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Cover Picture: Sir Edwin Lutyens' Memorial to the Fallen of Two World Wars, Victoria Park, Leicester. Unveiled July 4th 1925. Photo by Central Photographic Unit, University of Leicester

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THE DEVIL'S ARCHDEACON;
THE LORD'S FACTOTUM

T. Hughie Jones

Presidential Address delivered 4th October 1994

Despite the seeming appositeness of my title - "The Devil's Archdeacon; The Lord's Factotum", I must immediately disavow any autobiographical ascription. The label was self-ascribed by my subject, William Bodham Donne, henceforth referred to as "William", a minor, but, I hope, attractive character of the nineteenth-century English cultural scene, whom I first encountered some years ago, when I was researching censorship in the Victorian theatre. I find it curious that a distinguished member of our Society, John Florance, researched the same topic for the following period in his doctoral thesis. But to my subject.

It is claimed - probably libellously - that the guide book to a Northern Ireland town begins "Ballymena, like ancient Gaul, is quartered into three equal halves! I cannot guarantee their equality, but what I want to share with you this evening is quartered into three halves, A brief account of William’s life will be followed by an examination of his literary output, while the greatest attention will be paid to his role as Examiner of Plays.

William Bodham Donne, with antecedents including (certainly) the poet William Cowper and (just possibly) the poet and divine, John Donne, was born on the 29th July 1809 and baptized the following day, at Mattishall in Norfolk, where he died in 1882. For at least five generations that county had been the home of Donnes, who had frequently inter-married (William’s own parents were first cousins). He was educated at Bury St Edmunds grammar school, where he formed lasting friendships with James Spedding (the editor of Bacon), Edward Fitzgerald (translator of Omar Khayyam) and John Mitchell Kemble, whose daughter, Mildred, would later marry one of Donne’s sons, Charles Edward. The Kemble connection will return in this paper, and led to William’s appointment as Examiner of Plays. After school, he went up to Caesius College, Cambridge, where his father had been a fellow, but conscientious scruples against taking the religious tests then imposed prevented him from graduating.

After leaving Cambridge, he retired to Mattishall where, in 1830, he followed the family tradition by marrying a cousin, Catharine Johnson. They eventually had five children, two daughters and three sons, one of whom also married into the extended Donne family.

William now began a literary career which lasted the whole of his life, and of which more will be said later. A move to Bury St Edmunds in 1846, for the education of his sons, led to new friendships with other minor figures on the Victorian literary scene - H. Crabb Robinson, Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet, Thomas Manning, the scholar/traveller friend of Charles Lamb, and George Borrow. It was to this move that he referred by acknowledging the rubbish collected in Mattishall by Donnes through three generations.

I am sure, when the people at Bury see what I bring, they will set me down for a retired pawnbroker; and when the visitors to my auction see what I leave, they will think Noah is selling off his fixtures and furniture from the ark!

In 1852 William declined the editorship of the Edinburgh Review, to which he was a prolific contributor, on the grounds that his habits of life were too retired to keep him in the current of public opinion. His remoteness did not, however, prevent him from accepting, in the same year, the librarianship of the London Library, an appointment which was the occasion of (and I quote), "the only first-class battle in the history of the Library". The battle was between no lesser warriors than William Ewart Gladstone and Thomas Carlyle, and was indeed in the history, not the annals, for there is no hint in the sedate minutes of the committee meetings of May and June 1852 that Gladstone and Carlyle were bitterly opposed. But they were. The Chancellor’s candidate, named Giacomo Lacaita, had three disqualifications in Carlyle’s eyes: he was a Neapolitan émigré, he had no library experience and . . . he was Gladstone’s candidate. The story of the battle, entertainingly told by Simon Nowell-Smith, (English Libraries 1800-1850, publ. 1958) is almost farcical. Lacaita, confident of Gladstone’s victory, postponed his wedding to be available for installation; Carlyle was confined to bed with ‘flu, but conducted a robust campaign by letter and interview. On the day, William was convincingly elected. Nearly forty years on, Gladstone, chairing the Library’s annual meeting, referred to the battle with Carlyle as "a lover’s quarrel".

Five years as librarian were enough for William. Nowell-Smith describes him as "much too thin-skinned to be the head of a lending library". William, resigning to become the chief Examiner of Plays in the Lord Chamberlain’s office, disclaimed either a thin-skin or a quarrelsome temper, but doubted whether he could much longer have (I quote again) put up with the almost daily provocations to explode which the unreasonableness of many, the unpunctuality of many, and the utter want of common civility in some, tend to excite. I should be sorry that an accomplished and refined gentleman should take the post under the delusion that he will have in it either much leisure for his own pursuits or much peace of mind in his public duties. (English Libraries, p.73).

"Leisure for his own pursuits" was what William had constantly sought and profitably employed, and it is to that employment that we now turn. From the 1840s onwards his name was rarely absent from the literary journals of the day. Contributions were made to Fraser’s Magazine, The Weekly

The contributions ranged from reviews of books as varied as Stephens's Lectures on France, by way of the Encyclopaedia Britannica and Conington's Vergil, to Kemble's Saxons in England and Help's Spanish America. This versatility was mirrored in his own compositions. Introductions for English readers to Euripides and Tacitus, an edition, with notes, of Catullus, and another of Terence, stand alongside Essays on the Drama, Old Roads and New Roads (a miscellany on ancient literature and modern history), Magic and Witchcraft, The Correspondence of George III with Lord North - the breadth of interest and knowledge is bewildering and admirable, even for that more leisureed age. An 1845 address to the recently formed Norwich Athenæum (an institution not dissimilar in composition and aims to this august Society) examined "Literature, as a pursuit honourable and beneficial both to nations and individuals", while his 1856 lecture to the Royal Institution was on the theme of "the works of Chaucer, considered as historical illustrations of England in the 14th century".

His reading was both wide and deep. In a short chapter on the Alcestis of Euripides, he quotes appropriately from Wordsworth, Browning, Cowper, Mrs Hemans and Chaucer, while the introductory essay in the same volume - Athens in the days of Euripides - is a model of compression without constraint. But his learning was lightly and modestly worn. There is no parade for the sake of it, but rather an unassuming offering of what he seems to believe all share with him and are merely having brought to their remembrance. He was no polymath - science, politics, the thriving technology of his age, held little appeal for him - but in his chosen world of literature he moved confidently and attractively, commending more by his own usage and obvious enjoyment than by assiduous advocacy. The Norwich lecture already mentioned repays a reading in this connection.

His style is courteous, urbane, yet forceful and not, on occasion, without a touch of irony. An area still to be explored by your lecturer (but not this evening) is William's seeming antagonism to organised religion, at least as exemplified by the Church of his day. Hear him, in an essay on Popular Amusements, regretting the opposition of the Church to the expansion of plebeian entertainment:

Divines, not content with describing this world as a world of probation, represent it as one of durance also. To be happy, or to seem so, is to tread the primrose path of sin. Philosophy taught that health of mind was connected with, if not dependent upon, health of body [mens sana in corpore sano]; but theology, at least such as is expounded from the pulpit or in books, seldom if ever teaches anything of the sort: health and cleanliness are sublunary considerations savouring of the earth, and as for cheerfulness, it is not so much as to be named in the congregation...so far from desiring to send home his hearers with renewed interest in their daily life, the shepherd dismisses his flock with the assurance that this is the worst possible of worlds, and that the best use we can make of it is to be as ungenial and uncomfortable in it as we can.

It is time to turn to that curious task to which William, from 1857 onwards, devoted the remainder of his working life, until 1874.

In introducing the theme of nineteenth-century theatrical censorship, it will be sufficient for our purposes to go back in time to 1737, when an Act was passed (10 Geo.II c.28) regulating theatres. The Act, resulting indirectly from Walpole's reaction to Gay's Beggar's Opera, produced some nine years earlier, and directly from another political satire, The Golden Rump, attempted to secure the safety of ministers of the Crown and their like from such productions. Lords Chamberlain and their minions were to protest in the following century (perhaps too much for conviction) that "Walpole's Act" gave them no powers which they, or their predecessors, had not already possessed, and, indeed, the Master of the King's Revels had, in the seventeenth century, exercised a censorial activity over plays and their production.

Nonetheless, the 1737 Act, by regularising and defining powers, undoubtedly gave practical impetus and incentive to their enforcement which was to last for more than two centuries, and the impact of which is with us still. By the Act, there was created an "Examiner of Plays", and a Deputy Examiner, whose task was to carry out the duties assigned to the Lord Chamberlain. These duties were twofold: to license buildings in a changing geographical area of London and its environs (which for the greater part of the nineteenth century was co-terminous with the metropolitan jurisdiction) in which drama could be legitimately performed - hence the phrase "legitimate stage" and its cognates; and, secondly, to license for production in such theatres, new drama.

Two points of interest attach to the legislation: it was the production on stage of the drama, not its printed publication, which the Lord Chamberlain licensed; so that the submission of scripts to the Examiner of Plays was the responsibility not of the authors, but of the theatre managers: secondly, the dual licensing role of the Lord Chamberlain led to a Gilbertian anomaly which was apparently not noted by that usually astute playwright during his 1873 passage of arms with the censor; namely, that if an unlicensed play were performed in an unlicensed theatre, the practical consequence was impunity, because the house, and therefore the activities in which it engaged, were technically non-existent.

In 1866 a Select Committee of the House of Commons examined the state of the theatre, and though concerned with many other aspects - safety, relationship to the music-halls, etc., devoted considerable attention to the operation of censorship. By this time the Examiner of Plays was our William, who had succeeded to the office on the death of the previous incumbent, John Mitchell Kemble, his old school friend, scn of the actor, Charles Kemble. John had himself succeeded his father as Examiner. William had become Deputy Examiner in 1854 and was to continue to act until his retirement in 1874, and it is as Examiner that he described himself, in 1870, as "The Devil's Archdeacon". It is from the 1866 Select Committee Report that much of our remaining material is gathered. Of the phenomenon of
censorship, its operation, costs, results and reception, much more might be said than is necessary here, where our concern is with William in the office.

The Hon. Spencer S. B. Ponsonby, Comptroller of the Lord Chamberlain’s office, was the first witness called by the Committee, and in that part of his evidence relating to censorship he laid down the major criteria adopted by the Examiner:

On what special grounds has the Lord Chamberlain refused a licence for a play at any time? - You will see, in Appendix K, that the instances given tell their own story. The object has been principally to exclude any scriptural subject, or plays in which highwaymen or any immorality are exalted, and any personal, or personally political questions. The returns show that from the beginning of 1852 to the end of 1865, 2816 plays were submitted for license, out of which only 19 were rejected; of those, two were from scriptural subjects, seven were of the swell mob and burglary school, and the bulk of the remainder were French plays of an immoral tendency or English versions of them.

Appendix K to the evidence supports Ponsonby’s classification. Titles like Hebrew Son, or, Child of Babylon, a version of the popular theme of Joseph and his brethren, or Triumph of Jewish Queen, dramatising the story of Esther, were obvious non-starters, dealing, as they did, with overt Biblical subjects.

Other titles in Ponsonby’s list illustrate the genre of the "swell mob and burglary school" - Rotherhithe; or, The Olden Time; or, The Female Highwayman: and Gypsy of Edgeware; or, The Crime in Gill’s Hill Lane, which exploited a notorious recent murder. Two versions of La Dame aux Camélias appear in the banned list, demonstrating the continued prohibition of this story, and exemplifying Ponsonby’s third category, the immoral.

To this threefold exercise of censorship - excision of the religiously unacceptable, the politically unacceptable, and the morally unacceptable, William was now committed, and his own evidence to the Committee shows how he performed. He admitted to having examined some 1800 manuscripts, of which very few had been rejected outright, and a diminising number altered. His reasons for rejection, which he claimed always to state, though the Examiner was under no compulsion to do so, and few did, were the usual ones:

It is either indecent, or profane, or it is religiously or politically objectionable.

The different views and resultant practices of Examiners were exemplified by the treatment accorded (by Donne) to La Dame aux Camélias and (by Kemble) to the musical version, La Traviata.

... On what ground was La Traviata allowed? - That was not done by the same Examiner who refused to license La Dame aux Camélias, and Mr John Kemble thought differently and passed La Traviata.

But you rejected La Dame aux Camélias? - Yes... I think that if there is a musical version of a piece, it makes a difference, for the story is then subsidiary to the music and singing.

We have already learned that William declined the editorship of a learned journal on the grounds that he was too retiring to keep abreast of public opinion. Apparently he felt no such diffidence about exercising his censorial office:

... I suppose you have considerable knowledge of the tastes of the public with regard to those matters? - I hardly know that; I am not a frequent playgoer; I do not watch the currents of public taste very closely.

On most aspects of censorship William’s views were identical with those of his contemporaries, though his individuality was occasionally shown, most notably in his dictum that double entendre "is a species of wit which is very nearly extinct".

It is quite clear that for him any attempt at blurring moral distinctions - and he was one with his day in believing them to be clear-cut - was an attempt he was charged to frustrate. He has already been quoted for his adherence to the criteria long established by his predecessors, and it is manifest that the application of them was a matter of principle:

You draw the pen through anything in the shape of an oath? Yes, always.

Anything that turns religion into ridicule? - Yes.

And any political joke is objected to? - Yes.

So clear-cut was the procedure that William could even involve his children in it. There is a delightful story, perhaps apocryphal, of members of the family surrounded by play-scripts and an excited daughter crying out, "Father, here’s God again!", to which the Examiner of Plays answers abstractly, "Strike it out, dear, and substitute "Heavenly".

We end this aspect of William’s career by returning to the 1873 clash with W.S. Gilbert mentioned earlier. The case is of interest in that Happy Land, co-authors Gilbert and, confusingly, Gilbert a Beckett, is a burlesque of The Wicked World, Gilbert’s own composition of the same year, 1873. A prefatory note to the published version of The Happy Land reads:

This book contains the EXACT TEXT of the piece as played on the occasion of the Lord Chamberlain’s official visit to the Court Theatre on the 6th March 1873, three days after the opening. Those who will take the trouble to compare the original text with the expurgated version, as played nightly at the Court Theatre, will be in a position to appreciate the value of the Lord Chamberlain’s alterations.
THE AUTHORS

The alterations affected the appearance, in the burlesque, of three earthlings translated to fairyland (the "Happy Land" of the title) and named as "Mr G", "Mr L" and "Mr A". Audiences were helped in the not-too-difficult task of identifying the three by make-up and costume which unmistakably revealed "Mr L" to be Robert Lowe, Chancellor of the Exchequer and author of the controversial matchtax; "Mr A" was A.S. Ayrton, the current Commissioner of Public Works; while "Mr G" was, of course, the Grand Old Man himself, Gladstone.

Gilbert was furious at the ban on portrayal of the three, and wrote a letter of protest to the stage paper, The Era, which the editor printed below one from the Examiner himself, whose gentle spirit had been wounded by the abuse consequent on his action. Gilbert's final paragraph is all that can be quoted here, but it suggests the sense of the whole:

... I may have done Mr Donne an injustice, but I have always accounted for his objections on the theory that the existence of his office depends on his showing that it is of some practical value, and if he is unable to "return" a satisfactory number of revisions, the Censorship of Plays will run some risk of abolition. I have no particular desire to bring about this catastrophe, but at the same time, I am unwilling that it should be averted at my expense.

It is time, Mr Chairman, to bring this somewhat discursive account of Donne's life to an end. I am mindful of the little girl, subjected to mandatory and protracted school reading, who complained, "This book told me more about dinosaurs than I really wanted to know". It is the fault of enthusiasts to inflict their Passion on an audience beyond that audience's desire to share it - My only excuse is the charm that my subject exerted on all who knew him. At his death, tributes were paid to his literary achievements, his perhaps surprising local involvement as magistrate and deputy lieutenant, and to the fairness and integrity with which he carried out his censorial duties. Many savoured the memory of his quixic wit, exemplified in the epigram on Landor

Beneath this stone lies Walter Savage Landor, Who half an eagle was, and half a Gânder

Then there was the instant mot juste at a Trinity College dinner, when he was asked to compose a motto for the college snuff-box, which was circulating freely on the table. "Considering where we are", he said, "there could be nothing better than 'Quicunque vult'"

Let the last word on my subject be that of his closest friend, Edward Fitzgerald:

Ah, there is a man without a fault; the least selfish man I ever knew.

Venerable T. Hughie Jones.
68 Main Street,
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Melton Mowbray.
HONG KONG: THE PROSPECT FOR POST-1997

Dr. David Bethel CBE,

Lecture delivered on 17th October 1994

The factors which both favour and are unfavourable to a smooth hand-over and secure future for the Hong Kong residents are compared. The lecturer believes that there is room for optimism for the post-1997 prospect but the future is not without dangers. There will not be democracy as practised in the West, nor will there be the kind of rule of law which exists in the U.K. Hong Kong will lose Westminster as a legal long-stop and court of final appeal. Corruption and nepotism, which is a feature of life in the PRC, is likely to be rife. This will have detrimental effects on business (although the Chinese, well-versed in dealing with it, will doubtless survive). Shanghai may be developed as a rival to Hong Kong as the main channel for import and export to and from China but, will the banks and financial experts transfer from Hong Kong to Shanghai? Taiwan will be watching how Hong Kong fares under PRC rule very closely and will not engage in talks leading to re-incorporation into China if Hong Kong is badly treated. This is something of a trump card for Hong Kong.

INTRODUCTION

I have been associated with Hong Kong since 1971 when I went there to review the provision of art and design education from nursery schools to university levels and to advise the Government on a strategy for its development. Later, I served for 10 years on the UPGC (the University and Polytechnic Grants Committee), then I was appointed chairman of a group to advise Government on how best to maintain academic standards at university level and, after my report was accepted, I was appointed chairman of the Hong Kong Council for Academic Accreditation (HKCAA). I was also consultant to the Hong Kong Productivity Council and to Innovation Ltd., a governmentsponsored company set up to persuade local industry to develop its own research and design capacity (and not to rely on buying-in ideas from overseas). These various assignments have given me an inside view of higher education and industry in the territory and taken me into the PRC (the People’s Republic of China) or the mainland of China by which it is sometimes referred to distinguish it from Taiwan which calls itself The Republic of China - the ROC, to see developments in higher education and industry there. In 1977, I was included in the first official British group to tour China after the Cultural Revolution so that I have seen China develop over the last 20 years or so. It is by these first-hand experiences that I have formed my views on the future of Hong Kong post-1994 as a Special Administered Region (SAR) after it reverts to Chinese sovereignty on 1st July 1997.

What I propose to do is to remind you of the salient points of the history of Hong Kong as a British Crown Colony, refer to China’s history and culture stressing some of the factors which have moulded Chinese attitudes which are necessary if we are to understand how the PRC government is likely to think and act: then to outline some of the achievements of the British colonial rule of Hong Kong and, then to speculate on what the prospects for the territory may be post-1997.

HONG KONG:
A BRIEF HISTORY

In 1792-4, King George III’s government sent an embassy led by Lord Macartney to the Imperial Court of China with
the object of improving the conditions for British trade there, which meant essentially opening up China for the East India Company to export more of its wares. The embassy was charged to find out more about China’s economy, culture and way of life for, although the British and other foreigners had traded with China since 1684, they were only allowed to trade in Canton (now Guangzhou). Foreigners were not allowed to live in China and there were many restrictions placed on foreigners, for example, the Chinese were forbidden, on pain of death, to teach the Chinese language to foreigners. By these means, the Chinese government could exercise strict control over foreign traders and decide with whom they could trade.

One important British Indian export to China since 1773 had been opium, which was used to pay for goods bought for export instead of the usual silver. Hence, the Chinese regarded the Macartney embassy as a means to increase this vile trade. The embassy’s mission achieved nothing, opium-smoking was declared illegal by the Chinese Government in 1796 and the British traders’ opium sheds in Whampoa (the port of Canton) were confiscated and this led to the so-called opium wars. On 26 January 1841, Captain Charles Elliot hoisted the Union Jack on a rocky island (inhabited only by a few fishermen, but with a splendid deep sea harbour and near the mouth of the Pearl River which flows down from Canton, known by the Chinese as Hong Kong, or, fragrant harbour). This incident led to the forcible signing by China on 29 August 1842 of the Treaty of Nanking. Sir Henry Pottinger signed for Britain and Qi Ying, an Imperial Commissioner, for China. The Treaty ceded Hong Kong island to Britain in perpetuity.

Hong Kong had a restricted water supply and, indeed, insufficient land to house and feed a growing number of traders and Chinese labourers and servants, so on 24 October 1860, Britain forced China to cede the Kowloon peninsula on the mainland opposite the north coast of Hong Kong Island, then known as Victoria Island. The treaty, the Convention of Peking, was signed by Lord Elgin and the Manchu Prince Gong and ceded this territory to Britain again in perpetuity. As trade increased and attracted more foreign residents and Chinese workers, the Island and Kowloon peninsula became insufficient to sustain the population and so, on 9 June 1898, Sir Claude MacDonald, the British minister in Peking, and Li Hongzhong, a senior Manchu Official, signed the Second Convention of Peking which leased the New Territories and 235 off-shore islands to Britain for 99 years from 1 July 1898.

The surface area of the whole Colony was (and is) 413 square miles with 365 square miles of this being the New Territories. Victoria Island is a rock, easy to build on but little of it can sustain vegetable growth. Today, most of the water used is piped in from mainland China which can cut off supplies if it wishes. The population today is around 6 million giving a density of over 125,000 persons per square mile in Kowloon, now the main residential area.

Despite dense cultivation in the New Territories, it is necessary to import food on a large scale. The population of the ceded territories cannot be sustained without the New Territories. Hence, in 1983-4 in talks with the PRC, Mrs. Thatcher’s government decided it could not retain the two ceded-in-perpetuity parts and negotiated terms to return the whole Colony to Chinese sovereignty when the lease of the New Territories lapsed on 1 July 1997.

That is a very short sketch history of the Colony (usually referred to as “The Territory” these days), omitting, for example, the occupation by the Japanese from 1941 to 1945 and the vast influx of refugees from China, which peaked in 1948, escaping from the advancing armies of Mao Ze-deng who were pushing the adherents of Chiang Kai-shek towards the sea and to Taiwan in 1949. The second great influx of refugees was in 1966-76 during the Cultural Revolution in the mainland. This influx of some 4.5 million Chinese refugees into Hong Kong brought new skills, wealth for investments and plentiful cheap labour on the one hand and, on the other, enormous social problems for the Hong Kong Government, not least, in providing housing for the waves of new-comers. Small fishing villages in the New Territories at Sha Tin, Tsuen Wan and Tai Po were transformed into new towns larger than Leicester, bringing more than 70% of the total housing in the Colony into public ownership. The pressure on space and housing is such that private housing costs around £500 per square foot, or, put another way, a small flat of 500 square feet will cost around £300,000.

THE PEOPLE’S REPUBLIC OF CHINA (PRC)

Turning now to the Peoples’ Republic of China (PRC), to which Hong Kong reverted in 1997 as a Special Administrative Region (SAR), with its capitalist economy guaranteed for 50 years after reversion. I will outline some of its features, history and culture, which I think one must understand (but not necessarily condone or approve) in order to begin to imagine how Hong Kong will fare after 1997. The population of China is around 1.2 billion (one thousand, two hundred million) or 215 times larger than the population of the United Kingdom! and it is still growing despite the Chinese Government’s law of one child per married couple. It is a mistake to think of China’s population comprises only Chinese. All are Chinese nationals but there are some 54 different ethnic peoples in the PRC. The majority are Han, northern people, who speak what we know as Mandarin but in China is called P‘u-tung-hua, the common tongue; the others speak quite different languages or dialects. In Hong Kong, for example, Cantonese is spoken, whilst in the West, Tibetan and Uijur is the native tongue. However, throughout China the same written pictogram characters are used so that a literate person from the far south can communicate with someone speaking Manchu in the far north some 2,500 miles away by writing although not understanding one spoken word. It is as though one of us not speaking Russian met a Russian and, by showing each other pictures, could communicate without difficulty.

Written Chinese is much more concise than any European language; one page of Chinese text will cover three pages in English translation. This means that the educated Chinese
thinks more exactly, more precisely than we do. To be able to read, we have to learn 72 phonetic symbols (capital and small letters, numbers, diphthongs etc), they have to learn some 9,000 pictogram characters in order to read a newspaper and some 26,000 characters to read classical texts. This meant that most of the time in primary and secondary school is spent in learning to read and, those who succeed, have a remarkable visual memory, although they may be deficient in the geography and history of the outside world. Examinations are easily passed when the answers call for a recall of facts!

Successive Chinese governments have tried to standardise both a common language (in order to have a cohesive nation easier to govern) and to simplify the characters, but not much progress has been made.

Deep in the Chinese psyche is a suspicion of foreigners and not without good cause. It is not generally recognised that, for much of the history of what is now geographically China, since about 589AD, has been ruled by foreigners. From 1280 to 1367, it was ruled by a Mongol dynasty. The last Chinese, i.e. Ming, Emperor Ch‘ung-Cheng, hanged himself with a silk cord to prevent himself being captured by the invading Manchus who reigned as the Ch‘ing dynasty from 1644 to 1912. During the Ch‘ing reign, no one was allowed to speak Chinese at the Imperial Court, business was conducted in Manchu for those 268 years. These facts together with a long-standing belief that the foreigners surrounding China were desperately trying to live in China with its long history of high cultural achievements, produced the strong suspicion of foreigners. (China called itself the Middle Kingdom, Chung-Kuo - the country at the centre of things; those outside were barbarians. The Cantonese speaking Chinese still refer to all foreigners as Gwielos - foreign devils).

As any British academic who has taught Chinese students knows, they are extraordinarily hard-working and I, for one, have tried hard to understand why this should be so pronounced a Chinese characteristic. Two anecdotes perhaps may indicate the answer. In the late 1980s, the Hong Kong Government decided to expand higher education from something like 0.8% of the 17-18 year age group to 18% by 1993. The existing two universities, the two polytechnics and two degree-awarding colleges were to be expanded and a new university and an open learning institute created. My Academic Accreditation Council was to validate all degrees and ensure that the expansion did not result in a drop in academic standards. The main problem was not money, funds flowed from government to finance the expansion handsomely. The problem was that the language of instruction in higher education was English, the international academic language with 90% of all text-books in English. The standard of English of the new student constituency was not proficient enough consequently there were worries about the maintenance of standards because students would not understand what was being taught. The foremost English-language newspaper in Hong Kong is the South China Morning Post and, as the chief reporter, C.K. Lau, used to contact me every time I visited the Territory to discuss what was happening in higher education in the U.K. and elsewhere, I raised the problem with him at one of our meetings. I said something to the effect that no doubt he was brought up in a bi-lingual home and had not encountered the difficulties now experienced by many students. His reply astonished me: “Not at all”, he said, “my father was an illegal immigrant and my mother a washer-woman. I taught myself English”. I should not have been so astonished as here was a typical hard-working Chinese determined to succeed in all he did.

My second anecdote goes some way to explain why this drive to hard-work and success is so ingrained in the Chinese. As chairman to the H.K.C.A.A., I was assigned a very senior Civil Servant as secretary of the Council. She is married to an eminent surgeon with practices in both Hong Kong and Harley Street. They have a house in Mayfair as well as their house in Hong Kong and their children attend English Public Schools, “Why”, I asked, “did she work so hard, indeed, why did she work at all?” It was her turn to be astonished and she looked at me incredulously and replied, “When I go to see my ancestors”, (the Chinese visit their ancestors’ graves annually on a special holiday), “I would be ashamed if I had no achievements to report to them”. Personal dignity (often referred to in the West as “face”) with its roots in family lineage and ancestor worship has always been a spur to personal achievement whether in one’s profession or in industry or trade. This is linked to a universal obligation to the extended family to improve family standards and prepare children to do the same or even better.

A further Chinese trait which needs mention is that they are compulsive gamblers. How deep this trait is embedded can be illustrated by the weekly takings at the tote in the two horse race courses in Hong Kong, one in Happy Valley on the Island for Wednesday evening meetings during the season, and one at Sha Tin in the New Territories for Saturday afternoon meetings. By law, the Royal Hong Kong Jockey Club has a monopoly of horse racing and it takes in net profit in one meeting more than is taken in all racing at all courses in the U.K. in a year! The Jockey Club uses this vast revenue for charitable purposes such as funding the building of the new University of Science and Technology in 1990 and the building and equipping of the Academy of Performing Arts.

The combination of a drive to achieve and to take risks is part of daily life and forms the Chinese attitude to most things. The fear of loss of face is very ingrained and, in a way, not normally found in risk-takers. As an insurance against the possibility of personal failure, there is a strong tendency to take collective decisions. It is a brave and self-confident person who stands out against the group. This was illustrated when I gave my first lecture in Hong Kong in 1971. The person who chaired my lecture on a Saturday afternoon to a packed hall of teachers, asked me as we were about to enter the hall, how I wished to play it. “In the usual way”, I replied, “you introduce me, I give my lecture, and then you call for questions”. “You can’t do that”, he exploded, “if you ask a question after a lecture either the questioner is stupid and has not understood you, or the lecturer was unclear and further explanation is required. Either way, the questioner or
the lecturer will lose face”.

Whilst the fear of losing face is ingrained, lecturing and teaching has developed since 1971 and students actually engage in questioning and even discussion.

However, in other walks of life, the fear of losing face is ever present and, in my view, is linked to what we in the West regard as a harsh, punitive regime in China which displays little regard for human rights. As I have already said, there is a tendency to take collective decisions. This is so in business and in politics although an exception may be made by respected elders who have learned to make decisions which will be accepted by those around them. It follows that, to contradict a majority decision, is to bring into question the wisdom of the collective. To contradict an important elder is to lower, or even break, his/her authority. Persons who are foolish enough to question accepted wisdom must be punished. Hence, the Tiananmen Square massacre was entirely predictable. I for one, was only surprised that the student protests were allowed to continue for so long.

Those in power in Beijing, Deng Xiaoping and his circle, genuinely cannot understand what all the fuss made by the West after the massacre was about. The leading group were, after all, dedicated Marxists in their youth and still have a clear view of, in Marxist terms, the exploitation of the Chinese people by landlords etc and, in Chinese terms, the exploitation of China by foreigners. They, the leading group, have brought prosperity and opportunity to the mass of people which has been unparalleled in China’s history. Why then should these students, the privileged few (in China today, only around 0.8% of the age group are able to attend university) be allowed to cock a snoot at the government of a quarter of the earth’s population? That, I believe, is their view and, as I said earlier, to understand is not necessarily to condone and certainly not in this case.

In this section of my talk, I have tried to emphasize that we in the West, with our Christian, occidental culture, attitude and beliefs, should not assume that the orientals will think the same as we do or wish to follow the same path of development. They are different, moulded by several thousand years of a different culture. The professional and business classes in Hong Kong, whilst naturally retaining many Chinese characteristics, have lived under a system which espoused Western beliefs, attitudes and culture, not least, the rule of law. How these two traditions will fare after 1997 is difficult to forecast. Before speculating on the possibilities, I think it necessary to say something about life in Hong Kong which owes its special character to British Colonial rule and the achievements which have sprung from this.

HONG KONG - BRITISH ACHIEVEMENTS

Before 1941 when Hong Kong was occupied by the Imperial Japanese Army, Hong Kong was a typical colony with colonial attitudes towards the native people. Economically, it was an important entrepot for import and export trade where British Tai Pans made fortunes and British and other foreigners enjoyed a very pleasant life-style. Many Chinese also prospered although there were humiliations: for example, they were not allowed to be members of the Hong Kong Club. However, it was not until the Japanese occupation ended in 1945 that the prosperity that is now synonymous with Hong Kong burgeoned. Attitudes of the British and Chinese towards each other had been changed by the Japanese defeat of British forces in the far east and the demeaning, humiliating and barbaric treatment by the Japanese of the both prisoners-of-war and the civilian internees, had shown that occidentals were no different in basic human terms than orientals. It may be difficult for us to grasp the full extent of this change. The present Chief Justice of Hong Kong, Dr. the Honorable Sir Ti-liang Yang, who was born in Shanghai and came to Hong Kong as a refugee in 1949, told me that, before the 1939-45 War he believed that there were no poor British and, on his first visit to England was shocked to see British labourers. Post-1945, things changed in Hong Kong (and in other colonies), and the British outstanding administrative ability was harnessed to the Chinese entrepreneurial ability (the risk-taking, compulsive betting syndrome together with collective decision-making) to develop the economy and prosperity of Hong Kong which has now a higher average income per head of population than we have in the U.K. Hong Kong’s income is not, of course, equally distributed. There is a greater concentration of millionaires there than elsewhere but many of the menial tasks are undertaken by imported labour. Most household servants are Filipinos and most building workers are on contract from the PRC by arrangement with the Chinese Government. These are not counted as part of the resident population.

The Hong Kong Government policy on trade and industry has been described as "positive non-interventionism", a limiting of regulation and of budget spending so that the major share of the Territory’s wealth is left to stimulate the private sector and to create more wealth. The hospital service, care of the aged, education and other normally public services are funded basically by Government but augmented by the community chest, a system of voluntary donations. If a hospital or a university needs a new building, it is likely to be donated by an individual. On Saturday mornings, all street pedestrians are accosted by well-behaved schoolchildren in impeccable school uniforms with the collection-tins and badges for contributions to the community chest. The Royal Jockey Club funds all kinds of ventures from refurbishing the appearance of pedestrian underpasses to paying for the building of the new University of Science and Technology giving around £500 million and building the Academy of Performing Arts which has the finest facilities for the teaching and performance of classical Chinese and European opera, music, dance and theatre in the world. As a consequence of this scheme of liberal private donations with the basic running costs from public funds, the buildings, campus and equipment of the University of Hong Kong (founded in 1911), the Chinese University of Hong Kong (created in 1963 from three existing private colleges), the two polytechnics, the Baptist and Lingnan colleges (the latter four institutions recently designated as universities) and the Open Learning Institute
must be the envy of academics throughout the world.

Housing is overcrowded and very expensive so that the town-planners have provided green parks, urban pedestrian walks with ample spaces in which to sit and talk (or, if you are a student, in which to study for your home will be crowded with three generations of the family). Museums, Art Centres, leisure parks and other facilities are provided to alleviate the difficulties of over-crowded housing. It is possible to escape from the overcrowded urban areas and wander around the countryside and to wander without fear of molestiation.

There is so much more I could say about Hong Kong's amenities and attractions but this is not a travelogue, simply a description of the jewel that the PRC is to inherit in 1997. There is no comparable example from which one might draw conclusions on how the PRC will treat Hong Kong. It is true that Macao, a Portuguese colony since the 16th century, became a special administration zone in 1976 when its sovereignty reverted to China but Portugal was allowed to continue to administer it. Macao cannot be compared with Hong Kong: it is only 5.3 square miles, industry is negligible, agriculture non-existent and its economy almost entirely relies on its gambling houses. The population is a mere 400,000. Its status has been guaranteed by the Chinese until 20 December 1999 when the Portuguese will finally hand over to the PRC although Macao will remain as a small Special Administrative Region.

THE PROSPECT FOR HONG KONG POST 1997

So, the prospect for Hong Kong after 1997 must be speculative. There are signs that the business community is already making its arrangements with Beijing and there is a group of Hong Kong people appointed by Beijing as "Advisors", among them friends of mine, who say that it is necessary to make an accommodation with the Chinese authorities. Among those who are worried that Governor Christopher Patten's "democratic reforms" are ill-conceived are very important British nationals including the chairman of the Hong Kong and Shanghai Bank, the most important in the Territory, one of two licenced to issue the currency. The Chinese say that they will sweep away the Patten reforms, so what are the prospects?

I think we must start from the joint communique issued on 24 September 1982 after the meeting between Mrs. Thatcher, Deng Xiaoping and the Chinese Premier, Zhoa Ziyang. It read:

"Today, the two leaders of the two countries held far-reaching talks in a friendly atmosphere on the future of Hong Kong. Both leaders made clear their respective positions on the subject. They agreed to enter talks through diplomatic channels following the visit with the common aim of maintaining the stability and prosperity of Hong Kong".

Despite all that has happened since, I believe that that remains the aim of the Chinese Government, to maintain the stability and prosperity of Hong Kong, not, of course, for the benefit of anyone other than the Chinese.

The result of the talks was an agreement known as the Basic Law which covers the reversion of Hong Kong to China on 1 July 1997, a guarantee of Hong Kong's capitalist system for 50 years after 1997 and the maintenance of Hong Kong's way of life as a Special Administrative Region. Bits of paper are never guarantees and never have been, so perhaps we should look at the factors in Hong Kong's favour and balance them against those not in its favour.

The favourable factors, as I see them, are:

1. The PRC has already made massive investments in Hong Kong: they own a large chunk of the property and some of the businesses there.

2. Hong Kong provides over 70% of all foreign investment in the PRC.

3. Over 70% of all China's imports come through Hong Kong. Importing is a very specialised business with expertise acquired over a long period and with the need for established contacts around the world.

4. A high proportion of China's exports and re-exports are channelled through Hong Kong.

5. Hong Kong is the 11th biggest trader in the world and is the major financial centre in S.E. Asia with over 130 branches of international banks with international standards of banking expertise (largely unknown in China since banks were closed in 1949).

6. It is the third largest gold market in the World after London and New York.

7. Its container terminal, essential for import-export business, is the busiest in the world.

8. It continues to improve its trading position; land-fill projects, the second airport etc. indicate continued business optimism by the financial markets.

9. The PRC desperately wants to bring Taiwan back into its fold and Taiwan will watch how Hong Kong is treated to judge its future as part of the PRC. That, I think, is one of the most significant factors for Hong Kong's future.

10. Much has been made of the exodus from Hong Kong of members of the professional classes. This has dropped from the high peak of 66,000 in 1992. The favourite destinations of the emigrants have been Canada, Australia and the U.S.A. In both Canada and Australia, three years residence gives Canadian or Australian nationality and many emigrants have returned with their new nationality and passports to Hong Kong.

11. Napoleon said, "Let China sleep, when she awakes the world will be sorry", Well, China has awakened. She has the
world’s largest consumer market with its people’s incomes rising rapidly. The economy grew by 13% last year and will grow by at least 10% this year. It is difficult, if not impossible, to put the clock back and with several million Chinese receiving TV from Hong Kong, whetting the appetite for consumer goods and a better material way of life, is it likely that the PRC will kill the goose which lays the golden egg? With the prospect of 268 million Chinese out of work by the year 2,000 (the figures are from the Chinese Ministry of Labour), the Beijing government will need all the resources it can muster if it is to stay in power. All the signs coming from China point to a change over from a centralised, Marxist inspired economy to a modified capitalist economy.

But one doesn’t have to be a pessimist to observe factors not in Hong Kong’s favour. These, in my view, include the following:

1. Hong Kong will be denied the role of Westminster as the final back-stop for freedom of the individual from the state. Human rights will be diminished. The reliance on British justice (even with its faults) will be no more.

2. The PRC intends to “sweep away all levels of government” in Hong Kong and replace them with others of its liking. The statement from Beijing on 30 August 1994 read,

The last Legislative Council, city government and district board will be terminated on 30 June 1997 (curiously, this did not trouble the stock-market and the Hang Seng Index rose a further 242 points later that day!)

3. The Governor, the civil service etc. must all be Chinese citizens and will be appointed by Beijing. Those with foreign passports will be excluded from all levels of government.

4. Shanghai, a deep water harbour situated at the mouth of China’s longest river, the YangTze, is rapidly developing (or re-developing for, before the War, it was an international port) as a trading, import-export centre and, if the PRC wishes, Shanghai could supplant Hong Kong as the main trading centre provided that the financial expertise and international banking community agrees to transfer from Hong Kong to Shanghai. That prospect could be used at least as a threat to Hong Kong people to toe the party line.

5. The majority of the professional class refugees from China who came to Hong Kong in 1948-70 are Christian, mainly Roman Catholic and devout. It is difficult to see how they will be able to accept the authority of Beijing-appointed Bishops and not the authority of the Vatican (this has happened in China).

5. The PRC bureaucracy is riddled with corruption and nepotism at all levels. Hong Kong must seem a paradise even to prosperous mainland Chinese. After 1997 corruption and nepotism will escalate in the territory and may have detrimental effects on business.

CONCLUSION

In the time available, it has not been possible to do justice to my subject but I hope that, at least, your understanding of the prospect after 1997 for our last remaining major colony, Hong Kong, has been enhanced. On balance, I am optimistic. Things will change in both Hong Kong and China. The majority of Hong Kong residents are unlikely to perceive much difference to their lives for some time to come. As incomes rise in the bordering Shenzen Province (itself a special economic zone), Hong Kong may become less of a magnet for mainland Chinese. When Deng Xiaoping and some of the elderly men in central government die (most are in their late eighties), the trappings of the Marxist state will wither away and a modified capitalism will be the norm.

But, of course, things can go wrong and it is likely that the centuries-old central rule will continue without a Western-type democracy. Those who take the high risk of speaking out against the government cannot expect to be loved: they will be punished in some way or another. I believe that the great majority of Chinese are less interested in democracy than in having a good standard of living and a standing in the community, and this they may well get.

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The Natural History and Utilisation of Clays

Ansel Dunham

Joint lecture with the Geology Section given on 7th November 1994

Clays were one of the first natural raw materials to be used, initially for ceramics but also for building materials like bricks. For example, the walls of the famous cities of Mohenjo Daro and Harappa in the Indus Valley of modern Pakistan were constructed of both sun dried and fired bricks some 4,500 years ago. While ceramics have a similarly long lineage in the United Kingdom the first serious brick makers were the Romans. Their products were so good that they were reused in Saxon and Norman times to construct Brixworth Church and St. Alban’s Abbey. Another ancient use of clay was in the fulling of wool; absorbent clay is used to remove the oils from the wool.

All the uses of clay are controlled by the wide range of properties exhibited by different members of the clay mineral family, and the other minerals found in mud rocks. The three main groups of clay minerals are the kaolinites [Al4(Si4O10)(OH)8], the illites [KAl3(AlSi3O10)(OH)2], and the swelling clays, the smectites [0.33M(AlMg)2[(Al,Si)4(OH)10]. In addition, green chlorite gives many raw clays their colour. The clay minerals are based on a sheet structure formed of interlinked SiO4 tetrahedra, shown in three dimensions in the upper figure (a) and in plan in the lower one (b). This sheet of atoms is combined with one or more layers of hydroxyls to make up the complete structure. The bonds within the layers are very strong but between them are very weak, so the minerals have a well developed basal cleavage; they split very readily into thin sheets. In addition, their grain size is usually less than 2 microns.

Clay minerals are formed during processes of weathering, at the surface and in soils, by the breakdown of existing minerals such as feldspars, which release alkali elements into solution, leaving a residue of aluminium, silicon, oxygen and water which combines to form kaolinite. If some of the alkali elements, particularly potassium, remain then illite is the result. Smectites form from the breakdown of ferromagnesian minerals and volcanic glass. Under appropriate tropical conditions the silicon also may be leached leaving a residue rich in aluminium (bauxite, the ore for aluminium) or in iron (laterite). The new clay products can then be transported great distances because of their tiny grain size, to be deposited wherever the energy of the transporting river or sea current becomes too low to carry the grains in suspension. Thus mudrocks are formed, which constitute more than 60% of all sedimentary succeeded, a major part of the earth’s crust.

Kaolinite, known as China Clay in its raw unprocessed state, is well known to visitors to Cornwall, where the waste heaps resulting from the extraction of kaolinite form the skyline in the St. Austell area. The properties of kaolinite make it a very valuable mineral. The pure mineral is very white in colour, enabling its use as a most important filler and coat of paper and other materials (plastics, rubber). In addition, the very low levels of iron in high quality material means that it will fire to a white colour, vital in the production of bone china, which is a made from a mixture of kaolinite and calcined bones, or of porcelain made from kaolinite and feldspar.

Whereas kaolinite has an almost fixed chemical composition, the smectite group of minerals can vary widely, with resulting changes in properties. As a result of varying degrees of substitution of aluminium for silicon in the SiO4 tetrahedral layer so other cations must be introduced between the already described layers to maintain the electrical neutrality of the crystals. These interlayer ions can easily be replaced by others, which is why some smectite-rich sediments are known as Fuller’s Earth; the natural interlayer cations are replaced by the organic molecules forming the oil in the wool. Smectites also find important uses as cat litter because of their absorbent properties. This replacement of the interlayer cations often causes the clay to swell; smectites are also
called swelling clays. This property is the reason why bentonite, a Na-rich smectite originally found in Wyoming, is used as part of drilling muds. The swelling property however can cause havoc in civil engineering, where the ground is formed by smectite-bearing clays. Alternate drying and wetting can cause serious disruption to the substrate.

Kaolinite and smectites are utilised in a more or less pure state. However, what are known as "common clays and shales" are also of great importance as the raw materials for the manufacture of bricks, tiles and pipes. Such clays are also used in the manufacture of cement clinker, from a mixture of approximately three parts of limestone to one of clay. Most clays contain a mixture of minerals, including quartz, one or more types of clay mineral, feldspars (both Na and K-rich), carbonate minerals (calcite, dolomite, siderite), sulphates like gypsum, sulphides like pyrite and organic materials. The most useful mudrocks are those in which the clay minerals and quartz are the predominant minerals but each of the others has a role to play in the manufacture of heavy clay products; bricks, tiles and pipes. Partly because of the number of different minerals present in mudrocks both the plastic behaviour (ease of moulding or shaping) and the firing behaviour varies considerably both between samples from the same geological source and between different geological horizons. Thus, as the brick making processes become more automated, so reliant on a uniform clay feed, so the need for accurate and relevant mineralogical information about the raw materials becomes more important.

The manufacture of a brick involves several stages. Having dug the clay from the pit the raw material is crushed if necessary before being soured, to remove soluble salts. The clay will then be mixed with water so that it is sufficiently plastic to be moulded individually into bricks or to be extruded and cut into green bricks. These are then dried before finally entering the kiln, in which the temperature of the bricks will rise to about 1050° C. The firing may take times ranging from less than an hour for tiles to tens of hours for bricks. The heating causes a number of reactions to take place either within individual mineral grains or between mineral grains of different composition. Following the loss of the absorbed water at about 100° C the chemically bonded water is driven off the clays at about 500-800° C. Any carbonates present will lose their CO₂ to form highly reactive CaO and MgO which react with other minerals to form new minerals (anorthite, wollastonite, gehlinite). At around 900-950° C the clay minerals will begin to react to form the minerals mullite and cristobalite. Finally above 1000 ° C if the compositions are appropriate partial melting will take place, which on cooling may either crystallise to give more new minerals, or may be quenched to a glass.

Recent research in Leicester has shown the importance of time in the development of particular mineral assemblages, which is what ultimately controls the properties of the bricks and tiles. A surprising by-product of this research resulted from our compilation of a database of mineralogical and chemical analyses of around 250 UK brick clays. We were able to use this database to "fingerprint" a brick known to have been used by the murderer Michael Sams to its source, and then to demonstrate that this brick was identical to others found in his property. The fluke lay in the fact that the brick had a most unusual mineralogical and chemical composition, and so its source could be tied down to just one quarry.

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BEGINNERS PLEASE: OR FIRST START YOUR PLAY

Robert Smallwood

Leicester University Bookshop lecture, delivered 5th December 1994

'Beginners, please' is the call that goes out from the stage manager on the backstage tannoy system five minutes before a performance is due to begin. The talk given to the Society on 5 December 1994 considered the opening moments of some recent productions of Shakespeare’s plays by the Royal Shakespeare Company in Stratford, with reference to the visual images presented to the audience before the first words of the text were spoken. The early paintings of Shakespeare’s plays (the Folio of 1623 and, where they exist, the earlier quartos) almost all begin with a simple instruction for one or more characters to ‘Enter’, followed by the first line of dialogue; where there are several characters listed the order is normally hierarchical. We know nothing about whether there were, in stagings by Shakespeare’s Company, variations on the straightforward process of getting actors onto the stage and starting immediately on the dialogue. Modern directors, however, have found this a fecund area for experimentation.

Their doing so has been made possible by the return, some decades ago, to a style of production that returns to Elizabethan conditions by dispensing with the stage curtain. From the eighteenth to the early twentieth century an audience was in no doubt when the play had begun; the overture finished, the curtain went up, and the theatrical fiction had started. The little area of vagueness created by the return to crawliness has made it possible for directors to make interesting use of this theatrical equivalent of the narrative storyteller’s "Once upon a time".

Two basic forms of the ‘pre-play’ are discernible: the brief little dumb show that begins as the stage lights go up at the starting time printed on one’s ticket; and the more protracted event which brings actors (in character), and often musicians too - on to the stage more-or-less from the moment the theatre’s doors open. A simple version of the latter form of the phenomenon is to have Orsino in Twelfth Night on stage and listening to the music from long before the moment when he will call it, in the play’s opening line, "the food of love"; we are thus economically offered a not inappropriate expression of the mood of inertia and stasis that seems to pervade the Illyrian court before the arrival of Viola. A simple example of the former, briefer version, of the "pre-play" is to create a gap of just a few seconds between the arrival on stage of Hippolyta and Theseus at the beginning of A Midsummer Night’s Dream, a few seconds which can quite easily be used to give the impression that the defeated Queen of the Amazons may prefer solitariness to the dominating company of her conqueror and importunate husband-to-be.

The talk examined recent productions of several of Shakespeare’s plays looking in detail at the use of those moments (often only a few seconds in duration), of text-less time to create a mood, establish a slant on significant relationships in the play, or prepare us in some way for a particular interpretation that was to follow. Plays considered included Measure for Measure, A Midsummer Night’s Dream, Much Ado About Nothing, The Taming of the Shrew, Twelfth Night, Macbeth and The Tempest. (The moral of the talk was don’t be late for the theatre or you might miss what Shakespeare has Hamlet call "some necessary question" of the production.)

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THE FUTURE OF THE LAY MAGISTRACY

Michael Meadows

Lecture delivered on 9th January 1995

The views expressed here are my own and are not put forward on behalf of any organisation connected with the magistracy.

The Local Government Act of 1885 introduced profound changes in the legal system of this country which affected the role of the lay magistrates. In fact, it drastically reduced their powers. They had earlier survived the Reform Bill of 1832 which took away most of their administrative powers. The 1888 Act took away their police duties and transferred their local government functions to new County Councils.

The reasons were not that magistrates were doing a bad job but rather that they represented "An outdated institution which must give way to new bodies based on a more democratic system of popular election". A contemporary writer, F.W. Maitland, predicted at the time on the fate of the JP: "As a Governor he is doomed, but there has been no accusation. He is cheap, he is pure, he is capable, but he is doomed. He is sacrificed to a theory on the altar of the spirit of the age". Maitland went on to ask: "if justices are deprived of their governmental work, will they care to be justices any longer?"

Now, a hundred years on or so, when all the events of the past have long since been forgotten, the magisterial service finds itself once again in another period of major reform. This time however, it comes alongside a lot of other turbulence in the judicial system and all is not well in the magisterial world.

Now the government has introduced major reforms in the shape of a police and magistrates' courts Act of 1994. The quest is for effective and efficient administration - quality of service, value for money. The reorganisation and restructuring of the magisterial world which this Act has initiated is really all about making an adaptive response to the changing environment in which we all have to live and work. It's about responding to pressures for change - new demands and different expectations of court users, driven by Citizens Charters and Court User Charters. In short, it is about managing a process of great change.

This time however, according to some commentators and opponents of the government's reforms, we have the spectre of judicial independence being sacrificed on the altar of administrative efficiency. Judicial independence is at the very heart of our judicial system. It's is highly prized and jealously guarded. Now the fear is that the executive in the shape of a government department - the Lord Chancellor's department - will effectively take control of this locally run service by making it directly accountable to him and by creating a system of line management through a new breed of chief officers to be called Justices Chief Executives.

I don't think for one moment that judicial independence has been threatened. It is a smoke-screen, a natural and understandable defence against the process of change. There are however other threats to the lay magistracy which are just as dangerous and potentially even more damaging than the reforms contained in the new act.

One of the great strengths of the lay magistracy has been its adaptability. Today there are 27,000 lay magistrates - ordinary men and women drawn from the local community who deal with 95% of all criminal cases prosecuted before courts in England and Wales.

There are almost 500 magistrates courts in England and Wales, one for every large city and town. These courts are the gateway to the criminal justice court system. Two million criminal cases prosecuted begin in a magistrates' court and only 5% of them go on to trial in the Crown Court. 95% of criminal cases begin and end in a magistrates' court. Each year they deal with well over two million criminal cases.

Throughout their long history magistrates have had three great strengths. They are cheap, they are capable, and they are flexible.

Cheap because they have never been paid for the judicial work they do - what other society in the world can persuade 27,000 people to work for nothing and deliver 95% of its criminal caseload.

They still retain their amateur status and as such have continued to flourish in the age of the professional.

They are capable. Now they are better trained than ever before and with the help of their qualified clerk who will usually be a solicitor or a barrister, are well able to stand up to the complexities of modern legislation.

And they are flexible, as has been seen throughout their long history.

Herein then lie their great strengths. You might be forgiven for believing that any institution which has survived so long must be so deep-rooted in and must be very secure and unlikely to be threatened by any changes however great and
from whatever source.

There are however, in my view, three great areas of concern:

1. The first is not so much the governments reforms but the magistrates’ attitude towards them.

2. The second comes from a lack of an effective criminal justice strategy - a factor which impacts upon the whole criminal justice system as well as the lay magistracy.

3. The third lies in the appointment system itself.

The Government’s reforms which I have already referred to are about administrative efficiency - shaping up accountability and responsibility of those who are in charge of the day-to-day management of the service. For the past 50 years there has been virtually no accountability to government for the £300 million per annum spent on the service. Throughout the ages magistrates have been responsible for this local service more recently in the form of magistrates’ courts committees - 105 of them, one for every shire county and metropolitan District in the country - with committees as large as thirty-five elected annually by local magistrates in their benches at their October meetings.

Members were not elected for their management skills or capability - often age or "Buggins turn" were the only discernible criteria for election. They were neither effective nor efficient yet these committees determined how much they needed each year to run the service agreed it with the local authority and the Government had to stump up 80% of what had been agreed.

There were no controls over expenditure. No measures of performance and certainly no guarantee of value for money. Here was management at its worst, almost out of control, totally autonomous and accountable virtually to no-one.

The Government’s original plan was to abolish Magistrates’ Courts committees altogether and replace them with an agency - an agency just like the CSA or the Benefits Agency with a paid Civil Servant in overall charge of what would be a national service. Instead of the 105 local Magistrates’ Courts committees, the Government wanted to create a national service, centrally funded and centrally run which would ensure that overall policy responsibility for the administration of the courts rested clearly with the Government.

So that the Magistrates were shielded from an excessive degree of Government influence in judicial policy, the service was to have local managers to achieve optimum performance.

The Magistrates saw this as central control pure and simple and for them it posed an enormous threat to their judicial independence. How could it be other if they were directly controlled by an executive agency working to performance targets with fixed budgets, Local justice would disappear altogether, they protested.

They lobbied hard and effectively and there were threats of mass resignations and the prospect of summary justice grinding to a halt because of a lack of judicial bottoms to sit on the bench. Such was the strength of their opposition that the Government backed off and thought again.

This time the Government’s thoughts emerged in the shape of a white paper entitled "A new framework for local justice". It’s was, as you have probably guessed, a typical British compromise.

Afraid to do what was needed because it was too radical, the Government made some tinkering adjustments to the existing system. And so, for the time being at any rate, local management through Magistrates’ Courts committees and Magistrates remains as an integral part of the management process. The number of Magistrates’ Courts committees is to be reduced to 50, mainly at the expense of the Metropolitan areas and small Shire counties.

But is this where the reform will stop? I doubt it! It doesn’t make sense now that the Lord Chancellor has control of the Crown Courts and County Courts and the Magistrates’ Courts to have two separate administrations running in parallel: one for the Crown and County courts and one for the Magistrates: one organised nationally in the form of an agency and one organised locally around Magistrates’ Courts committees.

The long term will I’m sure see fusion of the two, But that is some way off - or is it ? In the meantime the magistrates through their association have really scored an own goal. The compromise which has been fashioned out as a result of their protestations against real change is already proving to be less than acceptable to them. In future, to be part of the new management set-up, they will be selected on the basis of their competencies and abilities as opposed to being elected under the old system. There are already protestations, particularly from those who have been doing the job for years.

Frankly, I can foresee a lack of suitable candidates willing to come forward. If that is so, the result is obvious and inevitable - a system that is designed to fail. If it does fail, the Government will have achieved its objective and central control of the management of the service will follow as sure as night follows day.

Of course, if that happens the lay magistracy will not disappear. However tempting it might appear to replace them with full-time paid stipendaries, that would be too costly and in any event unnecessary. But it would mean an end to a locally run service. A service which has been locally run for almost 700 years and I have to say the evidence we have so far about centrally run and centrally funded agencies does not lead me to believe that there would be any discernible improvement to the service offered to court users.

In the criminal court hierarchy, Magistrates’ Courts are the gateway to the system. All criminal cases which are prosecuted begin in a Magistrates’ Court and only 5% of them go on to the Crown Court for trial before a judge and jury.
So for most people an appearance before a court on a criminal matter means an appearance before a local Magistrates' Court and whether they are there as a witness for the prosecution, a victim or a defendant or simply a member of the public to observe. Respect for and confidence in our judicial system depends to a very great extent upon the way cases are conducted in these busy Magistrates' Courts.

Many people are wholly disillusioned with the courts and the sentences meted out. 70% of people who appear as witnesses vow they will never return to repeat the exercise because of the way they have been treated at the hands of the courts; they complain of delay, pomposity on behalf of the bench, quaint and outdated rules of procedure, gobbledygook and legal jargon.

Magistrates are constantly being castigated in the local press for lenient sentencing. How many times do you see editorial exhortations to do their duty and fall into line with the editor's bidding: victims constantly rail against the courts for failing to protect them and compensate them adequately enough for their suffering. Defendants, particularly motorists, air their grievances and they make up a substantial and articulate part of the population. The result is that the criminal courts have now lost much of the public respect which they previously enjoyed.

The reality however is that the courts are doing their best within the powers bestowed upon them by Parliament. And the disillusionment doesn't end with the court users. Magistrates themselves are becoming just as disillusioned with the system. They see their judicial independence being constantly eroded by a Government which seems to have no sense of direction in terms of a criminal justices policy - Howard's Way as it is now sarcastically referred to. What will come next? We hold our breath when the Home Secretary makes a pronouncement on what he intends to do to kerb this or that piece of criminality.

For those who really do worry about judicial independence and the loss of it, they really need to look no further than the criminal justice policy to see how much Parliament has replaced judicial discretion with statutory rules. When children as young as eleven and twelve appear to commit crime with impunity, it is because Parliament has deprived the courts of power to do anything realistic or sensible with them.

But there are even more worrying phenomena beginning to appear. Local authorities write their own codes which effectively negate legislation and deprive courts of their power to send unruly youngsters to secure accommodation.

More recently the prosecuting agency has begun to apply its own policy and effectively downgraded certain types of offending with a result that the penalties which the court would have liked to impose are out of range because the offence has been "undercharged".

When these sort of things happen somehow it all becomes the fault of the courts. Courts in this context are, of course, the Magistrates' Courts because they deal with the bulk of the work. They become the fall guys for the ills of the system.

But the piece of legislation which did the most damage to the judicial system and caused unprecedented levels of discontent among the lay magistracy was the now infamous Criminal Justice Act of 1991. Even the Lord Chief Justice, Lord Taylor, broke with tradition and stepped into the arena of public debate and condemned it as "incomprehensible and unacceptable to right thinking people generally".

Lord Taylor was not alone in his condemnation of the Act and magistrates began to vote with their feet and resign from the bench - to the extent that the alarm bells began to ring amongst the politicians.

Within ten months, some major sections of the Act had been scrapped. It was a monumental U-turn by the Government, but the damage had been done.

Although only one magistrate in Leicester admitted it was the Act which caused him to resign, the Leicester bench saw an unprecedented number of resignations. Within three months after implementation, ten JP's had resigned compared with an annual average of just six in the preceding years. The bench has never really recovered and its establishment of 300 is still 34 under strength.

How could a single piece of legislation cause so much judicial chaos?

The Government became concerned about the number of people in prison and was envious of the track record in other western European countries in which a smaller proportion of their criminals were imprisoned.

It was a debate which had rumbled on for many years but which came to a head in the mid-eighties.

The Lord Chancellor's department and the Home Office believed that Britain's judges and JP's were too heavy handed and attributed the steady rise in the prison population to the unfettered discretion which courts had to incarcerate offenders.

Public finances also weighed in - surprise surprisel Prisons were expensive but above all did not give value for money because they did not cure criminal offending or deter others from committing crimes.

That was almost put forward as a reason for abolishing prison sentences altogether - they don't do any good but we can't get away with abolishing them altogether, so the next best thing is to make it much more difficult for the courts to send anyone there.

The Government had wanted to introduce a Sentencing Council which would advise and instruct sentencers, that is to say, judges and magistrates, on sentencing for each type of offence and offender. And to ease the pressure on the prisons, the council would lean heavily in favour of
non-custodial sentencing options.

The judiciary, the magistrates through their Association were furious at this threat of political interference in their sentencing powers and the Government again backed off from the idea of a Sentencing Council. But it came back with the 1991 Act which rigidly bound the judges and magistrates with a set of rules codifying the fashionable approach to punishment, including the preference for non-custodial sentences. As a result, judges and magistrates were granted even less discretion.

As one commentator put it “The inflexibility and intrinsic absurdities of the Criminal Justice Act may have contributed nothing to the punishment of the criminals but they have certainly punished the judges for defying the wishes of the politicians, civil servants and penal reformers”.

At one training seminar, a young assistant recorder rushed up to a senior judge and said "I re-read the Act last night and now see the sections we looked at yesterday do make sense". The judge said: "Read it again; you have obviously misunderstood it". The survival of the lay magistracy inevitably depends upon the ability to attract suitable candidates. We have already seen some reasons why this might be difficult.

Selection of suitable candidates for appointment is the responsibility of the local Lord Chancellor’s Advisory Committee, which has the job of seeking out candidates and once a year in May, makes recommendations to the Lord Chancellor. It has to be an annual cycle because of the need to stagger recommendations. Each year somewhere in the region of 1500 recommendations are made in England and Wales to the Lord Chancellor and he scrutinises each one personally.

The work of the advisory committee is vital to the efficient administration of justice in Magistrates’ Courts. The task it faces is not easy and is often complex. Great care and effort is expected from the members and unstintingly given.

Has the magistracy in England and Wales a secure future?

Magistrates should not fear the administrative changes which are taking place. They are long overdue and pose no threat to them or the judicial independence. Rather the reforms are aimed at improving the effectiveness of the system and the quality of service to all court users including the magistrates themselves.

Far more worrying is the threat to judicial independence from other quarters. Prescriptive legislation on the part of Government which erodes judicial discretion, and the ability of other agencies to manipulate the system to suit their own purposes and to marginalize the courts to the extent that they, "a department of last resort", are often being expected to attempt to cure at a time when the disease has gone too far.

Frankly, I find the prospect of a bureaucrat sitting in the remote vastness of an office applying central policy guidelines to the decision whether to prosecute or not, which are often tempered with expediency and costing exercises, a far more serious and worrying threat. How do you convince magistrates that they are doing a worthwhile and important job when they are faced with learning and relearning from a reactive legislature and are criticised by all and sundry when the reality is they are doing the best with the tools they have been given.

Add to that the weaknesses of the recruitment process and the substantial wastage in the system and it is not hard to realise why recruitment and retention is an uphill struggle.

Magistrates must not allow themselves to be "misfiled in the past". They must not be afraid of the process of change, but rather see it as an opportunity to respond to new challenges and at the same time persuade others of the need to review and update the processes which underpin the system as a whole.

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THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSEQUENCES OF STRESSFUL EVENTS

Professor Sydney Brandon

Lecture delivered on 23rd January 1995

Stressful events, crises, disasters, accidents and other disturbances of equilibrium are recognised as capable of inducing fear, helplessness or horror but agreement is lacking about the possible long term consequences.

Novelists have long recognised that whilst some may collapse when faced with crisis, others sometimes unexpectedly rise to the occasion and take command and never look back.

There is however a remarkable reluctance on the part of the establishment to recognise enduring effects although descriptions of such states can be found in early Greek writings, Shakespeare, Dickens and perhaps most memorably in the diaries of Samuel Pepys who in 1666 described nightmares and fears following the Great Fire of London.

Obviously miliary medical officers have special concerns with the effects of trauma but their accounts are fragmented and non-systematic. In the Napoleonic Wars military surgeons described ennu, nostalgia or home yearning which developed even in seasoned soldiers.

Da Costa in the American Civil War described "disorderly action of the heart" and Weir Mitchell developed his sleep treatment to treat "soldiers' heart's" (Table 1).

The 1941 Coconut Grove disaster in which a packed Boston night-club was engulfed by fire and toxic smoke with many casualties occurred near the famous Massachusetts General Hospital and the victims were studied by world ranking specialists in the appropriate fields. Two classic papers described the neuropsychiatric consequences. The first by Bird gives detailed clinical descriptions and that by Eric Lindemann gives a classic description of mourning and laid the foundations for Gerald Caplan's later work on Crisis Theory.

The work on mourning, crisis and post-panic and panic states laid the foundations for the concept of post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

After the Second World War a chronic stress reaction had to be invoked to accommodate the large number of American soldiers seen by the Veterans hospitals. This however disappeared from the DSM and it was to meet the consequences of the Vietnam War that the category PTSD was defined.

This has been successfully applied not only to war veterans but to individuals involved in a wide range of life-threatening incidents.

The central dilemma in considering the consequences of events which threaten the integrity of the individual are seen starkly in the literature on war neurosis.

Is the battle fatigued individual a "good" soldier overwhelmed by the stresses of war or is he a "weak vessel" unfit for such stress or is he "swinging the lead" using his alleged fatigue to escape from his duties and thus "letting down" his comrades?

It made some difference for in the First World War a significant proportion of those shot for cowardice would now have been defined as mentally defective. On the other hand those diagnosed as suffering from shell shock not only escaped the front but constituted an army drawing war pensions which in 1939 exceeded in size the BEF and the Home Army.

In the Second World War highly selected RAF aircrews suffered such reactions and it was clear that all men are liable to breakdown depending on their own endowment and their experience. The number of operations, their degree of hazard and the direct experience of losing comrades, i.e. seeing the event, all correlated with breakdown.

There can be no doubt that psychological reactions to disaster

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Table 1. Consequences of stressful events

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<tr>
<th>Syndrome</th>
<th>Category</th>
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<tr>
<td>Da Costa's syndrome</td>
<td>DAH / Soldiers heart</td>
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<td>Traumatic neurosis Oppenheimer)</td>
<td>Railway spine (Post-concussional State)</td>
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<td>Earthquake stupor</td>
<td>Shell shock / NYD</td>
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<tr>
<td>Effort syndrome</td>
<td>Battle shock (stress)</td>
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<tr>
<td>War (combat) neurosis</td>
<td>Combat fatigue exhaustion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post traumatic neurosis</td>
<td>Accident neurosis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Compensation neurosis</td>
<td>Stress reaction</td>
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<td>Disaster response</td>
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Despite this wealth of material there are many in authority who are reluctant to accept that post traumatic states are "genuine" preferring to believe that these problems are simulated or self-inflicted. They may occur because the individual is seeking compensation or escape.

Until the DMSIII (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association) our views on the response to disasters, private or public, were based on studies of loss such as those by Lindemann, Caplan, Bowlby and, indeed, Freud.
can be seriously distressing and disabling - that "nervous shock" as defined by Judges can result in recognisable Psychiatric illness. It does not follow that anyone exposed to such an event will be adversely affected nor can we define events which are invariably followed by adverse reactions.

We can also say with some confidence that whenever issues of clear primary gain whether financial, psychological or social enter the scene then the clinical picture is liable to distortion. Few would doubt the reality of grief or bereavement reaction on the loss of a loved one; a process brilliantly described by Lindemann following the Coconut Grove night club fire.

It is clear that such a reaction can occur with the loss or threat of loss of other objects, hopes, status or expectations. There has been a slower acceptance of the consequences of less well defined events. Should an individual involved in a near death incident be expected or even allowed to have symptoms as a consequence of his lucky escape?

Surely if you are in a road traffic accident and escape unhurt you should count your blessing and not go into a decline - yet it is evident that people are badly shaken after such an event and that in some it takes a long time to get over it and in a few it results in long standing problems.

Taking a road accident, there may be some warning of the event - a collision seems inevitable and you brake or manoeuvre in an effort to escape yet remain quite cool. You then leave your vehicle and help rescue someone from another car, signal to other traffic and perhaps tend the injured. The police arrive, then when there is nothing more to do you feel decidedly shaky.

You may get on to your personal phone and begin changing appointments, shaky but in control. The policeman then comes along to take a statement and assures you that "you are lucky to be alive - if that petrol tanker had gone up you would all be crispy bacon".

Now you do start feeling the worse for wear, you keep having vivid recollections of the accident and the intimations of mortality that it brought. You get back to find that you are tense and excitable, somewhat irrational and when you get home you drink more than usual, and cannot get to sleep despite being exhausted. You get to sleep and wake sweating with queer dream of falling into space.

What happens beyond that depends upon a number of factors but it is clear that even on such a highly selected and worthy population as yourselves such events can cause adverse effects.

The DSMIII has helped us clarify some of the reactions which occur following major, life-threatening events. The symptom check list is too rigid but placing the syndrome within the anxiety disorders is logical and identifying the recurrent imagery and the state of hyper-arousal as central elements is already correct.

It is clear that any state of hyper-arousal is associated with some degree of sensitivity and unease in social situations which is likely to result in avoidance behaviour and that this contains the seeds of phobic behaviour.

If we could isolate the effects of financial benefits and other primary gain life would be much simpler.

If one accepts that PTSD can result from the experience of a significant life stress what of those who become involved in disaster as carers or rescuers?

The Piper Alpha, Zeebrugge, the Mount Erebus DC10 crash in Antarctica, Clapham, King’s Cross, American Air Transport and Australian Bush fires have all been well documented, particularly from the view-point of the rescue services. From these and Scandinavian experience a good picture of the effects on helpers has been built up.

Not only can we predict these effects but we can suggest means of reducing these consequences and possibly of preventing later adverse results.

There is increasing evidence of the beneficial effects of both preparation and preventive intervention in the reduction of late consequences.

Preparation means literally anticipation, training and rehearsal for the event and if possible preliminary team building.

Often, however, given the nature of disasters such preparations are not always possible and then psychological debriefing is even more important.

The model advocated by Dygerov is accepted as a standard and it is a modification of that which is now commonly used. Ideas of this kind and the development of military policy on the management of Battle Shock naturally led to consideration of the consequences of that personal disaster in which an individual loses his liberty as a Prisoner of War or as a hostage.

The action of Hisbollah in taking hostages on the basis that they were of the right nationality and in the right place is incomprehensible to most westerners. The disregard of basic human rights, the pointless brutality and the indifference to the needs of the individual by the captors became gradually known as did the facts that prisoners were kept in solitary confinement, often in darkness and without writing or reading materials. Various negotiations for their release suggested that if and when any were released it would be in Beirut or Damascus. American hostages would be taken to Wiesbaden Air Base in Germany where the Americans had developed considerable experience in dealing with hostage situations, experience, however, which differed significantly from the Beirut situation.

Since any English hostages would be collected by aircraft of the Royal Air Force, who would provide the medical teams, the RAF Psychiatric Division gave some thought to their possible role.

Apart from the trauma of captivity the hostages would be exposed to the trauma of reintroduction to society. Anyone who has spent time in isolation will be socially phobic; overwhelmed by the speed, noise and activity of the outside world. They may also have some difficulty in thinking for in
isolation thinking is not subjected to constant audit by the outside world: thus mental assumptions, shortcuts and idiosyncrasies creep in resulting in increasingly autistic thought.

The hostages would need to be reunited with relatives and friends but those relationships may have changed in the interval or have become dangerously idealised or otherwise distorted. Some key relationships may have ended through death or separation and consequently much readjustment would be required.

After many years the world had changed and many events were part of everyday understanding but unknown to the hostage. The media were extremely co-operative in providing synopses and videos of events and family videos were often available.

A negative aspect was that the media are passionately interested in hostages because they are newsworthy - the crowd who hung around the gates of RAF Akrotiri in Cyprus for many months were known as the Waite Watchers. From the antics of the press in tracking down relatives or friends of the hostages, the way they set up camp on anyone with the remotest connection with the hostages and their remorseless questioning suggested that those released would need a titrated return to civilisation and long term protection from the press.

Like the press we concluded that the hospital at RAF Akrotiri offered an excellent base from which to commence the rehabilitation process (CO Warwick Price). Situated on a small peninsula within a secure base there was only one access road which could be easily controlled. The hospital had a vacant ward which could be adapted to provide a domestic atmosphere and all medical facilities were available. There was a private beach and other pleasures not least of which is the weather.

It was agreed that a converted VC10 would carry a medical team and their equipment. The team would comprise a Flight Medical Officer, a Consultant Physician and the Psychiatric team.

Considering the team we decided to include a Consultant Psychiatrist as Leader, a Quartermaster and psychiatrists or psychiatric nurses in sufficient numbers to provide individual attention to each of the key players. The leader would take on the hostage and another staff member would be allotted to each relative or friend who was to travel in the aircraft with the retrieval team. If possible other team members would make contact with any key individuals who would join the hostage later.

The quartermaster was in fact a Squadron Leader Nurse whose job was to be the Mr Fixit for the group so that the counsellors or debriefers were not distracted with problems of dealing with officialdom, the press and all the practical problems like finding size 18 shoes for one of the hostages. The immediate task on retrieval was to assess general health and attend to the physical needs such as first-aid treatment, bathing, clean clothes, a watch - very important - and news of family and friends. They would then have to attend the formalities of diplomacy including a highly structured press conference.

If necessary a period of rest could be provided at the embassy but there was considerable anxiety to get the hostage into English airspace.

Once in Akrotiri total privacy could be guaranteed and the pace would be dictated by the hostage.

In addition to the psychiatric team it was thought advisable to have a group debriefing at the end of each day with a Group Debriefing who was known to and trusted by the team but who did not take part in the hostage debriefing. This was felt to be essential because of the danger of over-identification and collusion within the team.

No duration was set for the process which was to be determined by the hostage according to his perception of need. The Gulf War both delayed the release of the hostages and provided an opportunity to apply the plan in the rehabilitation of POW's.

When tough-minded and independent air crews were told that "the shrinks have arranged a resettlement plan for you" the response was predictable. However they were prevailed upon to sample the delights of Akrotiri and made good use of the programme until it was curtailed by the RAF, who insisted on them returning to their units to be reunited with their families.

One thing which emerged from this was the value of the technical debriefing. Obviously military men returning from a war zone had to be questioned about what had happened to them and as professionals they accepted the need for this. During this process the team leader was present as planned with the intention of intervening if the individual appeared too stressed or exhausted by the proceedings. In fact this was not necessary but the detailed recounting of events from take-off to return was extremely valuable since the POW did not have to be questioned in detail to provide this history and could proceed at his own pace yet the team was aware of events which might not be spoken of until a much later phase. This was incorporated as an essential feature of subsequent pick-ups.

The other lesson was the importance of structure and a bulletin board always laid out the plans for the day and location of all concerned with diary entries for future plans. After the war there seemed once again the possibility of hostage release and teams were kept on stand-by. What we did not know was that the hostages were no longer being kept in solitary confinement and thus the rehabilitation was already well advanced. The camaraderie, mutual support and sharing of information in group confinement were invaluable and eventually they were allowed a radio and occasional videos. Each time a hostage release was expected the identity of the individual remained uncertain until the release or more often the decision not to release was known.

Brian Keenan held dual nationality and his sisters despairing of the Foreign Office, put their faith in the Irish Government. Thus when he was released he was taken direct to Dublin and that evening was an active presence in the pubs. He was offered facilities at Akrotiri but declined.
When John McCarthy was released he was given by his captors a letter to be personally delivered to Peres Dequella, the Secretary General of the United Nations. Since the Secretary General was en route to Paris it was decided that he could not be diverted to Cyprus but should stop off at RAF Lyneham and there it was that preparations were made to receive him. As ever the RAF rose to the occasion, prepared the VIP Suite and installed security. Access to the hostage could only be gained by passing through the security team quarters then those of the Psychiatric team. Despite this security on a secure RAF station the fourth estate made valiant efforts to gain access and very nearly succeeded.

By the time Jackie Mann was released Lyneham was the chosen base - its proximity to RAF Hospital Wroughton meant that all facilities were available and stand-by teams did not have to waste weeks in Cyprus.

Incidentally that time was never wasted for it provided excellent opportunities for training and team building. Fortunately the flight carrying Jackie Mann developed minor technical problems and put in to Akrotiri thus enabling the facilities prepared to be used for initial reception and with a daylight arrival at Lyneham the Battle of Britain Memorial Flight at RAF Coningsby was able to lay on a Spitfire to do a Victory roll over the former Spitfire pilot as he came down the steps.

Most COs disapproved of such aerobatics over their stations when Spitfires cost £2000: the engineers must have had hystericus when they saw their million pound veteran under such stress but it was a grand gesture.

When Terry Waite came out he nearly blew our credibility for he made a long and coherent initial speech which suggested that he had been in politics during his absence. Nevertheless he accepted the hospitality of Lyneham and he and his family clearly benefited from their stay.

When Terry Anderson was released he had the standard Weisbaden assessment but his sister insisted on him having the RAF treatment on the recommendation of his fellow hostages and this was duly arranged.

Hopefully there will be no more Hisbollah prisoners but the experience gained has many other applications and no life can be free of disasters.

Rwanda is a country in trauma for practically every resident has survived serious losses. Most have lost family and home and are displaced as refugees. Many witnessed the slaughter of family and friends and were often themselves attacked and left for dead. Survivor guilt is almost universal. Individual help for all is out of the question so we are trying to mount a public education programme using the same principles used in individual situations.

Relief workers are also under stress. Many have seen horrid sights and are often helpless in face of these situations. On leaving the area they take their nightmares with them if they have not come to terms with the psychological trauma and they often need help to achieve this.

Although the children have also experienced these stresses those who have lost their families are mainly in large childrens' centres where the resources are grossly inadequate. These children need not stress counselling but the satisfaction of their basic needs. We spent a good deal of time teaching carers and reminding agencies of basic needs such as cuddling, play and sense of being valued.

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In George Gissing's novel *The New Grub Street* (1891), Harold Biffen, impoverished author, rushes into a burning building to rescue the manuscript of a book he has just finished writing. This allegorizes a prime motive of late 19th century literature, 'saving the text'. How does George Eliot save the text in *Middlemarch*? How does Hardy save it in *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*?

Biffen’s rescue-mission, however, does not only underline the value of the text. It also suggests the danger of pursuing an allegiance to the word at the expense of the claims of humanity, for in dashing upstairs to snatch his work from the flames Biffen passes by the slumped figure of a dying man. The issue raised here can be taken up with reference to the Holocaust in our own century, and to the recent case of the literary theorist Paul de Man whose assertion that language is independent of life has been seen as an excuse for his authorship of collaborationist articles in wartime Belgium.

*Middlemarch* affirms with missionary zeal the link between the word and life, the word and humane insight, the word and liberal educative purposes. Though (as last year’s television adaptation brought out) Eliot’s novel reflects such historical events as parliamentary reform and the coming of the railways, it is concerned above all with matters of transhistorical importance - individual existence, human relationships, the larger web of interactions between people and groups in a community, and ultimately universal patterns of need and behaviour. An examination of two well-known passages will illustrate and develop this point.

The first is from the commentary of the ‘omniscient author’ on Dorothea Brooke’s predicament when she is found crying during her honeymoon in Rome with the ageing and dried-up Casaubon. One of George Eliot’s major preoccupations is our propensity for projecting upon the world the shapes of our own desire. The ardent Dorothea had perceived Casaubon as a modern Milton whom she could serve in some great intellectual and spiritual adventure. Dissillusionment has soon set in; but this is not a situation that will generally be found tragic.

That element of tragedy which lies in the very fact of frequency, has not yet wrought itself into the coarse emotion of mankind; and perhaps our frames could hardly bear much of it. If we had a keen vision and feeling of all ordinary human life, it would be like hearing the grass grow and the squirrel’s heart beat, and we should die of that roar which lies on the other side of silence. As it is, the quickest of us walk about well waddled with stupidity. (Chapter 20)

We note in this a recurrent evocation of the discourse of science, especially biological: genetics and Darwinian evolutionary theory in the concept of something being 'wrought' into the make-up of mankind; the stethoscope in the idea of hearing the squirrel’s heartbeat; the microscope in the phrase 'keen vision'. This discourse, however, is used to elevate, not hard rationality, but humane wisdom. There is a deep paradox about the whole statement: on one level it welcomes the limitations, the 'stupidity', which shield us from a constant and acute apprehension of pain, yet on another sensitizes us to the very fact of the tragedy of the commonplace. We are asked to acknowledge what we have overlooked before.

The second example comes in chapter 80, when Dorothea, now a widow, thinks - mistakenly - that Ladislaw, whom she admires, is involved with Rosamond, wife of Lydgate the doctor. From a long night of grief Dorothea emerges into the light of self-abnegation and feeling for others:

She yearned towards the perfect Right, that it might make a throne within her, and rule her errant will. 'What should I do - how should I act now, this very day if I could clutch my own pain, and compel it to silence, and think of those three? I had taken long for her to come to that question, and there was light piercing into the room. She opened her curtains, and looked out towards the bit of road that lay in view, with fields beyond, outside the entrance-gates. On the road there was a man with a bundle on his back and a woman carrying her baby; in the field she could see figures moving - perhaps the shepherd with his dog. Far off in the bending sky was the pearly light; and she felt the largeness of the world and the manifold wakings of men to labour and endurance. She was part of that involuntary, palpitating life, and could neither look out on it from her luxurious shelter as a mere spectator, nor hide her eyes in selfish complaining.

The contemporary discourse here inscribed is that of Positivism or 'The Religion of Humanity', which itself echoes and revises that of the conventional religion George Eliot had renounced. Dorothea calls, not upon God or Christ, but upon the 'perfect Right' of duty; the cry of Christian in Bunyan's *The Pilgrim's Progress*, 'What shall I do to be saved?', becomes 'What should I do - how should I act?'; the 'pearly light' of the Celestial City of the Bible is a common dawn against which is displayed an iconography of ordinary 'labour and endurance'. Dorothea's awakening concentrates the theme of egotism and the need to transcend it which pervades *Middlemarch*; and at this point we become aware of the modern philosophy of being which George Eliot absorbed from Ludwig Feuerbach and Auguste Comte, of which she is as it were writing the sacred text.

For all her idealism in the fields of morality and conduct, however, there is a sceptical side to George Eliot's vision of being-in-the-world, evidenced by the failed aspirations of characters at the end of the novel. The last word, which ascribes the 'growing good of the world' in part to 'unhistoric
acts' of those who have 'lived faithfully a hidden life', is trying rather than triumphant; and this, too, is an aspect of the modernity of Middlemarch. Between hopes of progress and fears of confinement in an indifferent or hostile universe the modern spirit restlessly swings.

Hardy tends definitely to the darker side, as is indicated by the imagery of decline in the portrayal, in chapters 1 and 2, of vestigial fertility rites and of the fate of the d'Urberville line, now represented in the parodic form of the ignoble John Durbeylefield. Darwinism - not least the concern with heredity and temporal process - casts in Hardy a negative shadow. It also raises the question of whether life is merely spectacular and subject to accident or is determined by some overarching providence or design - a problem made particularly manifest when we ponder the relations between such events in Tess's history as the sudden death of her family's horse, Prince, and her consequent visit for help to the home of Alec d'Urberville, who brings about her fall.

There is no answer to this question, only abiding uncertainty. But what then are we to make of the patterning in the structure of Hardy's novel itself, exemplified, say, by the links between Tess's red ribbon in the early village scene, the pool of blood oozing from the pierced chest of Prince, the 'wounding' of Tess by Alec in the Chase (described as the tracing of a 'coarse pattern' on a 'tissue... practically as blank as snow'), Tess's striking of Alec that brings blood to his mouth at Flintcomb Ash, and the appearance of the heart-shaped stain on the ceiling beneath the room in which Tess has plunged a knife into him? Other notable repetitions involve, for instance, a network of references to Tess's vulnerability through association with caged and hunted birds, or to her status as victim (Alec bedecks her with flowers, for rustic sacrifice, Angel, her husband, dresses her in fine jewels, the signifiers of her positioning in familial and sexual terms).

Beyond the basic appeal of literary orchestration, these concatenations satisfy our desire for coherent meaning - for finding chains of significance in the world and its happenstance. One mode of understanding that is specially important to the modern mind is the logic of psychological consistency, and this is strikingly figured by the perfect reversal in Tess's stabbing of Alec of the manner of his 'hurting' her. As Freud argued, the threads of destiny unwind from within ourselves, not as an outside force.

These two episodes also generate a tension between the claims of natural justice, which put Tess in the right, and those of social justice, which demand that she be punished. This conflict of 'nature versus convention' is one of the book's central elements, as is shown in a different way at the end of chapter 13 where the narrator, observing Tess among the sleeping birds and skipping rabbits, describes her guilt as a 'fallen' woman as a 'sorry and mistaken creation of [her] fancy'. 'Feeling herself in antagonism she was quite in accord. She had been made to break an accepted social law, but no law known to the environment in which she fancied herself such an anomaly.' If George Eliot has a moral vision, Thomas Hardy makes morality 'conversable' - puts it up for grabs.

The ending of Tess is perhaps the most unsettling part of all. It can be the more fruitfully approached if we remember two basic aspects of Tess herself. One is her lasting appeal, in her sufferings and joys alike, to the sympathetic imagination of readers; though in the narrative Hardy's heroine goes down in the battle of life, she lives on for generations as an inspirational figure. The other point is the surprising resilience she does show when the odds are against her, and in the most unexpected contexts. The episode in which she confesses to Angel, on her wedding night, that she has had a child by another man is amongst the richest in Hardy's work. It is fraught with his characteristic knowledge that closeness does not banish difference but brings difference to life. Angel is willing to forgive Tess but is chillingly unable to escape the sense that she was 'one person' before and is now 'another'. He sees her only from his own point of view: 'Call me Tess', she had implored when he had addressed her playfully as a Greek goddess, Artemis, Demeter; now, in less happy circumstances, he denounces her out of his own subjectio to illusion, finding the 'belated seedling of an effete aristocracy' where he had once imagined 'a new spring child of nature'. Yet Tess herself plays a part in this drama of non-communication: 'I am only a peasant by position, not by nature', she says in self-affirmation; 'Angel, I am too wicked for you and me to live together', she avers in a refusal to leave room for negotiation. Who is making the running in all of this?

Tess's vital self-sufficiency comes out with special force in the closing segments of the novel. In passing over the obvious tragic ending of having her die, sadly but gloriously, on the altar where she lies down to sleep at Stonehenge, Hardy refuses to dissolve her life, and the challenges it sets, into transcendent aesthetic ritual. He insists on a final confrontation with moral and social convention: the police come and Tess is hanged. She is too fit to expire at Stonehenge; literally so in a way, for she has displayed amazing vigour in travelling the countryside. Yet physical fitness highlights that greater fitness which Hardy stresses in his sub-title, 'A Pure Woman'. Tess's purity is a quality of the inner self, an essential integrity which refutes society's judgement and survives it in so far as she finds a place in our hearts and minds. She had spoken herself of 'how strange and godlike was a composer's power, who from the grave could lead through sequences of emotion, which he alone had felt at first, a girl like her'. In Hardy's own notations Tess is cut off bodily, but her spirit persists, movingly, disturbingly, provocatively. Thus will it be so long as a single text of Tess and a single reader remain.

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THE MEDIA AND THE HOLOCAUST

Professor Aubrey Newman

Lecture delivered on the 20th February 1995
Sponsored by the Leicester Mercury

When the British forces and their accompanying war correspondents entered Belsen concentration camp their pictures and reports created a wave of horror in Great Britain and the West. At first the BBC refused to credit the reports from Richard Dimbleby until they were confirmed from elsewhere, but the mass of reports and above all the photographs and newsreels served to point out the appalling truths that the liberation of Belsen and Dachau had revealed. The Daily Express mounted an exhibition of photographs from these camps under the title SEEING IS BELIEVING, and there were very many who commented "It must be true because I have seen the pictures".

And yet there was and is a basic misunderstanding about Belsen, Dachau and all the camps situated in western Europe. It was to take a great time and effort of understanding to appreciate not only the differences in scale but those of horror between the camps of the west and those of the east, such as Auschwitz or Majdanek. Majdanek had been overrun by the Russians; it was not until 12th August 1944 that the Times reported it. Auschwitz also had very little initial impact. The first brief mention of the liberation of Auschwitz in the western press came in February 1945; the Times gave it a short mention while even the Jewish Chronicle gave it very little prominence. Why so? Quite simply because when these camps were liberated by the Russians there were no western correspondents serving with them, and in any case the Russians were in two minds as to what they should say to the west about what they had seen. In February 1945 the British and Americans were still not as a whole willing to believe that German atrocities abroad and the Gestapo reign of terror at home had been anything like what it was. In April 1945 it is not surprising that those witnessing the horrors within the liberated camps would assume that they had come across the worst of the Nazi excesses. It was not in fact until May 1945 that any detailed news of Auschwitz appeared in the western press; by that time the shock of Belsen had hit the British headlines and the British public had passed into another stage.

But when the initial pain and distress caused by the sight of the camp had been relieved, almost inevitably there were two sorts of immediate reactions. One quite clearly was that something had to be done to punish those responsible. The promise had been made, during the course of the war, that those who were guilty of war-crimes should be given the punishment they deserved. And there were a series of trials intended to punish those guilty of war-crimes. These were extensively and carefully prepared, and certainly public opinion, having seen the pictures of atrocities and filled with an intense desire that those who had been responsible for starting the war should be punished, now demanded the fullest enquiries into what had happened. And so we had the series of trials at Nuremberg of the great and the small, while all over Europe there came retribution for a considerable number of those who could be found and tried for their conduct. In a sense these trials were a further part of the media's involvement with the Holocaust for the picture that emerged from the weight of evidence meticulously collected and carefully produced at Nuremberg and elsewhere was one which further shocked those who had not already been shocked by what had been revealed in 1945. And when at the Eichmann trial, which was in many ways a postscript to Nuremberg, there were brought together an over-whelming weight of written and verbal testimony, there came a reiteration of the second set of feelings precipitated by the post-Belsen and post-Auschwitz reaction; "How had this come about?"

More recently from amongst those who might be termed the second generation there has come the even more telling question - "How did you allow this to happen? Surely the world should have done something to have prevented all these events?" And since the 'knock-jerk' response, "we did not know", has proved to be unsatisfactory it has fallen to those who have the responsibility of trying to understand what had happened, and the even greater responsibility of trying to explain these events and to teach the next generation about them, to try and answer the questions "what was known" and perhaps more importantly "when was it known". Even more important than the question of when was it known to what might be termed 'governmental agencies' is the question when it was known by the creators and informers of public opinion. Quite obviously the part played by the media in informing the public is of great importance in any such discussion.

How far did the media know and appreciate the continuing significance of the events in Europe? Despite the impact of the pictures and descriptions of Belsen and Dachau, those reporting these liberations did not make the connection to a wider Nazi extermination programme, while it was also to take a great deal of understanding to appreciate the impact that these camps had had upon the victims themselves. Above all, it was to take a great deal of understanding to appreciate what precisely had been happening and what had been the basis upon which these camps had been operating. For
example, there is one word that will not be found in Richard Dimbleby's account of Belsen, the word 'JEW'. In the same way, in the Russian accounts of what had been found in the east there is no mention of the fact that the majority of the victims of these massacres had been Jews. It was indeed to be some time before it was realised in the recent words of Elie Wiesel in Auschwitz "not all the victims were Jews, but all Jews were victims". So far as the Russians were concerned, that had been part of Stalin's deliberate policies; so far as the press in the west is concerned, that is part of the theme of this lecture.

The implication of the title of the Daily Express exhibition, SEEING IS BELIEVING, is that there had been some information available but that it had not been believed. It seems inconceivable that six million men, women, and children could have been put to death without someone knowing about it. On the one hand the Germans sought absolute secrecy - all those who participated directly in the death camp operations had to sign a declaration that they would for the rest of their lives maintain secrecy about what they had seen and done and that under no circumstances were any photographs to be taken. When Jews were deported either from their homes in the west or from the ghettos of Poland, they were consistently told that they were being "resettled", that they were going to a new life. Even the unloading ramps in the death camps conveyed the impression that they were the railway platforms of enormous transit stations.

On the other hand there is a very real sense in which Occupied Europe was a permeable society; information could and did pass out of Europe to both neutral and Allied territories. In fact, therefore, there was a considerable amount of such information published and some element of public agitation. As a consequence, on 17th December 1942 the Foreign Secretary, on behalf of the Allied Governments, read out in the House of Commons a Declaration recognising that the Germans had undertaken the destruction of the Jews of Europe and promising that after the war "those responsible for these crimes shall not escape retribution": But within weeks of that stirring declaration there was virtually silence in the Press, and when a former High Commissioner for German Refugees sent a letter to the Times on the subject of Jews being specifically targeted for massacre the Foreign Office news department contacted the leading newspapers to 'persuade' them not to publish such embarrassing letters. The papers took the intervention very seriously and for months many papers did not mention the word 'Jew' at all. Even when in May 1943 one member of the Polish Government in exile committed suicide in order specifically to draw attention to what was happening those papers which reported his suicide did not report the reason. In December 1944 a Mass Observation poll reported that 37% of those interviewed thought reports of German atrocities were true, 29% partly true, 11% completely false, and 23% had no opinion. And so the events of April 1945 came as a shock but also, as we can see in retrospect, a condemnation of the British Press.

In discussing the ways in which the Holocaust was reported there are problems in assessing the extent to which the public could appreciate what they read. It is important to understand where on the page an item has been placed, and that that can be done deliberately in order either to maximise or even to minimise its significance. But in addition to that there seems to have been a deliberate policy among leading members of the Foreign Office and official information services to play down such stories of atrocities. As the Ministry of Information made explicit in 1939, horror stuff "must be used very sparingly and must deal always with treatment of indisputably innocent people. Not with violent opponents. And not with Jews" And thereafter there was, with the exception of the Declaration of December 1942, very little direct reference to Jews. One very senior Foreign Office spokesman in 1944 stated: "The Allies rather resent the suggestion that Jews in particular have been more heroic or long-suffering than other nationals of occupied countries". When there were reports of massacres there was the comment "familiar stuff. The Jews have spoiled their case by laying it on too thick" and there was another comment, in 1944, from a senior official - "a disproportionate amount of time of the Foreign Office is wasted by dealing with these wailing Jews".

Fundamentally the Press in Britain failed adequately to report and to comment upon the events of the Holocaust. The information was available, since there were full reports in the columns of the Jewish Chronicle, but it was left to Hannen Swaffer in the Daily Herald to admit that all through these years the Jewish Chronicle had been right and everyone else was wrong. The issue is one which is still relevant, as to how far the public is given the information which it needs about the world around it.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I owe a debt to two research students - Dr Julian Scott who has recently completed a doctoral dissertation on The Press and the Holocaust, January 1942 to spring 1943 and Gabriel Milland, 'Aubrey Newman Research Student' in the Stanley Burton Centre, who has recently begun his doctoral research on the BBC and The Holocaust.

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THE CHANGING STATUS OF BRITAIN’S BIRDS

Christopher Mead

Joint lecture with the Natural History Section, delivered 6th March 1995

In the countryside as a whole there is one over-riding influence on birds and other wildlife - Man. The environment in which we live is grossly modified by Man’s activities and this has an all pervasive effect. Some effects are clear but others are rather obscure - but nonetheless real. There are clearly some birds whose status is changing where we are unable to unravel what is happening but it would be very unwise to discount Man-made effects as the main influence.

I consider that the major problem that we face, in the short term, is the general decrease in farmland birds. These are the birds mainly to be found in the crops or field boundaries and do not include birds primarily in woodland (Robin, Wren, Dunnock etc.). This has become clear over the last 20 years and affects almost all of our lowland farmland species. The British Trust for Ornithology has gathered data on birds through the Common Birds Census, on populations, and from the Breeding Bird Atlas, on distribution. Half of the lowland farmland species which are monitored for their population level decreased by a third or more - nine out of 18: indeed only two increased! Those two were Jackdaw and Stock Dove but the nine that went down were Tree Sparrow, Corn Bunting, Grey Partridge, Turtle Dove, Reed Bunting, Linnet, Skylark, Lapwing and Kestrel. The numbers of birds lost must be enormous and we estimate that there are 3,000,000 less Skylarks in the country now than 20 years ago.

The changes in distribution are equally worrying. We have breeding atlas maps, on the 10-km squares of the National Grid, for Britain and Ireland for 1968-1972 and for 1988-1991. These cover 28 species which can be characterised as lowland farmland and 24 of these have contracted in range. For all other habitats the 174 species had 89 (51%) with reduced range. Of these only 60 (34%) had contracted by more than 5% but 16 (57%) of the farmland species had been reduced by more than 5%.

This then is the main issue in the short to medium term and is clearly our fault; that is it is down to Man. Over the last two decades we have seen an increasingly efficient move towards complete use of land for production. The crops are seldom useful for the birds except for a short time and we are making farmland more and more an efficient environment for mono-crop production. The birds and other wildlife have existed, in the past, on the other production within the crop rather than crops themselves. Our chemical protection of the crops has become very much better over the last two decades, We are also altering our husbandry and the planting of the new crop takes place in very quick succession to the harvest. This means that stubbles had virtually disappeared as a winter habitat - a vital resource for many seed eating species. Rotational set-aside, introduced through the Common Agricultural Policy a few years ago, may be a life-saver for them in the short-term. Research has shown that the remaining Cirl Buntings in Devon flocked to weed-rich winter stubbles grown especially for them by the local farmers at the RSPB’s expense.

This is a sad story and it is down to Society as a whole and not to the blame of the farming community. There are other Man-made disasters. Global warming may be causing a rise in sea-level of 1.5 mm per year. This does not seem much but the estuaries round our coast are very sensitive to changes of this order. If we do not decide to let the sea take land back to the tidal interface mud will become very scarce. If this is the case then waders will be very badly affected and species like Brent Geese will be at risk. Global warming may be responsible for subtle changes that we are already logging for species such as Nuthatch - which has spread northwards by several 10-km squares recently - or possibly the striking spread of the Hobby. Puffins and other Arctic species may be retreating too.

All is not gloom. A very wide variety of special species are doing very well because they are found in reserves. We are very good at preserving rare habitat - even manufacturing it - and species with special needs are easy to cater for. Protection is also easy to provide over a few years from the new legislation. Thus Osprey, Peregrine, Avocet, Cetti’s Warbler, Dartford Warbler, Woodlark, Reed Warbler - to mention but a few - are doing very well. The change of attitude to and legislation about the direct effects of pesticides has led to the almost complete recovery of Sparrowhawk populations. The acceptance by anglers of the Grey Heron as a natural competitor has led to their highest population ever. And the demise of the nation’s game-keepers has allowed Magpies to increase three-fold over 30 years.

However there are some species which have been lost totally - or almost completely - which are subject to long-term collapse over the edges of their range. Two notable ones are Wryneck and Red-backed Shrike but the beleaguered Marsh Warbler seems not set to follow them. Some species like the Whinchat seem to be about to drop out of the reckoning over wide areas of its rather unspecialised range. And Barn Owls have suffered a lot as generalist birds feeding in rough pasture.

This is not a complete look at status changes. The Collared Dove has come to the country, spreading across the whole of Europe, and now features in the top ten of birds found in gardens. The Scarlet Rosefinch has reached our shores and quite soon the Greenish Warbler looks set to join it. Simple
changes to the countryside like the planting of large numbers of conifers have direct effects like the widespread breeding of Crossbills when the cone crop in the rest of Europe fails but ours is good. However there is a more direct effect of this particular change and that is the rise and rise of the Siskin.

This little finch is designed to take advantage of cones by plucking the seeds from the ripening cones. Its population has increased tremendously and its presence in gardens is now common. When one goes back 20 years there were records of Siskin in only 7% of gardens surveyed for the Garden Bird Feeding Survey. Last year 59% of GBFS sites recorded the species. A ringer 7 km from me caught 1350 in his garden during spring 1994 but I only had a total of 13 ringed and a maximum of six birds at once. The first bird was on the last day of March. This year I have ringed about 200 so far with the first record on New Years Day and 80 birds visible at once this weekend! Would that the recent history of all our birds was so encouraging.

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THE CHEMISTRY OF SEXUAL ATTRACTION

David R. Kelly

Smell is the most enigmatic of the senses. We have no words that describe odours. All the terms we use; flowery, fruity, floral, spicy, are derived from objects which have that smell. Unlike sight, hearing and taste there is no class culture associated with smell.

The nomenclature of odours emphasises their functional role. All natural odours used for communication are known as semiochemicals which means literally; signalling chemicals with the implication that information is being communicated. It undoubtedly takes a leap of imagination to realise that sour milk is sending a "signal" but otherwise the concept is sound. All organisms from yeast to humans use chemicals for communication and highly complex systems have evolved. When semiochemicals act between members of the same species they are known as pheromones from the Greek "pherein" to carry and "horman" to excite or stimulate. They are the external counterparts of hormones which act as messengers between organs in the body. Semiochemicals that act between members of different species are called allomones and these are further divided into allomones which cause an effect that favours the emitter (such as the stink of the skunk) and kairomones which favour the receiver (e.g. the odour of a prey species that attracts its predator). Finally semiochemicals which favour both the receiver and the emitter are known as synomones. A good example of this is the scent of a flower which attracts bees to feed on nectar and pollinate. Pheromonal systems are usually the most highly developed semiochemical systems because the species directly benefits from any improvement. Moreover, because most pheromones are involved in reproductive functions (mate attraction, courtship and copulation) the benefit is immediately apparent in increased fecundity.

Fatal Attraction

The first pheromone to be isolated (1959) was bombykol, the male attractant of the silk worm moth. Over 5000 insect pheromones have been identified to date and they are now used commercially in lures applied to sticky paper (high tech fly paper!) for the monitoring of insect pests in agriculture. Pheromone baited traps are much more efficient than unbaited traps, because fewer traps are needed and fewer beneficial insects such as predators are caught. A precise knowledge of insect population levels enables the farmer to apply pesticides when they are required rather than prophylactic. This has enabled the reduction of pesticide doses when population levels are low; which benefits the farmers' pocket and the environment. A typical example of an insect which can be monitored and controlled with pheromones is the olive fly. The female lays her eggs in the olive which retards the development of the olive and causes premature "drop" from the tree. The female attracts males with a volatile spiroacetal, which has been identified and synthesised on a 100kg scale. It is a highly effective lure for monitoring traps and if large numbers of lures are used mating is actually disrupted.

Bark beetles have evolved a highly complex sequence of semiochemical cues which synchronise their attacks on trees. Frequently this involves the phenomenon of mass attack in which large number of insects aggregate to attack a single tree and overwhelm its defences. When the tree is fully colonised further attack is deterred by oxygenated terpenes released by the beetles and symbiotic fungi. Curiously endo-brevicomin, the aggregation pheromone of the Southern Pine Beetle has a very similar structure to mouse aggression factors.

Pigs and Vertical Pigs

The study of mammalian pheromones has lagged behind that of insects because the behavioural patterns of mammals are so much more complex. The putative human pheromones androsteneone and androstenedol were first isolated and identified in pigs. These pheromones are found in the boar's saliva, which he rubs on to the face of the sow. If she is receptive to his advances, she takes up a rigid stance and mating takes place. A mixture of androsteneone and androstenedol in an aerosol formulation (Boarmate) is used by pig breeders to detect oestrous in sows. This method has supplemented the traditional method which employed "teaser boars". This mixture is also sold in sex shops and by mail order under various trade names as a human female attractant. Men and pigs have a close biochemical relationship and indeed man has been described as the "vertical pig" so it was natural for scientists to try and find the same chemicals in man.

Researchers at the Monnell Chemical Senses Laboratory in Philadelphia persuaded men to wear cotton wool pads in their armpits and extracted them with alcohol. This "essence of man" was applied to the upper lip of women with irregular periods. The women's periods became shorter and more regular. Androsteneone and androstenedol have been identified in these extracts. Moreover they have very similar odours to musk which is a component of virtually all perfumes. When women are questioned about perfume use, they usually say that they wear it for their own benefit and it makes them feel better. This is exactly the response women have to the male sex pheromone. So it seems that when women are using perfume they are using it as a male surrogate.

Women who cohabit tend to synchronise their periods and an "essence of women" extracted in the same way as
from men has the same effect on women with irregular periods. The phenomenon of oestrus (menstrual) synchronisation occurs in most animals that live in groups (e.g. mice, horses, cows, dogs). It is believed that synchronisation is caused by an intra-female pheromone but this has not been identified as yet. Conversely with some primates such as marmosets, the dominant (alpha) female within a group, suppresses the oestrus cycle in other females in the family group by means of a pheromone.

Truffles, which have always been prized as the ultimate delicacy, contain large amounts of androstenediol and this is why pigs can locate them so easily. Caviar, celery and young parmesan also contain androstenedione as do many of the exotic foods prized by Epicureans.

In summary smell remains our most mysterious sense. It stimulates our memory, our emotions. and our sexuality.

REFERENCES


THE THREE GREAT REVOLUTIONS IN PALAEONTOLOGY

Professor Stephen J. Gould

Report on the 35th Bennett lecture delivered on 20th February 1995 in the Rattray Lecture Theatre, University of Leicester.

Roughly translated palaeontology is the study of old bones, but today it refers to the scientific study of fossils. This has been the stimulus for three great revolutions in human thought. The theme of Professor Gould's lecture was to look back at how the science of palaeontology grew.

In Professor Gould's view, the first revolution was the recognition that fossils, strange animal or shell-like shapes in rocks, were indeed the remains of once living organisms. This was a matter which occupied the minds of the founding members of the Royal Society in the late 17th century, and it led to a debate about how such things as apparently marine shells could be found deep in the heart of limestone mountains. The corollary that the Earth's surface had not always been as it is now necessitated a concept of slow but continuous change, and, although several 18th century "Theories of the Earth" fumbled towards an explanation, it was not for more than another century, at the very end of the 18th century, that an answer was found.

In conclusion, Professor Gould noted that each of the great revolutions changed the pattern of human thought about the origin and development of living things on Earth, and eventually of Man's position in the scheme of life. Each revolution had consequences far beyond the comprehension of those involved in their promulgation. Perhaps, now that we know how we came to be here, we can speculate on where we are going with greater confidence.

Later some of the gaps were seemingly closed by the detailed evolutionary studies on some fossil groups such as the Carboniferous coral Zaphrentis delaneouii and the Jurassic ammonite Kasmoceras even though doubt was later thrown on these studies. Darwin and his late 19th century followers found further difficulties with the time available apparently being much too short. The problem of sufficient time was solved by a non-palaeontological revolution when the possibility of absolute dating by radio-active isotopes was discovered early in the 20th century. This discovery allowed the 4 million years estimated by Kelvin to be stretched to allow more than 4 billion years for the course of evolution.

The second revolution was the recognition of a method of change by erosion, transport and sedimentation presented in a rather turgid Theory by Hutton and in Illustrations by Playfair in Edinburgh. The method of change was closely related to the founding of a chronology by the early stratigraphers, notably William Smith, who established both a regular sequence of strata and a means of correlation across England by the use of the enclosed fossils. Within the first few years of the 19th century similar stratal sequences and chronologies were established throughout most of the civilized world and it became obvious that there had been a succession of life forms through geological time, Palaeontologists showed that the fossil shells of marine animals followed a natural progression in Britain whilst in France Cuvier was able to place the skeletal remains of Tertiary mammals in a chronological order.

The third great revolution followed within 50 years. Charles Darwin's theory of evolution was the logical consequence of the two earlier revolutions in that it needed both the recognition that fossils were organic remains and that they were in a chronological and systematic order. Even so, Darwin found the incompleteness of the fossil record somewhat of an embarrassment in presenting The Origin of Species in 1859.

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Report by T.D.Ford

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GEOLOGY FROM SPACE

Summary of talks presented at the Geology Section symposium at Vaughan College, Leicester, on 11th February 1995. The meeting was chaired by Dr M.K.G. Whateley.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Michael K.G. Whateley

Data from space produces some remarkable pictures which give us a fully global view of our planet. This newly acquired ability to gather information about our planet from the vantage point of space, has, over the last 40 or so years, given new meaning to the words large-scale geology. Recent advances in space technology have enabled us to zoom in on features of interest which can be studied by geologists and other scientists, allowing us to interpret folding, fracturing, hydrothermal alteration, mineralization, and volcanic activity as well as desertification, changing land-use patterns, ocean wave patterns and ocean temperature patterns, and changes to the environment amongst a myriad of other phenomena.

A very small part of the electromagnetic spectrum (between 0.4 and 0.7 microns wavelength) produces the energy that enables us to see, i.e., visible light. The rest, between gamma rays at 10^-8 microns and radio waves, up to 1 m in wavelength are invisible and are not recorded by satellites. The satellite scanners are interested in the visible and infrared parts of the spectrum. Energy in the infrared part of the spectrum (0.8-1.1 microns) is used a great deal, particularly by satellites. This part of the spectrum causes vegetation to appear red on multispectral colour photographs. Satellites use multispectral scanners to collect information in different parts of the spectrum and these data are transmitted to Earth where they are processed using computers.

The size of each picture element (pixel) was discussed and the use of the various satellite data was illustrated. Weather satellites have much larger pixels (up to 10 km) whilst the LANDSAT series have pixels only 30 m across. This means that for geological interpretation, the latter are much preferred because of the better resolution.

A brief introduction to the principles of digital image processing includes contrast enhancement, density slicing, edge enhancement, colour display of multispectral data, image classification and spectral ratio images. The talk introduced some of the possibilities that pictures from space can bring to geological and structural mapping and exploration.

Michael K.G. Whateley,
Geology Department,
University of Leicester. LE1 7RH.

MONITORING VOLCANIC ACTIVITY FROM SPACE

Andy Harris

Macdonald (1972) lists 516 active volcanoes, many of which are unmonitored. Satellite remote sensing offers a means of regularly monitoring all of these volcanoes. This is primarily due to five main benefits which satellite data offer volcano monitoring: (1) thermal capabilities, allowing thermal features to be detected and measured, (2) synoptic coverage, so that the whole of a volcano, active lava or ash cloud can be viewed, including dangerous or inaccessible parts, (3) regular return period, permitting repeat surveillance, (4) global coverage, potentially providing data for all sub-aerial volcanoes, and (5) continuity of data.

Satellite data have been shown capable of monitoring and measuring thermal activity associated with lava lakes, domes and flows, and also plumes of ash and gas resulting from explosive activity.

(1) Thermal activity. Initial work by Rothery et al (1988) showed low spatial resolution (30 m pixels) short wave infrared data from the Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM) can be used to estimate the thermal structure of active lava lakes, domes and flows. Subsequently Oppenheimer (1993) showed how a time series of TM data can be used to monitor the evolution of a lava dome, using data for the dome at Lascar volcano, Chile. Variations in spectral radiance from the dome was explained as reflecting periods of dome extrusion and cooling, which may have triggered an explosive eruption. Oppenheimer (1991) also demonstrated how TM data can be used to derive thermal parameters for an active lava flow, using data for a lava flow at Lonquimay Volcano, Chile. The high spatial resolution of TM allows detailed thermal measurements. However data from the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), although having coarser spatial resolution (1.1 km pixels), provides thermal data at least every 6 hours, as opposed to every 16 days with TM. This increases the chance of a satellite pass coinciding with a volcanic event. During the December 1991 to March 1993 eruption at Etna, Sicily, over 300 cloud-free AVHRR images were available, which allowed all of the major stages in the development of the lava flow field to be mapped. Similar results were achieved using AVHM; by Harris et al (1995) for the two week eruption at the Krafla fissure, N.E. Iceland in September 1984.

(2) Explosive activity. Plumes of ash and gas in the atmosphere may extend over thousands of kilometres. For this reason the large aerial coverage provided by AVHRR and
geostationary satellites, such as GOES and GMS, make them ideal monitoring devices. Ash plumes are of concern to aviation, since the engines of aircraft flying through an unmonitored plume become clogged. Work has shown how satellite data can be used to estimate the area, height and total mass of an ash plume, map the topography of the plume top and monitor its spread. Data from geostationary satellites, available every half hour, have proved particularly useful in tracking ash plumes. Glaze et al (1989) used GOES images to track and measure the plume from a short-lived Vulcanian eruption at Lascar as it moved south-eastwards over the Argentinean town of Salta. Plumes of sulphur dioxide released by volcanic eruptions can also be measured and tracked using the NIMBUS Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS), as shown by Krueger et al (1990) for the 1985 eruptions at Nevado del Ruiz, Colombia.

Our ability to monitor volcanic activity is currently constrained by the spatial, temporal and radiometric resolutions of the satellite sensors. To measure and monitor more accurately thermal activity, sensors which measure thermal emittance in numerous wavebands, in small (<10 m) pixels, once every hour, or less, are desirable. To this end sensors to be launched as part of NASA’s Earth Observing System (EOS) offer great potential for volcano monitoring.

REFERENCES


ANCIENT IMPACT CRATERS ON EARTH

Allan Mills

Geology was established long ago as the science of the Earth, but the last few decades have witnessed a revolution in our knowledge of the Moon and planets as a result of space probe exploration. Classical geology has helped to interpret these data, but in return views from space have given new insight into the structure and evolution of our own planet.

The detection of ancient impact features - astroblemes - on Earth provides a good example. The Moon has from the time of Galileo been known to be pock-marked with circular craters on the Earth-facing hemisphere, but early space probes proved that the farside too is densely cratered. The great majority of these features (particularly the larger ones) are now agreed to have their origin in the impact of accreting debris moving at tens of km/sec. At these speeds the kinetic energy (proportional to the square of the velocity) is enormous, and most of it is converted to heat following impact and penetration. The end result is akin to the detonation of buried multi-megaton hydrogen bombs. The angle of entry is not significant - hence the circularity characterising the craters of the Moon, Mercury, Mars and the satellites of Jupiter.

The Moon, being only some of the mass of the Earth, has conveniently preserved this evidence of its accretionary youth on its maria surface. Could the Earth too - in spite of its dynamic nature and active erosion - still retain some circular features as 'fossil' remnants of an impacted past? A generation ago such a 'catastrophic' hypothesis would hardly have been entertained, but modern satellite surveys have backed-up earlier aerial reconnaissance in making apparent circular features on ancient stable provinces of the continents, such as the Canadian shield. Most have been planed by erosion and filled by lakes and associated sediments, but nevertheless the characteristic circular outline has betrayed them, allowing subsequent ground-based exploration and proof.

Slides of a number of confidently-identified astroblemes were shown, the classic case of Brent crater in Canada demonstrating how these features become less-and-less obvious as the altitude of observation decreases. When actually on the ground a plaque is required to indicate that one is actually standing in an ancient impact crater on Earth! Finally, it was pointed out that a huge impact at the end of the Cretaceous era is now seriously considered as at least contributing to the demise of the dinosaurs.

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Allan Mills.
Departments of Geology and Physics,
University of Leicester.
RESOURCE MAPPING

Dr David Greenbaum,

Much of the work undertaken by the BGS Remote Sensing Group for the Overseas Development Administration is directed towards the development of techniques for resource mapping, including the exploration for minerals and water. The essential database for any exploration survey is a geological map. Where adequate maps do not exist, satellite imagery can provide valuable geological and logistical information about an area. Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM) imagery is often used and is preferred to SPOT imagery for its greater spectral range, even though its spatial resolution is slightly poorer (30 m compared to 20 m). In arid/semi-arid terrain even simple enhancements can provide important discrimination of structures and rock types. Such maps often provide direct clues to the presence of minerals, or special processing can be applied to detect anomalies of significance. For example, metallic mineral deposits are commonly associated with a rock alteration halo containing minerals such as clays, carbonates and sulphates that can be detected by the TM sensor. A study in Peru used the processing technique known as principal components analysis to isolate and highlight anomalies, leading to the recognition of several previously unknown occurrences, although sub-economic in this case (Amos and Greenbaum, 1989).

Perhaps of more direct relevance to developing countries are industrial minerals and constructional materials. For example, in arid countries like Egypt and Namibia, clays for local brick-making are scarce. What is required for true remote mineral identification, as opposed to mere discrimination, is a sensor with numerous spectral channels from which a diagnostic spectrum can be derived; however, spaceborne data of this type are not yet available. A research project has looked at ways in which the simple data from TM can be modified to represent true spectral reflectance as measured in the laboratory. Using a technique called log-residuals, images are transformed and the results 'interrogated' pixel by pixel in terms to their simple TM 'pseudospectra'. The technique has shown that minerals such as kaolinite and gypsum can be separated and provisionally identified in this way (Marsh et al. 1992; Greenbaum et al. 1994).

The most important resource for much of the developing world is potable water. Crystalline basement rocks, which are extensive in Africa, Asia and South America, possess no primary permeability or porosity, and thus make poor aquifers. Water is stored only in fractures and weathered overburden. Remote sensing can be effectively used to identify 'lineaments', corresponding to faults and joints. Studies in south east Zimbabwe show, however, that even large fractures are not always water bearing. Techniques have therefore been developed by which a 'vegetation index', calculated from the TM data, may be 'dipped' in colour over a relief image depicting the fracture pattern. By using dry-season imagery and looking for large fractures associated with preserved vegetation, possible water-bearing fractures may be more accurately targeted.

REFERENCES


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THE USE OF GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEMS IN MINERAL EXPLORATION

Charlie Moon

Geographical Information Systems have rapidly evolved into cheap and (occasionally) relatively friendly information systems. Initially such systems were used in geographical applications, particularly in making decisions as to the location of supermarkets with specific customer catchments. Geologists have been slower on the uptake but GIS is now widely used in industry, particularly the mineral and oil industries.

Their main applications are
1. Visualisation of data, for example, draping geology on topography.
2. Creation of large easily queried spatial databases containing data in both vector (e.g. lithology) and raster (e.g. LANDSAT TM) forms.
3. Qualitative integration of data using Boolean 'if', 'or', 'and' queries.
4. Quantitative integration of data using data driven models or external expert systems.

In mineral exploration GIS have other significant advantages over previous methods in that samples are presented in their correct spatial context. For example, river sediment samples can be shown as catchments rather than as points. This leads to more accurate interpretation and avoids the generation of spurious anomalies.

Examples were presented from data sets in South Devon and Cornwall showing that answers to queries such as 'Where should we look for gold' can be presented in probabilistic terms. The answer will depend on the data input and the models assumed in the quantitative integration methods. These probabilities are a valuable addition to intuitive geological judgement.

Major constraints on the use of GIS were discussed. The most important are the lack of geological data in digital form, particularly in the UK, the difficulties and cost of digitisation, and the problem of copyright.

The rapid evolution and uptake of GIS suggest that they will be in routine use in most commercial geological enterprises in the near future.

FURTHER READING


Charlie Moon.
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BOOK REVIEWS


Over the last ten years or so many individuals and groups have published their reminiscences of daily life from the turn of this century. The reasons for this are not hard to find. The last 50 years especially have witnessed radical changes in the quality of domestic life, traditional occupations and the whole make-up of village and town communities. An underlying aim, therefore, of most of these publications is to set down a record of human experience before most of those changes took place and, hence, preserve for future generations what many feel to have been an era of greater communal homogeneity.

This sizeable and attractively produced booklet certainly fits this brief well. It is especially interesting for being the end product of a group reminiscence project which lasted over a year, with a good number of the older villagers at Newtown Linford gathering on a regular basis to record their memories dating back to before the First World War. The result is a fascinating consort of voices which gives a good, if somewhat confusing, account of family networks in the villages - the very thing that people today feel is absent from many communities or at least submerged by a rapidly incoming commuter-based population. It certainly helps to have a family tree of one of the more extensive clans - the Harrisons, and readers from outside the village would have been helped even more by a sketch plan showing the location, in say 1920, of a good number of the families mentioned here.

Details of domestic life before the Second World War when electricity, gas and water supplies were either non-existent, or at best primitive, do not differ greatly from the many other accounts from other communities in Leicestershire. However, there are two other themes which run through the 60-odd pages of this book which deserve further comment.

The first is the impact of local tourism on the village. Being close to Bradgate Park and the rest of Charnwood Forest, Newtown was a convenient "watering hole" for the thousands of people from Leicester and the surrounding town who seem to have come mainly as day-trippers. The cottagers catered for all classes with "plain tea" costing 1/-d/ a "full tea" (which included a boiled egg and tinned fruit salad) costing 1/6d, or just hot water sold to those who brought their own tea, milk and sugar. It would have been good to have even more on this under-studied subject.

The second theme running through this book is that of the effect of the "Great House" on this estate village where all were tenants of the Grey family until 1925. Interestingly, the Grey family seems to have got its servants from further afield, nevertheless the affairs at Bradgate House had a major impact on most aspects of life in the village. Perhaps none figures more prominently in this than Edward Haslegrave, the agent to the estate from 1913. Interestingly he continued to work as agent for those who bought parcels of the estate in 1925 up until 1961. The story of the estate is handled well and it would be good to see similar studies in other "close" villages in the county.

There are approximately 40 photographs illustrating the text - some a little small, but many show fascinating detail such as the foresters' parade outside the church in the early 1900s and some rare interior photographs of cottages in the 1920s. Those showing individuals or small groups are well-captioned and so add greatly to putting faces to the plethora of names that are found here.

Joan Stevenson is to be congratulated on pulling most of the gems from what must have been a vast amount of reminiscence and also for locating some interesting photographs. It is also especially pleasing to see the last few pages devoted to some of the more established "incomers" who moved to the village since the Second World War. They, and the even more recent residents in the village, will find much in this publication to help them understand how their chosen community has evolved during the present century.

Stephan Mastoris,
Market Harborough Museum.


In recent decades we have been treated to a number of works which bring new perspectives to the study of British woodlands. Most notably a series of books by Oliver Rackham have combined a botanical approach with a historical treatment based on documentary research and this has resulted in important advances in our understanding of the history of woodland management. In this book we now have a similar synthesis of approach applied to our own local area by two eminent local authors who have established their reputations in different fields. Tony Squires has published and taught widely on landscape history. Michael Jeeves as Conservation Officer of the Leicestershire and Rutland Wildlife Trust and county recorder for flowering plants has considerable knowledge and experience in local wildlife conservation.

The book is very much one of two halves. The first ten chapters together with chapter 13 deal with the history of Leicestershire and Rutland woodlands from prehistoric times right up to the present day. The prehistoric era receives rather thin coverage because so little work has been done locally. It is a pity that there is little mention of the contribution that environmental archaeology has made to our understanding of the composition of the wild-wood and as clearances in the Bronze Age and Iron Age elsewhere in the country. However when the book enters the Anglo-Saxon period it comes into its own. From here onwards the authors take us by the hand and lead us through a complex web of charters, place names and forest law to a detailed picture of the varied fortunes of woodland in Leicestershire and Rutland. It is here that Tony Squires' exhaustive researches into historical documents bear fruit and the resulting collation of information from such a wide historical period is very impressive. Indeed some readers uninitiated into the methodology of landscape history find themselves lost in some of the detail. However the authors succeed nicely in drawing out several recurring patterns. Leicestershire
currently has one of the lowest densities of woodland in the country, but apparently this has always been the case right back to Anglo-Saxon times. Similarly the concentration of woodland in areas of west Leicestershire and parts of Rutland and its absence from huge areas of east Leicestershire has a similar continuity stretching back to beyond the time of the *Doomsday Book*. I also found the chapters on modern history very useful and had not fully appreciated the tremendous impact of the two world wars on our local woodlands.

The remaining five chapters deal with woodland flora and fauna and its conservation. These aspects are dealt with in less detail than in the historical section but in consequence are possibly more accessible to the average reader. There are useful summaries of the main broad categories of stand types to be found in Leicestershire and pointers to the ecological complexity of ancient woodlands using such diverse groups as birds and spiders. A thought-provoking section on the evaluation of woodlands using flowering plants suggests that our local ancient woodlands compare with the best in the country.

Throughout the book source data, maps and specialist information are separated into boxes and this has helped to make the text flow smoothly for the reader. The appearance of such a scholarly and stimulating book which concentrates on the local scene has to be welcomed. I shall continue to use it as a source of information and ideas for some time to come. I am sure that all readers will see our local woodland heritage in a new light. In particular this book should result in a greater appreciation of the value of our ancient woodlands. I strongly recommend it to all those with an interest in the countryside.

Derek Lott,
Leicestershire Museums, Arts and Records Service.
ANNUAL REPORT AND PROGRAMME FOR THE 153rd SESSION 1994-1995

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

The progress on all fronts reported a year ago by my predecessor (to whom much credit is due) has been maintained throughout this session. The lectures, of a high quality, have been well attended and appreciated, and our thanks are here recorded to our growing number of sponsors, commercial and professional.

Thanks are also due to all the officers and Council members, who have each given unstintingly of their time and wisdom to the Society's affairs. Special tribute must be paid to Philip Goodwin, who at the annual general meeting brought to a close nearly twenty years of faithful and efficient service as Treasurer. His meticulous book-keeping and cautious administration of finance have contributed greatly to our current solvency.

Two related matters have concerned Council throughout the year. Due to severe constraints on municipal spending, the Museum, Arts and Records Service has felt itself unable to continue housing the sectional meetings for Natural History (now meeting at The Rowans) and Geology (temporarily meeting at Leicester University). Despite the parental relationship of the Society to the Museum, the long and harmonious link has been in jeopardy, though it is now realised that the Society itself has a legally secure tenure in a building, part of which was actually erected for its own use. The situation is not happy, and the Society is pledged to continue efforts to restore its sections to New Walk.

Another matter which has occupied the Council's time has been the revision of the Society's Constitution to take into account the recommendations of the Charity Commissioners and the new revisions were accepted at the AGM in April and the Constitution is published in this Transactions. Thanks are due to Mr Keith Smithson for all his hard work on this matter.

The Art Gallery public address system itself has proved increasingly efficient in relaying speech, and there is much call for improvement. An anonymous donor may be offering some appropriate equipment to the Society.

In conclusion, my personal thanks are extended to the membership for receiving so generously and cordially a presidency both unsought and unexpected, but which has given me so much pleasure. To my successor, Ormond Smith, a deserving member of the Society and its Council, go my good wishes and promise of support.

Hughie Jones, April 1995.

PROGRAMME FOR THE 1994-1995 SESSION


17th October 1994 HONG KONG: THE PROSPECT FOR POST-1997. Dr David Bethel, former Director of Leicester Polytechnic.

7th November 1994 THE NATURAL HISTORY AND UTILIZATION OF CLAYS Professor A.C. Dunham, University of Leicester. Joint lecture with the Geology Section.

21st November 1994 WRITING ABOUT PEOPLE AND PLACES by Professor by Richard Hoggart. Sponsored by De Montfort University.

5th December 1994 BEGINNERS PLEASE OR FIRST START YOUR PLAY by Dr Robert Smallwood, Shakespeare Centre, Stratford-on-Avon. Sponsored by Leicester University Bookshop.


23rd January 1995 THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSEQUENCES OF STRESSFUL EVENTS by Professor Sydney Brandon, Emeritus Professor of Psychiatry, University of Leicester.

6th February 1995 VICTORIAN TO MODERN: GEORGE ELIOT'S MIDDLEMARCH, HARDY'S TESS by Professor Vincent Newey, English Department, University of Leicester. Sponsored by Dillon's Bookshop.

20th February 1995 HOW THE MEDIA REPORTED THE HOLOCAUST 1939-45 by Professor Aubrey Newman, History Department, University of Leicester. Sponsored by the Leicester Mercury.

6th March 1995 THE CHANGING STATUS OF BRITAIN'S BIRDS by Christopher Mead, British Trust for Ornithology. Joint Lecture with the Natural History Section.

20th March 1995 THE CHEMISTRY OF SEXUAL
ATTRACTION by Dr David R. Kelly, University College, Cardiff. Sponsored by the Royal Society of Chemistry.

24th April 1995 ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING followed by a recital by Unipart.

GEOLOGY SECTION REPORT 1994-1995

Officers and Committee

President: Dr R.J. King
Chairman: Dr R.G. Clements
Vice Chairman: Dr M.J. Le Bas
Secretary: Mrs E. Bellamy
Treasurer: D. Lazenbury
Field Secretary: Peter Blake

Committee:
Graham Stocks
Colin Green
Alan Hay
Dennis Gamble
Dr Trevor Ford
John Martin

Summer Excursions 1994

May 25th Evening walk round the Building Stones of Leicester, leader Dr J.H. Mc.D. Whitaker.

June 11th. Judkins Quarry, Nuneaton: leader Dr M.J. Le Bas.

July 24th. Blockley Brick Pit, Glos.: leader Peter Blake.

August 13th. Geology of Bradgate Park: leader Dr Helen Boynton.


Winter Programme

October 5th 1994 Visit to the galleries and stores of Leicester Museum and Art Gallery.

October 19th 1994 VOLCANOES AND LAKES IN THE KENYA RIFT by Dr Martin Clarke.

November 2nd 1994 FIRE AND ICE: DRILLING OFF THE S.E. GREENLAND MARGIN by Dr A. Saunders, University of Leicester.


November 16th 1994 OLD WORLDS, NEW WORLDS: A GEOLOGICAL TOUR OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM by Dr Peter Floyd, University of Keele.

November 30th 1994 GEOLOGICAL MAPPING IN THE LAKE DISTRICT, SPAIN, ARABIA AND ELSEWHERE by Dr Frank Moseley, University of Birmingham.

December 14th 1994 Members' Evening.

January 18th 1995 THE ORIGINS OF PELAGIC OSTRACODS by Dr David Siveter, University of Leicester.

February 1st 1995 GEOLOGICAL TALES FROM MONGOLIA by Professor Brian Windley, University of Leicester.

February 11th 1995 GEOLOGY FROM SPACE - Saturday School at Vaughan College, Leicester.

February 15th 1995 SEVEN YEARS ON THE ROAD WITH A PERIPATETIC GEOLOGY CURATOR by Simon Timberlake, Southeastern Museums Service.

March 1st 1995 Members' Talks and Slides.

March 15th 1995 Annual General Meeting with Chairman’s address 'Looking at Fossils II'.

NATURAL HISTORY SECTION REPORT 1994-1995

Officers and Committee

President: Mrs J.E. Dawson, MA, AMA.
Chairman: E.J.W. Venables BA, MEd.
M.E. Broughton, BA, GIBiol, FIRM.
Vice-Chairman: Mrs J. Cooper.
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Hon Programme Secretary: Miss J.E. Dawson, MA, AMA.
Hon Minutes Secretary: Mrs D. Thompson.
Committee:
Mrs A. Ambler.
Mrs G.M. Ball.
S. Costa.
D.V. Course.
J. Dawson.
Mrs J. Edwards.
Ms C. Etté (now Mrs Williams).
Dr A. Fletcher.
Mrs A. Gregory.
Mrs P.M. Heighway.
Miss E. Orr.
K.D. Smithson.

Winter meetings 1994


19 January 1994 CONSERVING FISH IN LEICESTERSHIRE by Keith Easton.


16 February 1994 PENGUINS by Sara Kinzett-Whitley.

16 March 1994 Joint meeting with the Entomological Society. GEYSERS, WETAS AND KEAS - A NATURAL HISTORY OF NEW ZEALAND by Dr Roger Key.

30 March 1994 AGM, Quiz and Social Evening.

Summer Meetings 1994

23 April 1994 BUNNY OLD WOODS, NOTTS by Gerry White and Chris Terrell-Neild.

7 May 1994 BREDON CLOUD WOOD by Tony Squires.

11 May 1994 WISTOW CIRCULAR by Doreen Thompson.

21 May 1994 MUSTON MEADOWS by Bob Lord.

5 June 1994 Full day excursion to THERFIELD HEATH AND CHELSEA PHYSIC GARDEN by Vincent Thompson.

18 June 1994 SUTTON PARK, WARWICKS by Peter Coxhead.

29 June 1994 CHARNWOOD LODGE BAT COUNT by Jan Dawson.

1-3 July 1994 SNOWDONIA AND ANGLESEY by Phil Lucas.

15-17 July 1994 WOODCHESTER PARK by Jean and Dennis Cooper.

23 July 1994 BARKBY HOLT - MOTH TRAPPING by Harry Ball.


27 August 1994 CROXTON PARK by Fred Hartley.


25 September 1994 TRENT CROcus MEADOWS, NOTTS by Steve Alton.

27 September 1994 RUTLAND WATER - BIRD WATCHING by Tim Appleton.

Winter 1994 Programme

26 October 1994 BOROUGH FEN DUCK DECOY by Tony Cook.

9 November 1994 WINGS OVER THE MOUNTAINS (ALPINE BUTTERFLIES) by Gianpierrro Ferrari.

23 November 1994 22nd Sower Memorial Lecture: LEICESTER'S RETURNING LICHENS by Dr Tony Fletcher.

7 December 1994 THE RETURN OF THE POLECAT by Dr Johnny Birks.

Membership List

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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May 1995

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<td>1981</td>
<td>Brown, Dr.K.F.C., BA. MB. BCH. FRCP., 2 The Green, Anstey, Leicester, LE7 7FU</td>
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<td>1989</td>
<td>Burton, Mr G., 26 Shirley Avenue, Leicester, LE2 3NA</td>
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<td>1959</td>
<td>Cameron, Mrs D.E., BEH., Aylesham Court Nursing Home, Hinckley Road, Leicester Forest East LE3 3PH</td>
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<td>1992</td>
<td>Campbell, Mrs J., 12 Broadway Road, Leicester, LE5 5TA</td>
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<td>1960</td>
<td>Carpenter, Miss W.S., 236 Kimberley Road, Leicester, LE2 1LT</td>
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<td>1992</td>
<td>Catchpole, Mrs M., 2 Youngland Court, 172 Evington Lane, Leicester, LE5 6DH</td>
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<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>Chamberlain, Mr M.A., MA., The Manor House, Burrough on the Hill, Leicester, LE14 2JQ</td>
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<td>1994</td>
<td>Chatterton, Mrs B.V., Yew Trees, 56 Anstey Lane, Leicester, LE7 7JA</td>
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<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>Clark, Mr E.K., OBE, BSc., 29 Northcote Road, Leicester, LE2 3FH</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Clarke, Rev. R.G., 11 Holmfield Avenue, Leicester, LE2 2BG</td>
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LEICESTER LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY

CONSTITUTION AND RULES (Revised 1995)

1) OBJECTS.

The object of the Society shall be the advancement of education in Literature, Science and Art.

In furtherance of this object but not further or otherwise the Society shall have power to

i) provide lectures and discussions
ii) publish reports, papers and proceedings
iii) support the New Walk Museum under the terms of its presentation to the City Council
iv) do all such other lawful things as are necessary for the achievement of the object.

2) MANAGEMENT.

The management of the Society shall be vested in a Council consisting of a President, four Vice-Presidents, Life Vice-Presidents appointed under Rule 7, a Treasurer, a Secretary, a Minute Secretary, and an Editor of the Transactions, all of whom shall be appointed annually; and not less than twelve and not more than thirty-six members, who shall be appointed for two years, half of whom shall retire from office annually but shall be eligible for re-appointment (if the number is uneven the smaller number shall retire), and of one member nominated and elected annually by each Section of the Society, if desired by the Section, such election to be made before 31st October in each year and to be certified in writing by the Chairman of the Section at the date of the election. Five members of the Council to form a quorum.

3) ANNUAL MEETING.

A General Meeting of the Society shall be held in every year, at such time and place as the Council shall appoint, for the presentation of reports, and the transaction of the general business of the Society. At this meeting the Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer, the Secretaries, the Editor, two Auditors, and members of the Council shall be chosen in the manner hereinafter mentioned. All questions proposed at such meeting, except such as involve an alteration of the Rules, shall be decided by the votes of the majority of the members present, the President having a vote, and in case of equality a casting vote.

4) ORDINARY MEETINGS.

The Council shall appoint the times and places at which the Society’s ordinary meetings shall be held, and shall determine the business to be transacted at such meeting, in conformity with Rule 1. The advocacy of sectarian religious or party political views, either by lectures or by speakers, shall be excluded.

5) SPECIAL GENERAL MEETINGS.

Special general meetings shall be called at the discretion of the Council, or on the requisition of eight members addressed to the Minute Secretary, who shall give previous notice of such meeting to every member.

6) QUORUM AT GENERAL MEETINGS.

At any General Meeting each member present in person shall have one vote. Ten members present in person shall be a quorum and if within fifteen minutes of the time appointed for the meeting a quorum is not present the meeting shall be dissolved.

7) ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

The President shall be elected by the Council, and the election shall take place at least one month before the Annual Meeting. The retiring President shall retain office until the new President’s address has been delivered. At the last two lectures of each session notice shall be given of the date, time and place of the Annual Meeting,
notice of the Annual Meeting having been inserted in the lecture programme. Each member present and voting at
the Annual Meeting shall receive a list of nominees, and shall, in the case of voting, put a mark against the names
of those for whom he or she votes. The President, or Chairman of the meeting, shall appoint scrutineers to cast
up the votes. The scrutineers shall present a list of the persons voted for in order of majority of votes, and shall
hand over the voting papers to the President, or Chairman of the meeting, by whom they shall be immediately
destroyed. The election shall fall upon those who have a majority of votes, and in the case of an equality the
election shall be decided by lot. Lists containing more names marked than the number required shall be rejected.
Vacancies in any of the offices, from whatever cause arising, shall be filled up by the Council. When there is a
vacancy on the Council there must be a nomination at one meeting and election at the next meeting.

8) LIFE VICE-PRESIDENTS.

Any member of the Council who has rendered conspicuous service to the Society may, on the recommendation of
the Council to the Annual Meeting, be elected a life Vice-President of the Society provided he or she remains a
member of the Society and such a Life Vice-President shall be a permanent member of the Council.

9) SECTIONS.

The Council of the Society may from time to time appoint Sections for the pursuit of particular branches of
Science, Literature and Art, and make bye-laws regulating the constitution, organisation and management of such
Sections. The Council may also from time to time extinguish any Section or amalgamate any two or more Sections.
The Council may, if it shall think fit, make provision for the appointment of persons, not members of the Society,
as members of the Sections, provided that all acts and proceedings of such Sections shall be fully and promptly
reported back to the Council.

10) ADMISSION OF MEMBERS.

Each application for membership shall be made in writing to the Secretary and submitted for the approval of the
Council at the meeting thereof next following the receipt of the application or as soon after as possible.

11) MEMBERS.

Each member shall pay an annual subscription as determined from time to time by the Council which shall entitle
him or her to
i) a Member’s Ticket, not transferable;
ii) one copy of the Transactions.

12) FAMILY MEMBERS.

Each Family Member shall pay an annual subscription as determined from time to time by the Council which shall
entitle him or her to the privileges to which each member is entitled as mentioned in Rule 11, and in addition to
the privilege of bringing one visitor to each lecture of the session.

13) PAYMENT OF SUBSCRIPTIONS.

The Annual Subscription shall be payable before the first lecture. Admission shall be by ticket only, which shall
be issued on payment of subscription. Members whose subscriptions are unpaid by 31st March, after reminder,
shall be deemed to have resigned.

14) HONORARY MEMBERS.

Honorary Members shall be nominated and elected by the Council and shall have the same privileges as members.

15) ADMISSION OF NON-MEMBERS TO MEETINGS.

Visitors may be admitted to the meetings of the Society as guests of the President or on payment of such fee as
the Council shall from time to time determine. The Council shall have power to make from time to time such other
special regulations for the admission of visitors as may appear necessary.

16) RESIGNATIONS.

Members intending to resign shall notify their intention to the Secretary before 31st May.
17) APPLICATION OF FUNDS.

After payment of the expenses of the Society, any surplus funds may be disposed of in the manner which the Council may consider most conducive to the advancement of the objects of the Society.

If the Council decides that it is necessary or advisable to dissolve the Society it shall call a meeting of all members of the Society, of which not less than 21 days notice (stating the terms of the resolution to be proposed) shall be given. If the proposal is confirmed by a two-thirds majority of those present and voting the Council shall have power to realise any assets held by or on behalf of the Society. Any assets remaining after the satisfaction of any proper debts and liabilities shall be given or transferred to such other charitable institution or institutions having objects similar to the objects of the Society as the members of the Society may determine or failing that shall be applied for some other charitable purpose. A copy of the statement of accounts, or accounts and statement, for the final accounting period of the Society must be sent to the Charity Commissioners.

18) RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS.

i) The funds of the Society, including all donations contributions and bequests, shall be paid into accounts operated by the Council in the name of the Society at such Banks as the Council shall from time to time decide. All cheques drawn on the accounts must be signed by at least two authorised members of the Council in accordance with the mandate produced to the Bank.

ii) The funds belonging to the Society shall be applied only in furthering the objects.

iii) The Bennett Bequest Fund shall be used only to fund such research projects considered by the Council to be appropriate and the H.N. Staunton Lecture Fund to provide financial support as necessary towards the general costs of the Society and the provision of lecturers.

ACCOUNTS.

The Council shall comply with their obligations under the Charities Act 1992 (or any statutory re-enactment or modification of that Act) with regard to:

i) the keeping of accounting records for the Society;

ii) the preparation of annual statements of account for the Society;

iii) the auditing or independent examination of the statements of account of the Society; and

iv) the transmission of the statements of account of the Society to the Charity Commissioners.

19) ALTERATION OF RULES.

i) Subject to the following provisions of this clause the Constitution may be altered by a resolution passed by not less than two thirds of the members present and voting at a general meeting. The notice of the general meeting must include notice of the resolution, setting out the terms of the alteration proposed.

ii) No amendment may be made to the name of the Society, the objects clause, the dissolution clause or this clause without the prior consent in writing of the Charity Commissioners.

iii) No amendment may be made which would have the effect of making the Society cease to be a charity in law.

iv) The Council should promptly send to the Charity Commissioners a copy of any amendment made under this clause.

20) COUNCIL TO MAKE BYE-LAWS.

The Council shall have power to make Bye-Laws and Regulations not inconsistent with the foregoing rules

21) DEFINITION.

In the Constitution and Rules the word ‘Member’ and ‘Members’ shall, except where the context otherwise requires, include the words ‘Family Member’ and ‘Family Members’. 
THE LEICESTER LITERARY & PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY
founded in 1835

OFFICERS AND COUNCIL OF THE SOCIETY

President: The Venerable T. Hughie Jones
Life Vice-President: Dr T.D. Ford, B.Sc., Ph.D., F.G.S.
Vice Presidents: J.E. Higginbotham, M.A.
M.H. Bailey, M.A.
J. Florance, B.A., Ph.D.
D.E. Kendall Clark, O.B.E., B.Sc.

Hon. Secretary: Miss J.E. Staples, B.Sc.
59 Victoria Court, Oadby, Leicester LE2 3HD

Hon. Membership Secretary:
Mrs P.L. Silver, 49a Kent Drive, Oadby, Leicester LE2 3PQ

Hon. Programme Secretaries:
3 Shirley Road, Leicester LE2 3LL

Hon. Treasurer: P.R. Goodwin,
18 Kingsmead Close, Leicester LE2 3YR

4 Ingarsby Drive, Leicester LE5 6HA

Hon. Transactions Editor: Trevor D. Ford, B.Sc., Ph.D., F.G.S.
21 Elizabeth Drive, Oadby, Leicester LE2 4RD

36 Coverside Road, Great Glen, Leicester LE8 OEA

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Mrs.P.J. Walker-Palin, B.A.
The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leicester
The Vice-Chancellor of De Montfort University
One Representative of the Geology Section
One Representative of the Natural History Section

Geology Section Secretary: Mrs E. Bellamy, Hillside Farm, Dunton Bassett, Leicestershire. Tel. (01455) 209314

Natural History Section Secretary: Mrs E. Loosmore, 1 Roundhill Road, Leicester. Tel. (0116) 2737616