The first edition of the book was sold out on the day of publication and by 1860 over 5,000 copies had been sold. The reaction to Darwin's ideas was hostile: the Church, which upheld creationism, attacked him as a blasphemous radical, and scientific journals published articles critical of his theory. He was defended by T.H. Huxley, a leading biologist and zoologist, who became the principal exponent of Darwinism in England.

The concept Darwin took from Malthus' *Essay on the Principle of Population* was that creatures have far more progeny than can possibly survive, given the finite resources available. This leads to competition among the progeny for resources. As a result, only a few will survive long enough to reproduce in their turn. What interested Darwin was how the selection of the survivors takes place. Progeny vary slightly from their parents and from one another. Survivorship would be determined by the suitability of a given variety to the prevailing environmental circumstances. This was Darwin's key insight, "natural

selection.” As the environment changed, so would the varieties most suited to its demands. Over time, the proportions of different varieties in a species would change, and one species would evolve, very slowly, into another.

Apart from Malthus, Darwin’s other great influence was the *Principles of Geology* by Charles Lyell (1797-1875). Lyell argued that the Earth may have been formed by geological forces over hundreds of millions of years and was therefore probably very much older than the few thousand years suggested in the Bible. From this thesis, Darwin drew the idea that the whole kingdom of nature had evolved from primeval beginnings through the gradual process of evolution by natural selection.

The science of genetics developed at the beginning of the 20th century with the recognition of the importance of the earlier work of the Augustinian monk Gregor Mendel (1822-1884). In 1901 De Vries presented his theory that mutation, or well-defined inheritable variation appearing suddenly (as opposed to the slight, cumulative changes stressed by Darwin), may be a force in the origin and evolution of species. The gene is the carrier of heredity and determines the attributes of the individual; thus changes in the genes can be transmitted to the offspring and produce new or altered attributes in the new individual. Mutation in genes is now accepted by most biologists as a fundamental concept in evolutionary theory.

Evolutionary theory has undergone further modification in the light of later scientific developments. As more and more information has accumulated, the facts from a number of fields of investigation have provided corroboration and mutual support. Evidence that evolution has occurred still rests substantially on the same grounds that Darwin emphasised: comparative anatomy, embryology, geographical distribution, and palaeontology. But additional recent evidence has come from biochemistry and molecular biology, which reveals fundamental similarities and relations in metabolism and hereditary mechanisms among disparate types of organisms. Prominent present-day Darwinians have emphasised the non-progressive, random nature of evolution. They have developed the theory of punctuated equilibrium, the notion that evolution proceeds in relatively unpredictable bursts, rather than the steady-paced gradualism accepted by Darwinian orthodoxy.

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GLOSSARY

to fail to	= non riuscire	suited	= adatto
priesthood	= sacerdozio	slight	= lieve
survey	= rilevamento	to stress	= accentuare
to map out	= rilevare la mappa	carrier	= portatore
shore	= costa	offspring	= prole
to contend	= sostenere	to undergo (underwent, undergone)	= subire
food supply	= vettovaglie	corroboration	= conferma
survival	= sopravvivenza	mutual	= reciproco
to sketch out	= delineare	to rest on	= basarsi
unpublished	= inedito	evidence	= prova
joint	= congiunto	to occur	= avvenire, verificarsi
to sell out	= andare esaurito	present-day	= contemporaneo
to uphold	= sostenere	random	= casuale
*journal	= rivista	punctuated	= puntiforme
progeny	= prole	burst	= scatto
survivorship	= sopravvivenza	steady-paced	= a velocità regolare
prevailing	= dominante		
insight	= intuizione		

NOTES

The particle *out* after a verb can have different meanings.

It can indicate an ‘approximate drawing or idea’:

Darwin sketched out his theory on natural selection.

The aim of the voyage was to map out the shores of Chile and Peru.

It can also mean ‘exhaustion’ or ‘extinction’:

to sell out The book sold out on the day of publication.

to run out They ran out of ammunition.

It can also convey the idea of ‘beginning’:

to break out War broke out between the two countries.

to set out They set out for Australia.

The acronym *HMS* used with the name of a ship means *His (or Her) Majesty's Ship*. In other contexts, it means *His (or Her) Majesty's Service*.

The acronym *HRH* is an abbreviation of the title *His (or Her) Royal Highness* (*Sua Altezza Reale*). See Unit 8 for other acronyms.

Note also the names used for the British military forces: *Royal Air Force* or *RAF* (*Regia Aeronautica*) and *Royal Navy* or *RN* (*Regia Marina*).

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ship* is used to form nouns indicating:

- (a) a state or condition: *fellowship*
- (b) rank or office: *lordship*
- (c) skill or capacity: *workmanship*.

Choose a suitable noun for each sentence.

<i>scholarship</i>	<i>kingship</i>	<i>friendship</i>
<i>dictatorship</i>	<i>ownership</i>	<i>leadership</i>

- 1) The duties of _____ can be extremely difficult at times.
- 2) Proof of _____ is sometimes needed to export goods.
- 3) Although he was criticised, Darwin's _____ was never questioned.
- 4) I place great importance on _____ and loyalty.
- 5) After the period of military _____, democracy was introduced.
- 6) The Prime Minister must provide quick action and firm _____.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS

Modal auxiliary verbs are used together with other verbs to modify their mood or attitude.

Some general rules for modal verbs:

- (a) modal verbs are followed by the infinitive of a verb without *to*: *I can write*.
- (b) there is no *-s* in the third person: *He can write*.
- (c) the negative is formed by adding *not*: *He can't write*.
- (d) the interrogative is formed by inverting modal verb and subject:
Can you write?
- (e) most modal verbs refer only to the present and future:
Can I write that now? I can write to her tomorrow.
- (f) past and future tenses are usually supplied by other verb forms:
I'll be able to write when I buy a new pen. I was able to write it last night.
- (g) some modals can refer to the past in certain situations:
I could write for hours when I was a student.

Some of the primary uses of the modal verbs are the following.

CAN

ability: *I can swim.*

generic possibility: *It can often rain in England.*

permission (informal): *Can I leave the room? Yes, you can.*

negative deduction: *That can't be Peter.*

The negative form is written CANNOT (formal) or CAN'T (informal).

COULD

general past ability: *I could swim when I was ten.*

conditional possibility: *Perhaps I could help you.*

requests: *Could I have some water?*

MAY

permission (formal): *May I leave the room?*

real possibility: *I may come to the party this evening. I'm not sure.*

The contracted form of MAY NOT is extremely rare.

MIGHT

remote possibility: *I might come to the party, but I don't think so.*

MUST

intrinsic necessity: *You must get help.*

deduction: *That must be Peter.*

MUSTN'T is a strong form of prohibition: *You mustn't touch that!*

SHALL

determination: *They shall not come here again.*

suggestions: *Shall I open the window?*

The negative form SHALL NOT is sometimes contracted to SHAN'T.

SHOULD

mild (moral) obligation or advice: *He should see a doctor.*

The semi-modal OUGHT TO has the same meaning: *He ought to see a doctor.*

WILL

future fact: *Someone will answer the phone.*

future intention: *I will try harder to understand you.*

The contracted negative form of WILL NOT is WON'T.

WOULD

conditional clauses: *I would be happy if I were rich.* (See Unit 13)
offers and invitations: *Would you like to have dinner tonight?*

Exercise 1

Complete the sentences below inserting appropriate modal auxiliaries in the spaces.

- 1) When you write an essay, you _____ plan it well first. (obligation)
- 2) If you don't, you _____ get confused. (generic possibility)
- 3) Then you _____ need to start again. (future)
- 4) If you have enough time, you _____ write a rough draft. (advice)
- 5) Your teacher _____ give you some advice. (real possibility)
- 6) If you needed more help, you _____ contact a tutor. (conditional possibility)
- 7) You _____ get too depressed because there is always a solution to be found. (prohibition)
- 8) _____ I give you a hand to get started? (suggestion)

Exercise 2

Find the mistakes in the following sentences and correct them.

- 1) He mustn't to read that book for the exam.
- 2) He should studying harder.
- 3) I may certainly help you.
- 4) I think it can rain later today.
- 5) It is likely he might come to the meeting.
- 6) We'll must talk to someone about our problems.
- 7) You don't can see that film – it isn't suitable.
- 8) You mustn't to touch that wire – it's dangerous!

MODAL VERBS AND VERB PHRASES

CAN/COULD

When indicating ability, *to be able to* is used for the missing forms of *can*:
I won't be able to come. *Have you been able to finish the book?*

When indicating generic possibility, *to be possible* provides the missing forms: *It will be possible for you to vote when you are 18.*

In the affirmative, *could* is the past tense of *can* with general actions:

I could speak to her whenever I met her.
Potevo parlarle ogni volta che la vedeva.

With specific actions, the verb phrase *to be able to* or *to manage to* is used:

I was able to / managed to speak to her before she left.
Riuscì a parlarle prima che lei partisse.

In the negative, and with verbs of perception and understanding, both alternatives can be used with specific actions:

They couldn't / weren't able to speak to her yesterday.
Non riuscirono a parlarle ieri.
She could understand the teacher this morning.
È riuscita a capire l'insegnante stamattina.

MAY/MIGHT

When indicating permission, the missing forms of *may/might* are given by *to be allowed to* or by the more formal *to be permitted to*:

We were allowed to stay out late. *He will be permitted to drive next year.*

MUST

In the present, intrinsic obligation and obligation imposed by the speaker is expressed with *must*: *I must study more.* *You must try harder.*

External obligation is expressed with *have (got) to*:

University students have (got) to study hard.

Have to also supplies the missing forms of *must* in the past and future.

I'll have to vote when I am 18. *They had to vote in the recent election.*

Have got to is not generally used in the past.

The negative and interrogative of *have to* are formed with *do/does/did*:

I don't have to vote. *They didn't have to write the essay.*

Exercise 3

Use a modal verb or a verb phrase in the following sentences.

- 1) _____ work late last night? (obligation)
- 2) I _____ forget the terrible accident for a long time. (ability)
- 3) When you graduate, you _____ look for a job. (obligation)
- 4) It _____ often be hard to concentrate on your studies. (possibility)
- 5) He _____ to finish the essay on time unless he hurries up. (ability)
- 6) Last week, I _____ hand in the essay late. (permission)
- 7) I _____ do it again in the future, though. (permission)
- 8) I _____ try harder to be punctual in the future. (obligation)

MODAL VERBS + PERFECT INFINITIVE

Modal verbs can be used with the perfect infinitive (*have* + past participle of the main verb) for past reference.

It must have been John. (past deduction)

Dev'essere stato John.

It couldn't have been John. (negative past deduction)

Non può essere stato John.

We may/might have been late. (past possibility)

Forse siamo stati in ritardo.

The party would have been more fun with music. (past conditional)

La festa sarebbe stata più divertente con la musica.

Take care with the following constructions.

He could have gone to the party.

Sarebbe potuto andare alla festa.

He was able to go to the party.

È riuscito ad andare alla festa.

You should have seen a doctor. Why didn't you?

Avresti dovuto consultare un medico. Perché non l'hai fatto?

You shouldn't have got so angry. It wasn't at all necessary.

Non avresti dovuto arrabbiarti così. Non era proprio necessario.

Exercise 4

Answer the following questions with deductions using a modal + perfect infinitive construction.

1) Why did Darwin go on board the HMS Beagle? (want to explore the world)

2) Why didn't he publish his essay sooner? (not think his theory was complete)

3) How did he feel about the hostile reaction to his theory? (be upset)

4) Why did Huxley defend Darwin? (believe his ideas were correct)

The modal auxiliaries also provide the equivalent of the Italian subjunctive forms:

<i>May God bless you!</i>	Che Dio ti benedica!
<i>I hope he may be excused.</i>	Spero che lui possa essere perdonato.
<i>Whoever he may be, he is wrong.</i>	Chiunque sia, ha torto.
<i>I hope he will come.</i>	Spero che venga.
<i>If you should go, tell me first.</i>	Se tu dovessi andare, dimmelo prima.

FURTHER READING**THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES 1859
INTRODUCTION**

When on board H.M.S. Beagle, as naturalist, I was much struck with certain facts in the distribution of the inhabitants of South America, and in the geological relations of the present to the past inhabitants of that continent. These facts seemed to me to throw some light on the origin of species—that mystery of mysteries, as it has been called by one of our greatest philosophers.

On my return home, it occurred to me, in 1837, that something might perhaps be made out on this question by patiently accumulating and reflecting on all sorts of facts which could possibly have any bearing on it. After five years' work I allowed myself to speculate on the subject, and drew up some short notes; these I enlarged in 1844 into a sketch of the conclusions, which then seemed to me probable: from that period to the present day I have steadily pursued the same object. I hope that I may be excused for entering on these personal details, as I give them to show that I have not been hasty in coming to a decision.

My work is now nearly finished; but as it will take me two or three more years to complete it, and as my health is far from strong, I have been urged to publish this Abstract. I have more especially been induced to do this, as Mr Wallace, who is now studying the natural history of the Malay archipelago, has arrived at almost exactly the same general conclusions that I have on the origin of species. Last year he sent to me a memoir on this subject, with a request that I would forward it to Sir Charles Lyell, who sent it to the Linnean Society, and it is published in the third volume of the journal of that Society. Sir C. Lyell and Dr Hooker, who both knew of my work—the latter having read my sketch of 1844—honoured me by thinking it advisable to publish, with Mr Wallace's excellent memoir, some brief extracts from my manuscripts.

This Abstract, which I now publish, must necessarily be imperfect. I cannot here give references and authorities for my several statements; and I must trust to the reader reposing some confidence in my accuracy. No doubt errors will have crept in, though I hope I have always been cautious in trusting to good authorities alone. I can here give only the general conclusions at which I have arrived, with a few facts in illustration, but which, I hope, in most cases will suffice. No one can feel more sensible than I do of the necessity of hereafter publishing in detail all the facts, with references, on which my conclusions have been grounded; and I hope in a future work to do this. For I am well aware that scarcely a single point is discussed in this volume on which facts cannot be adduced, often apparently leading to conclusions directly opposite to those at which I have arrived. A fair result can be obtained only by fully stating and balancing the facts and arguments on both sides of each question; and this cannot possibly be here done. [...]

In considering the Origin of Species, it is quite conceivable that a naturalist, reflecting on the mutual affinities of organic beings, on their embryological relations, their geographical distribution, geological succession, and other such facts, might come to the conclusion that each species had not been independently created, but had descended, like varieties, from other species. Neverthe-

less, such a conclusion, even if well founded, would be unsatisfactory, until it could be shown how the innumerable species inhabiting this world have been modified so as to acquire that perfection of structure and co-adaptation which most justly excites our admiration. Naturalists continually refer to external conditions, such as climate, food, &c., as the only possible cause of variation. In one very limited sense, as we shall hereafter see, this may be true; but it is preposterous to attribute to mere external conditions, the structure, for instance, of the woodpecker, with its feet, tail, beak, and tongue, so admirably adapted to catch insects under the bark of trees. In the case of the mistletoe, which draws its nourishment from certain trees, which has seeds that must be transported by certain birds, and which has flowers with separate sexes absolutely requiring the agency of certain insects to bring pollen from one flower to the other, it is equally preposterous to account for the structure of this parasite, with its relations to several distinct organic beings, by the effects of external conditions, or of habit, or of the volition of the plant itself.

The author of the “*Vestiges of Creation*” would, I presume, say that, after a certain unknown number of generations, some bird had given birth to a wood-pecker, and some plant to the mistletoe, and that these had been produced perfect as we now see them; but this assumption seems to me to be no explanation, for it leaves the case of the coadaptations of organic beings to each other and to their physical conditions of life, untouched and unexplained.

It is, therefore, of the highest importance to gain a clear insight into the means of modification and coadaptation. At the commencement of my observations it seemed to me probable that a careful study of domesticated animals and of cultivated plants would offer the best chance of making out this obscure problem. Nor have I been disappointed; in this and in all other perplexing cases I have invariably found that our knowledge, imperfect though it be, of variation under domestication, afforded the best and safest clue. I may venture to express my conviction of the high value of such studies, although they have been very commonly neglected by naturalists.

From these considerations, I shall devote the first chapter of this Abstract to Variation under Domestication. We shall thus see that a large amount of hereditary modification is at least possible, and, what is equally or more important, we shall see how great is the power of man in accumulating by his Selection successive slight variations. I will then pass on to the variability of species in a state of nature; but I shall, unfortunately, be compelled to treat this subject far too briefly, as it can be treated properly only by giving long catalogues of facts. We shall, however, be enabled to discuss what circumstances are most favourable to variation. In the next chapter the Struggle for

Existence amongst all organic beings throughout the world, which inevitably follows from their high geometrical powers of increase, will be treated of. This is the doctrine of Malthus, applied to the whole animal and vegetable kingdoms. As many more individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive; and as, consequently, there is a frequently recurring struggle for existence, it follows that any being, if it vary however slightly in any manner profitable to itself, under the complex and sometimes varying conditions of life, will have a better chance of surviving, and thus be naturally selected. From the strong principle of inheritance, any selected variety will tend to propagate its new and modified form.

This fundamental subject of Natural Selection will be treated at some length in the fourth chapter; and we shall then see how Natural Selection almost inevitably causes much Extinction of the less improved forms of life and induces what I have called Divergence of Character. In the next chapter I shall discuss the complex and little known laws of variation and of correlation of growth. In the four succeeding chapters, the most apparent and gravest difficulties on the theory will be given: namely, first, the difficulties of transitions, or understanding how a simple being or a simple organ can be changed and perfected into a highly developed being or elaborately constructed organ; secondly the subject of Instinct, or the mental powers of animals, thirdly, Hybridism, or the infertility of species and the fertility of varieties when intercrossed; and fourthly, the imperfection of the Geological Record. In the next chapter I shall consider the geological succession of organic beings throughout time; in the eleventh and twelfth, their geographical distribution throughout space; in the thirteenth, their classification or mutual affinities, both when mature and in an embryonic condition. In the last chapter I shall give a brief recapitulation of the whole work, and a few concluding remarks.

No one ought to feel surprise at much remaining as yet unexplained in regard to the origin of species and varieties, if he makes due allowance for our profound ignorance in regard to the mutual relations of all the beings which live around us. Who can explain why one species ranges widely and is very numerous, and why another allied species has a narrow range and is rare? Yet these relations are of the highest importance, for they determine the present welfare, and, as I believe, the future success and modification of every inhabitant of this world. Still less do we know of the mutual relations of the innumerable inhabitants of the world during the many past geological epochs in its history. Although much remains obscure, and will long remain obscure, I can entertain no doubt, after the most deliberate study and dispassionate judgement of which I am capable, that the view which most naturalists entertain, and which I formerly entertained—namely, that each species has been

independently created—is erroneous. I am fully convinced that species are not immutable; but that those belonging to what are called the same genera are lineal descendants of some other and generally extinct species, in the same manner as the acknowledged varieties of any one species are the descendants of that species. Furthermore, I am convinced that Natural Selection has been the main but not exclusive means of modification.

Source: Charles Darwin, “Introduction” in *The Origin of Species*, 1859.

GLOSSARY

to strike = colpire	preposterous = ridicolo
to throw (threw, threw) light on = far luce su	woodpecker = picchio
to occur (to) = venire in mente	bark = corteccia
to make (made, made) out = capire	mistletoe (mistletoe) = vischio
bearing = relazione	pollen = polline
to draw (drew, drawn) up = re- digere	volition = volontà
sketch = abbozzo	commencement = inizio
to pursue = perseguire	domesticated = addomesticamento
hasty = frettoloso	disappointed = deluso
to urge = incitare	to afford = offrire
to forward = inoltrare	clue = indizio
advisable = consigliabile	neglected = trascurato, ignorato
authority = fonte	compelled = costretto
to trust = confidare	struggle = lotta
to repose = riporre	apparent = evidente
to creep (crept, crept) in = introdursi	to intercross = incrociare
to suffice = bastare	recapitulation = riepilogo
to adduce = addurre	as yet = fin ora
fair = giusto	to make allowance for = prendere in considerazione
to balance = valutare	to range = variare
mutual = reciproco	welfare = benessere
to excite = stimolare	to entertain (an idea) = avere, nu- trire

NOTES

The noun *species* is both the singular and the plural form. See Unit 5 for other examples.

The expressions *the former ... the latter* are used to refer to two things or people that have just been mentioned (*la prima ... la seconda*).:

Darwin explored two islands. The former was very hot, the latter was cooler.

The adverb *namely* (cioè, vale a dire) is used to provide added precision:

Darwin's theory, namely survival of the fittest, was strongly attacked by the Church.

Note the use of inversion for emphasis: *Still less do we know of the mutual relations...* See Unit 13 for further details.

COMPREHENSION

1. Does Darwin feel he has completed his work on natural selection?
2. Does he exclude external conditions as influencing variation?
3. Did Darwin begin his studies examining man?

WORD STUDY

The prefixes *super-, sub-, inter-, trans-* are used to indicate location:
superstructure *subconscious* *international* *transatlantic*

Choose the correct prefix in the following sentences.

- 1) There are many _____ species of birds in this region.
- 2) The US is an economic _____ power.
- 3) The caterpillar _____ formed into a beautiful butterfly.
- 4) Ideas are often _____ changed within the scientific community.
- 5) The area is _____ divided into smaller areas.
- 6) The pandas were _____ ported to a safer region
- 7) Swallows have _____ continental migration patterns.
- 8) The elephant has _____ human strength.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

FUTURE TIME

English does not have a single future tense. There are many different ways of referring to the future.

WILL AND SHALL

Will and *shall* are both modal auxiliaries and are used with the infinitive of verbs without *to*.

Will (*will not* or *won't*)

This is the form generally preferred in formal, written English to talk about arranged events or to make predictions:

It will take me two or three more years to complete it.

Natural Selection will be treated at some length.

Will is often used for personal predictions after verbs such as *think*, *expect*, *hope*: *I can here give only the general conclusions [...] which, I hope, in most cases will suffice.*

The future continuous—*will + be + -ing form*—is used to compare a present continuous action with a future one:

I'm studying now and I'll be studying again tomorrow, too.

The future perfect—*will + have + past participle*—is used for an action that will be completed in the future: *By the end of the passage, errors will have crept in.*

Shall (*shall not* or *shan't*)

This is a less common form and is today usually only used in the first person: *I shall devote the first chapter [...] to Variation under Domestication. We shall thus see that a large amount of hereditary modification is possible.*

Both *will* and *shall* can also be used in informal, spoken English with different functions. *Will* is used for instant decisions made at the moment of speaking: *The phone is ringing. I'll answer it.* *Shall* is used for suggestions: *Shall I help you?*

BE GOING TO

Be going to + verb is a less formal way of referring to the future. It is used to refer to intention:

He's going to study physics at university.

Be going to is also used for prediction of an event that is about to happen on the basis of something we observe now:

He looks as though he is going to cry.

The past form *was/were going to* is used for past intention. The action may even not have happened:

I was going to study mathematics, but I changed my mind and studied physics.

Exercise 5

Use *will, shall* or *to be going to* in the following sentences. More than one solution may be possible.

- 1) We _____ to take part in an expedition to explore Antarctica.
- 2) The expedition looks as though it's _____ be very exciting.
- 3) I expect we _____ be away for three months.
- 4) The weather _____ certainly be extremely cold.
- 5) We have been told we _____ have to take very warm clothes.
- 6) I hope we _____ reach the Pole itself.
- 7) We are certainly _____ try very hard to make it.
- 8) _____ I write to you while I'm away?

BE + INFINITIVE

Another very formal future structure is *be + infinitive*. This is used for formal official arrangements: *Darwin is to present his work to the Linnaean Society next week*. It is often used in newspapers, and is reduced in headlines to the infinitive: *Darwin to present his work*. It is also used to report orders or instructions: *Students are to enrol by the end of November*.

be + infinitive can also refer to future in the past. It has two forms with different meanings. Compare:

Darwin was to publish his results the following week. (and he probably did)
Darwin doveva pubblicare / avrebbe pubblicato i risultati.

Darwin was to have published his results. (but for some reason he didn't)
Darwin avrebbe dovuto pubblicare i risultati.

Exercise 6

Use the correct form of *be* + *infinitive* in the following sentences.

In 1910, Scott set out to explore Antarctica.

- 1) The headlines announced: "Scott _____ the South Pole." (journey)
- 2) He and his party _____ the ice on foot. (cross)
- 3) They _____ their sleds by hand. (pull)
- 4) The journey _____ several months. (take)
- 5) They _____ the first to the Pole, but Amundsen preceded them by a month. (be)
- 6) They _____ to the base, but they all died of hunger and illness. (return)
- 7) We _____ Scott's adventure in our history course next year. (study)
- 8) The centenary of his death _____ in a few years' time. (celebrate)

See Unit 1 for the use of the present tenses for future reference, and Unit 13 for the use of *will* in conditional sentences.

VOCABULARY PRACTICE**Exercise 7**

There are different ways of referring to groups of animals. Use a dictionary to help you choose the correct word to complete the following expressions.

flock school pack swarm herd flight

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1) a _____ of cattle. | 4) a _____ of bees. |
| 2) a _____ of fish. | 5) a _____ of sheep. |
| 3) a _____ of wolves. | 6) a _____ of parrots. |

These collective names can also be used to describe groups of people, often with a rather negative connotation: *the herd of writers* (Unit 12, part II)

TRANSLATION

- 1) Devi provare la tua teoria. Non deve essere corretta.
- 2) Non avresti dovuto fare quel viaggio in treno. Hai speso tanti soldi per niente.
- 3) Potrò esplorare la flora e fauna della Nuova Zelanda l'anno prossimo.
- 4) Il viaggio per nave durerà forse due mesi.
- 5) Vorresti accompagnarmi? Ti prenoto il biglietto?
- 6) L'aspetto più difficile, cioè la prova, verrà esaminato successivamente.
- 7) Il regno animale è composto di mammiferi, pesci, uccelli, rettili e insetti.
- 8) Dovremmo chiedere al biologo il nome di quella specie di pipistrello.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Natural history

anthropology = antropologia
breed = razza
coral reef = barriera corallina
equator = equatore
environment = ambiente
ethnology = etnologia
habitat = habitat
hemisphere = emisfero
insect = insetto
mammal = mammifero
mineral = minerale

native = indigeno
plant kingdom = regno vegetale
reproduction = riproduzione
seashell = conchiglia
species = specie
to breed = procreare
to observe = osservare
tropic = tropico
wildlife = animali e piante selvatiche

UNIT 12

UTILITARIANISM

Utilitarianism was an almost exclusively British doctrine of moral philosophy that carried great weight between the end of the 18th and the late 19th centuries. It was a philosophical inquiry into the workings of government and the principles behind action arising from increasing industrialisation and the increase in city populations, the growing gap between the rich and poor, and the suffering of the masses in this new industrial era. The main exponents of utilitarianism were Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832), John Stuart Mill (1806-73) and Henry Sidgwick (1838-1900).

The fundamental tenet of utilitarianism is the greatest happiness principle, or the principle of utility. This argues that the supreme good is the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people. The terms “good”, “duty” and “right” are defined and applied within a system in which the discriminating norm is pleasure and pain.

Jeremy Bentham was a trained lawyer who devoted his life to practical legislation and reform, and in his numerous writings he examined the implications of the utilitarian theory for legal and other social institutions. He formulated the principle of utility in his *Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation* in 1789. He started from the principle that “Nature has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign masters, pain and pleasure” and developed the thesis that actions should be judged morally right or wrong according to whether they will be more productive of pleasure or happiness, or more preventive of pain or unhappiness, than any alternative. One characteristic aspect of Bentham’s theory is the idea that the rightness of an action entirely depends on the value of its consequences. Indeed, his theory is often also known as “consequentialist”. Bentham devised a “hedonistic calculus” to sum up the pleasures and pains in any particular case and balance the pleasures against the pains, estimating the final value. In 1824 he founded *The Westminster Review*, a journal that was to have an important role in circulating utilitarian ideas and principles.

John Stuart Mill, a Scottish historian and economist, was one of Bentham’s pupils. He, too, paid much attention to government and jurisprudence, and wrote an influential treatise on political economy, but he was also greatly influenced by the poetry of Wordsworth and the philosophy of Coleridge in his reformulation of Bentham’s thought.

Mill’s major work was *System of Logic* (1843) in which he discusses logic, and the methods of science and their applicability to social as well as purely

natural phenomena. Mill put forward a logic of proof to show how logic proved or tended to prove conclusions drawn from the evidence, discussing an analysis of causation.

The treatise *Principles of Political Economy* (1848) was extremely influential during Mill's lifetime. In it Mill reflects on the difference between what is measured by economics and what human beings are really worth. He argues that economic growth should be sacrificed for the sake of the environment, and population growth should be limited to alleviate the condition of the poor. Although not a sympathiser of extreme socialism, Mill approved of trade unionism and proposed the ideal of co-operation and association of labourers, either with the capitalist or among themselves.

Mill was also a strong advocate of women's rights and was critical of the social and legal injustices they suffered: at the time, women were not admitted to universities, they could not take any active part in public life, and could not vote. He worked closely with other supporters of the women's suffrage movement.

During his lifetime, great controversy was sparked off by his essay *On Liberty* (1859) in which he claims people should be encouraged to express their individuality. While arguing that restrictions on individual liberty can be justified only when necessary to prevent harm to others, Mill believes that only through adopting the self-restraint principle can we find truth and fully develop our individual selves.

In his *Utilitarianism* (1861) Mill defends the view that the welfare of all sentient creatures should be maximised, and that welfare consists of their happiness. He tried to demonstrate that notions of obligation can be made compatible with the principle of greatest happiness.

The followers of Bentham formed a group known as the Philosophical Radicals. Founded by James Mill, John Stuart's father, members included the economist and politician David Ricardo (1772-1823), the historian George Grote (1794-1871) and the jurist John Austin (1790-1859). The group played a vital role during most of the 19th century, stimulating ethical discussion amongst scholars and promoting social reform and humane legislation. The 19th-century reforms of criminal law, judicial organisation and the parliamentary electorate owe much to their active work. Among later Utilitarians, Henry Sidgwick, professor of moral philosophy at Cambridge, introduced the concept of intuitionism. He proposed that there is sense in the obligation to promote general happiness only if it is considered as a basic moral intuition. Precise

moral rules may then be justified following utilitarian lines as a means of fulfilling this obligation.

References

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GLOSSARY

to carry weight = essere importante	causation = causalità
tenet = principio	to be worth = valere
duty = dovere	for the sake of = nell'interesse di
pleasure = piacere	trade unionism = sindacalismo
pain = dolore	advocate = sostenitore
trained = esperto	suffrage = diritto di voto
mankind = umanità	to spark off = suscitare
governance = governo	harm = danno
to judge = giudicare	self-restraint = autocontrollo
according to = secondo	welfare = benessere
rightness = giustezza	sentient = senziente
to depend on = dipendere da	humane = umano
to devise = concepire, ideare	criminal law = diritto penale
to sum up = sommare	to owe = dovere, essere debitore
to balance = compensare	intuitionism = intuizionismo
treatise = trattato	rule = regola
proof = prova	to fulfil an obligation = adempiere un obbligo
to prove = provare	
to draw from = trarre da	

NOTES

The noun *worth* is a synonym of *value*, referring also to price:

His worth is inestimable.

a pound's worth of apples

There are three adjectival forms:

1) *to be worth* + -ing means ‘meriting worth’:

That is worth doing well.

2) *worthy* is often used in the construction *to be worthy of* and means ‘having worth or value’:

He is a worthy man His work is worthy of attention.

3) *worthwhile* means ‘justifying the time and effort spent on something’:

That is a worthwhile job.

It is worthwhile doing the job well.

Note the two words corresponding to the Italian *trattato*:

Mill's treatise on political economy (dissertazione)

a peace treaty (patto)

And the two words corresponding to the Italian *umano*:

a human being (relativo alla persona umana)

humane legislation (dotato di spirito umanitario)

WORD STUDY

The two prefixes *self-* and *auto-* mean 'of or by the same one':

self-control *self-confidence* *automobile* *autograph*

Use a dictionary to help you decide which prefix is used for each of the following words. Write a sentence using each new word.

- | | |
|-----------|-------|
| biography | _____ |
| centred | _____ |
| defence | _____ |
| educated | _____ |
| genesis | _____ |

GRAMMAR REVIEW

DIRECT SPEECH

Direct speech in English is punctuated as follows:

The philosopher said, "Your view is correct."

"Your view is correct," the philosopher said, "and I agree with you."

Double or single quotation marks may be used, but a quotation within a quotation requires single marks inside double, or vice versa:

"The term 'utilitarianism' is often misunderstood," the philosopher said.

The verb *to say* is used to introduce direct speech, greeting or commands:

He said, "You are right." He said no. He said goodbye.

Some useful verbs to report direct speech: *add, answer, argue, complain, deny, explain, observe, remark, reply*. The verb *tell* cannot be used in this way.

INDIRECT SPEECH

The most common reporting verbs are *to tell* and *to say*.

To say is normally followed by *that* or, occasionally, by *to + indirect object*:

He says that I am right. *He said to me that I was right.*

To tell must be followed by an indirect object: *He tells me (that) I am right.*

Note the passive form: *We were told that he was right.*

To tell can also be used in expressions such as:

<i>to tell a story</i>	<i>to tell the time</i>	<i>to tell a lie</i>
<i>to tell the truth</i>	<i>to tell the difference</i>	

Exercise 1

Insert the correct form of *to tell* or *to say* in the following sentences.

- 1) All philosophers _____ that their views are important.
- 2) Could you _____ me what he said at the lecture?
- 3) Can you _____ between right and wrong?
- 4) He _____ he had always tried to _____ the truth.
- 5) Did you _____ anything to her about the problem?
- 6) Mill _____ the world about women's injustices.
- 7) We were _____ about the suffrage movement.
- 8) The Utilitarians _____ very unpopular things.

When statements are reported in the past, the tense of the verb usually changes.

"*You are right.*" *He said that I was right.*

"*You are doing the right thing.*" *He said that I was doing the right thing.*

"*You did the right thing.*" *He said that I had done the right thing.*

"*You have always been right.*" *He said that I had always been right.*

"*You will do the right thing.*" *He said that I would do the right thing.*

Sometimes the tense does not change.

"*You had done the right thing.*" *He said that I had done the right thing.*

"*You should do the right thing.*" *He said that I should do the right thing.*

"*You should have done it.*" *He said that I should have done it.*

When statements are still true, the tense of the verb stays the same.

"Economics is a social science." He said that economics is a social science.

When the reported speech is introduced by a present tense, the tenses used are those of the speaker's original words.

He argues that economic growth should be sacrificed.

Mill believes that we can find truth through the self-restraint principle.

Pronouns and possessives change in reported speech:

Jane said, "I am leaving" She said she was leaving.

"My thesis is wrong," he stated. He stated that his thesis was wrong.

Exercise 2

Report the following sentences.

- 1) "You are wrong," she declared.
-

- 2) "The teacher has mistaken my statement," he said.
-

- 3) "He will change his mind," we observed.
-

- 4) Mills argues, "The individual should never be constrained."
-

- 5) He said, "I could have tried harder."
-

- 6) "It is time for change," they confirmed.
-

- 7) "We must find a solution," they cried.
-

- 8) "I am seeking an answer," he says.
-

Adverbs and expressions of time and place also change in reported speech.

here → there

today → that day

tomorrow → the next day

yesterday → the day before

last week → the week before/the previous week

Sometimes directional verbs also change.

“Come and see me,” she said. She invited me to go and see her.

Exercise 3

Report the sentences.

- 1) She said, “I am going tomorrow.”
-

- 2) He explained, “She went there last week.”
-

- 3) They said, “They can come to London next year.”
-

- 4) He stated, “I have been here since last month.”
-

- 5) “I’ll see them later today,” he thought.
-

- 6) They remarked, “We saw the teacher a week ago.”
-

- 7) We replied, “We saw her yesterday.”
-

- 8) “I’ll invite her here now,” he suggested.
-

MODIFYING CONNECTORS: ADDITION

There are several ways of introducing additional statements:

1) *Jeremy Bentham was a lawyer.* 2) *Bentham was also a philosopher.*

and (simple added statement)

Jeremy Bentham was a lawyer and a philosopher.

as well as + -ing form (emphasises the first element)

As well as being a lawyer, Bentham was a philosopher.

besides + -ing form (more emphatic than *as well as*)

Besides being a lawyer, Bentham was a philosopher.

furthermore (more formal, similar to *moreover*)

Jeremy Bentham was a lawyer. Furthermore (Moreover), he was a philosopher.

in addition to + -ing form (similar to *besides*)

In addition to being a lawyer, Bentham was a philosopher.

Exercise 4

Join these pairs of sentences using one of the connectives above.

1) Mill wrote *Principles of Political Economy*. He wrote *Utilitarianism*.

2) Mill was a pupil of his father, James Mill. He was a pupil of Bentham.

3) Bentham was an advocate for social reform. He was a utilitarian.

4) They supported the greatest happiness principle. They supported trade unionism. _____

5) The self-restraint principle can lead to truth. It can help us fully develop ourselves. _____

VOCABULARY PRACTICE

Exercise 5

Match the opposites from these two lists.

- | A | B |
|--------------------|--------------|
| 1) <i>optimism</i> | a) false |
| 2) <i>pleasure</i> | b) bad |
| 3) <i>right</i> | c) pessimism |
| 4) <i>good</i> | d) pain |
| 5) <i>true</i> | e) wrong |
| 6) <i>goodness</i> | f) despair |
| 7) <i>hope</i> | g) lying |
| 8) <i>truthful</i> | h) evil |

FURTHER READING

John Stuart Mill's Utilitarianism first appeared in Fraser's Magazine in 1861 and was reprinted in book-form in 1863. In Chapter two, "What Utilitarianism Is," Mill gives a precise formulation of the highest normative principle that actions are right in proportion as they tend to promote happiness; wrong as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness.

WHAT UTILITARIANISM IS

A PASSING remark is all that need be given to the ignorant blunder of supposing that those who stand up for utility as the test of right and wrong, use the term in that restricted and merely colloquial sense in which utility is opposed to pleasure. An apology is due to the philosophical opponents of utilitarianism, for even the momentary appearance of confounding them with any one capable of so absurd a misconception; which is the more extraordinary, inasmuch as the contrary accusation, of referring everything to pleasure, and that too in its grossest form, is another of the common charges against utilitarianism: and, as has been pointedly remarked by an able writer, the same sort of persons, and often the very same persons, denounce the theory "as impracticably dry when the word utility precedes the word pleasure, and as too practicably voluptuous when the word pleasure precedes the word utility." Those who know anything about the matter are aware that every writer,

from Epicurus to Bentham, who maintained the theory of utility, meant by it, not something to be contradistinguished from pleasure, but pleasure itself, together with exemption from pain; and instead of opposing the useful to the agreeable or the ornamental, have always declared that the useful means these, among other things. Yet the common herd, including the herd of writers, not only in newspapers and periodicals, but in books of weight and pretension, are perpetually falling into this shallow mistake.

Having caught up the word utilitarian, while knowing nothing whatever about it but its sound, they habitually express by it the rejection, or the neglect, of pleasure in some of its forms; of beauty, of ornament, or of amusement. Nor is the term thus ignorantly misapplied solely in disparagement, but occasionally in compliment; as though it implied superiority to frivolity and the mere pleasures of the moment. And this perverted use is the only one in which the word is popularly known, and the one from which the new generation are acquiring their sole notion of its meaning. Those who introduced the word, but who had for many years discontinued it as a distinctive appellation, may well feel themselves called upon to resume it, if by doing so they can hope to contribute anything towards rescuing it from this utter degradation.

The creed which accepts as the foundation of morals, Utility, or the Greatest Happiness Principle, holds that actions are right in proportion as they tend to promote happiness, wrong as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness. By happiness is intended pleasure, and the absence of pain; by unhappiness, pain, and the privation of pleasure. To give a clear view of the moral standard set up by the theory, much more requires to be said; in particular, what things it includes in the ideas of pain and pleasure; and to what extent this is left an open question. But these supplementary explanations do not affect the theory of life on which this theory of morality is grounded- namely, that pleasure, and freedom from pain, are the only things desirable as ends; and that all desirable things (which are as numerous in the utilitarian as in any other scheme) are desirable either for the pleasure inherent in themselves, or as means to the promotion of pleasure and the prevention of pain.

Now, such a theory of life excites in many minds, and among them in some of the most estimable in feeling and purpose, inveterate dislike. To suppose that life has (as they express it) no higher end than pleasure- no better and nobler object of desire and pursuit- they designate as utterly mean and grovelling; as a doctrine worthy only of swine, to whom the followers of Epicurus were, at a very early period, contemptuously likened; and modern holders of the doctrine are occasionally made the subject of equally polite comparisons by its German, French, and English assailants.

When thus attacked, the Epicureans have always answered, that it is not they, but their accusers, who represent human nature in a degrading light; since the accusation supposes human beings to be capable of no pleasures except those of which swine are capable. If this supposition were true, the charge could not be gainsaid, but would then be no longer an imputation; for if the sources of pleasure were precisely the same to human beings and to swine, the rule of life which is good enough for the one would be good enough for the other. The comparison of the Epicurean life to that of beasts is felt as degrading, precisely because a beast's pleasures do not satisfy a human being's conceptions of happiness. Human beings have faculties more elevated than the animal appetites, and when once made conscious of them, do not regard anything as happiness which does not include their gratification. I do not, indeed, consider the Epicureans to have been by any means faultless in drawing out their scheme of consequences from the utilitarian principle. To do this in any sufficient manner, many Stoic, as well as Christian elements require to be included. But there is no known Epicurean theory of life which does not assign to the pleasures of the intellect, of the feelings and imagination, and of the moral sentiments, a much higher value as pleasures than to those of mere sensation. It must be admitted, however, that utilitarian writers in general have placed the superiority of mental over bodily pleasures chiefly in the greater permanency, safety, uncostliness, etc., of the former- that is, in their circumstantial advantages rather than in their intrinsic nature. And on all these points utilitarians have fully proved their case; but they might have taken the other, and, as it may be called, higher ground, with entire consistency. It is quite compatible with the principle of utility to recognise the fact, that some kinds of pleasure are more desirable and more valuable than others. It would be absurd that while, in estimating all other things, quality is considered as well as quantity, the estimation of pleasures should be supposed to depend on quantity alone.

If I am asked, what I mean by difference of quality in pleasures, or what makes one pleasure more valuable than another, merely as a pleasure, except its being greater in amount, there is but one possible answer. Of two pleasures, if there be one to which all or almost all who have experience of both give a decided preference, irrespective of any feeling of moral obligation to prefer it, that is the more desirable pleasure. If one of the two is, by those who are competently acquainted with both, placed so far above the other that they prefer it, even though knowing it to be attended with a greater amount of discontent, and would not resign it for any quantity of the other pleasure which their nature is capable of, we are justified in ascribing to the preferred enjoyment a superiority in quality, so far outweighing quantity as to render it, in comparison, of small account.

Now it is an unquestionable fact that those who are equally acquainted with, and equally capable of appreciating and enjoying, both, do give a most marked preference to the manner of existence which employs their higher faculties. Few human creatures would consent to be changed into any of the lower animals, for a promise of the fullest allowance of a beast's pleasures; no intelligent human being would consent to be a fool, no instructed person would be an ignoramus, no person of feeling and conscience would be selfish and base, even though they should be persuaded that the fool, the dunce, or the rascal is better satisfied with his lot than they are with theirs. They would not resign what they possess more than he for the most complete satisfaction of all the desires which they have in common with him. If they ever fancy they would, it is only in cases of unhappiness so extreme, that to escape from it they would exchange their lot for almost any other, however undesirable in their own eyes. A being of higher faculties requires more to make him happy, is capable probably of more acute suffering, and certainly accessible to it at More points, than one of an inferior type; but in spite of these liabilities, he can never really wish to sink into what he feels to be a lower grade of existence. We may give what explanation we please of this unwillingness; we may attribute it to pride, a name which is given indiscriminately to some of the most and to some of the least estimable feelings of which mankind are capable: we may refer it to the love of liberty and personal independence, an appeal to which was with the Stoicks one of the most effective means for the inculcation of it; to the love of power, or to the love of excitement, both of which do really enter into and contribute to it: but its most appropriate appellation is a sense of dignity, which all human beings possess in one form or other, and in some, though by no means in exact, proportion to their higher faculties, and which is so essential a part of the happiness of those in whom it is strong, that nothing which conflicts with it could be, otherwise than momentarily, an object of desire to them.

Whoever supposes that this preference takes place at a sacrifice of happiness—that the superior being, in anything like equal circumstances, is not happier than the inferior—confounds the two very different ideas, of happiness, and content. It is indisputable that the being whose capacities of enjoyment are low, has the greatest chance of having them fully satisfied; and a highly endowed being will always feel that any happiness which he can look for, as the world is constituted, is imperfect. But he can learn to bear its imperfections, if they are at all bearable; and they will not make him envy the being who is indeed unconscious of the imperfections, but only because he feels not at all the good which those imperfections qualify. It is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a pig satisfied; better to be Socrates dissatisfied than a fool satisfied. And if the fool, or the pig, are a different opinion, it is because they

only know their own side of the question. The other party to the comparison knows both sides.[...]

Source: J.S. Mill, “What Utilitarianism Is”. *Utilitarianism*, 1863. Chapter 2.

GLOSSARY

passing remark = commento rapido

blunder = errore

to stand (stood, stood) up for = af-
fermare

apology = giustificazione

misconception = fraintendimento

inasmuch = dal momento che

grossest = più volgare

charge = accusa

pointedly = in modo arguto

to maintain = sostenere

agreeable = gradevole

the common herd = la massa

weight = importanza

shallow = superficiale

to catch (caught, caught) up = co-
gliere

neglect = trascuratezza

to misapply = usare erroneamente

disparagement = denigrazione

frivolity = frivolezza

appellation = nome

to discontinue = cessare di usare

to resume = riprendere

dislike = avversione

badge = simbolo

watchword = parola d'ordine

distinction = carattere

want = mancanza

creed = credo

to set (set, set) up = costituire

grounded = fondato

to excite = suscitare

estimable = degno

inveterate = accanito

pursuit = ricerca

mean = misero, squallido

groveling = umiliante

swine = maiale

assailant = critico, detrattore

gainsaid = negato

to draw (drew, drawn) out from =
trarre da

chiefly = principalmente

uncostliness = economicità

consistency = coerenza

irrespective of = indipendentemente
da

to be acquainted with = essere a
conoscenza di

attended = accompagnato

to resign = rinunciare a

to outweigh = superare

allowance = concessione

fool = stupido

ignoramus = ignorante

selfish = egoista

base = basso, vile

dunce = somaro

rascal = mascalzone

lot = destino

to fancy = immaginare

liability = svantaggio

to sink (sank, sunk) = sprofondare

unwillingness = riluttanza

endowed = dotato

to bear (bore, borne) = sopportare

to envy = invidiare

NOTES

The word *due* has several different uses:

An apology is due to the philosophical opponents of utilitarianism.

Delle scuse sono dovute ai filosofi oppositori dell'utilitarismo.

The accident was due to bad weather. The ship is due tomorrow.

L'incidente fu dovuto al cattivo tempo. La nave è attesa per domani.

Payment is due tomorrow.

the due date

Il pagamento scade domani.

la data di scadenza

in due time

with due respect

a tempo debito

con il dovuto rispetto

It should not be confused with the verb *to owe*:

He owes me some money.

Mi deve dei soldi.

COMPREHENSION

Are the following statements true or false?

1. The term "Utilitarianism" has been easily understood.
2. Mills totally agrees with the Epicurian vision of pleasure.
3. Mills believes that some qualities of pleasure should be considered higher than others.

WORD STUDY

The prefix *mis-* adds the meaning of 'badly, mistakenly':

The term is misapplied. (applied wrongly)

Note the difference between the noun *mistake*, which means *error* and the verb *to mistake*, which means 'to misunderstand' or 'to confuse with':

Books fall into this shallow mistake.

The concept was mistaken for its opposite.

Insert words with the prefix *mis-* into the following sentences.

- 1) The idea was _____ by other philosophers. (to understand)
- 2) They _____ the whole question. (to handle)
- 3) He behaved badly and was charged with _____. (conduct)

- 4) I hope his _____ will end soon. (fortune)
- 5) He completely _____ the whole situation. (to interpret)
- 6) We have clearly been _____ by the media. (to inform)
- 7) He deliberately _____ my views. (to represent)
- 8) The article contained some very _____ information. (to lead)

GRAMMAR REVIEW

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

Wh-questions are transformed as follows:

<i>"What is Utilitarianism?"</i>	<i>He asked what Utilitarianism was.</i>
<i>"Why do you support it?"</i>	<i>He asked why I supported it.</i>
<i>"When did you study it?"</i>	<i>He asked when we had studied it.</i>

The tense, pronoun and adverbial changes from direct to indirect questions are the same as for indirect speech.

Indirect questions are introduced by verbs such as *ask*, *wonder*, *want to know*:
He wanted to know what Utilitarianism was.

Direct yes/no questions are transformed as follows:

<i>"Do you study philosophy?"</i>	<i>She asked if/whether I studied philosophy.</i>
<i>"Have you ever read Mills?"</i>	<i>She asked if/whether I had ever read Mills.</i>
<i>"Was he supporting it?"</i>	<i>She asked if/whether he had been supporting it.</i>

Exercise 6

Report the following questions.

- 1) "Which book are you studying from?"
-

- 2) "How can I finish the textbook before the exam?"
-

- 3) "Where did you find that quotation?"
-

4) "Why have you read that book?"

5) "Do you read much social philosophy?"

6) "Were they investigating social conditions?"

7) "Who is your favourite philosopher?"

8) "Will you have time to study all this material?"

NEED

The verb *need* is either a modal auxiliary or a full verb.

To *need* is a full verb and is generally followed by the infinitive:

I need to clean the car. He doesn't need to work. I needed to study harder.

With a passive meaning, *to need* can be followed by the -ing form:

My car needs cleaning. (= The car needs to be cleaned.)

As a modal auxiliary verb, *need* is generally used in the negative or interrogative forms:

You needn't come if you don't want to. Need I come too?

In very rare cases, it is found with a positive verb, usually with an implicitly negative reference:

A passing remark is all that need be given to the ignorant blunder.

All you need do is reply. He need have no fear.

Needn't expresses absence of obligation, very like *don't have to*, whereas *mustn't* expresses negative obligation:

I needn't read the book. (non è necessario)

You mustn't touch that. (è vietato)

In the past, there is a difference between:

I didn't need to read that book.

Non ho dovuto leggere il libro (non l'ho letto).

I needn't have read the book.

Non c'era bisogno che leggesse il libro (l'ho letto inutilmente).

Exercise 7

Use *mustn't*, *needn't* or *didn't need to* in the following sentences.

- 1) Darwin _____ publish his results immediately.
- 2) I think he _____ have waited so long before making them public.
- 3) He _____ have been so cautious in presenting his theories.
- 4) You _____ remind me of his ideas. I know them well.
- 5) You _____ think I don't agree with his ideas. I support them all.

TRANSLATION

To say is translated into Italian as *affermare*, *sostenere* (idee), *esprimere* (pensieri, opinioni). *To tell* is translated as *raccontare*, *narrare*, *riferire* (discorso indiretto), *distinguere* (tra due cose). However, the verb *dire* can render both *say* and *tell*.

What did he say to you? Cosa ti ha detto?

He told us he would leave. Ci disse che sarebbe partito.

In reported speech, the future tense becomes the present conditional in English but **condizionale perfetto** in Italian:

"I will come". He said he would come. Disse che sarebbe venuto.

Note that if the action did not take place, the perfect conditional is used in both Italian and English:

He said he would have come. Disse che sarebbe venuto.

1) Ci disse che aveva completato il suo trattato sulla logica.

2) Mi chiedo perché non sa distinguere tra il bene e il male.

- 3) Ha male interpretato la mia proposta di riforma sociale.
- 4) Io credo che valga maggiore attenzione.
- 5) Il maestro disse che l'allievo era un somaro.
- 6) Inoltre, disse che non avrebbe superato l'esame.
- 7) Ci fu detto che il libro era ingannevole oltre ad essere malvagio.
- 8) Non doveva ripetere l'esame; l'aveva già superato.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Moral philosophy

chastity = castità, purezza
conscience = coscienza
corruption = corruzione
dishonesty = disonestà
evil = male
fairness = equità
immorality = immoralità
justice = giustizia
moral code = codice morale
purity = purezza
sin = peccato

to educate = educare; istruire
to guide = guida
to mislead = ingannare
to moralize = spiegare in chiave morale
to pervert = corrompere
turpitude = turpitudine, depravazione
vice = vizio
wickedness = malvagità
wrong-doing = trasgressione

UNIT 13

LOGIC

Logic can be generally defined as the study of the structure and principles of reasoning or of sound argument. Various kinds of logic can be differentiated depending on the type of reasoning employed.

Reasoning that proposes to establish the truth of propositions can be divided into deductive and inductive logic. Another kind of practical reasoning attempts to discern what ought to be done using indicatives and imperatives. This is known as deontic logic or the logic of norms.

Logic is concerned less with truth or falsity as such than with the transmission of truth or falsity from one set of statements (the premises) to another (the conclusion). Its central concepts are logical consequence and valid inference. If some statement q is a logical consequence of a statement p , then if p is true, so is q ; if q is false, so is p . An inference is valid if the conclusion is a logical consequence of the premises from which it was inferred.

In the classical form of the syllogism, with two premises and a conclusion, one example of an invalid inference is known as “the fallacy of undistributed middle”: All cows are animals, all herbivores are animals; therefore all cows are herbivores. Here the premises are true, and so is the conclusion, but only accidentally, not by logical necessity. That the inference is invalid can be shown by choosing replacements for each of the descriptive terms in such a way that although the premises remain true, the conclusion is false. Thus: All men are mortal, all gorillas are mortal, leads to a false conclusion—all men are gorillas.

Some famous proofs in the early development of mathematics were *reductio ad absurdum* proofs, in which a proposition is proved by showing that its denial, combined with other true propositions, would lead to an absurd conclusion.

As late as 1787, Immanuel Kant declared that since Aristotle’s time “logic has not been able to advance a single step and is thus to all appearance a closed and completed body of doctrine.” But in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries there were many developments in mathematical logic. Aristotelian logic could handle only very limited kinds of deductive reasoning. For instance, Euclidean geometry had long been regarded as a superb example of deductive reasoning; yet Aristotelian logic could say almost nothing about its validity. Kant had endowed mathematical knowledge with a special status essentially different from that of both physics and of logic. Since Kant’s view implied that no alternative to Euclidean geometry was conceivable it became

untenable when non-Euclidean geometries were developed. John Stuart Mill (1806-73) tried the alternative of interpreting mathematics as a part of empirical science, but there were forceful objections to this interpretation.

A remaining alternative was to interpret it as a branch of logic. It was Gottlob Frege (1848-1925) who first undertook the task of showing that all pure mathematics is deducible from premises that contain only logical terms and are logically true. (His program is known as logicism.) Bertrand Russell (1872-1970) discovered, however, that the logical foundations of mathematics contained paradoxes.

Logic requires an adequate concept of truth since it deals with the transmission of truth. But the traditional theory of truth had paradoxes. One of these, the Cretan Liar, had been known in antiquity. The statement “This statement is false,” if true, is false, and if false, is true. A similar paradox arises as follows. Some adjectives (for example “polysyllabic” and “short”) possess the property they denote. These are called “homological.” Others (for example, “monosyllabic” and “long”) do not. These are called “heterological.” Is the adjective “heterological” itself heterological? If it is, then it is not; if it is not, then it is.

Alfred Tarski (1902-1983) eliminated such paradoxes with his semantic theory of truth, which involved a sharp separation between an object-language (the language that speaks directly about objects) and a meta-language (the language in which the object-language is spoken about).

But when such difficulties can be found in mathematics and logic, the problems of establishing a coherent system of thought and then using it to establish scientific truths become obvious. For argument from experience is very different from valid inference, in which the truth of a conclusion can be proved to be logically necessary because denial would involve a contradiction. David Hume (1711-76) pointed out that since the conclusion of a valid inference can contain no information not found in the premises, there can be no valid inference from observed to unobserved instances. Thus many laws of science, and nearly all common-sense beliefs, are logically unjustified. This is the essential problem of induction faced by philosophers.

One attempted solution, associated with Karl Popper (1902-1994), is to abandon any sort of justifying inference from evidence and to ask of scientific hypotheses that they be subjected to searching attempts to falsify predictions derived from them. If such attempts are successful, the hypothesis has to be rejected. If the hypothesis withstands testing, we may not conclude that it is true (the fallacy of affirming the consequent) but we may nonetheless retain it.

References

- “Logic and the tools of philosophy” in *The Random House Encyclopedia*
 (New York: Random House, 1990)
 A. Flew (ed.) *A Dictionary of Philosophy* (London: Pan Books, 1979)

GLOSSARY

reasoning = ragionamento	forceful = forte
sound = buono, valido	branch = ramo
to employ = usare	to undertake (undertook, undertaken) = intraprendere
set = serie, insieme	task = compito
statement = termine	to arise (arose, arisen) = sorgere
to infer = inferire, dedurre	to involve = implicare
invalid = invalido, nullo	sharp = netto
fallacy = fallacia, falsità	to point out = far notare
undistributed middle = termine medio	instance = fatto, caso
accidentally = casualmente	common-sense = di buon senso
proposition = enunciato	to face = affrontare
denial = negazione	searching = rigoroso
to handle = trattare	to withstand (withstood, withstood)
*superb = magnifico	= resistere a
to endow... with = conferire a	to retain = accettare
untenable = non sostenibile	

NOTES

The word *argument* can be an uncountable noun meaning *argomentazione*: *sound argument*. In informal use, it can be a countable noun meaning *discussione*: *They had a terrible argument*. See Unit 5 for other nouns that can be used as both countable and uncountable nouns.

Compare *reason* (ragione) and *reasoning* (ragionamento, modo di ragionare):

She uses logic and reason to come to a conclusion.

The reasoning behind her decision was perfect.

Other similar pairs of nouns are *loan* (prestito) and *lending* (attività creditizia); *thought* (pensiero) and *thinking* (modo di pensare).

WORD STUDY

The suffixes *-ic* and *-ics* are used to form the names of sciences, arts or branches of study: *logic* *rhetoric* *mathematics* *physics*.

When used in this manner, the nouns ending in the *-ics* suffix tend to take a singular verb: *Statistics is a branch of mathematics.*

When used in a more general context, for the application of the science, they take a plural verb: *These government statistics are misleading.*

The suffixes *-ic* and *-ical* are used to form adjectives meaning ‘related to’:

Germanic (typical of German people or things)

logical (according to the rules of logic).

Sometimes the two suffixes have the same meaning:

The result was a mathematic/mathematical certainty.

Sometimes there is a difference in meaning. Compare:

<i>a historic building</i>	(a building with history)
<i>historical research</i>	(research related to the subject of history)
<i>economic policy</i>	(a policy concerned with economics)
<i>the car is economical to run</i>	(cheap)
<i>a classic mistake</i>	(a typical mistake)
<i>classical music</i>	(serious, artistic compositions)

Choose the most suitable word in the following sentences.

cynic periodic heroic musical magic fanatical critical

- 1) Legends often involve elements of _____ and mystery.
- 2) He comes from a very _____ family. They all play the violin.
- 3) There were _____ outbreaks of plague during the 17th century.
- 4) Diogenes was the original _____.
- 5) Their _____ deeds were celebrated throughout the kingdom.
- 6) The teacher was very _____ of his reasoning.
- 7) He was _____ about his studies and never stopped studying.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

ZERO CONDITIONAL

Both the verb in the *if*-clause and the verb in the main clause are in the present tense. This kind of sentence is used to express automatic or habitual results:

If p is true, so is q; if q is false, so is p.

Exercise 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1) If my ideas _____ (to be) clear, my work _____ (to be) successful.
- 2) If water _____ (to heat) to 100°, it _____ (to boil).
- 3) If students _____ (to work) too hard, they _____ (to get) tired.

TYPE 1 CONDITIONAL

The verb in the *if*-clause is in the present tense and the verb in the main clause is in the future. This kind of sentence indicates that the action in the *if*-clause is probable.

If you want to prove that statement, you will encounter several problems.

Some variations.

- 1) The future may be expressed with *will* or with other modal auxiliaries:

If you want to prove that statement, you must resolve several problems.

If you want to prove that statement, you may need some help.

See Unit 11 for a revision of the modal auxiliaries.

- 2) The verb in the main clause may be an imperative form:

If you want to prove that statement, ask me for help!

- 3) The Simple Present may be replaced by the Present Continuous:

If you are trying to prove it without success, I'll help you.

If not can be expressed by *unless*:

If you don't prove it correctly, you will have to try again.

Unless you prove it correctly, you will have to try again.

Exercise 2

Choose the most suitable tense.

- 1) Unless I *get / will get* a break soon, I *go / will go* mad.
- 2) I always *react / will react* like this if my work *goes / will go* badly.
- 3) If I *get / will get* some results tomorrow, I *may go / do go* for a walk.

- 4) I *will stay / stay* at home if it *rains / is raining* when I want to go out.
- 5) *Come / To come* round for dinner if you *are / will be* free this evening.
- 6) I *cook / will cook* something special if you *like / will like*.
- 7) Unless you *tell / don't tell* me the answer, I *don't / won't* know it.
- 8) If you *want / will want* to help me, I *am / will be* very grateful.

TYPE 2 CONDITIONAL

The verb in the *if*-clause is in the past tense and the verb in the main clause is in the conditional tense. The past tense in the *if*-clause is not a true past, but is used to express unreality or improbability (see Unit 2 for unreal pasts).

If you wanted to prove that statement, you would encounter several problems.

In formal English, the form *were* of the verb *to be* is used in the *if*-clause:

If you were more careful, you would have better results.

Some variations.

- 1) The conditional may be expressed with *might, should* or *could*:

If you wanted to prove that statement, you might encounter several problems.

- 2) The simple past in the *if*-clause may be replaced by the past continuous:

If you were trying to prove it without success, I could help you.

Exercise 3

Choose the most suitable tense.

- 1) If you *would have / had* a problem to solve, you *should find / found* someone to help you.
- 2) If you *didn't like / weren't liking* to ask for help, you could *try / tried* using an encyclopaedia.
- 3) You *chose / might choose* to use Internet if you *might want / wanted* a different solution.
- 4) If you *didn't face / hadn't faced* the problem, it *got / could get* harder.
- 5) You *would have / had* a serious problem if your tutor *did get / got* to know about this.

- 6) If she *would / told* you to read that reference book, you *should / may* do it.
- 7) If you *didn't / don't* do it, you would *have / had* to see your tutor again.
- 8) The tutor *would / did* help you, if you *followed / would follow* her advice.

TYPE 3 CONDITIONAL

The verb in the *if*-clause is in the past perfect tense and the verb in the main clause is in the perfect conditional. The time reference is past as the action in the *if*-clause did not take place.

If she had taken her tutor's advice, she wouldn't have had such bad results.

Some variations.

- 1) The conditional may be expressed with *might, should* or *could*:

If she had taken her tutor's advice, she mightn't have had such bad results.

- 2) The simple past perfect in the *if*-clause may be replaced by the past perfect continuous:

She would have been happier if she had been making better progress.

Exercise 4

Put the verbs in brackets into a suitable tense.

John has just failed his exams.

- 1) If he _____ (see) his tutor more regularly, his difficulties _____ (be) found earlier.
- 2) If they _____ (be) found earlier, they _____ (be) resolved with remedial work.
- 3) If they _____ (be) resolved with remedial work, he _____ (not-need) to do so much last-minute revision.
- 4) If he _____ (not-do) so much last minute revision, he _____ (not-get) so depressed.
- 5) If he _____ (not-get) so depressed, his health _____ (not-get) so bad.

- 6) If his health _____ (not-be) so bad, he _____ (not-have) a nervous breakdown.
- 7) If he _____ (not-have) a nervous breakdown, he _____ (not-go) to hospital.
- 8) If he _____ (not-go) to hospital, he _____ (have) more time to study.

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Some of the common connectives used in the context of logic are:

<i>and</i>	<i>A is true and B is true.</i>
<i>or</i>	<i>A is true or B is true.</i>
<i>if... then</i>	<i>If A is true, then B is true.</i>
<i>if and only if (iff)</i>	<i>A is true if and only if (iff) B is true.</i>

Other connectives that express cause and effect are:

<i>because</i>	<i>perché</i>
<i>so, as a result</i>	<i>di conseguenza</i>
<i>hence, therefore, thus</i>	<i>perciò</i>
<i>because of, due to/owing to + noun</i>	<i>a causa di</i>

Exercise 5

Join the following phrases using one of the connectors above.

- 1) He failed the exam _____ he hadn't studied.
- 2) He failed the exam _____ his inability to study.
- 3) He failed the logic exam _____ also the maths one.
- 4) He failed the exam. _____ he had to repeat the year.
- 5) He can continue his studies _____ he works much harder.
- 6) Either he continues his studies _____ he finds a job.
- 7) If he finds a job _____ he will have to be more responsible.
- 8) _____, he will have learned a useful lesson.

FURTHER READING

Karl Popper (1902-1994) studied at the University of Vienna under the psychiatrist Alfred Adler. From 1937-1945, he lived and taught in New Zealand. In 1946 he founded the Department of Philosophy, Logic and Scientific Method at the London School of Economics.

Popper believed that knowledge, and scientific knowledge in particular, evolves from individual experience and cannot be verified through inductive reasoning. Popper presumed that since no one can ever observe and verify all possible evidence to prove a scientific hypothesis correct, it is necessary only to discover one observed exception to the hypothesis to prove it false. He rejected any system of beliefs that could not pass this 'falsifiability criterion' and that relied on predetermined laws of human behaviour. These included logical positivism, metaphysics, Marxism, fascism, and Freudian psychoanalysis.

He first presented his theories in Logik der Forschung (1934; The Logic of Scientific Discovery, 1959). His other principal books include The Open Society and Its Enemies (1945), The Poverty of Historicism (1957), Unended Quest: An Intellectual Autobiography (1976), and A World of Propensities (1990).

THE LOGIC OF SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERY

Part I	<i>Introduction to the Logic of Science</i>
Chapter I	<i>A Survey Of Some Fundamental Problems</i>

A scientist, whether theorist or experimenter, puts forward statements, or systems of statements, and tests them step by step. In the field of the empirical sciences, more particularly, he constructs hypotheses, or systems of theories, and tests them against experience by observation and experiment.

I suggest that it is the task of the logic of scientific discovery, or the logic of knowledge, to give a logical analysis of this procedure; that is, to analyse the method of the empirical sciences.

But what are these 'methods of the empirical sciences'? And what do we call 'empirical science'?

I. The Problem of Induction

According to a widely-accepted view—to be opposed in this book—the empirical sciences can be characterised by the fact that they use *inductive meth-*

ods, as they are called. According to this view, the logic of scientific discovery would be identical with inductive logic, i.e. with the logical analysis of these inductive methods.

It is usual to call an inference ‘inductive’ if it passes from *singular statements* (sometimes called ‘particular statements’), such as accounts of the results of observations or experiments, to *universal statements*, such as hypotheses or theories.

Now it is far from obvious, from a logical point of view, that we are justified in inferring universal statements from singular ones, no matter how numerous; for any conclusion drawn in this way may always turn out to be false: no matter how many instances of white swans we have observed, this does not justify the conclusion that *all* swans are white.

The question whether inductive inferences are justified, or under what conditions, is known as *the problem of induction*.

The problem of induction may also be formulated as the question of how to establish the truth of universal statements which are based on experience, such as the hypotheses and theoretical systems of the empirical sciences. For many people believe that the truth of these universal statements is ‘*known by experience*’; yet it is clear that an account of an experience—of an observation or the result of an experiment—can in the first place be only a singular statement and not a universal one. Accordingly, people who say of a universal statement that we know its truth from experience usually mean that the truth of this universal statement can somehow be reduced to the truth of singular ones, and that these singular ones are known by experience to be true; which amounts to saying that the universal statement is based on inductive inference. Thus to ask whether there are natural laws known to be true appears to be only another way of asking whether inductive inferences are logically justified.

Yet if we want to find a way of justifying inductive inferences, we must first of all try to establish a *principle of induction*. A principle of induction would be a statement with the help of which we could put inductive inferences into a logically acceptable form. In the eyes of the upholders of inductive logic, a principle of induction is of supreme importance for scientific method: ‘... this principle’, says Reichenbach, ‘determines the truth of scientific theories. To eliminate it from science would mean nothing less than to deprive science of the power to decide the truth or falsity of its theories. Without it, clearly, science would no longer have the right to distinguish its theories from the fanciful and arbitrary creations of the poet’s mind.’⁽¹⁾

Now this principle of induction cannot be a purely logical truth like a tautology or an analytic statement. Indeed, if there were such a thing as a purely logical principle of induction, there would be no problem of induction; for in this case, all inductive inferences would have to be regarded as purely logical or tautological transformations, just like inferences in deductive logic. Thus the principle of induction must be a synthetic statement; that is, a statement whose negation is not self-contradictory but logically possible. So the question arises why such a principle should be accepted at all, and how we can justify its acceptance on rational grounds.

Some who believe in inductive logic are anxious to point out, with Reichenbach, that ‘the principle of induction is unreservedly accepted by the whole of science and that no man can seriously doubt this principle in everyday life either’.⁽²⁾ Yet even supposing that this were the case—for after all, ‘the whole of science’ might err—I should still contend that a principle of induction is superfluous, and that it must lead to logical inconsistencies.

That inconsistencies may easily arise in connection with the principle of induction should have been clear from the work of Hume; also, that they can be avoided, if at all, only with difficulty. For the principle of induction must be a universal statement in its turn. Thus if we try to regard its truth as known from experience, then the very same problems which occasioned its introduction will arise all over again. To justify it, we should have to employ inductive inferences; and to justify these we should have to assume an inductive principle of a higher order; and so on. Thus the attempt to base the principle of induction on experience breaks down, since it must lead to an infinite regress.

Kant tried to force his way out of this difficulty by taking the principle of induction (which he formulated as the ‘principle of universal causation’) to be ‘*a priori*’ valid. But I do not think that his ingenious attempt to provide an *a priori* justification for synthetic statements was successful.

My own view is that the various difficulties of inductive logic here sketched are insurmountable. So also, I fear, are those inherent in the doctrine, so widely current today, that inductive inference, although not ‘strictly valid’, *can attain some degree of ‘reliability’ or of ‘probability’*. According to this doctrine, inductive inferences are ‘probably inferences’.⁽³⁾ ‘We have described’, says Reichenbach, ‘the principle of induction as the means whereby science decides upon truth. To be more exact, we should say that it serves to decide upon probability. For it is not given to science to reach either truth or falsity ... but scientific statements can only attain continuous degrees of probability whose unattainable upper and lower limits are truth and falsity’.⁽⁴⁾

At this stage I can disregard the fact that the believers in inductive logic entertain an idea of probability that I shall later reject as highly unsuitable for their own purposes. I can do so because the difficulties mentioned are not even touched by an appeal to probability. For if a certain degree of probability is to be assigned to statements based on inductive inference, then this will have to be justified by invoking a new principle of induction, appropriately modified. And this new principle in its turn will have to be justified, and so on. Nothing is gained, moreover, if the principle of induction, in its turn, is taken not as ‘true’ but only as ‘probable’. In short, like every other form of inductive logic, the logic of probable inference, or ‘probability logic’, leads either to an infinite regress, or to the doctrine of *apriorism*.

The theory to be developed in the following pages stands directly opposed to all attempts to operate with the ideas of inductive logic. It might be described as the theory of *the deductive method of testing*, or as the view that a hypothesis can only be empirically *tested*—and only *after* it has been advanced.

Before I can elaborate this view (which might be called ‘deductivism’, in contrast to ‘inductivism’⁽⁵⁾) I must first make clear the distinction between the *psychology of knowledge* which deals with empirical facts, and the *logic of knowledge* which is concerned only with logical relations. For the belief in inductive logic is largely due to a confusion of psychological problems with epistemological ones. It may be worth noticing, by the way, that this confusion spells trouble not only for the logic of knowledge but for its psychology as well.

Footnotes

- (1) H. Reichenbach, *Erkenntnis* I, 1930, p. 186 (*cf.* also p. 64 f.)
- (2) Reichenbach, *ibid.*, p. 67
- (3) Cf. J.M. Keynes, *A Treatise on Probability* (1921); O. Külpe, *Verlesungen über Logic* (ed. by Selz, 1923); Reichenbach (who uses the term ‘probability implications’), *Axiomatik der Wahrscheinlichkeitrechnung*, *Mathem. Zeitschr.* 34 (1932); and in many other places.
- (4) Reichenbach, *Erkenntnis* I, 1930, p. 186.
- (5) Liebig (in *Induktion und Deduktion*, 1865) was probably the first to reject the inductive method from the standpoint of natural science; his attack is directed against Bacon. Duhem (in *La Théorie physique, son objet et sa structure*, 1906; English translation by P.P. Wiener: *The Aim and the Structure of Physical Theory*, Princeton, 1954) held pronounced deductivist views.

Source: Karl R. Popper, *The Logic of Scientific Discovery* (London: Hutchinson of London, 1959). Part I, Chapter I.

GLOSSARY

to put (put, put) forward = proporre, avanzare	contraddizione
step by step = gradualmente	to contend = sostenere
to test = verificare	inconsistency = incoerenza
induction = induzione	to occasion = causare, determinare
task = obiettivo	to break (broke, broken) down = crollare
widely-accepted = generalmente ac- cettato	to force one's way out = uscire a forza
inference = inferenza, deduzione	ingenious = geniale
singular = solo	to be given to = essere compito di
far from = lunghi da	limits = limite, confine
no matter = non importa	stage = fase
to turn out = risultare	to disregard = ignorare
swan = cigno	to entertain = prendere in considera- zione
accordingly = di conseguenza	to be unsuitable = inadatto, impro- prio
to amount to = valere	assigned = attribuito
upholders = difensore, sostenitore	to operate = servirsi di
to deprive = privare	to spell trouble = creare problemi
fanciful = fantasioso	
self contradictory = incoerente, in-	

NOTES

The text contains four forms of reformulation: *that is, i.e., to be more exact, which amounts to saying.* Other phrases are *in other words, in that case, better, rather.*

Note the several examples of *for* used as a conjunction (*poiché*): *For it is not given to science to reach either truth or falsity.* This is a usage found in formal English.

Note also the use of *yet* as a conjunction (*tuttavia*): *Yet if we want to find a way of justifying inductive inferences...*

Take care with the following words:

ingenious (geniale): *His plan was truly ingenious.*

ingenuous (ingenuo): *She was too ingenuous and trusting.*

genial (gioviale): *They are very warm-hearted and genial people.*

COMPREHENSION

1. What is the common definition of empirical sciences that Popper cites?
2. Why does Popper not accept the concept of induction?
3. Does he agree with the solution Kant proposed for the problem of inconsistencies from induction?

WORD STUDY

Like the suffixes *-ic* and *-ical*, the suffixes *-ive* (*-ative*, *-itive*) and *-ous* (*-eous*, *-ious*) are commonly used with Latinate words to form adjectives:

<i>deductive</i>	<i>inductive</i>	<i>continuous</i>	<i>obvious</i>
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Use suitable adjectives in the following sentences.

- 1) The prince was both _____ and _____. (virtue-courage)
- 2) His reply to my question was _____. (to affirm)
- 3) However, his attitude was _____. (to prohibit)
- 4) The project they undertook was very _____. (fame)
- 5) It was also very _____ and _____. (to attract - danger)

GRAMMAR REVIEW

INVERSION

In formal language, inversion techniques can be used to give greater dramatic or rhetorical effect.

1. Inversion can be used after negative adverbs or adverb phrases *never*, *rarely*, *seldom*. Compare:

*I have never heard a worse answer. A person can rarely be so stupid.
Never have I heard a worse answer! Rarely can a person be so stupid!*

2. Inversion is used after time expressions *hardly*, *barely*, *no sooner* generally with the past tenses to emphasise the rapidity with which one action followed another:

*Hardly had he completed the essay when he was asked to write a book.
No sooner did he solve the problem than another one arose.*

3. Inversion can be used with some negative phrases: *on no condition, under no circumstances, not until, not only:*
On no account must you touch this switch.
Not only has he failed maths, he has also been suspended for bad behaviour.
4. Inversion can take place after *so* and *such* when used with the verb *to be*:
So disappointed was he / Such was his disappointment that he almost went mad.
5. Type II and III hypothetical sentences can be inverted and *if* omitted to make the event seem less likely.
If he had completed the exam, he would have passed it.
Had he completed the exam, he would have passed it.
If he were more confident, he would have fewer problems.
Were he more confident, he would have fewer problems.
6. In extremely formal expressions with *may*
Although it may seem difficult.....
Difficult as/though it may seem.....

Exercise 6

Rewrite each sentence using inversion.

1) If you had answered the question correctly, you would have won.

2) He was so upset that he burst into tears.

3) They have never been so happy.

4) If you should see John, tell him I need to see him.

5) Although it may seem impossible, the task must be finished.

EMPHASIS

There are several other ways of emphasising in English.

1. The auxiliary verb *to do* can be added. This is mainly used in informal spoken English

I do like John. *I did want to read that book.* *Do sit down.*

2. Adverb particles can be placed before the verb with inversion of the verb and subject.

Suddenly down came the rain. *High on the hill stood the castle.*

3. Negatives can be emphasised by phrases such as *not at all*, *not in the least*, *not really*.

He didn't have any objections at all. *I really didn't want to do that.*

4. Repetition of the main verb or time phrases is often used for emphasis.

They studied and studied for weeks. *It rained and rained all day.*

They read their texts over and over again. *Day after day you learn.*

Exercise 7

Re-write the sentences using the word given in capitals. Do not change the meaning.

1) They are not to come under any circumstances. (no)

2) Were you to prove the theory, you would be a genius. (if)

3) As soon as we had finished, we went home. (no sooner)

4) She really wants to study physics at university. (does)

5) We really don't want her to study physics. (at all)

REFERENCES

Popper's book was published in 1959. Today, a more common way of referring to authors and books in scientific publications is to cite the author's surname and year of publication in brackets in the text: (Popper, 1959).

If necessary, the page number is added: (Popper, 1959: 60).

Full reference is then made in the bibliography at the end of the text. This is usually set out in the following way.

Author's name or initials and surname, *Title of book*. (Place of publication: Name of publisher, date of publication).

Karl Popper, *The Logic of Scientific Discovery*. (London: Hutchinson of London, 1959).

If a journal article is being cited, the information is generally set out as follows.

Author's name or initials and surname, "Title of article," *Name of journal*, volume number, issue number, sometimes season or month, year, sometimes page numbers.

A. Clark, "Contemporary Problems in the Philosophy of Perception", *American Journal of Psychology*, 107(4), Winter 1994, 613-22.

See Unit 15 for information on electronic citation.

ABBREVIATIONS

Observe the abbreviations used in the footnotes to Karl Popper's text:

cf. (confer = compare)

p. (page)

f. (and the following page/ line)

ed. (edited by/editor/edition)

Some common abbreviations used in references are:

f.	(following page/line)	ff.	(following pages/lines)
ms.	(manuscript)	mss.	(manuscripts)
no.	(number)	nos.	(numbers)
p.	(page)	pp.	(pages)
para.	(paragraph)	paras.	(paragraphs)
ref.	(reference)	refs.	(references)
vol.	(volume)	vols.	(volumes)

LATIN TERMS

Note the Latin abbreviation used in Popper's footnotes.

ibid. (*ibidem* - in the same place)

Other Latin abbreviations used in English texts and footnotes are:

c./ca.	<i>circa</i>	(about)
e.g.	<i>exempli gratia</i>	(for example, for instance)
<i>et al</i>	<i>et alii</i>	(and others)
<i>etc.</i>	<i>et cetera</i>	(and so on)
<i>i.e.</i>	<i>id est</i>	(that is, in other words)
<i>N.B.</i>	<i>nota bene</i>	(note well)
<i>op.cit.</i>	<i>opere citato</i>	(in the work already mentioned)
<i>viz.</i>	<i>videlicet</i>	(in other words)

In his text, Popper uses the Latin expression *a priori*. Several other Latin expressions are used in formal English, especially in law texts. Just a few of the most common examples are *anno Domini* (AD), *bona fide*, *curriculum vitae* (CV), *pari passu*, *quid pro quo*, *status quo*, *sine qua non*.

TRANSLATION

The type I conditional sentences are translated in Italian with two future tenses:

If I have time, I'll read that book.

Se avrò tempo, leggerò quel libro.

The same sequence of tenses is used in sentences with a secondary time clause:

As soon as / When I have time, I'll read that book.

Non appena / Quando avrò tempo, leggerò quel libro.

The emphatic use of *do* and *did* is translated with expressions such as:

Do come in. Entri, la prego.

I did phone her! Certo che le telefonai!

I did post the letter! Ma sì che ho imbucato la lettera!

- 1) Se le premesse sono vere, lo sarà anche la conclusione.
- 2) Non avevo mai pensato di trarre una conclusione simile!
- 3) Se fossero stati più sensibili, avrebbero ottenuto risultati migliori.

- 4) Di conseguenza il loro lavoro non fu proprio accettato.
- 5) Ha compilato un curriculum vitae in buona fede.
- 6) Anno dopo anno la scienza avanza passo dopo passo.
- 7) A causa del suo modo di ragionare, fu dichiarato non idoneo al lavoro.
- 8) Le statistiche ci indicano che una certa cautela è necessaria.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Logic

analogy = analogia

conclusion = conclusione

contradiction = contraddizione

deductive logic = logica deduttiva

deontic logic = logica deontica

falsity = falsità

inductive logic = logica induttiva

inference = inferenza

invalidity = invalidità

logician = logico, professore di logica

paradox = paradosso

premise = premessa

proof = prova

proposition = enunciato

quantifier = quantificatore

speculation = supposizione

syllogism = sillogismo

to induce = indurre

to prove = provare

truth = verità



UNIT 14

THE NEW HISTORY

Historical studies have undergone enormous change in recent decades. The discipline has expanded as new branches have formed, largely in opposition to the traditional paradigm. National history, which prevailed in the 19th century, has been flanked by world history and local history. The changes to economic history that took place in the 1950s and 60s have led to the appearance of new fields such as the history of management, the history of advertising, and the history of the environment, or ecohistory. Scholars of political history now no longer look only at centres of government, but are also interested in politics at different levels. The feminist movement in the 1960s generated women's history, which was initially directly connected with politics, but has since moved away from the women's movement and closer to issues of gender and analysis.

There are several aspects that most clearly define the differences between old and new history. Firstly, whereas the old history focussed on politics and the state ("History is past politics: politics is present history"), the new history has broadened to include almost all human pursuits, coming to be known as "total history". Examples of just some of the new topics of study are childhood and old age, birth and death, work and play, crime and insanity.

Secondly, the new history tends to concentrate less on chronology and more on themes, to analyse structures rather than narrate events. French historians in particular have given greater importance to long-term changes in society and economics, adopting subjects and methods from anthropology, sociology, demography, geography, psychology, semiotics and linguistics.

Thirdly, many historians have started investigating the views of ordinary people and how their lives are affected by social change. This has been called "history from below" or "populist history" in contrast to the traditional approach, "history from above" or "elitist history", which tended to dwell on the actions of individual kings, presidents, politicians and leaders.

Another significant change has come from the recognition that the traditional view of the objective nature of history is largely unrealistic and that it is constantly influenced by cultural prejudices such as ethnic group, creed, class or gender. This has led to a greater search for opposing standpoints, of discussion and debate, rather than the attempt to express a single concordant view.

The new manners of inquiry have opened up the question of new sources for historians. The use of official documents and records in written history as the basis for the tradition was established in the 19th century. Scholars today are turning to different accounts, such as statistical evidence, visual material and oral data. Methods, too, have seen innovation. The quantitative methods used by economic historians in the 1960s and 70s have now been applied to other fields of history. Statistics taken from population studies, price trends and other economic issues are used to draw assumptions about other social and psychological aspects. Microhistory, closely linked to human anthropology, uses "thick description" or the study of single events through the intensive analysis of a great number of facts so as to bring to light larger cultural implications. In the United States, where psychoanalysis is influential, attempts have been made to use Freudian insights and analytical methods in historical scrutiny.

Naturally, the new history has met with some criticism. Detractors of the structural approach feel that it is too static and ignores the dynamic aspects of history. The populist view is seen by some as excluding those individuals whose achievements did actually influence history. Fault is found with ideological bias and the genre strategy as it is thought historians in this field bring into play personal aspects. The effectiveness of the application of psychoanalytical methods to social analysis has been questioned as has the role of quantitative data in providing answers to larger issues.

One of the strongest protests is against the fragmenting of the discipline, the loss of coherence of a unified subject. Other objections are that the new social history is unable to provide an intelligible approach to great formative political events. A more affirmative view is that mainstream history can only emerge strengthened and redefined by the new conceptualisations and perspectives of the subject matter of history.

References

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GLOSSARY

***decade** = decennio

flanked = fiancheggiato

to take (took, taken) place = avere

luogo

to lead (led, led) **to** = portare a
management = amministrazione
advertising = pubblicità
environment = ambiente
issue = questioni, temi
gender = genere (in senso sessuale)
to broaden = allargarsi
pursuit = attività
topic = soggetto, argomento
childhood = infanzia
insanity = pazzia
to dwell (dwelt, dwelt) on = soffer-
 marsi su

creed = credo
standpoint = punto di vista
inquiry = ricerca, indagine
source = fonte
trend = tendenza
insight = introspezione
scrutiny = esame, indagine
fault = difetto
bias = pregiudizio
to question = contestare
coherence = coesione
mainstream = tradizionale

NOTES

Compare the words *history* ('account of past events') and *story* ('short piece of fiction'):

I studied history at school. *She told the children a fairy story.*

Do not confuse the English *decade* (ten years) with the Italian *decade* (ten days).

The word *single* is an adjective in English: *a single view, a single woman.* It cannot be used as a noun: È un *single* = *He is a single man (unmarried).*

The noun *achievement* refers to something that has been done after some effort: *Those individuals whose achievements did actually influence history.*

With this meaning, it is translated as *impresa, conquista.*

It can also indicate 'completion': *The achievement of a goal.* With this meaning, it is translated as *conseguimento, raggiungimento.*

WORD STUDY

The verb suffixes *-ise* and *-ize* (-yse/-yze) are used to indicate causation:
to realise *to visualise* *to analyse*

Today, *-ize*, which is used in American English, is generally listed as the preferred spelling, while the British English *-ise* is given as a variant. Note that some words must be spelt with *-ise*, including *advertise, advise, comprise, devise, exercise, revise* and *surprise*.

New verbs are often created with the addition of *-ize* to nouns and adjectives.
Some examples are:

to computerize to hospitalize to standardize

Write sentences using verbs from the following adjectives and nouns.

- 1) moral _____
- 2) theory _____
- 3) critic _____
- 4) fantasy _____
- 5) conceptual _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

RELATIVE CLAUSES

Relative clauses give extra information about a noun in the main clause. They can refer to this as subject or object.

People who study history are known as historians. (subject)

A historian whom I know is teaching at Cambridge. (object)

There are two main kinds of relative clauses.

1) Defining relative clauses give important information to define exactly what is being referred to:

The changes in economic history that took place in the 1950s and 60s have led to the appearance of new fields.

2) Non-defining relative clauses add extra information, separated by commas:

National history, which prevailed in the 19th century, has been flanked by world history and local history.

Relative pronouns

In defining relative clauses, *who* and *that* are used to refer to people, *which* and *that* are used to refer to things. In object clauses, the relative pronoun *whom* or *that* may be omitted: *A historian (whom) I know.* It is usual, especially in spoken English, to omit the relative pronoun whenever possible.

In non-defining relative clauses, *who* is used to refer to people, *which* is used to refer to things. The pronoun *that* is not used in non-defining clauses. The relative pronoun may never be omitted in non-defining clauses.

The pronoun *whose* is used to indicate possession and usually refers to people:
The historian whose book was published recently.

The pronoun *whom* is the object form of *who* and is generally used after prepositions:

The historian to whom I wrote. The professor for whom you work.

Note that long and complex sentences with relative clauses are rarely used in spoken English and are uncommon in informal written English. It is more common to join shorter clauses with conjunctions.

Relative clauses may be replaced by the *-ing* form: *The historian teaching in Cambridge* (= *who is teaching*). They may also be replaced by an infinitive: *He has a lot of books to read* (= *that he must read*).

Exercise 1

Choose the most suitable word in each sentence.

- 1) That's the woman *that / who / whose* brother I work with.
- 2) We work for an agency *that / who / whom* offers research services.
- 3) The agency for *that / who / which* we work is run mainly by experts.
- 4) Volunteers, *to who / whom / which* some training is given, also help.
- 5) I enjoy my job, *which / that / who* gives me great satisfaction.
- 6) This is the office *who / that / where* we work in.
- 7) Our boss, *that / which / who* we both love, is an Oxford graduate.
- 8) She often gives us extra time off, *it / which / that* is really kind of her.

Exercise 2

Which relative pronouns may be omitted in the following sentences?

- 1) The British Library, which is based in London, has several reading rooms.
- 2) The advice from the information service that I rang was very useful.
- 3) The woman who answered the phone was most helpful.
- 4) The information that she gave me was very precise.
- 5) She advised me to apply for a library pass, which was a good idea.

- 6) The pass, which was free, gave me access to the King's Library Tower.
- 7) My work, which I have almost finished, improved after this extra study.
- 8) The result that I found most exciting was that I had some new research ideas.

PREPOSITIONS

In informal English, especially in spoken English, it is common to end relative clauses with the preposition. In formal, mainly written, English the preposition is placed before the relative pronoun. The pronouns *that* and *who* cannot be used after a preposition.

This is the article (that) I was looking for. (informal)

This is the article for which I was looking. (formal)

Ms Brown, who I spoke to, has been very helpful. (informal)

Ms Brown, to whom I spoke, has been very helpful. (formal)

Exercise 3

Join each pair of sentences to form one new sentence. Put the prepositions at the **end** – informal style.

- 1) Susan is a friend. I went to university with her.

- 2) I found the book. I was looking for it.

- 3) I read about a course. I want to go to it.

- 4) This is the painting. You told me about it.

- 5) He wrote the book. You have a positive opinion of it.

Exercise 4

Re-write the following sentences using a preposition at the **beginning** of the relative clause, inserting the appropriate relative pronoun – formal style.

1) The evidence he based his theory on was uncertain.

2) The decision they have come to is a just one.

3) Professor Peters is the man I obtained the information from.

4) That party has some policies I am opposed to.

5) The librarian I consulted with is extremely courteous.

RELATIVE ADVERBS

The adverbs *when*, *where* and *why* can be used to replace relative pronouns + prepositions.

The adverb *when* can replace *in/on which* in expressions of time:

the year when (in which) he started university
the day when (on which) he arrived

The adverb *where* can replace *in/at which* in expressions of place:

the city where (in which) he was born

The adverb *why* can replace *for which* after the verb *reason*:

the reason why (for which) he chose to study history

Exercise 5

Re-write the sentences using relative adverbs in place of relative pronouns.

1) I will never forget the day on which I won the essay prize.

2) She did not understand the reason for which he discontinued his studies.

3) The university at which I studied was very old.

4) June is the month in which we all sit our final examinations.

5) This is the study in which I have spent hours over my books.

Emphasis

The construction *It + be + noun/pronoun + defining relative clause* is used to give emphasis to a word or phrase.

Note how the emphasis changes in the following examples.

John helped me finish the essay yesterday.

It was John who helped me finish the essay yesterday.

It was the essay that John helped me finish yesterday.

It was I whose essay John helped finish yesterday.

It was yesterday that John helped me finish the essay.

Exercise 6

Re-write the sentences emphasising the word underlined.

1) She told the children the story last night.

2) She told the children the story last night.

3) She told the children the story last night.

4) She told the children the story last night.

FURTHER READING

The British historian Simon Schama makes use of a variety of different sources including bankruptcy inventories, cookbooks, poetry, prints and painting in his book The Embarrassment of Riches. An Interpretation of Dutch Culture in the Golden Age. It has been described as “a masterly re-ordering of nineteenth-century anecdotal antiquarianism along anthropological lines in the light of modern historical and art-historical scholarship” (Ivan Gaskell, Burlington Magazine 1988).

EX NUGIS SERIA: CHILD’S PLAY?

Nothing illustrates the peculiar bias of Netherlandish culture towards children and their world more graphically than the compendia of children’s games that they put into paint, print, and even wall tiles. It was a genre that seems to have been invented in the Netherlands, for although there are many instances of individual games being incorporated as anecdotal or allegorical detail in other medieval and Renaissance painting, nothing approached the Flemish and Dutch pictures in their systematically encyclopedic curiosity. Indeed, their eagerness to encode particular didactic meanings in each of the games and in their overall composition ought not to blind us to the sheer Rabelaisian pleasure in compilation—the collector’s list fetish—that was so marked a trait of humanist cultures. The urge to catalogue and classify human behaviour as well as flora and fauna, to order the richness and variety of natural phenomena, expressed itself visually in the “swarming” anthology pictures of Pieter Breugel the Elder. But at a less dazzling level of virtuosity, the prints of Hieronymus Cock and Frans Hogenberg, both members of the Antwerp circle of humanist scholars and collectors in which Breugel moved, testified to this preoccupation with profuseness in what was, after all, a very densely populated corner of the humanist universe.

But the *Children’s Games* series was more than simply another item in the taxonomist’s fascination with the *theatrum mundi* to put alongside the anthologies of festive practices in *The Battle Between Carnival and Lent* and that of native proverbs in *The Blue Cloak*. None of these subjects, after all, can sensibly be read as though it stands alone, innocent of any level of secondary meaning. We are not yet in the (relatively) dispassionate world of Enlightenment classification of material phenomena. For the Renaissance collector, the business of ordering knowledge was inextricably tied with generating normative hierarchies and making distinctions between categories of virtue and vice, wisdom and folly, good and evil.

The *Kinderspelen* series of pictures being no exception to this general rule, they are dense with ambivalence towards their ostensible subject. Acutely observant about child's play, they also express more sombre reflections on the world's folly. Recent art historical accounts have argued strenuously for either a moralizing or a ludic interpretation, but there is no reason why the two manners should be mutually exclusive. Arguably it was the essence of northern Renaissance style to bring together wit and teaching. And Rabelais's own list of games in *Gargantua* combines precisely the humanist relish for the swarming phenomenon and his passion to subdue its spontaneity through classification. Likewise the visual *Kinderspelen* embody the perennial conflicts between diversion and instruction, between freedom and obedience, between exploration and safety that were at the heart of contemporary attitudes towards the child. By situating the games not in some imaginary vacuum of time and space but in topographically meaningful—and sometimes recognizable—settings, nearly always with some public building, a town hall or guildhall, in view, they evoke the civic and public virtues to which the correctly brought-up child should be led. It is almost as though that civic architecture—the Abdij at Middelburg or the Binnenhof at The Hague—performs the function of didactic vigilance, a mute schoolmasterly presence watching, censoriously surveying the spectacle of uninhibited folly. They are, however, an inanimate presence, almost swamped (especially in the Breugel) by all kinds of animation. And on moving from emblematic prints to the more ambiguous realm of paintings, it is impossible not to feel that gravity is not infrequently undone by mischief and mirth. Not merely in the work of Steen, but in that of Jan Miense Molenaer and his wife, Judith Leyster, there is a kind of roguish ingratiation that levels down rather than up. So that the original Erasmian program by which levity is meant to lead to gravity—*ex nugis seria*—rebounds on its authors when adults are reduced to rompers. And into the tutor-pupil relation that was both humanist and the Calvinist ideal of family life, there crept, unmistakably, the more companionable and relaxed tone of a conversation piece.

Any doubt that these crowded scenes were intended as more than visual compilations should be dispelled by Jacob Cats's forthright text accompanying his *Kinderspel*, which he used as a preface both for *Houwelijck* and for some editions of *Silenus Alcibiadis*. "You may laugh," the poet says, "and think this is but childish work...well laugh away..."

*But while you with the children laugh
So would I have you ponder
That you are also in this very image
As well as in the children's play.*

*And I know of no one that has ever lived
That has not had his childish dolls
That has not sometimes romped and sometimes fell.
... This game though it seems without any sense
has a little world therein
[For] the world and its whole constitution
Is but a children's game.*

This is entirely faithful to the spirit (albeit a feeble echo) of Erasmian intellectual cunning through which sober truths are wittily presented as the vision of their opposite: mirthful folly. And the mask (of tragedy rather than comedy, it should be noted) leaning from the upper story, left, in Breugel's picture, as well as upside-down figures hanging from a form at the precise crossing point of the picture's diagonals, and very prominent in the head-stander, middle left—all supply just those kinds of oxymoronic visual clues that were a trademark of what might be called the Erasmian figurative style. It may be, of course, that it is anachronistic to use a seventeenth-century self-consciously emblematic text to decode a sixteenth-century painting. But aside from the Breugel's obvious standing as the prototype of all the many children's games prints that followed, it seems wildly improbable that humanist Antwerp would actually have been *less* attracted to the visual riddling and symbolic anthologies that remained popular for at least the first half of the following century.

It is not, in any case, any business of mine to offer yet another reading of Breugel's painting and so add to a rapidly growing interpretative literature. It may or may not be a view of the seasons of man as well as the calendar year, or a comment on “the role of chance in man's life.” When taken with the two Adriaen van de Venne prints for Cats's poem, the view of the Binnenhof at The Hague, probably by Jan van de Velde II, and other emblems and prints like those by Roemer Visscher and, much later, Luiken—what does the whole *topos* have to tell us about the Netherlandish view of children? First, although the Breugel children, from their costume, are not literally miniaturised adults, the boundary between adult and childish behavior is made deliberately weak, to the point that some of the faces have been thought to be prematurely grown-up. That response may in itself be due to an unduly modern (or at least nineteenth-century) stereotype of the pretty infant, but in other studies of children, where their features are treated in large detail, the effect is of anything but unworldly juvenility. And this is not simply a matter of descriptive conventions. Jan Luiken's children in his prints are quite obviously the “innocent lambs” of his text and are correspondingly idealized. Dutch painters, especially perhaps Jacob Gerritszoon Cuyp, who had something of a

speciality in wide-eyed babes, could, on commission, replicate the same reassuring image. But Molenaer's and Dirk Hals's and at least some of Jan Steen's children are ruddy-faced, wrinkle-eyed, gap-toothed and altogether too knowing for their own good.

Source: S. Schama, *The Embarrassment of Riches. An Interpretation of Dutch Culture in the Golden Age*. (Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1988).

GLOSSARY

wall tile = piastrella	to rebound = rimbalzare
to approach = avvicinarsi	romper = pagliaccetto
to encode = codificare	conversation piece = quadro di conversazione
overall = complessivo	dispelled = disperdere
to blind = accecate	forthright = esplicito
sheer = puro	to ponder = riflettere
trait = caratteristica	to romp = giocare allegramente
urge = impulso	albeit = sebbene
swarming = affollato	cunning = astuzia
dazzling = abbagliante	story (Am.E.) = piano
item = pezzo	upside-down = a testa in giù
Lent = Quaresima	form = panca
*sensibly = razionalmente	headstander = chi fa il verticale
ostensible = apparente	clue = indizio
sombre = scuro	trademark = marchio
strenuously = in modo energetico	self-consciously = consapevolmente
mutually exclusive = incompatibile	standing = importanza
arguably = forse	riddling = enigmi
wit = arguzia	costume = abito
relish = piacere	grown-up = cresciuto
to subdue = controllare	unduly = inappropriatamente
meaningful = significativo	unwordly = semplice, ingenuo
setting = ambiente	ruddy = rosso
guildhall = sede di corporazione	gap-toothed = dai denti radi
brought-up = educato	wrinkle-eyed = con le rughe agli occhi
swamped = sommerso	too knowing for their own good = troppo adulti per la loro età
undone = sciolto	
mischief = furberia	
roguish = bricconesco	
levity = leggerezza	

NOTES

Note the difference between the verb *to play* (giocare), the uncountable noun *play* (gioco, divertimento), the countable noun *play* (dramma/commedia), the countable noun *game* (gioco con regole), plural noun *game* (cacciagione) and the verb *to game* or *to gamble* (giocare d'azzardo).

When talking about children, the verb *to grow up* is intransitive: *I grew up in England*. The verb *to bring up* is transitive: *My parents brought me up very well*. The verb *to grow* is used transitively with plants: *She grows roses*. Note the adjectives: *a correctly brought-up child* *to be grown-up*.

Nouns can be turned into adjectives by the addition of the *-ed* suffix. The meaning is 'with': *ruddy-faced* *wrinkle-eyed* *gap-toothed*.

The blue-eyed woman. La donna dagli occhi azzurri.

COMPREHENSION

1. How does Shama explain why 16th-century Dutch paintings are so crowded?
 2. What conflicting concepts of childhood does he see in *Kinderspelen*?
 3. Do the paintings reveal a clear distinction between adult and child worlds in Netherlandish culture?

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-ly*, used to form adverbs, is also added to nouns to form adjectives meaning ‘having the nature or quality of’: *a schoolmasterly presence*. (= like a schoolmaster)

Write sentences using the adjectives formed from the following nouns.

- 1) friend _____

2) mother _____

3) coward _____

4) lone _____

5) brother _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

PREPOSITIONAL VERBS

A prepositional verb is a verb + preposition:

I'm waiting for you. *I'm looking at the proposal.*

The preposition is placed before the object:

I looked for the book. **not** *I looked the book for.*

Prepositions: *about, after, at, for, from, in, into, of, on, to, with.*

Some common prepositional verbs.

<i>account for</i>	<i>consist of</i>	<i>look after</i>
<i>agree with</i>	<i>deal with</i>	<i>look for</i>
<i>apply for</i>	<i>decide on</i>	<i>pay for</i>
<i>ask for</i>	<i>depend on</i>	<i>rely on</i>
<i>associate with</i>	<i>lead to</i>	<i>see to</i>
<i>believe in</i>	<i>listen to</i>	<i>talk about</i>
<i>care about</i>	<i>look at</i>	<i>talk to</i>

PHRASAL VERBS

A phrasal verb is a verb + adverb:

He brought up his daughter. *I put off the meeting until next week.*

The adverb can be placed either before or after the object:

I looked up the word in the dictionary.

I looked the word up in the dictionary.

I looked it up in the dictionary.

Adverbs: *about, away, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, round, through, up.*

Some common phrasal verbs.

<i>break down</i>	<i>find out</i>	<i>take off</i>
<i>break out</i>	<i>give up</i>	<i>take over</i>
<i>bring up</i>	<i>look up</i>	<i>think over</i>
<i>bring back</i>	<i>put aside</i>	<i>turn down</i>
<i>carry out</i>	<i>put off</i>	<i>work out</i>

Exercise 7

The following prepositional and phrasal verbs are found in the reading passages. Put the correct form of an appropriate verb in each space.

<i>be for</i>	<i>break down</i>	<i>carry out</i>	<i>deal with</i>
<i>draw on</i>	<i>lead to</i>	<i>point out</i>	<i>put forward</i>

- 1) He _____ his proposal for education reform.
- 2) I have to _____ all the problems that have arisen.
- 3) Social unrest can _____ revolution.
- 4) The current government _____ capital punishment.
- 5) They must _____ the instructions they have received.
- 6) He was so tired that he _____.
- 7) She _____ different sources for her essay.
- 8) The tutor _____ all the errors I had made.

Phrasal and prepositional verbs nearly always have a more formal, often Latinate, alternative:

She always turns up (= arrives) at the last minute.

He turned down (= refused) all the jobs he was offered.

It is important to be able to distinguish between a formal (often written) English style and more informal (often spoken) register. See Unit 9 for more examples.

Exercise 8

Re-write the following sentences substituting the phrasal and prepositional verbs with their more formal equivalent.

<i>abolish</i>	<i>continue</i>	<i>suppress</i>	<i>discover</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>raise</i>	<i>rise</i>	<i>seek</i>
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- 1) The minister *brought up* the question of capital punishment.
- 2) The university plans to *do away with* written examinations.
- 3) Costs will *go up* next year.
- 4) Scientists have been *looking for* a cure for cancer for decades.

- 5) The plot to blow up Parliament was *found out* just in time.
- 6) Prices have *gone down* rapidly.
- 7) The government *put down* the student rebellion.
- 8) Unemployment has *kept on* growing among young people.

TRANSLATION

- 1) È stato lui a scoprire la nuova fonte di informazione.
- 2) I suoi pregiudizi, che sono inaccettabili, l'hanno influenzato molto.
- 3) Le nostre ricerche sulla materia hanno una tendenza marxista.
- 4) Trovo l'argomento affascinante ma il metodo discutibile.
- 5) La loro posizione, che ha subito grandi cambiamenti, è ormai solida.
- 6) Alcuni considerano la questione di importanza vitale.
- 7) Quella storica, il cui campo è la storia economica, ha cercato dati nuovi.
- 8) La storia è la politica del passato, la politica è storia attuale.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Academic study

approach = metodo, impostazione
bias = pregiudizio
inquiry = ricerca
learning = cultura, sapere
***scholar** = studioso
scholarship = erudizione, sapere
source = fonte
standpoint = posizione
subject = argomento, materia
survey = esame, indagine
to define one's position = definire la propria posizione

to draw a conclusion = trarre una conclusione
to investigate = indagare
to pursue = ricercare
to question = mettere in dubbio, contestare
to record = registrare
to search for = cercare
topic = argomento, soggetto
trend = tendenza
view = visione, opinione

UNIT 15

MORAL QUESTIONS

Humans have always asked questions about what they ought to do, where duty lies, and what rights the individual possesses or grants to others. Humans are moral beings because they cannot evade choices. Since these choices are often difficult to make, humans have evolved systems of principles or morals—usually expressed by a religion or philosophy—in order to help make choices and measure actions. In this way humankind has some concrete and shared idea of what good and evil mean.

The question remains, particularly in a largely secular society, as to whether these principles are absolute—given, as it were, by some external and superior force—or whether they are created by the society. Fyodor Dostoevsky (1812-81) asserted that “If God does not exist, everything is permitted,” but it may be that our principles represent a consensus of rules that make living in a group possible.

Attitudes toward moral systems can be classified broadly into two types. Moral principles can be formulated and then applied whatever the consequences and regardless of the specific individual case. (Few if any values, however, have been so applied—men have been encouraged by many churches to kill in war, for instance.) In contrast to this “absolutist” approach to morality, a “utilitarian” approach to moral values is more usual today, whereby all the circumstances of the case are considered.

There is nothing really new about any present-day moral problems, but perhaps they are now more pressing than in previous ages because modern science has greatly increased the scope and range of the consequences of human decisions.

Scientific innovations and technological developments (e.g. in genetic engineering, information technology and the neurosciences) have great impact on the shaping of industrial societies. Their establishment raises questions concerning the moral dimensions of such developments. The compelling need to clarify what it means to act in a responsible way in particular situations continues to increase. Scientific innovations often force us to explore their possible consequences, to weigh alternatives and to evaluate different lines of action according to ethical criteria.

Research in ethics focusses on developments in medicine and aspects of environmental technology and biotechnology. The principles of ethical evaluation

are often controversial. Traditional forces in society which fostered consensus have lost their binding force. A result of this development is the emergence of a pluralistic discourse on what the generally accepted foundation of obligatory moral action on our part is.

Advances in medical science pose problems in unusual guises, from the morality of using animals in experiments to the question of exactly when organs for transplant surgery may be removed from "dead" donors. Another area of medical research—increased control over reproduction—has given new dimensions to one of the most intractable of moral questions: who has the right to decide in matters of life and death? The broad question of social responsibility and individual rights is also relevant to another area of birth control—"genetic engineering" and eugenics. The scientist could be faced with the morality of "improving the breed" at the expense of a couple's right to produce their own children.

The morality of preventing life—by birth control, sterilisation, or abortion—is closely linked with that of taking life. Voluntary euthanasia (mercy killing), for example, in the face of intolerable and incurable pain or because life has been reduced to vegetable existence, has been claimed as a fundamental human right. In such cases the conflicting moral arguments of the "absolutists" and "relativists" are thrown into sharpest relief.

Sometimes moral problems arise because the state wants to impose its will on the individual. Even if it stops short of executing undesirables, has society the right to order the sterilisation of a mentally retarded girl whose children are likely to be handicapped? Should it reform habitual criminals by aversion therapy or, more radically, by a brain operation that changes them irrevocably? The possibility of such methods being used by an unscrupulous or frightened state in order to control political dissidents is a fearful one.

All moral traditions, both religious and secular, find such radical measures repugnant because these traditions make humans the norm of morality and hold that one may not abuse the dignity of another person without harming oneself. The whole of humanity is ultimately interdependent and interrelated, and humans are responsible for each other and for future generations. In borderline situations there will always be conflicts of duties, but love and respect for other human beings and honesty in relationships provide, if not final answers, starting points on which to base any moral system.

"Moral Questions" in *The Random House Encyclopedia* (New York: Random House, 1990)

GLOSSARY

to grant = conferire
to evade = evitare
choice = scelta
humankind = genere umano
as it were = per così dire
regardless of = senza tener conto di
whereby = secondo il quale, in base
 al quale
present-day = attuale
scope = campo
range = portata
shaping = formare
to weigh = soppesare, considerare
to foster = favorire
binding = vincolante

to pose (a problem) = sollevare
guise = parvenza, forma
surgery = chirurgia
broad = generale
eugenics = eugenetica
breed = razza
to throw (threw, thrown) into relief
 = mettere in risalto
to stop short of = non arrivare a
to execute = giustiziare
undesirables = persone indesiderabili
brain operation = intervento al cer-
 vello
ultimately = in definitiva
borderline = limite

NOTES

Do not confuse the past forms of the verb *to die* with the related adjective *dead*:

He died last night. *Is he dead or alive?* *He has been dead for years.*

The reflexive function of English verbs is supplied by the use of reflexive pronouns which are necessary only when the subject and object of the verb are the same:

One may not abuse the dignity of another person without harming oneself.
He spoke to himself. *They looked at themselves in the mirror.*

The noun *will* refers either to the faculty of conscious choice (*volontà*) or to a document regarding property after one's death (*testamento*). A *living will* is a legal document in which people leave instructions about their choice of medical treatment, in case there comes a time when they are no longer capable of making decisions or of communicating them.

WORD STUDY

Unit 14 looked at the causative meanings of the suffixes *-ise/-ize*. The suffix *-ify* also has the same function: *to clarify* *to identify*

Write sentences using verbs from the following nouns and adjectives.

- 1) simple _____
- 2) quantity _____
- 3) intense _____
- 4) quality _____
- 5) just _____

GRAMMAR REVIEW

ONE

The difference between *one* and *a/an* has been looked at in Unit 7.

One is also used as an impersonal indefinite pronoun:

One may not abuse the dignity of another person.

The more informal pronoun is *you*:

You may not abuse the dignity of another person.

We and *they* are also used with less generic reference.

The indefinite reflexive pronoun is *oneself*; the possessive form is *one's*.

One may not abuse one's own dignity without harming oneself.

One is used with adjectives to refer to a previously mentioned noun. It can have a singular or a plural reference:

The possibility of such methods being used is a fearful one.

Present-day moral problems are often similar to ancient ones.

One is also used in constructions with *another* and *other(s)*.

Humans are responsible for one another.

An alternative construction is *each other*:

Humans are responsible for each other.

Exercise 1

Revise the section on *one/a(n)* in Unit 7 and correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

- 1) He has done a useful research on bioethics.
- 2) I have learnt to use one computer.

- 3) One day I want to become moral philosopher.
- 4) They met at one interesting conference.
- 5) A person can make the decision, not two.
- 6) Moral questions often involve a life and death.
- 7) Only a choice is possible.
- 8) The rights of one mentally retarded person should never be abused.

NONE

Do not confuse *none* ('not one' or 'not any') with *no-one* ('no person').

None of the choices could be accepted. No-one is able to make a decision.

In formal writing, *none* is followed by a singular verb; in informal speech it is followed by a plural verb:

None of the choices is acceptable. None of us want to leave.

Exercise 2

Use *none*, *no-one* or *no* in the following sentences.

- 1) _____ can answer that question for you.
- 2) I think _____ of those people will help you.
- 3) _____ other person can make that decision.
- 4) _____ of the doctors gave me any advice.
- 5) Let's hope _____ has to make a similar decision.
- 6) I can stand the situation _____ longer.
- 7) Some of the doctors are hopeful; _____ are totally pessimistic.
- 8) But I believe there is really _____ hope left.

SOME AND ANY

Some and *any* are used as adjectives before plural countable nouns or mass nouns. *Some* is used in affirmative sentences, or in requests and offers. *Any* is used in negative and interrogative sentences.

Some choices must be made. He didn't want to make any decisions.

Some and *any* are also used as pronouns.

Some of the choices were moral ones. *I didn't like any of them.*

Some believe in euthanasia; others do not.

Some before a singular noun can have the meaning *un qualche/una qualche*:

some concrete and shared idea

some external power

Any with a positive verb can have the meaning *qualsiasi*:

Any of the choices will be difficult to make.

Exercise 3

Use *some*, *any* or compounds in the following sentences.

- 1) _____ moral issues are extremely painful to discuss.
- 2) He hated _____ mention of his mother's death.
- 3) _____ will tell you the decision is yours.
- 4) _____ solution will be dreadful - I don't care any more.
- 5) He has got _____ strange notion that he is going to die.
- 6) _____ has to take responsibility.
- 7) I don't know _____ who doesn't think about death sometimes.
- 8) Do _____ still believe society has the right to sterilise people?

EACH AND EVERY

The pronoun *each* refers to members of a group individually:

There were three choices. Each was unacceptable.

It functions also as an adjective: *Each choice is unacceptable.*

Every refers to members of a group collectively: *Every choice is difficult.*

Every can only be an adjective, but its compounds function as pronouns:

Everyone must make a decision. *Everything could be discussed.*

Each and *every* are used with a singular verb, but plural pronouns:

Each of us wants to do it their way.

Every person must make their (his/her) own decision.

Everyone is here, aren't they?

Exercise 4

Use *each*, *every* or compounds in the following sentences.

- 1) The doctors don't know _____ about his illness.
- 2) _____ patient is asked individually about the treatment they prefer.
- 3) The doctors asked _____ to sign a living will.
- 4) The patients signed three copies _____.
- 5) _____ single copy was certified by a notary.
- 6) This is done _____ in England.
- 7) _____ is happy with this procedure, aren't they?
- 8) _____ of the patients agreed to their treatment.

ALL AND WHOLE

All can be both pronoun and adjective and refers to a group as a whole:

All moral traditions find such measures repugnant. *All of them agreed.*

All as a pronoun is used in formal or slightly old-fashioned contexts:

All were prepared for death. *All we found except one.*

Everyone is the more informal alternative:

Everyone was prepared for death.

All is synonymous to *whole* in a singular reference:

He studied philosophy all his life / his whole life.

Note the difference in the plural.

He stood still the whole time (the entire period) *the battle lasted.*

He stood still all the times (repeated events) *they attacked him.*

Other expressions with *all* are:

all that = tutto ciò (che)

above all = soprattutto

all but = quasi

after all = dopo tutto

once and for all = una volta per tutte

not at all = per niente

all at once = improvvisamente

Exercise 5

Use *all* or *whole* in the following sentences.

- 1) I have never heard of anything so immoral in _____ my life.

- 2) The right to euthanasia is being discussed in the _____ of Europe.
- 3) The _____ problem is due to the doctors' lack of sensitivity.
- 4) _____ of them need to think more carefully about human rights.
- 5) _____ the world must become more aware of the issue.
- 6) In this clinic, _____ organs are transplanted.
- 7) I need a check up of my _____ body.
- 8) The _____ of humanity is responsible for medical ethics.

EITHER - NEITHER - BOTH

Either, neither and both all refer to two items.

Compare:

Genetic engineering and euthanasia are moral questions.

Both must be discussed at length.

Either could become a personal issue.

Neither must be dismissed as a purely medical issue.

Exercise 6

Rewrite each sentence so that it includes the pronoun, without changing the meaning.

- 1) Everyone studied the plan to use animals in the experiment. (all)
-

- 2) They both agree to the project. (each)
-

- 3) Whenever I visit that laboratory, I see new things. (every)
-

- 4) I listened to both plans, but liked neither of them. (either)
-

- 5) All of the scientists were worried about the decision. (none)
-

- 6) Both proposals had problems. (neither)
-

7) To hope for the best is the only thing that you can do. (all)

8) There wasn't anyone who protested openly. (no)

FURTHER READING

Colin Allen (1960-) is Associate Professor of Philosophy at the Texas A&M University. His main area of research is on scientific theories of the mind, particularly with respect to non-human animals (cognitive ethology). Some of his best-known publications are Species of Mind (1997), which was translated into Italian as Il pensiero animale, and Nature's Purposes: analyses of function and design in biology (1998)

ANIMAL CONSCIOUSNESS

In discussions of non-human animal (hereafter “animal”) consciousness there is no clearly agreed upon sense in which the term “consciousness” is used. As a part of folk psychology, “consciousness” has a multitude of uses that may not be resolvable into a single, coherent concept. Two ordinary senses of consciousness which are not in dispute when applied to animals are the difference between wakefulness and sleep (or unconsciousness), and the ability of organisms to perceive (and in this sense be conscious or aware of) selected features of their environments. Many psychologists, influenced by a history of anecdotal anthropomorphism in 19th-century comparative psychology and the countervailing swing to behaviorism, regard any attempt to go beyond these uses of consciousness as entirely unscientific.

Two remaining senses of consciousness that cause controversy are the qualitative, subjective, or experiential aspects of animal consciousness (*qualia*) and self-consciousness. Philosophers of mind who turn their attention to animal consciousness (or sentience) are typically concerned with the former, whereas cognitive ethologists and some comparative psychologists have paid rather more attention to the latter. In the rest of this article “consciousness” is used to refer to the qualitative or phenomenological nature of experience, unless otherwise noted.

Philosophical interest in animal consciousness

The topic of animal consciousness has been primarily of epistemological interest to philosophers of mind. Two central questions are:

1. Which animals besides humans have conscious experiences?
2. What, if anything, are the experiences of animals like?

These questions might be seen as special cases of the general skeptical problem of other minds. But it is often thought that knowledge of animal minds presents a special problem because we cannot use language to ask animals about their experiences. Philosophical theories of consciousness are frequently developed without special regard to questions about animal consciousness. The plausibility of such theories can often be assessed against the results of their application to animal consciousness.

Philosophical interest in animal consciousness also arises in the context of theories of the ethical treatment of animals. It is a widely accepted conditional statement that if animals lack sentience (especially the capacity for feeling pain) then they deserve no moral consideration. Some philosophers have defended the view that animals are not sentient and attempted to employ this conditional for *modus ponens*; others are inclined to use it for *modus tollens* and make it a requirement of any theory of consciousness that it justify attributions of consciousness to animals.

Animal consciousness and intentionality

Qualitative consciousness is just one feature (some would say the defining feature) of mental states or events. Any theory of animal consciousness must be understood in the context of a larger account of animal mentality that will also be concerned with issues such as mental content and intentionality in the sense described by the 19th-century German psychologist Franz Brentano (not to be confused with intentional in the sense of “purposeful”). Opinion divides over the relation of consciousness to intentionality with some philosophers maintaining that they are strictly independent, others arguing that intentionality is necessary for consciousness, and still others arguing that consciousness is necessary for genuine intentionality.

Many scientists who accept cognitive explanations of animal behavior that attribute representational states to their subjects are hesitant to attribute consciousness. If the representations invoked within cognitive science are intentional in Brentano’s sense, then these scientists seem committed to denying that consciousness is necessary for intentionality.

Science and animal consciousness

Because consciousness is assumed to be private or subjective, it is often taken to be beyond the reach of objective scientific methods. This claim might be taken in either of two ways. On the one hand it might be taken to reject the possibility of knowledge that a member of another taxonomic group (e.g. a bat) has conscious states. On the other hand it might be taken to reject the possibility of knowledge of the phenomenological details of the mental states of a member of another taxonomic group. The difference between believing with justification that a bat is conscious and knowing “what it is like” to be a bat is important because, at best, the privacy of conscious experience supports a negative conclusion only about the latter. To support a negative conclusion about the former one must also assume that consciousness has absolutely no measurable effects on behavior. If consciousness does have effects then a strategy of inference to the best explanation may be used to support its attribution. A challenge for those who think that this is possible is to articulate the relationship between attributions of consciousness and behavioral or neurological evidence.

Historical views

Aristotle took the ability to reason as the characteristic that distinguishes humans from other animals. Modern philosophers, including Descartes, Locke, Leibniz, also regarded the human capacity to reason as qualitatively different from the capacities of nonhuman animals. Descartes thought that animals’ inability to reason is demonstrated by their inability to use language and he took this to show that animals are not sentient. However Locke and Leibniz, although they both maintained that animals are incapable of reason, both thought that animal perception is accompanied by some degree of consciousness. Hume thought that much human behavior required a degree of reasoning that could be matched by animals and he seemed to regard the sentience of animals as plainly evident.

Prospects for progress on animal consciousness

Although there is a very long history of discussion by philosophers of animal consciousness, philosophers have shown themselves rather more willing to theorize on the basis of what they thought animals could or could not do rather than on the basis of the available empirical evidence about animal behavior. The topic of animal consciousness is still taboo for many psychologists. But interdisciplinary work between philosophers and behavioral scientists is beginning to lay the groundwork for treating some questions about consciousness in a philosophically sophisticated yet empirically tractable way.

Source: Colin Allen, “Animal Consciousness”. Reprinted from *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Winter 1997 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/win1997/entries/consciousness-animal/> (The most up-to-date version of this article may be found at the URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/consciousness-animal/>).

GLOSSARY

consciousness = coscienza

agreed upon = concordato

folk = popolare

wakefulness = stato di veglia

sleep = sonno

conscious of = consci di

aware of = consapevole di

countervailing swing to =

movimento compensatore verso

behaviorism = comportamentismo

experiential = empirico

sentience = facoltà di sentire

besides = oltre a

skeptical = scettico

to assess = valutare

to lack = mancare

to deserve = meritarsi

requirement = requisito

feature = aspetto

defining = caratterizzante

purposeful = determinato

cognitive science = cognitivismo

committed = impegnato

reach = portata

bat = pipistrello

privacy = intimità

challenge = sfida

inability = incapacità

degree = grado

to match = pareggiare

to lay (laid, laid) the groundwork =
formare le basi

NOTES

Note the use of the simple present tense, active and passive, in this passage for ‘timeless’ universal statements.

The adverb *still* can be translated as *tuttora*: *The topic is still taboo*.

It can also be used with the meaning of *ancora*:

Opinion divides...with some philosophers maintaining that..., others arguing that..., and still others arguing that...

Still may also be used in informal language with the meaning of *tuttavia*:

Animals do not talk. Still, many think they may be conscious beings.

Note the American spelling in the words *behavior*, *behavioral*, *behaviorism* (British English: *behaviour*, *behavioural*, *behaviourism*), *skeptical* (British English: *sceptical*), *theorize* (British English: *theorise*). See Appendix VI for other differences between American and British English.

COMPREHENSION

1. How does Allen define “consciousness”?
2. What context has given rise to contemporary philosophical interest in animal consciousness?
3. What has been seen as the classical difference between humans and animals?

WORD STUDY

The suffix *-an* (*-ean* or *-ian*) is often added to proper nouns to refer to something connected with or typical of the person's work or the period in which they lived: *Cartesian thought* *present-day Darwinians*.

Use words formed from the following proper nouns.

Queen Elizabeth I *Malthus* *Freud* *Aristotle* *Shakespeare*

- 1) She is a _____ scholar who specialises in his poetry.
- 2) _____ logic was used by the Stoics and the Sceptics.
- 3) David Ricardo and other classical economists are all neo-_____.
- 4) The _____ church blended Calvinistic and Catholic elements.
- 5) _____ psychoanalysis is popular in the United States.

GRAMMAR REVIEW

SEXISM AND POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

Considerable attention is now paid in English to avoid terms and language which denigrate women or make them invisible. Here are some of the most widespread changes and developments.

Names

The title *Mr* refers to both married and single men whereas emphasis was traditionally placed on a woman's marital status by the term *Mrs* (for a married woman) and *Miss* (for a single woman). Today the title *Ms* (pronounced *miz*) to refer to both married and single women is widely accepted.

Jobs

The specific use of the suffix *-ess* to refer to women is often no longer used:
actress → *actor* *authoress* → *author* *poetess* → *poet*

References to traditional female jobs have been made neutral to include men:
matron → *senior nursing officer* *cleaning lady* → *domestic help*
headmistress (headmaster) → *head teacher*

References to traditional male jobs have also been made neutral to include women:

<i>spokesman</i> → <i>spokesperson</i>	<i>chairman</i> → <i>chair, chairperson</i>
<i>garbage man</i> → <i>garbage collector</i>	<i>workman</i> → <i>worker, labourer</i>

Generic reference

The pronoun *he (him, his)* has traditionally been used to refer to both females and males. This should now be avoided. The English language does not have a single pronoun that refers to both men and women. However, some alternatives are:

he or she - he/she - s/he - one - you.

The reader must make sure s/he does not lose his or her place.

A better solution is the use of a plural noun and the plural pronoun *they/their*.
Readers must make sure they do not lose their place.

In academic writing, *he* and *she* are often used alternately, or the feminine pronoun *she* is used throughout.

The word *man* has traditionally been used to describe humanity in general. Today the following alternatives are more acceptable:

man, mankind → *humanity, human beings, the human race, men and women*
manpower → *workforce, staff, human resources*
man-made → *artificial, manufactured*
the man in the street → *a typical person, the average person*

Some more radical inventions have been *herstory* (history focussing on women's achievements), and *womin/wimmin* (a transcription of 'woman' and 'women' avoiding the word 'man' or 'men').

Exercise 7

Rewrite these sentences making them “politically correct”.

1) The first men lived in caves.

2) A bad workman always blames his tools.

3) While the policemen held back the crowd, the firemen put out the fire.

4) The author must use his ability to bring his characters to life.

5) The head mistress of every school is responsible for her students.

ELECTRONIC CITATIONS

To cite an entire Web site, it is sufficient to give the address of the site in the text: *Useful philosophy documents can be found in The Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy at <http://plato.stanford.edu>. The Philosophical Dictionary at <http://www.newberry.edu/acad/phil/dict/> is also useful.*

The citation for a Web document contains much of the same information found in a print document (author, title, date, etc.). It is therefore generally set out as follows:

Author's name, "Title of Page". *Name of database or project*. (Date of posting or update), Name of Organisation or editor. Electronic address or URL.

A. Irvine, "Bertrand Russell", *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Fall 1999 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall1999/entries/russell/>

Note how the article *Animal Consciousness* has been cited above.

TRANSLATION

Italian, too, now pays greater attention to political correctness, especially in official documents where certain guidelines have been set out by the government (*Raccomandazioni per un uso non sessista della lingua italiana*). As in English, it is suggested that generic male reference should be avoided where possible (not *i cittadini* but *le cittadine e i cittadini*; not *uomo* but *persona*). The feminine form of professional titles should be used (*ministra, assessora*) with the exception of those ending in *-essa* (*poetessa, avvocatessa*) which are considered by some to be denigratory, and which become *avvocata, poeta*. Unlike the changes in the English language, which have become generally accepted, the Italian situation is still being hotly debated.

- 1) Sia l'etica che la metafisica sono campi della filosofia.
- 2) Non mi interessa né l'una né l'altra materia.
- 3) Non concordo con l'utilizzo degli animali negli esperimenti scientifici.
- 4) Credo che gli animali abbiano tutti gli stessi sentimenti che abbiamo noi.
- 5) L'uomo della strada pensa alle sue posizioni etiche.
- 6) La teoria su come dovrebbe vivere un uomo è oggi la più discussa.
- 7) Alcuni accettano l'idea, altri la rifiutano, altri ancora sono indecisi.
- 8) Ciascuno deve chiarire la propria definizione di responsabilità.

FURTHER USEFUL VOCABULARY: Bioethics

abortion = interruzione di gravidanza
biogenetics = biogenetica
biotechnology = biotecnologia
birth control = controllo delle nascite
consciousness = coscienza
environmental technology = tecnologia ambientale
eugenics = eugenetica
euthanasia = eutanasia
genetic engineering = ingegneria genetica
hazard = rischio

IVF = fertilizzazione in vitro
informed consent = consenso informato
medical knowledge = conoscenza medica
mercy killing = eutanasia, morte pietosa
sterilisation = sterilizzazione
therapeutic procedures = pratiche terapeutiche
to alleviate suffering = alleviare la sofferenza
to execute = giustiziare
to kill = uccidere

FOR FURTHER READING

The following passages have been included to permit students to practice the various skills that have been developed in the first part of the book.

Here are some suggestions as to how each passage might be used.

1. Reading quickly (scanning) to acquire a general idea of the information in the passage.
2. Note-taking to focus on the author's main points.
3. Guessing unknown words with the help of the prefixes and suffixes from the Word Study sections and listed in Appendix II.
4. Examining formal and informal vocabulary, looking at phrasal and prepositional verbs and their Latinate equivalents.
5. Drawing up a glossary of the difficult terms found in each passage with their Italian translation.
6. Finding other useful words related to the topic or theme to create a personal vocabulary set.
7. Examining aspects of historical English or American English (spelling, grammar, and vocabulary).
8. Writing a brief summary to list the main ideas in the passage, using some of the techniques found in Part I (stating, contrast, reporting, sequencing, cause and effect, comparing, describing trends).

Francis Bacon, NOVUM ORGANUM

Philosopher and statesman, Francis Bacon (1561-1626) studied at Cambridge and was called to the bar in 1582. An MP, he was knighted by James I in 1603 and held a series of high-ranking positions: solicitor general, attorney general, privy counsellor, Lord Keeper, and Lord Chancellor. However, he was publicly accused of accepting bribes from suitors in his court, brought before his fellow peers, fined, imprisoned, and banished from parliament and the court. Although soon released, and later pardoned, he never returned to public office, and he died in London, deeply in debt. His two best-known philosophical works are The Advancement of Learning (1605) and Novum Organum (1620).

Bacon delineated the principles of the inductive scientific method, which constituted a breakthrough in the approach to science. Bacon argued that the only knowledge of importance to man was empirically rooted in the natural world, and that a clear system of scientific inquiry would assure man's mastery over the world.



Preface to the second part of the work which is called *novum organum*; or, true suggestions for the interpretation of nature.

THEY who have presumed to dogmatize on Nature, as on some well-investigated subject, either from self-conceit or arrogance, and in the professorial style, have inflicted the greatest injury on philosophy and learning. For they have tended to stifle and interrupt inquiry exactly in proportion as they have prevailed in bringing others to their opinion: and their own activity has not counterbalanced the mischief they have occasioned by corrupting and destroying that of others. They again who have entered upon a contrary course, and asserted that nothing whatever can be known, whether they have fallen into this opinion from their hatred of the ancient sophists, or from the hesitation of their minds, or from an exuberance of learning, have certainly adduced reasons for it which are by no means contemptible. They have not, however, derived their opinion from true sources, and, hurried on by their zeal, and some affectation, have certainly exceeded due moderation. But the more ancient Greeks (whose writings have perished) held a more prudent mean, between the arrogance of dogmatism, and the despair of skepticism; and though too frequently intermingling complaints and indignation at the difficulty of inquiry, and the obscurity of things, and champing, as it were, the bit, have still persisted in pressing their point, and pursuing their inter-

course with nature: thinking, as it seems, that the better method was not to dispute upon the very point of the possibility of any thing being known, but to put it to the test of experience. Yet they themselves, by only employing the power of the understanding, have not adopted a fixed rule, but have laid their whole stress upon intense meditation, and a continual exercise and perpetual agitation of the mind.

Our method, though difficult in its operation, is easily explained. It consists in determining the degrees of certainty, whilst we, as it were, restore the senses to their former rank, but generally reject that operation of the mind which follows close upon the senses, and open and establish a new and certain course for the mind from the first actual perceptions of the senses themselves. This no doubt was the view taken by those who have assigned so much to logic; showing clearly thereby that they sought some support for the mind, and suspected its natural and spontaneous mode of action. But this is now employed too late as a remedy, when all is clearly lost, and after the mind, by the daily habit and intercourse of life, has become prepossessed with corrupted doctrines, and filled with the vainest idols. The art of logic therefore being (as we have mentioned) too late a precaution, and in no way remedying the matter, has tended more to confirm errors, than to disclose truth. Our only remaining hope and salvation is to begin the whole labour of the mind again; not leaving it to itself, but directing it perpetually from the very first, and attaining our end as it were by mechanical aid. If men, for instance, had attempted mechanical labours with their hands alone, and without the power and aid of instruments, as they have not hesitated to carry on the labours of their understanding with the unaided efforts of their mind, they would have been able to move and overcome but little, though they had exerted their utmost and united powers. And, just to pause a while on this comparison, and look into it as a mirror; let us ask, if any obelisk of a remarkable size were perchance required to be moved, for the purpose of gracing a triumph or any similar pageant, and men were to attempt it with their bare hands, would not any sober spectator avow it to be an act of the greatest madness? And if they should increase the number of workmen, and imagine that they could thus succeed, would he not think so still more? But if they chose to make a selection, and to remove the weak, and only employ the strong and vigorous, thinking by this means, at any rate, to achieve their object, would he not say that they were more fondly deranged? Nay, if, not content with this, they were to determine on consulting the athletic art, and were to give orders for all to appear with their hands, arms, and muscles regularly oiled and prepared, would he not exclaim that they were taking pains to rave by method and design? Yet men are hurried on with the same senseless energy and useless combination in intellectual matters, so long as

they expect great results either from the number and agreement, or the excellence and acuteness of their wits; or even strengthen their minds with logic, which may be considered as an athletic preparation, but yet do not desist (if we rightly consider the matter) from applying their own understandings merely with all this zeal and effort. Whilst nothing is more clear, than that in every great work executed by the hand of man without machines or implements, it is impossible for the strength of individuals to be increased, or for that of the multitude to combine.

Having premised so much, we lay down two points on which we would admonish mankind, lest they should fail to see or to observe them. The first of these is: that it is our good fortune, (as we consider it,) for the sake of extinguishing and removing contradiction and irritation of mind, to leave the honour and reverence due to the ancients untouched and undiminished, so that we can perform our intended work, and yet enjoy the benefit of our respectful moderation. For if we should profess to offer something better than the ancients, and yet should pursue the same course as they have done, we could never, by any artifice, contrive to avoid the imputation of having engaged in a contest or rivalry as to our respective wits, excellences, or talents; which, though neither inadmissible or new, (for why should we not blame and point out any thing that is imperfectly discovered or laid down by them, of our own right, a right common to all) yet, however just and allowable, would perhaps be scarcely an equal match, on account of the disproportion of our strength. But, since our present plan leads us to open an entirely different course to the understanding, and one unattempted and unknown to them, the case is altered. There is an end to party zeal, and we only take upon ourselves the character of a guide, which requires a moderate share of authority and good fortune, rather than talents and excellence. This first admonition relates to persons, the next to things.

We make no attempt to disturb the system of philosophy that now prevails, or any other which may or will exist, either more correct or more complete. For we deny not that the received system of philosophy, and others of a similar nature, encourage discussion, embellish harangues, are employed and are of service in the duties of the professor, and the affairs of civil life. Nay, we openly express and declare that the philosophy we offer will not be very useful in such respects. It is not obvious, nor to be understood in a cursory view, nor does it flatter the mind in its preconceived notions, nor will it descend to the level of the generality of mankind, unless by its advantages and effects.

Let there exist then (and may it be of advantage to both) two sources, and two distributions of learning, and in like manner two tribes, and as it were kindred

families of contemplators or philosophers, without any hostility or alienation between them; but rather allied and united by mutual assistance. Let there be, in short, one method of cultivating the sciences, and another of discovering them. And as for those who prefer and more readily receive the former, on account of their haste, or from motives arising from their ordinary life, or because they are unable from weakness of mind to comprehend and embrace the other, (which must necessarily be the case with by far the greater number,) let us wish that they may prosper as they desire in their undertaking, and attain what they pursue. But if any individual desire and is anxious not merely to adhere to and make use of present discoveries, but to penetrate still further, and not to overcome his adversaries in disputes, but nature by labour, not, in short, to give elegant and specious opinions, but to know to a certainty and demonstration, let him, as a true son of science, (if such be his wish,) join with us; that when he has left the antechambers of nature trodden by the multitude, an entrance at last may be discovered to her inner apartments. And, in order to be better understood, and to render our meaning more familiar by assigning determinate names, we have accustomed ourselves to call the one method the anticipation of the mind, and the other the interpretation of nature.

We have still one request left. We have at least reflected and taken pains in order to render our propositions not only true, but of easy and familiar access to men's minds, however wonderfully prepossessed and limited. Yet it is but just that we should obtain this favour from mankind, (especially in so great a restoration of learning and the sciences) that whosoever may be desirous of forming any determination upon an opinion of this our work, either from his own perceptions, or the crowd of authorities, or the forms of demonstrations, he will not expect to be able to do so in a cursory manner, and whilst attending to other matters; but in order to have a thorough knowledge of the subject, will himself by degrees attempt the course which we describe and maintain; will become accustomed to the subtlety of things which is manifested by experience; and will correct the depraved and deeply rooted habits of his mind by a seasonable and as it were just hesitation: and then finally (if he will) use his judgment when he has begun to be master of himself.

Source: Francis Bacon, “Preface” to *Novum Organum* in *The Works*. Ed. and trans. Basil Montague. (Philadelphia: Parry & MacMillan, 1854).

John Evelyn, THE GREAT FIRE IN LONDON

In 1666, the “Great Fire” burned out of control in London for five days. It started in a bakery in Pudding Lane and quickly spread through the closely-built wooden houses in the surrounding streets. It destroyed approximately 80% of the city, including about 13,200 houses, 87 churches and St. Paul’s Cathedral. Most of medieval London burned down. The city was rebuilt quickly, largely on plans by the architect Sir Christopher Wren, and new houses were built in stone to minimise the risk of great fires. Furthermore, a monument designed by Wren was built in remembrance of the fire. It is 203 feet high, which is the exact distance from the Monument to the origin of the fire.

John Evelyn (1620-1706), English diarist and author, was a founder of the Royal Society (1660). He wrote on reforestation, natural science, art history, and numismatics, but is best known for his Diary (published in 1818), which contains a great deal of historical information on 17th-century England.



1666. 2d Sept. This fatal night about ten began that deplorable fire near Fish Streete in London.

3d. The fire continuing, after dinner I took coach with my wife and sonn and went to the Bank side in Southwark, where we beheld that dismal spectacle, the whole citty in dreadful flames near ye water side; all the houses from the Bridge, all Thames Street, and upwards towards Cheapeside, downe to the Three Cranes, were now consum'd. The fire having continu'd all this night (if I may call that night which was light as day for 10 miles round about, after a dreadful manner), when conspiring with a fierce eastern wind in a very drie season, I went on foote to the same place, and saw the whole south part of ye citty burning from Cheapside to ye Thames, and all along Cornehill (for it kindl'd back against ye wind as well as forward), Tower Streete, Fenchurch Streete, Gracious Streete, and so along to Bainard's Castle, and was now taking hold of St Paule's church, to which the scaffolds contributed exceedingly. The conflagration was so universal, and the people so astonish'd, that from the beginning, I know not by what despondency or fate, they hardly stirr'd to quench it so that there was nothing heard or seene but crying out and lamentation, running about like distracted creatures, without at all attempting to save even their goods, such a strange consternation there was upon them, so as it burned both in breadth and length, the churches, publiq halls, exchange, hospitals, monuments, and ornaments, leaping after a prodi-

gious manner from house to house and streeete to streeete, at greate distances one from ye other; for ye heate with a long set of faire and warme weather had even ignited the air, and prepar'd the materials to conceive the fire, which devour'd, after an incredible manner, houses, furniture, and every-thing. Here we saw the Thames cover'd with goods floating, all the barges and boates laden with what some had time and courage to save, as, on ye other, ye carts, &c. carrying out to the fields, which for many miles were stew'd with moveables of all sorts, and tents erecting to shelter both the people and what goods they could get away. Oh the miserable and calamitous spectacle! Such as haply the world had not seene the like since the foundation of it, nor be outdone till the universal conflagration. All the skie was of a fiery aspect, like the top of a bruning oven, the light seene above 40 miles round about for many nights. God grant my eyes may never behold the like, now seeing above 10,000 houses all in one flame: the noise, and crackling, and thunder of the impetuous flames, ye shrieking of women and children, the hurry of people, the fall of towers, houses, and churches, was like an hideous storme, and the aire all about so hot and inflam'd, that at last one was not able to approach it, so that they were forc'd to stand still and let ye flames burn on, wch they did for neere two miles in length. Thus I left it this afternoone burning, are semblance of Sodom or the last day. London was, but is no more!

4th. The burning still rages, and it was now gotten as far as the Inner Temple, all Fleet Streete, the Old Bailey, Ludgate Hill, Warwick Lane, Newgate, Paul's Chain, Watling Streete, now flaming, and most of it reduc'd to ashes; the stones of Paules flew like granados, ye mealting lead running downe the streetes in a streame, and the very pavements glowing with fiery rednesse, so as no horse nor man was able to tread on them, and the demolition had stopp'd all the passages, so that no help could be applied. The eastern wind still more impetuously drove the flames forward. Nothing but ye Almighty power of God was able to stop them, for vaine was ye help of man.

5th. It crossed towards Whitehall: Oh the confusion there was then at that court! It pleased his Maty to command me among ye rest to looke after the quenching of Fetter Lane and, to preserve if possible, that part of Holborn, whilst the rest of ye gentlemen tooke their several posts (for now they began to bestir themselves, and not till now, who hitherto had stood as men intoxicated, with their hands acrosse), and began to consider that nothing was likely to put a stop but the blowing up of so many houses, as might make a wider gap than any had yet ben made by the ordinary method of pulling them down with engines; this some stout seamen propos'd early enough to have sav'd near ye whole citty, but this some tenacious and avaritious men, alder-

men, &c., would not permit, because their houses must have ben of the first. It was therefore now commanded to be practis'd, and my concern being particularly for the hospital of St Bartholomew, neere Smithfield, where I had any wounded and sick men, made me the more diligent to promote it, nor was my care for the Savoy lesse. It now pleas'd God, by abating the wind, and by the industrie of ye people, infusing a new spirit into them, that the fury of it began sensibly to abate about noone, so as it came no farther than ye Temple westward, nor than ye entrance of Smithfield north. But continu'd all this day and night so impetuous towards Cripplegate and the Tower, as made us all despaire; it also broke out againe in the Temple, but the courage of the multitude persisting, and many houses being blown up, such gaps and desolations were soone made, as with the former three days' consumption, the back fire did not so vehemently urge upon the rest as formerly. There was yet no standing neere the burning and glowing ruines by neere a furlong's space. The coale and wood wharves and magazines of oyle, rosin, &c. did infinite mischeife, so as the invective which a little before I had dedicated to his Maty, and publish'd, giving warning what might probably be the issue of suffering those shops to be in the city, was look'd on as a prophecy. The poore inhabitants were dispers'd about St George's Fields, and Moorefields, as far as Highgate, and severall miles in circle, some under tents, some under miserable hutts and hovells, many without a rag or any necessary utensills, bed or board, who, from delicatenesse, riches, and easy accommodations in stately and well furnis'd houses, were now reduc'd to extreamest misery and poverty. In this calamitous condition, I return'd with a sad heart to my house, blessing and adoring the mercy of God to me and mine, who in the midst of all this ruine was like Lot, in my little Zoar, safe and sound.

7th. I went this morning on foote fm Whitehall as far as London Bridge, thro' the late Fleet Street, Ludgate Hill, by St Paules, Cheapeside, Exchange, Bishopgate, Aldersgate, and out to Moorefields, thence thro' Cornehill, &c., with extraordinary difficulty, clambering over heaps of yet smoking rubbish, and frequently mistaking where I was. The ground under my feete was so hot, that it even burnt the soles of my shoes. In the meantime his Maty go to the Tower by water, to demolish ye houses about the graff, which being built entirely around it, had they taken fire and attack'd the White Tower where the magazine of powder lay, would undoubtedly not only have beaten downe and destroy'd all ye bridge, but sunke and torne the vessells in ye river, and render'd ye demolition beyond all expression for several miles about the countrey. At my return, I was infinitely concern'd to find that goodly church St Paules, now a sad ruine, and that beautiful portico (for structure comparable to any in Europe, and not long before repaired by the king) now rent in pieces, flakes of past stone split asunder, and nothing remaining intire but the

inscription in the architrave, showing by whom it was built, which had not one letter of it defac'd. It was astonishing to see what immense stones the heat in a manner calcin'd, so that all ye ornaments, columns, freezes, and projectures of massie Portland stone flew off, even to ye very roofe, where a sheet of lead covering a great space was totally mealted; the ruines of the vaulted roofe falling broke into St Faith's, which being filled with the magazines of bookees belonging to ye stationers, and carried thither for safety, they were all consum'd, burning for a weeke following. It is also observable, that the lead over ye altar at ye east end was untouch'd, and among the divers monuments, the body of one bishop remain'd intire. Thus lay in ashes that most venerable church, one of the most ancient pieces of early piety in ye Christian world, besides neere 100 more. The lead, yron worke, bells, plates, &c., mealted; the exquisitely wrought Mercers Chapell, the sumptuous Exchange, ye august fabriq of Christ Church, all ye rest of the Companies Halls, sumptuous buildings, arches, all indust; the fountaines dried up and ruin'd, whilst the very waters remain'd boiling; the vorago's of subterranean cellars, wells, and dungeons, formerly warehouses, still burning in stench and dark clouds of smoke, so that in 5 or 6 miles, in traversing about, I did not see one load of timber unconsum'd, nor many stones but what were calcin'd white as snow. The people who now walk'd about ye ruins appear'd like men in a dismal desart, or rather in some greate city laid waste by a cruel enemy; to which was added the stench that came from some poore creatures bodies, beds, &c. Sir Tho. Gressham's statute, tho' fallen from its nich in the Royal Exchange, remain'd intire, when all those of ye kings since ye Conquest were broken to pieces, also the standard in Cornehill, and Q. Elizabeth's effigies, with some armes on Ludgate, continued with but little detriment, whilst the vast yron chaines of the city streetes, hinges, barrs, and gates of prisons, were many of them mealted and reduc'd to cinders by ye vehement heate. I was not able to passe through any of the narrow streetes, but kept the widest; the ground and air, smoake and fiery vapour continu'd so intense, tha my haire was almost sing'd, and my feete unsufferably sur-heated. The bie lanes and narrower streets were quite fill'd up with rubbish, nor could one have knowne where he was, but by ye ruines of some church or hall, that had some remarkable tower or pinnacle remaining. I then went towards Islington and Highgate, where one might have seene 200,000 people of all ranks and degrees dispers'd and lying along by their heapes of what they could save from the fire, deploring their losse; and tho' ready to perish for hunger or destitution, yet not asking one penny for relief, which to me appear'd a stranger sight than any I had yet beheld. His Majesty and Council indeede tooke all imaginable care for their relieve, by proclamation for the country to come in and refresh them with provisions. In ye midst of all this calamity and confusioin, there was, I know not how, an alarme begun that the French and Dutch,

with whom we were now in hostility, were not onely landed, but even entering the city. There was, in truth, some days before, greate suspicion of those 2 nations joining; and now, that they had ben the occasion of firing the towne. This report did so terrifie, that on a suddaine there was such an up-roare and tumult, that they ran from their goods, and taking what weapons they could come at, they could not be stopp'd from falling on some of those nations, whom they casualy met, without sense or reason. The clamour and peril grew so excessive, that it made the whole court amaz'd, and they did with infinite paines and greate difficulty reduce and appease the people, sending troops of soldiers and guards to cause them to retire into ye fields againe, where they were watch'd all this night. I left them pretty quiet, and came home sufficiently weary and broken. Their spirits thus a little calmed, and the affright abated, they now began to repaire into ye suburbs about the city, where such as had friends or opportunity got shelter for the present, to which his Matys proclamation had also invited them.

Source: John Evelyn, *Diary*. Ed. W. Bray. (London: Henry G. Bohn, 1862).

Thomas Sprat, THE HISTORY OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON

The Royal Society was founded in 1660 by a number of scholars, including Christopher Wren, Robert Boyle and Robert Moray. Meetings to discuss the new “experimental” philosophy had been held since 1645 in London and Oxford. King Charles II granted the Society its first Charter on 15 July 1662. In 1665, the Society started publishing their findings in Philosophical Transactions, the first scientific journal in English. The motto of the Society, Nullius in verba, from Horace, expresses the determination of early Fellows to verify all statements by an appeal to facts. Until 1847, Fellowship was open to all those interested in the “new philosophy”, but from 1848 elections have been limited in number and to those distinguished for original scientific work. Today the Society is the UK Academy of Science and has 1150 Fellows.

Thomas Sprat (1635-1713) was an English cleric, poet, and scientist, who became bishop of Rochester in 1684. He was one of the first fellows of the Royal Society, of which he published a history in 1667. He also wrote a history of the Rye House Plot, a conspiracy to assassinate Charles II. Sprat’s work argued the case for an experimental approach to natural phenomena against both the old scholastic philosophy and general conservative prejudice.



From *History of the Royal Society of London, For the Improving of Natural Knowledge: Their Manner of Discourse*

There is nothing of all the works of Nature, so inconsiderable, so remote, or so fully known; but, by being made to reflect on other things, it will at once enlighten them, and shew it self the clearer. Such is the dependance amongst all the orders of creatures; the inanimate, the sensitive, the rational, the natural, the artificial: that the apprehension of one of them, is a good step toward the understanding of the rest: And this is the highest pitch of humane reason; to follow all the links of this chain, till all their secrets are open to our minds; and their works advanc'd, or imitated by our hands. This is truly to command the world; to rank all the varieties, and degrees of things, so orderly one upon another; that standing on the top of them, we may perfectly behold all that are below, and make them all serviceable to the quiet, and peace, and plenty of Man's life. And to this happiness, there can be nothing else added: but that we make a good second advantage of this rising ground, thereby to look the nearer into heaven: An ambition, which though it was punish'd in the old World, by an universal Confusion; when it was manag'd with impiety, and

insolence: yet, when it was carried on by that humility and innocence, which can never be separated from true knowledge; when it was design'd, not to brave the Creator of all things, but to admire him the more: it must needs be the utmost perfection of humane Nature.

Thus they have directed, judg'd, conjectur'd upon, and improved Experiments. But lastly, in these, and all other business, that have come under their care; there is one thing more, about which the Society has been most sollicitous; and that is, the manner of their Discourse: which, unless they had been very watchful to keep in due temper, the whole spirit and vigour of their Design, had been soon eaten out, by the luxury and redundancy of Speech. The ill effects of this superfluity of talking, have already overwhel'd most other Arts and Professions; insomuch, that when I consider the means of happy living, and the causes of their corruption, I can hardly forbear recanting what I said before; and concluding, that eloquence ought to be banish'd out of all civil societies, as a thing fatal to Peace and good Manners. To this opinion I should wholly incline; if I did not find, that it is a Weapon, whic may be as easily procur'd by bad men, as good: and that, if these should onely cast it away, and those retain it; the naked Innocence of vertue, would be upon all occasions expos'd to the armed Malice of the wicked. This is the chief reason, that should now keep up the Ornaments of speaking, in any request; since they are so much degenerated from their original usefulness. They were at first, no doubt, an admirable Instrument in the hands of Wise Men: when they were onely employ'd to describe Goodness, Honesty, Obedience; in larger, fairer, and more moving Images: to represent Truth, cloth'd with Bodies; and to bring Knowledge back again to our very senses, from whence it was at first deriv'd to our understandings. But now they are generally chang'd to worse uses: They make the Fancy disgust the best things, if they come found, and unadorn'd: they are in open defiance against Reason; professing, not to hold much correspondence with that; but with its slaves, the passions: they give the mind a motion too changeable, and bewitching, to consist with right practice. Who can behold, without indignation, how many mists and uncertainties, these specious Tropes and Figures have brought to our Knowledge?

How many rewards, which are due to more profitable, and difficult arts, have been still snatch'd away by the easie vanity of fine speaking? For now I am warmed with this just anger, I cannot withhold my self, from betraying the shallowness of all these seeming Mysteries; upon which, we writers, and speakers, look so big. And, in few words, I dare say; that of all the studies of men, nothing may be sooner obtained, than this vicious abundance of phrase, this trick of metaphors, this volubility of tongue, which makes so great a

noise in the world. But I spend words in vain; for the evil is now so inveterate, that it is hard to know whom to blame, or where to begin to reform. We all value one another so much, upon this beautiful deceipt; and labour so long after it, in the years of our education: that we cannot but ever after think kinder of it, than it deserves. And indeed, in most other parts of Learning, I look on it to be a thing almost utterly desperate in its cure; and I think it may be placed amongst those general mischiefs; such as the dissention of Christian Princes, the want of practice in religion, and the like; which have been so long spoken against, that men are become insensible about them; every one shifting off the fault from himself to others; and so they are only made bare common places of complaint. It will suffice my present purpose to point out, what has been done by the Royal Society, towards the correcting of its excesses in Natural Philosophy; to which it is, of all others, a most present enemy.

They have therefore been most rigorous in putting in execution, the only remedy that can be found for this extravagance: and that has been, a constant resolution, to reject all the amplifications, digressions, and swellings of style: to return back to the primitive purity, and shortness, when men delivered so many things, almost in an equal number of words. They have exacted from all their members, a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses; a native easiness: bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness, as they can: and preferring the language of Artizans, Countrymen, and Merchants, before that, of Wits, or Scholars.

And here, there is one thing, not to be passed by, which will render this established custom of the Society, well nigh everlasting; and that is, the general constitution of the minds of the English. I have already often insisted on some of the prerogatives of England; whereby it may justly claim, to be the head of a Philosophical League, above all other countries in Europe: I have urged its situation, its present genius, and the disposition of its merchants; and many more such arguments to incourage us, still remain to be used: But of all others, this, which I am now alledging, is of the most weighty, and important consideration. If there can be a true character given of the universal temper of any nation under Heaven; then certainly this must be ascribed to our Countrymen: that they have commonly an unaffected sincerity; that they love to deliver their minds with a sound simplicity; that they have the middle qualities, between the reserved subtle southern, and the rough unhewn northern people: that they are more concerned, what others will think of the strength, than of the fineness of what they say: and that an universal modesty possesses them. These qualities are so conspicuous, and proper to our soil; that we often hear them objected to us, by some of our neighbour satyrists, in

more disgraceful expressions. For they are wont to revile the English, with a want of familiarity; with a melancholy dumpishness; with slowness, silence, and with the unrefined sullenness of their behaviour. But these are only the reproaches of partiality, or ignorance: for they ought rather to be commended for an honourable integrity; for a neglect of circumstances, and flourishes; for regarding things of greater moment, more than less; for a scorn to deceive as well as to be deceived: which are all the best indowments, that can enter into a Philosohical Mind. So that even the position of our climate, the air, the influence of the heaven, the composition of the English blood; as well as the embraces of the ocean, seem to joyn with the labours of the Royal Society, to render our country, a land of Experimental knowledge. And it is a good sign, that Nature will reveal more of its secrets to the English, than to others; because it has already furnished them with a genius so well proportioned, for the receiving, and retaining its mysteries.

And now, to come to a close of the second part of the Narration: the Society has reduced its principal observations, into one common-stock; and laid them up in publique registers, to be nakedly transmitted to the next generation of men; and so from them, to their successors. And as their purpose was, to heap up a mixt mass of experiments, without digesting them into any perfect model; so to this end, they confined themselves to no order of subjects; and whatever they have recorded, they have done it, not as compleat schemes of opinions, but as bare unfinished histories.

In the order of their inquisitions, they have been so free; that they have sometimes committed themselves to be guided, according to the seasons of the year: sometimes, according to what any foreiner, or English Artificer, being present, has suggested: sometimes, according to any extraordinary accident in the nation, or any other casualty, which has hapned in their way. By which roving, and unsettled course, there being seldom any reference of one matter to the next; they have prevented others, nay even their own hands, from corrupting, or contracting the work: they have made the raising of rules, and propositions, to be a far more difficult task, than it would have been, if their registers had been more methodical. Nor ought this neglect of consequence, and order, to be only thought to proceed from their carelesness; but from a mature, and well grounded praemeditation. For it is certain, that a too sudden striving to reduce the Sciences, in their beginnings, into Method, and shape, and beauty; has very much retarded their increase. And it happens to the invention of arts, as to children in their younger years: in whose bodies, the same applications, that serve to make them strait, slender, and comely; are often found very mischievous, to their ease, their strength, and their growth.

By their fair, and equal, and submissive way of registering nothing, but Histories, and Relations; they have left room for others, that shall succeed, to change, to augment, to approve, to contradict them, at their discretion. By this, they have given Posterity a far greater power of judging them; than ever they took over those, that went before them. By this, they have made a firm confederacy, between their own present labours, and the industry of future ages; which how beneficial it will prove hereafter, we cannot better ghesse, than by recollecting, what wonders it would in all likelihood have produced e'ree this; if it had been begun in the times of the Greeks, or Romans, or Scholemen; nay even in the very last resurrection of learning. What depth of nature, could by this time have been hid from our view? What faculty of the soul would have been in the dark? What part of human infirmities, not provided against? if our predecessors, a thousand, nay, even a hundred, years ago, had begun to add by little, and little to the store: if they would have indeavoured to be benefactors, and not tyrants over our reasons; if they would have communicated to us, more of their works, and less of their wit.

This complaint, which I here take up, will appear the juster; if we consider, that the first learned times of the ancients and all those, that followed after them, down to this day, would have received no prejudice at all; if their philosophers had chiefly bestowed pains, in making Histories of Nature, and not in forming of Sciences: perhaps indeed the names of some particular men, who had the luck to compile those Systemes and Epitomes which they gave us, would have been less glorious, than they are. Though that too may be doubted: and (if we may conclude any thing surely, upon a matter so changeable, as Fame is) we have reason enough to believe, that these later ages would have honoured Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, and Epicurus, as much, if not more, than now they do; if they had only set things in a way of propagating experiences down to us; and not imposed their imaginations on us, as the only truths. This may be well enough supposed; seeing it is common to all mankind, still to esteem dearer the memories of their friends, than of those that pretend to be their masters.

Source: Thomas Sprat, *History of the Royal Society of London, For the Improving of Natural Knowledge*. 1667. Part Two, Section xx. 4th ed. (London, 1734).

John Locke, AN ESSAY CONCERNING HUMAN UNDERSTANDING

John Locke (1632-1704) became interested in experimental science during his medical studies at Christ Church, Oxford. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in 1668. His knowledge of medicine and occasional practice of the art led to an acquaintance with the Earl of Shaftesbury, which was to affect his career greatly. He became a member of Shaftesbury's household where, besides providing medical care, he assisted him in public business, commercial and political, and followed him into the government service. When Shaftesbury was made Lord Chancellor in 1672, Locke became his secretary, and, in the following year, was made secretary to the Board of Trade. Locke worked with Shaftesbury to block the succession of the Roman Catholic James, Duke of York, later James II, to the throne. They were unsuccessful, and both were forced to flee England: Locke lived in Holland from 1683 until James II's overthrow. When he returned to England in 1689, the Essay concerning Human Understanding took on its final form, and an abstract of it was first published in 1688.

In his Essay concerning Human Understanding, Locke established the principles of modern Empiricism (the human mind begins as a tabula rasa, and we learn through experience), attacking the rationalist doctrine of innate ideas. His other important works Two Treatises of Government (1690) were written in defence of the Glorious Revolution and upheld that government rests on popular consent, and rebellion is permissible when government subverts the ends for which it is established.

**BOOK II *Of Ideas*****Chapter I *Of Ideas in general, and their Original***

1. Idea is the object of thinking. Every man being conscious to himself that he thinks; and that which his mind is applied about whilst thinking being the ideas that are there, it is past doubt that men have in their minds several ideas,- such as are those expressed by the words whiteness, hardness, sweetness, thinking, motion, man, elephant, army, drunkenness, and others: it is in the first place then to be inquired, How he comes by them?

I know it is a received doctrine, that men have native ideas, and original characters, stamped upon their minds in their very first being. This opinion I have at large examined already; and, I suppose what I have said in the foregoing Book will be much more easily admitted, when I have shown whence

the understanding may get all the ideas it has; and by what ways and degrees they may come into the mind;- for which I shall appeal to every one's own observation and experience.

2. All ideas come from sensation or reflection. Let us then suppose the mind to be, as we say, white paper, void of all characters, without any ideas:- How comes it to be furnished? Whence comes it by that vast store which the busy and boundless fancy of man has painted on it with an almost endless variety? Whence has it all the materials of reason and knowledge? To this I answer, in one word, from EXPERIENCE. In that all our knowledge is founded; and from that it ultimately derives itself. Our observation employed either, about external sensible objects, or about the internal operations of our minds perceived and reflected on by ourselves, is that which supplies our understandings with all the materials of thinking. These two are the fountains of knowledge, from whence all the ideas we have, or can naturally have, do spring.

3. The objects of sensation one source of ideas. First, our Senses, conversant about particular sensible objects, do convey into the mind several distinct perceptions of things, according to those various ways wherein those objects do affect them. And thus we come by those ideas we have of yellow, white, heat, cold, soft, hard, bitter, sweet, and all those which we call sensible qualities; which when I say the senses convey into the mind, I mean, they from external objects convey into the mind what produces there those perceptions. This great source of most of the ideas we have, depending wholly upon our senses, and derived by them to the understanding, I call SENSATION.

4. The operations of our minds, the other source of them. Secondly, the other fountain from which experience furnisheth the understanding with ideas is,- the perception of the operations of our own mind within us, as it is employed about the ideas it has got;- which operations, when the soul comes to reflect on and consider, do furnish the understanding with another set of ideas, which could not be had from things without. And such are perception, thinking, doubting, believing, reasoning, knowing, willing, and all the different actings of our own minds;- which we being conscious of, and observing in ourselves, do from these receive into our understandings as distinct ideas as we do from bodies affecting our senses. This source of ideas every man has wholly in himself; and though it be not sense, as having nothing to do with external objects, yet it is very like it, and might properly enough be called internal sense. But as I call the other SENSATION, so I Call this REFLECTION, the ideas it affords being such only as the mind gets by reflecting on its own operations within itself. By reflection then, in the follow-

ing part of this discourse, I would be understood to mean, that notice which the mind takes of its own operations, and the manner of them, by reason whereof there come to be ideas of these operations in the understanding. These two, I say, viz. external material things, as the objects of SENSATION, and the operations of our own minds within, as the objects of REFLECTION, are to me the only originals from whence all our ideas take their beginnings. The term operations here I use in a large sense, as comprehending not barely the actions of the mind about its ideas, but some sort of passions arising sometimes from them, such as is the satisfaction or uneasiness arising from any thought.

5. All our ideas are of the one or the other of these. The understanding seems to me not to have the least glimmering of any ideas which it doth not receive from one of these two. External objects furnish the mind with the ideas of sensible qualities, which are all those different perceptions they produce in us; and the mind furnishes the understanding with ideas of its own operations. These, when we have taken a full survey of them, and their several modes, combinations, and relations, we shall find to contain all our whole stock of ideas; and that we have nothing in our minds which did not come in one of these two ways. Let any one examine his own thoughts, and thoroughly search into his understanding; and then let him tell me, whether all the original ideas he has there, are any other than of the objects of his senses, or of the operations of his mind, considered as objects of his reflection. And how great a mass of knowledge soever he imagines to be lodged there, he will, upon taking a strict view, see that he has not any idea in his mind but what one of these two have imprinted; - though perhaps, with infinite variety compounded and enlarged by the understanding, as we shall see hereafter.

6. Observable in children. He that attentively considers the state of a child, at his first coming into the world, will have little reason to think him stored with plenty of ideas, that are to be the matter of his future knowledge. It is by degrees he comes to be furnished with them. And though the ideas of obvious and familiar qualities imprint themselves before the memory begins to keep a register of time or order, yet it is often so late before some unusual qualities come in the way, that there are few men that cannot recollect the beginning of their acquaintance with them. And if it were worth while, no doubt a child might be so ordered as to have but a very few, even of the ordinary ideas, till he were grown up to a man. But all that are born into the world, being surrounded with bodies that perpetually and diversely affect them, variety of ideas, whether care be taken of it or not, are imprinted on the minds of children. Light and colours are busy at hand everywhere, when the eye is but open; sounds and some tangible qualities fail not to solicit their proper

senses, and force an entrance to the mind; - but yet, I think, it will be granted easily, that if a child were kept in a place where he never saw any other but black and white till he were a man, he would have no more ideas of scarlet or green, than he that from his childhood never tasted an oyster, or a pine-apple, has of those particular relishes.

7. Men are differently furnished with these, according to the different objects they converse with. Men then come to be furnished with fewer or more simple ideas from without, according as the objects they converse with afford greater or less variety; and from the operations of their minds within, according as they more or less reflect on them. For, though he that contemplates the operations of his mind, cannot but have plain and clear ideas of them; yet, unless he turn his thoughts that way, and considers them attentively, he will no more have clear and distinct ideas of all the operations of his mind, and all that may be observed therein, than he will have all the particular ideas of any landscape, or of the parts and motions of a clock, who will not turn his eyes to it, and with attention heed all the parts of it. The picture, or clock may be so placed, that they may come in his way every day; but yet he will have but a confused idea of all the parts they are made up of, till he applies himself with

attention, to consider them each in particular.

[...]

20. No ideas but from sensation and reflection, evident, if we observe children. I see no reason, therefore, to believe that the soul thinks before the senses have furnished it with ideas to think on; and as those are increased and retained, so it comes, by exercise, to improve its faculty of thinking in the several parts of it; as well as, afterwards, by compounding those ideas, and reflecting on its own operations, it increases its stock, as well as facility in remembering, imagining, reasoning, and other modes of thinking.

[...]

22. The mind thinks in proportion to the matter it gets from experience to think about. Follow a child from its birth, and observe the alterations that time makes, and you shall find, as the mind by the senses comes more and more to be furnished with ideas, it comes to be more and more awake; thinks more, the more it has matter to think on. After some time it begins to know the objects which, being most familiar with it, have made lasting impressions. Thus it comes by degrees to know the persons it daily converses with, and distinguishes them from strangers; which are instances and effects of its coming to retain and distinguish the ideas the senses convey to it. And so we may observe how the mind, by degrees, improves in these; and advances to the exercise of those other faculties of enlarging, compounding, and ab-

stracting its ideas, and of reasoning about them, and reflecting upon all these; of which I shall have occasion to speak more hereafter.

[...]

24. The original of all our knowledge. In time the mind comes to reflect on its own operations about the ideas got by sensation, and thereby stores itself with a new set of ideas, which I call ideas of reflection. These are the impressions that are made on our senses by outward objects that are extrinsical to the mind; and its own operations, proceeding from powers intrinsical and proper to itself, which, when reflected on by itself, become also objects of its contemplation- are, as I have said, the original of all knowledge. Thus the first capacity of human intellect is,- that the mind is fitted to receive the impressions made on it; either through the senses by outward objects, or by its own operations when it reflects on them. This is the first step a man makes towards the discovery of anything, and the groundwork whereon to build all those notions which ever he shall have naturally in this world. All those sublime thoughts which tower above the clouds, and reach as high as heaven itself, take their rise and footing here: in all that great extent wherein the mind wanders, in those remote speculations it may seem to be elevated with, it stirs not one jot beyond those ideas which sense or reflection have offered for its contemplation.

Source: John Locke, *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. 1690.

Book II, Chapter 1.

Archaic spellings have been reduced in this edition.

Daniel Defoe, ON THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN

At the end of the of the seventeenth century there was still a close link between education and the Church, as the parishes were responsible for providing teaching in reading and religion. The grammar schools were firmly established in the market towns, and from 1698 onwards, the Charity Schools were set up by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, in which prayers and Bible reading were an integral part of the curriculum. The Puritans, expelled from the Church of England, set up their own schools, the Dissenting Academies, where the religious teaching reflected their own beliefs. Education was mainly reserved for males belonging to the affluent middle and upper classes. Many people shared the views of James I that "to make women learned and foxes tame had the same effect; to make them more cunning." Women were excluded from the grammar schools, the public schools or the universities, but towards the end of the century the Quakers established 15 boarding schools of which two were co-educational and two were exclusively for girls. There were also a few private boarding schools for the daughters of the rich, devoted mainly to teaching the art of being a gentle wife.

Daniel Defoe (c. 1661-1731) is often considered the father of modern journalism. He wrote for 26 periodicals, and published the journal "The Review" (1704-13). He produced several great novels: The Life and Strange Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe (1719), often considered the first novel in English; the picaresque novels Moll Flanders (1722), Roxana and Colonel Jack; and A Journal of the Plague Year (1722), an effective example of fiction disguised as fact.

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I have often thought of it as one of the most barbarous customs in the world, considering us as a civilised and a Christian country, that we deny the advantages of learning to women. We reproach the sex every day with folly and impertinence; while I am confident, had they the advantages of education equal to us, they would be guilty of less than ourselves.

One would wonder, indeed, how it should happen that women are conversible at all; since they are only beholden to natural parts, for all their knowledge. Their youth is spent to teach them to stitch and sew or make baubles. They are taught to read, indeed, and perhaps to write their names, or so; and that is the height of a woman's education. And I would but ask any who slight the sex for their understanding, what is a man (a gentleman, I mean)

good for, that is taught no more? I need not give instances, or examine the character of a gentleman, with a good estate, or a good family, and with tolerable parts; and examine what figure he makes for want of education.

The soul is placed in the body like a rough diamond; and must be polished, or the lustre of it will never appear. And 'tis manifest, that as the rational soul distinguishes us from brutes; so education carries on the distinction, and makes some less brutish than others. This is too evident to need any demonstration. But why then should women be denied the benefit of instruction? If knowledge and understanding had been useless additions to the sex, God Almighty would never have given them capacities; for he made nothing needless. Besides, I would ask such, What they can see in ignorance, that they should think it a necessary ornament to a woman? or how much worse is a wise woman than a fool? or what has the woman done to forfeit the privilege of being taught? Does she plague us with her pride and impertinence? Why did we not let her learn, that she might have had more wit? Shall we upbraid women with folly, when 'tis only the error of this inhuman custom, that hindered them from being made wiser?

The capacities of women are supposed to be greater, and their senses quicker than those of the men; and what they might be capable of being bred to, is plain from some instances of female wit, which this age is not without. Which upbraids us with Injustice, and looks as if we denied women the advantages of education, for fear they should vie with the men in their improvements. . . .

[They] should be taught all sorts of breeding suitable both to their genius and quality. And in particular, Music and Dancing; which it would be cruelty to bar the sex of, because they are their darlings. But besides this, they should be taught languages, as particularly French and Italian: and I would venture the injury of giving a woman more tongues than one. They should, as a particular study, be taught all the graces of speech, and all the necessary air of conversation; which our common education is so defective in, that I need not expose it. They should be brought to read books, and especially history; and so to read as to make them understand the world, and be able to know and judge of things when they hear of them.

To such whose genius would lead them to it, I would deny no sort of learning; but the chief thing, in general, is to cultivate the understandings of the sex, that they may be capable of all sorts of conversation; that their parts and judgements being improved, they may be as profitable in their conversation as they are pleasant.

Women, in my observation, have little or no difference in them, but as they are or are not distinguished by education. Tempers, indeed, may in some degree influence them, but the main distinguishing part is their Breeding. The whole sex are generally quick and sharp. I believe, I may be allowed to say, generally so: for you rarely see them lumpish and heavy, when they are children; as boys will often be. If a woman be well bred, and taught the proper management of her natural wit, she proves generally very sensible and retentive.

And, without partiality, a woman of sense and manners is the finest and most delicate part of God's Creation, the glory of Her Maker, and the great instance of His singular regard to man, His darling creature: to whom He gave the best gift either God could bestow or man receive. And 'tis the sordidest piece of folly and ingratitude in the world, to withhold from the sex the due lustre which the advantages of education gives to the natural beauty of their minds.

A woman well bred and well taught, furnished with the additional accomplishments of knowledge and behaviour, is a creature without comparison. Her society is the emblem of sublimer enjoyments, her person is angelic, and her conversation heavenly. She is all softness and sweetness, peace, love, wit, and delight. She is every way suitable to the sublimest wish, and the man that has such a one to his portion, has nothing to do but to rejoice in her, and be thankful.

On the other hand, Suppose her to be the very same woman, and rob her of the benefit of education, and it follows If her temper be good, want of education makes her soft and easy. Her wit, for want of teaching, makes her impertinent and talkative. Her knowledge, for want of judgement and experience, makes her fanciful and whimsical. If her temper be bad, want of breeding makes her worse; and she grows haughty, insolent, and loud. If she be passionate, want of manners makes her a termagant and a scold, which is much at one with Lunatic. If she be proud, want of discretion (which still is breeding) makes her conceited, fantastic, and ridiculous.

And from these she degenerates to be turbulent, clamorous, noisy, nasty, the devil!

The great distinguishing difference, which is seen in the world between men and women, is in their education; and this is manifested by comparing it with the difference between one man or woman, and another.

And herein it is that I take upon me to make such a bold assertion, That all the world are mistaken in their practice about women. For I cannot think that God Almighty ever made them so delicate, so glorious creatures; and furnished them with such charms, so agreeable and so delightful to mankind; with souls capable of the same accomplishments with men: and all, to be only Stewards of our Houses, Cooks, and Slaves.

Not that I am for exalting the female government in the least: but, in short, I would have men take women for companions, and educate them to be fit for it. A woman of sense and breeding will scorn as much to encroach upon the prerogative of man, as a man of sense will scorn to oppress the weakness of the woman. But if the women's souls were refined and improved by teaching, that word would be lost. To say, the weakness of the sex, as to judgement, would be nonsense; for ignorance and folly would be no more to be found among women than men.

I remember a passage, which I heard from a very fine woman. She had wit and capacity enough, an extraordinary shape and face, and a great fortune: but had been cloistered up all her time; and for fear of being stolen, had not had the liberty of being taught the common necessary knowledge of women's affairs. And when she came to converse in the world, her natural wit made her so sensible of the want of education, that she gave this short reflection on herself: "I am ashamed to talk with my very maids," says she, "for I don't know when they do right or wrong. I had more need go to school, than be married."

I need not enlarge on the loss the defect of education is to the sex; nor argue the benefit of the contrary practice. 'Tis a thing will be more easily granted than remedied. This chapter is but an Essay at the thing: and I refer the Practice to those Happy Days (if ever they shall be) when men shall be wise enough to mend it.

Source: Daniel Defoe, "On The Education of Women" in *English essays from Sir Philip Sidney to Macaulay*. (New York: Collier [c1910]).
Archaic spellings have been reduced in this edition.

T.H. Huxley, EVOLUTION AND ETHICS

T.H. Huxley (1825-1895) was a nineteenth-century anatomist and physical anthropologist. He was Professor of the Royal College of Surgeons and President of the Royal Society from 1881 to 1885. Huxley had an important influence upon thought in Victorian England and was an advocate of Charles Darwin's theories on evolution, which earned him the title "Darwin's bulldog". In his book Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature (1863), he offered proof for Darwin's thesis of natural selection. He is best remembered today for his prominent role in defending evolution against attacks from scientists, theists, and philosophers.



Modern thought is making a fresh start from the base whence Indian and Greek philosophy set out; and, the human mind being very much what it was six-and-twenty centuries ago, there is no ground for wonder if it presents indications of a tendency to move along the old lines to the same results.

We are more than sufficiently familiar with modern pessimism, at least as a speculation; for I cannot call to mind that any of its present votaries have sealed their faith by assuming the rags and bowl of the mendicant Bhikku, or the wallet of the Cynic. The obstacles placed in the way of sturdy vagrancy by an unphilosophical police have, perhaps, proved too formidable for philosophical consistency. We also know modern speculative optimism, with its perfectibility of the species, reign of peace, and lion and lamb transformation scenes; but one does not hear so much of it as one did forty years ago; indeed, I imagine it is to be met with more commonly at the tables of the healthy and wealthy, than in the congregations of the wise. The majority of us, I apprehend, profess neither pessimism nor optimism. We hold that the world is neither so good, nor so bad, as it conceivably might be; and, as most of us have reason, now and again, to discover that it can be. Those who have failed to experience the joys that make life worth living are, probably, in as small a minority as those who have never known the griefs that rob existence of its savour and turn its richest fruits into mere dust and ashes.

Further, I think I do not err in assuming that, however diverse their views on philosophical and religious matters, most men are agreed that the proportion of good and evil in life may be very sensibly affected by human action. I never heard anybody doubt that the evil may be thus increased, or diminished; and it would seem to follow that good must be similarly susceptible of addition or subtraction. Finally, to my knowledge, nobody professes to doubt that, so far forth as we possess a power of bettering things, it is our para-

mount duty to use and to train all our intellect and energy to this supreme service of our kind.

Hence the pressing interest of the question, to what extent modern progress in natural knowledge, and, more especially, the general outcome of that progress in the doctrine of evolution, is competent to help us in the great work of helping one another?

The propounders of what are called the “ethics of evolution,” when the “evolution of ethics” would usually better express the object of their speculations, adduce a number of more or less interesting facts and more or less sound arguments in favour of the origin of the moral sentiments, in the same way as other natural phenomena, by a process of evolution. I have little doubt, for my own part, that they are on the right track; but as the immoral sentiments have no less been evolved, there is, so far, as much natural sanction for the one as the other. The thief and the murderer follow nature just as much as the philanthropist. Cosmic evolution may teach us how the good and the evil tendencies of man may have come about; but, in itself, it is incompetent to furnish any better reason why what we call good is preferable to what we call evil than we had before. Some day, I doubt not, we shall arrive at an understanding of the evolution of the aesthetic faculty; but all the understanding in the world will neither increase nor diminish the force of the intuition that this is beautiful and that is ugly.

There is another fallacy which appears to me to pervade the so-called “ethics of evolution.” It is the notion that because, on the whole, animals and plants have advanced in perfection of organisation by means of the struggle for existence and the consequent “survival of the fittest”; therefore men in society, men as ethical beings, must look to the same process to help them towards perfection. I suspect that this fallacy has arisen out of the unfortunate ambiguity of the phrase “survival of the fittest.” “Fittest” has a connotation of “best”; and about “best” there hangs a moral flavour. In cosmic nature, however, what is “fittest” depends upon the conditions. Long since, I ventured to point out that if our hemisphere were to cool again, the survival of the fittest might bring about, in the vegetable kingdom, a population of more and more stunted and humbler and humbler organisms, until the “fittest” that survived might be nothing but lichens, diatoms, and such microscopic organisms as those which give red snow its colour; while, if it became hotter, the pleasant valleys of the Thames and Isis might be uninhabitable by any animated beings save those that flourish in a tropical jungle. They, as the fittest, the best adapted to the changed conditions, would survive.

Men in society are undoubtedly subject to the cosmic process. As among other animals, multiplication goes on without cessation, and involves severe competition for the means of support. The struggle for existence tends to eliminate those less fitted to adapt themselves to the circumstances of their existence. The strongest, the most self-assertive, tend to tread down the weaker. But the influence of the cosmic process on the evolution of society is the greater the more rudimentary its civilisation. Social progress means a checking of the cosmic process at every step and the substitution for it of another, which may be called the ethical process; the end of which is not the survival of those who may happen to be the fittest, in respect of the whole of the conditions which obtain, but of those who are ethically the best.

As I have already urged, the practice of that which is ethically—best—what we call goodness or virtue—involves a course of conduct which, in all respects, is opposed to that which leads to success in the cosmic struggle for existence. In place of ruthless self-assertion it demands self-restraint; in place of thrusting aside, or treading down, all competitors, it requires that the individual shall not merely respect, but shall help his fellows; its influence is directed, not so much to the survival of the fittest, as to the fitting of as many as possible to survive. It repudiates the gladiatorial theory of existence. It demands that each man who enters into the enjoyment of the advantages of a polity shall be mindful of his debt to those who have laboriously constructed it; and shall take heed that no act of his weakens the fabric in which he has been permitted to live. Laws and moral precepts are directed to the end of curbing the cosmic process and reminding the individual of his duty to the community, to the protection and influence of which he owes, if not existence itself, at least the life of something better than a brutal savage.

It is from neglect of these plain considerations that the fanatical individualism of our time attempts to apply the analogy of cosmic nature to society. Once more we have a misapplication of the stoical injunction to follow nature; the duties of the individual to the state are forgotten, and his tendencies to self-assertion are dignified by the name of rights. It is seriously debated whether the members of a community are justified in using their combined strength to constrain one of their number to contribute his share to the maintenance of it; or even to prevent him from doing his best to destroy it. The struggle for existence which has done such admirable work in cosmic nature, must, it appears be equally beneficent in the ethical sphere. Yet if that which I have insisted upon is true; if the cosmic process has no sort of relation to moral ends; if the imitation of it by man is inconsistent with the first principles of ethics; what becomes of this surprising theory?

Let us understand, once for all, that the ethical progress of society depends, not on imitating the cosmic process, still less in running away from it, but in combating it. It may seem an audacious proposal thus to put the microcosm against the macrocosm and to set man to subdue nature to his higher ends; but I venture to think that the great intellectual difference between the ancient times with which we have been occupied and our day, lies in the solid foundation we have acquired for the hope that such an enterprise may meet with a certain measure of success.

The history of civilisation details the steps by which men have succeeded in building up an artificial world within the cosmos. Fragile reed as he may be, man, as Pascal says, is a thinking reed: there lies within him a fund of energy operating intelligently and so far akin to that which pervades the universe, that it is competent to influence and modify the cosmic process. In virtue of his intelligence, the dwarf bends the Titan to his will. In every family, in every polity that has been established, the cosmic process in man has been restrained and otherwise modified by law and custom; in surrounding nature, it has been similarly influenced by the art of the shepherd, the agriculturist, the artisan. As civilisation has advanced, so has the extent of this interference increased; until the organised and highly developed sciences and arts of the present day have endowed man with a command over the course of non-human nature greater than that once attributed to the magicians. The most impressive, I might say startling, of these changes have been brought about in the course of the last two centuries; while a right comprehension of the process of life and of the means of influencing its manifestations is only just dawning upon us. We do not yet see our way beyond generalities; and we are befogged by the obtrusion of false analogies and crude anticipations. But Astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, have all had to pass through similar phases, before they reached the stage at which their influence became an important factor in human affairs. Physiology, Psychology, Ethics, Political Science, must submit to the same ordeal. Yet it seems to me irrational to doubt that, at no distant period, they will work as great a revolution in the sphere of practice.

The theory of evolution encourages no millennial anticipation. If, for millions of years, our globe has taken the upward road, yet, some time, the summit will be reached and the downward route will be commenced. The most daring imagination will hardly venture upon the suggestion that the power and the intelligence of man can ever arrest the procession of the great year.

Moreover, the cosmic nature born with us and, to a large extent, necessary for our maintenance, is the outcome of millions of years of severe training, and it

would be folly to imagine that a few centuries will suffice to subdue its masterfulness to purely ethical ends. Ethical nature may count upon having to reckon with a tenacious and powerful enemy as long as the world lasts. But, on the other hand, I see no limit to the extent to which intelligence and will, guided by sound principles of investigation, and organised in common effort, may modify the conditions of existence, for a period longer than that now covered by history. And much may be done to change the nature of man himself. The intelligence which has converted the brother of the wolf into the faithful guardian of the flock ought to be able to do something towards curbing the instincts of savagery in civilised men.

But if we may permit ourselves a larger hope of abatement of the essential evil of the world than was possible to those who, in the infancy of exact knowledge, faced the problem of existence more than a score of centuries ago, I deem it an essential condition of the realisation of that hope that we should cast aside the notion that the escape from pain and sorrow is the proper object of life.

We have long since emerged from the heroic childhood of our race, when good and evil could be met with the same "frolic welcome"; the attempts to escape from evil, whether Indian or Greek, have ended in flight from the battlefield; it remains to us to throw aside the youthful over-confidence and the no less youthful discouragement of non-age. We are grown men, and must play the man

"strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not yield,"

cherishing the good that falls in our way, and bearing the evil, in and around us, with stout hearts set on diminishing it. So far, we all may strive in one faith towards one hope:

"It may be that the gulfs will wash us down,
It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles,
....but something ere the end,
Some work of noble note may yet be done."

Source: T.H. Huxley, "Evolution and Ethics", in T.H. Huxley and J. Huxley, *Evolution and Ethics 1893-1943*. (London: Pilot Press, 1947).

Emmeline Pankhurst, MY OWN STORY

In the UK, women's suffrage bills were repeatedly introduced and defeated in Parliament between 1886 and 1911. The Women's Franchise League was formed in 1889, and the National Women's Social and Political Union in 1903, with the slogan "Votes for Women". Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928) and her daughters Christabel and Sylvia launched a militant campaign in 1906. The Suffragettes chained themselves to railings, heckled political meetings, refused to pay taxes, and in 1913 bombed the home of Lloyd George, then Chancellor of the Exchequer. One woman, Emily Davison, threw herself under the king's horse at the Derby horse race in 1913 and was killed. Many suffragettes were imprisoned and were force-fed when they went on hunger strike; under the notorious "Cat and Mouse Act" of 1913 they could be repeatedly released to regain their health and then rearrested. On the outbreak of World War I, the suffragettes turned to patriotic work. Full voting rights for women were obtained in 1928, the year Emmeline Pankhurst died.



I HAD called upon women to join me in striking at the Government through the only thing that governments are really very much concerned about—property—and the response was immediate. Within a few days the newspapers rang with the story of the attack made on letter boxes in London, Liverpool, Birmingham, Bristol, and half a dozen other cities. In some cases the boxes, when opened by postmen, mysteriously burst into flame; in others the letters were destroyed by corrosive chemicals; in still others the addresses were rendered illegible by black fluids. Altogether it was estimated that over 5,000 letters were completely destroyed and many thousands more were delayed in transit.

It was with a deep sense of their gravity that these letter-burning protests were undertaken, but we felt that something drastic must be done in order to destroy the apathy of the men of England who view with indifference the suffering of women oppressed by unjust laws. As we pointed out, letters, precious though they may be, are less precious than human bodies and souls. This fact was universally realised at the sinking of the Titanic. Letters and valuables disappeared forever, but their loss was forgotten in the far more terrible loss of the multitude of human lives. And so, in order to call attention to greater crimes against human beings, our letter burnings continued.

In only a few cases were the offenders apprehended, and one of the few women arrested was a helpless cripple, a woman who could move about only in a wheeled chair. She received a sentence of eight months in the first division, and, resolutely hunger striking, was forcibly fed with unusual brutality, the prison doctor deliberately breaking one of her teeth in order to insert a gag. In spite of her disabilities and her weakness the crippled girl persisted in her hunger strike and her resistance to prison rules, and within a short time had to be released. The excessive sentences of the other pillar box destroyers resolved themselves into very short terms because of the resistance of the prisoners, every one of whom adopted the hunger strike.

Having shown the Government that we were in deadly earnest when we declared that we would adopt guerrilla warfare, and also that we would not remain in prison, we announced a truce in order that the Government might have full opportunity to fulfil their pledge in regard to a woman suffrage amendment to the Franchise Bill. We did not, for one moment, believe that Mr. Asquith would willingly keep his word. We knew that he would break it if he could, but there was a bare chance that he would not find this possible. However, our principal reason for declaring the truce was that we believed that the Prime Minister would find a way of evading his promise, and we were determined that the blame should be placed, not on militancy, but on the shoulders of the real traitor. We reviewed the history of past suffrage bills: In 1908 the bill had passed its second reading by a majority of 179; and then Mr. Asquith had refused to allow it to go on; in 1910 the Conciliation Bill passed its second reading by a majority of 110, and again Mr. Asquith blocked its progress, pledging himself that if the bill were re-introduced in 1911, in a form rendering it capable of free amendment, it would be given full facilities for becoming law; these conditions were met in 1911, and we saw how the bill, after receiving the increased majority of 167 votes, was torpedoed by the introduction of a Government manhood suffrage bill. Mr. Asquith this time had pledged himself that the bill would be so framed that a woman suffrage amendment could be added, and he further pledged that in case such an amendment was carried through its second reading, he would allow it to become a part of the bill. Just exactly how the Government would manage to wriggle out of their promise was a matter of excited speculation.

All sorts of rumours were flying about, some hinting at the resignation of the Prime Minister, some suggesting the possibility of a general election, others that the amended bill would carry with it a forced referendum on women's suffrage. It was also said that the intention of the Government was to delay the bill so long that, after it was passed in the House, it would be excluded from the benefits of the Parliament Acts, according to which a bill, delayed of

passage beyond the first two years of the life of a Parliament, has no chance of being considered by the Lords. In order to become a law without the sanction of the House of Lords, a bill must pass three times through the House of Commons. The prospect of a woman suffrage bill doing that was practically nil.

To none of the rumours would Mr. Asquith give specific denial, and in fact the only positive utterance he made on the subject of the Franchise Bill was that he considered it highly improbable that the House would pass a woman suffrage amendment. In order to discourage woman suffrage sentiment in the House, Mr. Lloyd-George and Mr. Lewis Harcourt again busied themselves with spreading pessimistic prophecies of a Cabinet split in case an amendment was carried. No other threat, they well knew, would so terrorize the timid back bench Liberals, who, in addition to their blind party loyalty, stood in fear of losing their seats in the general election which would follow such a split. Rather than risk their political jobs they would have sacrificed any principle. Of course the hint of a Cabinet split was pure buncombe, and it deceived few of the members. But it established very clearly one thing, and this was that Mr. Asquith's promise that the House should be left absolutely free to decide the suffrage issue, and that the Cabinet stood ready to bow to the decision of the House was never meant to be fulfilled.

The Franchise Bill unamended, by its very wording, specifically denied the right of any woman to vote. Sir Edward Grey moved an amendment deleting from the bill the word male, thus leaving room for a women's suffrage amendment. Two such amendments were moved, one providing for adult suffrage for men and women, and the other providing full suffrage for women householders and wives of householders. The latter postponed the voting age of women to twenty-five years, instead of the men's twenty-one. On January 24th, 1918, debate on the first of the amendments was begun. A day and a half had been allotted to consideration of Sir Edward Grey's amendment, which if carried would leave the way clear for consideration of the other two, to each of which one-third of a day was allotted.

We had arranged for huge meetings to be held every day during the debates, and on the day before they were to open we sent a deputation of working women, led by Mrs. Drummond and Miss Annie Kenney, to interview Mr. Lloyd-George and Sir Edward Grey. We had asked Mr. Asquith to receive the deputation, but, as usual, he refused. The deputation consisted of the two leaders, four cotton mill operatives from Lancashire, four workers in sweated trades of London, two pit brow lassies, two teachers, two trained nurses, one shop assistant, one laundress, one boot and shoe worker and one domestic

worker twenty in all, the exact number specified by Mr Lloyd-George. Some hundreds of working women escorted the deputation to the official residence of the Chancellor of the Exchequer and waited anxiously in the street to hear the result of the audience.

The result was, of course, barren. Mr. Lloyd George glibly repeated his confidence in the "great opportunity" afforded by the Franchise Bill, and Sir Edward Grey, reminding the women of the divergence of view held by the members of Cabinet on the suffrage question, assured them that their best opportunity for success lay in an amendment to the present bill. The women spoke with the greatest candour to the two ministers and questioned them sharply as to the integrity of the Prime Minister's pledge to accept the amendments, if passed. To such depth of infamy had English politics sunk that it was possible for women openly to question the plighted word of the King's chief Minister! Mrs. Drummond, who stands in awe of no human being, in plain words invited the slippery Mr. Lloyd-George to clear his own character from obloquy. In the closing words of her speech she put the whole matter clearly up to him, saying: "Now, Mr. Lloyd-George, you have doggedly stuck to your old age pensions, and the insurance act, and secured them, and what you have done for these measures you can do also for the women."

[...]

The membership of the Women's Liberal Federation was, at that time, close to 200,000, and if the executive had passed the strong resolution, refusing to do any more work for the party until a Government measure had been introduced, the Government would have been forced to yield. They could not have faced the country without the support of the women. But these women, many of them, were wives of men in the service, the paid service of the Liberal Party. Many of them were wives of Liberal members. They lacked the courage, or the intelligence, or the insight, to declare war as a body on the Government. A large number of women, and also many men, did resign from the Liberal Party, but the defections were not serious enough to affect the Government.

The militants declared, and proceeded instantly to carry out, unrelenting warfare. We announced that either we must have a Government measure, or a Cabinet split--those men in the Cabinet calling themselves suffragists going out--or we would take up the sword again, never to lay it down until the enfranchisement of the women of England was won.

It was at this time, February, 1913, less than two years ago as I write these words, that militancy, as it is now generally understood by the public began-

militancy in the sense of continued, destructive, guerrilla warfare against the Government through injury to private property. Some property had been destroyed before this time, but the attacks were sporadic, and were meant to be in the nature of a warning as to what might become a settled policy. Now we indeed lighted the torch, and we did it with the absolute conviction that no other course was open to us. We had tried every other measure, as I am sure that I have demonstrated to my readers, and our years of work and suffering and sacrifice had taught us that the Government would not yield to right and justice, what the majority of members of the House of Commons admitted was right and justice, but that the Government would, as other governments invariably do, yield to expediency. Now our task was to show the Government that it was expedient to yield to the women's just demands. In order to do that we had to make England and every department of English life insecure and unsafe. We had to make English law a failure and the courts farce comedy theatres; we had to discredit the Government and Parliament in the eyes of the world; we had to spoil English sports, hurt business, destroy valuable property, demoralise the world of society, shame the churches, upset the whole orderly conduct of life-

That is, we had to do as much of this guerrilla warfare as the people of England would tolerate. When they came to the point of saying to the Government: "Stop this, in the only way it can be stopped, by giving the women of England representation," then we should extinguish our torch.

[...]

In the first month of guerrilla warfare an enormous amount of property was damaged and destroyed. On January 31st a number of putting greens were burned with acids; on February 7th and 8th telegraph and telephone wires were cut in several places and for some hours all communications between London and Glasgow were suspended; a few days later windows in various of London's smartest clubs were broken, and the orchid houses at Kew were wrecked and many valuable blooms destroyed by cold. The jewel room at the Tower of London was invaded and a showcase broken. The residence of H.R.H. Prince Christian and Lambeth Palace, seat of the Archbishop of Canterbury, were visited and had windows broken. The refreshment house in Regents Park was burned to the ground on February 12th and on February 18th a country house which was being built at Walton-on-the-Hill for Mr. Lloyd-George was partially destroyed, a bomb having been exploded in the early morning before the arrival of the workmen....

Source: Emmeline Pankhurst, *My Own Story*. (New York: Hearst International Library, 1914).

P.F. Strawson, SELF, MIND AND BODY

Peter Frederick Strawson (1919-) is a leading proponent of ordinary language philosophy. Some themes Strawson addresses are the possibility of objective knowledge, a provocative approach to the mind-body problem, the subject-predicate distinction, the ontological status of persons, and the problem of individuation.

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One of the marks, though not a necessary mark, of a really great philosopher is to make a really great mistake: that is to say, to give a persuasive and lastingly influential form to one of those fundamental misconceptions to which human intellect is prone when it concerns itself with the ultimate categories of thought. So today, more than three hundred years after the death of René Descartes, philosophers struggling with one of these fundamental misconceptions think of it under the name of Cartesian dualism. Not that they all think of the doctrine in question as a misconception. The doctrine has its defenders. Indeed if it did not represent a way of thinking about mind and body which has a powerful intellectual appeal, it would not be worth struggling against. There is little point in refuting errors which no one is inclined to make.

In this article, I want to try to bring out the force of one way, which has received some attention in recent English philosophy, of demonstrating the, or a, central error in Cartesian dualism. First, we need a reasonably clear statement of the dualist position to work on.

It seems an obvious and uncontentious point that the sorts of things which we can truthfully say about ourselves and other human beings are very various, that they form a very mixed bag indeed. Thus we can and do ascribe to one and the same individual human being things as various as actions, intentions, sensations, thoughts, feelings, perceptions, memories, physical position, corporeal characteristics, skills or abilities, traits of character and so on. A person or human being, as a subject of discourse, typically collects predicates of all these kinds. Now a Cartesian dualist is one who holds that this way of talking about people, though convenient and perhaps essential for practical purposes, tends to disguise rather than display the real nature of a human individual. We should first recognize, he thinks, that of these various predicates some refer directly to the states of consciousness of a person, some refer directly to his bodily condition and some refer in a more or less indirect and complicated way to both at once. But recognizing this is no more a step in the right direction. It is not enough to acknowledge that a person has two sides to his nature and his history, a mental or conscious side and a material

or corporeal side. For really the history of a human being is not the history of one two-sided thing, it is the history of two one-sided things. One of these things is a material object, a body; the other is an immaterial object, a mind or spirit or individual consciousness. These are totally distinct kinds of thing, with totally distinct kinds of properties and states. None of the predicates which properly apply to bodies (like having a certain weight or size or colouring) properly apply to minds; and none of the predicates which properly apply to consciousness (like having a certain thought or experiencing a certain sensation) properly apply to bodies. During the lifetime of a human being, two of these things, one of each kind, are particularly intimately related; but the intimacy of their union does not count against or diminish the essential independence of their nature.

Now if the Cartesian were right in this, it seems that it should be possible in principle to lay down at least the general outlines of a new and more metaphysically revealing way of talking about people than that which we find practically convenient. This new way of talking would reflect, in a dualism of grammatical or linguistic subjects, the dualism of real or metaphysical subjects which the Cartesian finds conjoined in the human individual. If we assembled all the statements which in our ordinary way of talking have the name of one man as their grammatical subject, and reconstructed them in a Cartesian grammar, then for each statement there would be three possibilities of reconstruction: either the grammatical subject of the new statement would be the designation of a mind or consciousness or the original statement would be analysed into two separate statements, one of them about a mind and one of them about a body.

It might seem at first that the germs of an “improved” or Cartesian style of speech about people were already present in our ordinary style of speech about people. For included in our ordinary style of speech is a lot of perfectly intelligible talk in which we explicitly ascribe predicates to people’s bodies (or parts of them) and also a lot of perfectly intelligible talk in which we explicitly ascribe predicates to people’s minds or even consciousnesses. So it might look as if our ordinary habits of thought and speech already contained an implicit, though incomplete, acknowledgement of the truth of Cartesianism.

However, it is clearly not enough for a Cartesian to point to the habit of talking about people’s minds and bodies as well as about people, as if this were conclusive evidence for his thesis. The difference between the Cartesian and his opponent is a difference of view about the *relation* between the concept of a person on the one hand and the concept of a person’s mind on the other.

The anti-Cartesian holds that the concept of a person's mind has a secondary or dependent status. The fundamental concept, for him, is that of a human being, a man, a type of thing to which predicates of *all* those various classes I ascribed earlier can be ascribed. To talk about the mind of a man is just a way of talking about a man, in respect of certain sorts of things that are true of him. Just so we can talk of the *surfaces* of tables as well as of tables, of the *score* in a football match as well as of a football match. But we recognise that the concept of a surface is dependent on the concept of a material object, that the concept of a score is dependent on the concept of a game. Similarly, the anti-Cartesian holds, the concept of a mind or consciousness is dependent on the concept of a living person.

But the Cartesian cannot admit this dependence. He must hold that the notion of an individual consciousness or mind is perfectly intelligible apart from the notion of a person whose mind or individual consciousness it is. He cannot admit that the idea of a mind presupposes that of a person; he must hold, on the contrary, that a dualistic *reduction* or *analysis* of the idea of a person is in principle possible or intelligible.

Let us consider more carefully what would be necessary in order for a Cartesian reduction to be successfully carried through. We begin with statements of which the subjects are the designations of people and the predicates are of the various kinds already mentioned. The Cartesian thesis requires that these be replaceable in principle with sentences of which the subjects are either the designations of minds (consciousnesses) or the designations of bodies. Hence it seems to require too that the predicates of our original sentences should either be already equivalent to consciousness-predicates or to body-predicates or be capable of being analysed into a body-predicate component and a consciousness-predicate component. Moreover the Cartesian reduction-sentences, it seems, must be genuinely, and not merely apparently, reductive. Consider, for example, the statement that John is writing a letter. "Writing a letter" seems to be one of those predicates which must be split up into a mental component and a bodily component; but it would seem unsatisfactory to try to isolate the mental component by means of such sentence as "His mind was going through the mental processes involved in writing a letter". For this leaves it open to the anti-Cartesian to say that the concept of such a mental process is dependent on the concept of writing a letter; and that writing a letter is essentially not something that a mind does or something that a body does, but something that a person does.[...]

Source: P. Strawson, "Self, Mind and Body" in *Freedom and Resentment and Other Essays*. (London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

IRREGULAR VERBS

BASE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	
arise	arose	arisen	<i>alzarsi, sorgere</i>
awake	awoke	awoken	<i>svegliarsi</i>
be	was/were	been	<i>essere, stare</i>
beat	beat	beaten	<i>battere, picchiare</i>
become	became	become	<i>diventare</i>
begin	began	begun	<i>iniziare</i>
bend	bent	bent	<i>piegare, piegarsi</i>
bite	bit	bitten	<i>mordere</i>
bleed	bled	bled	<i>sanguinare</i>
blow	blew	blown	<i>soffiare</i>
break	broke	broken	<i>rompere</i>
bring	brought	brought	<i>portare</i>
build	built	built	<i>costruire</i>
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned	<i>bruciare, scottare</i>
buy	bought	bought	<i>comprare</i>
catch	caught	caught	<i>afferrare, prendere</i>
choose	chose	chosen	<i>scegliere</i>
come	came	come	<i>venire</i>
cost	cost	cost	<i>costare</i>
cut	cut	cut	<i>tagliare</i>
deal	dealt	dealt	<i>trattare</i>
dig	dug	dug	<i>scavare</i>
do	did	done	<i>fare</i>
draw	drew	drawn	<i>disegnare</i>
dream	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed	<i>sognare</i>
drink	drank	drunk	<i>bere</i>
drive	drove	driven	<i>guidare</i>
eat	ate	eaten	<i>mangiare</i>
fall	fell	fallen	<i>cadere</i>
feel	felt	felt	<i>sentire, sentirsi</i>
fight	fought	fought	<i>combattere</i>
find	found	found	<i>trovare</i>
fly	flew	flown	<i>volare</i>

forget	forgot	forgotten	<i>dimenticare</i>
forgive	forgave	forgiven	<i>perdonare</i>
freeze	froze	frozen	<i>congelare</i>
get	got	got /gotten (Am. E)	<i>diventare, ottenere</i>
give	gave	given	<i>dare</i>
go	went	gone	<i>andare</i>
grow	grew	grown	<i>crescere</i>
hang	hung	hung	<i>appendere</i>
hang	hanged	hanged	<i>impiccare</i>
have	had	had	<i>avere</i>
hear	heard	heard	<i>sentire, udire</i>
hide	hid	hidden	<i>nascondere, nascondersi</i>
hit	hit	hit	<i>colpire, picchiare</i>
hold	held	held	<i>tenere</i>
hurt	hurt	hurt	<i>far male, ferire</i>
keep	kept	kept	<i>mantenere, tenere</i>
know	knew	known	<i>sapere</i>
lay	laid	laid	<i>distendere, porre</i>
lead	led	led	<i>condurre, guidare</i>
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned	<i>imparare</i>
leave	left	left	<i>lasciare, partire</i>
lend	lent	lent	<i>prestare</i>
let	let	let	<i>lasciare, permettere</i>
lie	lay	lain	<i>giacere, star sdraiati</i>
light	lit/lighted	lit/lighted	<i>accendere, illuminare</i>
lose	lost	lost	<i>perdere</i>
make	made	made	<i>creare, fare</i>
mean	meant	meant	<i>significare, voler dire</i>
meet	met	met	<i>incontrare, conoscere</i>
pay	paid	paid	<i>pagare</i>
put	put	put	<i>mettere</i>
read	read	read	<i>leggere</i>
ride	rode	ridden	<i>cavalcare, andare (in)</i>
ring	rang	rung	<i>suonare</i>
rise	rose	risen	<i>sorgere</i>

run	ran	run	<i>correre</i>
say	said	said	<i>dire</i>
see	saw	seen	<i>vedere</i>
sell	sold	sold	<i>vendere</i>
send	sent	sent	<i>mandare, spedire</i>
set	set	set	<i>mettere, sistemare</i>
shake	shook	shaken	<i>agitare, tremare</i>
shine	shone	shone	<i>brillare</i>
shoot	shot	shot	<i>sparare</i>
show	showed	shown	<i>mostrare, far vedere</i>
shut	shut	shut	<i>chiudere</i>
sing	sang	sung	<i>cantare</i>
sink	sank	sunk	<i>affondare</i>
sit	sat	sat	<i>sedere, sedersi</i>
sleep	slept	slept	<i>dormire</i>
smell	smelt/smelled (Am.E)	smelt/smelled	<i>annusare, sentire</i>
speak	spoke	spoken	<i>parlare</i>
spell	spelt/spelled (Am. E)	spelt/spelled	<i>formare con lettere</i>
spend	spent	spent	<i>spendere</i>
stand	stood	stood	<i>stare (in piedi)</i>
steal	stole	stolen	<i>rubare</i>
stick	stuck	stuck	<i>attaccare, attaccarsi</i>
strike	struck	struck	<i>colpire, scioperare</i>
swim	swam	swum	<i>nuotare</i>
take	took	taken	<i>portare (via), prendere</i>
teach	taught	taught	<i>insegnare</i>
tear	tore	torn	<i>strappare</i>
tell	told	told	<i>dire, raccontare</i>
think	thought	thought	<i>pensare</i>
throw	threw	thrown	<i>lanciare, tirare</i>
understand	understood	understood	<i>capire</i>
wake	woke	woken	<i>svegliare, svegliarsi</i>
wear	wore	worn	<i>indossare, portare</i>
win	won	won	<i>vincere</i>
write	wrote	written	<i>scrivere</i>

APPENDIX II

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLE
<i>a-</i>	without	<i>apolitical</i> (Unit 7)
<i>anti-</i>	against	<i>anti-social</i> (Unit 3)
<i>arch-</i>	greatest, worst	<i>arch-bishop</i> (Unit 1)
<i>auto-</i>	of, by oneself	<i>automatic</i> (Unit 12)
<i>counter-</i>	opposition	<i>counter-argument</i> (Unit 3)
<i>dis-</i>	not	<i>disorder</i> (Unit 7)
<i>im-</i>	not	<i>impossible</i> (Unit 1)
<i>in-</i>	not/direction	<i>inaccurate</i> (Unit 1) <i>input</i> (Unit 10)
<i>inter-</i>	between, among	<i>international</i> (Unit 11)
<i>mis-</i>	mistakenly	<i>misunderstand</i> (Unit 12)
<i>multi-</i>	many	<i>multi-racial</i> (Unit 5)
<i>out-</i>	beyond/direction	<i>outclass</i> (Unit 6) <i>output</i> (Unit 10)
<i>over-</i>	more than, excessive	<i>overpaid</i> (Unit 8)
<i>non-</i>	not	<i>non-cooperative</i> (Unit 7)
<i>pro-</i>	for	<i>pro-European</i> (Unit 4)
<i>re-</i>	again	<i>renew</i> (Unit 3)
<i>self-</i>	of, by oneself	<i>self-made</i> (Unit 12)
<i>sub-</i>	below	<i>sub-standard</i> (Unit 11)
<i>super-</i>	above	<i>super-human</i> (Unit 11)
<i>trans-</i>	across	<i>trans-Atlantic</i> (Unit 11)
<i>un-</i>	not	<i>unhappy</i> (Unit 1)
<i>under-</i>	less than, insufficient	<i>underpaid</i> (Unit 8)

SUFFIX	FUNCTION	EXAMPLE
-age	noun from verb	<i>coinage</i> (Unit 9)
-able/-ible	adjective from verb	<i>countable, divisible</i> (Unit 9)
-dom	noun formation	<i>kingdom</i> (Unit 2)
-er/-ee	noun from verb	<i>employer, employee</i> (Unit 4)
-ful/-less	adjective from noun	<i>useful, hopeless</i> (Unit 10)
-ic/-ics	noun formation	<i>magic, politics</i> (Unit 13)
-ical/-ic	adjective formation	<i>classical, classic</i> (Unit 13)
-ify/-ise/ize	causative verb	<i>purify</i> (Unit 15) <i>realise</i> (Unit 14)
-ion	noun from verb	<i>protection</i> (Unit 2)
-ish	adjective of approximation	<i>hottish</i> (Unit 8)
-ist	noun from sciences and skills	<i>scientist</i> (Unit 5)
-ive	adjective from verb	<i>affirmative</i> (Unit 13)
-like	adjective of resemblance	<i>child-like</i> (Unit 5)
-ly	adjective formation	<i>friendly</i> (Unit 14)
-ment	noun from verb	<i>employment</i> (Unit 2)
-ness	noun from adjective	<i>happiness</i> (Unit 4)
-or	noun from verb	<i>actor</i> (Unit 4)
-ous	adjective from noun	<i>courageous</i> (Unit 13)
-ship	noun formation	<i>kingship</i> (Unit 11)

APPENDIX III

NUMBERS

Cardinal numbers

<i>1</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>eleven</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>twenty-one</i>
<i>2</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>twelve</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>twenty-two</i>
<i>3</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>thirteen</i>	<i>23</i>	<i>twenty-three</i>
<i>4</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>fourteen</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>twenty-four</i>
<i>5</i>	<i>five</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>fifteen</i>	<i>25</i>	<i>twenty-five</i>
<i>6</i>	<i>six</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>sixteen</i>	<i>26</i>	<i>twenty-six</i>
<i>7</i>	<i>seven</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>seventeen</i>	<i>27</i>	<i>twenty-seven</i>
<i>8</i>	<i>eight</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>eighteen</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>twenty-eight</i>
<i>9</i>	<i>nine</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>nineteen</i>	<i>29</i>	<i>twenty-nine</i>
<i>10</i>	<i>ten</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>twenty</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>thirty</i>
<i>31</i>	<i>thirty-one</i>	<i>70</i>	<i>seventy</i>	<i>1,000</i>	<i>a thousand</i>
<i>40</i>	<i>forty</i>	<i>80</i>	<i>eighty</i>	<i>1,000,000</i>	<i>a million</i>
<i>50</i>	<i>fifty</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>ninety</i>		
<i>60</i>	<i>sixty</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>a hundred</i>		

1) When reading a number of three or more figures or writing it in words, we place *and* before the word denoting tens or units:

104 a hundred and four

2,986 two thousand nine hundred and eighty-six

2) Numbers after twenty are written with a hyphen: *twenty-one thirty-four*
Otherwise all numbers are written as separate words:

101 one hundred and one 2,034 two thousand and thirty-four

3) Either *a* or *one* can be used before hundred, thousand, million:

100 a/one hundred 150 a/one hundred and fifty

However, *one* thousand is used before a number of hundreds:

1,456 one thousand four hundred and fifty-six

- 4) The words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* are never made plural unless used with general reference to a large number:

two hundred *There were hundreds of birds in the trees.*
five thousand *Thousands of people went to the concert.*

- 5) In American English, a *billion* is a thousand million (1,000,000,000). In British English, a *billion* is a million million (1,000,000,000,000); in American English this is called a *trillion*. There is a gradual shift to the American usage.

- 6) Unlike Italian, in English the comma is used to divide numbers into groups of three figures:

1,000 one thousand *2,300 two thousand three hundred*

The point is used to indicate decimals:

1.5 (one point five) *4.56 (four point five six)*

- 7) The figure 0 is called *nought* in British English and *zero* in American English. When numbers are said individually, it is often pronounced *oh*, like the letter O. In games, zero scores are called *nil* in British English and *zero* in American English. In tennis, a zero score is called *love*.

- 8) The definite article is never used before percentages:

The value of the shares increased by 10% *He got a 5% pay rise*

Ordinal numbers

<i>1st</i>	<i>first</i>	<i>11th</i>	<i>eleventh</i>	<i>21st</i>	<i>twenty-first</i>
<i>2nd</i>	<i>second</i>	<i>12th</i>	<i>twelfth</i>	<i>22nd</i>	<i>twenty-second</i>
<i>3rd</i>	<i>third</i>	<i>13th</i>	<i>thirteenth</i>	<i>23rd</i>	<i>twenty-third</i>
<i>4th</i>	<i>fourth</i>	<i>14th</i>	<i>fourteenth</i>	<i>24th</i>	<i>twenty-fourth</i>
<i>5th</i>	<i>fifth</i>	<i>15th</i>	<i>fifteenth</i>	<i>25th</i>	<i>twenty-fifth</i>
<i>6th</i>	<i>sixth</i>	<i>16th</i>	<i>sixteenth</i>	<i>26th</i>	<i>twenty-sixth</i>
<i>7th</i>	<i>seventh</i>	<i>17th</i>	<i>seventeenth</i>	<i>27th</i>	<i>twenty-seventh</i>
<i>8th</i>	<i>eighth</i>	<i>18th</i>	<i>eighteenth</i>	<i>28th</i>	<i>twenty-eighth</i>
<i>9th</i>	<i>ninth</i>	<i>19th</i>	<i>nineteenth</i>	<i>29th</i>	<i>twenty-ninth</i>
<i>10th</i>	<i>tenth</i>	<i>20th</i>	<i>twentieth</i>	<i>30th</i>	<i>thirtieth</i>
<i>31st</i>	<i>thirty-first</i>	<i>70th</i>	<i>seventieth</i>	<i>1,000th</i>	<i>thousandth</i>
<i>40th</i>	<i>fortieth</i>	<i>80th</i>	<i>eightieth</i>	<i>1,000,000th</i>	<i>millionth</i>
<i>50th</i>	<i>fiftieth</i>	<i>90th</i>	<i>ninetieth</i>		
<i>60th</i>	<i>sixtieth</i>	<i>100th</i>	<i>hundredth</i>		

- 1) Ordinal numbers written as figures add the last two letters of the written word:

first - 1st *second* - 2nd *third* - 3rd *fourth* - 4th

- 2) Ordinal numbers are usually preceded by the definite article:

the first day *the twentieth week* *the eighth day*

- 3) The titles of Kings, Wars etc. are written with Roman figures but are read with ordinal numbers:

Elizabeth II (*Elizabeth the second*) *Henry VIII* (*Henry the eighth*)

World War II (*the Second World War or World War Two*)

- 4) Ordinal numbers are used when reading dates:

9th December = *the ninth of December* *25th June* = *the twenty-fifth of June*

- 5) Dates can be written in different ways:

9th December *December 9* *December 9th*

Note that American English tends to put the month before the day expressed in cardinal numbers: *December 9* *June 25*

This requires attention when writing dates in figures:

<i>9.12.1999</i>	in British English is	<i>9th December 1999</i>
	in American English is	<i>September 12th 1999</i>

- 2) Years are usually read in pairs:

1000 = *ten hundred* *1900* = *nineteen hundred*

1450 = *fourteen fifty* *1990* = *nineteen ninety*

1066 = *ten sixty-six*

Note

1901 = *nineteen oh one* *900* = *nine hundred*

2000 = *the year two thousand* *2001* = *two thousand and one*

The acronym BC (Before Christ) is placed after the date: *300 BC*.

The acronym AD (*Anno Domini*) is placed before the date: *AD 300*.

- 6) Decades are expressed with the plural form:

the 1900s = *the nineteen hundreds* *the 1920s* = *the nineteen twenties*

the 1850s = *the eighteen fifties* *the 1660s* = *the sixteen sixties*

APPENDIX IV**FALSE FRIENDS**

accident	<i>accidente</i>
<i>incidente</i>	shock, chance event
actual/actually	<i>attuale/attualmente</i>
<i>reale, effettivo/ in realtà, di fatto</i>	current, present / at present
advice/to advise	<i>avviso/avvisare</i>
<i>consiglio/consigliare</i>	notice / to inform, to warn
advocate	<i>avvocato</i>
<i>sostenitore</i>	lawyer
argument	<i>argomento</i>
<i>discussione, litigio</i>	subject, topic
to assist	<i>assistere a</i>
<i>aiutare, prendersi cura di</i>	to witness (an accident); to attend (a concert)
to assume	<i>assumere</i>
<i>supporre</i>	to employ, to hire
to attack	<i>attaccare</i>
<i>aggredire</i>	to attach, to hang up (phone)
to attend	<i>attendere</i>
<i>presenziare</i>	aspettare
audience	<i>udienza</i>
<i>pubblico</i>	hearing (leg.)
commodity	<i>comodità</i>
<i>bene, merce</i>	comfort, convenience
confidence	<i>confidenza</i>
<i>fiducia, sicurezza</i>	familiarity, intimacy

conscience	<i>coscienza</i>
<i>coscienza morale</i>	conscientiousness, consciousness
convenient	<i>conveniente</i>
<i>comodo, a portata di mano</i>	cheap, good value
decade	<i>decade</i>
<i>decennio</i>	ten days
to demand	<i>domandare</i>
<i>esigere, pretendere</i>	to ask (for something)
economic	<i>economico</i>
<i>economico, attinente all'economia</i>	cheap, inexpensive
editor	<i>editore</i>
<i>direttore (di giornale, rivista)</i>	publisher
<i>curatore (di edizione)</i>	
education	<i>educazione</i>
<i>istruzione, formazione culturale</i>	upbringing
effective	<i>effettivo</i>
<i>efficace</i>	real, actual
eventual/eventually	<i>eventuale/eventualmente</i>
<i>finale/ alla fine</i>	possible/possibly, in case
fabric	<i>fabbrica</i>
<i>stoffa</i>	factory
to fail	<i>fallire</i>
<i>bocciare, fallire, non riuscire</i>	to fail, to miss (a target)
finally	<i>finalmente</i>
<i>alla fine, infine</i>	at last
furniture	<i>fornitura</i>
<i>mobili</i>	supply, stock
to guard	<i>guardare</i>
<i>proteggere, sorvegliare</i>	to look at, to observe

to hurt <i>far male, ferire</i>	<i>urtare</i> to bump, to knock into, to annoy
incoherent <i>incomprensibile, sconnesso</i>	<i>incoerente</i> inconsistent
incident <i>caso, evento</i>	<i>incidente</i> accident
injury <i>ferita</i>	<i>ingiuria</i> insult
instruction <i>insegnamento, ordine, disposizione</i>	<i>istruzione</i> education
to intend <i>avere intenzione, volere</i>	<i>intendere</i> to mean, to understand
irrelevant <i>non pertinente</i>	<i>irrilevante</i> insignificant
journal <i>rivista, settimanale</i>	<i>giornale</i> daily newspaper
large <i>grande</i>	<i>largo</i> wide
to licence <i>accordare una licenza, autorizzare</i>	<i>licenziare</i> to dismiss, to fire, to sack
magazine <i>rivista</i>	<i>magazzino</i> storeroom, warehouse
matter (n) <i>affare, questione</i>	<i>materia</i> subject, subject matter
misery <i>estrema infelicità, sofferenza</i>	<i>miseria</i> extreme poverty
notice <i>avviso, comunicazione</i>	<i>notizia</i> news

observant <i>attento; chi osserva</i>	<i>osservante</i> law-abiding; practising
occasion <i>occasione, momento</i>	<i>occasione</i> chance, opportunity
occasionally <i>ogni tanto</i>	<i>occasionale</i> chance
parent <i>genitore</i>	<i>parente</i> relative
practically <i>in modo pratico, praticamente</i>	<i>praticamente</i> virtually, quasi
to present <i>consegnare, fare dono</i>	<i>presentare</i> introduce
to pretend <i>far finta, fingere</i>	<i>pretendere</i> to claim, to demand
principal <i>preside</i>	<i>principale</i> boss, employer
to prevent <i>evitare, impedire</i>	<i>prevenire</i> anticipate
to process <i>elaborare, trattare</i>	<i>processare</i> to try, to prosecute
professor <i>docente universitario titolare di cattedra</i>	<i>professore</i> lecturer, teacher
to provide <i>fornire, procurare</i>	<i>provvedere</i> to arrange, to see to
to quarrel <i>disputare, litigare</i>	<i>querelare</i> to bring an action against, to prosecute, to sue
question <i>domanda</i>	<i>questione</i> issue, matter

to question	<i>questionare</i>
<i>interrogare, mettere in dubbio</i>	to argue, to quarrel
rate	<i>rata</i>
<i>indice; prezzo; tasso</i>	instalment
record	<i>ricordo</i>
<i>documentazione; disco; primato</i>	memory; souvenir
relevant	<i>rilevante</i>
<i>attinente, pertinente, relativo</i>	important, prominent
salary	<i>salario</i>
<i>stipendio</i>	wage
sane	<i>sano</i>
<i>sano di mente, sensato</i>	healthy
scholar	<i>scolaro</i>
<i>studioso</i>	pupil, schoolchild
sensible	<i>sensibile</i>
<i>ragionevole, sensato</i>	sensitive
stranger	<i>straniero</i>
<i>estraneo, sconosciuto</i>	foreigner
superb	<i>superbo</i>
<i>magnifico</i>	proud, arrogant
to support	<i>sopportare</i>
<i>mantenere, sostenere</i>	to bear, to stand
sympathetic	<i>simpatico</i>
<i>comprensivo</i>	likeable, nice, pleasant
ultimately	<i>ultimamente</i>
<i>alla fine</i>	lately, recently
unconscious	<i>incosciente</i>
<i>inconsapevole</i>	reckless, irresponsible

APPENDIX V

WEIGHTS, MEASURES AND MONEY

General uniformity of measures began in Anglo-Saxon times when, during the reign of King Edgar (AD 959 - AD 975), it was decreed that all measures must agree with the standards kept in Winchester and in London. From that time onwards the bushel and its parts became known as the "Winchester measure" and were used for the measurement of all grains and agricultural produce. William the Conqueror, Richard I and Magna Charta made later modifications.

In 1824, the Weights and Measures Act introduced the Imperial Standard system as increased industrialisation created the need for a more rational method of measuring. However, the Winchester measure continued in the United States. In 1959, all Anglo-Saxon countries decided that a yard would be exactly 0.9144 metre. Since this change, one international inch is equal to 25.4 mm.

LENGTH

The mile—derived from the Roman *mille passus* or 1000 double steps—was originally 5000 feet long, as Roman definition of 1 *passus* was 5 feet. The furlong ("furrow long") was the optimal length for the traditional plough. The rod was determined by lining up 16 men and measuring the combined length of all their left feet.

1 inch = 25.4 mm

1 palm = 3 inches

1 hand = 4 inches

1 span = 9 inches

1 cubit = 18 inches

1 foot = 12 inches (= 0.3048 m)

1 yard = 3 feet (= 0.9144 m)

1 rod or pole or perch = 5.5 yards (= 5.0292 m)

1 furlong = 40 rods (= 201.168 m)

1 mile = 8 furlongs (= 1609.344 m)

1 league = 3 miles (= 4828.032 m)

1 International Nautical Mile = 1852 m

AREA

An early definition of the acre is the area 4 rods (or poles) wide by 40 rods long. The acre was also defined as the amount of land a yoke of oxen could plough in a day.

1 square foot = 144 square inches ($= 0.09290304 \text{ m}^2$)

1 square yard = 9 sq. ft. ($= 0.83612736 \text{ m}^2$)

1 square pole = 30.25 square yards ($= 25.29285264 \text{ m}^2$)

1 rood = 40 square poles ($= 1011.714106 \text{ m}^2$)

1 acre = 4 roods ($= 4046.856422 \text{ m}^2$)

1 square mile = 640 acres ($= 2\ 589\ 998.11 \text{ m}^2$)

VOLUME

In England, the Winchester standards were used from the 15th century, and were slowly modified over time. The 1924 Weights and Measures Act defined an Imperial British Gallon as 10 pounds of pure water at 62°F ($= 4.5459631$ litres). In the US, the official Gallon is 3.785411784 litres, and dry measures are based on the old Winchester Gallon ($= 4.404884$ litre) or 268.8025 cubic inches.

Measures of capacity

2 gills = 1 cup

2 cups = 1 pint

2 pints = 1 quart

2 quarts = 1 pottle

2 pottles = 1 gallon

2 gallons = 1 peck

4 pecks = 1 bushel

3 bushels = 1 bag

12 bags = 1 chauldron or chaldron

4 bushels = 1 coombe

2 coombes = 1 quarter

5 quarters = 1 load or wey

2 loads or weys = 1 last

Old British beer measures

9 (beer) gallons = 1 firkin

2 kilderkins = 1 barrel

1.5 barrels = 1 hogshead

1.3 hogsheads = 1 puncheon

Old British wine measures

10 (wine) gallons = 1 anker

18 gallons = 1 rundlet

WEIGHTS

The pound derives from the Roman *libra* (lb.), which was subdivided into 12 *unciae* or ounces (oz.). In 1527, Henry VIII replaced the older Saxon pound with the Troy pound, whose name came from the city of Troyes in France where the system is thought to have originated, and which was used until 1879. Today the Troy ounce is used for weighing gold, silver and precious stones. However, it was the avoirdupois system (from the ME *avoir de pois*) that gradually became the system of weights, standardised in 1959.

Avoirdupois weight

1 grain (= 64.79891 mg)

27.34375 grains = 1 dram (= 1.771845 g)

16 dram = 1 ounce (= 28.349523 g)

16 ounces = 1 pound (= 453.59237 g)

14 pounds = 1 stone (= 6.3503 kg)

2 stones = 1 British quarter (= 12.701 kg)

4 British quarters = 1 hundredweight (= 50.802345 kg)

20 hundredweights = 1 ton (= 1016.0469 kg)

Other old English units

1 quartern = 4 lbs

1 block = 5 lbs

1 head = 6 3/4 lbs

1 clove or brick = 7 lbs

1 gallon = 10 lbs

1 score = 20 lbs

1 truss (straw) = 36 lbs

1 frail = 50 lbs

1 firkin = 56 lbs or 2 quarters

1 bushel = 63 lbs

1 tub = 84 lbs

1 box = 90 lbs

1 fagot or seam = 120 lbs (fagot for iron and steel - seam for glass)

1 sack = 168 lbs (= 2 tubs - used for coal, potatoes)

1 wey = 182 lbs

Other old units

1 mite = 1/20 grain

1 mancus = 2 ounces

1 mast = 2.5 Troy pounds

MONEY

The present-day decimal currency was adopted in Britain in 1971. It is based on pounds (£) and pence (p) and replaced the old currency system based on pounds, shillings and pence.

The old system of currency

12d (pence) = 1/- (shilling)

20/- (shillings) = £1 (pound)

The main coins used in the past were as follows:

Coin	Old Value	New Value
Farthing	1/4d	0.1p
Half-penny	1/2d	0.2p
Penny	1d	0.4p
Three-penny	3d	1.25p
Groat	4d	1.7p
Sixpence (or tanner)	6d	2.5p
Shilling (or bob)	1s	5p
Florin or two shilling piece	2s	10p
Half-crown (or half-dollar)	2s 6d	12.5p
Double-florin	4s	20p
Crown (or dollar)	5s	25p
Half-Sovereign	10s	50p
Sovereign	20s or £1	100p
Guinea	21s	105p

The decimal system

100p (pence) = £1 (pound)

Coins: 1 penny, 2 pence, 5 pence, 10 pence, 20 pence, 50 pence, one-pound coin, two-pound coin.

Notes: 5 pounds, 10 pounds, 20 pounds, 50 pounds.

Scottish notes are different, but the coins are the same.

Britain did not join the European “Eurozone” in 1999, but it is expected that a decision to join, after a referendum on the question, will be taken before 2005.

APPENDIX VI

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The Origins

The Celtic tribes had inhabited the British Isles since about 2000 BC when the Roman army under Julius Caesar attempted to invade the country in 55 BC, first introducing Latin to the area. The Roman conquest of AD 43 brought most of England under Roman rule for more than three hundred years, during which period Latin was used by the military and official classes, but did not replace the Celtic language among the native Britons. The use of Latin was also increased by the spread of Christianity in the 3rd century, especially in the cities and towns, but it decreased following the withdrawal of the Romans after AD 410.

Very few words have survived from the Celtic languages, most of them being place names (*Thames, Kent, York, Dover*). Some words that came into the language through contact with Rome are connected with war (*camp, battle, road, mile*), trade (*pound, wine, mint, coin*), domestic life and food (*cup, dish, kitchen, cheese, butter, pea*).

Old English (AD 500-AD 1100)

In the 5th and 6th centuries, Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark, who spoke a language similar to modern Frisian, began populating Britain. Another influence came from the Vikings, who invaded Britain from Scandinavia in about 850, bringing with them the Norse language. These invasions forced the original Celtic inhabitants to leave England and to move into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall and Ireland. Today, their languages live on as the Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland, and Welsh. Latin influences persisted through the Christianising of Britain. This began with St. Augustine's mission to convert the Britons at the end of the 6th century, was interrupted by the Danish onslaughts in the 8th century, and then was revived with the Benedictine reform in the 9th century. Under King Alfred the Great (b. 849, ruled 871-899), the monasteries were rebuilt, schools were established, and learning was encouraged among monks and the clergy.

The merger of the invaders' Teutonic dialects gradually formed what is known as Old English. It was a highly inflected language. Nouns and adjectives had distinctive endings for singular and plural forms, and adjectives had separate forms for the three genders. Verb inflections indicated person, number, tense and mood. They were divided into weak (regular) verbs that added *-d* or *-t* for the past and past participle, and strong (irregular) verbs where the

vowel of the base form was changed. In Old English all strong verbs originally had the inflection -en at the end and the prefix *ge-* at the beginning (e.g. *ride* → *geriden*)

The Teutonic vocabulary mainly centred on everyday life: the family, the house, animals (*man, wife, child, house, grass, meat, eat, drink, sleep, live*). The influences from Latin were generally connected to the new Christian religion (*abbot, angel, disciple, organ, pope, priest*) and learning (*school master, verse, metre, history*). The Scandinavian influence can be found in words connected with the sea and warfare (*die, keel, ship, slaughter, scout, thrust*) and, later, with more settled domestic life (*calf, egg, sister, skirt, get, give, lift, raise, take*).

The best-known surviving example of Old English is the folk-epic poem *Beowulf*. Some short pieces of Anglo-Saxon poetry also survive, either dedicated to themes of war and the sea, or to Christian subjects. Through the influence of the Church, much was written in Latin, but in the 9th century King Alfred the Great translated Latin works into English and founded the tradition of English prose in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, a record of important events in English history.

Middle English (1100-1500)

In AD 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, invaded England and conquered the Anglo-Saxons in the Battle of Hastings. The Normans spoke a dialect of Old French, known as Anglo-Norman, which was to play a crucial role in the history of English. By the mid-12th century, the three languages co-existed in different spheres: Latin was used for records, for learned works, and in the liturgy of the Church; French was used by the King and the aristocrats, and in the legal system; English remained the language of most of the population, but was little used in its written form.

In 1204, King Phillip II of France conquered the province of Normandy, thus isolating the Norman French nobility from their estates in France. As they turned more to their English properties, the use of French declined and the numbers of English speakers grew. Between 1349 and 1350, almost one third of the English population died of plague (the Black Death). There followed a growth in the economic and social importance of the labouring and merchant classes. The new middle classes contributed to the rise of English both as a written and as a spoken language. English was once more taught in the schools, and in 1362, the Statute of Pleading determined that all appeals in the law courts would be “pleaded, shewed, defended, answered, debated, and judged in the English tongue”. English began to be used in Parliament,

virtually ending the linguistic division between the nobility and commoners. It also came to be regarded as a language suitable for literature. The most famous example of Middle English literature is *The Canterbury Tales* (c. 1387) by Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400). Chaucer probably wrote his earliest poems in French, but none have survived. His English is influenced by French and Latin models and makes heavy use of borrowings from Latin and French.

In Middle English, the system of inflections gradually began to break down: plural nouns tended to take the *-s/-es* ending, adjectives no longer indicated singular and plural forms, and verbs lost their strong conjugations, moving mainly to weak forms.

This was a period of considerable foreign influence. Many words borrowed from Anglo-Norman were connected with the court (*noble, dame, servant, feast, juggler, minstrel*) and with the Church. After the loss of Normandy, numerous words were borrowed from French connected with government (*government, crown, state, majesty, parliament, prince, princess, peasant, slave*), law (*justice, judge, petition, evidence, accuse, arrest*), clothing (*gown, robe, attire, petticoat, buckle, button, plume, satin, ruby, pearl, diamond*), food (*sole, sardine, venison, beef, mutton, pork, bacon, cream, toast, sugar, raisin*) and learning (*painting, sculpture, music, beauty, logic, geometry, grammar, noun, physician, plague, pulse, remedy, poison*).

Many Middle English nouns are still used in Modern English but with a modified meaning. Some have become more specialised (e.g. *meat*, which originally referred to any kind of food and today is used for flesh used for food); others have become more generalised (e.g. *clerk*, originally a member of the clergy, then a scholar, and today an office worker). Some words have undergone pejoration (e.g. *dreadful* once meant ‘inspiring reverence’, but today means ‘terrible’) or amelioration (e.g. *pretty* originally meant ‘cunning or clever’, but today means ‘attractive’).

Early Modern English (1500-1800)

The cultural flowering of the Renaissance period was reflected in the language of poets (Spenser, Sidney), playwrights (Marlowe, Jonson), and critics. Shakespeare alone probably had more influence on the English language than any other individual: he coined some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases that are still in use today. The revival of classical scholarship during this period introduced many classical Latin and Greek words into the language, which led to the *Inkhorn Controversy*: a debate about the merits of artificial Latinate vocabulary over common Germanic words.

Another important influence was the printing press, which had been brought to England by William Caxton in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Works tended to be published more in English for the growing reading public, replacing Latin. Attempts were made to standardise English spelling and grammar as the ‘King’s English’, following the dialect of London where most works were published. In 1665, a group of scholars belonging to the Royal Society worked towards “a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses; a native easiness: bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness, as they can”. In 1747, Samuel Johnson (1709-1784) published his *A Dictionary of the English Language*, the first comprehensive English lexicon, which contained 40,000 words.

Between about 1400 and 1500, a major change in pronunciation took place, known as the Great Vowel Shift, in which the sounds of the long stressed vowels in English changed their places of articulation. Vowels began to shift to the front of the mouth and the final -e became silent. In addition, there was a gradual weakening of unaccented vowels, and most of the remaining inflectional system disappeared. These changes meant that spoken English became far removed from its written form.

Nouns tended to move to the -s plural, with a few exceptions (e.g. *sheep, mice, feet*) and the -es Saxon genitive - often written -is or -ys - gradually contracted to -’s. Pronouns also changed. In the 13th century, *thou/thy/thee* had been used for familiar address, while *ye/your/you* plural forms had been used for respectful address, from French usage. By the 16th century, the singular forms had virtually disappeared. The interrogative form used no auxiliary verb (*Goes the king hence?*) and few progressive forms of verbs were used. The -eth ending for the 3rd person singular (*telleth, saith, giveth*), which had continued throughout the Middle English period, slowly declined and, by the end of the 15th century, had mainly been replaced by the -s ending. However, some forms, especially the words *hath* and *doth*, survived until the 18th century.

Late-Modern English (1800-Present)

The main differences between early- and late-modern English are seen in vocabulary, whereas pronunciation, grammar, and spelling have remained largely the same. A vast number of new words was introduced by the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society, where new words had to be invented for new objects and concepts: automobiles, radio, television, cinema. Most of the neologisms came from Latin and Greek, using the roots of Classical languages to create new words. Some examples are: *stethoscope* (1820), *eugenics* (1883), *automobile* (1883), *appendicitis* (1886).

As the widespread British Empire grew, many foreign words were also adopted into English: India (*bungalow, cashmere, polo, punch*), Africa (*banana, gorilla*), Australia (*boomerang, kangaroo*). Examples of other foreign borrowings are: *ketchup* (Chinese), *anorak* (Eskimo), *sauna* (Finnish), *garage* (French), *waltz* (German), *traffic* (Italian), *marmalade* (Portuguese), *cigar, sherry* (Spanish), *kiosk, yoghurt* (Turkish), *ombudsman* (Swedish), *pyjamas* (Persian), *algebra* (Arabic).

Today English, in one form or another, is spoken by a billion people around the world, of whom 350 million use it as their mother tongue. It is the language of international business and tourism; it is used in most scientific, technological and academic fields; and is the main language of popular music, advertising, broadcasting, computers and video games. It is constantly being enriched by new words. The flexibility given to the language by the Old English tradition of compound nouns has given rise to numerous neologisms, many of which are connected to new information technology. Some new words are: *teleconference* (1974), *e-mail* (1982), *internet* (1986), *world wide web* (1992), *customer-management* (1994), *eurofraud* (1995).

American English

The English colonised North America from about 1600, and some pronunciations and usages in American English date from that period. It has been said that in certain respects American English is closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern British English. Some archaic forms that still survive in American English are *gotten* as the past participle of the verb *to get*, *platter* instead of *plate*, *fall* instead of *autumn*.

Through the American dialect, many native American words also entered the English language (*wigwam, tomato, canoe, skunk*).

In 1828 Noah Webster (1758-1843) produced *An American Dictionary of the English Language* in which he demonstrated the independence of the American language by stressing American pronunciation, usage and spelling.

Today the two languages differ in two main aspects: spelling and vocabulary. Some examples of differences in spelling.

British English

honour, colour, favour
 centre, theatre, metre
 traveller, jewellery
 defence, pretence
 catalogue, programme
 cheque, masque
 realise/-ize
 tyre
 storey
 gaol
 mediaeval

American English

honor, color, favor
 center, theater, meter
 traveler, jewelry
 defense, pretense
 catalog, program
 check, mask
 realize
 tire
 story
 jail
 medieval

Some differences in vocabulary.

British English

angry/cross
 biscuit
 flat
 car
 holiday
 lift
 pavement

American English

mad
 cookie
 apartment
 automobile
 vacation
 elevator
 sidewalk

The rise of the United States as a superpower has led to the dominance of American English over British English as the standard language. The powerful role of American trade and commerce, and the world-wide influence of the Internet, have all contributed to this process.

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D. Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language* (Cambridge: CUP, 1997)

R. McCrum, N. Cran, R. MacNeil *The Story of English*, 2nd Ed. (Faber & Faber, 1992)

OLD ENGLISH

King Alfred (871-901)

Preface to St. Gregory's Pastoral Care

Aelfred kyning hateth gretan Waerferth biscep his wordum

Alfred king bids greet Waerferth bishop with his words

luflice ond freondlice; ond the cythan hate thaet me com

loving and friendly; and to thee bids make known that to me comes

swithe oft on gemynd, hwelce wiutan iu waeren giond

very often into remembrance, what wise men once were throughout

Angelcynn, aegther ge godcundra ge woruldcundra; ond hu

English-kind, both godly and worldly; and how

gesaeliglica tida tha waeron giond Angelcynn; and hu tha kyninges

happy times then were throughout English-kind; and how the kings

the thone onwald haefdon thaes folces Gode ond his aerendwrecum

who then power had over the people obeyed God and his errand-

hiersumedon; ond hu hie aegther ge hiora sibbe ge hiora siodu

bearers; and how both their peace and their morality

ge hiora onweald innanbordes gehioldon, ond eac ut

and their power within their borders they held, and also outside

hiora ethel rymdon; ond hu him tha speow aegther ge

their property enlarged; and how to him then was success both

mid wige ge mid wisdome; ond eac tha godcundan hadas hu giorne

in war and in wisdom; and eke then the godly -hood how eager

hie waeron aegther ge ymb lare ge ymb liornunga, ge ymb ealle tha

they were both about lore and about learning, and about all the

thiowotdomas the hie Gode don scoldon [...]

services they for God must do [...]

MIDDLE ENGLISH

Sir John Fortescue (c. 1394 -c.1476)

The Governance of England.

Some men have said that it were good for the kyng, that the commons of Englande were made pore, as be the commons of Fraunce. For than thai wolde not rebelle, as now thai done oftentimes; wich the commons of Fraunce do not, nor mey doo; for thai have no wepen, nor armour, nor good to bie it with all. To theis maner of men mey be said with the phylosopher, “ad pauca respicientes de facili enunciant.” That is to say, thai that see but few thynges, woll sone say thair advyses. For soth theis folke consideren litill the good of the reaume of Englond, wheroft the myght stondith most uppon archers, wich be no ryche men. And yf thai were made more pouere than thai be, thai shulde not have wherewith to bie hem bowes, arroes, jakkes, or any other armour of defence wherby thai myght be able to resistre owre enymes, when thai liste to come uppon us; wich thai mey do in every side, considerynge that we be a Ileonde; and, as it is said before, we mey not sone have soucour of any other reaume. Wherfore we shull be a pray to all owre enymyes, but yf we be myghty of owreself, wich myght stondith most uppon owre pouere archers; and therfore thai nedun not only have suche ablements as now is spoken of, but also thai nedun to be much exercised in shotynge, wich mey not be done without ryght grete expenses, as every man experthe in therin knowith ryght well. Wherfore the makynge pouere of the commons, wich is the makynge pouere of owre archers, shalbe the distruction of the grettest myght of owre reaume.

16TH-CENTURY RENAISSANCE ENGLISH

Richard Mulcaster (c. 1513-1611)

Elementarie (1582)

It were a thing verie praiseworthie in my opinion, and no lesse profitable then praise worthye, if som one well learned and as laborious a man, wold gather all the words which we vse in out English tung, whether naturall or incorporate, out of all professions, as well learned as not, into one dictionarie, and besides the right writing, which is incident to the Alphabete, wold open vnto vs therein, both their naturall force, and their proper vse: that by his honest trauell we might be as able to iudge of our own tung, which we haye by rote, as we ar of others, which we learn by rule. The want whereof, is the onlie cause why, that verie manie men, being excellentlie well learned in foren speche, can hardlie discern what theie haue at home, still shooting fair, but oft missing far, hard censors ouer other, ill executors themselues. For easie

obtaining is enemie to iudgement, not onlie in words, and naturall speche, but in greater matters, and verie important.

17TH-CENTURY ENGLISH

Francis Bacon (1561-1626)

The Proficience and Advancement of Learning (1605)

[from Bk 1] And for the conceit that learning should dispose men to leisure and privateness, and make men slothful, it were a strange thing if that which accustometh the mind to a perpetual motion and agitation should induce slothfulness; whereas contrariwise it may be truly affirmed that no kind of men love business for itself but those that are learned; for other persons love it for profit, as an hireling that loves the work for the wages; or for honour, as because it beareth them up in the eyes of men, and refresheth their reputation which otherwise would wear; or because it putteth them in mind of their fortune, and giveth them occasion to pleasure and displeasure; or because it exerciseth some faculty wherein they take pride, and so entertaineth them in good humour and pleasing conceits toward themselves; or because it advanceth any other their ends. So that as it is said of untrue valours that some men's valours are in the eyes of others, so such men's industries are in the eyes of others, or at least in regard of their own designments; only learned men love business as an action according to nature, as agreeable to health of mind as exercise is to health of body, taking pleasure in the action itself, and not in the purchase, so that of all men they are the most indefatigable, if it be towards any business which can hold or detain their mind.

18TH-CENTURY ENGLISH

Jonathan Swift (1667-1745)

A Modest Proposal (1729)

I have been assured by a very knowing American of my acquaintance in London; that a young healthy child, well nursed, is, at a year old, a most delicious, nourishing, and wholesome food; whether it be stewed, roasted, baked, or boiled; and I make no doubt, that it will equally serve in a fricasie, or ragoust.

I do therefore humbly offer it to publick consideration, that of the hundred and twenty thousand children, already computed, twenty thousand may be reserved for breed; whereof only one fourth part to be males, which is more than we allow to sheep, black cattle, or swine; and my reason is, that these children are seldom the fruits of marriage, a circumstance not much regarded

by our savages; therefore, one male will be sufficient to serve four females. That the remaining hundred thousand, may, at a year old, be offered for sale to the persons of quality and fortune, through the kingdom; always advising the mother to let them suck plentifully in the last month, so as to render them plump, and fat for a good table. A child will make two dishes at an entertainment for friends; and when the family dines alone, the fore or hind quarter will make a reasonable dish; and seasoned with a little pepper or salt, will be very good boiled on the fourth day, especially in winter.

19TH-CENTURY ENGLISH

William Hazlitt (1778-1830)

Table Talk (1821)

On Familiar Style.

It is not easy to write a familiar style. Many people mistake a familiar for a vulgar style, and suppose that to write without affectation is to write at random. On the contrary, there is nothing that requires more precision, and, if I may so say, purity of expression, than the style I am speaking of. It utterly rejects not only all unmeaning pomp, but all low, cant phrases, and loose, unconnected, slipshod allusions. It is not to take the first word that offers, but the best word in common use; it is not to throw words together in any combinations we please, but to follow and avail ourselves of the true idiom of the language. To write a genuine familiar or truly English style, is to write as any one would speak in common conversation, who had a thorough command and choice of words, or who could discourse with ease, force, and perspicuity, setting aside all pedantic and oratorical flourishes. . . . Thus it is easy to affect a pompous style, to use a word twice as big as the thing you want to express: it is not so easy to pitch upon the very word that exactly fits it. Out of eight or ten words equally common, equally intelligible, with nearly equal pretensions, it is a matter of some nicety and discrimination to pick out the very one, the preferableness of which is scarcely perceptible, but decisive.

20TH-CENTURY ENGLISH

George Orwell (1903-1950)

Nineteen Eighty-Four (1948)

“It’s a beautiful thing, the destruction of words. Of course the great wastage in the verbs and adjectives, but there are hundreds of nouns that can be got rid of as well. It isn’t only the synonyms; there are also the antonyms. After all, what justification is there for a word which is simply the opposite of some other word? A word contains its opposites in itself. Take ‘good’ for instance. If you have a word like ‘good’, what need is there for a word like ‘bad’? ‘Ungood’

will do just as well—better, because it's an exact opposite, which the other is not. Or again, if you want a stronger version of 'good', what sense is there in having a whole string of vague useless words like 'excellent' and 'splendid' and all the rest of them? 'Plusgood' covers the meaning; or 'doubleplusgood' if you want something stronger. Of course we use these forms already, but in the final version of Newspeak there'll be nothing else".

APPENDIX VII

SOME USEFUL WEBSITES

English Language

Cambridge Dictionary of American English, Cambridge International Dictionary of English, Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms.

<http://www.cup.cam.ac.uk/esl/dictionary/>

The Early Modern English Dictionaries Database (1530-1657):

<http://www.chass.utoronto.ca/english/emed/emedd.html>

Miram-Webster on line dictionary

<http://www.m-w.com/home.htm>

History

On-line Reference Book for Medieval Studies

<http://orb.rhodes.edu/>

Internet Modern History Source Book

<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook.html>

Feudal Terms of England

<http://lonestar.texas.net/~rferrell/feudal.html>

History Channel

<http://www.historychannel.com/>

National Women's History Project

<http://www.nwhp.org/>

Philosophy

Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy

<http://plato.stanford.edu/>

Hippias: Limited Area Search of Philosophy

<http://hippias.evansville.edu/>

The Catholic Encyclopedia
<http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/>

eJournals Online
<http://www.liv.ac.uk/Philosophy/ejournals.html>

Bible History Online
<http://www.bible-history.com/>

KEY TO EXERCISES

UNIT 1

Word Study

unhappy; incorrect; illegal; immoral; unfortunate; independent; impossible; illegible

Exercise 1

1. tries; 2. is getting; 3. hopes; 4. is discussing; 5. agree; 6. needs; 7. are working; 8. meet.

Exercise 2

1. doesn't hear; 2. aren't paid; 3. doesn't have; 4. don't work; 5. isn't working; 6. isn't enjoying; 7. aren't advising; 8. aren't giving.

Exercise 3

Examples

1. Are you a doctor?; 2. What kind of lawyer is he?: 3. Where are they working?; 4. Is the sentence final?; 5. Which branch of law does she prefer?; 6. How often do you see your lawyer?; 7. When are you meeting him?; 8. Whose fault is it?

Exercise 4

1. are seeing; 2. wants; 3. costs; 4. is hearing; 5. is thinking; 6. is being; 7. has; 8. think.

Exercise 5

1. prefer; 2. share; 3. is speaking; 4. seems; 5. hates; 6. studies; 7. am thinking; 8. am having.

Comprehension

1. Because there had been disputes regarding jurisdictions between the clergy, the king's judges and the barons.
2. The archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, and the nobler and older men of the kingdom.
3. Article 6.

Word Study

1. archangels; 2. archpriest; 3. archrival; 4. archetype; 5. Archduke.

Exercise 6

1. There are few possibilities of changing that law; 2. The candidates had little difficulty with the exam; 3. His lawyer has no witnesses to call on; 4. There was no-one at the hearing; 5. I need no more books.

Exercise 7

1. Susan is not unhappy about her results; 2. Nobody doesn't want someone to talk to; 3. There was not little support for the reform; 4. Neither his mother nor his father are dead; 5. I have never been in trouble with the law.

Translation**Examples**

1. The prisoner pleads not guilty; 2. He is accused of theft; 3. He is represented by a well-known criminal lawyer; 4. Her lawyer isn't presenting much evidence in her favour this afternoon; 5. He's also calling few witnesses; 6. The jury found him guilty; 7. The judge convicted him after a long trial; 8. He will be in prison for a long time.

UNIT 2

Word Study

1. government; 2. institution; 3. administration; 4. statement; 5. election; 6. amendment; 7. nomination.

Exercise 1

1. Parliament met every day. The Parliament did not meet every day. Did the Parliament meet every day? 2. The eldest son took an oath of allegiance. The eldest son did not take an oath of allegiance. Did the eldest son take an oath of allegiance? 3. Peers made up the House of Lords. Peers did not make up the House of Lords. Did Peers make up the House of Lords? 4. War led to parliamentary change. War did not lead to parliamentary change. Did war lead to parliamentary change? 5. Further change came after revolution. Further change did not come after revolution. Did further change come after revolution? 6. The Queen chose the Life Peers. The Queen did not choose the Life Peers. Did the Queen choose the Life Peers? 7. King Edward built the Palace of Westminster. King Edward did not build the Palace of Westminster. Did King Edward build the Palace of Westminster? 8. The magnates brought judicial problems to the assemblies. The magnates did not bring judicial problems to the assemblies. Did the magnates bring judicial problems to the assemblies?

Exercise 2

1. was born – died; 2. fought; 3. became; 4. was; 5. broke; 6. did not make; 7. wrote; 8. won.

Exercise 3

1. started; 2. saw; 3. were sleeping; 4. were talking – were reading; 5. got; 6. lost – started; 7. called; 8. didn't listen – had.

Exercise 4

1. After the Prime Minister had died, his deputy came to power; 2. As soon as the new government had won the election, they revived the economy; 3. When James Johnson had been elected to Parliament, he moved to a flat in London; 4. He had stayed in a hotel until he found a suitable place; 5. After an economic crisis had started, the Government decided to hold an election; 6. Before the election was held, each party had published election pamphlets; 7. After the election had been held, the new government thanked all their supporters; 8. They felt secure after they had created new jobs.

Comprehension

1. The king demanded a subsidy from the common people.
 2. The knights refused to pay the subsidy.
 3. Because the king's mental capacity was questioned and it was felt he had given certain men too much power.

Word Study

1. dukedom; 2. wisdom; 3. martyrdom; 4. Christendom; 5. serfdom.

Exercise 5

1. used to live; 2. used to/would drive; 3. used to/would work; 4. always used to/would always play; 5. used to/would swim; 6. used to be; 7. used to/would play games and shoot; 8. even used to/would even feed the ducks.

Exercise 6

1. were called off; 2. were; 3. made; 4. drew; 5. were; 6. stood; 7. didn't vote; 8. behaved.

Translation**Examples**

1. The bill was amended several times; 2. The mayor took office last year; 3. The session of the Chamber lasted three hours; 4. In the Middle Ages the kings took the advice of the magnates; 5. The Duke had governed with great wisdom before the revolt; 6. While the opposition was arguing, the govern-

ment approved the budget; 7. It's high time the Prime Minister decided his economic policy; 8. If he hadn't been a supporter of the extreme right, he would have been elected.

UNIT 3

Word Study

1. anti-nuclear; 2. Counter-Reformation; 3. anti-monarchist; 4. anti-social; 5. counter-clockwise; 6. pro-war; 7. counter-argument; 8. pro-European.

Exercise 1

Examples

1. I haven't slept so well for weeks; 2. I'll go downstairs after I've put the baby to bed; 3. It has become dangerous to go out alone at night; 4. I've got tired of your complaining!; 5. Have you kept the letters I sent you?; 6. He's already spent all the money he inherited.

Exercise 2

1. has recently decided; 2. has always been; 3. has never wanted; 4. have tried; 5. have always hoped; 6. has been; 7. has already taken; 8. has just gone

Exercise 3

1. proclaimed; 2. have used; 3. has just visited; 4. was; 5. did he do; 6. has met; 7. has not taken; 8. have already resolved.

Exercise 4

1. have seen; 2. have been seeing; 3. I've been writing; 4. I've only finished; 5. has been staying; 6. I've lived; 7. he's been; 8. It hasn't rained.

Exercise 5

1. since; 2. at; 3. after; 4. From – to; 5. On – in; 6. By; 7. during; 8. for.

Comprehension

1. To inform Catherine of Aragon of the final sentence of divorce from Henry VIII.
2. Westminster Abbey
3. Cranmer says she married Henry before the coronation. He specifies this because she is visibly pregnant ("big with child") at the coronation.

Word Study

Examples

1. They reconstructed the demolished church; 2. I re-read the passage to make sure I had understood; 3. Please reformulate your request; 4. I must re-order those papers – they are in a mess; 5. Peace must be re-established in the area.

Exercise 6

1. the news; 2. to appear before Cranmer; 3. the marriage; 4. this Act.

Exercise 7

1. late; 2. after; 3. nowadays; 4. Afterwards; 5. lately; 6. once; 7. yet; 8. eventually.

Translation

Examples

1. The Pope has gone on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; 2. Monks live in the monastery; nuns in the convent; 3. He's been an altar-boy for two years and eventually would like to become a priest; 4. The clergy and laymen have not always lived together in harmony; 5. The Anglican Church has been discussing the question of divorce for many years; 6. He has converted to Buddhism; 7. The present archbishop has been in office for 25 years; 8. The Romans brought Christianity in the 4th century.

UNIT 4

Word Study

Examples

1. Today the computer is an indispensable tool in many activities; 2. The economic crisis has discouraged many investors; 3. Workers are on strike; 4. You'd better consult a solicitor as soon as possible; 5. Dustin Hoffman is my favourite actor.

Exercise 1

1. They attribute the first whole translation of the Bible to John Wycliffe; 2. They declared Wycliffe a heretic in 1408; 3. They were publishing vernacular versions of the Bible in French; 4. By 1530 they had published six editions and smuggled them into England; 5. They have published numerous other versions; 6. They are issuing new versions all the time.

Exercise 2

1. John has been given a prize by the foundation. A prize has been given to John by the foundation; 2. He was presented with a gold medal. A gold medal was presented to him; 3. I'm being shown the award tonight. The award is being shown to me tonight; 4. His mother will be sent it. It'll be sent to his mother; 5. A second book is going to be sold to the publisher.
The publisher is going to be sold a second book.

Exercise 3

1. Books can be borrowed from the library; 2. They must be brought back on time; 3. Otherwise a small fine may have to be paid; 4. You could be banned from the library by the librarian; 5. The book might have been taken back late; 6. The book could have been lost; 7. I would have been given a fine; 8. It should have been looked for.

Exercise 4

1. The publisher is written to once a week; 2. The word had to be looked up in the dictionary; 3. The introduction was taken out from the book; 4. A notice about the programme is being put up next week; 5. The teacher has never been listened to; 6. All problems are dealt with by the office; 7. Has that small publisher been taken over by OUP?; 8. Different sources were being drawn on for the dictionary.

Exercise 5

1. It is known that he is a very good translator; 2. It has been said that his translation was the most accurate; 3. It was estimated that his book would sell well; 4. It will be supposed that he has become very wealthy; 5. It was thought that he would win the prize; 6. It's being said that he will change his profession in the near future; 7. It is understood that he is tired of the lack of privacy; 8. It is hoped that he will change his mind.

Comprehension

1. The translators of the Bible.
2. To King James I.
3. Roman Catholics.

Word Study**Examples**

1. His Royal Highness King George I signed the letter; 2. The sorcerer recited a spell to invoke the powers of darkness; 3. The happiness she felt on hearing her husband was still alive is beyond description; 4. A lot of small businesses have gone bankrupt recently.

Exercise 6

Mighty; mercy; sovereign; reign; thick; walk; Occidental Star; unsettled; known; been; far and near; no; their eye beholds you; respected; their contentment does not diminish; brothers; Your Majesty never desisted; God's holy truth; Your Majesty's royal person.

Translation**Examples**

1. The translation of the Bible was disputed by theologians; 2. The twelve apostles taught the Christian faith; 3. The source of the translation was the Latin version; 4. The martyr was sentenced to death and sent to the stake; 5. The heretic upholds beliefs that are contrary to the teachings of the Church; 6. Banned books were read secretly; 7. The ancient manuscript has been transcribed by the scholars; 8. Greater harmony is being sought among Christian churches.

UNIT 5

Word Study**Examples**

1. Economists maintain that the current state of the financial market is very worrying; 2. The translator revised her work very carefully; 3. I've always dreamt of one day becoming a famous scientist; 4. Astronomers devote themselves to the scientific study of the celestial bodies; 5. That teacher has been a source of great inspiration to me; 6. "What's your wife's job?" "She's a biologist. She works in a laboratory."

Exercise 1

1. inquiry: U; 2. physics: U; 3. orbits: C; 4. basis: C; 5. reasoning: U; 6. nature: U,

Exercise 2

1. Her research is going well; 2. Put the luggage in the hall; 3. The news is very interesting; 4. They didn't earn much money from the project; 5. What modern furniture!; 6. He's hoping to find new work / a new job; 7. Researchers are making great progress in that field; 8. He makes a lot of business trips.

Exercise 3

beliefs; halves; phenomena; boys; hypotheses; potatoes; chairmen; labour markets; replies; children; -; series; crises; media / mediums; tempos / tempi

(mus.); criteria; mothers-in-law; women students; formulas / formulae; people; zoos.

Exercise 4

1. this month's *Nature*; 2. at John's house; 3. the earth's movement; 4. in a week's time; 5. girls' school; 6. this year's exam ...last year's; 7. a children's story; 8. today's world.

Exercise 5

1. thought; 2. discovery; 3. writings; 4. assumption; 5. conclusions; 6. findings; 7. application; 8. knowledge.

Comprehension

1. Mathematics.
2. Hobbes says reason should be used to define consequences and to proceed to conclusions.
3. Philosophers.

Word Study

1. multi-national; 2. multi-millionnaire; 3. multi-racial; 4. multi-cultural; 5. multi-lingual.

Exercise 6

1. make; 2. do; 3. make; 4. do; 5. make; 6. make; 7. do; 8. make.

Exercise 7

1. as; 2. like; 3. as; 4. as; 5. like; 6. as; 7. as – like; 8. as.

Exercise 8

1. as; 2. as; 3. alike; 4. as; 5. as; 6. likewise; 7. –like; 8. as.

Translation

Examples

1. He works as a mathematician. His brother does likewise; 2. Not everybody reasons alike; 3. As the experiment succeeded, she published the results; 4. As for his studies, he'll stop as soon as he can; 5. He behaves as though he were already a professional chemist; 6. People don't know anything about the computer science course; 7. I'm going to send the article to an international magazine like *Nature*; 8. As of (from) next year, I'm studying astronomy.

UNIT 6

Word Study

1. royalist; 2. Christian; 3. Communism; 4. pacifist; 5. Roman Catholicism; 6. atheist.

Exercise 1

1. to modify; 2. to accept; 3. to have; 4. to take; 5. making; 6. to listen; 7. losing; 8. doing.

Exercise 2

1. to restore; 2. to strengthen; 3. dissolving; 4. gaining; 5. to accept; 6. to come; 7. fleeing; 8. to respect.

Exercise 3

Examples

1. To reduce their secular powers; 2. To finance his war against the Spaniards; 3. To demand constitutional reform and the abolition of the class system; 4. To be made king.

Exercise 4

1. to rescue; 2. to have; 3. asking; 4. give; 5. to provide; 6. him to appeal; 7. to let; 8. him to reduce.

Exercise 5

Examples

It was vital to keep the whole matter secret; It has been necessary to amputate the wounded soldier's arm; 3. It is impossible to reduce the rate of inflation without increasing taxes; 4. It will be useful to bring a map with us; 5. Keeping the whole matter secret was vital; 6. Amputating the wounded soldier's arm has been necessary; 7. Reducing the rate of inflation without increasing taxes is impossible; 8. Bringing a map with us will be useful.

Comprehension

1. No, they want every man to enjoy his own property.
2. No, they wish for good government and not popular confusion.
3. Equal status to men.

Word Study

1. becloud; 2. bewildered; 3. beheld; 4. bewitched; 5. beget.

Exercise 6

1. He is thought to need more political support; 2. They are estimated to be planning an attack; 3. The government is believed to be spending too little on defence; 4. The King was thought to have escaped; 5. Cromwell was reported to have overthrown his Major Generals; 6. The royal couple was expected to be travelling to England; 7. The King was alleged to have been receiving too much money; 8. The opposing armies are said to be waging a new campaign in Scotland.

Translation**Examples**

1. The army was under the command of General Fairfax; 2. The rebel troops decided to withdraw after the defeat; 3. The armies met to fight; 4. It is estimated that 10,000 soldiers lost their lives in the slaughter; 5. The king was beheaded and the monarchy abolished; 6. The general commanded a cavalry that was stronger than the enemy's; 7. Pacifists acted as mediators in the negotiations; 8. It is said that the sovereign wants the general to surrender.

UNIT 7

Word Study

1. non-cooperation; 2. disunite; 3. amoral; 4. non-Euclidean; 5. asymmetric; 6. dissatisfaction.

Exercise 1

1. One; 2. a; 3. - / -; 4. one; 5. a; 6. a; 7. a; 8. a / -.

Exercise 2

1. - / -; 2. the / -; 3. -; 4. The / the; 5. the; 6. - / - / -; 7. the / - / -; 8. the.

Exercise 3

1. Smoking is very bad for you; 2. He is working as a doctor at the moment; 3. He lived for many years in France; 4. He earns £ 50,000 a year; 5. She worked for all of her life in Oxford; 6. This interesting book is about disappointed people; 7. Professor Black is retiring soon; 8. Mrs Peters called while you were at the meeting.

Exercise 4

1. the most; 2. last; 3. Next; 4. most; 5. The next; 6. The last.

Exercise 5

David Hume was a philosopher and historian who lived in Scotland. He was the second son of a minor nobleman. Hume made a lot of money from the sales of his various publications. He was best known during his lifetime for his work in the field of history. He wrote a history of England which was a best-seller for nearly a/one hundred years.

Word Study

1. alone; 2. aground; 3. aware; 4. alive; 5. ashore; 7. abroad.

Comprehension

1. True.
2. True.
3. False.

Exercise 6

maintained; held; asserted; rejected; argued; disavowed; claimed; refuted.

Exercise 7**Examples**

1. Britain will increase spending for universities, but the universities say the amount is inadequate; 2. Although the number of university students is rising, the number of teachers is dropping; 3. In spite of the fact that extra funds have been spent on research and training, some say standards are dropping; 4. University education is becoming more expensive. However, the government is paying a decreasing proportion of expenditure; 5. Despite the careful selection of students for admission, some very bright students are rejected.

Exercise 8**Examples**

1. The Left argued for electoral reform. By contrast, the Right argued against it; 2. Philip supports euthanasia. Similarly, Elizabeth advocates it; 3. The Pope has rejected the idea of women being priests. Yet, many Catholics disagree with this position; 4. Whereas Christian Democrats were opposed to abortion, Radicals argued in favour of it; 5. In the 1974 referendum, 60% of voters defended divorce. On the contrary, the remaining 40% disapproved of it.

Translation**Examples**

1. She is not able to prove her theory; 2. Unlike my sister, I advocate a certain pragmatism; 3. Adams proposes a nonconformist thesis, in contrast with

his way of behaving; 4. Neoplatonists defend moral realism but reject reductive forms of materialism; 5. His analysis of the question is not very subjective; 6. The student grasps the essentials, but he misses more abstract ideas; 7. The conclusion is deduced from the premise; 8. He uses arguments in favour of a religious approach.

UNIT 8

Word Study

1. underestimated; 2. overtaxed; 3. underprivileged; 4. overloaded; 5. over-emphasis; 6. underdeveloped.

Exercise 1

Examples

1. The magazine had a picture of Bill Clinton on the cover. The ground was soon covered with snow; 2. The wind is blowing – we'd better hoist the sails. The ship is sailing for Australia next week; 3. The room was empty when I came in. He was so thirsty that he emptied his glass in one gulp, 4. They drew me a map of how to get to their house. The region is unexplored – it hasn't been mapped yet; 5. Have you heard the good news? The goods have arrived; 6. Europe's trade with far-east countries has greatly increased. He made a fortune by trading in arms.

Exercise 2

1. Emigrants are sometimes forced to leave their homeland out of poverty and unemployment; 2. The present government policy is growing more and more unpopular; 3. He owns a sugar plantation in Brazil; 4. In California, the gold rush attracted fortune-seekers from all over the world; 5. The world economy has undergone a great many changes after the Internet revolution.

Exercise 3

1. business management course; 2. water level measuring device; 3. university education issues; 4. travel sickness remedies; 5. ocean exploration research; 6. east coast development plans; 7. a computer-operated system; 8. food transportation services.

Exercise 4

1. ex-husband, used-car; 2. X-rays; 3. twenty-first; 4. sister-in-law, forty-five; 5. four-year-old, semi-independent; 6. up-to-date; 7. sit-in; 8. -.

Exercise 5

the British; the Chinese; the English; the French; the Germans; the Greeks; the Dutch; the Irish; the Italians; the Scots; the Spanish; the Welsh.

Exercise 6

BA = Bachelor of Arts, British Academy; EU = European Union; GNP = Gross National Product; HRH = Her/His Royal Highness; NSW = New South Wales; NZ = New Zealand; Ph.D. = Philosophiae Doctor; PM = Police Magistrate, Prime Minister.

Comprehension

1. The formation of water spouts.
2. The natives invited the white people to land, but threatened and menaced them with their weapons.
3. They communicated with signs.

Word Study

1. hottish; 2. boyish; 3. sevenish; 4. yellowish; 5. tallish.

Exercise 7

1. relative clause; 2. noun; 3. after a preposition; 4. adjective.

Exercise 8

1. a sailing boat; 2. a hunting gun; 3. Cook liked making contact with the natives; 4. No smoking here; 5. He is thinking of emigrating; 6. He was rescued after swimming for hours; 7. Tens of natives resembling negroes stood on the beach; 8. Sailing to Australia took several months.

Exercise 9

paper; phone; photo; ad; plane.

Exercise 10

Brunch = breakfast + lunch; Chunnel = Channel + tunnel; Oxbridge = Oxford + Cambridge; smog = smoke + fog; Eurovision = European + television; workaholic = work + alcoholic.

Translation**Examples**

1. The Maltese and the Indians were British subjects; 2. After the American Revolution new countries to be colonized were being sought; 3. Neither of the two islands had ever been visited before; 4. The crossing of the Pacific Ocean lasted six months; 5. The Africans were sold at the slave market; 6.

Colonies provided raw materials; 7. The whole nation admired Cook's discoveries; 8. Many nations wanted to control the sugar trade.

UNIT 9

Word Study

1. reasonable; 2. comfortable; 3. sensible; 4. variable; 5. terrible; 6. suitable.

Exercise 1

1. a large Swiss bank; 2. a modern lending institute; 3. an effective monetary policy; 4. a round silver coin; 5. a small preparatory task; 6. rapid economic development; 7. an old English banknote; 8. a new member state.

Exercise 2

Examples

1. Changes in the economic system have been more dramatic than we expected; 2. In your opinion, what is the fastest way to balance the budget?; 3. We may be able to buy the house with the money we've got, but it's more likely that we'll need a bank loan; 4. This is one of the most modern computers on the market; 5. The present government's economic policy is far stricter than the former government's.

Exercise 3

1. Better; 2. the most successful; 3. oldest; 4. less / richer; 5. fastest; 6. worse; 7. latest; 8. more hopeful.

Exercise 4

1. as; 2. more; 3. the; 4. fewer; 5. than; 6. as; 7. more; 8. more / more or fewer / fewer.

Exercise 5

1. much more; 2. more and more; 3. as many as; 4. much harder.

Exercise 6

Examples

It is difficult for developing countries to get richer.

It is possible for small businesses to grow quickly.

It is unwise for banks to approve large loans without security.

It is important for young people to find employment quickly.

It is necessary for self-employed people to be insured.

Comprehension

1. The application of labour and employment/unemployment.
2. They have favoured arts, manufacture, commerce rather than agriculture.
3. 1. Necessary expense for society; 2. Methods of contribution; 3. Public debt.

Word study

1. table; 2. load; 3. force; 4. book; 5. house.

Exercise 7

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1) to supply – to provide with | 6) nation – country |
| 2) to consume – to use up | 7) abundance – plentifulness |
| 3) to perish – to die | 8) conduct – behaviour |
| 4) to devour – to eat | 9) revenue – income |
| 5) to endeavour – to try | 10) infant – child |

Exercise 8

1. temporary; 2. earn; 3. sacked; 4. resign; 5. employ; 6. application; 7. interview; 8. Employers.

Exercise 9

Examples

Britain's population is higher than Italy's, but the US population is the highest. Italy is bigger than Britain, but the US is the biggest. Wages and earnings are lower in the US than in Britain. They are the lowest in Italy. Unemployment is almost as high in Italy as in Britain. Unemployment is higher than a year ago in all three countries.

Translation

- 1) First, you've got to finish your studies. Then, you can look for a job; 2. Her first job was boring, but her second was even more boring; 3. Unemployment is getting higher and higher; 4. The sooner the government reduces public debt, the sooner the economy will improve; 5. The situation is as serious as it was last year; 6 Fewer and fewer people have interesting and well-paid jobs; 7. The inflation rate has never been so high; 8. The European Central Bank lowered the interest rates, then it increased education spending, finally it strengthened international exchanges.

UNIT 10

Word Study

1. out-patient; 2. income; 3. outward; 4. inside/indoors – outside/outdoors; 5. outcome; 6. outlook.

Exercise 1

1. It is predicted that the economy will grow fast; 2. The industry is progressing steadily; 3. The economists have studied the outcome closely; 4. Interest rates will be cut significantly; 5. Unemployment rose slightly; 6. The apprentices were treated well; 7. Social problems range widely; 8. The export income was greatly stimulated.

Exercise 2

1. harder; 2. earlier; 3. best; 4. more quickly; 5. more usefully; 6. more rapidly; 7. worse – worst; 8. fastest.

Exercise 3

1. She has never had a day off work in her life; 2. Children rarely went to school in the 19th century; 3. The workers were always against the employers; 4. Conditions were sometimes very harsh / Sometimes conditions were very harsh; 5. People seldom returned to the country; 6. Such rapid development hadn't ever been seen before; 7. I have often tried to work faster and more efficiently; 8. The unions are usually able to resolve industrial disputes.

Exercise 4

1. Conditions are far better now; 2. They earn much more money than in the past; 3. My new job is quite enjoyable; 4. She suffered rather badly when she lost her job; 5. This training course is very useful; 6. We work fairly quickly; 7. You don't work quickly enough; 8. The production line is moving too slowly.

Exercise 5

1. Scientists; 2. electricity; 3. equipment; 4. production; 5. engineer.

Comprehension

1. 1761.
2. All those who could work were richer.
3. Old people, the unemployed, and mothers with illegitimate children.

Word Study

1. She is a successful manager; 2. He cooked some really tasteless food; 3.

I listened to some restful music; 4. We felt quite helpless and unable to intervene; 5. He has become more thoughtful lately.

Exercise 7.

Examples

In 1570 the population of Britain was just under 5 million. Over the following 200 years it grew slightly, rising to just over 5 million. In the late 18th century it suddenly rose and by 1801 it had tripled, reaching over 15 million. The growth continued rapidly and by 1901 the population was almost 45 million.

Translation

1. Economic growth is much faster than it was last year; 2. The latest figures show that employment is rising; 3. Between 1801 and 1831 the population doubled; 4. The introduction of the steam-engine greatly sped up the spinning and weaving processes; 5. The trade unions succeeded in making working conditions better and better; 6. Great Britain was the most industrialised country in the world; 7. The spinner and her elder sisters earned four guineas a month; 8. The upward trend was followed by a fall before levelling off at 10%.

UNIT 11

Word Study

1. kingship; 2. ownership; 3. scholarship; 4. friendship; 5. dictatorship; 6. leadership.

Exercise 1

1. must; 2. can; 3. will; 4. should / ought to; 5. can / may; 6. could; 7. mustn't; 8. shall.

Exercise 2

1. He doesn't have to read that book for the exam; 2. He should study harder; 3. I will certainly help you; 4. I think it may rain later today; 5. It is likely he will come to the meeting; 6. We'll have to / We must talk to someone about our problems; 7. You can't see that film – it isn't suitable; 8. You mustn't touch that wire – it's dangerous!

Exercise 3

1. Did you have to work late last night?; 2. I won't be able to forget the terrible accident for a long time; 3. When you graduate, you'll have to look for a job; 4. It can often be hard to concentrate on your studies; 5. He won't be

able to finish the essay on time unless he hurries up; 6. Last week, I was allowed to hand in the essay late; 7. I won't be allowed to do it again in the future, though; 8. I'll have to try harder to be punctual in the future.

Exercise 4

1. He must have wanted to explore the world; 2. He can't have thought his theory was completed; 3. He must have been upset; 4. He must have believed his ideas were correct.

Comprehension

1. No, he says it will take two or three years to finish.
2. No, he says they may be positive in a limited way.
3. No, he examined domesticated animals and cultivated plants.

Word Study

1. subspecies; 2. superpower; 3. transformed; 4. interchanged; 5. subdivided; 6. transported; 7. transcontinental; 8. superhuman.

Exercise 5

1. We are going to take part in an expedition to explore Antarctica; 2. The expedition looks as though it's going to be very exciting; 3. I expect we will / shall be away for three months; 4. The weather will certainly be very cold; 5. We have been told we will / shall have to take very warm clothes; 6. I hope we will / shall reach the Pole itself; 7. We are certainly going to try very hard to make it; 8. Shall I write to you while I'm away?

Exercise 6

1. The headlines announced: "Scott to journey to the South Pole."; 2. He and his party were to cross the ice on foot; 3. They were to pull their sleds by hand; 4. The journey was to take several months; 5. They were to have been the first to the Pole, but Amundsen preceded them by a month; 6. They were to have returned to the base, but they all died of hunger and illness; 7. We are to study Scott's adventure in our history course next year; 8. The centenary of his death is to be celebrated in a few years' time.

Exercise 7

1. herd of cattle; 2. school of fish; 3. pack of wolves; 4. swarm of bees; 5. flock of sheep; 6. flight of parrots.

Translation

1. You must prove your theory – it can't be correct; 2. You shouldn't have

made that journey by train – you spent so much money for nothing; 3. I'll be able to explore the flora and the fauna of New Zealand next year; 4. The voyage will probably/may last two months; 5. Would you like to come with me? Shall I book a ticket for you?; 6. The most difficult aspect, namely the proof, will be examined subsequently; 7. The animal kingdom is composed / made up of mammals, fish, birds, reptiles and insects; 8. We should/ought to ask the biologist the name of that species of bat.

UNIT 12

Word Study

1. The philosopher Norberto Bobbio has recently written his autobiography;
2. Her self-centred attitude makes her extremely unpleasant;
3. He was acquitted because the jury recognized that he had acted in self-defence;
4. I learnt more by myself than from schools or teachers, so I may be defined as a self-educated man;
5. Autogenesis is the production of living organisms from inanimate matter.

Exercise 1

1. say; 2. tell; 3. tell; 4. said / tell; 5. say; 6. told; 7. told; 8. said.

Exercise 2

1. She declared that I was wrong;
2. He said that the teacher had mistaken his statement;
3. We observed that he would change his mind;
4. Mill argues that the individual should never be constrained;
5. He said that he could have tried harder;
6. They confirmed that it was time for change;
7. They cried that they had to find a solution;
8. He says that he is seeking an answer.

Exercise 3

1. She said that she was going the next day;
2. He explained that she had gone there the previous week;
3. They said they could come to London the following year;
4. He stated that he had been there since the month before;
5. He thought he would see them later that day;
6. They remarked that they had seen the teacher a week before;
7. We replied that we had seen her the day before;
8. He suggested that he would invite her there then.

Exercise 4

1. As well as writing Principles of Political Economy, Mill wrote Utilitarianism;
2. Besides being a pupil of his father, James Mill was a pupil of Ben-

tham; 3. In addition to being an advocate for social reform, Bentham was a utilitarian; 4. They supported the greatest happiness principle. Furthermore, they supported trade unionism; 5. Besides being able to lead to truth, the self-restraint principle can help us fully develop ourselves.

Exercise 5

1. optimism-pessimism; 2. pleasure-pain; 3. right-wrong; 4. good-bad; 5. true-false; 6. goodness-evil; 7. hope-despair; 8. truthful-lying.

Comprehension

1. True.
2. False.
3. True.

Word Study

1. misunderstood; 2. mishandled; 3. misconduct; 4. misfortune; 5. misinterpreted; 6. misinformed; 7. misrepresented; 8. misleading.

Exercise 6

1. He wanted to know which book I was studying from; 2. I wondered how I could finish the textbook before the exam; 3. He asked where I had found that quotation; 4. She asked me why I had read that book; 5. He wanted to know if I read much social philosophy; 6. She asked whether they had been investigating social conditions; 7. He asked who my favourite philosopher was; 8. She asked if I would have time to study all that material.

Exercise 7

1. didn't need to; 2. needn't; 3. needn't; 4. needn't; 5. mustn't.

Translation

1. He told us that he had finished his treatise on logic; 2. I wonder why she cannot distinguish between good and evil / does not know the difference between right and wrong; 3. He misinterpreted my proposal for social reforms; 4. I think it's worth greater attention; 5. The teacher said that the pupil was an ass; 6. Furthermore, he said he wouldn't pass the exam; 7. We were told that besides being evil, the book is misleading; 8. He needn't have sat the exam again; he had already passed it.

UNIT 13

Word Study

1. magic; 2. musical; 3. periodic; 4. cynic; 5. heroic; 6. critical; 6. fanatical.

Exercise 1

1. are – is; 2. heats / is heated – boils; 3. work – get.

Exercise 2

1. get – will go; 2. react – goes; 3. get – may go; 4. will stay – is raining; 5. come – are; 6. will cook – like; 7. tell – won’t; 8. want – will be.

Exercise 3

1. had – should find; 2. didn’t like – try; 3. might choose – wanted; 4. didn’t face – could get; 5. would have – got; 6. told – should; 7. didn’t – have; 8. would – followed.

Exercise 4

1. had seen – would have been; 2. had been found – would have been; 3. had been resolved – wouldn’t have needed; 4. had not done – wouldn’t have got; 5. hadn’t got – wouldn’t have got so bad; 6. hadn’t been – wouldn’t have had; 7. hadn’t had – wouldn’t have gone; 8. hadn’t gone – would have had.

Exercise 5

Examples

1. because; 2. owing to; 3. and; 4. therefore; 5. if and only if; 6. or; 7. then; 8. so.

Comprehension

1. Empirical sciences use inductive methods.
2. It leads to logical inconsistencies.
3. No, he does not believe Kant’s solution was successful.

Word Study

1. virtuous – courageous; 2. affirmative; 3. prohibitive; 4. famous; 5. attractive – dangerous.

Exercise 6

1. Had you answered the question correctly, you would have won; 2. So upset was he, that he burst into tears; 3. Never have they been so happy; 4. Should you see John, tell him I need to see him; 5. Impossible as it may seem, the task must be finished.

Exercise 7

1. Under no circumstances are they to come; 2. If you were to prove the theory, you would be a genius; 3. No sooner had we finished, than we went home; 4. She does want to study physics at university; 5. We don't want her to study physics at all.

Translation

1. If the premises are true, the conclusion is true too / so is the conclusion; 2. Never had I thought of drawing such a conclusion!; 3. If they had been more sensitive, they would have got better results; 4. As a consequence, their work was not accepted at all; 5. He drew up a curriculum vitae in good faith / a bona fide curriculum vitae; 6. Year after year science progresses step by step; 7. Owing to his way of reasoning, he was declared unfit for the job; 8. Statistics show that some caution is necessary.

UNIT 14

Word Study

1. She's always moralizing about other people's behaviour; 2. Philosophers have often theorized about the ideal form of state; 3. The immigration policy of the government has been severely criticized by the opposition; 4. Stop fantasizing and face reality!; 5. The idea of infinity is very difficult to conceptualize.

Exercise 1

1. whose; 2. that; 3. which; 4. whom; 5. which; 6. that; 7. who; 8. which.

Exercise 2

2. the information service I rang; 4. the information she gave me; 8. the result I found.

Exercise 3

1. Susan is a friend I went to university with; 2. I found the book I was looking for; 3. I read about a course I want to go to; 4. This is the painting you told me about; 5. He wrote the book you have a positive opinion of.

Exercise 4

1. The evidence on which he based his theory was uncertain; 2. The decision to which they have come is a just one; 3. Professor Peters is the man from whom I obtained the information; 4. That party has some policies to which I am opposed; 5. The librarian with whom I consulted is extremely courteous.

Exercise 5

1. I will never forget the day when I won the essay prize; 2. She did not understand the reason why he discontinued his studies; 3. The university where I studied was very old; 4. June is the month when we all sit our final examination; 5. This is the study where I have spent hours over my books.

Exercise 6

1. It was she who told the children the story last night; 2. It was the children to whom she told the story last night; 3. It was the story that she told to the children last night; 4. It was last night that she told the children the story.

Comprehension

1. He says it comes from the urge to catalogue and classify human behaviour and flora and fauna.
2. Diversion / instruction; freedom / obedience; exploration / safety.
3. No, some of the children have very adult faces and expressions.

Word Study

1. After the end of World War II, friendly relations were established between the two countries; 2. The schoolteacher had a motherly attitude towards her pupils; 3. It was very cowardly of them to fly from danger like that; 4. Living in a big city can make one feel very lonely; 5. There have always been brotherly feelings between us.

Exercise 7

1. put forward; 2. deal with; 3. lead to; 4. is for; 5. carry out; 6. broke down;
7. drew on; 8. pointed out.

Exercise 8

1. raised; 2. abolish; 3. rise; 4. seeking; 5. discovered; 6. fallen; 7. crushed; 8. continued.

Translation

1. It was he who discovered the new source of information; 2. His prejudices, which are unacceptable, have greatly influenced him; 3. Our research on the subject has a Marxist tendency; 4. I find the subject fascinating but the method questionable; 5. Their position, which has undergone great changes, is solid by now; 6. Some consider the matter of vital importance; 7. That historian, whose field is economic history, has sought new data; 8. History is past politics: politics is present history.

UNIT 15

Word Study

1. The teacher simplified the text so that the students could read it more easily; 2. The damage we suffered is difficult to quantify; 3. We must intensify our efforts if we want to achieve our goals; 4. I hope this specialization course will qualify me for a better job; 5. Your private problems cannot justify your inefficiency at work.

Exercise 1

1. He has done useful research on bioethics; 2. I have learnt to use a computer; 3. One day I want to become a moral philosopher; 4. They met at an interesting conference; 5. One person can make the decision, not two; 6. Moral questions often involve life and death; 7. Only one choice is possible; 8. The rights of a mentally retarded person should never be abused.

Exercise 2

1. no-one; 2. none; 3. No; 4. None; 5. no-one; 6. no; 7. none; 8. no.

Exercise 3

1. Some; 2. any; 3. Anyone/anybody; 4. Any; 5. some; 6. Someone/Somebody; 7. anyone/anybody; 8. any.

Exercise 4

1. everything; 2. Each; 3. everybody/everyone; 4. each; 5. Every; 6. everywhere ; 7. Everyone; 8. Each.

Exercise 5

1. all; 2. whole; 3. whole; 4. All; 5. All; 6. all; 7. whole; 8. whole.

Exercise 6

1. They all studied the plan to use animals in the experiment; 2. Each of them agrees to the project; 3. Every time I visit that laboratory, I see new things; 4. I listened to both plans, but did not like either of them; 5. None of the scientists was not worried about the decision; 6. Neither proposal had no problems; 7. To hope for the best is all you can do; 8. There was no one who protested openly.

Comprehension

1. He defines consciousness as the ability to reason and use language.
2. The ethical treatment of animals.
3. Qualitative or phenomenological nature of experience.

Word Study

1. Shakespearean; 2. Aristotelian; 3. Malthusians; 4. Elizabethan; 5. Freudian.

Exercise 7**Examples**

1. The first men and women/human beings lived in caves; 2. A bad worker always blames his or her tools; 3. While the police held back the crowd, the fire brigade put out the fire; 4. Authors must use their ability to bring their characters to life; 5. The head teacher of every school is responsible for his or her students.

Translation

1. Both ethics and metaphysics are branches of philosophy; 2. I am not interested in either subject; 3. I don't agree with using animals in scientific experiments; 4. I believe animals have all the same feelings that we have; 5. The average person thinks about his or her ethical positions; 6. The theory about how men and women ought to live is the most widely-discussed today; 7. Some accepted the idea, others rejected it, still others are uncertain; 8. Every one must clarify their own definition of responsibility.

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