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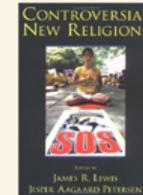
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Controversial New Religions

Publication date 2004 (this edition)
Print ISBN-10: 0-19-515682-X
Print ISBN-13: 978-0-19-515682-9
doi:10.1093/019515682X.001.0001



Abstract: This book features a collection of essays that discuss in detail the new religious groups that emerged during the 20th century. The essays provide an overview of each religion, their historical development, leaders, doctrines, and activities. The groups covered are: the Family Unification Church, People's Temple, Branch Davidians, ISKCON (Hare Krishnas), Osho Rajneesh, Soka Gakkai, Aum Shunrikyo, Falun Gong, Aumism, Scientology, Theosophy, Order of the Solar Temple Movement of Spiritual Inner Awareness, Heaven's Gate, Raëlians, White racist religions, and Satanism. The book is divided into four parts. Part I discusses groups in the Christian tradition. Part II focuses on Asian and Asian-inspired groups. Part III examines esoteric and New Age groups. Part IV looks at other group movements.

Keywords: [religious groups](#), [religion](#), [Christian](#), [Asian](#), [New Age](#), [esoteric](#)

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Introduction

The field of new religious movements has been accepted by the religious complex: social issue that has polarized observers into such extreme positions. Two different religious groups are described to highlight some of the dilemmas of God, the Ugandan group massacred by its own leaders in 2000, is used that has been the target of legal action, is used to exemplify the concerns.

ABSTRACT

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Part I. Groups in the Christian Tradition

1. A Family for the Twenty-first Century

The Children of God (COG), now known as the Family, emerged out of the Jesus People Movement as a blend of traditional evangelical Christianity and the 1960s youth counterculture. COG quickly became the most controversial group on the religious landscape. It is historically important in the history of the anticult movement; the first anticult organization was FREEMOV (Free the Children of God), and deprogramming developed in response to COG. This essay outlines the history of the movement and its major theological landmarks, with particular emphasis on the substantive changes in the Family since the death of the founding Prophet in 1994.

ABSTRACT

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2. Spirit Revelation and the Unification Church

Revelation from God and other spirit beings is a central element in the doctrine and life of the Unification Church. This essay examines the changing patterns of revelation in the history of this new religion, paying particular attention to recent and significant developments in the unfolding of revelation to its founder Reverend Sun Myung Moon. These changes have made the nature and style of Unification doctrine and experience more concrete, explicit, and also more problematic.

ABSTRACT

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3. Reconstructing Reality

This essay examines the conspiracy theories that have emerged to explain the mass murder-suicides of People's Temple members in Jonestown, Guyana, in November 1978. These theories fall into three main categories: those produced by professional conspiracists who tend to see conspiracies everywhere; a subgroup of the professionals, which comprises Internet conspiracy sites; and theories developed by nonprofessionals that concentrate primarily on Jonestown. These theories show that in the absence of a credible narrative, that is, a believable reconstruction of what happened in Jonestown and why, alternative explanations arise. The conspiracy theories attempt to make sense of what appears ultimately senseless: that parents willingly killed their children and their elders, and that they willingly chose a rather painful death. Instead of accepting this possibility, the conspiracy theories provide alternatives that blame conspirators for the deaths.

ABSTRACT

FULL TEXT

4. Explaining Militarization at Waco

This essay examines how the Branch Davidians — a small religious group following a peaceful lifestyle in rural Texas — came to be perceived as a dangerous community that required an aggressive and sustained military-like response from authorities to subdue them. The Davidians were brought to the attention of the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms through the sustained efforts of apostates and other interest groups. This led to a siege in which most of the members died. The analysis focuses on the "logic" behind the situation and the military response.

The home page of
Controversial New Religions
by James Lewis and Jesper
Aagaard Petersen

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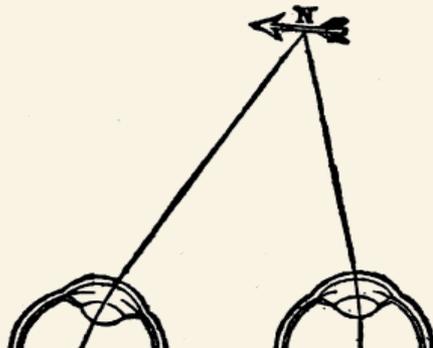
A page from *Descartes: An Intellectual Biography* by Stephen Gaukroger

Descartes' theory of the eye's 'natural geometry', is crucial because it is designed to tell us how something in contact with the eye can convey information about the distance of its source. Descartes compares our distance vision to a blind man holding out two sticks so that they converge on an object (Fig. 7.20), and calculating the distance of the object from the base angles of the triangle so formed, where the base is simply the distance between the sticks in the man's hands. The blind man does not know the lengths of the sticks, but he can calculate this by means of a 'natural geometry' from the length of the base and the base angles. Analogously with the eyes (Fig. 7.21): here the base angles are given by the angles at which the light rays strike the eye, and an apparently innate 'natural geometry' enables us to calculate the distance of the object in the same way that the blind man does. This doctrine, which is fully in accord with the account of the nature of light and its action offered in *Le Monde*, secures both the restriction of all influence to contact action, and the possibility of genuine distance vision.

Automata and Perceptual Cognition

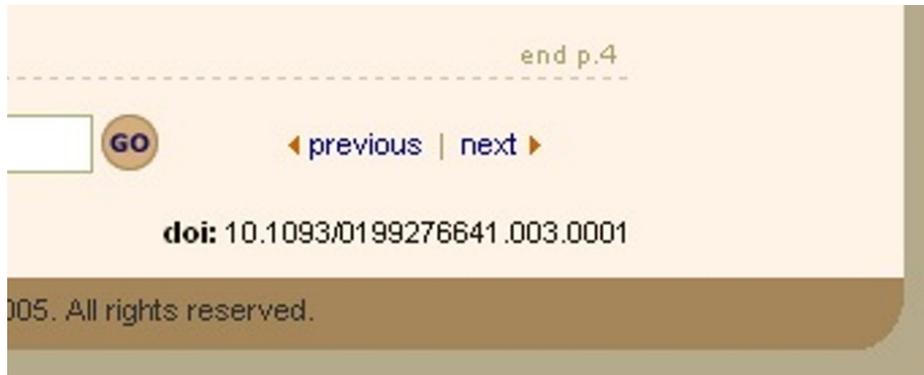
Having shown in the first part of *Le Monde* how a mechanistic conception of matter can underpin one part of the corporeal realm, including even such apparently intractable phenomena as fire and light, Descartes was concerned in *L'Homme* to show that it also underpinned the other part, organic bodies. One way in which he hopes to achieve this is by

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— (1997), 'Trichotomy or Dichotomy?', *European Journal of Political Research*, 31: 125-8.

Lindal, S. (1992), 'Stjornskipuleg stada forseta Islands', *Skirnir*, 166 (Autumn): 425-39.

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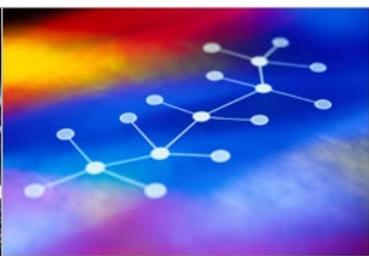


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(From *A Dictionary of Political Biography in Politics & Social Sciences*)

5. **Lenin, Vladimir Ilych**

Russian socialist and architect of November 1917 Russian Revolution . His destiny may have been carved in stone in 1887 when his elder brother Alexander was executed for complicity in a plot against the life of Tsar Alexander III . When Vladimir ...
(From *The Oxford Companion to Military History in Military History*)

6. **Lenin, Vladimir Ilich**

Born in Simbirsk, the son of a schoolmaster, Lenin was educated at the universities of Kazan and St Petersburg, from which he graduated in law (1891). He had become a Marxist in 1899 and at St Petersburg he began his involvement with revolutionary ...
(From *Who's Who in the Twentieth Century in History*)

7. **Lenin, Vladimir Ilich**

Born Vladimir Ilich Ulyanov in Simbirsk (later Ulyanovsk), he was inspired by the execution of his eldest brother in 1887 for an assassination attempt on Tsar Alexander III to become engaged in revolutionary underground movements. He was expelled from ...
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Lenin, Vladimir Ilich (real name Ulyanov) (b. *Simbirsk, Russia, 22 Apr. 1870*; d. *Gorki, near Moscow, 21 Jan. 1924*) *Founder and leader of the Bolshevik Party, chair of Council of People's Commissars 1917–24* Vladimir Ulyanov came from a provincial middle-class family of mixed ancestry (Russian-Kalmyk and Jewish-German), his father being a school inspector (hence in the minor nobility). Soon after his father's death in 1886 Lenin's elder brother Alexander, a student, was hanged for participating in a plot by a revolutionary populist group to assassinate Alexander III. This event made a deep impression on the younger Ulyanov and, after passing his final school exams with distinction, he too joined a populist group when he began studying at Kazan University, for which he was rusticated. His mother bought an estate in Samara province, but there too he joined a populist group, although he became increasingly interested in Marxism. He completed a first class degree in law at St Petersburg University as an external student in 1891. After a period as an assistant advocate in Samara he moved in 1893 to St Petersburg, where he joined the Marxists. In 1895 he was sent to Geneva to make contact with Plekhanov's group. Soon after he returned he was imprisoned and in 1897 sentenced to Siberian exile. While in Siberia he married Nadezhda Krupskaya and completed, in 1899, his first major work *The Development of Capitalism in Russia* in which he argued that Russia had irrevocably embarked on the capitalist road and rejected populism (though his ideas on revolutionary organization remained influenced by it). After his release in 1900 he joined Plekhanov in Switzerland and, now using the pseudonym Lenin, with him launched the newspaper *Iskra* ('The Spark'), in which they attacked the 'Economists' (supporters of incremental reform). In 1902 Lenin published his notorious pamphlet *What is to be done?* in which he argued that a successful revolutionary party in Russian conditions had to be a highly centralized and conspiratorial organization of 'professional revolutionaries' to be an effective vanguard of the workers who would not spontaneously develop revolutionary consciousness. This novel view of the Marxist Party provoked considerable opposition. At the 2nd Congress of the RSDLP, held in Brussels and London in 1903, Martov's more moderate views on the party won the day, but Lenin's group, with the support of Plekhanov, won the elections to the central party bodies. Lenin termed his group the 'Majoritarians' (*Bolsheviks*) and Martov's group 'Minoritarians' (*Mensheviks*) and increasingly treated his group as the real party.

The revolutionary events of 1905 in Russia caught Lenin unawares, like most other exiled socialists, and he returned to Russia only in November. In his work *Two Tactics of Social Democracy in the Democratic Revolution* he argued that the workers would have to take a leading role in the bourgeois revolution, co-operating with revolutionary elements in the peasantry. This latter point was unusual in Marxist thinking, perhaps showing underlying populist influence on Lenin. He made some moves towards reconciliation with the Mensheviks, putting forward the idea of 'democratic centralism', in which his 1902 model of the party was modified by emphasis on the democratic electivity and accountability of the leadership. But, once in exile again in 1907, he resumed his policy of promoting schisms, designed to strengthen the revolutionary vanguard. Differences with the Mensheviks continued to widen, now reflecting disagreement on the whole approach to revolution, and the split became final in 1912. He spent the war years mainly in Switzerland, arguing for turning the imperialist war into a revolutionary civil war. In *Imperialism* (written 1916) he argued that the capitalist powers were driven into territorial imperialism by capital export and used the 'super-profits' derived from colonial exploitation to bribe the working class into quiescence by wage increases and social benefits, but that Russia, though less developed, could be the 'weakest link' from which general revolution might develop.

Lenin, like other socialists, was surprised by the February Revolution in Russia and the consequent abdication of the Tsar. He obtained German permission to travel across Germany in a sealed train to Russia (where the Germans hoped his anti-war propaganda would help undermine the Russian war effort). Arriving in Petrograd (as St Petersburg had been renamed) in April 1917, he brought out his *April Theses* in which he disconcerted the more gradualist domestic Bolsheviks by urging non-cooperation with the Provisional Government, rejection of any participation in the war, and active propaganda work in the soviets to achieve a Bolshevik-dominated soviet government which would create a revolutionary state. It took some months before these tactics paid off, but gradually the effectiveness of Bolshevik propaganda (with slogans like 'Bread', 'Peace', 'Land') combined with the ineffectiveness of the provisional government and its continuance of the war compromised the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries who took part in it and increased Bolshevik support in the Soviets. After a near catastrophic premature uprising in July (as a result of which Lenin was forced to go into hiding in Finland) Bolshevik fortunes rose again because of their role in foiling Kornilov's attempted coup in August. In his work *The State and Revolution*, which appeared in the summer of 1917, Lenin argued that the bourgeois state had to be smashed and a 'dictatorship of the proletariat' established which would move rapidly to create a new order, though this was not considered an immediate prospect. However, by October the popular revolutionary mood was intensifying, the Bolsheviks gained majorities in many of the town and military soviets, and Trotsky and his group had come over to the Bolsheviks. Lenin returned on 10 October and urged an immediate armed uprising against the provisional government. Masterminded by Trotsky, the seizure of power was effected on the night of 25–6 October in the name of the All-Russian Congress of Soviets, to which Lenin announced the setting up of a Council of People's Commissars, led by himself. However, contrary to the expectations of many, Lenin refused to share power with other socialists, though a few left-wing socialist revolutionaries were given minor posts. Some revolutionary decrees were quickly issued: the Decree on Peace withdrew Russia from the war; the Decree on Land sanctioned the peasant takeover of the estates; other decrees separated church and state and established workers' control in the factories (soon to be reversed); the armed forces were disbanded and a voluntary militia established. However, opposition soon made itself felt and Lenin was forced in December to create the Cheka, a secret police force, and to place 'temporary' bans on non-Bolshevik newspapers and parties. Elections were held for the Constituent Assembly on universal suffrage in November, in which the Bolsheviks gained 24 per cent of the votes and the Socialist Revolutionaries 40 per cent. When the Assembly met in January and voiced strong criticisms of the Bolshevik government, it was not allowed to reconvene, an important symbolic act in the creation of the one-party state. In March 1918 Lenin was forced to sign the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, a separate peace with Germany and Austria, ceding huge amounts of territory, including the Ukraine. The Left SRs then resigned from the government and started resistance, soon afterwards foreign forces intervened and the civil war started. There developed a highly authoritarian and centralized system of rule known as 'War Communism': all industrial enterprises were nationalized, all non-Bolshevik activity treated as counter-revolution, the economy run by central command, and military and civilian conscription employed. By 1920 the war was over, but with the economy in a state of collapse and millions dead. Following Trotsky's suggestion, Lenin introduced in March 1921 the New Economic Policy, a 'temporary retreat' though one that he thought could lead to a new system, including de-nationalization of small scale enterprises and restoration of an agricultural market.

A Dictionary of Political Biography

◀ Martov, Yulii Osipovich ▶

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Maudling, Reginald

Martov, Yulii Osipovich (*real name* Tsederbaum) (b. *Constantinople, 24 Nov. 1873*; d. *Berlin, 24 Apr. 1923*) *Jewish; revolutionary, a leader of the Mensheviks 1905–7 and official leader 1917–20* Born in Constantinople into a middle-class liberal Jewish family (his father was a foreign correspondent) which moved back to Odessa in 1877 and in 1882 to St Petersburg. Tsederbaum became a populist when he started studying at St Petersburg University in 1891, for which he was expelled. He joined the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party in 1892 and spent two years in Vilnius developing his ideas on mass agitation. Initially he co-operated with **Lenin** in founding the St Petersburg Union of Struggle for the Liberation of the Working Class in 1895, and later, after three years in exile, on the *Iskra* newspaper. But at the 2nd Congress of the RSDLP in 1903 they parted company, Martov (as he was now known) favouring a more tolerant and open type of party than that proposed by Lenin in *What is to be done?*; he won the vote on this question, but Lenin's group won the later elections to the main party bodies, which enabled him to dub his opponents the *Mensheviks* (Minoritarians) and his group the *Bolsheviks* (Majoritarians). Martov became, with Dan, one of the Menshevik leaders in 1905–7 and differences, especially over revolutionary strategy, with the Bolsheviks steadily increased; the schism became permanent in 1912. Returning to Petrograd after the February Revolution of 1917 he led a group of left-wing Mensheviks who rejected the 'national defence' line of their leaders participating in the provisional government, while not accepting Lenin's 'revolutionary defeatism'. After the Bolshevik revolution, when he became the official leader of the Mensheviks, he boycotted the 2nd Congress of Soviets in protest against Lenin's refusal to form a coalition; pressure on the Mensheviks increased after the closure of the Constituent Assembly in January 1918 and in June they were expelled from the Congress altogether. With the end of the Civil War in 1920 it became difficult for him to remain in Russia and his health was declining, so he left for Berlin, where he remained, editing the *Socialist Courier* newspaper, till his death from tuberculosis in 1923. Martov was a Marxist idealist who rejected Lenin's 'barracks socialism' and 'Pugachev-style' violent revolutionism as 'Asiatic', but lacked the political skill and will-power to develop a serious alternative.

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A Dictionary of Political Biography

Lenin, Vladimir Ilich

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Lenin, Vladimir Ilich (real name Ulyanov) (b. *Simbirsk, Russia, 22 Apr. 1870*; d. *Gorki, near Moscow, 21 Jan. 1924*) *Founder and leader of the Bolshevik Party, chair of Council of People's Commissars 1917–24* Vladimir Ulyanov came from a provincial middle-class family of mixed ancestry (Russian-Kalmyk and Jewish-German), his father being a school inspector (hence in the minor nobility). Soon after his father's death in 1886 Lenin's elder brother Alexander, a student, was hanged for participating in a plot by a revolutionary populist group to assassinate Alexander III. This event made a deep impression on the younger Ulyanov and, after passing his final school exams with distinction, he too joined a populist group when he began studying at Kazan University, for which he was rusticated. His mother bought an estate in Samara province, but there too he joined a populist group, although he became increasingly interested in Marxism. He completed a first class degree in law at St Petersburg University as an external student in 1891. After a period as an assistant advocate in Samara he moved in 1893 to St Petersburg, where he joined the Marxists. In 1895 he was sent to Geneva to make contact with Plekhanov's group. Soon after he returned he was imprisoned and in 1897 sentenced to Siberian exile. While in Siberia he married Nadezhda Krupskaya and completed, in 1899, his first major work *The Development of Capitalism in Russia* in which he argued that Russia had irrevocably embarked on the capitalist road and rejected populism (though his ideas on revolutionary organization remained influenced by it). After his release in 1900 he joined Plekhanov in Switzerland and, now using the pseudonym Lenin, with him launched the newspaper *Iskra* ('The Spark'), in which they attacked the 'Economists' (supporters of incremental reform). In 1902 Lenin published his notorious pamphlet *What is to be done?* in which he argued that a successful revolutionary party in Russian conditions had to be a highly centralized and conspiratorial organization of 'professional revolutionaries' to be an effective vanguard of the workers who would not spontaneously develop revolutionary consciousness. This novel view of the Marxist Party provoked considerable opposition. At the 2nd Congress of the RSDLP, held in Brussels and London in 1903, Martov's more moderate views on the party won the day, but Lenin's group, with the support of Plekhanov, won the elections to the central party bodies. Lenin termed his group the 'Majoritarians' (*Bolsheviks*) and Martov's group 'Minoritarians' (*Mensheviks*) and increasingly treated his group as the real party.

The revolutionary events of 1905 in Russia caught Lenin unawares, like most other exiled socialists, and he returned to Russia only in November. In his work *Two Tactics of Social Democracy in the Democratic Revolution* he argued that the workers would have to take a leading role in the bourgeois revolution, co-operating with revolutionary elements in the peasantry. This latter point was unusual in Marxist thinking, perhaps showing underlying populist influence on Lenin. He made some moves towards reconciliation with the Mensheviks, putting forward the idea of 'democratic centralism', in which his 1902 model of the party was modified by emphasis on the democratic electivity and accountability of the leadership. But, once in exile again in 1907, he resumed his policy of promoting schisms, designed to strengthen the revolutionary vanguard. Differences with the Mensheviks continued to widen, now reflecting disagreement on the whole approach to revolution, and the split became final in 1912. He spent the war years mainly in Switzerland, arguing for turning the imperialist war into a revolutionary civil war. In *Imperialism* (written 1916) he argued that the capitalist powers were driven into territorial imperialism by capital export and used the 'super-profits' derived from colonial exploitation to bribe the working class into quiescence by wage increases and social benefits, but that Russia, though less developed, could be the 'weakest link' from which general revolution might develop.

Lenin, like other socialists, was surprised by the February Revolution in Russia and the consequent abdication of the Tsar. He obtained German permission to travel across Germany in a sealed train to Russia (where the Germans hoped his anti-war propaganda would help undermine the Russian war effort). Arriving in Petrograd (as St Petersburg had been renamed) in April 1917, he brought out his *April Theses* in which he disconcerted the more gradualist domestic Bolsheviks by urging non-cooperation with the Provisional Government, rejection of any participation in the war, and active propaganda work in the soviets to achieve a Bolshevik-dominated soviet government which would create a revolutionary state. It took some months before these tactics paid off, but gradually the effectiveness of Bolshevik propaganda (with slogans like 'Bread', 'Peace', 'Land') combined with the ineffectiveness of the provisional government and its continuance of the war compromised the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries who took part in it and increased Bolshevik support in the Soviets. After a near catastrophic premature uprising in July (as a result of which Lenin was forced to go into hiding in Finland) Bolshevik fortunes rose again because of their role in foiling Kornilov's attempted coup in August. In his work *The State and Revolution*, which appeared in the summer of 1917, Lenin argued that the bourgeois state had to be smashed and a 'dictatorship of the proletariat' established which would move rapidly to create a new order, though this was not considered an immediate prospect. However, by October the popular revolutionary mood was intensifying, the Bolsheviks gained majorities in many of the town and military soviets, and Trotsky and his group had come over to the Bolsheviks. Lenin returned on 10 October and urged an immediate armed uprising against the provisional government. Masterminded by Trotsky, the seizure of power was effected on the night of 25–6 October in the name of the All-Russian Congress of Soviets, to which Lenin announced the setting up of a Council of People's Commissars, led by himself. However, contrary to the expectations of many, Lenin refused to share power with other socialists, though a few left-wing socialist revolutionaries were given minor posts. Some revolutionary decrees were quickly issued: the Decree on Peace withdrew Russia from the war; the Decree on Land sanctioned the peasant takeover of the estates; other decrees separated church and state and established workers' control in the factories (soon to be reversed); the armed forces were disbanded and a voluntary militia established. However, opposition soon made itself felt and Lenin was forced in December to create the Cheka, a secret police force, and to place 'temporary' bans on non-Bolshevik newspapers and parties. Elections were held for the Constituent Assembly on universal suffrage in November, in which the Bolsheviks gained 24 per cent of the votes and the Socialist Revolutionaries 40 per cent. When the Assembly met in January and voiced strong criticisms of the Bolshevik government, it was not allowed to reconvene, an important symbolic act in the creation of the one-party state. In March 1918 Lenin was forced to sign the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, a separate peace with Germany and Austria, ceding huge amounts of territory, including the Ukraine. The Left SRs then resigned from the government and started resistance, soon afterwards foreign forces intervened and the civil war started. There developed a highly authoritarian and centralized system of rule known as 'War Communism': all industrial enterprises were nationalized, all non-Bolshevik activity treated as counter-revolution, the economy run by central command, and military and civilian conscription employed. By 1920 the war was over, but with the economy in a state of collapse and millions dead. Following Trotsky's suggestion, Lenin introduced in March 1921 the New Economic Policy, a 'temporary retreat' through which he thought could lead to a new system, including de-nationalization of small scale enterprises and restoration of an agricultural market.

Timeline: Dictators

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Benito Mussolini with Adolf Hitler in Munich, Germany, c. June 1940

Click on an event in the timeline below to link to the relevant entry in Oxford Reference Online. Timelines currently cover events from the 20th century only.

Year	Event
1903	Lenin's supporters become known as the Bolsheviks (the majority)
1917	Lenin proposes an uncompromising revolutionary policy in his <i>April Theses</i>
1917	Lenin sets up Cheka, subsequently known as the KGB
1918	Tsar Nicholas II and his family are shot at Ekaterinburg on Lenin's orders
1918	Corporal Hitler is awarded the Iron Cross for bravery
1919	Mussolini forms a Fascist group in Milan
1919	Hitler joins the tiny Nazi party (he is its 55th member)
1921	Hitler becomes leader of the Nazi party (now with 3000 members)
1921	Mao Zedong is a founder member of the Chinese Communist Party
1922	Lenin creates for Stalin the post of General Secretary of the Central Committee
1922	The <i>Hitlerjugend</i> (Hitler Youth) is established for teenage boys
1922	Mussolini heads national Fascist party
1922	Italian king asks Mussolini to form a government
1923	Lenin, now seriously ill, tries and fails to prevent Stalin winning power after his death
1923	Hitler's attempted putsch in Munich ends in fiasco and a prison sentence
1923	Hitler dictates <i>Mein Kampf</i> to Hess in their shared prison cell
1924	Lenin's death is followed by an intense power struggle in the Kremlin that is gradually won by Stalin
1926	Carmona leads a military coup in Portugal
1926	Goebbels insists that Nazis greet each other with <i>Heil Hitler!</i>
1928	Stalin deports Trotsky from the USSR
1930	Getúlio Vargas begins 24-year rule in Brazil
1931	Trujillo establishes a dictatorship in the Dominican Republic that will last for 30 years
1932	Salazar, a civilian, wins control of Portugal's military dictatorship
1933	Hindenburg appoints Hitler chancellor of Germany
1933	Hitler orders sterilization of carriers of hereditary diseases
1933	Batista leads armed coup and takes power in Cuba
1934	Röhm and others are murdered in Hitler's 'Night of the Long Knives'
1934	Kim Il Sung leads Communist guerrilla campaign against Japanese occupation of Korea
1935	Mao Zedong becomes leader of Communists on Long March
1935	Stalin's 'show trials' launch his Great Purge of the Communist party



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Countries

Australia

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Medicine

1953 Crick and Watson announce discovery of double-helix structure of DNA

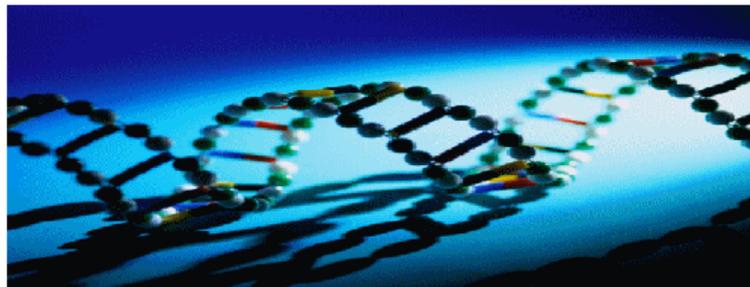
1953 Jonas Salk announces his discovery of a polio vaccine

1960 Thalidomide disaster is identified first in Germany and Australia

1967 Christiaan Barnard carries out the first successful heart transplant

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The Oxford Companion to the Body

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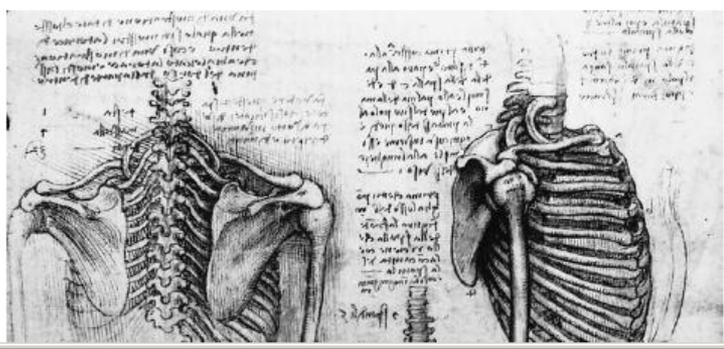
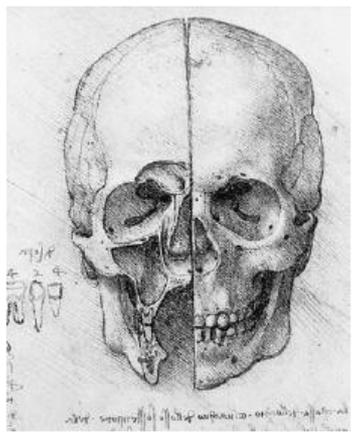
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laughter and humour
learning disabilities
legs
leisure

Leonardo da Vinci

leprosy
lesion
leukaemia
libido
life-support

Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) Leonardo was renowned in his lifetime as a painter, sculptor, architect, musician, engineer, and cartographer, but the degree of awareness of his anatomical work among his contemporaries is a mystery. Almost everything that we know today about his researches is contained in 200 sheets of drawings and notes housed in the Royal Library at Windsor Castle.

As a young artist in Florence, Leonardo absorbed the prevailing theoretical interest in a quasi-scientific basis for painting. This included the study of superficial anatomy, through life drawing and attendance at the public dissections that were occasionally held by the medical schools. There is no evidence that he was interested in deep anatomy until the late 1480s, by which time he had moved to Milan. There he outlined a plan for a treatise on the human body, covering not only anatomy but also conception, growth, proportion, the emotions, and the senses. A number of sheets from around this date comprise syntheses of animal dissection, surface observation, and traditional beliefs, though Leonardo does not seem to have pursued his studies systematically. He reportedly compiled a manuscript treatise on the anatomy of the horse, now lost; his human material was primarily skeletal, most notably a series of highly accurate drawings of the skull, sectioned in an attempt to locate the sites of the mental faculties.





Drawings by Leonardo da Vinci. Above: The skull bisected and sectioned (1489). Below: Orthogonal views of the skeleton (c 1510–11). (Collection of Her Majesty the Queen).

Due to other obligations, Leonardo's anatomical work ceased from about 1493 till around 1504, when in connection with the abortive *Battle of Anghiari* mural in Florence he systematically surveyed the superficial aspects of man. An interest in hydrodynamics soon led him back to a study of the deeper systems of the body, for he now had some access to corpses in the hospital of Santa Maria Nuova. In the winter of 1507–8, Leonardo was present at the peaceful demise of an elderly man, prompting him to perform an autopsy 'to see the cause of so sweet a death'. The resulting drawings and notes include the first records of the appendix, cirrhosis of the liver, arteriosclerosis, calcification of vessels, and coronary vascular occlusion. He also returned briefly to an investigation of the structure of the brain, making a wax cast of an ox's ventricles.

Shortly afterwards Leonardo's interests changed fundamentally. A beautiful and highly accurate series of drawings, datable to the winter of 1510–11, concentrate on the mechanics of the osteological and myological systems. His methods of illustration were particularly inventive: the bones of the thorax drawn orthographically; the cervical vertebrae in an exploded view; the hand through six stages of dissection; the shoulder muscles reduced to lines of force to depict the whole system in a single drawing; the arm in seven views through 180 degrees; and so on.

This change in approach seems to have been due to a collaboration with Marcantonio della Torre, the young Galenist and professor of anatomy at the university of Pavia. Leonardo now had much greater access to human material: the number of dissections he claimed to have performed grows from 'more than ten' around 1509, to 'more than thirty' towards the end of his life. This was the only phase of his researches when he achieved a working compromise between coverage and detail, for it was still his intention to publish a treatise, and, after Marcantonio's death in 1511, Leonardo concentrated primarily on cardiology and embryology.

Leonardo dissected a fetus of about six months, studying the relative sizes of the viscera, though his understanding of the structure of the human placenta was coloured by observations made in an earlier dissection of a gravid cow. More rewarding was his work on the bovine heart. He identified the auricles and described the movements of diastole and systole; he constructed a glass model of the aortic valve and, observing the vortices in the sinuses, he correctly deduced the exact mechanism of closure of the valves. Leonardo was on the verge of discovering the circulation of the blood, but he could not abandon the ancient belief in the independence of the arterial and venous systems, and he modified his results to accommodate this.

In late 1513, Leonardo moved to Rome, where he conducted research in the Ospedale di Santo Spirito, though few resulting drawings can be identified. In 1515 he was accused before Pope Leo X of unspecified sacrilegious practices and was barred from the Ospedale. The following year he went to France, dying there without resuming his anatomical work, and without having completed the treatise that he had planned for thirty years. Leonardo's papers passed to a pupil, Francesco Melzi, at whose villa near Milan they were occasionally seen by visitors, but they were not widely known until the publication of a series of facsimiles around 1900.

Martin Clayton

Bibliography

Keele, K. and Pedretti, C. (1979). *Corpus of the Anatomical Studies in the Collection of Her Majesty The Queen at Windsor Castle*. Johnson Reprint Co., London and New York. [Find It!](#)

O'Malley, C. D. and Saunders, J. (1952). *Leonardo da Vinci on the human body*. H. Schuman, New York. [Find It!](#)

See also [anatomy](#); [dissection](#).

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Martin Clayton "Leonardo da Vinci" *The Oxford Companion to the Body*. Ed. Colin Blakemore and Sheila Jennett. Oxford University Press, 2001. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press. Oxford University Press. 24 October 2005 <<http://www.oxfordreference.com/views/ENTRY.html?subview=Main&entry=t128.e577>>

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EE correspondents (authors and recipients)

Hamilton, James, 6th Earl of Abercorn (c. 1661-1734), Scottish aristocrat
Hamilton, Thomas (1728-1782), Scottish anatomist
Harley, Robert, 1st earl of Oxford and Mortimer (1661-1724), English statesman, literary patron
Harpur, Henry (fl. 1801), English correspondent of Jeremy Bentham
Harrison, William (fl. 1800), English correspondent of Jeremy Bentham
Hatrell, Henry (fl. 1695), English attorney, controversialist
Hawkshaw, Benjamin (c. 1672-1738), English clergyman, poet
Hawkshaw, Mrs Elinor (after 1639-1690), correspondent of John Locke
Hay, James, Lord Erroll (1726-1778), Scottish aristocrat, university rector
Heathcote, Samuel (1656-1708), English merchant, director of the Bank of England
Hepburn, Robert (fl. 1789), Scottish Customs official
Herbert, Henry (1741-1811), English aristocrat, politician
Herbert, Henry George (1772-1833), English aristocrat
Herbert, Thomas, 8th Earl of Pembroke (1657-1733), English aristocrat, government official
Hodges, Benjamin (fl. 1800), English correspondent of Jeremy Bentham
Hodges, James (fl. 1697), Scottish pamphleteer
Hodges, Nathaniel (c. 1634-1700), English philosopher, clergyman
Holt, Andreas (1729-1784), Danish civil servant
Home, Henry, Lord Kames (1696-1782), Scottish jurist, philosopher
Home, John (1722-1808), Scottish dramatist
Honywood, Sir William (c. 1654-1748), English politician, Customs official
Horner, Francis (1778-1817), Scottish politician, economist
Hume, David (1711-1776), Scottish historian, philosopher
Hunter, William (1718-1783), Scottish physician, anatomist
Hutton, James (1726-1797), Scottish geologist

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META biographical

PERSON



David Hume (1711-1776), Scottish historian, philosopher

BIRTH DETAILS

Thursday, 7 May 1711
Edinburgh, Scotland

DEATH DETAILS

Sunday, 25 August 1776
Edinburgh, Scotland
Age at death: 65

DAVID HUME LETTERS IN EE

Letters from:	42
Letters to:	17
<hr/>	
Total letters:	59

EE PERSON-DOI CITATION

doi: 10.1093/ref:ee/humedavid0002009

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David Hume in *Electronic Enlightenment*

Scottish historian and philosopher. Studied at Edinburgh University but did not take his degree; in 1734, after a nervous breakdown, he moved to Paris where he wrote his *Treatise of Human Nature*. He returned to Scotland in 1737, and then to Scotland in 1739; the *Treatise* was published in 1740, but was a commercial failure. Hume continued writing: his *Essays, Moral and Political* (1741) was more successful, but his application for the Chair of Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh (1744) was unsuccessful, owing in part to his atheism. He became secretary to General James St Clair, first during his abortive attack on Brittany and then on a secret diplomatic mission to Vienna and Turin (1748-1749). His *Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding* (1748) was a simplification of his 1739 *Treatise*; it was followed by the *Enquiry Concerning the Principles of Morals* (1751) and then, in 1752, by his *Political Discourses*, which gave him an unmerited reputation as an economist. His monumental *History of England* (1754-1762), heavily biased but elegantly written, made his reputation, and he was fêted in Paris when he arrived there in 1763 as the secretary to the English ambassador. His efforts to settle Rousseau in England (1766) ended acrimoniously; although he was largely innocent of blame, his efforts to exculpate himself in his *Exposé succinct* (1766) were felt to reflect badly on him. In 1767 he was made under-Secretary of State for the Home Department, but he retired from public life and returned to Scotland in 1769. His *Dialogues concerning Natural Religion* were published posthumously.

A short biography

META . . .

AUTHOR, RECIPIENT, LOCATIONS

Details on the writer...
 Writer's age: 54
 Written in London, England
 Details on the recipient...
 Recipient's age: 43
 Received in Paris, France

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Bentham's Collected Works
 Volume number: 7
 Page number: 9-11
 Document number: 1688
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Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont
 Tuesday, 16 February 1802¹
 (letter)

16. Feby 1802.

Having received no answer to the letter of which the following is a copy, any more than to the prior one mentioned in it, I send you the said copy, apprehensive lest the originals should have miscarried. Both were directed by the *Post*—according to the direction you gave me for that purpose. This goes

META sidebar gives access to details about the letter, its writer and its recipient

to Mr Chauvets⁴ the papers⁶ for his edification, was

told by him of his having received from you on Saturday (13th) a letter in which you say that ten sheets of *Code Civil* are printed.⁷ This advance made—and not a syllable all this while to me! I can not help being *apprehensive*—or in one sense I may say *hopeful* of learning that some letter either of yours or mine has miscarried. Come let me give you t'other scolding-bout. You are a naughty boy—an *etourdi* / a skatterbrain / like a child in leading-strings. Here do you write letters upon letters such as all of us should be equally delighted to read and such as might equally be visible to all of us—yet instead of its occurring to you to make such things *circular*—you put them into private letters to A. B. and C. mixed with private matters in such manner as to be uncommunicable. I have scolded you already two or three times and hereby scold you again for the third or fourth time—forasmuch as never having the

master before your eyes—[you] have taken care never to
 her such a person as Dr Schwediauer a German Physician
 evant of the Institute,⁸ exists (*Gallice* Swediar) and where

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Bentham, Jeremy (1748–1832), philosopher, jurist, and reformer, was born on 4 February 1748 in Church Lane

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 (letter)

16. Feby 1802.

Having received no answer to the letter of which the following is a copy, any more than to the prior one mentioned in it, I send you the said copy, apprehensive lest the originals should be lost, and that you should be the *Post*—according to the direction of the letter, which was sent through Mr Williams.²

^a16 Feby 1802. Herbert³ this morning on taking to Mr Chauvets⁴ the returnable Vol. of Bib Brit⁵ and my Bookkeeping papers⁶ for his edification, was told by him of his having received from you on Saturday (13th) a letter in

Information on address, postmarks and any original annotations

META about this doc

AUTHOR AND RECIPIENT
 Writer's age: 54
[Details on the writer...](#)
 Recipient's age: 43
[Details on the recipient...](#)

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 No manuscript images
 No early edition page images

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 Page number: 9-11
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Document Address Annotations Quotations

Address and postmark information for the letter
Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont, 16 February 1802

Address
 To
 Mr Dumont
 no. 4 Rue des Sausayes
 Section du Roule
 Paris.

Postmarks
 13

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META . . .

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 Details on the writer...
 Writer's age: 54
 Written in London, England
 Details on the recipient...
 Recipient's age: 43
 Received in Paris, France

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 Original annotations
 No links to quotation sources

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 Bentham's Collected Works
 Volume number: 7
 Page number: 9-11
 Document number: 168
 No related images in edition

WHAT THE EDITORS SAY
 Textual notes
 Editorial notes
 No language notes
 No additional commentary

FROM THE EE COFFEE-HOUSE
 No comments from readers
 No other links from readers

FROM THE REFERENCE SHEET
 EE Cyclopaedia

Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont
 Tuesday, 16 February 1802¹
 (letter)

Information on manuscripts and early print editions...

... which the following is a copy, any
 t, I send you the said copy,
 apprehensive lest the originals should have miscarried. Both were directed by
 Electronic Enlightenment

Secondary Materials

Document Manuscripts Editions

META mss & eds

AUTHOR AND RECIPIENT
 Writer's age: 54
 Details on the writer...
 Recipient's age: 43
 Details on the recipient...

DOCUMENT SOURCES
 No manuscript images
 No early edition page images

OUR SOURCE EDITION
 Bentham's Collected Works
 Volume number: 7

Manuscript information for the letter
 Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont, 16 February 1802

MSS: [Bibliothèque Publique et Universitaire](#), Dumont 33/I, ff. 101-102 (

Manuscript detail:
 Description: Autograph

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META . . .

AUTHOR, RECIPIENT, LOCATIONS
 Details on...
 Writer's age...
 Written in...
 Details on...
 Recipient's...
 Received in Paris, France

ABOUT THIS DOCUMENT
 Address and page...
 Original annotation...
 No links to quote...

DOCUMENT SOURCES
 Manuscripts...
 No manuscript images...
 Early printed editions...
 No early edition page images...

OUR SOURCE EDITION
 Bentham's Collection...
 Volume number...
 Page number: ...
 Document number...
 No related images...

WHAT THE EDITOR HAS DONE
 Textual notes...
 Editorial notes...
 No language notes...
 No additional comments...

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 No comments from readers...
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FROM THE REFERENCE SHELF
 EE Cyclopaedia...
 EE Reading Room...
 OED online...

Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont
Tuesday, 16 February 1802¹
 (letter)

16. Feby 1802.

Having received no answer to the letter of which the following is a copy, any

Electronic Enlightenment

Secondary Materials

Document Textual notes Editorial notes Glossary

META editors' notes

AUTHOR AND RECIPIENT
 Writer's age: 54
[Details on the writer...](#)
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DOCUMENT SOURCES
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 No early edition page images

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 Volume number: 7
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 Document number: 1688
 No related images in edition

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[EE Cyclopaedia...](#)
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Editorial notes for the letter
Jeremy Bentham to Étienne Dumont, 16 February 1802

1. Printed, apart from the first paragraph, in Bowring.
2. An employee at Landsdowne House (see [Letter 1676](#)).
3. John Herbert Koe (1783-1860), Bentham's secretary and protégé for some twenty years from c.1800 (see [Letter 1604 n.](#)).
4. David Chauvet (1738-1803), of Kensington Square, Swiss writer and friend of Dumont (see *Correspondence*, iv. 387 n., vi. 293 n.).
5. *Bibliothèque britannique*, a periodical started at Geneva in 1796 (see *Correspondence*, v. 200 n.).
6. Bentham had developed an interest in bookkeeping while working on his 'pauper management' plan in the 1790s. Which papers are referred to here is not certain; but they may have been the tables at University College London, Bentham Papers, MS cxxxlii. 66-73. For general information on his work in this field see L. Goldberg, 'Jeremy Bentham, Critic of Accounting Method', *Accounting Research*, viii (1957), 218-45, and L. J. Hume,

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Title

part of speech

all

level of formality

all

geographical variant

all

subject area

all

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French tools and resources

sucre [sykr] nm

1. (*substance*) **sugar**

je bois mon thé sans sucre = I don't take sugar in my tea

du chocolat noir sans sucre = sugar-free dark chocolate

ma cocotte or mon lapin en sucre = my little honeybun, my sweetie pie

2. (*morceau*) **sugar**

combien de sucres dans ton café? = how many sugars in your coffee?

Idioms

il n'est pas en sucre tout de même! =
 he isn't made of glass, you know

être tout sucre tout miel =
 to be all sweetness and light

casser du sucre sur le dos de qn =
 to run sb down, to badmouth sb

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