

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Industrial Revolution, in modern history, the process of change from an agrarian and handcraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacturing. These technological changes introduced novel ways of working and living and fundamentally transformed society. This process began in Britain in the 18th century and from there spread to other parts of the world. The term has been more broadly applied as a process of economic transformation than as a period of time in a particular setting. This explains why some areas, such as China and India, did not begin their first industrial revolutions until the 20th century, while others, such as the United States and western Europe, began undergoing “second” industrial revolutions by the late 19th century.

The main features involved in the Industrial Revolution were technological, socioeconomic, and cultural. The technological changes included the following:

- (1) the use of new basic materials, chiefly iron and steel,
- (2) the use of new energy sources, including both fuels and motive power, such as coal, the steam engine, electricity, petroleum, and the internal-combustion engine
- (3) the invention of new machines, such as the **spinning jenny** and the power loom that permitted increased production with a smaller expenditure of human energy
- (4) a new organization of work known as the factory system, which entailed increased division of labour and specialization of function
- (5) important developments in transportation and communication, including the steam locomotive, steamship, automobile, airplane, telegraph, and radio, and
- (6) the increasing application of science to industry.

These technological changes made possible a tremendously increased use of natural resources and the mass production of manufactured goods.

There were also many new developments in nonindustrial spheres, including the following:

- (1) agricultural improvements that made possible the provision of food for a larger nonagricultural population

- (2) economic changes that resulted in a wider distribution of wealth, the decline of land as a source of wealth in the face of rising industrial production, and increased international trade
- (3) political changes reflecting the shift in economic power, as well as new state policies corresponding to the needs of an industrialized society
- (4) sweeping social changes, including the growth of cities, the development of working-class movements, and the emergence of new patterns of authority
- (5) cultural transformations of a broad order. Workers acquired new and distinctive skills, and their relation to their tasks shifted; instead of being craftsmen working with hand tools, they became machine operators, subject to factory discipline. Finally, there was a psychological change: confidence in the ability to use resources and to master nature was heightened.

The first Industrial Revolution

In the period 1760 to 1830 the Industrial Revolution was largely confined to Britain. Aware of their head start, the British forbade the export of machinery, skilled workers, and manufacturing techniques. The British monopoly could not last forever, especially since some Britons saw profitable industrial opportunities abroad, while continental European businessmen sought to lure British know-how to their countries. Two Englishmen, William and John Cockerill, brought the Industrial Revolution to Belgium by developing machine shops at Liège (c. 1807), and Belgium became the first country in continental Europe to be transformed economically. Like its British progenitor, the Belgian Industrial Revolution centred in iron, coal, and textiles.

Other European countries lagged far behind. Their bourgeoisie lacked the wealth, power, and opportunities of their British, French, and Belgian counterparts. Political conditions in the other nations also hindered industrial expansion. Germany, for example, despite vast resources of coal and iron, did not begin its industrial expansion until after national unity was achieved in 1870. Once begun, Germany's industrial production grew so rapidly that by the turn of the century that nation was outproducing Britain in steel and had become the world leader in the chemical industries. The rise of U.S. industrial power in the 19th and 20th centuries also far outstripped European efforts. And Japan too joined the Industrial Revolution with striking success.

The eastern European countries were behind early in the 20th century. It was not until the five-year plans that the Soviet Union became a major industrial power, telescoping into a few decades the industrialization that had taken a century and a half in Britain. The mid-20th century witnessed the spread of the Industrial

Revolution into hitherto nonindustrialized areas such as China and India. The technological and economic aspects of the Industrial Revolution brought about significant sociocultural changes. In its initial stages it seemed to deepen labourers' poverty and misery. Their employment and subsistence became dependent on costly means of production that few people could afford to own. Job security was lacking: workers were frequently displaced by technological improvements and a large labour pool. Lack of worker protections and regulations meant long work hours for miserable wages, living in unsanitary tenements, and exploitation and abuse in the workplace. But even as problems arose, so too did new ideas that aimed to address them. These ideas pushed innovations and regulations that provided people with more material conveniences while also enabling them to produce more, travel faster, and communicate more rapidly.

The second Industrial Revolution

Despite considerable overlapping with the “old,” there was mounting evidence for a “new” Industrial Revolution in the late 19th and 20th centuries. In terms of basic materials, modern industry began to exploit many natural and synthetic resources not hitherto utilized: lighter metals, rare earths, new alloys, and synthetic products such as plastics, as well as new energy sources. Combined with these were developments in machines, tools, and computers that gave rise to the automatic factory. Although some segments of industry were almost completely mechanized in the early to mid-19th century, automatic operation, as distinct from the assembly line, first achieved major significance in the second half of the 20th century.

Ownership of the means of production also underwent changes. The oligarchical ownership of the means of production that characterized the Industrial Revolution in the early to mid-19th century gave way to a wider distribution of ownership through purchase of common stocks by individuals and by institutions such as insurance companies. In the first half of the 20th century, many countries of Europe socialized basic sectors of their economies. There was also during that period a change in political theories: instead of the laissez-faire ideas that dominated the economic and social thought of the classical Industrial Revolution, governments generally moved into the social and economic realm to meet the needs of their more complex industrial societies. That trend was reversed in the United States and the United Kingdom beginning in the 1980s.

ERNEST HEMINGWAY- THE LIFE AND WORKS

Ernest Hemingway (born July 21, 1899, Cicero [now in Oak Park], Illinois, U.S.—died July 2, 1961, Ketchum, Idaho) was an American novelist and short-story writer, **awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1954**. He was noted both for the intense masculinity of his writing and for his adventurous and widely publicized life. His succinct and lucid prose style exerted a powerful influence on American and British fiction in the 20th century.

Ernest Miller Hemingway was born in a suburb of Chicago. He was educated **in the public schools and began to write in high school, where he was active and outstanding**. On graduation from high school in 1917 he did not enter college but went to Kansas City, where he was employed as a **reporter for the Star**. He was repeatedly rejected for military service because of a defective eye, but he managed to **enter World War I as an ambulance driver for the American Red Cross**. On July 8, 1918, not yet 19 years old, he was injured on the Austro-Italian front at Fossalta di Piave. Decorated for heroism and hospitalized in Milan, he fell in love with a Red Cross nurse, Agnes von Kurowsky, who declined to marry him. After recuperating at home, Hemingway renewed his efforts at writing, for a while worked at odd jobs in Chicago, and sailed for France as a foreign correspondent for the Toronto Star. Advised and encouraged by other American writers in Paris—F. Scott Fitzgerald, Gertrude Stein, Ezra Pound—he began to see his non-journalistic work appear in print there, and in 1925 his first important book, a collection of stories called *In Our Time*, was published in New York City; it was originally released in Paris in 1924.

The making of a writer

In 1926 he published *The Sun Also Rises*, a novel with which he scored his first solid success. The novel ***A Farewell to Arms* (1929)** overshadowed such work. Reaching back to his experience as a young soldier in Italy, Hemingway developed a grim but lyrical novel of great power, fusing love story with war story. **While serving with the Italian ambulance service during World War I, the American lieutenant Frederic Henry falls in love with the English nurse Catherine Barkley, who tends him during his recuperation after being wounded. She becomes pregnant by him, but he must return to his post. Henry deserts during the Italians' disastrous retreat after the Battle of Caporetto, and the reunited couple flee Italy by crossing the border into Switzerland. There, however, Catherine and her baby die during childbirth, and Henry is left desolate at the loss of the great love of his life.**

The Spanish influence

Hemingway's love of Spain and his passion for bullfighting resulted in *Death in the Afternoon* (1932), a learned study of a spectacle he saw more as tragic ceremony than as sport. Similarly, a safari he took resulted in *Green Hills of Africa* (1935), an account of big-game hunting

By now Spain was in the midst of civil war. Hemingway made four trips there, once more a correspondent. He raised money for the Republicans in their struggle against the Nationalists **under General Francisco Franco**, and he wrote a play called "The Fifth Column" (1938), which is set in besieged Madrid. As in many of his books, the protagonist of the play is based on the author. Following his last visit to the Spanish war, he purchased Finca Vigía ("Lookout Farm"), an unpretentious estate outside Havana, Cuba, and went to cover another war—the Japanese invasion of China.

The harvest of Hemingway's considerable experience of Spain in war and peace was the novel *For "Whom the Bell Tolls" (1940)*, a substantial and impressive work that **some critics consider his finest novel, in preference to *A Farewell to Arms*. It was also the most successful of all his books as measured in sales. Set during the Spanish Civil War, **it tells of Robert Jordan, an American volunteer who is sent to join a guerrilla band behind the Nationalist lines in the Guadarrama Mountains. Most of the novel concerns Jordan's relations with the varied personalities of the band, including the girl Maria, with whom he falls in love. Through dialogue, flashbacks, and stories, Hemingway offers telling and vivid profiles of the Spanish character and unsparingly depicts the cruelty and inhumanity stirred up by the civil war. Jordan's mission is to blow up a strategic bridge near Segovia in order to aid a coming Republican attack, which he realizes is doomed to fail. In an atmosphere of impending disaster, he blows up the bridge but is wounded and makes his retreating comrades leave him behind, where he prepares a last-minute resistance to his Nationalist pursuers.****

Hemingway's relationship to war

All of his life Hemingway was fascinated by war—in *A Farewell to Arms* he focused on its pointlessness, in *For Whom the Bell Tolls* on the comradeship it creates—and, as World War II progressed, he made his way to London as a journalist. He flew several missions with the Royal Air Force and crossed the English Channel with American troops on D-Day (June 6, 1944). Attaching himself to the 22nd Regiment of the 4th Infantry Division, he saw a good deal of action in Normandy and in the Battle of the Bulge. He also participated in the liberation of Paris, and, although ostensibly a journalist, he impressed professional soldiers not only as a man of courage in battle but also as a real expert in military matters, guerrilla activities, and intelligence collection. Following the war in Europe, Hemingway returned to his home in Cuba and began to work seriously again. He also traveled widely, and, on a trip to Africa, he was injured in a plane crash. Soon after (in 1953), he received the Pulitzer Prize in fiction for "The Old Man and the Sea"

(1952), a short heroic novel about an old Cuban fisherman who, after an extended struggle, hooks and boats a giant marlin only to have it eaten by voracious sharks during the long voyage home. This book, which played a role in gaining for Hemingway the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1954, was as enthusiastically praised as his previous novel, *Across the River and into the Trees* (1950), the story of a professional army officer who dies while on leave in Venice, had been damned.

By 1960 Hemingway had left Cuba and settled in Ketchum, Idaho. (He expressed his belief in what he called the “historical necessity” of the Cuban Revolution; his attitude toward its leader, Fidel Castro, who had taken power in 1959, varied.) He tried to lead his life and do his work as before. For a while he succeeded, but, anxiety-ridden and depressed, he was twice hospitalized at the Mayo Clinic in Rochester, Minnesota, where he received electroshock treatments. Two days after his return to the house in Ketchum, he took his life with a shotgun.

The Hemingway legacy

Hemingway left behind a substantial amount of manuscript, some of which has been published. *A Moveable Feast*, an entertaining memoir of his years in Paris (1921–26) before he was famous, was issued in 1964. *Islands in the Stream*, three closely related novellas growing directly out of his peacetime memories of the Caribbean island of Bimini, of Havana during World War II, and of searching for U-boats off Cuba, appeared in 1970.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), military alliance established by the North Atlantic Treaty (also called the Washington Treaty) of April 4, 1949, which had the goal to create a counterweight to [Soviet](#) armies stationed in central and eastern Europe after [World War II](#).

THE ORIGINAL MEMBERS WERE: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Italy, Luxemburg, The Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the UK and the USA. Other countries joined the organization later:

GREECE AND TURKEY (1952)

WEST GERMANY (1955- THEN 1990 As Germany)

SPAIN (1982)

CZECH REPUBLIC, HUNGARY AND POLAND (1999)

BULGARIA, ESTONIA, LATVIA, LITHUANIA, ROMANIA, SLOVAKIA AND SLOVENIA (2004)

ALBANIA AND CROATIA (2004)

MONTENEGRO (2017)

NORTH MACEDONIA (2020)

FINLAND (2023)

SWEDEN (2024)

France withdrew from the [integrated](#) military command of NATO in 1966 but remained a member of the organization; it resumed its position in NATO's military command in 2009. The heart of NATO is expressed in Article 5 of the North Atlantic Treaty, in which the signatory members agree that:

“An armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all; and consequently they agree that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defense recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the Party or Parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.”

NATO invoked Article 5 for the first time in 2001, after the September 11 attacks organized by exiled Saudi Arabian millionaire Osama bin Laden destroyed the World Trade Center in New York City and part of the Pentagon outside Washington, D.C., killing some 3,000 people.

Historical background

After World War II in 1945, western Europe was economically burned out and militarily weak. Communist parties had arisen in France and Italy as the Soviet Union, emerging from the war with its armies dominating all the states of central and eastern Europe. The **Iron Curtain** had descended over central and eastern Europe. Further, wartime cooperation between the western Allies and the Soviets had completely broken down. Each side was organizing its own sector of occupied Germany, so **that two German states would emerge**, a democratic one in the west and a communist one in the east.

In 1948 the United States launched the Marshall Plan, which infused massive amounts of economic aid to the countries of western and southern Europe.

Organization

After the North Korean invasion of South Korea in June 1950 the United States took steps to demonstrate that it would resist any Soviet military expansion or pressures in Europe. Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower was named Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) by the North Atlantic Council (NATO's governing body) in December 1950. He was followed as SACEUR by a succession of American generals.

The North Atlantic Council, which was composed of ministerial representatives of the member states, who meet at least twice a year. At other times the council, chaired by the NATO secretary-general, remains in permanent session at the ambassadorial level. Just as the position of SACEUR has always been held by an American, the secretary-generalship has always been held by a European.

NATO's military organization was a system of commands for possible wartime use. During the alliance's first 20 years, more than \$3 billion worth of "infrastructure" for NATO forces—bases, airfields, pipelines, communications networks, depots.

The role of Germany

NATO and the Warsaw Pact

During the Cold War most of western Europe was aligned with the United States through membership in the [North Atlantic Treaty Organization \(NATO\)](#), while the Soviet Union maintained garrisons in its satellites under the terms of the Warsaw Pact.

The negotiation of West Germany's participation in the alliance was a big issue. The prospect of a rearmed Germany was controversial, but the country's strength had long been recognized as necessary to protect western Europe from a possible Soviet invasion. In May 1955 West Germany joined NATO, which pushed the Soviet Union to form the Warsaw Pact. At the end of the Cold war some 900,000 troops were stationed in West Germany.

The role of France

France's relationship with NATO became difficult after 1958, when de Gaulle criticized the organization's domination by the United States. In July 1966 France formally retired from the military command structure of NATO and asked NATO to leave French soil. In 2009 France rejoined the military command structure of NATO.

NATO during the Cold War

From its founding, **NATO's primary purpose was to unify and strengthen the Western Allies' military response to a possible invasion of western Europe** by the Soviet Union and its Warsaw Pact allies. In the early 1950s NATO relied partly on the threat of massive nuclear retaliation from the United States to counter the Warsaw Pact's much larger ground forces. [For the whole period the threat of a nuclear employment from both sides managed to maintain high the attention on the two sides of the world.](#)

The tensions between the two parts had some relevant episodes: The bay of Pigs massacre (1961) the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 and the **Vietnam War** from 1 November 1955 to the fall of Saigon on 30 April 1975 .

After 1985 the reforms introduced by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev fundamentally altered the status quo. In July 1989 Gorbachev announced that Moscow would no longer support communist governments in central and eastern Europe. Moscow's abandonment of control over central and eastern Europe meant the dissipation of much of the military threat that the Warsaw Pact had formerly

posed to western Europe. [The reunification of Germany in October 1990](#) and its retention of NATO membership created both a need and an opportunity for NATO to be transformed into a more “political” alliance devoted to maintaining international stability in Europe.

[NATO in the post-Cold War era](#)

After the Cold War, NATO was reconceived as a “[cooperative-security](#)” organization whose mandate was to include two main objectives: to foster dialogue and cooperation with former adversaries in the Warsaw Pact and to “manage” conflicts in areas on the European periphery

[Some observers argued that the alliance should be dissolved](#), noting that it was created to confront an enemy that no longer existed; others called for a broad expansion of NATO membership to include Russia. Most suggested alternative roles, including peacekeeping. By the start of the second decade of the 21st century, it appeared likely that the EU would not develop capabilities competitive with those of NATO or even seek to do so.

During the [presidency of Bill Clinton](#) (1993–2001), the United States led an initiative to enlarge NATO membership to include some of the former Soviet allies. In the concurrent debate over enlargement, supporters of the initiative argued that NATO membership was the best way to begin the long process of integrating these states into regional political and economic institutions such as the EU. Some also feared future Russian aggression and suggested that NATO membership would guarantee freedom and security

[NATO relations with Russia in the post-September 11 world](#)

By the beginning of the 21st century, Russia and NATO had formed a strategic relationship. Russia cemented a new cooperative bond with NATO in 2001 to address such common concerns as international terrorism, nuclear nonproliferation, and arms control. This bond subsequently failed due to regional aggression by Russian Pres. Vladimir Putin. After Russia invaded Georgia in 2008, NATO strengthened ties with the latter country and established the NATO-Georgia Commission “to help Georgia achieve its goal of membership in NATO.” In 2014 pro-Russian Ukrainian Pres. Viktor Yanukovich fled Ukraine after months of popular protests, and Russia

responded by invading the Ukrainian autonomous republic of Crimea. [Russia illegally annexed Crimea and fomented uprisings in Ukraine's Donbas region in an effort to reassert control over its neighbour.](#) Ukraine checked the Russian-backed campaign in the Donbas, and NATO reaffirmed its support for Ukraine's democratically elected government and its internationally recognized borders.

Events following the September 11 attacks in 2001 led to the forging of a new dynamic within the alliance, one that increasingly favoured the military engagement of members outside Europe, initially with a mission against Taliban forces in Afghanistan beginning in the summer of 2003 and subsequently with air operations against the regime of Muammar al-Qaddafi in Libya in early 2011. As a result of the increased tempo of military operations undertaken by the alliance, the long-standing issue of "burden sharing" was revived, with some officials warning that failure to share the costs of NATO operations more equitably would lead to unraveling of the alliance. At the time, however, most observers regarded that scenario as unlikely.

Later, the burden-sharing issue was raised once more by U.S. Pres. Donald Trump, who repeatedly criticized other NATO members for failing to devote a sufficient portion of their budgets to defense spending. Trump questioned the relevance of NATO and discussed withdrawing the United States from the alliance; even the suggestion of such an action was seen as a boon to Putin. However, Trump's national security team moved to reassure allies that the U.S. remained committed to NATO, and, by the end of Trump's term in 2021, the U.S. troop presence in Europe was almost entirely unchanged.

NATO and the Russian invasion of Ukraine

By the end of 2021, Russia had begun a massive military buildup along the Ukrainian frontier under the guise of joint maneuvers with the Belarusian army. In February 2022 there were as many as 190,000 Russian troops along the Russo-Ukrainian border, in Belarus, in Russian-occupied Crimea, and in the Russian-backed separatist enclave of Transdniestria in Moldova. On February 24 Putin announced the beginning of a "special military operation" and launched a full-scale invasion of Ukraine. Although the Russians made some early gains, their advances soon stalled against a spirited Ukrainian defense.

Ukrainian Pres. Volodymyr Zelensky appealed to Western countries for military aid, and individual NATO members began a massive transfer of hardware to bolster the Ukrainian arsenal. The administration of U.S. Pres. Joe Biden took a leading role in marshaling the response to the greatest threat to European security since World War

II. The speed and unity of NATO's reaction to Russian aggression in Ukraine dramatically dispelled any doubts about the continued relevance of the alliance.

Sweden and Finland, two countries with a long history of neutrality, announced their intention to join NATO in the wake of the Russian invasion, and the U.S. deployed additional military assets to Poland and the Baltic states. In June 2022, at the first annual NATO summit since the invasion, NATO Secretary-General Jens Stoltenberg announced "the biggest overhaul of our collective deterrence and defense since the Cold War." In addition to formally inviting Sweden and Finland to join the alliance, Stoltenberg declared that NATO's rapid reaction force, a collection of air, sea, and land units maintained at a state of high readiness, would increase from 40,000 troops to more than 300,000. In April 2023 Finland became the 31st member of NATO, but Sweden's accession was held up by objections from Turkey and Hungary until March 2024, when Sweden became the alliance's 32nd member.

Please, Sir, I want some more

from *Oliver Twist* Charles Dickens, 1838

WARM UP

- 1 **Oliver Twist** was the first English novel with a child protagonist. Do you have your own favourite book, TV series or film with a child protagonist? What do you like about this character?

Glossary

- copper** large container for food
pauper very poor
the short commons small amount of shared food
gruel food made of oats (*fiocchi d'avena*) cooked in water or milk, which poor people ate in the past
grace a prayer said before a meal
whisper to speak very quietly
wink to close and open one eye quickly to communicate something or show that something is a secret or joke
nudge to push someone gently, usually with your elbow, in order to get their attention
reckless not worrying about the possible dangerous results of your actions
temerity audacity
gaze to look at someone for a long time
astonishment complete surprise
cling to hold someone or something tightly
blow a hard hit
ladle a large deep spoon with a long handle
pinion to hold someone's arms very tightly so that they cannot move
shriek to make a very high loud sound
beadle an officer in British churches in the past

When British school children hear the name "Oliver" they immediately remember the famous quote "Please, Sir, I want some more!" *Oliver Twist* is an orphan who grows up in a "workhouse". In 1834 a lot of English towns opened workhouses for poor people without a job or a house. Abandoned children, disabled people, old and sick people and unmarried mothers also lived in those terrible places. In the extract you are going to read, Oliver famously asks for more food.

The evening arrived, the boys took their places. The master, in his cook's uniform, stationed himself at the copper; his pauper assistants ranged themselves behind him; the gruel was served out; and a long grace was said over the short commons. The gruel disappeared; the boys whispered to each other, and winked at Oliver; while his next neighbours nudged him. Child as he was, he was desperate with hunger, and reckless with misery. He rose from the table; and advancing to the master, basin and spoon in hand, said, somewhat alarmed at his own temerity:

"Please, Sir, I want some more."

The master was a fat, healthy man; but he turned very pale. He gazed in stupefied astonishment on the small rebel for some seconds; and then clung for support to the copper. The assistants were paralysed with wonder; the boys with fear.

"What!" said the master at length, in a faint voice.


"Please, Sir," replied Oliver, "I want some more."

The master aimed a blow at Oliver's head with the ladle; pinioned him in his arms; and shrieked aloud for the beadle.

(Chapter II)



► DIGGING INTO THE TEXT

2  **1.186** Read and listen to the text. Underline words or phrases which help the reader to understand what life was like in a workhouse.

3 Choose the correct answer to the following questions.

- 1 What does Oliver's gesture tell you about his personality?
 - a Oliver is afraid of the master and his assistants.
 - b Oliver is brave. He is a kind of leader for his mates.
- 2 From the reactions we can understand that Oliver's gesture
 - a was very common among children in the workhouse.
 - b surprised all the protagonists of the scene.
- 3 What do you think will happen to Oliver after this episode?
 - a Oliver will be punished.
 - b Oliver will lead a revolt to get better conditions.



► WHAT'S IT ALL ABOUT?

Oliver Twist is the story of an orphan who grows up in a workhouse. After escaping from the workhouse Oliver goes to London where he joins a gang of criminal children. It is the beginning of a life of crime and danger. In the end a wealthy man (actually his grandfather) rescues him but the rest of the gang are not so lucky.

4 Read the quotes (1-3) from different parts of the book and match them to the main themes (a-c) of the novel listed below.

- a poverty and its bad effects on society
- b crime as a consequence of poverty
- c the power of benevolence: it can destroy evil in society

1 “So they established the rule, that all poor people should have the alternative (for they would compel nobody, not they,) of being starved by a gradual process in the house, or by a quick one out of it.”

2 I tell you again, it was badly planned. Why not have kept him here among the rest, and made a sneaking, sniveling pickpocket of him at once?

3 “Oh! for God's sake let me go!” cried Oliver; “let me run away and die in the fields. I will never come near London; never, never! Oh! pray have mercy on me, and do not make me steal. For the love of all the bright Angels that rest in Heaven, have mercy upon me!”

5 **PERSONAL RESPONSE** List the things you think all children need to be safe and healthy. After creating your own list share your ideas with a classmate and agree on a common list.

Filmophilia

So far there have been more than 400 films and TV adaptations based on Dickens's works. No other novelist has been adapted for the screen so often. His works have even inspired the Muppets in an adaptation of *A Christmas Carol*.

Oliver Twist is the novel with the most films. There is also a musical adaptation, *Oliver!* (1968). In 2005 Roman Polanski directed a famous film adaptation of *Oliver Twist*.



6 Look at the film poster of Polanski's *Oliver Twist* and answer the following questions.

- 1 What can you see in the background of the poster? And in the foreground?
- 2 Where do you think the scene takes place? In a town or in the countryside?
- 3 What is Oliver doing? What do you think has just happened to him?
- 4 He looks ... (you can choose among: relaxed – worried – scared – tired – happy – shy)

Use your answers to write a short paragraph about the film poster.

▶ THE CHARACTERS' GALLERY

Charles Dickens is one of the greatest champions of childhood. Some of the most famous child characters can be found in the following works by Dickens:

- ▶ *A Christmas Carol* (1843): **Tiny Tim** is a sickly little boy who walks with a crutch. He will die if his family cannot find the money to buy medicine and better food.
- ▶ *David Copperfield* (1850) tells the story of the title character and protagonist of the novel. **David Copperfield** was born six months after his father's death. After his mother remarries, his stepfather treats him cruelly, then sends him to a boarding school. David's mother dies when he is still a child and his stepfather sends him to work in a factory.
- ▶ *Great Expectations* (1860) tells the story of the unfortunate life of **Pip Pirrip**, an orphan being raised by his cruel older sister and her generous husband. It also tells about **Estella**, herself an orphan adopted by Miss Havisham.

7 Read the information above about some child characters in Dickens' works. What do they have in common with Oliver?

▶ THE BOOK AND ITS TIME

Charles Dickens used the story of *Oliver Twist* to draw attention to the numerous social problems of his time. In particular, Dickens uses *Oliver Twist* to speak against the workhouse and the treatment of the poor during this period. At the time, being poor was a crime: poor people had to be punished for this.

8 What was it like in a workhouse? Fill in the text with the words given. There are two extra words.

husbands • children • worked • hands • hungry • prisons • separated • parents • scarce • cutlery • meet • workhouse

The buildings looked like ¹.....
 In a workhouse women were ²..... from all men, including their ³..... Husbands, wives and ⁴..... all lived in different parts of the workhouse. They couldn't ⁵..... even in the common areas. People of all ages, including children as young as 4 or 5 years old, ⁶..... from early in the morning till late in the evening. People ate meals in silence, and there wasn't any ⁷..... – they used their ⁸..... These meals were dull, tasteless and so ⁹..... that people called them “a slow process of starvation” (people were always ¹⁰..... as in the extract you have just read).

▶ THE LANGUAGE OF BOOKS

Charles Dickens is one of the most popular writers of English literature and one of the most influential in the English language. With his numerous works he helped to spread new words and new meanings. Apart from words, phrases and slang expressions Dickens used names to evoke a character's personality. Some of his characters' names have entered the dictionary. Here are some examples:

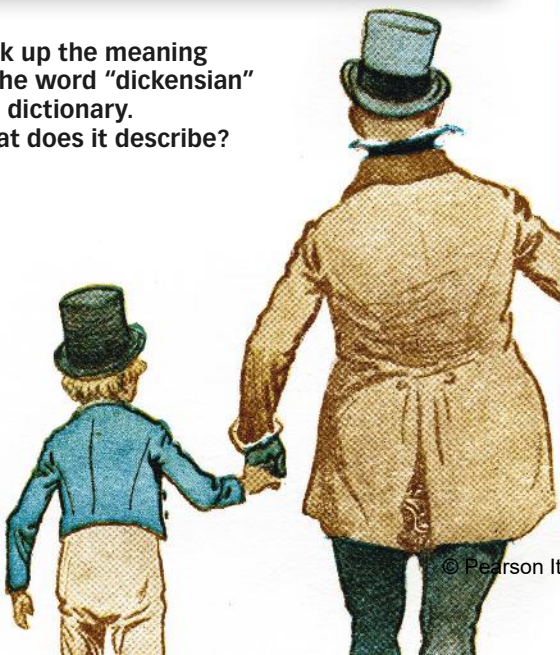
- ▶ **Scrooge** in *A Christmas Carol* is a character who hates spending money but learns how to be generous. Now the word refers to someone who hates spending money.
- ▶ **Fagin** is a character in the book *Oliver Twist*. Fagin is the leader of a group of young thieves, who collect and then sell the objects that they have stolen. The term is now used to describe a person who teaches crime to others.
- ▶ If you are **Pickwickian** you are like Samuel Pickwick in *The Pickwick Papers*: jovial, naive and generous.

- 9** The names of Dickens' characters often hold clues to their personality. Read the dictionary definition for "twist" and comment on the name given to the young protagonist of the novel.

TWIST noun [countable]

an unexpected feature or change in a situation or series of events: a new/cruel/unexpected/strange etc twist; the robbery took a deadly new twist as the robber pulled out a gun; an unexpected twist in the plot

- 10** Look up the meaning of the word "dickensian" in a dictionary. What does it describe?



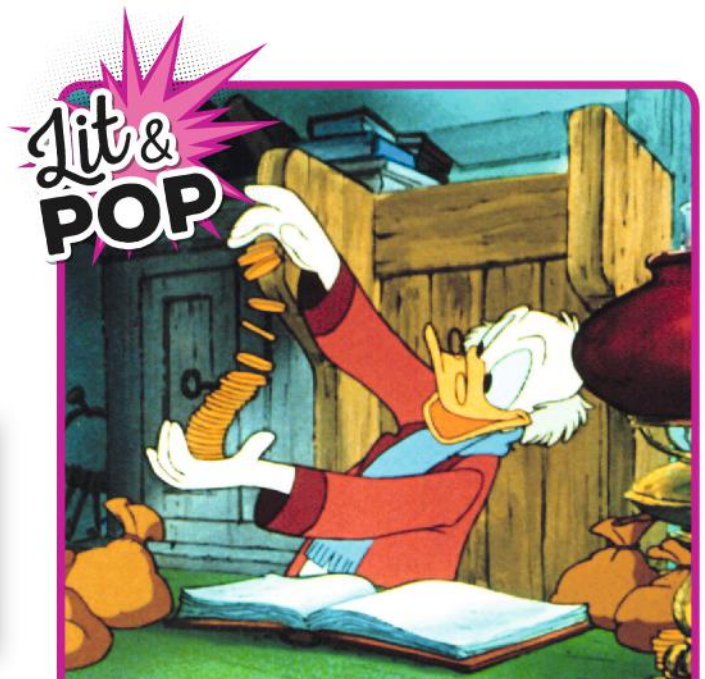
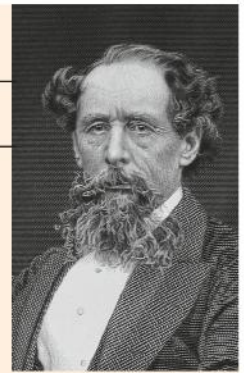
▶ Let's meet the author

Charles Dickens (1812-1870)

Charles Dickens was born in England into a very modest family. When he was 12, his father was sent to prison for debt and Dickens was obliged to work in a factory to help his family. He worked there for three years. The conditions were very bad. He never spoke of that experience, even to his own wife.

He started to write as a journalist. His first successful book was *The Pickwick Papers* in 1837, the year Queen Victoria came to the throne.

Dickens wrote a lot during his life: he wrote novels, hundreds of short stories and non-fiction works. He wrote plays, thousands of letters and edited two journals. He is buried in Poets' Corner in Westminster Abbey.



- ▶ **Scrooge McDuck**, or **Uncle Scrooge**, made his first appearance in a Donald Duck comic in 1947. He is Donald Duck's wealthy uncle. He is one of the richest and stingiest ducks in the world. He was named after Ebenezer Scrooge from *A Christmas Carol* (1843) a novel by Charles Dickens.
- ▶ In Chatham, England, you can go to **Dickens World**, the only Charles Dickens-themed amusement park in the world. Attractions include a replica Victorian schoolhouse and you can buy gruel at a stand, too.
- ▶ Charles Dickens is so popular that he has appeared on the **British £10 note**.

Full Title: *Oliver Twist, or, The Parish Boy's Progress*

When Written: Written serially, February 1837 to April 1839

Where Written: London, England

When Published: February 1837 to April 1839; revised 1847

Literary Period: Victorian

Genre: Victorian social novel; *Bildungsroman* (novel of education); novel of morality

Setting: London, England, and the countryside surrounding, 1830s

Climax: Oliver is shot by a servant of the Maylies; he recovers under their care, and begins the process of learning his true parentage

Antagonist: Monks and Fagin

Point of View: third-person omniscient

Oliver Twist is born in a workhouse in 1830s England. His mother, whose name no one knows, is found on the street and dies just after Oliver's birth. Oliver spends the first nine years of his life in a badly run home for young orphans and then is transferred to a workhouse for adults. After the other boys bully Oliver into asking for more gruel at the end of a meal, Mr. Bumble, the parish beadle, offers five pounds to anyone who will take the boy away from the workhouse. Oliver narrowly escapes being apprenticed to a brutish chimney sweep and is eventually apprenticed to a local undertaker, Mr. Sowerberry. When the undertaker's other apprentice, Noah Claypole, makes disparaging comments about Oliver's mother, Oliver attacks him and incurs the Sowerberrys' wrath. Desperate, Oliver runs away at dawn and travels toward London.

Outside London, Oliver, starved and exhausted, meets Jack Dawkins, a boy his own age. Jack offers him shelter in the London house of his benefactor, Fagin. It turns out that Fagin is a career criminal who trains orphan boys to pick pockets for him. After a few days of training, Oliver is sent on a pickpocketing mission with two other boys. When he sees them swipe a handkerchief from an elderly gentleman, Oliver is horrified and runs off. He is caught but narrowly escapes being convicted of the theft. Mr. Brownlow, the man whose handkerchief was stolen, takes the feverish Oliver to his home and nurses him back to health. Mr. Brownlow is struck by Oliver's resemblance to a portrait of a young woman that hangs in his house. Oliver thrives in Mr. Brownlow's home, but two young adults in Fagin's gang, Bill Sikes and his lover Nancy, capture Oliver and return him to Fagin.

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Fagin sends Oliver to assist Sikes in a burglary. Oliver is shot by a servant of the house and, after Sikes escapes, is taken in by the women who live there, Mrs. Maylie and her beautiful adopted niece Rose. They grow fond of Oliver, and he spends an idyllic summer with them in the countryside. But Fagin and a mysterious man named Monks are set on recapturing Oliver. Meanwhile, it is revealed that Oliver's mother left behind a gold locket when she died. Monks obtains and destroys that locket. When the Maylies come to London, Nancy meets secretly with Rose and informs her of Fagin's designs, but a member of Fagin's gang overhears the conversation. When word of Nancy's disclosure reaches Sikes, he brutally murders Nancy and flees London. Pursued by his guilty conscience and an angry mob, he inadvertently hangs himself while trying to escape.

Mr. Brownlow, with whom the Maylies have reunited Oliver, confronts Monks and wrings the truth about Oliver's parentage from him. It is revealed that Monks is Oliver's half brother. Their father, Mr. Leeford, was unhappily married to a wealthy woman and had an affair with Oliver's mother, Agnes Fleming. Monks has been pursuing Oliver all along in the hopes of ensuring that his half-brother is deprived of his share of the family inheritance. Mr. Brownlow forces Monks to sign over Oliver's share to Oliver. Moreover, it is discovered that Rose is Agnes's younger sister, hence Oliver's aunt. Fagin is hung for his crimes. Finally, Mr. Brownlow adopts Oliver, and they and the Maylies retire to a blissful existence in the countryside.

MAIN THEMES

Thievery and Crime

Oliver Twist is, among other things, a meditation on the nature of criminality in 1830s England: an examination of who commits crimes; of the spectrum of crimes (from petty thievery to murder); and of the idea of criminality as a learned behavior or an innate quality. Oliver is born a poor orphan; he is raised in a workhouse and makes his way to London, where is "rescued" by a group of young thieves controlled by...

[read analysis of Thievery and Crime](#)

Poverty, Institutions, and Class

Oliver Twist is a sustained attack on the British Poor Laws, a complex body of law that forced poor families to labor in prison-like "workhouses." One of the novel's effects is, simply, to describe what poverty was like at this time in England. Although many parts of English society had come in contact with the poor, few had read accounts of what it meant to be poor. Simply by telling of conditions in the workhouse...

[read analysis of Poverty, Institutions, and Class](#)

Individualism and Social Bonds

Oliver Twist presents, also, an inquiry into the nature of "individualism" in 1830s England, and in the social bonds that must be formed and sustained by individuals if they are to prosper. One of the novel's most notable scenes is Fagin's speech, to Noah, arguing that one must look out both for "Number One" (oneself) and "the other Number One," or Fagin. The thieves Fagin controls all look out for themselves, since they would...

[read analysis of Individualism and Social Bonds](#)

Social Forces, Fate, and Free Will

In the novel, "fate" is revealed to be an interaction of social forces or pressures on one's life, and one's decisions as an agent possessing free will. Oliver is an orphan *and* a pauper, meaning his "fate" is more or less sealed from birth: social forces appear poised to keep him in a "low" position forever. But Oliver, as it turns out, is the illegitimate son of a gentleman, and his father has inherited enough...

[read analysis of Social Forces, Fate, and Free Will](#)

City and Country

The novel takes place in two separate, morally distinct locations: the Country and the City.

The Country is everything outside London and its outlying villages; London is the primary City.

To Dickens, the country is a place of peace, quiet, hard work, and strong family structures that ensure people continue to work hard and avoid criminality. The city, however, is a place of difficult working conditions, where the poor are crowded together, ground down by...

[read analysis of City and Country](#)

MAIN CHARACTERS

Oliver Twist

The novel's hero, Oliver Twist is aged nine at the beginning of the novel, and several years older by the end (it is not clear exactly how much time elapses; he is probably about twelve) Born of an unwed mother, in a poorhouse, Oliver is raised in the same poorhouse, then apprenticed to a [coffin](#)-maker named [Sowerberry](#). After getting in a fight with another apprentice regarding his mother's reputation, Oliver strikes out for London on foot, where he accidentally falls in with a group of thieves led by [Fagin](#). Oliver is briefly saved by [Brownlow](#), only to be retaken by [Nancy](#), and involved, later, in a burglary of the [Maylies'](#) house that almost kills him. The Maylies, [Rose](#) and her [aunt](#), take Oliver in, and the novel traces the discovery of Oliver's parentage, a secret kept close by [Monks](#), Oliver's half-brother, who wishes to disinherit his brother and eliminate all traces of Oliver's high-born ancestry. Oliver ends the novel happily, having been adopted by Brownlow. Throughout the novel, Oliver remains a boy of good morals, despite his dire financial situation. **Agnes Fleming**

Oliver's unwed mother, Agnes was engaged to Oliver's father, Edwin, but Edwin died before they could be married; Agnes was pregnant when Edwin died. Agnes gives birth to Oliver in a poorhouse,

Edwin Leeford

Married first to Monks' mother, and then engaged to Agnes Fleming, Oliver's father dies in Rome after having claimed his inheritance, which he intended to pass on to Oliver and Agnes.

Agnes Fleming: Oliver's unwed mother, Agnes was engaged to Oliver's father, Edwin, but Edwin died before they could be married; Agnes was pregnant when Edwin died. Agnes gives birth to Oliver in a poohouse, since her family has abandoned her in the wake of her pregnancy—at the novel's end, the narrator says that, though she was a fine woman, and beautiful, Agnes was "weak and erring," because of her dalliance with Edwin before their marriage.

Edwin Leeford: Married first to Monks' mother, and then engaged to Agnes Fleming, Oliver's father dies in Rome after having claimed his inheritance, which he intended to pass on to Oliver and Agnes. This money, instead, went to Monks' mother and to Monks, thus precipitating much of the drama in the novel—Agnes' giving birth to Oliver in a poorhouse, and Oliver's travails in finding out his true identity.

Mr Brownlow: A man who becomes [Oliver's](#) adopted father at the end of the novel, Brownlow is robbed earlier in the novel by [Bates](#) and the [Dodger](#), only to think that Oliver, who was with those two boys, was responsible. Brownlow recants his accusation and takes Oliver home, to nurture him, but when he sends Oliver out on a mission to return books (prompted by his friend [Grimwig](#), to test Oliver's virtue), Oliver is re-taken by [Fagin](#). Brownlow is distraught at what he believes to be Oliver's betrayal of him, but never entirely believes that Oliver is a bad at heart and spends the remainder of the novel solving the mystery of Oliver's birth and inheritance.

Mr. Brownlow Q

Fagin: One of the novel's trio of antagonists, Fagin is in charge of the "boys," his thieves, and their exploits pay for his life in London. Fagin attempts to make Oliver a thief, but fails; Fagin is later sentenced to death. Fagin is Jewish, and described in extremely anti-Semitic terms by the narrator.

Monks: The second of the novel's antagonists, Monks (whose real name is Edward Leeford) is Oliver's half-brother, and is hellbent on keeping his own fraudulent inheritance by eliminating all traces of Oliver's inheritance, and on making Oliver into a thief so that his name might be ruined. Monks fails in this attempt, after being caught by Brownlow, and admits to his misdeeds and acknowledges Oliver's true parentage.

Charlie Bates: A young thief of Fagin's who is always joking and laughing, Bates undergoes a moral transformation in the novel: from ironic young criminal to defender of goodness after Bates realizes Sikes has killed Nancy. Bates ends the novel having given up crime and taken on a series of difficult jobs, working in the fields.

Nancy: Sikes' romantic partner, Nancy at first takes **Oliver** back to **Fagin** but later expresses regret for this, and attempts to protect Oliver as much as she can. After talking one night to Rose and **Brownlow**, and being overheard by **Noah**, Nancy is killed by Sikes in a rage, for Sikes believes Nancy has "peached," or ratted out the gang (despite the fact that she has staunchly refused to do so).

Rose Maylie

Mrs. Maylie's niece, Rose helps nurse [Oliver](#) back to health, only to catch sick later herself. [Rose](#) is in love with [Harry](#), but social barriers (her low social standing) keep their marriage from occurring until the end of the novel. It is revealed, at the novel's end, that Rose is Oliver's biological aunt. Rose embodies pure goodness and generosity.

Harry Mayle: Rose's cousin, Harry is poised for a "brilliant" career in politics, but he renounces this, and takes on the life of a village parson, in order to marry Rose, who believes she is far too socially inferior to Harry to be an acceptable wife for him. The two live "happily ever after" at the novel's end.

Mr Bumble: The village beadle of [Oliver's](#) home village, Mr. Bumble is another, more minor antagonist in the novel—he hates Oliver, and eventually marries Mrs. Bumble in order to take over the poorhouse's control, such that he can order paupers around. But Bumble is exposed as being complicit in a part of Monks' plot, and loses his social station—he and his wife later end up paupers in the very same poorhouse that they used to run.

The worst accident in the history of nuclear power generation was the Chernobyl disaster. It occurred in 1986 in Ukraine, which was then part of the Soviet Union. The accident caused large amounts of radioactive particles to be released into the air. It caused illness and death in the local population and left the land in the area unusable. Many thousands of people had to leave their homes. The radioactivity spread over much of Europe, contaminating crops and livestock in some neighboring countries.

The Chernobyl power station was located near the town of Pryp'yat. It lay just northwest of the city of Chernobyl and 65 miles (104 kilometers) north of [Kyiv](#) (Kiev). The station had four reactors producing [electric power](#). The reactors began operating between 1977 and 1983.

The Chernobyl disaster occurred on April 25–26, 1986. Technicians at reactor Unit 4 attempted a poorly designed test to see if the reactor could be cooled if a power failure occurred. Workers shut down the reactor's power-regulating system and its emergency safety systems. They made a series of mistakes that caused the reactor to become unstable. At 1:23 AM on April 26, the chain reaction in the core went out of control. Several explosions triggered a large fireball. It blew off the heavy steel and concrete lid of the reactor, which released radioactive material into the atmosphere. Air currents then carried it great distances. A partial meltdown of the core also occurred.



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On April 27 the Soviet government began to evacuate the 30,000 inhabitants of Pryp'yat. They then attempted to cover up the incident. However, on April 28 Swedish monitoring stations reported abnormally high levels of wind-transported [radioactivity](#). Officials pressed the Soviets for an explanation. The Soviet government admitted there had been an accident at Chernobyl. An international outcry arose over the dangers posed by the radioactive emissions. By May 4 workers had mostly contained both the heat and the radioactivity leaking from the reactor core. They buried radioactive debris at some 800 temporary sites. Later in the year workers enclosed the highly radioactive reactor core in a concrete-and-steel structure

known as a sarcophagus. However, it was later deemed structurally unsound, and the core was enclosed in a larger steel structure during the 2010s.



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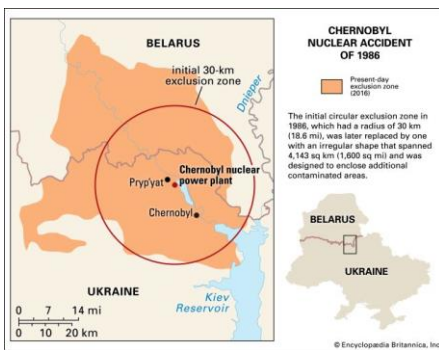
Brendan Hoffman/Getty Images

Some sources state that two people were killed in the initial explosions. Others report that the figure was closer to 50. Dozens more contracted serious [radiation sickness](#), with some later dying. More radioactivity than that created by the [atomic bombs](#) dropped on [Hiroshima](#) and [Nagasaki](#), Japan, escaped into the atmosphere. This radioactivity was spread by the wind over [Belarus](#), [Russia](#), and [Ukraine](#). It soon reached as far west as France and Italy. Millions of acres of forest and farmland were contaminated. Although many thousands of people were evacuated, hundreds of thousands more remained in contaminated areas. In addition, in subsequent years many livestock were born deformed. Some scientists predicted several thousand [radiation](#)-induced illnesses and [cancer](#) deaths among people in the long term.



[Petr Pavlicek/IAEA \(CC BY-SA 2.0\)](#) Petr Pavlicek/IAEA (CC BY-SA 2.0)

The Chernobyl disaster sparked criticism of unsafe procedures and design flaws in Soviet reactors. It also heightened resistance to the building of more such plants. Chernobyl Unit 2 was shut down after a 1991 fire, and Unit 1 remained on-line until 1996. Chernobyl Unit 3 continued to operate until 2000. At that time the nuclear power station was officially shut down.



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Following the disaster, the Soviet Union created a circle-shaped exclusion zone. It extended about 18.6 miles (30 kilometers) in all directions from the nuclear power plant. Officials later added other areas to the zone. The government eventually allowed some former residents to return to the exclusion zone to live. In the 21st century Chernobyl became a tourist attraction, with sever

The plot

The September 11 attacks were precipitated in large part because **Osama bin Laden, the leader of the militant Islamic organization al-Qaeda, held naive beliefs about the United States in the run-up to the attacks. Abu Walid al-Masri, an Egyptian who was a bin Laden associate in Afghanistan in the 1980s and '90s.** Bin Laden believed that the United States was a “**paper tiger,**” a belief shaped not just by America’s departure from Lebanon following the marine barracks bombing but also by the withdrawal of American forces from Somalia in 1993, following the deaths of 18 U.S. servicemen in Mogadishu, and the American pullout from Vietnam in the 1970s.

The key operational planner of the September 11 attacks was **Khalid Sheikh Mohammed** who had spent his youth in Kuwait. Khalid Sheikh Mohammed became active in the Muslim Brotherhood, which he joined at age 16, and then went to the United States to attend college, receiving a degree from North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University in 1986. Afterward he traveled to Pakistan and then Afghanistan to wage jihad against the Soviet Union, which had launched an invasion against Afghanistan in 1979.

In 1996 Khalid Sheikh Mohammed met bin Laden in Tora Bora, Afghanistan.

The September 11 plot demonstrated that al-Qaeda was an organization of global reach. Key parts of the September 11 plot took shape in Hamburg. Four of the key pilots and planners in the “Hamburg cell” who would take operational control of the September 11 attacks had a chance meeting on a train in Germany in 1999 with an Islamist militant who struck up a conversation with them about fighting jihad in the Russian republic of Chechnya. The militant put the Hamburg cell in touch with an al-Qaeda operative living in Germany.

Although Afghanistan was critical to the rise of al-Qaeda, it was the experience that some of the plotters acquired in the West that made them simultaneously more zealous and better equipped to carry out the attacks. Three of the four plotters who would pilot the hijacked planes on September 11 and one of the key planners, Ramzi Binalshibh, became more radical while living in Hamburg. **Some combination of perceived or real discrimination, alienation, and homesickness seems to have turned them all in a more militant direction.** Increasingly cutting themselves off from the outside world, they gradually radicalized each other, and eventually the friends decided to wage battle in bin Laden’s global jihad, setting off for Afghanistan in 1999 in search of al-Qaeda.

Atta and the other members of the Hamburg group arrived in Afghanistan in 1999 right at the moment that the September 11 plot was beginning to take shape. Bin Laden and his military commander Muhammad Atef realized that Atta and his fellow Western-educated jihadists were far better suited to lead the attacks on Washington and New York than the men they had already recruited, leading bin Laden to appoint Atta to head the operation. The hijackers, most of whom were from Saudi Arabia, established themselves in the United States, many well in advance of the attacks. They traveled in small groups, and some of them received commercial flight training.

Throughout his stay in the United States, Atta kept Binalshibh updated on the plot’s progress via e-mail. To cloak his activities, Atta wrote the messages as if he were writing to his girlfriend “Jenny,” using innocuous code to inform Binalshibh that they were almost complete in their training and readiness for the attacks. Atta wrote in one message, “The first semester commences in three weeks...Nineteen certificates for private education and four exams.” The referenced 19 “certificates” were code that identified the 19 al-Qaeda hijackers, while the four “exams” identified the targets of the attacks.

In the early morning of August 29, 2001, Atta called Binalshibh and said he had a riddle that he was trying to solve: “Two sticks, a dash and a cake with a stick down—what is it?” After considering the question, Binalshibh realized that Atta was telling him that the attacks would occur in two weeks—the two sticks being the number 11 and the cake with a stick down a 9. Putting it together, it meant that the attacks would occur on 11-9, or 11 September (in most countries the day precedes the month in numeric dates, but in the United States the month precedes the day; hence, it was 9-11 in the United States). On September 5 Binalshibh left Germany for Pakistan. Once there he sent a messenger to Afghanistan to inform bin Laden about both the day of the attack and its scope.

The attacks

On September 11, 2001, groups of attackers boarded four domestic aircraft at three East Coast airports, and soon after takeoff they disabled the crews, some of whom may have been stabbed with box cutters the hijackers were secreting. The hijackers then took control of the aircraft, all large and bound for the West Coast with full loads of fuel. At 8:46 AM the first plane, American Airlines flight 11, which had originated from Boston, was piloted into the north tower of the World Trade Center in New York City. Most observers construed this initially to be an accident involving a small commuter plane. The second plane, United Airlines flight 175, also from Boston, struck the south tower 17 minutes later. At this point there was no doubt that the United States was under attack. Each structure was badly damaged by the impact and erupted into flames. Office workers who were trapped above the points of impact in some cases leapt to their deaths rather than face the infernos now raging inside the towers. The third plane, American Airlines flight 77, taking off from Dulles Airport near Washington, D.C., struck the southwest side of the Pentagon (just outside the city) at 9:37 AM, touching off a fire in that section of the structure. Minutes later the Federal Aviation Authority ordered a nationwide ground stop, and within the next hour (at 10:03 AM) the fourth aircraft, United Airlines flight 93 from Newark, New Jersey, crashed near Shanksville in the Pennsylvania countryside after its passengers—informed of events via cellular phone—attempted to overpower their assailants.

At 9:59 AM the World Trade Center’s heavily damaged south tower collapsed, and the north tower fell 29 minutes later. Clouds of smoke and debris quickly filled the streets of Lower Manhattan. Office workers and residents ran in panic as they tried to outpace the billowing debris clouds. A number of other buildings adjacent to the twin towers suffered serious damage, and several subsequently fell. Fires at the World Trade Center site smoldered for more than three months.

Rescue operations began almost immediately as the country and the world sought to come to grips with the enormity of the losses. Nearly 3,000 people had perished: some 2,750 people in New York, 184 at the Pentagon, and 40 in Pennsylvania; all 19 terrorists also died. Included in the total in New York City were more than 400 police officers and firefighters, who lost their lives after rushing to the scene and into the towers.

On the morning of September 11, President Bush had been visiting a second-grade classroom in Sarasota, Florida, when he was informed that a plane had flown into the World Trade Center. A little later Andrew Card, his chief of staff, whispered in the president's right ear: "A second plane hit the second tower. America is under attack." To keep the president out of harm's way, Bush subsequently hopped across the country on Air Force One, landing in Washington, D.C., the evening of the attacks. At 8:30 PM Bush addressed the nation from the Oval Office in a speech that laid out a key doctrine of his administration's future foreign policy: "We will make no distinction between the terrorists who committed these acts and those who harbor them."

On September 14 Bush visited "Ground Zero," the smoking pile of debris of what remained of the World Trade Center and the thousands who had perished there. Standing on top of a wrecked fire truck, Bush grabbed a bullhorn to address the rescue workers working feverishly to find any survivors. When one of the workers said that he could not hear what the president was saying, Bush made one of the most memorable remarks of his presidency:

I can hear you. The rest of the world hears you. And the people who knocked these buildings down will hear from all of us soon.

Bush's robust response to the attacks drove his poll ratings from 55 percent favourable before September 11 to 90 percent in the days after, the highest ever recorded for a president.

The aftermath

The emotional distress caused by the attacks—particularly the collapse of the twin towers, New York City's most visible landmark—was overwhelming. **Unlike the relatively isolated site of the Pearl Harbor attack of 1941, to which the September 11 events were soon compared, the World Trade Center lay at the heart of one of the world's largest cities.** Hundreds of thousands of people witnessed the attacks firsthand (many onlookers photographed events or recorded them with video cameras), and millions watched the tragedy unfold live on television. In the days that followed September 11, the footage of the attacks was replayed in the media countless times, as were the scenes of throngs of people, stricken with grief, gathering at "Ground Zero"—as the site where the towers once stood came to be commonly known—some with photos of missing loved ones, seeking some hint of their fate.

Moreover, world markets were badly shaken. The towers were at the heart of New York's financial district, and damage to Lower Manhattan's infrastructure, **combined with fears of stock market panic, kept New York markets closed for four trading days.** Markets afterward suffered record losses. The attacks also stranded tens of thousands of people throughout the United States, as U.S. airspace remained closed for commercial aviation until September 13, and normal service, with more rigid security measures, did not resume for several days.

The September 11 attacks were an enormous tactical success for al-Qaeda. The strikes were well coordinated and hit multiple targets in the heart of the enemy, and the attacks were magnified by being broadcast around the world to an audience of untold millions. The September 11 "**propaganda of the deed**" took place in the media capital of the world, which ensured the widest possible coverage of the event.

Evidence gathered by the United States soon convinced most governments that the Islamic militant group al-Qaeda was responsible for the attacks. The group had been implicated in previous terrorist strikes against Americans, and bin Laden had made numerous anti-American statements. **Al-Qaeda was headquartered in Afghanistan and had forged a close relationship with that country's ruling Taliban militia, which subsequently refused U.S. demands to extradite bin Laden and to terminate al-Qaeda activity there.**

For the first time in its history, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) invoked Article 5, allowing its members to respond collectively in self-defense, and on October 7 the U.S. and allied military forces launched an attack against Afghanistan .

Within months thousands of militants were killed or captured, and Taliban and al-Qaeda leaders were driven into hiding. In addition, the U.S. government exerted great effort to track down other al-Qaeda agents and sympathizers throughout the world and made combating terrorism the focus of U.S. foreign policy. Meanwhile, security measures within the United States were tightened considerably at such places as airports, government buildings, and sports venues. To help facilitate the domestic response, **Congress quickly passed the USA PATRIOT Act (the Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism Act of 2001), which significantly but temporarily expanded the search and surveillance powers of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and other law-enforcement agencies. Additionally, a cabinet-level Department of Homeland Security was established.**

Despite their success in causing widespread destruction and death, the September 11 attacks were a strategic failure for al-Qaeda. Following September 11, al-Qaeda—whose name in Arabic means “the base”—lost the best base it ever had in Afghanistan. Later some in al-Qaeda’s leadership—including those who, like Egyptian Saif al-Adel, had initially opposed the attacks—tried to spin the Western intervention in Afghanistan as a victory for al-Qaeda. Al-Adel, one of the group’s military commanders, explained in an interview four years later that the strikes on New York and Washington were part of a far-reaching and visionary plan to provoke the United States into some ill-advised actions:

Such strikes will force the person to carry out random acts and provoke him to make serious and sometimes fatal mistakes. ...The first reaction was the invasion of Afghanistan.

But there is not a shred of evidence that in the weeks before September 11 al-Qaeda’s leaders made any plans for an American invasion of Afghanistan. Instead, they prepared only for possible U.S. cruise missile attacks or air strikes by evacuating their training camps. Also, the overthrow of the Taliban hardly constituted an American “mistake”—the first and only regime in the modern Muslim world that ruled according to al-Qaeda’s rigid precepts was toppled, and with it was lost an entire country that al-Qaeda had once enjoyed as a safe haven. And in the wake of the fall of the Taliban, al-Qaeda was unable to recover anything like the status it once had as a terrorist organization with considerable sway over Afghanistan.

Bin Laden disastrously misjudged the possible U.S. responses to the September 11 attacks, which he believed would take one of two forms: an eventual retreat from the Middle East along the lines of the U.S. pullout from Somalia in 1993 or another ineffectual round of cruise missile attacks similar to those that followed al-Qaeda’s bombings of American embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998. Neither of these two scenarios happened. **The U.S. campaign against the Taliban was conducted with pinpoint strikes from American airpower, tens of thousands of Northern Alliance forces** (a loose coalition of mujahideen militias that maintained

control of a small section of northern Afghanistan), and more than 300 U.S. Special Forces soldiers on the ground working with 110 officers from the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). In November, just two months after the September 11 attacks, the Taliban fell to the Northern Alliance and the United States. Still, it was just the beginning of what would become the longest war in U.S. history, as the United States tried to prevent the return of the Taliban and their al-Qaeda allies.

In December 2001, **faced with the problem of where to house prisoners as the Taliban fell, the administration decided to hold them at Guantánamo Bay, which the U.S. had been leasing from Cuba since 1903. As Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld put it on December 27, 2001,** “I would characterize Guantánamo Bay, Cuba, as the least worst place we could have selected.” Guantánamo was attractive to administration officials because they believed it placed the detainees outside the reach of American laws, such as the right to appeal their imprisonment, yet it was only 90 miles (145 km) off the coast of Florida, making it accessible to the various agencies that would need to travel there to extract information from what was believed to be a population of hundreds of dangerous terrorists. In his State of the Union speech on January 29, 2002, President Bush laid out a new doctrine of preemptive war, which went well beyond the long-established principle that the United States would go to war to prevent an adversary launching an attack that imminently threatened the country. Bush declared:

I will not wait on events while dangers gather. I will not stand by as peril draws closer and closer. The United States of America will not permit the world's most dangerous regimes to threaten us with the world's most destructive weapons.

Bush identified those dangerous regimes as an “axis of evil” that included Iran, Iraq, and North Korea. At the graduation ceremony for West Point cadets on June 1, 2002, Bush elaborated on his preemptive war doctrine, saying to the assembled soon-to-be graduates and their families, “If we wait for threats to fully materialize, we will have waited too long.” Bush believed that there would be a “demonstration effect” in destroying Saddam Hussein’s regime in Iraq that would deter groups like al-Qaeda or indeed anyone else who might be inclined to attack the United States. Undersecretary of Defense Douglas J. Feith later explained,

What we did after 9/11 was look broadly at the international terrorist network from which the next attack on the United States might come. And we did not focus narrowly only on the people who were specifically responsible for 9/11. Our main goal was preventing the next attack.

Thus, though there was no evidence that Saddam Hussein’s government in Iraq had collaborated with al-Qaeda in the September 11 attacks, the United States prepared for conflict against Iraq in its global war against terror, broadly defined.

On March 19, 2003, on the eve of the invasion of Iraq, President Bush issued the order for war:

For the peace of the world and the benefit and freedom of the Iraqi people, I hereby give the order to execute Operation Iraqi Freedom. May God bless the troops.

On March 20 the American-led invasion of Iraq began. **Within three weeks U.S. forces controlled Baghdad, and the famous pictures of the massive statue of Saddam Hussein being toppled from its plinth were broadcast around the world.**

LIFE

Ernest Hemingway (born July 21, 1899, Cicero [now in Oak Park], [Illinois](#), U.S.—died July 2, 1961, Ketchum, Idaho) was an American novelist and short-story writer, awarded the [Nobel Prize for Literature](#) in 1954.

He was noted both for the intense masculinity of his writing and for his adventurous and widely publicized life. His lucid prose style had a powerful influence on American and British fiction in the 20th century.

Hemingway was born in a suburb of [Chicago](#). He was educated in the public schools and began to write in [high school](#), where he was active and outstanding. On graduation from high school in 1917, impatient for a less-sheltered [environment](#), he did not enter college but went to Kansas City, where he was employed as a reporter for the *Star*. He was rejected for [military service](#) because of a defective eye, but he managed to enter [World War I](#) as an ambulance driver for the [American Red Cross](#).

On July 8, 1918, not yet 19 years old, he was injured on the Austro-Italian front at Fossalta di Piave. Decorated for heroism and hospitalized in Milan, he fell in love with a [Red Cross](#) nurse, Agnes von Kurowsky, who declined to marry him. These were experiences he was never to forget.

After [recuperating](#) at home, Hemingway renewed his efforts at writing, for a while worked at odd jobs in Chicago, and sailed for France as a foreign correspondent for the *Toronto Star*. Advised and encouraged by other American writers in Paris—[F. Scott Fitzgerald](#), [Gertrude Stein](#), [Ezra Pound](#)— in 1925 he published his first important book, a collection of stories called [In Our Time](#), was published in New York City.

BOOKS AND NOVELS

In 1926 he published [The Sun Also Rises](#), a [novel](#) with which he scored his first solid success. A pessimistic but sparkling book, it deals with a group of aimless expatriates in France and Spain.

At least in the public view, however, the novel [A Farewell to Arms](#) (1929) overshadowed such works. Reaching back to his experience as a young soldier in Italy, Hemingway developed a grim but lyrical novel of [great power](#), fusing love story with war story.

THE PLOT

While serving with the Italian ambulance service during World War I, the American lieutenant Frederic Henry falls in love with the English nurse Catherine Barkley, who tends him during his recuperation after being [wounded](#). She becomes pregnant by him, but he must return to his post. Henry deserts during the Italians' disastrous retreat after the [Battle of Caporetto](#), and the reunited couple flee Italy by crossing the border into Switzerland. There, however, Catherine and her baby die during childbirth, and Henry is left desolate at the loss of the great love of his life.

Hemingway's relationship to war

All of his life Hemingway was fascinated by war and, as [World War II](#) progressed, he made his way to London as a journalist. He flew several missions with the Royal Air Force and crossed the [English Channel](#) with American troops on D-Day (June 6, 1944). Attaching himself to the 22nd Regiment of the 4th Infantry Division, he saw a good deal of action in Normandy and in the [Battle of the Bulge](#). Following the war in Europe, Hemingway returned to his home in Cuba and began to work seriously again. He also traveled widely, and, on a trip to Africa, he was injured in a plane crash. Soon after (in 1953), he received the [Pulitzer Prize](#) in fiction for [The Old Man and the Sea](#) (1952).

This book, which played a role in gaining for Hemingway the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1954, was as enthusiastically praised as his previous novel, *Across the River and into the Trees* (1950), the story of a professional army officer who dies while on leave in [Venice](#), had been damned.

By 1960 Hemingway had left Cuba and settled in Ketchum, [Idaho](#). (He expressed his belief in what he called the “historical necessity” of the Cuban Revolution; his attitude toward its leader, [Fidel Castro](#), who had taken power in 1959, varied.) He tried to lead his life and do his work as before. For a while he succeeded, but, anxiety-ridden and depressed, he was twice hospitalized at the [Mayo Clinic](#) in Rochester, Minnesota, where he received electroshock [treatments](#). Two days after his return to the house in Ketchum, **he took his life with a shotgun**. Hemingway had been married four times: to Hadley Richardson in 1921 (divorced 1927), Pauline Pfeiffer in 1927 (divorced 1940), [Martha Gellhorn](#) in 1940 (divorced 1945), and Mary Welsh in 1946. He had fathered three sons: John Hadley Nicanor (“Bumby”), with Hadley, born in 1923; Patrick, with Pauline, in 1928; and Gregory, also with Pauline, in 1931.

For Whom the Bell Tolls, [novel](#) by [Ernest Hemingway](#), published in 1940.

The novel is set near [Segovia](#), Spain, in 1937 and tells the story of American teacher Robert Jordan, who has joined the antifascist Loyalist army. Jordan has been sent to make contact with a guerrilla band and blow up a bridge to advance a Loyalist offensive. The action takes place during Jordan's 72 hours at the guerrilla camp. During this period he falls in love with María, who has been raped by fascist soldiers, and befriends the [shrewd](#) but cowardly guerrilla leader Pablo and his courageous wife, Pilar. Jordan manages to destroy the bridge; Pablo, Pilar, María, and two other guerrillas escape, but Jordan is injured. Proclaiming his love to María once more, he awaits the fascist troops and certain [death](#).

The title is derived from Meditation 17 of [John Donne](#)'s [Devotions upon Emergent Occasions](#) (1624). "No man is an island," Donne observes, "entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent, a part of the main.... Any man's death diminishes me, because I am involved in mankind, and therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee."

THE NOVEL'S BACKGROUND

Ernest Hemingway wrote *For Whom the Bell Tolls* in 1939 from three locations: [Havana](#), Cuba; [Key West, Florida](#); and [Sun Valley, Idaho](#). In Cuba, he lived in the [Hotel Ambos Mundos](#), where he worked on the manuscript. The novel was finished in July 1940 at the [InterContinental New York Barclay Hotel](#) in [New York City](#) and published in October. The story is based on Hemingway's experiences during the [Spanish Civil War](#) as a reporter for the [North American Newspaper Alliance](#) and features an American who fights alongside Spanish guerillas for the Republicans. The novel graphically describes the brutality of the war and is told primarily through the thoughts and experiences of the protagonist, Robert Jordan.

The characters in the novel include those who are purely fictional, those based on real people but fictionalized, and those who were actual figures in the war. Set in the [Sierra de Guadarrama](#) mountain range between [Madrid](#) and Segovia, the action takes place during four days and three nights. *For Whom the Bell Tolls* became a [Book of the Month Club](#) choice, sold half a million copies within months, was a finalist for the Pulitzer Prize, and became a literary triumph for Hemingway. Published on October 21, 1940.

The book's title is taken from the [metaphysical poet John Donne](#)'s series of meditations and prayers on health, pain, and sickness (written while Donne was convalescing from a nearly fatal illness) published in 1624 as [Devotions upon Emergent Occasions](#), specifically [Meditation XVII](#). Hemingway quotes part of the meditation (using Donne's original spelling) in the book's [epigraph](#). Donne refers to the practice of [funeral tolling](#), universal in his time.