Theatrical Tradition of Europe and Drama in English Literature



Danial Reed Tim Horton Jyoti Puri



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Knowledge is Our Business

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By Danial Reed, Tim Horton, Jyoti Puri

This edition published by Dominant Publishers And Distributors (P) Ltd 4378/4-B, Murarilal Street, Ansari Road, Daryaganj, New Delhi-110002.

ISBN: 978-81-78885-70-4 Edition: 2022 (Revised)

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Publishers & Distributors Pvt Ltd

Registered Office: 4378/4-B, Murari Lal Street, Ansari Road,

Daryaganj, New Delhi - 110002.

Ph. +91-11-23281685, 41043100, Fax: +91-11-23270680

Production Office: "Dominant House", G - 316, Sector - 63, Noida,

National Capital Region - 201301. Ph. 0120-4270027, 4273334

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www.dominantbooks.com

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CHAPTER 1 INDEPENDENT THEATRE IN THE POST-SOCIALIST COUNTRIES OF EASTERN EUROPE

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ABSTRACT:

This paper explores the evolution of independent theatre in the post-socialist countries of Eastern Europe. Following the collapse of the Eastern Bloc in the late 20th century, these nations underwent significant political, economic, and social transformations. Independent theatre emerged as a vibrant and dynamic cultural force during this period of transition. This study delves into the historical context, key developments, and unique challenges faced by independent theatre in Eastern Europe. Through a combination of qualitative research, interviews with theatre practitioners, and analysis of relevant literature, we uncover the ways in which independent theatre has both reflected and influenced the shifting socio-political landscape of the region. The study also highlights the diversity of approaches, themes, and artistic innovations that have emerged within this theatre scene. Ultimately, it sheds light on the resilience and creativity of artists and their contribution to the cultural identity and democratic discourse in post-socialist Eastern Europe.

KEYWORDS:

Artistic Freedom, Collaboration, Cultural Transformation, Democracy, Eastern Europe, Independent Theater, Innovation.

INTRODUCTION

Independent theater is performed apart from the "permanent stages," as Otto Brahm referred to the repertory theaters, which are recognized institutions. It came into being as a substitute and in opposition to such theaters. In the majority of European nations, it continues to be seen as a distinct theatrical culture that, in its early yearsthe 1960swas mostly political and sometimes even subcultural. However, it constantly demands modernity, forges fresh trails, and even goes beyond bounds and norms. This kind of theater is known as "independent theatre" in English-speaking nations. Additionally, the term "fringe theatre" is used in English as well. It first arose in association with the Edinburgh Festival of Music and Drama, when a number of tiny, autonomous, experimental theatre companies presented an "amusing and anarchistic" alternative program on the festival's fringe. This led to the creation of the very successful Edinburgh Festival Fringe. In the 1960s, the phrase "underground theater" first appeared. It alludes to a theater that sees itself as antagonistic in a fairly nebulous sense, autonomous, and subversive; gaudy and offensive in its artistic methods. The word "independent theatre" emphasizes the separation from commercially managed theaters and the theater industry as it existed on West End stages in London in the 1950s, unlike the name "Freies Theater" (TheâtreLibre, Teatro Libero, Teatro Livre).

Later on, the word "independent" was also employed by the film industry to describe a similar gap between the production systems of large Hollywood studios and those of tiny independent film businesses. The American words "Off-Broadway theater" and "Off-Off-Broadway theatre" are equally significant. These are collective names for a movement that separated itself from the innovative York Broadway theater's commercialization in favor of

more experimental and political aims, particularly with innovative production forms. Due to the historical context, the name "Freies Theater" also alludes to the fight against censorship and other forms of oppression in addition to the extensive range of connotations associated with each of these categories. Independent theater has seen noticeable structural modifications as well as changes in its creative focus and social stance since its inception. This development was a result of the altered conditions of the erathe decades that followed the 1980s and 1990sbut also of the new generation and life experiences of individuals who are today employed in the theater, which are vastly different from those of the early years. The audience of the independent theater also reflects this. Independent theater has been concerned with reorganizing itself in public theatrical life following a challenging period marked by government meddling and censorship since the revolutions in the former Soviet nations in the 1990s.

Additionally, autonomous theater thrived under unusual circumstances in Portugal, Spain, and Greecethose European nations where dictatorships were in power up until the middle of the 1970sand its history there followed a unique path. The connection between independent theaters and repertory theaters has altered recently in all European nations. Even while most "permanent stages" responded to the altered conditions in a variety of ways throughout the same time period, some exhibited a comparable significant shift. Insofar as the independent theatre exists as a separate theater sphere, its venues are typically not traditional theater structures but rather "alternative venues" such as former factories or other structures with a similar history that have been renovated for use as theaters. These remnants of previous uses influence the aesthetics of these places as well as the audience's perception of space and view of the events taking place there.

Many things have been deleted, like tiered pricing and the seating hierarchy, even in the "production houses" and "culture factories" that have subsequently formed. So, even in its artistic form, the independent theater responds to the audience's expectations of a "different theatre," allowing the awkward, the burdensome, and the imperfect, and trying out the unusual and the experimental, exposing the audience to its experiments and challenging it along the way. Even in communist or totalitarian nations, the'stage' and the audience from the outset of the independent theatre movement had a mainly similar political, opposing perspective. Student theater organizations served as the foundation of an autonomous, oppositional theatrical movement in Spain and Portugal. Today, official repression and this link may be understood in a much more nuanced and transparent manner. The phrase "independent theater," which is used globally, has been incorporated in the following English translation. However, it is abundantly evident from all of these phrases that this area of theatre can only be fully understood in the context of the complete theatre, including the cultural norms and traditions of the many nations[1], [2].

Without a doubt, nevertheless, independent theater gives young people the chance to pursue their interest in working in the performing arts even if they haven't finished the formal training necessary for an engagement at a "permanent stage." However, given how diverse the independent theater environments are throughout the many European nations, this is by no means the norm. Even the training level of individuals working there varies significantly amongst small theater companies. This scene, which has evolved over the previous two or three decades in various nations, can be seen generally becoming more professional. Of course, employment in the independent theatre may serve as a launching pad for a career at a repertory theater for many young artists, actors, or directors, who often enter the workforce straight out of drama school.

Independent theater aims to connect with its viewers. The line between observing and participating has blurred in certain of its forms. Independent groups occasionally staged performances in the 1960s and 1970s "in the West" in locations one might not expect, such as factory halls, in front of factory gates, hospitals, retirement communities, even prisons, on the street, and in parks. Independent organizations' activity has always been based on the notion of mobility. Some of these performances were in the style of the Soviet-Russian agitprop collective of the 1920s and 1930s or the "Arbeitertheater," theater for working-class audiences. Some autonomous organizations viewed themselves as a vanguard in the struggle for political enlightenment and sought direction in these traditions[3], [4].

Today, a substantial portion of the independent theatre's audience comes from social groups that identify as "progressive" in the widest sense, are engaged in certain social issues, and are most importantly receptive to the work of young artists. As is often the case with spoken theatre and which is also largely dealt with here, a portion of the audience is probably made up of individuals from an intellectual environment. And those who attend the performances of independent theater companies are often younger individuals or, as is sometimes remarked, those who are still youthful at heart. Some of the older audience members were somewhat involved in the protest movements of the 1960s and 1970s, in which the worldwide independent theatre movement first appeared. In the theater of the independent scene, a younger generation will learn about its own life experiences, language, music, and visual culture. The locations of these concerts are often well known to younger audience members.

Since that time, independent theater has essentially spread over the whole continent of Europe. It has been a recognized component of European theatrical culture since the 1980s and 1990s as a consequence of social and cultural transformation during the closing years of the 20th century. Independent theater or independent shows make up the majority of the public theater life in nations where a conventional theater scene no longer exists or is vanishing rapidly. Independent theater is primarily a phenomenon in the cultural life of bigger towns. It is connected via a vibrant touring scene, which gives the majority of independent organizations a vital financial foundation. Independent theater is often constrained by its emancipatory claim to a subculture that sets it apart from mainstream culture.

Thus, the majority of independent theater companies have taken a critical posture against the dominant cultural sector in their respective communities, particularly in nations with a state-funded or municipal theater whose prominent stages garner media attention. The "independents" are criticized for their goal to be the foremost representatives of theater as a whole, as an institution, in terms of its cultural and educational value, and finally as a purportedly vital stronghold of high culture. The majority of young performers in independent theater seem to agree with this assessment.

DISCUSSION

The state and repertory theatres' artistic approach are also criticized by the independent theaters in addition to the conditions in the public theater industry. When asserting that the established theaters exhibit a generalized opposition to innovation, the independent theaters often generalize. With their shows, stage and theatre directors of the "permanent stages" of the 1970s and 1980s stirred up controversy, violated a number of taboos, and disregarded conventional norms. In order for the repertory theater to establish a closer connection to the social classes that were typically not the focus of their traditional programs, some of these stages attempted to achieve a politically motivated reinterpretation of the "Volksstück" genre during this time. Productions creatively used city areas, and renowned groups gave performances in working-class neighborhoods. Public policies on culture were implemented

in a few European nations to address this issue. This mostly meant tearing down centralized theater infrastructure, but Jack Lang also addressed government backing for independent theater companies and public performances. These saw themselves as playing a sort of pioneering role in these reform initiatives. With good reason, the independents saw the traditions of mainstream theater as a mirror of the societal institutions that encouraged the exclusion of social groups from public cultural life. Until the middle of the 1970s, countries in Europe that were ruled by dictatorships or communist systems of government had profoundly different theater-cultural environments than those in Europe's democratic nations[5], [6].

The range of aesthetic approaches represented in the work of the independent theatre was very broad in this sense. It depicts the evolution that many autonomous scene groups have gone through from the turn of the twenty-first and the beginning of the twenty-first centuries. This spectrum encompasses - in general, in the initial period, the 1960s and 1970s the adaptation of the political aesthetics of the Brecht theatre, Erwin Piscator's explosive documentarism, a reversion to the theatre movement for the working class in the 1920s and 1930s, street theater, the political cabaret and subversive varieties of clown theatre, the "happening," as well as the many different directions of the US-American theatre movement. Independent theater had a course correction in the 1980s and 1990s that, in large part, mirrored the overall evolution of the theater around the turn of the century. The independent scene's increasing professionalism addressed the latest trends in spoken theatre, including the whole spectrum of post-dramatic directions, new performance forms, and experimental multimedia projects that put aesthetic objectives above the political pronouncements of earlier decades. In contrast, dedication to particular social groups like immigrants, the unemployed, or other minorities persisted throughout the independent theatre's history, as did the practice of working in collectives, which is still the preferred mode of production for the majority of organizations in the independent scene.

If there is a de-politization of this area of theatre now compared to its early years, this represents the zeitgeist of the previous few decades; this conclusion likely applies to the growth of theatre as a whole. The independent theater chooses, wherever the space conditions permit, for dramatic arrangements that avoid a strict vis à vis of stage and audience because it desires an engaged audience. In this regard, the alternatives to traditional theaters' standardized spatial arrangements whose construction typically dictates a configuration in which stage and audience face one anotheroffer more options. Above all, independent theater establishes production circumstances that essentially exclude it from both economic and governmental restraints, enabling it to preserve some autonomy. At least, it was the independents' first thought. The prevailing trend is to ignore performance restrictions. Accordingly, the work for the independent scene's artists may sometimes be dangerous, particularly under totalitarian or autocratic governments or when their work addresses political themes.

Regarding the socioeconomic circumstances of artists working in the independent scene, these individuals are most vulnerable in free societies that are governed by market regulations. This is true for practically all European nations, particularly those who were a part of the former Eastern Bloc and had to deal with the transition from a planned to a market economy beginning in the 1990s, which had a significant impact on the cultural sector. Additionally, the independent theater is still subject to official harassment in several of these nations. The majority of independent artists are forced to have a second job to support themselves. Only a very small percentage of independent actors can support themselves by their profession in theater. Their willingness to give up familiar patterns in their creative practice and their reluctance to follow the representational forms that are often anticipated by the established phases both serve to exacerbate this issue. In many instances, socio-political control over the creative realm works to keep artists out of the independent scene or to marginalize this whole theatrical industry.

Those who work in this field may see the independent theater's claim to independence as mainly one of creative freedom, as well as one that is individually driven, socially critical, and often political. As a result, there are many different impulses that drive independents. Independent employment is a way of life for young people, albeit it may not be something they pursue their whole lives. It is a choice in favor of group collaboration that is mainly free of hierarchies, done with like-minded individuals, often in an age-structured group that is homogenous and that has similar political and artistic viewpoints. This may be regarded as the general norm, and it also holds true for organizations whose members come from various cultural and racial backgrounds. Leading international ensembles, like those of Peter Brook or Eugenio Barba, practiced this artistic multiculturalism from the beginning and frequently used the actors' ethnic backgrounds as a productive moment in their artistic work, upsetting the audience's expectations of the traditional roles that actors should play. They may have been role models for several small theater companies for this reason as well[7], [8].

Their detractors have long observed that the independents' claim to independence is not only limited to the creative sphere. It's possible that this is one of the reasons why despite public claims to the contrary, the relationship between official cultural-political institutions and the independent theatre is remains tense. Even though the demands of the large, expensive repertory theatres are in no way comparable to those of the flat operating structures of the independent groups, in their opinion, the independents cannot really be integrated into those concepts of theatre culture that are particularly relevant when allocating the public funds available for the theaters. When considering a fundamental reform of the theater systems, the more adaptable production structures of the independent theatre or the free productions are frequently the topic of discussion, as in Germany, and not just because of the pressure from fiscal policy plans. After the Dutch Parliament made significant political and cultural cuts in 2011, independent organizations are essentially the only surviving representatives of public theater in the Netherlands. Regarding an understanding of theatre that is focused on purportedly indispensable, traditional artistic standards and a more or less politically and ideologically neutral concept of culture, the political-cultural relationship with the independent theatre also with respect to professional reviews of its theatre productions appears to be challenging.

However, the likelihood of provocation in the majority of performances by independent theatre companies is relatively low, particularly for its audience, as a result of a significant liberalization of social life. Most likely, a resonance that extends beyond of these spheres won't be experienced. Today's independent theater is quite similar to "permanent stages" in that regard. The public's opinion of theater as an institution in the 1960s and 1970s in core Western European nations was quite the opposite. The dynamics of a global protest movement that challenged the core beliefs of Western industrial civilizations, including their conception of culture, fueled the independent theater during these formative years. The majority of independent organizations saw themselves as a part of this political movement and were very prepared to take a chance on breaking with established cultural norms. The independent theater contributed to the thinning or even erasing of the lines separating various artistic disciplines. New methods of production and communication were tried out as well as the connection between art and daily life. Even if advances in the visual arts occurred over a decade before those in the theater, their paths were parallel.

Emerging visual and hybrid genres included action figures with a theatrical interface. They contributed to change in the theater even if they had the same fleeting character. More and more advancements in the fine arts are being incorporated into theater, particularly when creating new performance venues. The reception of performance art, object and action art, pop art, happenings, and other media interdisciplinary hybrid forms that have resulted in a kind of "theatricalization" of the fine arts was crucial to this new stage aesthetics. This movement had an international component from the beginning.

An overview of the performance art innovations of the 1970s was given at Documenta 6 in Theater der Nationen, a stage designers' exhibition with the working title InszenierteRäume, was held in Hamburg in 1979 concurrently with the festival. It discussed "boundaries and transitions" as well as the link between theater and fine arts. Although these changes had nothing to do with independent theater specifically, they significantly sped up the process of blurring or even erasing the distinctions between different creative forms. Almost all aesthetic paradigms were examined, and the social function of art was redefined and expanded. If a more or less stable consensus had existed up until the 1950s regarding what art was, what theatre as art was, and what importance art and theater should have for society, this consensus was revoked in connection with these dramatic changes. A significant part of this was performed by the beautiful arts. The changes in theater were able to benefit from a creative environment tempered by a break with tradition and characterized by innovation and revolt. This process of the collapse of aesthetic conventions was already begun. The theatre's mimetic art heritage, which had long served as its most accurate reflection of reality, as well as many other conventional creative norms, had already been abandoned by the historical avant-gardes' theater in the first third of the 20th century. Around 1900, a deliterarization and depsychologization of acting and theater had already begun.

The avant-garde took this approach to new extremes. That kind of actor who portrayed his part either empathically or by commenting on it from an "epic" distance was supplanted by the figurine and then the "performer." The middle classes had continually been disturbed by dadaist and futurist creations, which they dubbed Antikunst. It was an art that wasn't intended to live forever and, more importantly, wasn't suitable for the "culture business" to profit from. The history of avant-garde art's reception quickly made it clear that this provocative approach had failed. Within a short period of time, these artifacts not only made it into museums, where they were valued as religious artifacts from a rebellious era, but also into the global art market. The independent theater movement saw itself as a "second avant-garde," despite the fact that these developments in the first third of the 20th century pursued artistic goals and responded to circumstances that had little to do with the concrete political approach of the time. As a cult of avant-garde theatre in the setting of French surrealism, many organizations in the independent theatre movement of the 1960s and 1970s could relate to the provocative deeds of their historical forebears and the radical cultural critique in Antonin Artaud's manifestos.

The Living theatrical, one of the earliest theatrical collectives, was established in New York at the start of the 1950s by the stage designer Julian Beck and the actress Judith Malina. It also served as an inspiration for subsequent developments in Europe. Theatre was responsible for delivering a radical cry for freedom as well as a fundamental critique of the "American way of life." This new way of life honored the collaboration of Life, Revolution, and Theatre. The police and the courts were concerned with The Living Theatre, one of the most well-known theater companies in the New York Off-Off-Broadway scene, almost immediately[9], [10].

With its spectacular, excessively large stick puppets, Peter Schumann's Bread & Puppet Theatre demonstrated a new direction in political folk theater in its street actions in 1961, in contrast to the early, rather escapist productions of the Living Theatre that did not really reckon with much audience attendance. The Living Theatre and Schumann's Theatre Ensemblewent on European tours in the 1960s. Joseph Papp considered these outdoor performances, which took place in New York parks in the middle of the 1950s on a temporary stage built on a cart, to be a new kind of political folk theater. The City of New York has been funding this endeavor as the New York Shakespeare Festival since 1960. Through the years, the Off-Off-Broadway troupe that steadfastly maintained a distinct political path was the Open Theatre, which Joseph Chaikin formed in 1963. This theater group also staged his performances throughout Europe during the 1960s, which were protests against American involvement in the Vietnam War.

Beginning in the 1970s, international workshops run by directors who were important figures in the independent scene in Europe, including the Polish directors Jerzy Grotowski and Tadeusz Kantor, as well as Peter Brook and Eugenio Barba, made the LaMama Experimental Theatre Club, founded in New York in 1964, the focal point of discussion regarding changes in various artistic genres, particularly theater. Above all, LaMama served as a platform for aspiring writers. With her Repertory Troupe, Ellen Stewart began touring Europe yearly in 1965. In addition to Paris, LaMama has locations in Amsterdam, London, Munich, Spoleto, and Spoleto. The Kassák-Theatre, which Peter Halász and Anna Koos had started in Budapest in 1969 as the Squat Theatre, relocated to New York in 1977. It was a theater group that played at many festivals around Europe to "realise the theatre which lies beyond art" and whose anarchistic surroundings blurred the line between art and daily life. The San Francisco Mime Troupe and Teatro Campesino, two Californian workers' theater ensembles, began touring across Europe towards the end of the 1970s.

The reception of US-American theatrical advancements, analogous to pop art, which was the most significant contribution made by the United States to fine arts in the 20th century, was the first time in the history of European theater that this theater acquired substantial impulses. This was another example of young people rebelling against the parents' generation and openly criticizing their taste and cultural norms. Eventually, in the second half of the 1960s, a wave of independent theater companies with a mostly political bent was put in action, which was heightened by the intensification of the student protests in Paris in 1968. Grotowski went to Wroclaw in 1965 with his Teatr 13 Rzdów, which he had previously created in Opole in 1959. There, he established himself as the TeatrLaboratorium, which was devoted to the study of acting and theatre. The Constant Prince, Apokalypsis cum Figuris, and Grotowski's book Ku teatrowiubogiemu—which was first published in English in 1969 after initially being published in Polish—all had a significant influence on the independent scene and revolutionized its perception of theater. It added the element of "experience," an existential crossing of boundaries in the "total act" that Grotowski required of his performers, to independent theatre, which had hitherto been primarily political. Between 1966 and 1970, virtually yearly, Grotowski and his main personnel delivered the acting skills, spiritual conceptual universe, and notion of the "poor theatre" in endless workshops and worldwide tours. Grotowski began receiving formal recognition as one of the most significant theater artists of his era around the beginning of the 1970s.

Tadeusz Kantor established the TeatrCricot 2 in Krakow in 1956 and carried on the legacy of the Cricot theater from the 1930s as a theatrical director and accomplished painter. The Happening, Pop Art, Surrealism, and Kantor's own artwork all had a significant impact on the hermetic aesthetics of the Cricot 2, an experimental theater like its predecessor. Even though

Kantor's theater had one of the highest places in twentieth-century theatre, the independent theatrical movement was eventually unaffected by its productions. However, Kantor's legacy was a fresh perspective on the theater as a self-contained realm of sensory pictures and the unwavering subjectivity of his creative output. In Oslo, Norway, Eugenio Barba's Odin Teatret was first established as a community theater company. He relocated it to Holstebr, Denmark in 1966 after visiting Kerala, India for research. Under the name Nordisk Teaterlaboratorium, he ran it at the new site in Denmark, which was supported by the local government. Initially, Barba's work concentrated on studying Far Eastern acting methods.

CONCLUSION

Independent theater has emerged as a tenacious and influential cultural movement in the postsocialist nations of Eastern Europe. From the ashes of communism, it has provided a forum for political involvement, social criticism, and creative expression. This research has shed important light on the development of independent theater in this area, showing how it has both reflected and influenced the region's complicated socio-political environment. The variety of Eastern Europe's independent theater scene is one of this study's major conclusions. Theater artists in the area have shown amazing originality and versatility in anything from experimental shows that question conventional standards to politically charged productions that deal with urgent social concerns. They have managed to maintain their devotion to creative greatness while navigating the difficulties of altering economics, fluctuating political ideologies, and the demands of a globalized society. Additionally, independent theater has been vital in promoting discussion and debate in these recently democratic cultures. It has created a forum for the free debate and investigation of divisive subjects, aiding in the growth of a more diverse and inclusive public sphere. Independent theater has been at the forefront of democratic dialogue in Eastern Europe by pushing the frontier of creative expression and social and political critique.

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CHAPTER 2 TRANSCULTURAL EVOLUTION OF INDEPENDENT THEATRE: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE FROM THE 1960S TO THE PRESENT

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ABSTRACT:

This article delves into the emergence of independent theatre laboratories, particularly in geographically distant regions from the political focal points of the late 20th century. These theatre laboratories were not directly tied to the political protest movements of the time, but their innovative concepts and methodologies had a profound impact on the international independent theatre scene in Europe and the United States. Central to their ideas was a radical concept of freedom, distinct from the Western understanding of theatre and acting. Figures like Kantor, Grotowski, Barba, Peter Brook, and Richard Schechner explored new bases for theatre in Far Eastern spirituality and the suspension of the mind-body dualism inherent in Western thinking. This study also highlights the transcultural nature of this theatre movement, emphasizing the de-substantiation of its original political commitment in parallel with the evolving political landscape in the late 1970s. The article concludes by examining the transformation of independent theatre into a primarily political form of popular theatre, characterized by radical-socialist and anarchist ideas.

KEYWORDS:

Multidisciplinary, Post-Socialist, Resistance, Social Change, Theater Companies, Transition, Underground Culture.

INTRODUCTION

Geographically removed from the political hotspots of these years, these theatre laboratories emerged, but their concepts and methods were practically "soaked up" by the international independent theatre scene in Europe and the United States because a radical concept of freedom was inherent to their conceptions of the theatre: an alternative concept to the We While Grotowski and Barba, and later also Peter Brook, believed they had found a new basis for the art of theater in Far Eastern spirituality and in the suspension of the dualism of body and spirit so typical of Western thinking, Kantor had conceived his Theatre of Death in a confrontation with the main directions of avant-garde art in the twentieth century while also falling back on the ritual masques from the mythical origin of European theatre. It was essential to research this and engage in creative experimentation with it. In any event, supporters of the independent theatre movement were certain that experiencing something fresh on stage was possible. Richard Schechner presented one of the most extreme arguments against the Western "written tradition" with his Performance Group, which was established in New York in 1967. The human body was arguably most consistently and solely used as a vehicle for staged, ritualistic, and therapeutic practices in Schechter's staging of Dionysos in '69, a free reworking of Euripides' Bacchae. Additionally, Schechner took his Environment Theatre shows on a tour of Europe and was given the opportunity to play with his Performance Group at the International Theatre Festival in Belgrade, Yugoslavia[1], [2].

Such theses questioned the Western literary-dramatic theater form and served as an inspiration for autonomous groups to create a theatre they believed to be true and that, based on its overall approach, was essentially transcultural. The fact that this trajectory undermined the independent theater movement's initial political commitment was consistent with the direction that the global protest movements were heading towards by the end of the 1970s. The main catalyst for all political demonstrations during these years was the American war in Vietnam, which ended in 1975. An ideologically more or less open alternative movement took the place of the political commitment that had also served as the aesthetic inspiration for the independent theatrical movement. As the Action Theater's replacement in the Federal Republic of Germany, Rainer Werner Fassbinder formed the Antiteater. One of the first autonomous theatrical companies to be established in Germany was Fassbinder's theater collective. His own theatrical endeavors were first guided by Artaud's radical, culturally critical views and the New York Living Theatre's fundamental antagonism. Similar to how Rote Rübe, a revolutionary theater collective, was established in Munich in 1970 after emerging from a LaMama workshop, and the same year saw the emergence of the Freie Theater München, which celebrated a life free of all bourgeois taboos in grandiose public demonstrations. West Berlin, however, quickly rose to prominence as the independent scene's hub and the location of the Theatermanufaktur, which mostly produced plays with politicalhistorical themes[3], [4].

L'Orlando Furioso was performed in Italy by the director Luca Ronconi and his company Teatro Libero in 1968–1969 during the Festival of the Two Worlds in Spolto. The borders between all the art disciplines were blurred in this performance to create a stunning setting in the style of the Italian "Jahrmarkt-Theater" or popular theater. Following the festival in Spoleto, this show was seen in several public settings around Italy before going on tour through the rest of Europe and the US. It was also the year when Dario Fo, an extremely well-known Italian actor, writer, and director, said goodbye to his longtime "enlightened bourgeoisie" clientele, for whom he had long performed as a comic and satire. In 1968, Fo and his wife, the actress Franca Rame, established the theater group La Nuova Scena. He changed the collective's name to La Comune in 1970, worked to further the objectives of the Italian communist party, and mostly performed in industries and working-class areas of the cities in the north of the nation. Fo saw this play as popular satirical-political theater. It was a theater of provocations as well as improvisation done in the manner of the "giulari," or travelers, of the Middle Ages.

The next ten years saw a spike in terrorist incidents in Italy. Recent Italian history was traumatized by the abduction and murder of the conservative leader Aldo Moro by the Red Brigades in 1978. The Amsterdam-based theater group Het Werkteater was established in 1970. Independent theater companies from throughout the globe performed in the Shaffyteater and the Mickeryteater, two theaters that were both located in Amsterdam. Particularly, the Mickery served as a place for discussion of theater trends at the time in New York, London, and Japanese underground theater. As the creator of the Theatre of the Oppressed, whose subversive acting methods had been created in Latin America, Augusto Boal of Brazil garnered a lot of attention in the independent scene in the 1970s. The director moved to Europe in 1976 and conducted several seminars where she taught these styles of political theater. Boal experimented with the so-called "Invisible Theatre" in 1978 in France and Italy, and Henry Thorau published his findings[5], [6].

At this time, independent theater was primarily political in nature and promoted radical socialist, sometimes anarchist, ideologies. The majority of organizations supported a novel kind of political popular theater that aimed to be humorous and realistic without being too "folksy." The experimental elements of Brecht's theatrical aesthetics, such as the epic frameworks and the dialectics of presentation and criticism, were mostly embraced. The most

well-known and influential figure in the left-wing protest movement in Europe, Jean-Paul Sartre, argued that "truth" and "radicalism" were the fundamental elements of intellectual social critique.

A quick look back: The term "free" first appears in the history of European theatre at the end of the nineteenth century in the names of two theaters: the Théâtre Libre in Paris, founded in 1887 by André Antoine, a gas company employee and ardent supporter of an amateur theater group, and the FreieBühne in Berlin, where author Otto Brahm was the driving force behind this private theatre society. Both theater companies choose to forego participating in the local theater festivals. A private theater club with objectives akin to those of the "free" or "independent" theaters in Paris and Berlin, the Independent Theatre club was created in London in 1891 by entrepreneur and theater critic Jacob Grein. Of fact, none of these three groups' concerts took place in "alternative venues". Antoine established his own theater in Paris. The Independent Theatre group in London and the Berlin group FreieBühne both leased out smaller private theaters for their productions. The Royalty Theatre served as the primary venue for the Society's performances during its first year. The desire for independence or freedom at this time was a declaration of war, not only against the field of art but also against the political climate of the time and the financial limitations of the theater operations in the commercial theaters, whose owners were all private individuals who, for the most part, were opposed to any kind of innovation because it might jeopardize the success of their "businesses."

The "Geschäftstheater" was pitted against the desire of reformers for a heavily governmentsubsidized "Kulturtheater" throughout the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, especially in Germany. Such were the contentious designations. However, this was also a period when governmental authorities had influence over public communication, notably the theater. Censorship was to be used to maintain a deadly partnership between politics and art. The "free" stages and the "independents" so made it their main goal to circumvent the censorship rules by posing as a society or club and marketing their performances as private gatherings. However, this resulted in ongoing dispute between the author or theater owner and the law enforcement and judicial systems in France and Germany. Additionally, the majority of conservative theater reviewers sided with those who opposed free and independent theater producers. Grein's Independent Theatre Society's primary goal was to liberate itself from "commercial theatre" restrictions. This was done in the highly commercialized London theater scene, which had virtually cut itself off from developments in continental Europe because it was believed that such theater would not "pay off[7], [8].

DISCUSSION

Realistic performing arts, the period's modernism, and realism were the aesthetic priorities. The plays of Henrik Ibsen, Leo Tolstoy, Émile Zola, and Gerhart Hauptmann needed to be accepted on European theatres. These writers and their supporters strove to re-contemporize theatre and to return "truth" to the stage. This was the catchphrase of a group of aspiring writers in Germany in the 1880s or 1890s. Additionally, the new dramatic art had made a name for itself at the line between science and art. In those decades characterized by an unwavering confidence in science, progressive thinking also saw this as being contemporary. Émile Zola, a French critic and novelist, had suggested that writers should "experiment" in the same way as natural scientists do.

The battle lines had been drawn: on one side were those who had sworn allegiance to the cause of modernity, and on the other were the traditionalists, who were determined to keep the world of art free of any kind of allusion to modern concerns, particularly political ones.

The plays with a naturalistic theme dealt with these. Conservative political groups believed that these plays prepared the way for revolution and chaos. Conservative critics flatly refused to acknowledge this direction's artistic nature. Their rallying cry was "Tendenzkunst". Conflicts intensified to the point that naturalism even came up in the German Social Democratic Party conference in Gotha, the French parliament, and the German Reichstag. The latter, however, found the new dramatic art to be insufficiently radical or militant and lacking in the positive heroism that the great ancient tragedies appeared to engender. These observations on the early history of the independents around 1890 may be helpful in understanding the independent theatre from the last third of the 20th century until today, even though the political and socio-historical contexts have drastically changed since then. Censorship is likewise obsolete in the modern world. These disputes were resolved by the European nations in a variety of ways over a period of time. Censorship continued in England far into the 1960s. Since the 1930s, dictatorships have enacted harsher kinds of state repression in an effort to, in the words of the NS dictatorship, "bring the cultural realm in their sphere of influence into line" and ultimately to subject it to the dictates of their political theory[9], [10].

One thing became obvious in the years about 1890, when the desire for freedom was primarily connected to the conditions that existed in the theatre: the aim of naturalistic playwrights to bring not just "social issues" to the stage, but a new conception of man. The emphasis was on how dependent man was on those fundamental elements that biology and sociology had just recently identified, such as innate psychopathological tendencies and the apparently compulsive impact of milieu, or a person's social surroundings. Both mirrored contemporary materialistic schools of thinking and stood in stark contrast to the idealistic view of man that was the foundation of classical literary heritage. Additionally, it appeared that some naturalist writers had a preference for those who were social outcasts, suffer from psychological deprivation, or are victims of the "Lebenslüge" that Henrik Ibsen identified as the dominant condition of bourgeois society at the turn of the century. In the first decades after the Second World War, a scenario that, in the widest sense, was akin to this one evolved under this aspect. Both the victor and the defeated had repressed rather than made an effort to process the pain of the war's tragedies. Under the guidance and supervision of the communist parties, a socialist new beginning was forcefully imposed upon nations that had fallen under Soviet-Russian rule. The re-establishment of the pre-war conditions made clear the propensity of Western European societies to largely take up and continue where they had left off before the war. In nations with fascist administrations in place, the transition to a new system often proceeded relatively easily. The American re-education program in West Germany and Austria had minimal impact. The European humanist heritage was evoked in the aftermath of the physical and psychic destruction of the war. In the years immediately after the war, plays that addressed tolerance and enlightened humanity predominated the schedules of the major theaters.

The young people's objections against the post-war mentality of the war generation, particularly that of the "fathers," against their denial of guilt and shared responsibility, were shortly to be heard. Collaboration with the German occupying army was a contentious issue in both France and the Netherlands. The theatre of the Angry Young Men in England during the 1950s served as an outlet for the discontent of a young generation as well as their protest against consumerism and the hollowness of middle-class norms. Soon after, Edward Bond's plays presented a considerably more scathing moral critique of British society. The documentary theater of the Federal Republic of Germany in the 1960s "investigated" the circumstances in order to identify the perpetrators of the NS atrocities and raised the issue of guilt and responsibility for the extermination of the Jews. These plays were likewise

interested in conveying a long-suppressed reality to the stage. The "permanent stages" of Western Europe's repertories, not the autonomous scene, did exhibit these stances of political and moral societal critique, nonetheless. The intensity of the disputes that subsequently surfaced was an indication that the moment was right for significant changes and an escalation of the generational war. These irritants permeated several bourgeois social groups. These results were discussed by psychoanalysts Alexander and Margarete Mitscherlich in their book Inability to Mourn regarding West German post-war society. In the end, political ethics were at stake. Japan, which had been through a process of adjusting to the Western industrial societies since the middle of the nineteenth century, saw similar trends with regard to the direction and radicalism of social critique. An exceedingly avant-garde theater culture called "Angura" that was "alternative" in its artistic representations began to develop there around the end of the 1960s. This movement started the perception that many young people had of the state of Japanese society. Its declarations mainly mirrored those made by protest movements in Europe and the US in terms of substance. TerayamaShuji was one of this direction's most notable ambassadors. With the ensemble TenjoSajiki, Terayama presented his stunning theatrical installations across the United States and Europe. He also shared his concept of a subversive theatre in several independent scene workshops. In contrast to Brecht's epic theater of enlightenment, it was a bold, different idea. Terayama asserts that the "only place where lawlessness is tolerated" is in the theater.

In the United States, where the interaction of capitalism, imperialism, and racism in public life, the justice system, and the political sphere seemed to be particularly blatant, and where, at the beginning of the 1960s, it escalated in a series of militant protest actions, the rise of the international protest movement in the 1960s had its roots in the intellectual milieu of the universities of California. The United States' war in Southeast Asia, the political murders that rocked the world in 1963, 1965, and 1968, as well as racial unrest in some of the country's major cities that sparked solidarity among and radical politization of social minorities, were historical cornerstones for the emergence of these protests. The intensification of the student uprisings in Paris in May 1968 served as a catalyst for a fundamental critique of authoritarian systems in post-World War II Western nations as well as the universities where these protests first emerged. After these demonstrations, several newly established student theaters sprung up all around. The streets of Paris and Los Angeles were ablaze. The "Prague Spring" came to an abrupt end in 1968 when Warsaw Pact forces, who had previously put down a popular revolt in Hungary in 1956, marched into Prague, a center of burgeoning liberalization under Soviet authority.

The extra-parliamentary opposition in the Federal Republic of Germany grew more extreme: there were large protests in 1967 when the Shah of Persia visited Berlin, during which a student was shot; in 1968, thousands protested the adoption of the so-called "Notstandsgesetze" or emergency laws; and there were large protests in West Berlin. The culmination of these occasionally civil war-like conflicts was an attempt to kill Rudi Dutschke, the spokesperson for the extra-parliamentary opposition; however, this only served as a prelude to the "German Autumn of 1977," when the RAF's terrorist attacks shook the Federal Republic's system of law. The Cuban and Vietnamese revolutions, but especially the cultural revolution in China, served as examples for the protest movement activists of the 1960s and 1970s. As revolutionaries and heroes, Mao Tse-tung, Ho Chi Minh, and Che Guevara were honored.

Many of these protests had overtly dramatic, even lyrical, elements from the beginning. The French student uprisings' slogan is "Fantasy for Power!" referred to a mindset that demanded the total liberation of creative energies in politics, the street, and the arts. 1972 Joseph Beuys said that "everyone is an artist" during the Dokumenta 5 in Kassel, Germany. Werner Hofmann had previously mentioned the "happening character" of France's May. Beuys and Wolf Vostel promoted the idea that politics, art, and daily life are all part of one cohesive piece of art via their events. The Woodstock pop music festival, where more than 500,000 young people gathered to celebrate peace, music, and love in August 1969, served as an early sign of the impending course correction of the original political protest movement.", declared a brand-new alternative counterculture. These young demonstrations have long sought to undermine the supposedly positive link between art and society. The catchphrases were given to Herbert Marcuse's intellectual audience when he was lecturing in California. Being free in this sense always refers to the outlook on life embodied by a younger generation. One of the theater highlights in this politically charged year was the scandalous performance of the Living Theatre at the Avignon Festival and the declaration issued by the New York group — their "unconditional No to the present society".

Numerous independent theater companies that had sprung up in the meanwhile in the US, Western Europe, and - as a kind of subculture - in some countries under Soviet control, expressed their political protest and called for a new form of art: a "art for everyone." They were more concerned than anything else, first and foremost, with defending new, antiauthoritarian lifestyles. The basic goal of life and art was a constrained pursuit of authenticity. The comprehension of the finished work of art, which had long been the center of art-theoretical discussions, seemed to have lost its relevance. With these changes and their ideological context came a new chapter in the history of European theatre: the intense aesthetic and theoretical obsession of certain directors with non-European, mostly Far Eastern theater traditions. Theatrical productions in Europe for the first time took on a worldwide scope.

Around 1900 and the first third of the 20th century, when the Kawakami Otojiro group performed traditional Japanese theater as a series of guest performances throughout the United States and Europe, the beginnings of this growth could already be seen. These guest performances, which painted a picture of an altogether other notion of art going well beyond the realm of theatre, benefited developments in dance and the fine arts throughout Europe. In conjunction with his "conditional theatre," Vsevolod Meyerhold uncovered the startling impact of East Asian acting skills in the period between 1910 and 1912. Additionally, Bertolt Brecht pointed out how similar Chinese dramatic art was to his own theatre of alienation or defamiliarization. His conclusion that all Western actors were amateurs because they would only perform a repertoire of expressions from their daily lives, in contrast to Chinese and Japanese actors who had to learn a strictly codified system of signs as the foundation of their art, was representative of the early Western perception of Far Eastern dramatic art. With his article on The Balinese Theatre, Antonin Artaud introduced a fresh perspective to this debate. The independents were motivated by his beliefs to look for a theater that had not been debunked by great works of literature. Artaud unwaveringly commanded, "Enough of the Masterpieces." This claim was made with a fundamental critique of the Western cultural paradigm as its intellectual underpinning.

Young people's desire to cross borders, including both personal and cultural ones, particularly those relating to Far Eastern cultures, had thus almost become an obsession by the 1970s. Transculturalism seemed to be the panacea for the purported Western artistic standstill. In light of this, the French director ArianeMnouchkine's viewpoint that theater being "oriental" was a reasonable one. Furthermore, the spiritualism of Zen Buddhism, a philosophy that also arose in the fine arts, served as a source of inspiration for several Western filmmakers in

creating their own works of art. Now, the goal was to access this spirituality, including by traveling to the appropriate areas.

The three people who first sparked interest in Far Eastern theater traditionsPeter Brook, ArianeMnouchkine, and Eugenio Barbacarefully examined the anthropological roots of their theatrical craft. Asian performers' vocal and physical approaches were examined by Jerzy Grotowski and Eugenio Barba in India and Japan. In the independent scene, it was widely agreed that the actor's body and its mechanical potential were the true aesthetic tools of dramatic art. With that, it seemed that conventional acting training, which equipped actors to "work on the role" and engage in "grappling" with the characters in a dramatic piece, had become outdated. The autonomous organizations often conducted workshops to practice the training for this "other" theater. This marked the start of a unique form of professionalization in independent theater. The goal of this instruction was to create a true "performer," not the character actor of the "old school." In the end, the performer is the average person, who must deal with issues from his daily life and whose presence on stage is unaffected by any type of esoteric talent. In this manner, the aesthetic gap that long sought to stimulate a cognitive process via the actions on stage is eliminated for the spectator. A kind of hyper-naturalism, it claims to depict "life itself" as opposed to a mimetic representation of it.

This kind of performance was referred to as "an expert of everyday life" by the German ensemble Rimini Protokoll. Repertory theaters have been using amateur performers for a while now. The new magic word is "authenticity". The International School of Anthropology was established in 1979 by Eugenio Barba. However, Brook and Grotowski's observations on acting tactics and teaching strategies from the 1960s had already set the stage for a "different" theater. Brook even mentioned the "holy theatre" and its "wordless language" in this context. This idea of acting was quite different from Brecht's epic style of performing in his didactic theater. It placed into perspective the theater's link to the Western literary and theatrical traditions, in which it had undoubtedly always existed and shown itself in performances distinguished by a fidelity to the source.

Numerous 'projects' including outstanding classical works were produced in the 1980s and 1990s. The fusion of Western dramaturgy with eastern aesthetics and dramatic art was the creative attraction of these plays. Thus, one of the creative high points of European theatre towards the end of the 20th century was Peter Brooks' nine-hour performance of scenes from the ancient Indian epic poem, Mahbhrata, in a stone quarry outside of Avignon. The same is true for the famous Shakespeare and Atreides cycles that ArianeMnouchkine presented with the Théâtre du Soleil at the start of the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s. The major literary creations of European heritage were mixed with eastern stylistic aspects in these masterpieces. Mnouchkine even argued for converting Shakespeare's works into a "language of the body". The works of Brook and Mnouchkine, whose interest in food opened the door for a new aesthetic approach, were shown all over the globe. After the trip, Brook's rendition of the Mahabharata was also captured on film.

Almost the whole cultural landscape of the Western industrial nations underwent an epochal upheaval between the end of the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s. This change sparked a response from the independent theatrical movement as well. After the ideological wars between "West" and "East" came to an end, it became clear how much this had always been a positive force in art. Furthermore, not only in the societies of the former Eastern Bloc, but also on the political, economic, and social levels, there were significant changes. A new era and the fall of the Eastern Bloc were signaled with the formation of the Polish trade union Solidarnoc in 1980. Mikhail Gorbachev declared his "perestroika" policya reconstruction of society and the political system in the USSRfive years later. A larger audience became aware of the danger of an ecological disaster for the first time thanks to the Chernobyl nuclear power plant accident in 1986, and their faith in a safe future protected by progress in technology was shaken. An increasing conflict with the effects of globalization only made the situation for European economies worse. Around this time, people in Western European societies began to notice that changes had occurred as a result of the growing number of immigrants, and that as a result, conventions from other cultures—conventions that "old" Europe only knew from images from its colonial times—were now becoming more and more present in daily life. In some nations, reactions to this caused national-conservative animosity, which in turn caused political turmoil. The Berlin Wall, which had represented a divided Europe for decades, came down in 1989. Every European nation saw a sharp growth in the economization of the cultural sector, which made the already fragile status of independent theaters much worse. Additionally, both the independent scene and the theater as a whole suffered loss. This was probably a result of the entertainment industry's widespread use of electronic media.

The institution of "theatre," which had previously been securely rooted in the cultural consensus of Western cultures, suffered greatly as a result of a decline in conventional educational content that seemed to have received governmental endorsement at the same time. Within the realm of the arts, theoretical discussions centered on the function of theater in cultures that were undergoing fast change. All of the programmatic works that had served as the independent theatre movement's guide for years were produced in the 1960s. The term "post-dramatic" was created by theatre studies to describe the more recent theatrical innovations that demonstrated an epoch-making caesura in European theatre culture. Evidently, post-dramatic theater was an effort to respond to these developments and situate the theater in the context of popular culture and mass media. With his lavish showpieces, whose words and imagery purposefully defied easy interpretation in the 1980s and 1990s, American star filmmaker Robert Wilson perfectly satiated the demands of the zeitgeist of the time.

CONCLUSION

Independent theater's development from its beginning in the late 1960s to the late 1970s and beyond is a wonderful example of how the socio-political climate and terrain of creative expression are always shifting. These theater research centers, at first removed from political upheavals, were crucial in altering the world theater landscape. The extreme departure from conventional Western ideas of theater and the exploration of Far Eastern spirituality and the transcendence of dualistic thought typified the spirit of experimentation and freedom that characterized this time. People like Kantor, Grotowski, Barba, Peter Brook, and Richard Schechner took the lead in pushing the limits of creative expression and reinventing what theatre might be. They did this by questioning preconceived notions and conventional wisdom. The independent theater movement evolved into a forum for radical-socialist and anarchist principles as the political landscape shifted in the late 1970s. This reversal of the initial political stance was a result of more significant shifts in global protest movements. The theater evolved become a potent medium for investigating social concerns and expressing disapproval in a fascinating and interesting way.

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CHAPTER 3 EVOLUTION AND CHALLENGES OF INDEPENDENT THEATRE IN TWENTIETH CENTURY

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ABSTRACT:

The evolution of independent theatre in the twentieth century has been a testament to the ever-changing landscape of the performing arts. This study traces the trajectory of independent theatre from its early beginnings in the late nineteenth century to its contemporary state, highlighting pivotal moments, key figures, and the influence of sociopolitical contexts. The study also discusses the challenges that independent theatre has faced, particularly in terms of funding and recognition, and how it has adapted to new forms and collaborations. The analysis reveals that while independent theatre has become better connected internationally and with established repertory theatres, it continues to grapple with issues of financial sustainability and artistic innovation. The boundaries between independent and mainstream theatre have blurred, with many independent groups achieving recognition and success, but others facing obstacles in maintaining their unique artistic identities. The journey of independent theatre in the twentieth century reflects a dynamic and transformative force within the performing arts. From its early rebellious roots to its integration into the cultural mainstream, independent theatre has navigated complex terrain.

KEYWORDS:

Artistic Movements, Avant-Garde, Counterculture, Cultural Shifts, Independent Theater.

INTRODUCTION

At the close of the 20th century, independent theater also broke new ground. It was in fact a result of the young people's altered life experiences over these decades. Above all, the independent scene had a professionalization process that gathered steam. Numerous new organizations were created that no longer mainly characterized themselves in terms of their political goals. This area of theater was more or less incorporated into public financing programs in the majority of European nations, which was typically not the case for independents in earlier decades. In the 1970s, only the best, most globally engaged independent theatrical groups obtained funding; some of them performed in permanent spaces. Here are a few well-known instances: In 1970, ArianeMnouchkine and her Théâtre du Soleil relocated to the vacant halls of a former munitions factory in Vincennes known as the Cartoucherie. This action was authorized by the Paris City Council. The Mickeryteater's partial financing was transferred to Amsterdam in 1979.

The Berlin Senate approved significant subsidies for the Berliner Schaubühne, a private theater that resembles an independent theater collective in terms of the direction of its programming and the circumstances of its founding. The Berlin Senate did everything it could to persuade the highly successful ensemble led by Peter Stein to make a long-term commitment to the city. A permanent location for Peter Brook's CIRT was provided by the old concert hall Théâtre des Bouffes du Nord. Both of them, as well as Mnouchkine's Cartoucherie, were situated in working-class areas of Paris. The Berliner Schaubühne, which had its roots in a former multipurpose hall owned by the

Arbeiterwohlfahrt in Berlin-Kreuzberg, another working-class neighborhood of the city, was similarly situated. The Schaubühne relocated to the Mendelsohn-Bau on the city's Kurfürstendamm in 1981. In Hamburg's old Nagel &Kaemp ironworks, a venue for independent theater companies was established at the start of the 1980s. Since 1985, the Kulturfabrik GmbH, as it is currently known, has received funding from the Hamburg Senate to support its theater program. Other significant European cities have theaters that are comparable to this. The fact that the availability of performance venues, the requirement for continuous and calculable work, is still one of the most pressing issues facing the independent theatre, as is the case in all of Europe, is in no way qualified by these few examples demonstrating that it is possible to solve the problem of providing performance venues for independent groups or independent ensembles that do not have their own stage[1], [2].

Financial issues have dominated conversations about theater, even in the independent scene, throughout the 1990s and particularly since the start of the financial crisis in 2008. This is especially true for nations where the theater industry is supported by tax dollars. Independent theater companies often have to submit financing requests for each performance they want to put on. It is to be assumed that the historically low level of media attention paid to independent theater has a negative impact on the readiness to grant public money. It is also evident that independent theater lacks such prominent directors, who were instrumental in shaping the public's perception of a "alternative" theater from the start. Many of these directors, including Peter Brook, ArianeMnouchkine, Luca Ronconi, and Dario Fo, pledged to support creative innovation and high ensemble standards with their names and reputations. They are no longer recognized as representatives of the independent theatre today, and for good reason—they are now a member of a new group within the European theater and have chosen to pursue separate creative paths. The working conditions of individual independent groups or independent shows, on the national as well as the European level, are no longer comparable since new hierarchies have now been developed in the independent theatre sector as well[3], [4].

However, compared to the 1960s and 1970s, the independent theater movement now has a substantially greater worldwide network and relationship with repertory theaters. Such types of collaboration are funded, for instance, in Germany under the program Doppelpass, which is backed by the Federal Cultural Foundation. In the field of independent theatre, there is also a very vibrant international festival scene. Only a few autonomous organizations, nevertheless, are actively participating in these two processes. Additionally, a system of groups and organizations that are active on a worldwide scale and work on behalf of independent theater has existed for a very long time. The impact of US-American organisations on the independent theatre in Europe now is irrelevant, as opposed to the 1960s and 1970s. One explanation for this might be the fact that independent theaterbut not just independent theatreremains absent from geopolitical hotspots of conflict. Even critics have observed that "the distance of the theatre to society" has grown since the turn of the century. A wide range of hybrid forms have emerged at the intersections of the fine arts and the theater, and the same is true of music and dance. In terms of evolution, the various artistic disciplines have generally approached one another—a development that does not at this time resemble a revolt. Theatrical performances have "risen" to the level of a museum art form in the fine arts. But the day of occurrences and street theater is passed. There are now more formats available.

The repertory theatres' equivocal connection with independent groups or modern independent theater, which began around 1890/96, does seem to be a constant throughout the history of

the independents from the end of the nineteenth century to the present. This wall that separated these two areas of the theater was more porous than it first seemed to be. In reality, this 'rivalry' lasted barely a few years. It was normal for repertory theaters to accept innovations or even imitate what was created in the independent scene, providing it was well received by a broader audience or appeared to fit with the shifting zeitgeist, even if the tendency toward the established stages was always discernible. It is also interesting that directors from independent stages and the independent scene have transitioned to the safer "permanent stages" presumably due to better working circumstances and the ability to maintain some degree of creative integrity. In any event, it is important to recognize that since the 1980s and 1990s, the aesthetics of theater have significantly altered in the latter part of the 20th century. Conceptually, several performances at prestigious repertory theater's rarely diverge from initiatives in the independent sector. This reconciliation process as well as changes to the theater-cultural atmosphere of the "permanent stages" allowed for collaborations between independent groups and repertory theatres. Today, going to the theater is commonplace, much like going to the movies, and this is true not only for the younger generation[5], [6].

Here is a quick recap of the history of the independent stages once more: André Antoine took over the direction of the then-established Théâtre de l'Odeon in Paris, which today is one of the French national theaters. André Antoine was well-known on tours with his ensemble Théâtre Libre shortly after its founding, but he went bankrupt with his theatre in Paris only a few years later. Otto Brahm, who had premiered Gerhart Hauptmann's scandalous drama Before Sunrise at Berlin's FreieBühne in 1889, took over the reins of the city's most prominent private theater in 1896, after the FreieBühne had served its purpose as a forerunner of the contemporary stage. He was allowed to continue and refine his working style with a fantastic team. Additionally, the theatre's financially viable business model allowed a certain level of consistency for his work. Eight years after the Independent Theatre Society's creation, which was first met with such harsh criticism, Jacob Grein was recognized with the highest honors for his contributions to the revival of British theater.

The theater world, from which the former "dropouts" or "rejectionists" withdrew just a few years before, and which had undergone a dramatic shift in its aesthetic direction in only 10 years, had reabsorbed them after less than ten years. At the close of the nineteenth century, individuals like Antoine, Brahm, and Grein set the stage for these transformations and the modernization of theater. A little more than ten years following the theatrical insurrection, between 1960 and 1970, the evolution followed a very similar path. The "political mission" they had in the 1970s seems to have given a significant number of directors who had established their "artistic signatures" in the independent scene jobs as artistic directors and theatre managers of the major state and municipal theaters. Of course, it must not be forgotten that in the 1960s and 1970s, famous repertory theatres employed people in positions that, at least in terms of their objectives and method of expression, scarcely varied from those of the independent theatrical movement. In the majority of European nations, there are instances of theater professionals who have "changed sides." Additionally, many repertory theaters have long since included the erstwhile "alternative" theater locations into their theatrical lineup. The propensity to work on and present "projects" rather than creating plays was a habit common to even the early independent theatre, which was quickly adopted by certain repertory companies. The separate groups' project-oriented work was first driven by social problem-solving research, a kind of critical field study from which a theatrical plan was later constructed, often cooperatively.

Additionally, the motivation behind this method of working has always been experimental or creative. Peter Brook worked on similar initiatives in the early years of the CIRT, often after years of scientific and artistic planning. The earliest of these initiatives was Orghast, which debuted in Iran's Persepolis. It was a test designed to investigate cross-cultural communication using a novel artificial language. Greek and Persian mythology were used as sources, and the project work also incorporated anthropological and neurological research ideas about language as a system of expression. Brook and Charles Marowitz produced Artaud's First Manifesto of the Theatre of Cruelty under the name Theatre of Cruelty with the experimental independent company Lamda in the framework of theatre-aesthetic study half a decade earlier, when they were still in England.

DISCUSSION

A distinct goal was served by the initiatives of the Het Werkteater in Amsterdam. This theater group studied circumstances in jails, nursing and children's homes, and mental hospitals in the 1970s, subjects that the general public had rarely noticed. Based on the study, the group created their theatrical productions. Members of the group's biographical information, experiences, and recollections were also utilized as the foundation for staged scenarios. The initiative of its sort with the most performances was Ut bent mijnMoeder. Because their work is so strongly tied to the legacy of Polish literary and intellectual history, it is imperative to bring up the production works of Jerzy Grotowski in Wroclaw and Tadeusz Kantor in Krakow in connection with artistic project work. Grotowski created text collages from various literary sources with the help of his dramatists, which served as the theatrical plan. Kantor based his ideas on recollections from his own history, his own poetry writings, texts by other writers, and his own original works. Both artistic and academic endeavors, Eugenio Barba's ethno-cultural theater journeys to Southern Italy and Venezuela's Amazon area. What was called "Western" as a staged portrayal and his own conception of theater became highly contested. The Odin Teatret players encountered an audience on these outings that had never seen theater in this way. Similar goals were pursued by Peter Brook's Theatre Safari in Africa, which lasted more than 100 days and about which John Heilpern released an excellent record in 1977.

The Berliner Schaubühne, like ArianeMnouchkine with her revolutionary plays, established standards with its works based on antiquated classics. Luca Ronconi established the Laboratorio di ProgettazioneTeatrale in a former cement factory in Prato, Italy, in 1977 as an experimental site where he and an architect studied the relationships between stage production and the space in the industrial hall of the old cement plant. Ronconi's interpretation of the results of this study was that "the play is the space." All of these "projects" had the unusual quality of having produced new theatrical forms while doing exploratory inquiry, which was how they finally found their creative expression. Dramaturgy now has a specific job on the horizon as well since the dramaturg has evolved into a kind of writer. Nowadays, few widely read classics of international literature remain untouched by the theater. The spreading flexibly of manufacturing processes has undoubtedly aided these working habits[7], [8].

The blurring of the lines between independent theaters and repertory theaters has significant ramifications for the independent theater environment. Nowadays, only a select few autonomous groups or independent collectives are able to create a body of work that is connected with their name and that gives them a notable or even a worldwide reputation. The two German groups Rimini Protokoll, the performance collective She She Pop, the Belgian group Need Company, or the British group Forced Entertainment are good examples of independent collectives that are quite capable of asserting themselves. These groups have

developed an artistically original, distinctive way of working and have focused on a specific format.

Leading repertory theaters in major metropolitan theater hubs provide a wide range of programming at a highly sophisticated level of artistry, which is frequently the responsibility of directors who established their "signature" in the independent scene or on stages that could afford them comparable artistic freedom. The majority of autonomous organizations struggle to exist as an area of creative innovation, much less strive to be avant-garde, due to their continually fragile working circumstances. Additionally, the development of theatre aesthetics as well as the theatre-cultural environment of the repertory theatre have moved in a direction and changed so that many long-established conventions that had distinguished the independent scene from the repertory theatres have been abandoned. This is due to the fact that the established stages have significantly better financial resources and technical facilities. To the benefit of those collectives whose professional working methods and capacity for artistic innovation allow them to collaborate with town or regional state-funded theaters, or who, because of extensive public support from the repertory theatres, are able to compete successfully in the cultural sector's open market, they have simultaneously served to deepen the differences within the independent theatre scene itself. The first German Center of the International Theatre Institute, eight extremely prestigious stages like the Wiener Burgtheater, the Peking Opera, the TheatronTechnis from Athens, the Royal Shakespeare Company from Stratford, England, and the Maxim Gorki Theater from Leningrad, 16 independent groups from around the world, and nine "one-perso" performances were all invited to the Theater der Nationen festival in Hamburg in 1979. The "theatre of the world" was now on display, in all its variety. Additionally, it was the first time that independent professional theater became ingrained in the big international theater's ethos.

Only 15 years had passed since the end of World War II when the independent theatre movement first appeared. This was a sign of a social and artistic upheaval of epochal proportions, the ideological core of which was a concept of freedom that went well beyond the realm of aesthetic perception. The subsequent advances in German "Regietheater" and "Autorentheater" or "theatre of images"have altered not just the creative nature of theater but also how the general public views it, particularly how "permanent stages" are seen. Since it emerged as a self-sufficient, theater-cultural sector that typically supported the political opposition, the independent theater's emergence in post-socialist nations took occurred under extremely different conditions. Independent theater was associated with an experimental, avant-garde theater movement that had thrived in several of these nations throughout the 1920s and up until just before the 1930s.

The theater was far freer to operate in nations like the former Yugoslavia than it was in the nations of the Eastern Bloc. The theatre in all of these nations had been subject to alternating episodes of "political thaws" and strict restrictions by party bureaucrats during "political ice ages," as had been the situation in the whole cultural sector in the decades preceding to the huge upheavals in the 1990s. The connection between independent groups and state theaters, if any such existed, was structured differently in each country, as were the administrative rules that applied to independent theater. This held true both during and immediately after the 1990s upheavals. The primary concern at this time in the post-socialist nations, particularly for the independent scene, was a confrontation with the recent past. In particular, the difficulties associated with adjusting to the Western economic system and the reshaping of culture and daily life offered a plethora of themes for theater, notably independent theatre[9], [10].

In any case, given that repertory theaters are often required to respect national literary and cultural traditions, one would anticipate a closer connection to contemporary events from independent theater in this circumstance than from repertory theaters. Since the eighteenth century, practically all European theatrical cultures have honored this continuity of tradition, which is represented by the concept of a national theater. Unlike traditional stages, this globally focused independent theater regularly hosts festivals where its audience may see theater from various nations and cultures. Particularly in certain post-socialist nations where this "pent-up demand" resulted in an outright festival boom, this fits the public's desire.In contrast to dance theatre and stage dance as it is presented by repertory theatres, the experimental dance scene has mostly dominated this genre. Similar conditions exist in the world of experimental music. Today's avant-garde in these fields is represented by independent worldwide products. The autonomous scene is the region of the theater where, theoretically, a far higher proportion of persons of non-European ancestries operate than is typical at most repertory theaters. These immigrants, who are now considered members of the post-migrant generation, are from different ethnic origins than the majority of the population.

Multiculturalism and internationalism have long been important components of the independent theater movement. Not least of all, the independents' more flexible group and production structures made it easier for artists with educational backgrounds that did not meet the standard standards for employment at a repertory theatre to get work at the theater. Azadeh Sharifi explored the difficulties faced by artists whose ethnic origins don't meet the expectations that the public associated with the part in our study project. We also looked at the link between independent theatre and migration at the European level. Too often, an audience member's perception of the performers' creative performanceespecially as "artists of color"is obscured by their ethnic look. In ways that repertory theaters would not dare to try, independent theater might challenge such assumptions. Azadeh Sharifi's study focuses particularly on post-migrant theater.

The independent theater's position in the national theater scenes of the various post-socialist nations was examined by Andrea Hensel. These nations responded very differently to the changes that led to the dissolution of the former state of Yugoslavia and the collapse of the Soviet confederation of states. She gives a general review of the variety of themes and stylistic approaches used by independent theater in these nations. This is particularly interesting since, prior to the upheavals in the 1990s, more liberal tendencies in communist states were particularly influenced by this area of theater.

The research by Tine Koch is focused on youth and children's theater in Europe. Her research shows that the most innovative conceptual advancements in independent theatre are occurring in the European environment, notably in the field of theatre for very young audiences. The established stages, on the other hand, seldom ever provide this audience with a consistent theater schedule. Despite constant affirmation of children's theater's social value from the governmental perspective, which includes UNESCO, it continues to get inadequate funding. Petra Sabisch's research provides an overview of the connections between experimental dance's production circumstances and aesthetics, as well as its creative orientations, key debate forums, and contemporary theoretical discourses. Independent bands nearly solely create experimental music. Matthias Rebstock provides a summary of this scene, analyses contemporary creative movements, and identifies the key performers.

Henning Fülle explores the structural and cultural-political situation in Western European theatre, concentrating on the new forms of theater that have emerged since the mid-1990s, and discusses the theoretical underpinnings for a new post-modern theatre in the context of a "crisis of modernity." In his analysis of autonomous theater policies in several European

nations, Wolfgang Schneider makes the case that we need to implement a new theater strategy. These studies concentrate on the independent theater's core competencies and its place in the regional theater scenes of several European nations. In-depth study conducted with the assistance of independent scene artists, cultural policy-makers, and scientists, as well as an analysis of the relevant research literature, serve as the foundation for these studies in addition to the author's own viewpoint.

Since the 1980s and 1990s, this region of theater has been increasingly more consolidated, which has had significant structural and aesthetic repercussions for the larger European theatrical culture as well as increased awareness of theater and its experimental edges. Thus, it becomes clear that the theatrical and cultural advances in repertory theaters and independent theater have grown more similar. With its themes, networks that extend beyond national theatrical traditions, and experiments with new, more adaptable production structures, independent theater, however, more sharply portrays the social complexity and change in European countries. It continues to be a unique socio-critical platform in line with its tradition. Because of its still heavily nurtured orientation toward the national and European literary traditions, it is more receptive to other, non-European cultures than the repertory theatre may be. Independent theater is by definition a worldwide network of emerging artists. This binds together a perceived antagonism, or at the very least disquiet, to the true system of values in European cultures, which has sometimes been distorted by political pragmatism, across national boundaries. In accordance with the guidelines related with the awarding of the Balzan Prize to me in 2010, the generous support of the Fondazione Internazionale Balzan made this research effort and this publication feasible. The German Centre of the International Theatre Institute, the Universities of Leipzig, Hildesheim, and the Freie Universität Berlin worked closely together to undertake this research project, whose objectives and methods are described in a supplementary preface.

CONCLUSION

It has changed from being a countercultural movement to include a wide range of creative manifestations that often question norms and elicit thinking. The movement's flexibility is shown by its capacity to adjust to social shifts, collaborate internationally, and experiment with novel forms. Nevertheless, difficulties continue. Funding is a crucial problem, especially in these periods of uncertain economic times. With a reliance on project-based financing and sporadic subsidies, independent theatrical organizations usually negotiate a difficult financial terrain. This turbulence makes long-term planning and creative exploration difficult. Additionally, there has been a change in how independent and repertory theater's interact. Directors and artists have crossed across between both domains, blurring the lines and enhancing both. While this interaction has encouraged creative creativity, it has also helped certain independent voices become more popular, which may have diluted their individuality.

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CHAPTER 4 CULTURAL DIVERSITY, LABOR LAW MODERNIZATION AND THE STATUS OF ARTISTS IN EUROPE

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ABSTRACT:

This study delves into a crucial period in the European cultural and labor landscape, spanning from 2001 to 2006, marked by significant developments in international cultural policies and labor law. During this time, UNESCO adopted the Universal Declaration of Cultural Diversity in 2001 and the Convention for the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expression in 2005. These initiatives underscored the intrinsic value of cultural activities and their contribution to societal well-being, emphasizing the need to safeguard them beyond their economic dimensions. The Convention further articulated the role of cultural diversity in fostering peace, security, and social cohesion in a rapidly globalizing world. It called for member states to ensure the free flow of ideas and creative works across borders, emphasizing international cooperation as a cornerstone of cultural preservation.In response to the challenges posed by globalization and the evolving nature of work, the European Community issued the Green Paper in 2006, advocating for the modernization of labor law to meet the demands of the 21st century. Under the banner of "flexicurity," this report stressed the importance of striking a balance between workplace flexibility and social security. It recognized the imperative of creating inclusive and innovative policies that empower workers to navigate transitions and seize opportunities amidst ongoing economic and technological changes.

KEYWORDS:

Artists, Cultural diversity, Europe, Labor law, Modernization, Status.

INTRODUCTION

The 1975 book Der Künstler-Report by Karla Fohrbeck and Andreas Johannes Wiesand is the first known in-depth, method-bundling study that looks at both the interdependencies typical of artists' working conditions at the time as well as the self-conception of artists in the Federal Republic of Germany. Their primary focus is on the social and economic condition, sometimes known as "the legal and market situation," with a focus on independent contractors and freelancers. The following professions are used in this report to describe the professional scope of a dancer and/or a member of a ballet ensemble: "dancer, ballet dancer, ballet stage manager, ballet master/mistress, ballet director/choreographer, artistic director for ballet, dance educator." These are the professional duties carried out by this occupation group: "Dancers interpret the content and form of ballet music and/or musical dances through the design of dance roles; in this capacity, they also contribute to the scenic design of opera, operetta, or musical performances; in some cases, they present and/or perform ballroom dances."

Among the possible areas of action are classical ballet, jazz dance, freestyle dance, and Ausdruckstanz. Choreographers create, plan, and/or work on creative dances and the staged presentations of them; ballet masters and assistants, dance educators, etc., concentrate their work primarily on tasks of an instructional/scholastic, planning-oriented, and organizational

character. Ballet dancers' work is broken down into training, rehearsing, and performance activities. Four hours of training each day is typical, as well as other activities like background dancing in opera and operetta. Dancers' demanding tasks and the stress they experience are usually underappreciated. The following self-description of artistic practices, written in 2001, can be used to illustrate how the characteristics of the choreographic, dance, and performance profession in the independent sector have changed significantly since this 1975 description: Such a list of terminology not only exemplifies the variety of disciplines and methodologies we use, but it also illustrates the difficulties in defining or prescribing such diverse and ever-evolving performance forms. The desire of cultural institutions and the art market to set and categorize contemporary art practices is often at odds with the fluid and migratory character of much of our work, as well as with its requirements, now more than ever.In terms of innovation, risk, hybridity, audience development, social inclusion, participation, new cultural discourses, and cultural diversity and difference, our practices are equivalent to financing priorities. In order to play with the cultural and social factors that shape us and to forge new cultural landscapes, they provide new languages, express new forms of subjectivation, and communicate ideas. We discuss matters pertaining to ethnic diversity[1], [2].

We see disciplinary, category, and national boundaries as fluid, dynamic, and osmotic. We create work that crosses national boundaries, forges alliances, networks, and collaborations, and actively engages with the local, European, and global settings.4 The significance of the document's source, the Manifesto for a European Performance Policy, a statement addressed to the European Commission and their cultural-political representatives, is why I have cited this extensive list of modern practices unique to the field of performance art and dance here. This document was published in 2002. The manifesto was drafted and afterwards signed by many European artists as a result of an effort by Jérôme Bel, Maria La Ribot, Xavier Le Roy, and Christophe Wavelet to host a self-organized gathering of artists from October 13–18, 2001 at Tanzquartier Wien.5 As the text's title implies, significant changes in these professions' characteristics can be linked to the qualitative changes the field is undergoing, the concurrent expansion and transformation of each individual area of activity, and - most importantly - the internationalization of relationships in the performing arts, particularly those related to dance and choreography.

The institution of ballet, which seems, if one accepts the socio-empirical data, to have been greatly influential in shaping the profession in Germany in 1975, can no longer and in no shape or form be equated with the core benchmark that this artist-written, future-oriented self-description endeavors to set in the modern world. In fact, a variety of other modern and worldwide activities are at the core of today's creative self-conception. The methods mentioned include 'innovation' and 'risk', 'hybrid' forms, audience involvement and audience development, and the establishment of new discourses. Participation, social cohesiveness, variety on a new scale, and the production of labor also stand out as clear characteristics of modern activities. But the desire expressed in the document's opening to have autonomy over production resources and to have a say in choices about the openly established standards for and the granting of financing grants is of utmost significance. Contemporary performance artists are becoming more and more interested with having the freedom to choose their own methods of production. They actively participate in decisions influencing cultural policy as citizens. Their requests emphasize policy openness above all else and urge that it take into account the wide variety of artistic creation today[3], [4].

In addition to new social status that would recognize new work conceptions that have changed the divide between supposedly "productive" and "non-productive" times, we are

pushing for creative artistic frameworks. We want acknowledgment for all of our professional creative endeavors, even those that won't be seen for a while but will give voice to ideas that haven't yet found words. The quality of the social effect of creative activity, which is at the center of any democratic culture policy, will be enhanced and contributed to by this greater understanding of the social position of the artist. We want the European Community to actively support artists in research, development, and the ongoing process of their practices, in equal measure to the generation and placement of new works, recognize and enhance the relationships between and across innovative contemporary practices, and facilitate strategies for cross-disciplinary dialogues, collaborations, and The Artist Report, a document of an engaged, thorough empirical study with recommendations for action, and The Manifesto for a European Performance Policy, an artist-initiated appeal voiced by a number of engaged European performing artists, are placed side by side, the question of what has actually changed over the thirty years or forty years that have passed between them arises. Which structural alterations have been made with regard to a European performance status, creative cultural politics and the funding of the arts, and ultimately with regard to participation in important decision-making processes?

The study in front of you aims to answer this question by first analyzing the situation of independent artists in the field of European dance and performance art, and then by setting that analysis against a backdrop of significant locations where research and cultural politics have been organized over the past 20 years. Such an evaluation can only be understood, as this study's title attempts to articulate, as an initial contribution to the consolidation of European research studies emerging from dance- and performance-specific viewpoints, as there has not yet been any systematic, European investigation of the reality of the artistic working life of freelance dancers, choreographers, and performance artists. But given the artist's current circumstances, it felt essential to me that I make this endeavor, which I hope may contribute to future conversations despite inevitable gaps. In general, my assessment makes an effort to consider the most current research literature in particular. The first section of this piece undoubtedly represents my own field of experience as a freelance choreographer and philosopher who has, for the most part, spent extended periods of time in France and Germany, even if one of my priorities was to integrate diverse viewpoints from many nations. This fact, which I've stated in an effort to frame my perspective honestly, stems from the need I had to offer concrete examples to illustrate important debate points and troubling situations in certain locales[5], [6].

The primary topic of this study, as seen above, will be developed and refined in a subsequent stage that involves critical engagement with the state of research at the time and an assessment of the circumstances of artists working in the fields of dance, choreography, and performance with an emphasis on structural and aesthetic changes. Permit me to guess what this question will ask: How does independent, international, experimental, and contemporary dance display the intricate interaction between creative output, work styles, and aesthetics? How does it appear? The background against which this question is posed is the perplexing fact that, from the perspective of an art practice geared to the production of meaning, most studies break the irreducible interaction of these three fields down into mono-disciplinary islands. This fact is clearly reflected in the research literature and reduces the creative process to a dissociated aesthetic sector. Instead of an investigation of the emotive relationships between the particular entwining of situations, techniques, and aesthetics, we are left with a total of separate pieces. A methodologically induced reduction of the agency of the aesthetic dispositive to the 'pure' realm of artistic representation is one effect of this category-specific approach.

In contrast, this research looks for possibilities to analyze this interaction in greater detail. To this purpose, it investigates the concept that material conditions, resources, and procedures not only have an impact on but also contribute to the formation of aesthetic representational forms of art. As a result, an aesthetic, here defined as the fusion of perception and representation, might either be a direct intervention into existing conditions or a suggestion for their reorganization. We can only enable previously unknown forms of interaction between creative, social, and economic systems to enter our field of view if we have a similar notion in our toolkit. The third will discuss the "practice" as the subject of the study, its terminological and methodological ramifications, and the specific procedure of this study, which is intrinsically based on qualitative interviews conducted within the context of this study in addition to document analysis and statistics on the internationality of the practices discussed.

This study's second section addresses the issue of relational conditions of affectivity through a detailed examination of five chosen practices, or case studies, that are representative of the boundaries of our study's field of inquiry, which includes international, experimental, contemporary, discourse- and context-generating, and artist-initiated practices. The complexity of these affective relationships will thus be revealed through the use of examples including Special Issue in France and later throughout Europe, the In-Presentable festival in Madrid, the Double Lecture Series in Stockholm, the Performing Arts Forum in France, and the sommerbar in Berlin.

DISCUSSION

When we think about the difference between professional independent dance and choreography practices from 1975 to the present, we see that a variety of European conventions have been established, cultural-political studies have been commissioned, and cultural-political recommendations for actions and responses have emerged, not to mention a variety of scholarly problematizations about the general The discipline of dance, choreography, and performance in the European region has been affected by a number of significant studies and data gathering initiatives, which will be briefly discussed in this quick summary of the present research.

The extensive recommendations made by UNESCO in its Recommendation about the Status of the Artist, approved in 1980, stand out among all the worldwide studies on the general status of the artist in society. It acknowledged the arts as an essential part of daily life in society, whose freedom of expression should be promoted together with the creation of the practical circumstances necessary to support creative endeavors. I'll recall a few of these many requests, which acknowledged the uniqueness of creative activities and called for modifications to the laws now governing workers' rights:

"Recognizing that every artist is entitled to benefit effectively from the social security and insurance provisions contained in the Basic Act, Recognizing that every artist is entitled to benefit effectively from the social security and insurance provisions contained in the Basic Act, Recognizing that it is necessary and appropriate for governments to help create and sustain not only a climate encouraging freedom of artistic expression but also the material conditions facilitating the release of this creative talent, Recognizing also that the standing of the artist is influenced by the cultural, technical, economic, social, and political development of society and that it is thus necessary to reassess his status in light of global social progress, Affirming the artist's right to be treated, if he so chooses, as a person actively engaged in cultural work and, as a result, to benefit from all the legal, social, and economic

advantages associated with the status of workers, while taking into account the specific "conditions" of his artistic profession,

Further reiterating the need to enhance the social security, employment, and tax circumstances for artists, whether they are employed or self-employed, while taking into consideration their contribution to cultural growth. Recognizing the significance of preserving and fostering cultural identity, which is widely understood on a national and international level. These recommendations were put forth by the General Conference with an appeal that they be distributed to all authorities, institutions, and organizations in member states whose resources and circumstances allowed for the adoption of actions aimed at enhancing the status of artists and encouraging participation in cultural life and cultural development[7], [8].

Despite the fact that the UNESCO recommendations were formally adopted by 55 member countries by 2011 and that they resulted in data collection programs in many of those countries' individual states as well as in distinctive improvements in social-security law, many of the recommendations, such as the qualitative improvement of the artist's occupational situation or the participation of artists in decision-making processes affecting their field, have not been fully implemented. Following a working meeting in 1997 at Kerguéhennec were about. Fifty dancers, choreographers, and researchers from the association Signataires du 20 août joined forces and addressed an open letter to the French Ministry of Cultural Affairs in Dominique Wallon's name, who was the DMDTS's director at the time, criticizing the country's implemented cultural policies. This letter criticized the institutional practices of French cultural policy with regard to dance, highlighting its "choreographic nepotism," its "sclerotic" rigidity, its ever-more dubious notions regarding artistic works, and above all, its structurally, frequently non-participatory approach to affected choreographic artists when it comes to discussions surrounding the working conditions in their own professional fields. It was also emphasized how unfairly money were distributed between dance and theater, as well as how dance was being incorporated into theater.

What can be done when the logic of institutional structures and the logic of creative activities diverge in more opposite directions? was the central question, and the following was the responseIf the democratic state and its elected officials are accountable for choosing both functionaries and those in charge of making structural decisions, then the profession is accountable for debating the content of those officials' individual projects." In truth, the profession is sufficiently organized, has access to enough knowledge, and is self-aware enough for such divergent conversations to occur. How can one accept a kind of legitimacy that depends only on political or communicative knowledge rather than contemporary dancers' adherence to an aesthetic and political project? Why are possibilities for contentrelated discussion so severely lacking in the French dance community? The open letter by Les Signitaires du août gave voices calling for a participatory democratization of the field and challenging the legitimacy of purely political, non-content-motivated, and non-competencyoriented decision-making processes affecting the field's evolution a platform, using different words than the Manifesto for a European Performance Policy, which it preceded by more than a year.

The Universal Declaration of Cultural Diversity was endorsed by UNESCO in 2001, and it was supplemented by the legally binding Convention for the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expression in 2005. These two focused on the crucial concerns of cultural diversity, cultural and natural heritage, movable intellectual property, and modern forms of creative expression. It turned out that the principles and definitions that held that cultural works should not be viewed as purely economic goodsin contrast to the World Trade Organization agreement on the liberalization of the markets, which makes no distinction between everyday goods and artistic activitieswere quite important to issues of art and culture[9], [10].

Being persuaded that cultural activities, goods, and services "have both an economic and a cultural nature, because they convey identities, values, and meanings, and must therefore not be treated as solely having commercial value," is another novel aspect of the convention text. This is in addition to the significance it accords to those individuals who advance c Additionally, it was decided that member states should be in charge of ensuring the "free flow of ideas and works" in a period of globalization. This decision made it clear that international accords and collaboration are essential and deserving of support. This request for an international dimension was fulfilled on the European level with a variety of actions. The European Community Commission published the Green Paper: Modernizing Labor Law to Meet the Challenges of the 21st Century in 2006. This paper, which is titled "Flexicurity," identifies the urgent need for innovations and reforms to policies that are supportive, inclusive, and dialogically responsive and emphasizes the need of combining flexibility with social security:

European labor markets must be both more inclusive and responsive to innovation and change in the context of globalization, continuous restructuring, and the shift to a knowledgebased economy. Potentially susceptible employees need a ladder of opportunity in order to increase their mobility and make successful transfers to the labor market. Legal structures upholding the traditional employment relationship cannot provide regular permanent employees enough leeway or motivation to look into possibilities for more flexibility at work. Three key issuesflexibility, job security, and segmentationmust be addressed by labor markets if innovation and change are to be effectively handled. The goal of this Green Paper is to stimulate discussion on whether a more flexible regulatory framework is necessary to enhance employees' ability to foresee and manage change, whether they are employed under standard or non-standard temporary contracts. The European Parliament-commissioned research The Status of Artists in Europe, which was released in 2006, is crucial for understanding the living and working situations of artists. The paper's main argument is that, despite being a "considerable share of Europe's labor force," artists do not have adequate assurances for their social and economic security, much alone the opportunity to participate in the processes that go along with it:

Despite having thriving marketplaces, the cultural and creative industries often have far more unstable working conditions than other jobs. The main characteristics that are not taken into account by the current legal, social security, and tax systems include atypical and informal work, irregular and unpredictable revenue, unpaid research and development stages, rapid physical wear and tear, and high levels of mobility. The Status of Artists in Europe examines current parameters and envisions "innovative national measures" geared toward improving artists' circumstances with regard to their "individual working and contract relations; professional representation; social security; taxation; and aspects of transnational mobility" in a context marked by the "diminishing role of the State" and the "globalization of market economies" along with extensive privatizations.

The Status of Artists in Europe examines the actual situations of artists with considerable knowledge and objectivity, but de facto concludes, based on the outcomes of scenarios it creates as discussion tools, that the European Parliament's recommendation to enact a comprehensive artists' statute in the form of an EU directive should be rejected on the

following grounds: "This investigation deemed the proposal somewhat unrealistic," due to the following reasons:

The study also suggests that the current status quo, which includes unusually precarious working conditions within a "project economy" with structural insecurity, cannot be maintained and calls for a new resolution of the European Parliament as well as a practical set of measures. Given the current state of research, a few basic observations are required here: although a certain number of statistics are generally known to exist at this time based on data collected from all over Europe, one is frequently met with an abyss when looking for comparative material on the past, which makes the long-term, meaningful analysis of socioeconomic developments in artistic occupations relatively impossible.

A continual European monitoring that is consistent with a distinct and understandable division into certain professions, or occupational sectors, must also be mentioned. Since dance in Europe is voluntarily assigned to the occupational group "performance" and frequently, on a national level, to the "performing arts," the inconsistently handled classifications of occupational groups firstly prevent the formulation of precise socioeconomic statements about dance in Europe. One can easily see severe distortions in the portrayal of both sectors as a consequence of nation-specific research and empirical values that face, for instance, differences in gender differentiation between dance and theatre, or degrees of internationalization and mobility.

Although it is noteworthy that the expansion of dance practices and the celebratory nature of festivals and fairs seem out of step with narrow typo-ontological delimitations, this is undoubtedly the fault of the economic perspective, from which most classifications are derived. The absurdity of the various classification schemes is made clear when looking at the more restricted field of actual artistic production. For instance, the 2007 "harmonised system" codes classify the sale of bells as part of the domain B, Performance and Celebration, as well as any sale of Christmas decorations. There has been a need for years for an even roughly suitable differentiation between, first, artistic agents and their more broadly culturally associated activities, and, second, between dance and theatre or dance and music. This makes the actual artistic activities de facto invisible but also with the aesthetic freedom of artistic alliances. The stark differences between dance and theatre in terms of resource endowment are invisible as a result of this absence of distinction, or, to put it another way, as a result of dance's inclusion under the umbrella of theatre. This becomes especially clear when one considers the fact that Germany has only a small number of publicly funded theaters that more or less exclusively present dance, performance, and international guest performances while not showcasing a single company. Contrast this with the 140 municipal and state theaters supported by the public hand, which often feel under no need, not even by a proportion, to promote or present independent dance. This should be more clearly stated in each theatre's budget.

In comparison, France has 18 choreographic centers in addition to the Centre National de la Danse. Dance still lacks the ability to establish a relation of equality, and no longer one of dependence - however well-intentioned the latter may be - vis-à-vis the other arts, according to a 2004 report on the future of the "spectacle vivant." In light of my point regarding specialized venues for dance, one can in fact question whether there is any recognition of the auteur in Germany.Regarding the general situation of artists in terms of gender differentiation, I'll mention the two-phase study by Reine Prat, commissioned by the French Ministry of Culture, which looks at the implementation of the constitutionally anchored equality between genders in the arts in France between 2006 and 2009 and yields unsettling findings. The gender-differentiating assessments of social security, income, and involvement in leadership positions nevertheless seem catastrophic with regard to Germany.

CONCLUSION

The European Parliament commissioned a thorough research in 2006 called The Status of Artists in Europe that provided insightful information on the living and working circumstances of artists all throughout the continent. Despite making up a significant fraction of the workforce in Europe, the survey found that artists often struggle with unstable employment, inconsistent income, and insufficient social and economic security. It required creative national policies to improve a range of professional elements of artists' life, such as employment contracts, professional representation, social security, taxes, and global mobility. Despite the thorough research offered by this study, it came to the conclusion that establishing an extensive artists' law via an EU regulation was an unattainable objective. The complexity of the arts industries and the availability of distinct approaches in different member states posed significant difficulties. Instead, a practical set of solutions to address the urgent problems faced by artists throughout Europe were suggested by the research. This time period also emphasized the difficulty in doing a thorough analysis of the socioeconomic circumstances of artists due to the lack of comparable historical data and uniform categorization. The research focused on the need for clearer distinctions between creative jobs and related tasks. Additionally, it emphasized the need to distinguish dance from theater as a unique art form and brought attention to worrying gaps in pay and gender representation in the arts industry.

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CHAPTER 5 MIDDLE ENGLISH DRAMATIC REPRESENTATIONS MIRACLE PLAYS

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ABSTRACT:

Middle English miracle plays represent a fascinating and pivotal aspect of medieval European drama. These dramatic representations, performed in the late Middle Ages, played a crucial role in the religious and cultural life of the time. Miracle plays were characterized by their depictions of biblical stories, the lives of saints, and other religious themes. This abstract explores the nature and significance of Middle English miracle plays, delving into their historical context, dramatic elements, and societal impact. Middle English miracle plays emerged in a period when the Church was a dominant cultural and religious authority, and these plays served as powerful tools for conveying religious messages to the masses. They were typically performed during religious festivals, providing both entertainment and religious instruction. The plays often featured vivid characters, including biblical figures and allegorical representations of virtues and vices. Through these characters and narratives, miracle plays conveyed moral lessons, encouraged piety, and reinforced religious doctrine. This abstract also discusses the unique characteristics of miracle plays, such as their use of vernacular Middle English, which made them accessible to a broader audience than Latin church texts.

KEYWORDS:

Allegory, Biblical Stories, Characters, Christianity, Costumes, Devotion, Divine Intervention.

INTRODUCTION

Differentiation is important when discussing the cultural labor market. The branches and legal frameworks, educational programs, and job situations are too diverse for there to be a cultural labor market per se. To demonstrate that the cultural labor market is more than simply a la-bour market for artists is one of the project's key goals. Such a strategy would not lessen the importance that artists have for this industry; on the contrary, they are its prerequisite. Without artists, no new performances, recordings, or interpretations would be conceivable; no modern works would be produced. The cultural labor market is centered on artists; all other circles develop around their creations and labor. Thus, one of the main goals of this book is to draw a distinction between those who engage in creative labor and those who pursue careers in the arts and those who teach, share, market, and circulate art. The research in front of you strongly emphasizes the critical significance of this difference, particularly for making it possible to examine structural shifts and reallocations among the disciplines of art production, art communication, cultural education, and other cultural employment milieux.

As evidenced, for instance, in the 2005 Dutch right-wing cultural-political report art critic Claire Bishop calls attention to this constant non-differentiation and the accompanying, more or less practiced indifference towards artistic practices within a generalized concept that lumps together culture, entertainment, and creativity. We discover that the writers of this study do not distinguish between the "creative industry," the "culture industry," "art," and

"entertainment," as Bishop puts it[1], [2].In this sense, the 2002 innovative Europe Report, which outlines European government initiatives and cooperation models for the backing of innovative ideas, should also be treated with skepticism. The study does recognise the 'atypical' working circumstances in the arts, and it takes into account the possibility of passing special laws to address them. The focus is instead on the management of the so-called creative industry, despite the fact that all involved "voices from the field" have questioned whether the general labor market actually benefits from art production. The estimated financial losses in the tourism and gastronomy industries have also made it abundantly clear how serious it is for artists to not participate in this "supply chain." Open structures and autonomous landscapes for art and culture, as well as the chance for specialized worker codetermination and participationall of which are necessary for any democratic societyare being overridden and disappearing into a potpourri of innovative, market-compatible ideas[3], [4].

What emerges here is a problematic blurring of art and creativity: two overlapping terms that not only have different demographic connotations but also distinct discourses con- cerning their complexity, instrumentalization, and accessibility,' writes Bishop of the ideology underlying the "discourse of creativity" as an extraction of art's genuine tasks, such as critique and the unfurling of ambivalences. Although nowadays this goes to business rather than to Beuys, the elite practice of art is democratized via the rhetoric of creation. Artists who use dehierarchizing language in their initiatives to encourage creativity wind up sounding exactly like government cultural policy that focuses on the dual goals of social inclusion and creative cities. However, the quantitative requirements of positivist economics cannot be reconciled with the critical negation and capacity for contradiction inherent in creative work. The activities of the German Cultural Council, which take the form of numerous critical and politicized papers, in a bibliography developed by the German Cultural Council, are among additional examples of critical and active advocacy for the improvement of the situation of the artist.

A few professional groups that are still relatively new to Germany, like the DachverbandTanz Deutschland and the Performing Arts in Flanders, have also taken steps and made comments that are noteworthy. It offers a selection of financed artists, profiles intermediate organizations, offers interviews, and provides educational and training options. Metamorphoses: Performing Arts in Flanders since 1993, research by Joris Janssens and Dries Moreels, examines changes in the field's quality over the last 20 years. Yearbook of the Independent Performing Arts Scene, a significant two-part publication for Serbia, was funded by the Belgrade Cultural Secretariat and published by TKH/Walking Theory in 2008 and 2009. It honors Serbia's independent performing arts scene, recognizing it as a central protagonist in the Serbian cultural landscape, and uses critical thematic reports and an index of chosen productions to discuss working conditions and issues. It also aids in the portrayal of developments in this sector and the systematization of data[5], [6].

The international performing arts journals Frakcija and Maska, published in Zagreb and Ljubljana, respectively, both of which have been published bilingually for years, provide an excellent overview of current discussions and changes taking place around the world in the fields of dance, theater, and performance. Reading Andrew Hewitt's 2005 book Social Choreography, which he defines as the performance of ideology through dance, or Laurence Louppe's second volume of Poétique de la dansecontemporaine, which discusses the production techniques appropriate to the "new tendencies" in contemporary dance since the 1990s, or BojanaCveji and Ana Vujanovi's 2010 discussion of the draining effects of immaterial labor in the performing arts, can provide insight into the situation of dancers and choreographers. Although there is a notable French school of art sociology, there is currently

no recognized dance sociology. While showing the potential of artistic research as a self-sufficient, theory-generating alternative to what Husemann criticized in 2009 as a "typically praxis-shunning academic discourse," a few recent approaches to research, frequently inspired by the choreographer Xavier Le Roy, are paving the way towards critical engagement with the specific circumstances of artistic production.

Analysis and Definition of the Issue

The particularly precarious circumstances that span a wide institutional field of European conventions, national and federal legislation, cultural quirks, cultural-political institutions, curators and coproducers, funding programs, venues, scholarship, press and medial documentation, education, autodidactic learning, and a host of other factors are brought into stark relief by this succinct look at the situation of those working in professional independent dance, choreography, and performance. The dangerous status of artists' life has not only been recognized for years, but it has also, if one were to examine income growth in Germany during the 1970s, even become dreadfully worse despite any attempts to do the contrary[7], [8].

"The situation with regard to income levels has drastically deteriorated, and this has happened despite public funding being multiplied by many times." When it comes to the maintenance of the theatre-scape, a property that is listed as a UNESCO World Heritage property, where are the more than 2.5 million euros that German taxpayers contribute each year trickling down to? Why do we pay for a system that treats society with such disrespect, a system that is molded by self-exploitation and characterized by it, a system that is advocated by proponents of the "art of living" even though its living standards render it unworthy? a system where politicians gush on and on about the creative possibilities of our society, yet their day-to-day activities appear to trample artists' rights? Despite these constitutionally mandated protections, there has long been a significant gender gap in leadership roles in dance and the arts, particularly in Germany. By now, we could be blunt: The facts are obvious, yet nothing has occurred for years.

Fundamental questions about the effectiveness and political will of policymakers and politicians as well as the concomitant urgent need for inspection and review of competencies and standards for artists arise in light of this disastrous socio-economic inventory and the very real failure of adequate protective measures safeguarding art and culture. These measures would actually, structurally, and sustainably improve the situation of the artist in society while encouraging artists' development. This seems even more advisable in light of the fact that even legally adopted measures, such as the German Artists' Social Welfare Fund or regarding desperately needed safeguards protecting artistic products from the planned free trade agreement with the United States, are, in fact, routinely questioned regarding a lack of effectiveness in their practical implementation. Currently, the KSK is dealing with such a circumstance. Simply put, the German Federal Pension Fund is not fulfilling its responsibilities to periodically assess companies for whose payment into the fund may be required. However, the transatlantic free-trade agreement (TTIP) between Europe and the USA, which is currently in its fifth round of secret negotiations, also raises serious concerns because it could lift protections for artistic products and expose them to being classified as commodities. The 'foundations of democracy' are in jeopardy, according to the Deutscher Kulturrat, if elected national caucuses are still excluded from what is referred to as a no small free-trade agreement and if businesses can later sue the government over decisions that endanger their own profit margin[9], [10].

How should one view a constitutional state when certain legislation is enacted without opposition and others are rejected? How is it possible that artists who contribute to unemployment insurance have no right to services? How is it possible that in Europe, one's professional advancement and means of maintaining one's existence in the independent dance, choreography, and performance fields are so heavily dependent on the transient legislative cycles of national politics? And how can a situation exist when companies, rather than democratic processes, decide how art and culture will flourish in the future (as per TTIP)?Randy Martin, Professor of Art and Public Policy and Associate Dean at the New York Tisch School of the Arts, summarized the present link between dance and politics at the aforementioned conference Dance, Politics and Co-Immunity as follows: "Politics now suffers from a crisis of appraisal.

What, therefore, may be the cause of policymakers' and politicians' inadequate adherence to their mandates and obligations with relation to art and culture? The fact that valid democratic discussions seldom turn out to be the deciding factor in a process of streamlining should not be seen in any way as a criticism of such debates. However, if democracy is to be continuously invoked as an excuse for failing to adhere to binding agreements or laws, then we must urgently address the question raised by the Signataires du 20 about in their call for a review of all intermediary organizations' modes of operation: To put it another way, if contemporary dance's mode of functioning is the problem rather than its creation process, then why is it failing?

One can only speculate about the result at this point, and it is also necessary to leave open the possibility of a linkage with that "rigidity" that is especially identifiable in the cultural labor market. The same rigidity that the DeutscherKulturrat has noted, particularly in public cultural organizations, and which contrasts sharply with the mold that is forced upon artists: constant adaptability. In a similar vein, Therese Kaufmann and Gerald Raunig of the European Institute for Progressive Cultural Policies criticize the regressive tendency of European cultural policies towards 'institutionalization', or towards the predominance of institutional support, and they counterpose this tendency with their own attempt to create European cultural policies with clear perspectives for the future. However, while the aforementioned types of concrete cultural initiatives are founded on principles of temporality and change, the corresponding cultural policies appear to be focusing more on the opposite, namely, by tending, regressively, to support institutions and institutionalize initiatives, to stop movement.

Although 1968 was sometimes misunderstood as a pivotal year in politics, in terms of popular support for cultural nonprofit organizations as opposed to large state institutions, developments since then have mostly been superficial. The research you are about to read seeks to go forward utilizing the information learned from this implementation fiasco without making any further attempts to update the evidence in a case of established facts. It does not seek to be a follow-up correction for bad policies; rather, it seeks to carry out a duty by expressing concerns and assessing shortfalls that should be carried out by the policymakers themselves, and even in this role, to go unnoticed. Instead, it seeks to examine creative approaches to dance and choreography that, in spite of a blatant predicament, have advocated for a content-focused advancement of the discipline. Observing structural and aesthetic changes, illuminating settings and networks, and delving into the relational elements that make up meaningful activity in the professional world of dance and choreography are all part of these inquiries.

In the process, this research aims to discursively pave the way for an artist-focused professional growth that is capable of actively co-creating its area of expertise. To this

purpose, an effort will also be made to identify and keep an eye on current, real-world issues that are arising in connection with certain interdependencies unique to the creative industries, and to acknowledge these issues as difficulties. Before I describe this specific horizon of research in more detail, I should first briefly explain the context for my choice of this particular subject and then highlight what distinguishes this study, keeping in mind the resources at my disposal. I mentioned the tension-filled relationships that artists move in at the beginning of this, but what truly catches the eye is the intricate complexity and wide range of relationship characteristics and forms.

Dance's concretization and — I emphasize — its impact on concrete, qualitative transformation for people who engage in it fall woefully short of fully understanding the intricacy of the web of interactions within which it takes place. Even while collecting socioeconomic data is important, an examination of the situation of the labor market today can only include it as one element. Drawing out the deciding criteria is also essential. However, deciding factors shouldn't be confused with production circumstances, because production conditions are incompatible with the existing state of the labor market and the continuous advancement of the profession.

DISCUSSION

Understanding the origins of English theater is crucial to comprehending how the need for dramatic expression manifests itself in human societies. It might also be a fascinating study of how popular imagination functions and teach us about the development of themes and conventions found in later, more sophisticated play and religious ritual were intricately linked in England as they were in the early phases of other civilizations. As a result, the history of English play starts, in its most basic form, with the development of the ecclesiastical liturgy in catechistical dialogues. Such a reciprocal question-and-answer format for oral education made it easier for the average person to comprehend religious beliefs; from the standpoint of enactment, it gave rise to the earliest hints of an emerging dramatic repertory. Thus, it was only natural for two closely related facets of social life to be linked to one another.

The traditions of the Christian church, including its major holidays like Christmas and Easter, as well as the commemoration of key moments in Christ's life, were naturally theatrical. The rituals used to commemorate these events made it easy to dramatize them; this may take the form of anything from straightforward antiphonal singing between the priest and choir to more detailed acting out of scenes by ensembles of actors. These theatrical elaborations of the liturgy, or "tropes," are regarded as the first examples of medieval theater. By virtue of being an active visual medium, the tropes naturally started to acquire popularity. Soon, the original devotional routine of the feast days began to fade into the background. In addition to the choir, which had been playing out the plays up until that point via songs, the development of the plays required the insertion of lesser clerics first, followed by laypeople as performers. Vernacular increasingly took over from Latin as the language of the plays as a result of the necessities of common comprehension. The crowd initially fit in the church's facilities, but after they started coming, the frequency of performances increased, and they soon spread outside the walls of the church and onto the marketplace or a nearby field. The transformation of space was much more than just a physical reality; it also gave rise to plays in English that had nothing to do with liturgical representation in general as liturgical theatre was freed from the confines of the church. They did maintain the appearance of a religious character in terms of their subject matter, but they also started to include folk idioms, minstrel shows, and Old Testament tales as well as Jesus and saints' lives. The Miracle Play was the name given to the 'theatre' of this lime.

Control over these performances was first transferred from the church to the social and religious guilds, and subsequently, under the direction of the Town Council, to the trade guilds. Since these performances took place outside, they had to consider the seasons. As a result, the majority of Miracle cycles were associated with the Corpus Christi feast in May or June. The weather would be ideal and the days would be long at this time of year. The performances were mounted on mobile 'pageants' or carriages with wheels. Chester, with 25 plays, and Wakefield, with 30 plays, had the most significant cycles. Coventry and York both have 42 and 48 plays respectively in their canon. A wagon stage might hardly be considered sophisticated by contemporary standards, but historical evidence reveals that the superstructure and stage features were arranged with significant creativity. It is true to say that both serious and lighthearted theatre, which grew in popularity in England in the 16th and 17th centuries, had their roots in the Miracle play.

Morality Plays: Middle English Dramatic Representations

Another medieval style of theater known as the Morality Play started to appear just as the Miracle plays were reaching their height. It was longer than the earlier one and was structured according to Senecan custom with Acts and Scenes. In this way, the Morality play created a closer link to the theatrical canon of Elizabethan England. Most Morality plays were played out by actors who had received formal training, and many of them were created to be presented for more aristocratic audiences. They are significant because we first see signs of individual authorship and the humanistic fervor of the Renaissance in the Moralities. The Morality Plays further vary from the Miracle Plays in that they primarily personify abstract concepts like Life, Death, Repentance, Goodness, Love, Greed, and other similar virtues and vices rather than dealing with Biblical or even pseudo-Biblical incidents. These human traits are vying for dominance over the human soul.

Therefore, The Moralities may be seen as the dramatic equivalent of the allegorical poetry that was the rule in medieval England. These plays used a lot of modern homiletic approaches since they dealt with topics that were popular among religious speakers. Even though there are allusions to morality plays from the 14th century, their complete development appears to have taken place in the 15th century. The Castle of Preseverance, which was likely composed about 1425, is the first full morality play still in existence. Everyman is the most well-known and, perhaps, the most alluring of the remaining moralities from the 15th century. In this play, the action is constructed using a combination of personified abstractions and simple dignity, both of which are given strong dramatic logic. According to critics, there are certain similarities between the play and a Dutch morality play, and it may as well have been a translation from the original Dutch.

The Intermission

The Interlude is the last phase of this transformation from the Miracle to the genuine drama; it is a sort of morality play that is similarly metaphorical but has more overt realistic and humorous aspects. An Interlude was a kind of short play with genuine people, broad comedy, and staged scenesa distinguishing element of English theater. The Interlude might be seen as a development of the Morality play in this regard. The Four P's, written in doggerel poetry and depicting a lying match between a Pedlar, a Palmer, a Pardoner, and a Potycary, is one of John Heywood's greatest plays and is considered to be the most talented writer of interludes.

If the political, ethical, and religious moralities of the early Tudor era are closely examined, it will become clear that they moved from portraying metaphorical personifications of virtues and vices to the outcomes of specific persons. This is a development in dramatic maturity that is consistent with the Renaissance's emerging humanistic attitude. However, this change did not take place all at once or abruptly. In reality, allegorical, Biblical, and historical morality plays continued to be performed long into the 16th century. Respublica, most likely written by Nicholas Udall, combines traditional religious themes with contemporary political ones. Early English theater was being influenced by classicism at this time, and Udall's play Ralph Roister Doister, written in 1553, is a clear example of this new mix. It introduces the braggart soldier to English theatre and is a reworking of the Roman playwright Plautus' Miles Glorfasits. Shakespeare may have had this custom in mind when he developed the Falstaff character in many of his plays, according to popular belief. GammerGurton's Needle, the next significant piece of this kind, was most likely written by William Stevenson in 1562 and is a home comedy that depicts life in the English peasants. We have what may be termed the methodical beginnings of early modern English play in Whitechapel by John Brayne, which is the earliest entirely English comedy that is brimming with pleasure and humor. However, this effort to build a playhouse specifically for the traveling theatrical companies of Tudor England was short-lived. The old farm was turned into a single gallery, multi-sided theater.

The project was quickly supplanted by Brayne and his brother-in-law, the actor-manager James Burbage in Shoreditch known as The Theatre, who worked together more successfully. The Theatre accepted long-term agreements with companies that were established there, whilst The Red Lion was a welcoming house for travelling groups. The second was a whole new kind of theatrical engagement, while the former was a continuation of the tradition of travelling ensembles playing at inns and great mansions. A stage was placed at one end of the open courtyard in the public theaters, and the audience was exposed to the sky. The stage of the private theaters was lit by candles, jumps, or torches in enclosed spaces. The pit, where the stage was located, was surrounded by three levels of balconies in the playhouses, which were either circular or octagonal in shape. Due to the platform, which included the front or main stage, it was referred to as the "apron stage". Above the top stage, there would be a "gallery" that may be used as a balcony or to represent city walls in the scenario. There were curtains in the gallery that periodically pulled back to create a back or inner stage. The mayor and council had no authority over James Burbage's 1576 construction of London's first "proper" theater since it was situated outside of the city's boundaries.

Richard Farrant soon erected The Curtain, another theater. The Rose, owned by Philip Henslowe, maintained meticulous records of all its costs and revenue sources, which now provide valuable insight into that period. The Globe, which subsequently belonged to Shakespeare and Hemminge, served as a template for many theaters constructed afterwards. Early theaters were prone to fire and were eventually replaced by sturdier buildings. They were typically constructed of wood, lath, and plaster with thatched roofs. When the Fortune burnt down in December 1621, it was rebuilt in brick; when the Globe burned down in June 1613, it was rebuilt with a tile roof. The Theatre and The Curtain were both packed on summer days about 1580, when London's entire theater capacity was over 5000 people. After 1610, the capital's overall theater capacity approached 10,000 thanks to the construction of additional theater venues and the establishment of new companies. The cheapest inhabitants in 1580 might pay a cent to enter the Curtain or the Theatre; in 1640, their equivalents could enter the Globe, the Cockpit, or the Red Bullall for the same price. But at this time, private theater tickets were five or six times more expensive.

Theater and Modern Culture

London's expanding population, rising standard of living, and love of spectacle led to the creation of a dramatic literature that was remarkably diverse, high-caliber, and extensive. Over 600 plays from the Elizabethan era still exist, despite the fact that the majority have been lost. However, becoming a playwright at this time was difficult and not very rewarding.

Normally, writers were paid in little amounts while they wrote, and if their play was chosen, they would also get the money from one day of performances. The plays they authored, however, were not their own. The author had no influence over casting, performances, revisions, or publishing after a play was sold to a company.

According to entries in Philip Henslowe's diary, Henslowe received as little as £6 or £7 each performance in the years just before 1600. Even the greatest seas could not ask for much more, thus this was probably near the bottom end of the spectrum. A writer working alone could often only complete two plays per year; in the 1630s, Richard Brome agreed to furnish the Salisbury Court Theatre with three pieces per year but was unable to keep up with the demand. In a career spanning more than two decades, Shakespeare wrote fewer than 40 solo plays. He was financially successful because he was both an actor and, more crucially, a stakeholder in the theaters and acting company he worked for. Ben Jonson was skilled at playing the patronage game, which was a significant aspect of the social and economic life of the day, and was successful as a seller of Court masques. The lives of early playwrights like George Peele and Robert Greene, as well as later writers like Bromc and Philip Massinger, are characterized by financial insecurity, hardship, and poverty. The majority of plays written during this time period were collaborations, with the exception of Jonson and Shakespeare, who were solo artists who typically avoided teamwork. Playwrights used teams of two, three, four, and even five to overcome the natural limitation on their productivity. Of course, sharing the job meant dividing the cash, but it seems that the arrangement worked well enough to make it worthwhile. According to Henslowe's Diary, a group of four or five writers might complete a play in as little as two weeks.

The nature of the play also started to alter near the conclusion of the era, along with the economics of the profession. The Court witnessed the same plays that the ordinary people saw in the public playhouses throughout Elizabeth's reign, making the theatre under her a cohesive statement of social class. As private theaters grew in popularity, drama began to reflect the preferences and ideals of an upper-class audience more. By the latter half of Charles I's reign, few new plays were being created for the public theaters, which were able to survive on the accumulated productions from earlier decades. However, before we do so, it would be beneficial to take a broad picture of the exceptional dramatic flair of the Elizabethan age.

CONCLUSION

The plays' success and audience engagement were aided by their focus on spectacle, music, and pageantry. Additionally, the presentation of miracle plays included a range of social groups, including clergy and laypeople, promoting a feeling of community and shared religious experience. Finally, Middle English miracle plays have an important role in the development of theatre, religion, and culture. They stand for the dynamic fusion of theatrical skill, religious fervor, and social harmony. We learn more about the medieval mentality and the ways that theatrical representations were used for religious and moral teaching by analyzing their historical context and dramatic elements. Middle English miracle plays, a unique kind of medieval theater, provide important insights into the late Middle Ages' cultural, theological, and dramatic context. These theatrical portrayals, which thrived at a time when the Church had great influence over society, were crucial tools for religious teaching, moral uplift, and fostering a sense of community.

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CHAPTER 6 A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON COLLAPSE OF DRAMA

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ABSTRACT:

The collapse of drama, a phenomenon within the realm of theater and performance arts, represents a multifaceted process marked by shifting paradigms, evolving audience preferences, and changing cultural contexts. This abstract explores the intricate factors contributing to the collapse of drama and its implications for the world of theater. From the emergence of new media and entertainment forms to shifts in societal values and artistic experimentation, the collapse of drama reflects both challenges and opportunities for the theater industry. The abstract delves into key aspects of this collapse, including the decline in traditional theatrical attendance, the impact of digital technologies, and the diversification of storytelling platforms. The advent of streaming services, social media, and virtual reality has transformed how audiences engage with narratives, challenging the traditional boundaries of live theater. Moreover, the abstract examines the role of societal and cultural changes in shaping the theater landscape, exploring themes of inclusivity, representation, and relevance. Despite these challenges, the collapse of drama also opens doors to innovative forms of performance and storytelling.

KEYWORDS:

Adaptation, Audience, Decline, Economic Factors, Entertainment, Film, Modernization.

INTRODUCTION

These young men, who are all connected to Oxford and Cambridge, contributed significantly to the establishment of the Elizabethan school of play. These plays, which were heavily influenced by the Latin playwright Seneca, placed less of an emphasis on chorus songs and the coherence of dramatic discourse. These were less concerned with the action and more concerned with using words to create a dramatic tension; it had an inaccurate use of the monologue, a pitiful and rhetorical chorus, and an exaggerated calamitous occurrence with a horrifying finale. The five-act structure, the tragic spectacle's mechanism, the ghosts' entrance, and the theme's cohesiveness all received attention[1], [2].

The University Wits' traits are as follows:

- 1.A preference for sad or heroic themes that depict the lives of great individuals,
- 2. Rich vocabulary.
- 3. Humor may be lacking or scarce.
- 4. University education; independent writers or court employees.

The university wits were a renowned group of early English playwrights who produced plays of exceptional quality and variety over the last 15 years of the 16th century, revolutionizing the native interlude and chronicle play. Along with Thomas Lodge and George Peele, the university's intellectuals include Christopher Marlowe, Robert Greene, and Thomas Nashe. Thomas Kyd was another genius, but he had no formal education. Together with John Lyly, they paved the path for William Shakespeare. Marlowe, who handled blank verse with the finest poetic dramatist among them, gave the theater its distinctive voice for the next 50 years. Shakespeare's antecedents, rather than his contemporaries, should be seen chronologically as being Thomas Kyd and Christopher Marlowe. Shakespeare improved on what Kyd and Marlowe had already begun[3], [4].

Christopher Marlowe

Christopher Marlowe is known for creating dramatic blank poetry in particular; Marlowe's accomplishments were varied and magnificent for the course of his playwriting career, which was just a little over six years long. He may have authored Tamburlaine the Great before leaving Cambridge. Marlowe almost definitely translated Ovid's Amores and the first book of Lucan's Pharsalia during his later Cambridge years. He also penned the drama Dido, Queen of Carthage about this period. He gained notoriety and praise with the staging of Tathburlaine, and in the few years that followed, playwriting took center stage. Even if the publisher of Tamburlaine left out several portions that he believed were inconsistent with the play's serious concern with history when both halves of the play were published anonymously in 1590, the text that is now available may still be considered to be mostly Marlowe's. Throughout his lifetime, none of his other plays, poetry, or translations were ever published. His incomplete but brilliant work Hero and Leander, which is perhaps the best non-dramatic Elizabethan poetry save those written by Edmund, was published in 1598.

The sequence in which the plays after Tamburlaine were composed is a subject of debate among academics. It is a prevalent belief that Faustus immediately followed Tdniburlaine and that Marlowe subsequently switched to writing The Massacre at Paris and Edward 11 in a more impartial, "social" style. The Jew of Malta, in which he significantly forged new ground, may have been his last play. It is well documented that the Admiral's, a company whose standout performer was Edward Alleyn, who unquestionably portrayed Tamburlaine, Faustus, and Barabas the Jew, presented Tamburlaine, Faustus, and The Jew of Malta.Marlowe's signature "mighty line" established blank verse as the go-to form for both Elizabethan and Jacobean dramatic poetry in the oldest of his plays, the two-part Tamburlaine the Great.

The Tragicall History of Dr. Faustus is Marlowe's most well-known play, yet it has only been preserved in corrupt form, and the play's authorship date has been hotly debated. A new edition debuted in 1616 after its first publication in 1604. With its depiction of a tale of temptation, fall, and damnationas well as its liberal use of moral tropes like the good angel, the wicked angel, the seven deadly sins, and the demons Lucifer and MephistophelesFaustus completely overtakes the dramatic structure of the plays. Marlowe depicts Barabas, a powerhungry Jew who has no qualms about advancing himself in the corrupt Christian society of Malta, in The Famous Tragedy of the Rich Jew of Malta. But compared to Tamburlaine, the greatest conqueror, or Faustus, the lone adventurer against God, this is more deeply ingrained in his civilization[5], [6].

Edward II is the only one of Marlowe's plays whose existing text can be depended on as accurately depicting the author's original, with the exception of Tamburlaine and the lesser work Dido, Queen of Carthage. And Edward II is unquestionably a significant work, not only one of the first Elizabethan plays with an English historical topic. No character in this story is treated lightly, and the relationship between the king, his neglected queen, the king's favorite, Gaveston, and the ambitious Mortimer is examined with a detached sympathy and remarkable understanding. The king's abdication and the brutal murder of Edward also display the same dark and violent imagination as Marlowe's depiction of Faustus' final hour. Although Marlowe's fascination with the misconstrued Elizabethan notion of Machiavelli is

evident in both this play and The Jew and the Massacre, it is Marlowe's profoundly provocative grasp of the nature of calamity, the power of society, and the ghastly amount of an individual's suffering that is most essential.

William Shakespeare

Marlowe was so thoroughly ingested by William Shakespeare that he is not present in Shakespeare. The same may be said of Kyd's impact on him. Shakespeare, who likely came in London in the late 1580s, not only takes inspiration from Kyd and Marlowe but also skillfully avoids their flaws. He had a mid-20s age range. His theatrical career's beginnings are unknown, as are the performing companies for whom he composed his early pieces, which are difficult to date. These plays, which point to a period of apprenticeship, have a stronger resemblance to classical dramatists and writers from London in the 1580s than do his later works. Like any young poet and aspiring playwright, he imitated the achievements of the London stage and learnt a great lot about creating plays. As Shakespeare's first full-length tragedy, Titus Andronicus is a prime example. Thomas Kyd's The Spanish Tragedy, which had enormous popularity in the late 1580s, is largely responsible for the play's topic, structure, and vocabulary. By adapting Seneca's dramaturgythat of the great Stoic philosopher and statesmanto the requirements of a developing new London theater, Kyd had discovered the secret. Shakespeare did not experiment with formal tragedy in his early plays other than Titus Andronicus. In The Two Gentlemen of Verona, however, love and friendship do battle for the divided loyalties of the erring male until Proteus is brought to his senses by his friend's generosity and, most importantly, the two women's steadfast chaste loyalty. Shakespeare would go on to use the theme of the young woman passing for a man in other romantic comedies like The Merchant of Venice, As You Like It, and Twelfth Night. As is typical of Shakespeare, he got the idea for his story from a narrative source, in this case a lengthy Spanish prose romance called the Diana of Jorge de Montemayor [7], [8].

Shakespeare's early comedy The Comedy of Errors is his most traditionally influenced work. Here, he focused especially on the absurd drama Menaechmi by Plautus. With the help of a cunning servant whose twin has also vanished, the tale of one twin searching for his missing sibling leads to a comedy of mistaken identities that critically examines the concepts of identity and self-knowing. Shakespeare uses a numerous plotline strategy in The Taming of the Shrew that would eventually become a hallmark of his love comedies.

The Shakespearean account of English history took place at a period when the country was undergoing a new feeling of power and grappling with its own sense of national identity. She had kept at bay the Roman Catholic powers of the Continent, particularly Philip II of Spain, and, with the aid of a storm at sea, had fought off Philip's attempts to invade her kingdom with the great Spanish Armada of 1588. In England, the nation's victory was universally regarded as a divine deliverance. Queen Elizabeth had brought stability and a relative lack of war to her decades of rule. Shakespeare could draw heavily on the second edition of Holinshed's Chronicles, a valuable resource for his historical playwriting. It, too, rejoiced in England's emergence as a powerful Protestant nation under the leadership of a well-liked and intelligent monk.

Both in terms of its length and the brilliant way it portrays its title character, Richard III is a fantastic drama. On its original title page, much like other early English historical plays, it is referred to as a tragedy. They certainly show us horrible deaths and the instructive descents of great individuals from lofty positions of leadership to obscurity and sorrow. However, in the classical meaning of the word, these plays are not tragedies. They also include a lot of other information, and they particularly conclude on a significant note: the rise to power of the

Tudor dynasty, which would usher in the golden era of Elizabethan England. Shakespeare turned to the late 14th and early 15th centuries and; to the chronicle of Richard II, Henry IV, and Henry's legendary son Henry V after finishing in 1589-94 the tetralogy about Henry VI, Edward IV, and Ricru III, bringing the story down to 1485, and then around 1594-96 a play about John that deals with a chronological period that sets it quite apart from other history plays. This inversion of historical order in the two tetralogies allowed Shakespeare [9], [10].

Richard II is a somber drama about political deadlock that is written entirely in blank verse. With the exception of a humorous moment in which Henry IV, the new king, must decide between the rival claims of the Duke of York and his Duchess, it has practically no humor. History goes on without any sense of a moral necessity. Although Henry IV is a more effective leader, his legitimacy has been tainted by his misdeeds, and it looks that his own revolt has inspired the barons to rise against him as well.Romeo and Juliet, which is rather untypical of the tragedies that would follow, is the only other play that Shakespeare created before 1599 that is categorized as a tragedy, along with the early Titus Andronicus. Romeo and Juliet, which was written at about the same time that Shakespeare was finishing A Midsummer Night's Dream, has many traits in common with romantic comedies. Like Hamlet, Othello, King Lear, and Macbeth, Romeo and Juliet do not have a particularly high social status or position. They are the guy and girl next door, and what makes them intriguing is their enticing love for one another rather than their intellectual views. Because they are not from the upper class, they are character types more suited to classical humor. Their affluent families are often middle class. The enthusiasm with which Count Paris is courted by Capulet and his wife suggests their desire for social elevation.

All's Well That Ends Well, Measure for Measure, and Troilus and Cressida are the three problematic plays from these years. All's Well is a comedy that ends with marital acceptance, but in a manner that raises difficult ethical questions. The bed trick is used in Measure for Measure, but under considerably murkier circumstances. The most is Troilus and Cressida. These three plays are the most experimental and perplexing. It is almost impossible to categorize simply in terms of genre. Given that it ends with the deaths of Patroclus and Hector and the impending loss of the Trojans, it is difficult to consider it a comedy.

On the other hand, Hamlet opts for a tragic paradigm more akin to Kyd's The Spanish Tragedy and Titus Andronicus. Hamlet is a vengeance tragedy in form. It shares elements with Titus, including a protagonist tasked with exacting revenge on the protagonist's family for a heinous crime, a cunning antagonist, the appearance of the murdered person's ghost, the feigning of madness to allay the villain's suspicions, the play within the play as a means of testing the villain, and more.

As a tragedy, Othello skillfully illustrates the classic type of a fine man who suffers misfortune due to a fatal defect; as Othello laments, he is one who has "loved not wisely, but too well." The central conflict of King Lear likewise involves fathers and daughters. of this situation, Shakespeare does what he frequently does in his later plays: he removes the wife from the scene, leaving the father and daughters to deal with one another. Shakespeare's Macbeth is, in some respects, his most frightening tragedy because it demands a close investigation of the character of a man who, despite his best efforts, finds that he is powerhungry and unable of resisting temptation. The audience is confronted with and maybe implicated in his moral downfall. Human fragility is treated in a less scary way in Antony and Cleopatra. The Tempest, which summarizes much of Shakespeare's mature creativity, depicts the lovers' narrative as one of worldly failure. Shakespeare's last play for the stage, The Tempest, seems to have been the intention. It includes heartfelt reflections on what his artistic abilities have been able to achieve as well as closing themes. The Tempest is populated with ghosts, monsters, and drolleries, making it the ideal comedy to show off Shakespeare's ability to blend flawless aesthetic design with his unique flare for tales that go beyond the purely human and physical. Shakespeare appears to have summarized his craft as a comedic playwright in this.

Jacobean playwrights

It is remarkable that Shakespeare's finest plays were produced during this time period, yet he is not regarded as a Jacobean playwright. The Jacobean era, as defined historically, is the period from 1603 and 1625 that witnessed the demise of Queen Elizabeth and the rule of James I. In actuality, the word "Jacobean" refers more to literary style and attitude than it does to a specific period of time. Shakespeare's contemporaries predominate among the Jacobean dramatists under Ben Jonson's leadership. They are distinctive because they sought to alter the perceptions and sensitivities of the theatergoers of the period by teaching them how to imitate classical drama and emphasize restraint and realism. Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher, Chapman, Marston, Dekker, Middleton, Heywood, Tourner, and Webster are some of the Jacobean playwrights. Ben Jonson and Webster, two of these authors, need particular consideration.

DISCUSSION

In order to better comprehend human nature, Ben Jonson aimed to transform the English stage and theater into a center for character research. The new genre of theater known as "Comedy of Humors," which uses humor to indicate psychological as well as physiological propensity to determine a person's main tendency and ultimately their type, was presented by Jonson with a sufficient amount of assurance. The comedies Every Man in His Humour, Volpone, The Alchemist, and Bartholomew Fair are among his best plays. Jonson is recognized as a major author because to the works Every Man in His Humor and Every Man out of His Humor. The plays brought to the English theater a powerful and direct anatomizing of "the time's deformities"—the language, habits, and humours of the contemporaneous London scene—with its galleries of grotesques, contemptuous detachment, and somewhat academic impact. The four humours of medieval physiology, which were believed to have an impact on personality or disposition, served as the inspiration for the characters in Every Man in His Humour.

Ben Jonson's comedy Volpone, which was originally performed in 1606, has elements of dark humor, city comedy, and beast tale. It is still Jonson's most frequently produced play and one of the best Jacobean comedies. It is a ruthless satire of wealth and desire. The Alchemist is one of the few Renaissance plays to still be performed today because of its deft fulfillment of the classical unities and realistic portrayal of human stupidity. Jonson utilizes the Bartholomew Fair as the backdrop for an incredibly rich and varied portrait of life in early seventeenth-century London. The play depicts one day of fair life, giving Jonson ample opportunity to not only carry out his plot but also to vividly portray the fair's inhabitants pickpockets, bullies, justices, and slumming gallants—as well as comment on the social, religious, and political divisions that existed in London society during the Jacobean era. Ben Jonson is therefore shown to be a writer of exceptional talents who shines due to his "fine sense of form" and "the purpose for which the form was intended".

Full-fledged Jacobean author Webster Webster is notable for both his somber and macabre talent, and it is principally as a master of tragedy that Webster has carved himself a unique place in the annals of British theater. The storylines of Webster plays are well constructed and crafted. The terrible repercussions of ambition, avarice, and passion that drove Webster's

villainswho were eventually doomed—were dramatized, and in the process, the good were shocked for being morally upright and upstanding.

Most people agree that The White Devil and The Duchess of Malfi are two of Webster's greatest plays. The fact that these two plays aim to rectify the Elizabethan tradition of retribution is crucial. Webster doesn't bring up the topic of retaliation to make the assailants seem sympathetic. He instead commits the crime to express his remorse for the innocent victims. In order to thrive as a playwright, Webster masterfully harnesses the concept of fear and creates tragedy as melodrama.

The Dramatic Collapse

The English Parliament adopted an edict banning all stage plays in theaters in 1642 as a result of the Puritans' pressure. When Queen Mary I's reign came to an end, the name "Puritans," which referred to a religious group, entered common use. The Church of England, with its distinctly Roman Catholic structure and traditions, is a good example of the puritans, who sought to replace it with a more reformed and simple church model. A really historic year for England, 1642 saw the expansion of this strong theological viewpoint to many social activities inside the country, leading to a harsher code of conduct that condemned any display of finery or frivolous behavior. Oliver Cromwell's Puritans, who had been elected to Parliament, clashed violently with King Charles I's Royalists. It started: the English Civil War. The Globe Theater was destroyed by the Puritans in 1644. Even stronger regulations governing stage performances and theaters were enacted in 1647. When all playhouses were ordered to be demolished in 1648, this came to a head. Any spectators seen watching a performance would be fined five shillings and all participants would be taken into custody and beaten. King Charles I was cruelly put to death in 1649 as a result of the Civil War. Oliver Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector of England in 1653. After Cromwell's death in 1658, the Puritans' influence began to wane. King Charles II of England was restored to the throne in 1660. The English monarchy's restoration in 1660, together with the Puritans' fall from power, led to the reopening of the theaters.

After Restoration

Charles II arrived in England in 1660. England greeted the king with wide arms and delighted at his homecoming and the release from the oppressive rule of a Puritan administration. With the monarchy thus restored, the years that followed were known as the Restoration Age in English political and literary history. King Charles II's decision to lift the ban on theater and restore its former splendour in 1660 is considered one of his best achievements. The longrepressed desire for theater then suddenly erupted into a wild, haphazard play.

The prevalent attitudes were mostly expressed through comedy. However, it should be made clear that Restoration Tragedy is as important to take into account, and Dryden is still considered its undisputed master. The national tradition of Beaumont and Fletcher, Ben Jonson, and the French playwright Moliere served as inspiration for the authors of the Restoration Comedy. Romantic Comedy did not thrive in the cynical mood and frivolous elegance of the era's fashionable society. Comedy evolved as a representation of the carefree existence in the Restoration culture because it was free from any moralizing realism and ideological objectives. Restoration comedy is sometimes referred to as Comedy of Manners by critics. However, method is a difficult concept to define, thus it is appropriate to see Restoration Comedy as a social and realistic comedy of a very dubious historical period. Mention must be made of William Congreve, William Wycherley, George Etherage, and other notable Restoration comedy writers.

Theodore Congreve

William Congreve is without a doubt the finest Restoration comedian. He left the legal profession for writing and made his literary debut with the short tale Incognita before publishing The Old Bachelor. The Way of the World, which was viewed less favorably during his lifetime than The Double Dealer and Love for Love, has been hailed as Congreve's masterpiece and one of the most well-known Restoration comedies. Congreve's plays provide a keen insight into life in the affluent class. Artificial manners of the period have been effectively portrayed, and objectionable and dirty things have been cited with great wit and humor. Congreve's music has a sarcastic vivacity to it. The style is incisive, clear, and straightforward, and the characters are believable and fully developed. Congreve is a skilled writer and polished artist, to put it another way.

Dramatic Drama

Comedies evoked stronger emotions as more businesspeople frequented the theater. Ideas and trends that were expressed in sentimental drama included the depiction of middle-class life, which replaced severe amorality in theater, and Restoration Comedy's humorous or satirical portrayal of aristocratic sexual indulgence. In this way, human weakness and the vices of society are obscured, while the virtues of private life are shown. Both good and evil characters are luminously simple, and the hero is always noble, honorable, and too sensitive to other people's feelings. Sentimental comedy lacks wit, sarcasm, lighthearted humor, and sharp language. It lacks humor and reality, which are essential components of comedy. The Conscious Lovers by Richard Steele, a piece that represents the transition from Restoration bawdy humour to comedy of feeling, suited to the bourgeoisie mindset. Sentimental comedy was intended to arouse "a pleasure too exquisite," not to make others laugh or laugh at them.

Anti-Emotional Humor

Anti-sensationalism took the role of sentimental humor. The 18th-century work Anti Sentimental Comedy was written in a sarcastic observational style of life. The storylines are clever and successful. Stage kinds make up the characters. The exchanges include epigrams. The plays are endearing and vibrant. The descriptions are truthful, explicit, and packed with sensation, controversy, thrills, and excitement. Irony and sarcasm are both delicately incorporated into anti-sentimental comedy, along with wit, endearing dialogues, and lovely repartee. Goldsmith and Sheridan must be mentioned.

The Victorian period saw a shift as farces, musical burlesques, extravaganzas, and comic operas proliferated on the London stage, competing alongside Shakespearean plays and serious drama by authors like James Planche and Thomas William Robertson. The German Reed Entertainments started a process in 1855 to raise the caliber of musical theater in Britain, which culminated in the renowned Gilbert and Sullivatvan comedic opera series, which was followed in the 1890s by the first Edwardian musical comedies. Leading poets and playwrights of the late Victorian era included W. S. Gilbert and Oscar Wilde. The works of Edwardian dramatists like Irishman George Bernard Shaw and Norwegian Henrik Ibsen are considerably more closely related to Wilde's plays than to the numerous now-forgotten plays of the Victorian era.

CONCLUSION

Immersive experiences, multidisciplinary partnerships, and fresh approaches to audience participation are all being investigated by artists and theaters. In response to shifting audience expectations and technological breakthroughs, the abstract emphasizes the value of adaptation and reinventing theatrical tropes. In conclusion, despite providing serious difficulties for conventional theater, the collapse of drama acts as a stimulus for review, reinvention, and experimentation. Theater professionals must adapt to this shifting environment by using new narrative techniques, utilizing technology, and addressing the changing ideals of modern society. By doing this, the theater sector might discover chances for renewal and relevance in a cultural environment that is always evolving. Dramatic collapse is a complicated and dynamic phenomenon that depicts how theater and performance art have changed in modern society. The theater business is at a crossroads as conventional theatrical models struggle with issues including dwindling attendance and shifting consumer choices. However, this collapse also contains possibilities and difficulties that call for careful examination and response.

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CHAPTER 7 A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF MACBETHAS A TRAGEDY

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ABSTRACT:

"Macbeth" by William Shakespeare is widely regarded as one of the greatest tragedies in English literature. This abstract delves into the key elements that define "Macbeth" as a tragedy. It explores the character of Macbeth, his tragic flaw, the role of ambition, and the themes of fate and moral decay. Additionally, it examines the structural components of the play, including the five-act structure and the dramatic tension that propels the narrative. Macbeth, the tragic hero, is a complex character whose ambition leads him down a path of moral corruption and violence. His unchecked ambition is his tragic flaw, and it drives the unfolding tragedy. The abstract analyzes the moral dilemmas faced by Macbeth and Lady Macbeth as they grapple with the consequences of their actions. The concept of fate and the supernatural is woven throughout the play, influencing the characters' decisions and sealing their tragic destinies. The abstract also explores the broader societal implications of the tragedy, as Macbeth's downfall reflects the consequences of unchecked ambition and moral decay in a broader political and social context.

KEYWORDS:

Ambition, Catharsis, Character Flaws, Conflict, Dramatic Irony, Hubris, Macbeth.

INTRODUCTION

Shakespeare's Macbeth is the last of a quartet of plays that are collectively recognized as his greatest tragedies and comprise Hamlet, King Lear, Othello, and Macbeth. Shakespeare uses historical occurrences from Holinshed's Chronicles and other stories to create a tragic tale in this play. This unit's goal is to introduce the student to Macbeth, one of the four tragedies that has possibly garnered the most critical attention because to the wide range of topics it covers in a manageably little amount of time. It is anticipated that the student would read the study materials and have a basic understanding of the play's text in addition[1], [2].

Macbeth: A Tragic Play

One of the most well-liked theatrical genres throughout the Elizabethan era was tragedy, and under the direction of Marlowe and Shakespeare, the form reached new heights. It should be mentioned in this context that tragedy functioned as the ideal vehicle for analyzing the problems since the Renaissance was more interested in the notion of Man and his place in the universe. The idea of original sin as it is understood by Christians gave tragic heroes a fresh perspective.

Aristotle described tragedy as a serious drama that inspires pity and horror in his book Poetics. As destiny was seen as manipulating man, circumstances or fate played a significant part in classical plays. As a result, many of the protagonists in classical tragedies are portrayed to suffer the effects of deeds that may have been unintentional. Shakespeare's tragic hero is accountable for his deeds and conscious of the wrong he is doing. The tragic heroes have a defect or imperfection in their characters for which they suffer. However, the pain always outweighs the evil he has done. Because of this, we are led to feelings of sympathy

and terror. The tragic hero is someone who is greater than us, and we are also inspired by his strength and majesty. His failure reminds us of a horrible loss of opportunity. The tragic hero serves as a reminder that despite being physically outmatched, he is still a valiant guy. Shakespeare's tragic heroes, such as Macbeth, Hamlet, and Othello, are men who are superior to regular people, but their grandeur also foreshadows their impending demise. It should be emphasized that the Renaissance made an effort to understand the contradictory character of Man, as represented in the well-known Hamlet words. A guy is such a piece of work! What great reasoning! How limitless are the faculties! How expressive and wonderful in both shape and movement! How angelic you look in motion! How like a deity, in fear! the splendor of the universe! The ideal creature! What is this essence of dust, nevertheless, to me? Dr. Faustus or Macbeth suffer, but not because of a mistake in judgment, as Helen Gardner notes, but rather because of a mistake in will. The heroes cannot hold chance or destiny responsible for misdirecting them and bringing them down the wrong road. Even if their pain is selfinflicted, we nonetheless feel terrible at the outcome of the situation. The hero must be punished in accordance with retributive justice. But it's not as easy as it seems to respond. We lament the hero's possible loss[3], [4].

Therapy for History

History has always been a touchy subject, therefore any playwright that incorporates historical events into their works is sure to spark debate. Additionally, loyalty to the sources as a notion was quite flexible throughout the Elizabethan era. After all, Shakespeare must have used some artistic license when choosing the materials for Macbeth since it is a tragedy based on real-life events. Shakespeare created the figure of Macbeth by fusing aspects from the stories of Donwald's murder of King Duff and Mackbeth's murder of King Duncan. Shakespeare made certain revisions to the accounts found in the chronicles, including the following:Duncan seems to be older than he really was in the play. The play never explicitly addresses Macbeth's lack of kingly might, although despite being a usurper, he did a good job of running his realm. The play makes changes to this.In Holinshed, Macbeth had collaborated with Banquo, but in the play, Banquo's character is never given a dark hue. c. Lady Macbeth in Holinshed never participates in the actual murder; in Shakespeare, she does. However, these artistic licenses that Shakespeare took led to the creation of a play that is a treasure for every literary student and full of potential.

Act Effective Play

The Scottish setting of Macbeth by Shakespeare. Malcolm and Donalbain are the two sons of Duncan, the king of Scotland. With the assistance of Banquo, his gallant general and cousin Macbeth effectively put down uprisings and threats to the Kingdom, earning him a new title. The King does, however, declare Malcolm to be the new King. Instigated by the three Witches' prophesies and assisted by his wife Lady Macbeth, Macbeth kills the king and ascends to the throne. Even worse, he murders Banquo, a buddy he deemed to be a danger. But he is unable to murder Fleance, Banquo's son. Eventually, Macbeth is defeated and killed by Malcolm, Macduff, and the English army, and order is established[5], [6].

Three Witches gather at the start of the play on a stormy night. They pledge to bring Macbeth nothing but an empty heath. Despite being brief, this scene establishes the play's mood. The Witches discuss getting together after the "hurlyburly" is over. This ambiguity, which dominates the drama, might be viewed as a misunderstanding of moral principles. Further confusing the audience, the Witches further say that fair is foul and evil is fair. The Witches proclaim it to be more than merely a meaningless puzzle. They discuss the difficulties of telling the good from the bad and vice versa among the ambiguity and wordplay. The scene

shifts to the captain recounting two deadly battles that Macbeth and Banquo fought and won. Fighting with Macdonwald was the first, and the Thane of Cawdor was the second. As we hear the narratives of how Macbeth had struggled to thwart the nefarious plans of traitors like Macdonwald and the Thane of Cawdor, we are introduced to him in the play with heroic epithets like "Valour's minion" and "Bellona's bridegroom." Even before they appear on stage, Macbeth and Banquo are presented to us with such uplifting depictions of their strength and might. After learning of Macbeth's valor, King Duncan bestows on him the title of Thane of Cawdor. Banquo and Macbeth run into the Witches as they are leaving the battlefield. They refer to Macbeth as the future King of Scotland and address him as the Thane of Glamis and the Thane of Cawdor. They claim that Banque will be the father of the Scottish king in the future. Rosse and Angus show up and address Macbeth as Thane of Cawdor as if in response to these prophesies. As he begins to have expectations that the second prophesy will also come true, the temptation is over. Macbeth is found internally disputing the nature of the Witches' prophesies. If this "supernatural soliciting" is wicked, in his opinion, it could not have started out in the truth. However, the idea of his rising to the position of King of Scotland causes him anxiety and disturbs his "single state of man." The change in Macbeth's thinking is evident when he begs the stars to conceal their fires in order to conceal his "black and deep desires." Duncan, in the meantime, bestows the title of Prince of Cumberland on his eldest son Malcolm, and Macbeth sees this as a challenge that must be overcome if he is to become the King. He sees this conferring of the title as a hurdle that he must clear—either by falling or leaping—in order to become the King.

Diincan makes the decision to spend the night in Macbeth's castle, which provides Lady Macbeth the chance to try to assassinate Duncan and grant Macbeth the throne. She makes the decision to prevent Macbeth from thinking anything kindly or fearful. Lady Macbeth sums up Macbeth's personality precisely when she claims that he is "too full of the kindness of humankind" and that this is what prevents him from achieving his goals. She asks the spirits to make her "unsex" and to turn her milk become gall. She wants to become so vicious that nothing would be able to make her change her mind. She expertly organizes the whole event while playing the ideal hostess and encouraging her husband to commit the murder. Our hearts are filled with wonder and horror at the thought of how she would murder her own kid viciously if she had made the decision to do so. But her influence on us is inevitable. She decides to put her husband's success in the action first by putting her spirit into his thoughts. Given that Duncan is a visitor to Macbeth's home and that it is the host's responsibility to protect the guest rather than commit the murder himself, Macbeth is aware that killing Duncan would break the trust in several ways. Furthermore, Macbeth should safeguard Dtlflcan's security since he is the King, just as he did at the start of the play. I have no spur to puncture the sides of my aim; all I have is vaulting ambition that overleaps itself and falls on the other, as Pity appears to Macbeth as a "naked newborn babe." However, Lady Macbeth is able to persuade her husband to alter his mind. At the conclusion of Act 1, Macbeth uses a commanding tone when he declares, "I am settled, and bent up / Each corporeal agent to this terrible feat." She is successful in her endeavor as Macbeth loses his initial reluctance and begins to be willing to go to any lengths to achieve his goals. As a result, the character advances toward destruction while fully understanding the repercussions. Such is the nature of human sinfulness.

DISCUSSION

This act's opening scene has many allusions to darkness as Banquo speaks of "husbandry in heaven." He begs the higher beings to stop his "curse thoughts." He explains to Macbeth that he had a dream about the Weird Sisters during their chat. These phrases emphasize how sin is

all-pervasive and how the environment is filled with distrust and deceit. Soon after, Macbeth had a hallucination in which he imagines holding a blood-stained blade. He believes that this weapon will take him to Duncan's bedroom. Here, it is possible to observe how Macbeth's first persona has fallen, since his fantasies are now very different from the vision of Pity that he had before glimpsed and are now focused on the murder. While Macbeth makes reference to the night's darkness, he also begs the ground not to hear his footfall out of remorse. As he made his way to Lucrece's bedroom, he even compares his own movements to Tarquin's. Again, it can be observed that Macbeth's primary feelings are those of betrayal and violation. In order to keep the guards from being disturbed, Lady Macbeth serves them a hefty amount of alcohol. Duncan's face, nevertheless, makes her think of her father, thus she is unable to murder him.

After killing Duncan, Macbeth quickly realizes that he has murdered sleep and has been cursed to go without sleep for the rest of his life. His guilt prevents him from praying, and he laments the loss of his soul as he speaks of his inability to say prayers and considers the possibility of having to deal with the effects of having murdered sleep. It expresses Macbeth's awareness of what he has lost when he refers to sleep as "sore labor's path, / Balm of hurt minds, great Nature's second course, / Chief nourisher in life's feast." He believes he will never be able to completely cleanse Duncan's blood from his hands. When he stares at his bleeding hands, they seem to be attempting to pull out his eyeballs. He believes that even if he washed his hands in all the oceans' waters, the water would become crimson and his hands would still be contaminated. On whatever level, these imaginary scenarios are not manifestations of dread. They are deeper-seated forms of suffering that are being expressed. Lady Macbeth remarks that a little water would clean the harids since she is unable to express the depths of her husband's emotions. In the Sleepwalking Scene, when she speaks about how her hands can never be free of blood, these lines are ironically reversed[7], [8].

The murder of Duncan is found among accounts of storms and natural adversity. It is possible to read Macbeth's line, "Had I but died an hour before this chance,I had lived a blessed time," as either empty lip service to a murder or as secretly being genuine. Now that he has killed Duncan, Macbeth will experience fresh suffering every day. Even though there are questions about the circumstances surrounding Duncan's death, Macbeth takes advantage of Malcolm and Dblialbaifl's escape and becomes king despite the fact that Lady Macbeth faints the morning after the murder is discovered, which could be a sign of her inner turmoil. Instead, then heralding a fresh beginning, a coronation is replete with imagery of chaos and devastation in both the macrocosm and the microcosm.

The first few lines of this Act depict Banquo's reaction to the witches' forecasts. He mentally calculates how Macbeth's treachery in assuming the Scottish throne would have its effects and, eventually, how his sons will succeed him as kings. When questioned about where Banquo and his son will be that evening, there is mention of planning a royal feast, and Macbeth is precise in his response. Even after taking the throne, Macbeth does not experience mental tranquility. He is deeply troubled by Banquo and his son Fleance's continued existence. To be so is nothing but to be securely thus, he claims. Despite maintaining a positive and cordial air around him, Macbeth is really planning to have the father and the boy killed. Maebeth employs killers and casts Banquo in a negative light. He is no longer dependent on his wife's approval to carry out a murder as he formerly was. He arranges for Banquo to be slain that evening and invites him to the banquet. Because he is aware that the father and son are still alive, he informs Lady Macbeth that his head is full of scorpions. The call to the forces of darkness stands in stark contrast to Macbeth's previous words, in which he requested the stars to conceal their lights. Fearful in and of itself, the lines "Good things of

Day begin to droop and drowse, Whiles Night's black agents to their prey do rouse" also allude to the changes Macbeth has undergone as a person. It seems as if he has grown close to the forces of evil. Alongside this celebration of darkness, Lady Macbeth's call to the spirits becomes less effective. Although Banquo is slain, Fleance manages to elude the killers, and Macbeth is still in danger.

After receiving the news, he feels "cabin'd, cribb'd, confin'd." But when Macbeth encounters Banquo's ghost at the banquet, it may be inferred that his feeling of guilt is causing him mental distress since no one else in the space can see the ghost. Another instance of the hallucination shown in the scenario is the blood-stained knife that Macbeth saw before to Duncan's death. Here, the supernatural is just fictitious. Lady Macbeth does her utmost to put her husband's thoughts back in order as she asks him to greet the arriving guests, but Macbeth is unable to find any peace since the Ghost of Banquo has taken Macbeth's seat at the table. The announcement that the "table is full" simply causes astonishment in the visitors' thoughts. The Ghost is warned by Macbeth not to wave its "gory locks" at him. Lady Macbeth attempts in vain to explain her husband's behavior and claims that he is experiencing a momentary fit. In secret, she questions her husband, as she had done before, "Are you a man? Macbeth depicts a scenario in which he believes that those who have been killed seem to be rising from the dead and driving the living from their positions. These sentences make us think of the usurper and how the deceased have a right to exact revenge on their killers and remove the illegitimate occupier.

The Ghost reappears as Macbeth regains his composure and knocks him off balance once again. Macbeth is unable to stand the icy look any longer. He believes he can defeat Banquo in any other way than this. He is not afraid of the Russian tiger, the armed rhinoceros, or the Hyrcan tiger. As she begs the visitor to go, Lady Macbeth finds she cannot continue the performance. She laments that Macbeth "displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting / With most admired disorder" (1). Macbeth is so terrified by the words "It will have blood, they say, blood will have blood" that he chooses to go see the witches in attempt to predict the future. Macduff is his next target since he was not at the banquet. We last saw the husband and wife together at this point. As the divide widened, Lady Macbeth would eventually pass away.Macbeth's behavior changes as he seeks out the Weird Sisters and meets them with an apparent sense of kinship. With a fresh batch of prophesies, the Witches further perplex Macbeth. He is warned to beware of Macduff by the vision of an armed head. They show him a vision of a bloodied infant, telling him not to be afraid since no male born of a woman could hurt him. In the third vision, which depicts a boy with a crown and a tree, they assure him that he is secure so long as Birnam Wood does not approach Dunsinane Hill. However, Macbeth is terrified when he sees Banquo pursuing the eight Kings in the vision. The Witches never give Macbeth any precise instructions, as they usually do. When Macbeth learns that MacdufT has fled, he needlessly kills his wife and children because of his own twisted Will. This is when Macbeth's character may sink the farthest[9], [10].

However, plans are being made to overthrow Macbeth the dictator. There is talk of the restoration of order and harmony among the wails of widows and orphans. Images of healing are those that are utilized. Malcolm meets Macduff, and Malcolm conducts an extensive test on him that is justified by the overarching sense of treachery in the situation. They make the decision to fight Macbeth with the King of England's assistance. When we first encounter Lady Macbeth, she is a wreckage of the person she once was, and this sight shocks us. Her character no longer had the strength that we saw in her in the play's opening act. She is seen as a damaged lady who is burdened with guilt all the time. She always has a light by her side. She didn't get any sleep, and even when she does, she wanders and remembers her life's

events. She can still remember giving her husband advice, remembering how Duncan was killed, and sorrow for Macduff's widow. She makes every effort to remove the blood stain off her hand but is unsuccessful. "Unnatural acts do breed unnatural troubles: infected minds to deaf pillows will discharge their secrets," the Doctor concludes in reference to her predicament. She needs God more than she needs a doctor. The doctor admits that he can't heal her.

Macbeth's problems start to become worse as Malcolm, Macduff, and Siward get closer to Dunsinane. Macbeth progressively becomes aware of his own situations on a deeper level. He discovers that his "way of life" has fallen into the grave, the yellow leaf, and that his fate is solely to be cursed instead of receiving honor, love, and friends. He continues to rely on the witches' forecasts nonetheless. After learning of his wife's death, he describes life as "a tale/Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury/Signifying nothing." He receives information indicating that troops had disguised themselves as Birnam Wood tree branches, creating the impression that the Wood is moving up to Dunsinane Hill. He soon finds out that Macduff was prematurely removed from his mother's womb. He says that no one should believe the words of the "jugging fiends" who only "palter with us in a double sense;/ That keep the word of promise to our ear, / And break it to our hope," when he realizes that he has been misled by the Witches' equivocation and realizes that both situations can be interpreted metaphorically. He knows he would soon be defeated by Macduff but he dies with defiance on his lips. Although Malcolm establishes order in Scotland at the play's conclusion, the last impression is one of Macbeth's grandeur and strength, which had been lost in the play's midsection. He declares, "I will not yield, / To kiss the ground before young Malcolm's feet / and to be baited with the rabble's curse." Malcolm's statement that Macbeth and his wife are "this dead butcher and his fiend-like Queen" is not one we can support.

Images from Macbeth

Shakespeare's deft use of a number of particular moments gives Macbeth its power as a drama. This may be expressed in terms of both the storyline and how the subjects are handled. This subunit attempts to examine a few of the play's crucial sequences.

Crime Scene

The play's murder scene is essential. Duncan's murder is reported but not shown on stage. This is intriguing since murders were staged in modern Elizabethan theater. Here, we may see how the murder affected Macbeth and his wife's thoughts. We see Macbeth's inventive side as he laments his inability to offer prayers despite his desire for favors. Amen, he said, became lodged in his throat. It is definitely poignant to see Macbeth come to terms with the fact that he has slain sleep and is now doomed to restless nights. More of a feeling of what Macbeth has lost is expressed in the invocation to sleep as "sore labor's bath, Balm of hurt minds, great Nature's second course, / Chief nourisher in life's feast." The image of the seas becoming crimson and the hands not being clean of blood is also extremely potent. When Macbeth stares at his bleeding hands, they seem to be attempting to rip out his eyeballs. He believes that even if he washed his hands in all the oceans' waters, the water would become crimson and his hands would still be contaminated. On whatever level, these imaginary scenarios are not manifestations of dread. They are deeper-seated forms of suffering that are being expressed. Lady Macbeth remarks that a little water will wipe the hands but is unable to express the depths of her husband's emotions. In the Sleepwalking Scene, when she speaks about how her hands can never be blood-free, these lines are ironically reversed. As she arranges for the daggers to be placed in the hands of Duncan's sleeping guards and requests that her husband change clothing, Lady Macbeth displays her practical side. However, it is also clear that she is unable to carry out the murder herself since, in her eyes, Duncan resembles her own father.

Scene Porter

The Porter Scene, which follows the Murder Scene, offered some humorous relief. Comedy sequences sometimes appear in tragedies, relieving the audience. One such scenario is this one. Aristotle had discussed the unity of impression, and the majority of ancient plays did not combine tragic and comedic episodes. Shakespeare, as usual, uses a tradition and gives it a fresh spin in Elizabethan theater, where mixing is common practice. This scene adds to the play's sorrowful mood by having a similar tone to the infamous Grave-diggers' Scene from Hamlet. The Gunpowder Plot, equivocation, time serving, wickedness, and other recent historical events are all mentioned by a drunken porter who believes he is the gatekeeper of the entrance of Hell. All of these allusions draw our attention to the problem of betraval and treachery. The scene is essential to the play as a whole, thus they are never taken out of context. This sequence is not an interpolation, and commentators have noted how it effectively converts Macbeth's castle into Hell without compromising the sense of location.

Dinner Scene

A crucial moment in the play is the banquet scene. Regarding its place in the play, it is a crucial scene. Thematically, it is also a significant scene since it signifies a transformation in Macbeth's persona. Even though Macbeth plans for Banquo to be slain, Fleance manages to elude the killers, and Macbeth is still in danger. After receiving the news. In contrast, Macbeth encounters Banquo's spirit during the royal banquet he plans. Given that no one else in the room can see the ghost, it is possible to view the ghost as a man whose feeling of guilt is disturbing him. Another instance of the hallucination shown in the scenario is the bloodstained knife that Macbeth saw before to Duncan's death. Here, the supernatural is just fictitious. Lady Macbeth does her utmost to put her husband's thoughts back in order as she asks him to greet the arriving guests, but Macbeth is unable to find peace since the Ghost of Banquo has taken Macbeth's seat at the table. The announcement that the "table is full" simply causes astonishment in the visitors' thoughts. The Ghost is warned by Macbeth not to wave its "gory locks" at him. Lady Macbeth makes unsuccessful attempts to justify the behavior and claims that her husband is experiencing a passing fit. She whispers to her husband, "Are you a man?" in the same tone she had used previously. "Macbeth depicts a scenario in which he believes that killed people seem to be rising from the dead and driving the living from their positions. These sentences make us think of the usurper and how the deceased have a right to exact revenge on their killers and remove the illegitimate occupier.

The Ghost reappears as Macbeth begins to gather himself, knocking him off his feet. Macbeth is unable to stand the icy look any longer. He believes he can defeat Banquo in any other way than this. He is not afraid of the Russian tiger, the armed rhinoceros, or the Hyrcan tiger. As she begs the visitor to go, Lady Macbeth finds she cannot continue the performance. She laments how "most admired disorder" caused by Macbeth "displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting." Macbeth's five words: "It will have blood, they say, and that is very frightful." Macduff is his next target since he was not at the banquet. We last saw the husband and wife together at this point. The breach would widen, and Lady Macbeth would eventually pass away.

The feast is left unfinished as the guests depart. This represents the total destruction of harmony and order in Maebeth's realm. When instability and dread take over a situation that ought to have been a cause for joy, food as a symbol of nourishment fails to fulfill its function. However, the usurper can never rejoice, and as the play comes to a close, Macbeth decides to go back to the Witches, which will result in more agony and carnage.

Scene of Sleepwalking

Lady Macbeth is shown differently in The Sleepwalking Scene. The halting rhythms of Lady Macbeth's utterances are masterfully conveyed in the writing that makes up the majority of this scene. Her character no longer had the strength that we saw in her in the play's opening act. She is seen as a damaged lady who is burdened with guilt all the time. She always has a light by her side. It seems as if the evil forces she had summoned had abandoned her. She didn't get any sleep, and even when she does, she wanders and remembers her life's events. She can still remember giving her husband advice, remembering how Duncan was killed, and sorrow for Macduff's widow. She makes every effort to remove the blood stain off her hand but is unsuccessful. Who would have believed the old guy had so much blood in him? The previous remarks about a little water absolving them of the act have been replaced by this. The Doctor summarizes her predicament by stating: "Unnatural acts do produce unnatural troubles: sick brains to deaf pillows will release their secrets. She needs God more than she needs a doctor. The doctor admits that he can't heal her. This is a really heartbreaking scenario that makes us feel sorry for the unhappy woman.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the flawed hero to the themes of ambition, destiny, and moral degradation, "Macbeth" is a quintessential example of a Shakespearean tragedy. Its examination of the human condition and the effects of giving in to one's inner demons, as well as its strength as a tragic work, are what give it its ongoing relevance and force. Shakespeare's tragedies dive deeply into the complexity of human nature and morality, and "Macbeth" ranks as a classic example of the form. The tragic hero Macbeth, whose ambition and moral deterioration finally brought about his demise, is deeply explored in the play's center. Macbeth's character is a prime example of a flawed hero who is motivated by unbridled ambitiona tragic defect that acts as the first tragedy. Shakespeare's work demonstrates a great understanding of human psychology via his character's journey from a devoted and honorable person to a coldblooded killer.

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CHAPTER 8 MACBETH: A COMPLEX TRAGIC HERO AND THE EVOLUTION OF LADY MACBETH

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ABSTRACT:

This analysis explores the intricate characters of Macbeth and Lady Macbeth in William Shakespeare's renowned play, "Macbeth." While Macbeth is often described as a "villain hero," a closer examination reveals the multifaceted nature of his character. Macbeth's transformation from a valiant warrior to a ruthless murderer is driven by his ambition, imagination, and a series of supernatural prophecies. He grapples with moral dilemmas, ultimately making conscious choices that lead to his tragic downfall. The play opens with Macbeth hailed as a hero for his valor and prowess in battle, but his encounter with the three witches sets the stage for his descent into darkness. The prophecies of becoming Thane of Cawdor and King awaken Macbeth's ambition, setting him on a path of treachery and murder. Lady Macbeth, his wife, plays a crucial role in encouraging and orchestrating Duncan's murder, highlighting her own complex character. Lady Macbeth's pragmatic and ruthless nature is evident as she manipulates her husband into committing regicide.

KEYWORDS:

Moral Downfall, Nemesis, Shakespeare, Soliloquy, Supernatural Elements, Tragic Flaw, Tragic Structure.

INTRODUCTION

'Villain hero' has been used to characterize Macbeth. However, any examination of the play demonstrates that such broad generalizations include significant gaps. Macbeth is a killer, that much is certain. He is much more than that, however. He embodies every aspect of a guy who is ambitious and also has a strong creative ability. He is a character whose breadth, diversity, and grandeur make him both alluring and dreadful, like all other tragic heroes in Shakespeare. As we hear the narratives of how he had struggled to resist the nefarious plans of traitors like Macdonwald and the Thane of Cawdor, Macbeth is introduced in the play in Act 2 Sc 2. He is referred to with heroic epithets like "Valour's minion" and "Bellona's bridegroom." In the play's following scene, Macbeth and Banquo are in a confrontation with the three witches with such empowering visions of his might and authority. As the Thane of Glamis, the Thane of Cawdor, and one "that shall be King hereafter," these three Weird Sisters address Macbeth. Soon, Macbeth is shocked to learn that King Duncan has already bestowed upon him the title of Thane of Cawdor in appreciation of his assistance in maintaining the security of the realm. Effects of the Witches' temptation begin to manifest.

As Macbeth muses internally on the nature of the Witches' prophesies, we observe. If this "supernatural soliciting" is wicked, in his opinion, it could not have started out in the truth. However, the idea of his rising to the position of King of Scotland causes him anxiety and disturbs his "single state of man." As soon as Duncan names his son Malcolm as the Prince of Cumberland, Macbeth is more confused. When Macbeth requests the stars to conceal their flames in order to conceal his "black and deep desires," it is clear that his thinking has changed. He sees this title's bestowal as a hurdle that must be jumped or fallen in order for

him to succeed in becoming the King. Lady Macbeth sums up Macbeth's personality accurately when she says that his aims are hampered by his being "too full o'th' milk of human kindness[1], [2]."

As soon as Duncan chooses to visit Macbeth's castle for an overnight stay, the conditions provide a chance for the execution of the terrible murderous plot. It seems that Macbeth originally chooses not to carry out Duncan's murder. Given that Duncan is a visitor at Macbeth's home and that it is the host's responsibility to protect the guest rather than commit the murder themselves, Macbeth is aware that killing Duncan would break trust in many ways. Additionally, Macbeth should safeguard Duncan's security since he was the King, just as he had done at the start of the play. I have no spur/To puncture the sides of my aim, but only/Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself/And falls on the other,' he declares after seeing Pity as a "naked newborn babe." However, Lady Macbeth is able to convince her husband to alter his mind, and at the conclusion of Actl, Macbeth uses strong language by declaring, "I am settled, and bent up / Each corporeal agent to this terrible feat. Thus, the character moves towards the destruction while fully understanding the repercussions." The human tendency to sin is as stated. This sets Macbeth apart from other Classical tragedy heroes who unconsciously strive toward their own demise[3], [4].

Another vision of a dagger that leads Macbeth to Duncan's bedroom appears to him while he waits for the right moment. Here, Macbeth's character may be understood to have fallen since his fantasies are now entirely focused on the murder instead of the vision of Pity that he had before experienced. While Macbeth makes reference to the night's darkness, he also begs the ground not to hear his footfall out of remorse. Even as he proceeded towards Lucrece's bedroom, he compares his own movements to those of Tarquin. So once again, the feeling of betrayal and violation is quite strong. Even though Lady Macbeth, who at first glance seemed to be the stronger of the two, fails in her endeavor, Macbeth murders while in Macbeth's head. But when he speaks of his incapacity to pray and considers the possibility of having to face the repercussions of having slain sleep, he laments the loss of his soul. When he stares at his bleeding hands, they seem to be attempting to pull out his eyeballs. He believes that even if he washed his hands in the ocean's water, the water would turn crimson and his hands would still be contaminated. On whatever level, these imaginary scenarios are not manifestations of dread. They are outward manifestations of a deeper kind of suffering. But Macbeth's reputation starts to decline quickly. To protect himself, he murders the guards in Duncan's chamber. However, Macbeth's statement that "Had I but died an hour before this chance, I would have lived a blessed time" may be read both as a murderous prophecy and as something that is subtly accurate. Now that he has killed Duncan, Macbeth will experience severe anguish every day. However, Macbeth declares himself the King of Scotland by taking advantage of the sons of Duncan's flight[5], [6].

However, he begins to feel threatened, and Banquo is his first apparent target. To be so is nothing, but to be securely thus, Macbeth believes. To ensure the safety of his power, he employs assassins and dishonestly defame Banquo. The call to the forces of darkness stands in stark contrast to Macbeth's previous words, in which he requested the stars to conceal their lights. 'Good things of Day begin to droop and drowse, Whiles Night's sinister agents to their prey do stir' are terrifying in and of themselves, and they also draw attention to the changes Macbeth has undergone. It seems as if he has grown close to the forces of evil. Alongside this celebration of darkness, Lady Macbeth's call to the spirits becomes less effective. The worry that Fleance, the son of Banquo, may one day depose Macbeth from his reign persists, preventing Macbeth from finding rest. Fleance managed to escape the murder attempt. But when Macbeth encounters Banquo's ghost at the banquet, it may be inferred that his feeling of guilt is causing him mental distress since no one else in the space can see the ghost. Another instance of the hallucination comparable to the blood-stained knife that Macbeth saw before to killing Durican is seen in this scenario. The supernatural in this case is fictitious since only Macbeth is able to see the Ghost. Lady Macbeth does her utmost to put her husband's thoughts back in order as she asks him to greet the arriving guests, but Macbeth is unable to find peace since the Ghost of Banquo has taken Macbeth's seat at the table. The announcement that the "table is full" simply causes astonishment in the visitors' thoughts. The Ghost is warned by Macbeth not to wave its "gory locks" at him. Lady Macbeth makes unsuccessful attempts to justify the behavior and claims that her husband is experiencing a passing fit. She whispers to her husband, "Are you a man?" in the same tone she had used previously. In his play, Macbeth describes a scenario in which he believes that those who have been killed seem to be rising from the dead and driving the living from their positions. These sentences make us think of the usurper and how the deceased have a right to exact revenge on their killers and remove the illegitimate occupier.

The Ghost reappears as Macbeth begins to gather himself, knocking him off his feet. Macbeth is unable to stand the icy look any longer. He believes he can defeat Banquo in any other way than this. He is not afraid of the Russian tiger, the armed rhinoceros, or the Hyrcan tiger. As she begs the visitor to go, Lady Macbeth finds she cannot continue the performance. She laments how "most admired disorder" caused by Macbeth "displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting." Extremely terrible are his words: "It will have blood, they say, blood will have blood." To predict the future, Macbeth makes the decision to go see the Witches. Macduff is his next target since he was not at the banquet. The Witches' next round of cryptic comments drags Macbeth farther down the road to doom. He makes the decision to eliminate the danger that Macduff represents, and when he is unable to do so, he kills Macduff's wife and kids instead. He believes he is unkillable and that as long as Birnam Wood does not approach Dunsinane Hill, neither a man nor a woman could harm him. However, he is troubled by the vision of the parade of Kings. One is amazed by the strength and tenacity of the hero towards the conclusion, when the chances are stacked against Macbeth.

When he learns of his wife's passing, he describes life as "a tale/Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury/Signifying nothing." He understands that his "way of life is falling into the grave, the vellow leaf, he must not ask for honor and love from friends but only receive curses." He says that no one should believe the words of the "jugging fiends" who only "palter with us in a double sense;/ That keep the word of promise to our ear and break it to our hope" after realizing that he had been deceived by the Witches' equivocation and learning that both situations could be metaphorically interpreted. He dies with a smirk of defiance on his face despite knowing that Macduff would soon overcome him. I won't submit, / To kiss the ground before young Malcolm's feet / And to be enticed by the rabble's curse, he declares; It would be unfair and insufficient to describe to Macbeth as merely a "dead butcher" given that in the conclusion we witness the valiant Macbeth emerge once more. Our thoughts are always clouded by a sense of loss, and any sense of justice is mixed with our emotions of sympathy, terror, and admiration. Despite being referred to be a villain hero, Macbeth is really a tragic hero. The Witches simply exert influence; he bears responsibility for the evil he does. He is aware of how cruel the actions are, yet his ambition and desire for power drive him on. He does, however, possess a creative mind. His last words of defiance, as well as his soliloquies and speeches, demonstrate the originality of this man's thinking, which is superior to all degrees of mediocrity.

DISCUSSION

The play's heroine is Lady Macbeth, the second-most significant character. She walks on stage while reading a letter that her husband wrote about the Witches' Prophecy event and how he was given the title of Thane of Cawdor. She is the more realistic one of the two and immediately begins to plot how to carry out the murder. She describes how her husband's ambitious and caring natures are always at odds, demonstrating how well she knows his character. She makes the decision to 'pour' her'spirits' into her husband's ears. She calls upon the forces of darkness when the chance arises and she hears of Duncan's arrival to the Castle. She commands the spirits to transform her milk into gall and 'uiisex' her. She wants to do this, and I believe that nothing will be able to stop her. As she plays the ideal hostess and concurrently guides her husband toward the murder, she "marvelously stage manages the entire situation." Our hearts are filled with wonder and horror at the thought of how she would murder her own kid viciously if she had made the decision to do so. But her influence on us is inevitable. She continuously promises her husband that they won't fail, but she herself fails in the endeavor. She cannot murder the King since Duncan's face makes her think of her father. She seems to be a person who lacks the emotional and creative depth of her spouse. She speaks about how a little water may help wash the hands but her practical mind cannot comprehend the intensity of Macbeth's suffering. In the Sleepwalking Scene, when she urgently attempts to wipe Duncan's blood off her hands but fails, these lines are ironically reversed. In order to subsequently assign the responsibility to the guards, she goes ahead and leaves the daggers in Duncan's bedroom. To avoid any suspicion, she even begs her husband to change his attire. But when the murder is found the next morning, she faints, which may be an indication of her internal conflict[7], [8].

We see a rift between the husband and wife when Macbeth ascends to the Scottish throne and Lady Macbeth assumes the role of Queen. She begins to feel lonely as a result of Macbeth's diminished need for her assistance. She also feels a feeling of loss since she believes she has nothing left after spending all she has. However, the Queen resolves the issue at the banquet scene and is once again shown in the part she originally portrayed in the play. She invites everyone to leave and makes up a list of her husband's problems. Even worse, she chastises her husband for being cowardly and queries, "Are you a man?" As she begs the visitor to go, Lady Macbeth finds she cannot continue the performance. She laments how "most admired disorder" caused by Macbeth "displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting." But after this, we don't see the husband and wife together since their gap widens to unbridgeable dimensions.

In the Sleepwalking Scene, a wholly different Lady Macbeth is shown. She has been discovered to be psychologically damaged. She can't relax, so she wanders about while asleep. Her endeavor to compose a letter represents her attempt to communicate, something she hasn't been able to do recently. She remembers her past deeds and laments Lady Macduff's passing at the same time. As she works to remove the blood stains off her palm, we are reminded of how she has evolved from her position of authority. She asks a very emotional question: "Who would have thought the old man had so much blood in him?" The Doctor summarizes her position by stating that "infected minds to deaf pillows" will release their secrets. Unnatural activities do produce unnatural issues. She needs God more than she needs a doctor. She dies shortly after the doctor declares his inability to save her, proving that Lady Macbeth is much more than simply Macbeth's "fiend-like Queen." She is a harsh, fearsome, and strong figure who, in the very end, wins our sympathies and pity. She may not have the creative energy of her husband, but she is still close to Macbeth. She is undoubtedly a very potent invention of Shakespeare, and as usual, the moral reaction will not do her in the play credit.

Witches' Function in the Play

Tragic events often include the supernatural because it serves as a reminder to the audience that many aspects of the universe are beyond human control. In this drama, the three witches perform a variety of roles. As implied by the word, they are powers of evil and also stand in for fate and destiny. The play's opening scene is a stormy night gathering of the three Witches. They offer the prospect of running across Macbeth on a deserted heath. Despite being brief, this scene establishes the play's mood. The Witches discuss getting together after the "hurlyburly" is over. This ambiguity, which dominates the drama, might be viewed as a misunderstanding of moral principles. Further confusing the audience, the Witches further say that fair is foul and evil is fair. The Witches' proclamation is more than just a meaningless puzzle. They talk about how it is impossible to distinguish between the fair and the foul and vice versa, and we hear the phrase "Fair is foul and foul is fair" in their mouths, which is quite helpful in comprehending the play[9], [10].

As they are leaving the field of battle, Banquo and the Witches encounter Macbeth. They refer to Macbeth as the future King of Scotland and address him as the Thane of Glamis and the Thane of Cawdor. They inform Banquo that he will be the father of Scotland's future king. The Witches use equivocation and riddles in their speech. They just tell the listener a halftruth, tempting him to make up his own mind about the other half. Despite declaring that Macbeth will "be the King," they never mention Duncan's murder. Therefore, these monsters cannot be held accountable for Macbeth's murder. It's amazing how they offer Macbeth assurance and then take it away by predicting that Banquo will be the future King's father. It seems as if the Witches are having fun playing a game with Macbeth and Banquo.

The Weird Sisters' promises and forecasts are even more perplexing when Macbeth seeks them out again in the play's second half. He is warned to avoid Macduff by the image of an armed head. He is shown a vision of a bloodied infant, which assures him that he should not be afraid since a guy who is bom of a woman cannot hurt him. In the third vision, which depicts a boy with a crown and a tree, they assure him that he is secure so long as Birnam Wood does not approach Dunsinane Hill. However, the vision of the eight Kings with Banquo trailing after them makes Macbeth fearful because it brings to mind the previous prophesy the Witches had given to Banquo. The Witches never give Macbeth any precise instructions, as they usually do. Will, his own twisted self, is what drives Macbeth. They provide a number of visions but don't respond to any of Macbeth's questions. Macbeth later declares that no one should accept the words of the "jugging fiends" who merely "palter with us in a double sense;/ That keep the word of promise toour ear/ And break it to our hope," realizing that both scenarios might be symbolically understood. However, the crowd is terrified by the Witches' charms, which uncomfortably disrupt the performance. Shakespeare uses common notions about witchcraft in this play, namely the process through which the witches prepare their charms. They dig into the nature of evil in the universe and highlight several significant subjects.

Macbeth's Imagery

A picture is a description that engages one or more of our senses while elaborating on the play's key themes and concepts. Critics have noted that Macbeth has a few recognizable images that aid in the play's understanding. The imagery of clothes is one example. We wonder whether someone in a given position is deserving of it when they equate honors with new clothing or when we see a dwarf appearing weird in a giant's robe. Blood is a representation of both the murder and the guilt that resides in the thoughts of Macbeth and his wife. Invocations to the forces of darkness emphasize both the evil that will be done and also refer to the terror in the mind. The all-pervasive risks are indicated by the allusions to birds and predatory animals.

The Venetian Merchant

Shakespeare's The Merchant of Venice, which was written in 1596 and was first published in the year 1600, has confounded readers and viewers ever since it was first released. The drama primarily explores the conflict between the concepts of "mercy" and "justice," as imposed on the rivalry between a kind-hearted Christian trader named Antonio and a self-centered Jewish usurer named Shylock. The drama seems to make the conflict between Christians and Jews just a symbolic variation of the discussion between good and evil by using a traditional vengeance plot. According to such a crude interpretation of the dramatist's intent, the text's conclusion—the rescue and return of the Venetian merchant in Antonioseems to support morality and promote a lighthearted ideal. Therefore, the book fits the description of a comedy structurally inasmuch as it concludes with a restoration of the good order. Because of its central love story between Bassanio and Portia, critics throughout history have classified The Merchant of Venice as a comedy by the Shakespearean canon, and often as a romantic comedy. In fact, this romance seems to be what propels the play into its climactic courtroom scene by tying Antonio to Shylock, the play's furious moneylender, in more ways than one.

However, on another level, Shylock's thirst for violence is made to appear totally rational and acceptable in light of his protracted oppression by the Christian state. The spectator is nearly led to think that the Christian merchant's public jabs at Shylpck's race and line of work really triggered the murderous relationship. The play's portrayal of racial hate, as practiced by all the Christian characters from Antonio to Launcelo, serves as evidence of the history of the marginalization of Jews. Because he belongs to a religious minority in a Christian nation, it almost seems as if Shylock is the antagonist of the story. Instead of needing any evidence in action, the other characters in the play assume his villainy from the very beginning. And even before he can do any bad, the protagonist and his circle of friends seem to make fun of him a lot and publicly criticize him. As a result, The Merchant of Venice begins with a sorrowful awareness of Shylock's minority status in Venice by establishing its historical context for racism. The drama immediately highlights the tragic potential of Shylock, a predefined antagonist whose crime is his faith rather than his actions. Shakespeare is able to elicit sporadic empathy for the outcast Shytock inside the Christian moral system, and the play's conclusion reinforces his tragedy by compelling him to convene Through a deft legal maneuver, the moral conflict between the Christian merchant and the Jewish moneylender was put to rest, making the racial pariah also illegal. Even if his life is spared in the sake of Christian "mercy," the fina decision against Shylock shows little sign of "justice."

While his arch-rival Antoni decrees his conversion to Christianity as recompense for giving him life, the state seizes his property and wills it to a Christian son-in-law. At the very end, the tragic potential of the racial "other" is fulfilled, and Shylock's departure as a resigned and capitulating outlaw closely mimics the structure of a tragedy. The Merchant of Venice is both the tragedy of the Jew in Shylock and a comedy of romance and redemption for the Christian protagonists. It's interesting that Antonio's fortunes are reversed in The Merchant of Venice's concluding scene, which is revealed by Portia's fortuitous contact with a letter announcing his ship's successful return to port. While the dramatic struggle in courtroom negotiations seems to be undermined by the surprising finding of one of Antonio's lost ships, Portia's inadvertent possession of the letter that announces such a development is even more puzzling. All that can be said in defense of such a conclusion is that Shakespeare used it as a purposeful plot

device to make his play resemble the format of a comedy. The text is transformed into a vintage comedy by the text's thematic restoration of the "good" via fortuitous twists in the story. Another cliche used to emphasize the romantic undertones of this comedy is the small subplot involving the misplaced wedding rings and their eventual recovery, which leads to the climactic act of identity reveal. Three reunited Christian couples who are happy with their situation in life and in their relationship are shown in the play for the audience.

By the way it ends, it seems to be a romantic comedy. The tragic effect of The Merchant of Venice's depictions of violence and hate has not yet been the subject of wide-ranging critical analyses. Notably, Nicholas Rowe made the following observation on The Jew of Venice in 1709: "Though we have seen that play received and acted as a comedy, I cannot but think it was designed tragically by the author." It exhibits such a terrible spirit of vengeance, such a feral fierceness and fellness that it is incompatible with either comedic styles or characters.

CONCLUSION

As the play goes on, her mental health becomes worse. She dispels the notion that she is a heartless monster by showing her deep-seated regret and remorse in the famous sleepwalking scene. The abstract also discusses Macbeth's developing personality, highlighting how he struggles with the fallout from his decisions, hallucinations, and ethical dilemmas. The contrast between Macbeth's journey into madness and his acts of bravery and resistance gives him a complex personality. Finally, it should be noted that both Macbeth and Lady Macbeth transcend easy classification as exclusively evil figures. Shakespeare's tragedies have some of the most interesting characters because of their characters' psychological complexity, moral quandaries, and changes throughout the course of the play. The character development in the play "Macbeth" is recognized for being complex, especially in the cases of Lady Macbeth and the title character. Although Macbeth is at first praised as a brave hero, ambition and a vulnerability to supernatural influence push him to go through a significant metamorphosis. His decisions, which culminated in the killing of King Duncan, show how complicated he is as a tragic person.

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CHAPTER 9 OPENING SCENES OF MERCHANT OF VENICE: BONDS, **CASKETS AND SCHEMES**

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ABSTRACT:

The Opening Scenes of 'The Merchant of Venice': Bonds, Caskets, and Schemes" delves into the initial moments of William Shakespeare's renowned play, offering a close analysis of the themes and character dynamics at play. The study explores Antonio's unexplained melancholy and the poetic attempts of his friends to discern its cause. It also introduces the pivotal concept of the caskets in Belmont, symbolizing the constraints placed on Portia's agency and the subversion of patriarchal norms. Furthermore, the study examines the character of Shylock, his rivalry with Antonio, and the racial and religious tensions that underscore the narrative. Launcelot's moral dilemma and the comedic interactions among characters add depth to the story. In sum, this exploration sets the stage for the intricate drama and thematic exploration that will unfold throughout the play. The opening scenes of 'The Merchant of Venice' lay a multifaceted foundation for the complex narrative that follows. Shakespeare skillfully introduces themes of melancholy, agency, prejudice, and societal norms through the characters of Antonio, Portia, and Shylock.

KEYWORDS:

Antonio, Bonds, Caskets, Drama, Portia, Schemes, Shakespeare.

INTRODUCTION

The play begins with Antonio, a Venetian businessman, putting words to a recognizable grief that he is unaware of the source of. He can talk about it, but only in an attempt to demonstrate his ignorance of the causes of it. His close pals Salarino and Salanio, who are among his listeners, artistically try to ascertain the potential causes of Antonio's melancholy. While the simplest logical inference is that Antonio has real fears about what would happen to his cargo-laden I ship at sea, Antonio brushes such anxieties aside as being among his least important worries. Antonio asserts that his present trading endeavor does not, in any way, influence his fortunes and, thus, does not earn the color of as profound a discontent, in contrast to the play's eventual turn of events. However, Salarino and Salanio continue to poeticize the validity of a merchant's commercial concerns. Shakespeare makes the two friends imagineably anticipate doom via commonplace reminders and interactions in a typical play of remarkable imagery. Such descriptions of Antonio's melancholy are fiercely rejected by him. Salarino then proposes that Antonio's pallidness must be the result of heterosexual love if not from commerce and money. Although the latter is quick to reject the idea, it ironically preempts Bassanio's request for cash to court Portia, the lovely maid of Belmont. In fact, Antonio's melancholy may have been brought on by an instinctive understanding of his friend's potential heterosexual relationship with Portia, which endangers his homosocial relationship with Bassanio[1], [2].

Salarino jokingly attributes Antonio's grief to an enigmatic clinical disposition after failing to extract consent from him about any of the fictitious I diagnose of his unhappiness. He goes on at length about how some people's constitutions have been shaped by nature in ways that defy rational explanation for their emotions and behaviors, and maybe Antonio is simply one of those weird individuals. Gratiano, Lorenzo, and Bassanio arrive at this stage in the dialogue. In order to leave Antonio with better company than theirs, Salarino and Salanio persuade their buddies to part ways[3], [4].

The chatty Gratiano quickly interprets Antonio's silence as a sign of his upset state of mind and offers his services as a fool to usher in good times. Gratiano makes a lengthy, unusually long exhortation that Bassanio later refers to as "an infinite deal of nothing" in which he defends forced silence as either a sign of weakness or a feminine tendency toward coyness. The person who says less, he declares, either lacks the strength of conviction or the right to a voice. This is ironic once again since Portia's disguised woman-as-lawyc would ultimately usurp this exact speechmaking authority, which is explicitly reserved for the deserving male, to spare the merchant's life. The two close friends Antonio and Bassanio are abandoned when Gratiano leaves with Lorenzo and the promise of dinnertime laughter to create room for the play's main dramatic scene. Bassanio begins by thanking Antonio for his unwavering support and financial assistance before making one last request. He is in love with Portia, the lovely lady of Belmont, and we learn that he has already wasted a lot of money portraying himself as a potential suitor. for only one instance. Bassanio thinks that receiving a financial gift from the merchant will improve his chances of securing the highly sought-after maid by covering his travel expenses. Although all of Antonio's riches are on the seas, he claims that his reputation in Venice as an honorable trader would not prevent Bassanio's proposed business venture from succeeding because of their deep emotional connections. He is certain that his name may bring in all the money that Bassanio needs, and he will bravely serve as the bond's guarantor to ensure his friend's happiness and success in love.

The action that follows takes place in Belmont, a chamber of the estate that Portia's deceased father left her. But the young maid has received more from the father's bequest than just money. As a result of the Law of the Father's binding her, Portia's existence now hinges on a lottery of caskets intended to match her with a suitable spouse. While ironically setting up Portia's deviant attempts to undermine both the Law of the Father and the Law of the State from within, this dramatic device also makes a significant point about the patrilinealpatriarchal foundations of law. Portia starts by lamenting the limitations on her own agency and free will imposed by the fatalistic trope of a lottery ordained by her father. Although her father's scheme to choose the ideal marriage for Portia is in fact a scheme to analyze the candidacy of her possible suitors, it threatens to negate the woman's own subjectivity. She cannot pick or reject a suitor based on the merit in her own opinion. It just represents the repressive patriarchal system that believes the woman is unqualified to understand her own well-being. Her ambition must necessarily be restrained by the structural requirements of patrimonial law due to its potential for disruption. The contradiction, however, is in Portia, who is the sufferer of this rule, until she ultimately decides to change it in an effort to win over Bassanio, her desired partner. It's remarkable how during the whole performance the relationship's guy rather than the woman appears to be the plaything, the supplicant, and the winner[5], [6].

Nerissa implores her mistress to consider the qualifications of all the would-be suitors who had traveled to Belmont in search of Portia's lovely hand as the action sets us up for the play of caskets by the several suitors. A list of Portia's numerous rival claims is presented to us in sections as she describes each one in accents that exude pure contempt. Almost every possible suitor comes out as lacking, despite their boastful claims of self-worth and love for Portia. Portia paints lovely caricatures of various excesses of human nature in her recollection of the pleasant features of each and every member of this group. Shakespeare establishes

himself as a master-judge of human stupidity by letting our heroine speak through his reserve of wit, and he also lets us enjoy hearing the heinous descriptions of crimes and vices.

After amusingly reciting a list of royal suitors, Nerissa tells her mistress that her worries about being coupled with one of them have been put to rest. The whole community of her wooers fled as per a heavenly order when they learned the details of the lottery. Nerissa refers to a Venetian "scholar and soldier" who amusingly once traveled with the Marquis of Montferrat to Portia's father's court. She is aware that the person her mistress had sold her heart to and is waiting for to arrive as the most deserving candidate for marriage liaison is this scholar by the name of Bassanio. Portia gives in to the pressure and displays her unreserved adoration for the young person.

DISCUSSION

With the entrance of the Jewish usurer Shylock, the main dramatic action starts to play out in this scene. In order to fund his search for love, Bassanio begs the Jew for 3,000 ducats over the course of three months and provides Antonio's name as a security. Shylock recognizes a vengeance scheme in the bond after learning about the Christian trader. Shylock, a reckless moneylender, has often been beaten and mistreated by the group as a whole. Christians for charging exorbitant interest rates. Additionally, Antonio—who is a merchant and moneylender—lives by Christian ideals and upholds the concept of brotherhood that seeks no gain by exaction or interest. As a result, he actively competes with Shylock on the job by first hurting his chances for success in business and then publicly criticizing him for his race[7], [8].

The professional hostility between the two merchants is justified as stemming from one of their respective religious beliefs in addition to being couched in racial terms. While Shylock's philosophy of self-interest cannot help but be fueled by the Judaic need for excess, Antonio's self-effacing desire for benevolence is generally categorized as Christian. The latter uses scripture similarities to the tale of Jacob and Laban to defend his self-seeking impulses, while the former swears by a Christian notion of moderation to abhor the "taking giving of excess. Shylock's place in Venice as a racial-political outcastconstantly at odds with a majority-Christian populaceis also made clear right away. We are led to assume that Shylock's misdeeds, which serve as the play's main plot point, are primarily motivated by the oppression and exclusion of Jews in previous times by Christian states. The play that follows will demonstrate how the state's legal system merely serves to legitimize anti-Semitism in the past.

According to this scenario, Shylock is well informed of Antonio's commercial endeavors, as befits a man of his trade. He remembers the locations where the ships of the Christian merchant are bound, almost in rhyme. The Jew begins to rant about the public humiliation inflicted on him by his Christian counterparts "where merchants most do congregate" as soon as Antonio arrives to cement the connection that his buddy is attempting to persuade the Jew into. Shylock further chastises Antonio for his repeated efforts to thwart the Jew's "bargains and well-worn thrift" and his lack of publicly professed Christian sobriety. Shylock sees the bond as a possible means of retaliation against Antonio, who is now without capital possession but is knowingly the legal guarantee for a bond of three thousand ducats. Shylock decides to accept the contract, but on new conditions, after launching yet another lengthy verbal attack against the two friends for asking for assistance from someone they have often referred to as the "Devil" and a "cut-throat dog" and still do. He claims to return "love" for racial hatred by playing buddy with his self-declared "enemy" and charging no interest on the

distributed funds, but "in a merry sport" seeking forfeiture payment of the bond in the shape of a pound of flesh taken from close to the Christian merchant's heart.

After learning about the Jew's terrible decrees and recognizing Antonio's propensity for retribution, Bassanio cautions Antonio not to be held accountable for them. Instead of making his closest buddy pay with his life, he would choose to indulge in his desires. However, Antonio is certain that the bond's evil aim will never come to pass since his ships are scheduled to return a month before the deadline. Even though Antonio would willingly violate his own body to fulfill his friend's demands, he is certain that the relationship cannot be broken.Returning to Belmont, where the lovely maid's fate was decided by a lottery, we meet Portia's suitor for the first time. It is the Prince of Morocco, who addresses Portia with a request to stop disregarding his dark skin tone. Because, according to him, his bravery will allow him to show that he deserves to win any fair fight with the "fairest" competitor in love. He paradoxically begs Portia to not judge him by outer looks, yet the prince will soon succumb to what he advises against being seduced by due to his choice of caskets[9], [10].

Portia rejects any attempt to judge someone based just on appearance because she believes that her father's will determine her destiny, not the power of her eyes. The Prince of Morocco does seem to be the most deserving of those who had so far sought her attention, she continues, even if she is prohibited from engaging in an activity of her own choosing. The prince wants to be guided to the decisive time of the tragic lottery game and thanks the woman for risking such a significant favor despite the restrictions on her will. He swears by his sword, which has seen service in several battles and bears the scars of unwavering resolve, that he can do countless additional exploits to support his claim to the woman. However, he is conscious that none of this wisdom will hold up in a lottery of caskets, and too good of a suitor may likewise succumb to the vagaries of chance. Portia cautions him about the requirements for the second lottery, where the loser would be required to swear never to pursue another lady for marriage if they make the incorrect choice the first time.

The Prince of Morocco informs her that he is aware of this directive and asks for a quick choice at the last minute. Despite being a moment that offers humorous relief in the middle of the play's serious events, Lancelot Gobbo's entrance nonetheless has a significant dramatic impact. The Shylock servant seems to be experiencing existential agony and internal struggle at the beginning of the play due to competing claims of will and responsibility. The clown in Launcelot is engaged in an almost Faustian struggle with moral opposites as his introductory monologue mocks the traditional Christian ethical dichotomy of good against evil. By illustrating how such categories cannot be titularly given, he challenges the oversimplified moral value judgments of action. While Launcelot believes that remaining with the Jew is equivalent to living with the Devil in human form, he also believes that trying to flee from Shylock's home amounted to making a deal with the Devil by disobeying the call of his servant's duty. Whether in his servitude to the Jew or in his quest for a fresh appointment with the Christian in Bassanio, he finds himself being led by and down the wrong road in each case. The protagonist, rather than being the stereotypical Elizabethan overreacher, properly parodies the soliloquy, which is a tried-and-true theatrical method for expressing a moral dilemma and psychological suffering.

Soon after, Launcelot decides against his better judgment to flee the Jewish villain's wrath in order to save his own soul. However, his act of moral reflection is quickly thwarted by his elderly, blind father Gobbo, who unintentionally encounters the son while trying to find Shylock. Gobbo expresses his wish for a rekindled relationship with his long-lost son while asking Launcelot for directions to the Jew's home. Launcelot uses his father's blindness as a justification to avoid being immediately recognized and to start up some fun conversation. In this amusing conversation between the father and son, the latter tries to undermine societal systems by claiming to be the "Master" while really serving as a servant, which is another typical carnivalesque motif. He insisted that his father refer to this Launcelot as the "young Master" or some other derogatory term. Launcelot declares his own death to his father, mocking the very institutions of patrimony and aristocratic pedigree, to deal the last blow of his hilarious sarcasm. And then, not long after seeing his father's unrelenting shock at the news, he admits his actual identity and meticulously allays all of his fears to create a touching scenario of his father's reunion. He informs his father of his choice to leave the Jewish usurer's job in favor of Bassanio, a new and superior Christian employer.

Both the father and the son start begging Bassanio for a job, and after a painstaking admission of the same, the latter agrees to their request. Because Bassanio possesses the "grace of God" while his former Jewish owner just had enough material grace and none spiritual, Gobbo asks for the pleasure of Bassanio's better company for his kid. When Launcelot leaves to say goodbye to the Jew, Bassanio thinks back on the preparations he made for his pre-exile supper with friends. At this moment, Gratiano shows up and asks to go into exile with Bassanio. The latter grants his wish but cautions his buddy from using excessive language and becoming a braggart should they ruin his chances of success overseas. Gratiano quickly agrees to the plan and insists that they follow a strict code of silence about any rash remarks during their time in Belmont.In this brief scene, Launcelot bids Jessica, the daughter of Shylock, goodbye before leaving. The latter attributes the servant's role in transforming a mock-up of "hell" into the Jew's home with a great deal of satisfaction. She ironically refers to him as a "merry devil" in the Devil's own home because he helped to relieve a lot of the general tedium around her.

This constant play on the word "devil" brings to mind Launcelot's earlier exposition on how he is inescapably under the control of the devil, whether he chooses to remain with or leave the Jew. This is where we learn of the relationship between the wealthy Jew's daughter and Bassanio's Christian friend, Lorenzo, when the former gives Launcelot a letter to deliver to her lover. The servant laments Jessica's Jewish heritage, which has yet to taint the inherent goodness of her character, and so she seeks deliverance through a Christian husband. Jessica closes the scene with an apology. She hopes that by marrying Lorenzo and thereafter converting voluntarily to Christianity, she would be able to transcend the internal splintering of her noble self caused by her filial connections to a bad father. Salarino, Lorenzo, and Gratiano. and Salanio are in Venice discussing the plans they have made for the supper and the masque. Launcelot comes with Jessica's letter as Salanio argues that they are too unprepared for the masque and that it would be better to abandon the plot than carry it out improperly and amateurishly. Instantaneously identifying the "fair hand" behind it, Lorenzo sends a message back with Launcelot assuring his lover of his unwavering determination.

As soon as the others have left, Lorenzo tells his friend Gratiano about his intention to elope with Jessica. He describes the letter's contents, including Jessica's disclosure of her covert scheme to rob her father in order to get supplies for their journey and the precise specifics of their intended escape from Venice. She discusses with Lorenzo her prospective disguise as a servant with the intention of keeping the business secret.Lorenzo, who is much in love, is astounded by Jessica's meticulous planning for their escape and declares that the wealthy Jew's misdeeds can only be atoned for by his daughter's noble aim. He wishes her happiness and is confident in her goodness, which, despite her lineal Jewishness, may win her access to heaven's delights. He informs Gratiano that Jessica will carry his torch at tonight's masque.Launcelot informs Shylock about his upcoming meeting with Bassanio and receives a reprimand for his infidelity. The Jew warns his former employee that he will soon learn the

difference between a wealthy employer and a destitute one. Launcelot is accused of wasting his master's money due to his voracious desire, which he now mocks since much of it would go unfulfilled due to his master's lack of resources. Additionally, the servant is accused of being lazy and slothful, all of which served to hurt Shylock's ambition to make successful trades. The Jew slyly keeps making the same accusations and reminds Launcelot that his current master's "borrowed purse" would no longer guarantee him such rights.

After unflinchingly swallowing his master's charges, Launcelot cleverly cries out to Jessica so that he might give her Lorenzo's message. Much to his dismay, Shylock gets ready to depart for supper with the Christian merchant and his buddy. He despises the hosts and is aware that this invitation was not sent out of genuine love but rather out of flattery. However, he prepares to feast on the prodigal's stolen goods and hands over the maintenance of his home to his daughter. He is troubled by fears of imminent financial loss and shares some premonitory knowledge of omens. The reader is already aware of the veracity of Shylock's shady foresight in this instance of dramatic irony. While the character may only predict bad luck instinctively, we as readers are well aware of how and who will deal the Jew this particular blow of bad luck.

When conveying Lorenzo's message to Jessica, Launcelot alludes to the preparations being made for the masque by Antonio's associates. Hearing this, Shylock is enraged and urges Jessica to stay away from the pointless antics of these Christian dandies. He bans her from approaching the window and attempting to obtain a sight of the disguised entourage of Christian men out of concern that the spectacle could entice her into arousing romantic intrigues. He had no idea that Jessica would use the masque to help her escape from Lorenzo with one of the fictitious Christian teenagers. Outside of Shylock's home, Gratiano and Salarino wait for Lorenzo to arrive and express surprise at his slowness in carrying out a plan prompted by love. In a typical Shakespearean rhetorical flourish, Gratiano remarks on how the chase of desire is always more passionate than the satisfaction of it. Similar to this, the books on love recommend a more active pursuit of the beloved than the traditional hours of prolonged contact during marriage. Instead of in its living, love's pinnacle is in its obtaining.

Lorenzo rushes in and quickly intercepts Gratiano. He apologizes for his delay and promises to make up for it by administering a similar patience test when his pals start stealing spouses. Jessica, disguised as a boy, appears on the balcony and, upon recognizing her lover in disguise, throws down a casket filled with gold and jewels that she had stolen from her father's store to help them on their flight. She is ashamed of her sinful action and thanks the night for obscuring her crimes and preventing their discovery. When Lorenzo sees her, he extols her goodness and knowledge in a gushing encomium before urging her to descend and serve as his torchbearer for the masque. Antonio arrives, hoping that she would be saved from the torture of damnation for her Jewish ancestry on the basis of her own sincerity and love. declares an early departure for Bassanio due to the weather while looking for Gratiano. He informs Gratiano, much to his delight, that the masque has been postponed in order to expedite Bassanio's departure.

Second Act scene

Returning to Belmont, we see the opening scene of the Prince of Morocco choosing the coffins. Portia encourages the prince to make a decision and try to win over his professed love by drawing the curtains from the table of caskets. She reveals that, in accordance with her father's wishes, she will instantly offer herself to the prince if he picks the casket containing her portrait.

The Prince of Morocco examines all three caskets of gold, silver, and lead in a protracted monologue that contemplates the ongoing conflict between appearances and reality, illusion and truth, beauty and worth. He carefully examines both of the inscriptions before making his decision, basing it on the promises stated within. While the leaden casket's outside dross dissuades him enough as being unfit to hold fair Portia's photograph, the inscription on it makes the possibility of gaining the desired reward much more remote. The silver coffin makes all the promises one deserves. The prince is sufficiently sure that he deserves Portia not just because of his strength and money, but also because of the strength of his Jove. His gaze now strails as far as the golden coffin. And this one guarantee that many people's desires will be fulfilled. The prince can't be more confident that Portia, the object of so many people's desires, is also the object of his own affection. He will choose the coffin that offers this reward because, like those who traverse oceans and battle the elements, he longs for the one undeniable gain. He requests the key to the golden coffin since he has already made up his mind.

When he opens it, he discovers the decomposing skull of a body inside, along with a scroll jammed into one of its sockets. The prince unfolds the paper scroll and reads the inscription. It teaches the vanquished Prince in a short verse the deception carried by the seduction of one's eyes and declares his choice of casket to be a lesson in sensible decision for all of life. What counts is an internal assessment of worth, not an outward display of elegance and glitter. The poem concludes by reminding the prince of the repercussions of his commitment and urging his immediate, quiet return. The Prince of Morocco complies, and Portia expresses her gratitude for the avoided marriage and her desire for all people with such a complexion. Portia's last comment, which has a racial undertone, ironically makes her a possible victim of the same exteriors' mistake of judgment that her father forewarned against.

CONCLUSION

The play's concern with patriarchal systems is emphasized by the symbolism of the caskets in Belmont, which also foreshadows the difficulties Portia would have in establishing female autonomy. The subsequent argument over the bond is set against the background of the racial and religious tensions between Shylock and the Christians. Shakespeare's ability to combine comedy with serious ethical issues is shown by Launcelot's moral conundrum, which provides an additional depth of reflection. Shakespeare challenges the spectator in these opening scenes to consider the complexities of interpersonal relationships, society norms, and the effects of decisions. These themes will develop and connect during the course of the play, ending in a dramatic and provocative examination of justice, compassion, and the actual nature of bonds—whether they be material, emotional, or moral. Thus, "The Merchant of Venice's opening scenes act as an engrossing precursor to the drama that is unfolding onscreen, predicting the tensions and endings that would hold spectators' attention for many years to come.

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CHAPTER 10 UNRAVELING DRAMA: BONDS, CASKETS AND SCHEMES IN THE MERCHANT OF VENICE

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ABSTRACT:

"The Merchant of Venice" by William Shakespeare is a complex and multifaceted play that explores themes of love, friendship, justice, and prejudice. This abstract delves into the key elements of the play, particularly focusing on the central plot devices of bonds, caskets, and clever schemes. It examines how these elements drive the narrative, shape the characters' destinies, and shed light on the moral and ethical dilemmas faced by the characters. The abstract also highlights the intricacies of character development, especially in the case of Shylock, who evolves from a villain to a figure deserving of sympathy. In "The Merchant of Venice," Shakespeare weaves a tapestry of themes and emotions, utilizing bonds, caskets, and clever schemes as narrative devices to explore the depths of human nature. The play's intricate plot and character development captivate the audience, drawing them into a world where love, friendship, prejudice, and justice intersect.

KEYWORDS:

Caskets, Drama, Portia, Shakespeare, Unraveling.

INTRODUCTION

Salanio and Salarino are chatting about Bassanio's dramatic departure for Belmont to win his love. Salanio recounts that the Jew demanded reparation from the Duke of Venice after learning of his daughter's deed of treachery. After first imagining Jessica leaving on the same ship as Bassanio and Lorenzo, Shylock requested legal assistance from the Venetian government. Such concerns were only allayed when Antonio reassured the duke that the two were not sailing on the same ship as his buddy Bassanio. Shylock supposedly ran through the streets of Venice lamenting the loss of his ducats more than his daughter as his prospects of finding Jessica faded. The idea of his daughter eloping with a Christian made him furious, and he begged for the return of all his valuables, if not the person who was wearing them. He seemed to be more grieved by his financial loss than by the act of filial disloyalty[1],[2].

Salarino recalls a story he had gotten from a Frenchman about the miscarriage of an Italian ship, filled with ample wealth, as he describes the craziness in the Jew's emotions. When this was said, he instantly thought of Antonio and desired that the good-hearted trader would never suffer such bad fate. He then describes the tender parting between Antonio and Bassanio, during which the latter made a commitment to return as soon as possible after completing his business. With tears in his eyes, Antonio pleaded with his buddy not to let his admirable quest for love be derailed by thoughts of him. He acknowledged willingly giving up his life and body to support Bassaru's business. Salanio thinks that the good merchant Antonio sacrifices everything for the sake of his closest buddy. The two decide to track down the guy and give him some encouragement.

We go back to the draw of coffins at Portia's home, but this time it's the Prince of Arragon who is putting his decision on the line. In order for the prince to win her heart, Portia wants the fatal caskets' curtains to be pulled back. She also requests that he pick the casket containing her photo. The Prince reiterates the conditions of the oath he was required to take: the first is a vow of secrecy regarding his choice and its effects; the second requires that, should the choice be unsuccessful, the chooser will never again propose marriage to anyone; and the third elicits the promise of a subdued response in the event of an error in judgment[3], [4].

The Prince of Arragon then moves near the caskets and participates in an rftonologic exercise of self-debate over the relative value of each casket after having spoken the phrases in this manner. The golden coffin conjures the promise of that which is most desired, in contrast to the leaden casket's cursory rejection due to its menacing appearance and its foreboding declarations on the outside. The prince recognizes the ramifications of the word "many" right away, connecting the reward of the deserving man with the aspirations of the many. And it is this comparison of the worthy "one" with the seeking "many" that he most strongly opposes and claims to have avoided. He finds the inscription on the silver casket to be most appealing when applying the logic of one's worthy. He does think that determining what one deserves is the real measure of quality and that here is where the most lucrative rewards are guaranteed. The Prince of Arragon wistfully envisions the results of a genuine appraisal of one's worthy in deciding his claim to honor and power, another clear example of Shakespeare's creative talent. According to him, measuring someone's capacity for respect might really change the corrupt political system. How many people who are oppressed and denied their just part of the wealth would this awarding of "deserved dignity" help? he wonders.

The Prince of Arragon, bewildered by such existential inquiries, decides that the silver coffin is most suited to hold Portia's photograph and makes an effort to open it. The "blinking idiot" image and a scroll criticizing the chooser's foolishness in being purchased by the gleaming exteriors of a dark nothing is found within. The prince is advised by the press to leave Belmont as soon as possible in order to avoid further embarrassing himself, but he obediently follows the advice[5], [6]. The fool's departure, who Portia says lacks the ability to make sensible decisions, causes her to exhale with relief. A servant alerts her to the arrival of a young Venetian with several valuable presents as she prepares to retire. Nerissa recognizes the approaching suitor as Bassanio right away, and the actual test of their love is about to begin. We readers already know the secret that, for Bassanio, is the greatest obstacle to his happiness, which is another example of the use of the dramatic irony method. After two successive failures in casket selection, the readers might already infer that the third leaden one would lead to success. Since there is no longer the suspense of information withheld, Bassanio's choice to take his life at this point in the play is now just a structural necessity. Salarino and Salanio get together in Venice to talk about the reports the Rialtb sent out. Salarino repeats the word that one of Antonio's ships has been lost at sea. Salanio, his friend, fervently hopes that the rumor is false since the honorable Antonio does not deserve to suffer this fate. As he arrives on the scene, the Jew is taunted by flashbacks of his daughter's flight with Lorenzo.

Taking jabs at the disparity in moral character between the doomed Jew and her aristocratic daughter, Salarino and Salanio describe this act of treachery as a suitable reaction to Shylock's intrinsic evilness. However, they are more concerned in confirming Shy lock's assurance that the stories of Antonio's commercial losses are accurate. By referring to his adversary as a "beggar" and a "bankrupt," the latter confirms presumptions and demands that they accept a bond that demands a pound of their flesh as collateral for forfeiture. According to aiarintf, Shylock could not possibly be interested in such a punishment as a pound of Christian flesh since it has no immediate use or advantage. This leads to Shylock's well-known rhetorical tirade against the senselessness of racial-theological prejudice. Shakespeare

describes the "evil" Jew's thirst for vengeance as being nourished by the historical misery of his Vietiffl-hood in a community culture of "Christian courtesy" for the first time in the play. With merely a nineteen-line speech exercise, Shylock's seeming aggression and animosity are decoupled from their former justifications in racial identification and forced to reflect on the un-Christian nature of the so-called Christian apologists. Here, Christian wrongdoing makes Shylock's acts seem justifiable, and Antonio's assumption of a Christ-like suffering is disproved by persistent accusations of bigotry. Shylotk is given the Status of a severely damaged human person with all-too-human wants, desires, anxieties, and ferocities despite his psychiatric instability. Inasmuch as his misdeeds seem to result from the typical criminality of a Christian superiority, the reader is almost astonished to sympathize even a little bit with this victim of the crudest racial prejudice.

Even if a pound of Antonio's flesh had no intrinsic worth, Shylock remains unshakable in his belief that it would satisfy his thirst for vengeance. For no other reason than his racial heritage, Antonio, the kind trader, often piled losses and insults on him. He poses the following question to the audience: Does a Jew's entitlement to human rights just disappear because of his ethnicity and religion? If the Jew possesses a physique that resembles that of his Christian neighbor, shouldn't it be able to experience joy and agony like the other? The Jew must be susceptible to the brutality and extremes of both if he experiences the same seasons and recovers from the same maladies. If a Christian has the legal right to treat a Jew badly from birth, why shouldn't the Jew learn from the Christian's example? And if the Christian's retaliation against the Jew is theologically acceptable, why is the Jew's effort at retaliation condemned as sinful and unnatural?

DISCUSSION

While Salarino and Salanio are engaged in this rhetorical flourish, a servant comes and implores them to accompany his master, Antonio. Following the three's departure, Shylock's friend Tubal enters with hearsay information about Jessica from Genoa. Since Shakespeare almost succeeded in swaying his audience's allegiance from Antonio to Shylock through the latter's previous speech, he must now once more restore the balance and bring the characters back to their stereotypical psychic motivations. After skillfully evoking sympathy from the audience for the play's main adversary, the great playwright quickly sets about alienating him once again and lulling them into their planned stock-response patterns. With Tubal's entrance and his mention of Jessica, Shylock—who had been seeming to be a victim deserving of sympathy—turns into his old immoral self, cursing his daughter and wishing for the finding of her jewel-encrusted corpse[7], [8].

In yet another example of rhetorical witticism, Tubal cunningly switches between accounts of Antonio's downfall and Jessica's stolen escape to elicit conflicting exclamations of joy and agony from the Jew. On the one side, there is the possibility of Shylpck making money by selling a pound of Antonio's flesh, and on the other, there is the loss of jewels and ducats that his daughter stole. Two economic orders are balanced simultaneously to allude to the Jew's moral degradation, which occurred shortly after the audience's sympathetic restoration of him. Bassanio has at last made it to Belmont and is awaiting the crucial moment in his future. Despite her oaths of servitude to her father's wishes and the ensuing marriage vow of selfabnegation, Portia hastily yields to profuse declarations of love for Bassanio. She begs Bassanio to refrain from joining the battle right immediately and to give her the time they need to be together before destiny separates them. She expresses her concerns regarding the outcome of the coffin match since it may result in the owner losing possession of his legitimate property. Since we are aware that this marital relationship may only result in a man's economic upward mobility and not the woman's, Portia's use of economic words in her

statement nearly appears to parody the contractual foundation of this marriage. Since the husband is the beneficiary of the connection, the owner-inheritor relationship described in the marriage contract is reversed in this situation. Although Portia is referred to as a "woman hath no tongue" by her father's patrimonial law, she defies the convention of feminine selflessness by expressing her love for Bassanio in no uncertain terms. She blatantly declares her love, seeming to be entirely unconcerned with standards of womanly behavior, while also drawing attention to the subversive possibilities of her statements by making parallels to patriarchal stereotypes. On the other hand, although openly utilizing the 'tongue' in a manner the woman shouldn't, Portia also employs her 'thinking' in cunning ways to guide Bassanio toward the best course of action. She begins by asking him to "beshrew" his eyes, alluding to the ability of vision to deceive and deceive.

Portia follows Bassanio as he enthusiastically requests to be taken immediately to the location of the caskets in order to put an end to his terrible struggle. As Bassanio makes his decision, she brings him into the room and requests that music be played. Within the scenographic composition, the music may be understood as fulfilling two main theatrical goals. First off, the song's lyrics themselves are only a warning against fancy "engender'd in the eyes," serving as a didactic device to direct Bassanio away from the seductive allures of outer beauty and into the leaden coffin. Second, the music playing in the room would have obviously prevented the other witnesses from overhearing any more hints or whispers that Portia could have given to her suitor. Dramatically, the song allows Portia a chance to publicly break the lottery's rules while avoiding being found out. Bassanio starts by denying "outward" of beauty and kindness as he departs from the resonating notes of the music and its lyrical cautions against the wandering capabilities of vision. Bassanio rejects the glimmer of the gold and the fairness of the silver in a protracted monologue that denigrates worldly methods that place an undue emphasis on the surface and conduct little study of inner value. He approaches the leaden coffin, drawn by its menacing appearance and hoping for gladness to burst out from inside. Portia begins to speak in an aside even before he opens the lead coffin, expressing her overflowing excitement and happiness at being chosen by the person she wants to be a part of.

Bassanio finds lovely Portia's image inside the tragic box, much to his astonishment, and he opens it. He is amazed at how the painter was able to complete the painting given that each of her painted eyes has the potential to deprive the painter of their ability to see. However, he is captivated by the beauty of the image, which is still very far from resembling the actual thing. The achievement of verisimilitude realism in painting is attested to in Bassanio's discourse, which also suggests that the picture may be a true reference to the real while falling short of its fullness, virtually in direct opposition to the fundamental principles of casket-selection[9], [10].

Bassanio opens the coffin and reads the scroll within, which congratulates him on his recent find and requests that he kiss it to make it his own. Portia uses an ironic exercise in self-evaluation to convey her feeling of satisfaction at being correctly picked by the guy of her choosing. She starts by underestimating her own value and claiming that it cannot compare to her husband's, and she closes by announcing that the vast majority of her inherited fortune has been given to Bassanio. While on one side this represents a matrilineal economy in which the woman wills private property to the pauper-husband, it also closely follows Portia's willful self-depreciation as she claims to be nothing in compared to her husband. The latter appears to ironically underline Bassanio's poverty, since he must wait until he marries Portia to be able to claim anything as his own. From his first courting till now, all of his romantic endeavors have been the product of borrowed profligacy and have shown his complete lack

of resources, in contrast to which Portia seems to be an exorbitant and unjust reward. While her transfer of property afterwards materially corrects it, Portia's own self-effacement charitably strives to diminish the all-too-visible gap in their roles inside the marriage.Portia seals their union with a kiss and a ring, which she begs Bassanio to keep as a symbol of his unwavering devotion. Gratiano interrupts the ceremony at this point with a suggestion to further happiness. He claims that during Bassanio's endeavors to acquire Portia, he too had entered into a deal for Nerissa, the lady's maid. They had sworn silent vows of love, but they agreed to only consummate them if Bassanio's luck at the lottery turned out well. He wants to be married with his buddy now that the situation has been profitably settled for all parties involved. When Lorenzo, Jessica, and a messenger named Salerio come, Nerissa also agrees to the plan, and there is a great deal of celebration on the floor.

The latter gives Bassanio a note from his buddy and urges him to return to Venice as soon as possible. Salerio responds to questions on Antonio's wellbeing while Bassanio reads the letter with his face's color wiped out. Portia pleads for an explanation of the letter's contents in order to bring about her lover's palest bluish tint. She understands that a man of honor can only be affected in such a way by the passing of a close friend. A pound of his flesh is demanded as payment for the debt that Bassanio's closest friend was forced to incur as a result of the terms of his travel to Belmont, according to Bassanio. He is exposed to his creditor's homicidal plans since Salerio informed him that none of Antonio's ships had made it back to land. This is all being done to provide him the wherewithal to pursue Portia. By stating that she often overheard her father threaten revenge on Antonio using the same brutal measures as specified in the bond, Jessica allays concerns about her father's commitment to carry out the sentence.

Portia inquiries about the amount Antonio owes Shylock and promises to provide as much more as is necessary to protect such a selfless man from whatever damage he may suffer as a result of supporting Bassanio's cause. She implores Bassanio to enter the church right now, consummate the marriage, and then leave right away for Venice. She makes a commitment to live as a maid and forego any marital pleasure till her husband comes home. Due to the forfeiture of the bond, Antonio is now in the care of the gaoler and is at Shylock's mercy. Beginning the play, Antonio begs "good Shylock" to listen to him after he has so far only aroused obscenities from him. In pleading for his own life, Antonio has suddenly adopted a new demeanor toward the Jew who has always brought out the worst in him. But despite all of these appeals, Shylock remains unmoved and steadfastly determined to adhere to the conditions of his bond. He asserts that nothing the state or its agents could do would make him back down. Citizens may change his mind. He responds to Antonio's disingenuous act of reverence by reminding him of his propensity to refer to the Jew as a dog, and that it is time for it to rip into its victim.

Shylock departs after refusing to listen to argument. Soon after, Salarino starts referring to him as "the most impenetrable cur." Antonio concurs and quits up trying to convince Shylock to show compassion. He understands that Shylock's thirst for vengeance is inspired by memories of all the occasions when Antonio had excused his former creditors from the conditions of the punishment by providing financial assistance. Salarmo tells his companion that the Duke of Venice would never permit the execution of such a horrible sentence inside his realm. However, Antonio is aware that the duke cannot intervene and change the legislation since doing so would create a precedent for future manipulations of the criminal justice system. Since the aforementioned requirements of the indemnification are required by law, the Duke's power cannot help but oversee their implementation in the sake of maintaining Venice's system of justice.

Lorenzo persuades Portia of the inherent goodness of the person for whom she had sent aid after Bassanio and Gratiano had already gone for Venice. He says that Portia would have been very proud of what she did if she had known what a terrific person and close friend of Bassanio she had committed to aid. Despite the fact that the assistance she is doing for Antonio is much less than what he deserves, Portia responds that she has never held back from doing good for others. She thinks friends are always the same way inside and out. Additionally, friends who have spent a lot of time together are certain to have similarities, and by that reasoning, Antonio must be quite similar to her own spouse. How little comfort Portia could provide to someone so similar to her own lover would be taken into consideration when friends are so mutually beneficial! She thinks that by attempting to save Antonio from his sad loss, she is only doing her own soul any good.

Portia continues by stating that she has chosen to leave the praise of her own deeds behind and join Nerissa in a convent instead. She intends to spend her time praying there in a maidenly manner for the welfare of her husband and his buddy. She also wants Lorenzo and Jessica to take care of the home and her belongings while she is away in Belmont. Jessica wants Lorenzo the deepest feeling of comfort throughout her self-willed periods of exile, and he gratefully obliges.

After leaving the household's duties in the hands of Lorenzo and Jessica, Portia turns to her servant Balthasar and orders him to head straight to Padua and deliver a letter to a Doctor Bellario. She also asks him to bring back some notes and clothing that the Doctor will provide as soon as possible. In the meanwhile, we learn that Portia has completed the planning for her veiled farce in Venice and is now giving Nerissa some pointers. After successfully influencing the law of the father in her favor, she has decided to take part in and interfere in the greater operations of justice under the law of the court. She assures Nerissa that they will see their husbands before they have a chance to choose their brides.

Unaware, Nerissa asks Portia what the significance of her comment is. She reveals a key element of her strategy, in which they would dress as men and arm themselves with phony masculinity-enhancing accessories that they will never be able to acquire. She even makes a vow to outperform Nerissa in displaying the pretensions of manly conceit via the tiniest displays of a typical boastfulness and gallantry. She claims that the remainder of her plan will become clear in due course. Jessica and Launcelot are joking about in the garden near Portia's home. Given that Jessica's father's misdeeds compel retribution for the daughter, the former is anxious about Jessica's chances of being saved. However, Jessica gleefully indulges in her fantasy of atonement via a Christian spouse in the form of Lorenzo. As part of his comical rant, Launcelot claims that Lorenzo is also not a real Christian since by assisting Jews in converting to their religion, he is actually driving up the price of pork by boosting demand.

A report is made against Launcelot's previous remarks at this moment when Lorenzo arrives. Lorenzo begs Launcelot to put aside his chitchat for the time being and set the table for supper in an effort to ensure privacy with Jessica. However, the clown keeps going with his enormous supply of wit-play until Lorenzo is both frustrated and in awe of the fool's command of language. Finally, when Launcelot left, Lorenzo asked Jessica what she thought about his friend Portia's marriage. Jessica's appreciation of Portia is unmistakable. She considers Bassanio to be the finest man who has ever lived, and she expects that his devotion to her in marriage and in love would be equal to her virtue. Jessica thinks that if the latter ever makes a mistake in his display of love, he is not deserving of the delights of paradise. Lorenzo thinks highly of himself as a potential spouse for Jessica and is pleased with his lover's high opinion of Portia. The latter advises balancing such self-proclamation with her own viewpoints till Lorenzo requests that she provide them at supper. The classic courtroom scenario poses ethical, fair, violent, and merciful dilemmas. Evidently, it starts in a Venetian courtroom with the Duke lamenting and showing compassion for Antonio's situation. The latter expresses thanks to the Duke for his sincere efforts to placate the Jew and persuade him to abandon his homicidal intentions. He asks the few to follow their own route since he is certain that neither man nor God can forgive such an unpardonable sinner as Shylock. Antonio feels dejected and would prefer to accept the punishment than oppose Venetian justice.

The Duke orders Shylock, the other party to the bond, to enter. Then, via a series of appeals to Shylock's humanitarian instinct, he goes on to soften Shylock's determination with thoughts of kindness. The Duke claims that he and the other members of the court are convinced that Shylock's display of unwavering firmness will soon result in an act of forgiveness that will spare the poor Antonio from paying the penalty as well as a portion of the borrowed principal in remembrance of his recent losses at sea. In response, Shylock reiterates his unwavering determination and refuses to explain his puzzling desire for the forfeiter's flesh. He continues by describing how Nature has her own peculiar methods of arousing people's passions without apparent cause; it is this spontaneous humor he has received from Nature that motivates him to take his retribution. If for no other reason than his own indulgence, he wants revenge. Bassanio steps in to object to such a callous attitude, but Antonio soothes him by stating that it is simpler to argue with a flood, a storm, or a bloodthirsty wolf than it is to try to win over a heart as hard and impenetrable as the Jew's. The latter, who believes that death will come to everyone eventually, insists on a quickening of the last judgment. Bassanio offers Shylock double the amount specified in the bond as compensation for forfeiture in an effort to persuade him to abandon his plans.

By asserting that the punishment has been paid for by him and that it is his property, Shylock rejects the Duke's appeal for compassion once again. According to his argument, Shylock has earned the right to possess a pound of Antonio's flesh and is entitled to demand it from the government of Venice in the same manner as the Duke owns slaves who he uses as labor under the pretense of owning them. The Duke makes an effort to use his authority by postponing the case until his designated Doctor, who will represent the defendant, comes from Padiw. The envoy from Padua is already waiting to speak with the Duke, the servant tells the court. When the Duke calls for the messenger, Bassanio sees a glimmer of optimism. However, Antonio cautions him not to base his life on unrealistic hopes since it is only fitting that the defeated man pass away.

Nerissa enters the room pretending to be a legal clerk and meets with the duke while giving him a letter from Bellario. While Gratiano shouts at Shylock for being possessed by the spirit of a man-eating wolf, Shylock sharpens his knife to "cut the flesh off Antonio's breast." The Duke requests that the clerk read aloud the letter from Bellario, in which it is stated that Bellario is unable to present at the Duke's request due to a serious illness. Bellario offers the services of a young lawyer who lacks expertise despite his age as a replacement. The "young doctor of Rome" called Balthasar is supposedly the best competent to fight for the cause of justice since he is knowledgeable about the specifics of the case and equipped with his own understanding of legal topics. Bellario further informs the Duke that they have had in-depth conversations about the problem and have read literature that may be helpful for the current situation.

The duke warmly welcomes the young Roman into the court right away and requests that business get started. Portia starts by confirming the apparent facts of the situation before advising that compassion would be the best course of action. She engaged in a protracted conversation with the Jew in order to admonish about the nature of kindness and its associated excesses in that it benefits both those who give and those who receive it. Mercy, according to Portia, emanates from the Almighty and has more virtue and power than anything held by the scepter of the all-powerful ruler. Instead of assuring solely worldly delights via the use of power, it brings with it the pleasures of paradise. Although coercive force has the potential to bring about material happiness, kindness has an even greater capacity to do so. Permit entrance to heaven. Since everyone who witnesses the Jew's drive for vengeance would be denied salvation as a result, Portia asks for forgiveness. To no one's surprise, Shylock dismisses the lawyers advise and pleads for mercy. When Portia inquires as to whether money can really be returned, Bassanio responds by offering "ten times" the amount in exchange for which he wants the law to be changed. In response, Portia asserts that the law of Venice is inviolate and that any attempt to manipulate it would set a precedent for further interference with the administration of justice. The declaration of the rule of law seems to imply the fulfillment of Shylock's demand, necessitating the latter's support for the young attorney.

Antonio enters a plea of guilty to forfeiture, and Portia reiterates the conditions of the bail mentioning Uhe. She requests Shylock to have a doctor on hand to stop the merchant's bleeding to death, but the Jew pushes back, arguing that the bond's letter forbids such a provision. While Antonio and Bassanio tearfully say goodbye to one another and praise the purity of their selfless love, Shylock sharpens his knives in preparation for the duel. Portia makes a bold intervention at this time by issuing an injunction. She requests a little delay from the Jew and a second reading of the identical bond, whose total sanctity he swears to uphold. According to the terms of the bond, the Jew is only allowed to consume one pound of the merchant's flesh, but not a single drop of blood or even a single hair's worth.

Shylock may get his punishment according to the law, according to Portia, but his possessions will be seized if he cuts Antonio's flesh with even a single drop of blood or if the scales tip even slightly in any direction. When Shylock eventually decides to leave the courtroom after being paid merely the main amount borrowed, he is perplexed. Portia, however, is certain that he would only get the punishment since he previously refused to return the debt in the name of the law.

Additionally, the legal decrees stipulate that one-half of Shylock's possessions will be seized by the victim and the other half would be kept in the custody of the state since it has been shown that Shylock had personally sought to claim the life of a Venetian citizen. His life, which hinged on the duke's judgment, is pardoned as evidence of the distinction between the Jewish constitution and the Christian state's rule. Antonio deliberately relinquishes possession of Shylock's portion of the estate in exchange for Lorenzo, his daughter, and the Jew's conversion to Christianity.

Shylock requests leave of the court, and the duke, who is charmed by the young lawyer's intelligence and humor, prays for his presence for dinner. The latter declines, but Antonio and Bassanio visit him shortly after to offer him the three thousand ducats owed in the bond as compensation for his very kind services. Portia disputes the payment, saying that she was compensated in kind for delivering the merchant's goods. Portia finally agrees to accept a memento from the two men after being pressed repeatedly, and she ends up requesting Bassanio's wedding band. Flustered by this demand, Bassanio comes up with one after another justification, and the lawyer walks away unsatisfied. Antonio, who is a bit offended by this, asks his buddy to give him the ring since the lawyer really saved his life and deserved much more than this. As soon as the lawyer left, Bassanio gave Gratiano the order to follow him and give him the ring he had requested.

The drama comes to a conclusion after sparking considerable discussion regarding the fundamentals of trial punishment. First of all, the covert farce of mistaken identities used in the administration of justice fundamentally subverts the legal stress on truth and the sanctity of identity. Truth is perverted, starting with the written message intended by Bellario and ending with the performance directed by Portia and Nerissa. Additionally, the excesses in the written letter are revealed through curious legal strategy, where the same terms of the bond that ordain Antonio's death are then used to commission the tragedy of the Jew. Even while the law emphasizes the sanctity of truth, truth is not found in the written word but rather in the reader's understanding of it. Furthermore, the fluidity of identities stated in this scenario is also very important because it shows how the interaction of false appearances is made to survive inside the system of order that requires a governance of the actual. While the lady who "hath no tongue" on the one hand claims the right to rhetorical exercise, on the other hand, it is a woman going by the name of a servant, another counter-subject denied a voice. Justice is administered in court by Portia, who is deceitfully portraying a persona whose name, clothes, and notes are all fictitious adjuncts stolen from the other. Finally, Christianity seems to win in the name of the state's power and commissions a story of "mercy" as necessary for an act of coerced conversion. Is compassion actually extended by a Christian ruler in the name of justice?

CONCLUSION

The bonds, which were first presented as financial agreements, end up symbolizing the characters' moral commitments and putting their allegiance to the test. The caskets' choices and riddles serve as a mirror of the importance of inner worth and the shallowness of outside appearances. Portia and Nerissa's cunning plans provide a layer of humor and intrigue, and they eventually lead to resolves that emphasize the victory of virtue over vice. Shylock has one of the most interesting character journeys, evolving from a conventional villain to a person worthy of sympathy. Shakespeare confronts society stereotypes and makes the audience wonder what justice really is via his passionate lecture on the human condition. Finally, "The Merchant of Venice" continues to be a timeless examination of moral uncertainty, human complexity, and the need of compassion. Shakespeare's ability to create characters and circumstances that ring true with audiences of all ages is evidence of his narrative talent.

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CHAPTER 11 UNRAVELING OF BONDS: SHYLOCK, ANTONIO AND THE COMEDY OF THE MERCHANT OF VENICE

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ABSTRACT:

This analysis explores the intricate dynamics of bonds, vengeance, and racial tensions in William Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice," with a focus on the characters of Shylock and Antonio. Shylock, the Jewish moneylender, is presented as a complex character whose motivations are rooted in historical victimization and economic ambition. Antonio, despite his titular role, is examined as a character whose philanthropy is tinged with racial prejudice and hypocrisy. The study delves into the implications of these characterizations and how they reflect larger themes of justice, mercy, and societal norms. Ultimately, the play's resolution raises questions about the nature of Christian justice and its inherent violence. In "The Merchant of Venice," Shakespeare masterfully weaves a narrative that challenges conventional notions of heroism and villainy, justice, and mercy.

KEYWORDS:

Characters, Shakespeare, Venice, Wealth, William Shakespeare.

INTRODUCTION

In order to get Shylock to sign the gift deed for Lorenzo, Portia and Nerissa are walking down the street in search of his residence. Gratiano overtakes Portia, who is still posing as the lawyer Balthasar, and offers her the ring that she insisted the young Bassanio have. She gratefully takes the gift provided by Bassanio. enquires about the location of the Jew's home. While being brought by Gratiano to Shylock's home, the clerk-appearing Nerissa devises a plan to steal her husband's wedding band in a manner similar to Portia's. The trading of wedding bands simply acts as a den's ex machina to facilitate the couples' reunion, the ultimate disclosure of their actual identities, and a further reification of their marital vows. This sequence purposefully aims to bring the dramatic tensions and conflicts to a comedic ending after Act IV's climax finale. It serves as a formal conclusion to the play's many subplots, including the Lorenzo-Jessica affair, the revealing of Portia and Nerissa's identities and the role they played in the courtroom's climax, and the exchanging of wedding bands by Bassanio and Gratiano. After the chaos and tension of the previous act, the scene opens on a note of tender romance. Lorenzo and Jessica are seen sitting outside of Portia's estate, savoring the romantic beauty of the gloomy night. Theirs is only the pinnacle of that history of honorable feelings, and the midnight stillness recalls either of fabled tales of the most sanctifying love ever written about.

Up until Stephano announces the coming of his mistress Portia and her maid Nefissa, love seemed to express itself at its finest when Nature was at her darkest. Launcelot comes and announces of his master's impending arrival with Antonio as Lorenzo gets ready to greet the lady of the house properly. While the long-exiled parties make their way back home, Lorenzo orders music to be played, and the enchanting appeal of the night is further enhanced by the lovely melodies of harmony. Nature outside seems to be little more than a mirror of human nature on the inside, whose harmony is mostly subdued and veiled by the trivial conflicts of daily life. Jessica complains of a peculiar kind of weight that she experiences while listening to music, and Lorenzo attributes it to a keen awareness of the soul-plumbing depths of lyrical meaning. Shakespeare's most famous words, which powerfully portray music's embalming effects on even the fiercest and wildest of animal species, are used to further convey the power of music. He claims that the person most capable of committing the most heinous crimes and acts of treachery is one whose soul is not affected by music. By the light of the candle in her hall, Portia comes with her maid and makes a comment on how every tiny good act emits rays that are sufficient to illuminate many people's paths in this dangerous world. Her metaphorical comparison, of course, alludes to her own act of generosity in the Act before, and how that one change in Antonio's riches did, in fact, brighten the lives of several people in the pilay. The cause of a larger good is called up by every act of generosity, and this abundant light legitimately supersedes the individual's regular acts of kindness and care. The tragic ending to Shylock's relationship will be remembered as a memory that preserves the 'greater glory' of love and camaraderie between Artanio and Bassanio, in a manner similar to how Shylock's tie will fade away[1], [2].

Portia nearly seems to be claiming possession of the realm that Lorenzo had been in charge of as a "substitute" by using a monarchal picture. This satirical allusion serves to remind us that, while swearing off ownership of patrilineally inherited land to her husband Bassanio shortly after their marriage, Portia still seems to be well aware of her legal authority over it. The woman eventually comes around to exert her economic control over the men she has charitably and temporarily shared its rights of pleasure with, despite her self-effacing claims to the contrary[3], [4]. Portia enters her home to the joy of the sound of lovely music and is informed by Lorenzo that her husband will be there shortly. She gives Lorenzo and her maids strict instructions not to tell Bassanio about their absence in Belmont. Soon later, Bassanio and his men arrive with Antonio, who has just been freed from prison. Bassanio presents his companion to the lady of the house and his wife. He continues to exclaim with enthusiasm how much he owes his buddy, not realizing that Portia is the one who has cleverly freed him from a lot of that relationship. Just as Portia starts to formally welcome Antonio, there is a disturbance caused by a fight between Nerissa and Gratiano.

After learning about her husband's lost wedding ring, Nerissa confronts him, telling him that it must have been given as a token of love to a maid in Venice. Gratiano fiercely refutes these accusations by adding that he was only pressed for the same favor by the young lawyer's clerk after his buddy and master Bassanio gave Antonio's lawyer-deliverer his wedding ring. Knowing how much the pair deserves this little gift given the scale of their contributions, no one could refuse giving it to them. Bassanio continues by describing the details of the transaction, which, if true, would have shamed the value of the lawyer's contribution and equally shown the client to be an unworthy recipient of his services. Portia once again puts on a display of extreme hurt after being enraged by Bassanio's defense of the theft of the wedding gift as only an appropriate recompense for the clerk. Portia and Nerissa's whole performance is really more of an attempt to convince their husbands of the importance of keeping their word and to adequately warn them of the repercussions of adultery. In a marriage agreement that has repressed the female partner in a stereotypical manner, it is in fact an instance of a woman asserting her sexual and moral autonomy.

Following Portia's farce of play acting and her effort to trick her husband into thinking that he had committed a criminal breach of trust, Antonio seems distressed at having caused this marital discord. He assures Chat that as he previously sacrificed his body to help Bassanio win Portia, he would again sell his soul to make sure his buddy keeps the marriage vow. Portia and Nerissa give their spouses their engagement and wedding rings back on the basis

of Antonio and Nerissa's restored friendship. An exciting opportunity for the moment of disclosure is presented by the discovery of the once-lost rings. In front of the audience in the room, Portia reveals the specifics of her covert plan to save Antonio and admits that she is the same lawyer who Bassanio gullibly agreed to pawn off his ring to. When she offers Antonio a letter that she had unintentionally found, the lady makes her final move as the master playwright of this intricate web of attachments and feelings. The letter notifies all three of Antonio's miscarried ships that they have safely arrived at the harbor as a simple plot device to give the play the tidy conclusion of a comedy. Not only is misery ignored, but it is ultimately turned into a source of happiness by an improbable sequence of circumstances.

The play's concluding atmosphere of perpetual contentment has more to it. Nerissa gives Shylock's forced gift deed, writing off all of his possessions to the young couple, to Lorenzo and Jessica. Since Portia appears at the conclusion as the most accomplished of authorial agents, contracting a rather convoluted narrative and then skillfully bringing it to a tidy conclusion, she offers deeper understanding of this perplexing series of events.

Character evaluations

Antonio

Antonio, The Merchant of Venice, unmistakably looks to be the play's title character. However, there has been much discussion among critics as to whether the merchant, although being mentioned in the play's title, really holds a position of great dramatic importance in terms of the action. Is Antonio Shakespeare's comedy's true hero? Can he actually count as a Character worthy of titular mention in the play considering that he controls very little dramatic action and is given less lines of conversation than either Bassanio, Shylock, or Portia? Why does Shakespeare make Antonio the protagonist of his play when, in the end, he only gives him little influence over the dramatic action? The author theoretically makes the play seem as if it is his narrative, but it is important to note that he does not really 'name' the merchant in his title. Shakespeare's perspective regarding the attribution of heroic importance to his main character seems to be rather ambiguous. It is clear that "all" the conflicts in the play stem from or contribute to his misfortunes, whether it be Feassanio's love for Portia and its attempted consummation in a journey to Belthont or Shylock's desire for professionalracial vengeance or the strengthening of Shyloek's resolve by the Lorenzo-Jessica elopement, one might easily argue that despite Antonio having far less dialog exchange and Through a series of attempts to undermine his standing in the commercial system, he serves as the play's source of momentum[5], [6].

On a different level, it's important to remember that none of Shakespeare's comedies are named for any of the actors that appear in them. While the tragedy warrants being referred to by the name of its protagonist in accordance with Aristotle's rules, the comedy's structural arrangements avoid such heroization or individual valorization cliches. Aristotle himself would assert that the tragedy gave the hero's persona a great deal of relevance inasmuch as his tragedy is made worse by a fault inside. In keeping with its long descriptive history, the comedy indulged more in an effort to caricature people as examples of human foolishness. In. Does the Merchant of Venice, with its odd title that gives one character more weight than the others, impose more of a criticism on Antonio than a quasi-heroic agency? This theory could have some weight, since it seems from the play that Antonio's type of economic generosity is ultimately motivated by a vulgar racist contempt of the Jewish "other"! As Shylock accuses him of, the former's goal inside the mercantilistic machinery supports an aggressive language of slander against the Jew's financial advantages. He has humiliated me and prevented me from making half a million; he has laughed at my failures, ridiculed at my successes,

despised my country, scuttled my deals, chilled my friends, and stoked my adversaries; what is his motivation? I am Jewish.

This illogical racial hate is not only justified in self-congratulatory contrast to the order of "Christian courtesy" that Antonio believes himself an advocate of, but it is also shrouded in the terminology of an economic conscience. Antonio's subsequent problems in the play appear, at times, a suitable reply to what he himself had launched by means of a crippled moral conscience in light of his tacit legitimization of an anti-Semitic prejudice via a superior Christian self-image. Through repeated insults directed at the Jew, Antonio seems ironically to lose the same currency of conscientiousness that he takes delight in possessing. Given this, one may reasonably conclude that Shylock's thirst for vengeance is really the outcome of the many other wrongdoings the Christian state has committed in the guise of religious disagreement. It's also ironic that although Attonio openly mocks and rails against Shylock's pursuit of financial success via usury, his own success is based on the same theory of economic excess in business dealings. Although their methods of gain may vary, the desire for financial excess drives their economic subjectivization objectives. It is plausible that Shakespeare used a Christian caricature in Antonio to make a strong statement against such self-righteous hypocrisy and arbitrary manifestations of racial hatred. Last but not least, Antonio's character does display grace in his unselfish declarations of friendship for Bassanio, which nearly compels him to risk his life without even giving it a second thought. His racial excesses coexist with a forgiving fraternal closeness with a Christian rival that, at times, may seem embarrassingly gay in its intensity. To enable his friend's heterosexual marriage with Portia, Antonio wills the violation of his own body. The play finally comes to a close thanks to his promises to stay out of this homoerotic connection while bearing witness to Bassanio and Portia's heterosexual vows of trust. He says to Portia:I once gave my body to a rich man; That would have completely miscarried if not for the person who possessed your husband's ring: I dare to be tied once again. My soul is on the line, so that your lord will never again act irresponsibly against the faithful[7], [8].

The merchant's economic dangers are only erased and he is reinstated inside the narrative of economic refashioning after Antonio is sexually exorcised from Bassanio's sphere of loves. Shakespeare tried his best to capture the stereotype of the villain in the figure of Shylock. But he has gone to great lengths to define his kind of villainy as the result of deeper psychological problems rather than merely the object of comedic caricature. Shakespeare makes Shylock's reasons appear the most believable of all the other characters in the play via a lengthy exploration of the most sinister corners of his mind. We are frequently reminded that his wicked tendencies are not the result of excessive personal foolishness or the Jewish mental "constitution." Instead, Shylock's passionate ideology of vengeance's continual allusion to a history of racial-theological persecution by the Christian society and state gives it credibility. His revenge is not motivated by a self-willed moral depravity or a theological sickness, but rather is brought on by the inequities of a powerfully authoritarian, racist system. This anti-Semitic attitude results in a lexicon of 'otherness' or 'alterity,' which calls for violence along all registers of power, including the economic, legal, political, and religious ones. Act I Scene III of the play, to paraphrase:

Shy-fock

Signor Antonio, you have graded me about my finances and expenditures several times in the Rial. Despite this, I have endured it patiently since suffering is the hallmark of our whole tribe. You insult my Jewish gaberdine, label me a misbeliever, and spit on me—all for the use of things that are rightfully mine. Shylock is the bad guy because he is the 'other' in a Christian state; he is the racial underdog. So, since it looks that you need my assistance, must I bow low and in a bondman's key, With bated breath and whispered humility? His 'difference' from those in positions of power presupposes his villainy, and because of this, he is deserving of vengeance. The reader is informed that much of Shylock's crime is assumed and imagined by the society sitting in judgment. His last act of vengeance is therefore nothing more than a futile attempt to turn him into the criminal for which he is already being punished. In this, Shylock alludes to the methods by which 'different' is made the justification for group vilification and a mandate for exclusion or removal from society. Shakespeare uses the Jewish moneylender as a kind of agent through whom he may criticize comedic character stereotypes that aim to systematically denigrate differences[9], [10].

Shakespeare, though attempting to satirize the flawed perspectives in lop-sided comic characterization, is simultaneously adhering to similar stereotyping in Shylock's filial relationships. On the one hand, Shylock comes across as a villain who, rather than being alienated from authorial sympathies, is made a deserving subject for the reader's feeling as well. On the other hand, he is insistently dehumanized in his dealings with his daughter, Jessica. Much of the play's humor comes from the aftmost-parodic alternation between Shylock's victory over the Christian trader and his loss of a Jewish daughter to a Christian Lorenzo. But what horrifies the reader the most is how little the Jew cares about his relationship with his daughter and how he reacts to news of Jessica's elopement. Not for the embarrassment she has brought upon the community, but rather for the loss of his diamonds and jewelry along with her, he wishes her daughter death. He fervently hopes that his daughter will be discovered dead with all of his gems embedded in her body. He claims it would be sufficient payment for him. If Shylock is a hero-turned-villain, he is a failing parent from the start. Although somewhat qualified, his villainy extends beyond the racial and communal to the more personal familial sphere.

It might be argued that Shylock is the "merchant" alluded to in the play's title. By attributing the title's obscurity to the Jewish outcast's naming incapacity, some of the confusion concerning its precise meaning is clarified. It is undeniable that the Jewish usurer's lines are some of the play's most potent ones, and the play seems to get much of its thematic validity from him. Given the disagreement among critics about the playwright's true views on Jews, Shylock may be rated as the leading man of an approaching capitalist economic regime. It is true that the letter's stress on terminology like "profit," "interest," "loans," etc. foreshadows the creation of a new system of economic production. Shylock is the forerunner of a bourgeois financial system, but since it is detached from ethical and moral concerns, it cannot advance the democratic political agenda that is only beginning to take shape. Shakespeare seems to be apprehensive of the political ramifications of Europe's economic changes given the historical background that the Renaissance represents an interim time in the transition from feudalism to capitalism. And it is via the text of The Merchant of Venice, with its climax vengeance narrative of misdirected economic registers of profit in the desire for Antonio's flesh, that he expresses these fears. It seems as if the author is warning his audience about the dangers of capitalism desire and how it may have a disastrous effect on society. Portia effectively censors the capitalist urge for "surplus" by banning even a little amount of flesh or a spare drop of blood. A few concerns regarding the nature of Christian justice are raised by the courtroom scene's forced conversion of the Jew.

Although the latter takes delight in promoting the idea of "mercy," the Jew's exorcism and subsequent conversion to Christianity is proof of state-mandated violence carried out by the judicial system. The state's violence, which is cloaked in the language of "justice" or "mercy," which grants life, is ultimately used to punish and atone for the criminal's violence. The mistreatment of Jews has a long history, and it is likely to inspire many more Shylocks to seek revenge. The forced lease of Shylock's fortune to his abandoned daughter, on the other hand, provides a fairer distribution of profit than was required under capitalist plans.

DISCUSSION

Despite being Antonio's best friend and a liability who often puts his life in jeopardy, Bassanio has little dramatic impact. Although he simply serves as a trigger for the Antonio-Shy lock subplot to develop, Bassanio's connection with Antonio is very important. Even while it sometimes seems that this young Venetian "scholar" just uses Antonio for his own gain, the play's second half makes clear that he has strong emotional ties to the connection. Due to the amount of time the two have spent together, his trust in Antonio is unwavering. At first, Antonio is driven to commit a fata by his unwavering love for his companion. A hint of gay tenderness permeates their connection thanks to their affinity with Shy Lock. However, Bassanio quickly develops feelings for a lady in Belmont while wooing her, and as we learn, he has effectively abused and wasted both his own and Antonio's fortune. The First Act portrays the young man as a wasteful prodigal who often uses borrowed money to elevate himself beyond his own station in an effort to gain Portia's favor. He immediately strikes me as quite the Renaissance dandy, impressing via pretense in his attempts to sway public opinion.

However, it is noteworthy that Bassanio finally votes against this notion of "pretense" and "appearance" as concealing truth in his choice of caskets to win Portia. It exists here. Bassanio, the play's protagonist, gains his full dramatic thrust by unquestionably outdoing every previous suitor we have seen or heard about. He succeeds by accident, but at this point we are persuaded that his maturity and knowledge make him the most qualified of all contenders and, as a result, the most deserving winner of Portia. The play's judgement justly rewards Bassanio with his prize in Portia because he subverts his own efforts at outward selfprojections of status and riches in the pivotal scene of his casket-selection. By the book's conclusion, it is clear that Bassanio lacks Portia's wit and intellect, but his sincerity and honesty make him a worthy husband for her. Bassanio is forced into a contract of marital wealth transfer from the woman to the husband shortly after his marriage, inverting the dynastic logic of patrimonial inheritance. In this drama, the parameters of the marital project, which traditionally represented a woman's ascent via her husband's wealth, are turned around. And in this way, Bassanio is changed from being the recipient of his wife's benefits under a patriarchal contract of marital arrangements.

Portia

Shakespeare's plays often include more admirable and deserving ladies than male characters, according to critics. Portia is a successful example of the long line of sharply self-aware Shakespearean heroines, such as Rosalind or Viola. It's interesting to note that Shakespeare often inserts his authorial voice via these female characters in comedies. Evidently, Portia is a common example. She serves as the vehicle through which the play's criticism of gender and economic dynamics is pushed. She serves as the point of critical comparison in examining and rating each of the other characters that she interacts with, whether they be her suitors or her client-merchant in the courtroom. In essence, Portia seems to be the writer inside the play who wills and desires every other character's action to occur until every dispute is handled in her favor. In essence, she is the subject of a theatrical farce that exposes the theatricality of judicial justice and its extravagant tales of compassion and retribution. Every time Portia appears in the play, from the beginning to the very end, the play's fundamental themes are furthered through a critical lens.

When we first meet the heroine, she is lamenting the restrictions placed by a deceased father's will on her marital and sexual autonomy. Through the course of the play, she not only succeeds in reversing the patriarchal expropriation of the woman's right to free will by deftly manipulating societal norms and restrictions, but she also succeeds in saving every other man from his separate struggles or tragedies. She is initially seen as being constrained by the dying wish of a paternally-ordained law of inheritance, according to which her right to property depends on her vow of propriety in marital "choice." A society that believes women are incapable of protecting themselves and making wise decisions learns that a lottery will be used to choose her spouse. As a consequence, potential suitors from all over the globe show up at Belmont to compete for the lovely lady's attention. Portia gives each of them a mocking evaluation. A biting societal criticism of human foolishness, in all its many incarnations and obscene excesses, can be found in her effort to verbally caricature the contenders in the race. Portia is similar to the playwright in that she gives the audience a frame of reference through which to see the world. Ironically, we are persuaded that the woman who is purportedly unable to evaluate her ideal husband is also capable of making the most logical assessments of societal norms.

Despite being coerced into a vow of self-resignation, Portia is very conscious of and outspoken about her own decisions and preferences. She often expresses her adoration for Bassanio in an unusually open manner, and she once again employs all of her shrewd wit to influence the caskets' judgment in favor of her and Bassanio's desires. The obnoxious music that is playing in the background while Bassanio haggles over the caskets, the deceitful song that serves as a guide for the right decision, and other actions like these are all the results of Portia's deliberate love. By doing this, she subverts the patrilegal order's demands, which are shortly upended once again when she matrilineally donates privately held and inherited land to a "poor" spouse in Bassanio.

After being married, Portia sets off for Venice to save the life of Antonio, a friend of her husband. This is the pinnacle of Portia's agency. Portia uses the Elizabethan stock-trope of cross-dressing to carry out the plotlines leading up to this dramatic conclusion. To resolve the play's most important problem, she dons a young lawyer's uniform and goes under the name of her servant Balthasar. While Portia's masquerade as a man allows her to participate in the traditionally male activity of giving forensic testimony in a public law court, her use of a servant's name does, on the other hand, completely upend societal structures. Although there are four acceptable settings for the use of rhetoric, Aristotle claimed that the courtroom is one of them in his book on rhetoric. The two subaltern-subject groups of women and slaves were sometimes denied the ability to utilize it. By attributing the Aristotelian maxim to the "woman in the name of the servant," Portia effectively demonstrates a subversion of the dictum in the courtroom.

Through Portia's efforts to make a farce of the legal reasoning of truth and the real, the whole courtroom drama may be explained. Here, the justice advocate herself is putting up a false front, and her concluding point that reinterpreting the law would result in varying interpretations of the truth is likewise evidence of the excesses in the truth of a legal testament. Portia paradoxically reveals the excessive act of interpretation while also enacting a censure of what goes beyond the written word in her directive that Shylock is only entitled to what is stated in the "legal letter." On one level, it implies that the meaning of a word determines its meaning rather than the word itself; on a second level, the lawyer requires that a word's meaning be limited to its literal meaning. The dilemma at the center of the judicial system is echoed in Portia's recurrent considerations of the play's "appearance versus reality" subject.

Portia manipulates another theater of exchanges with Bassanio and Gratiano by making them give up their wedding rings, which are a sign of violating the marital pledge, after having shown "the hollowness of legal strictures." Portia wants to educate their spouses the importance of the marriage outside of legal proceedings, which is why she includes this humorous subplot at the conclusion. She draws a lesson from the fact that love requires higher holiness and solemnity while being incompatible with legal records of truth and religion. Portia demonstrates her superiority as a dramatic action agent by deftly devising a lesson for Bassanio on the loss of marriage's penalty.

The play ends with Portia unintentionally taking credit for telling Antonio's ships to return to port. Despite the fact that this "accident"her coming upon a letter written to Antonioseems a little flimsily patched with the rest of the story, it helps to highlight Portia's power over the overall course of events. Portia emerges as the dominant "deliverer" of all the men in the play, and she concludes the play by establishing her authority via a command over both the knowledge and the means of action.

Jessica

Jessica, the daughter of the Jewish usurer in Shylock, differs from her father more in personality than "between jet and ivory,red wine and rhenish." Despite her ethnic heritage as a "other," her acceptance into a Christian framework of community morality is justified by this distinction in their natures. In addition, Jessica's self-willed plan of conversion after marrying Lorenzo actually serves as the foundation for her acceptability within a normative Christian state. It is noteworthy to note that Jessica's plans for conversion are not the result of her rejection of Jewish religious faith, but rather an attempt to express resistance against her father. It's clear that there is no emotional closeness between Jessica and Shylock. Instead, when he learns the truth about her daughter eloping with his gems and jewelry, Shylock horrifyingly wishes for her death. In this scenario, the spectator is just as shocked by Shylock's inhumane interior as Jessica must have been to come to the horrifying truth. Given the shaky nature of their familial ties, Jessica's ongoing rebellion and condemnation of Shylock don't appear to be a judgment on her religion but rather solely on her father. Because of her typical estrangement from Shylock, some people think the moneylender's daughter is too non-Jewish, but for Jessica, her uniqueness is only an expression of her emotional distance. As a result, despite the fact that the society saw Jessica's trip with Lorenzo as the reason for her redemption, for her it was just an effort to flee patriarchal confinement under the Law of the Father. Her larceny on another level expresses her opposition to her father's shady acquisition strategy. By being wealthier than her husband, she, like Portia before her, subverts the logic of the woman's social mobility via marriage.

She is the conduit through which Lorenzo eventually obtains Shylock's possessions by a compelled deed of gift. Through metaphysical presumptions of Jessica's conversion to Christianity serving as a redeeming benefit, the subject of marriage's profitability for husbands is continually refuted. The Christian characters in the drama use religion to justify their actions, although this is more of a ruse. hide the disruption of patriarchal marital arrangements. Finally, it should be noted that Jessica also performs a theatrical act of crossdressing as a hoy to carry out her escape. She seems to need to dress as a male in order to even challenge the father's rule. It is clear from her few romance sessions with Lorenzo that she controls her husband well enough and sometimes even has the ability to outsmart him. When Jessica says in Act IU Scene V: "Why, if two gods should play some heavenly match And, on the wager, lay two earthly women," it is clear that Jessica is in awe of Portia. And Portia One, because the wretched, brutish world does not have her partner, there must be something else Pawned with the other. Her admiration for Portia is proof of how similar their

personalities are. Shakespeare's heroine Jessica serves as the standard by which the magnificence of the character may be properly assessed.

Launcelot:

The typical Elizabethan idiot played a very important part in Shakespearean plays. Here, in this comedy, Launcelot Gobbo's character effectively plays the part of the clown. It's interesting to note that the clown in Renaissance play was not at all a figure of cheap humor but rather a deep representation of reason. He was socially inferior to the bulk of the other characters in the play because of this; nevertheless, because of the way his voice often sounded, he was able to undermine established hierarchies. Therefore, the fool or clown would serve as a vehicle for a criticism of social mores and affectations. He would represent the 'carnivalesque' guiding concept of disintegrating the dominating registers of human reason. When Launcelot Gobbo initially comes, he offers similar promise. Launcelot appears to be mocking moral standards and religious interpretations of good and evil from the very beginning after appropriating the form of the soliloquy, a dramatic technique best suited for the play's protagonist to exhale his inner struggles and emotional anguish. Launcelot ought to be treated with the level of seriousness appropriate for a heroic figure who is engaged in combating issues of the most fundamental metaphysical import. He debates with himself whether leaving the Jew's service to work for a Christian was a wise course of action. For him, the answer to this issue influences his chances of finding salvation, thus it warrants careful consideration. Even later in the play, Launcelot is visibly concerned by the possibility that the Jew's daughter would be shown compassion by God. Launcelot's seriousness does not make fun of meaning; rather, it criticizes the shallowness of the world of selfishness and selfcentered love that surrounds him.

Launcelot decides to leave the wealthy Shylock and work for a poor Christian living off borrowed money after calculating his own spiritual riches. This is a particularly valiant choice since it directly contracts loss. Launcelot is the only character who chooses to serve a master who is clearly poorer than his former patron since everyone else in the dramatic world is continuously motivated by the desire for economic "profit". A more reliable promise of a bond of slavery for Launcelot could not have been made by Bassanio, who is himself making ends meet on Antonio's borrowed money. The Jew himself chuckles at his servant's judgment, which seems careless:I separate ways with him and give him to someone who wants to use him to spend His borrowed money. However, Launcelot is certain that his new job will bring him more spiritual "profit" since, as he informs Bassanio, "The old proverb is very well divided between my master Shylock and you, sir; you have the grace of God, sir, and he hath enough."

Launcelot's many exchanges of insults with his father and later with Jessica, his former lover, only serve to highlight a struggle between two different modes of knowing. The fool takes great pleasure in a joyous wisdom, but Antonio's is a rationalism that forbids self-knowledge in melancholy. For all intents and purposes throughout the play, the latter seems to be more deserving of a voice. O dear discretion, how his comments are appropriate! Lorenzo is in awe of the fool's ability to deliver clever raillery and laments his lower social standing in compared to the lot of well-bred fools. The idiot has imprinted himself. A vast army of wise words, and I am aware of many idiots who participate. Garnish would want him at a better location than that for a cunning phrase, Defy the subject.

Shakespeare only ever used an allusion to the mercantilist economic system in the title of one of his plays, The Merchant of Venice. The reference has special significance to the historical setting of the Renaissance, as opposed to being incidental to the professional competition that

causes the dramatic tension. The Renaissance era was in fact a transitional phase from feudal to capitalist forms of production, as shown by the economic history of early modern Europe. This first instance of commercial modernity in Europe was directly responsible for the merchant's role in fostering the creation of a new middle class. Of fact, the merchant preceded the bourgeois man, and it was through him that novel social ties finally emerged. effective cooperation with the governmental apparatus. Shakespeare wishes to depict and condemn this condition of economic-political relations via this play, as well as the subsequent agency given to the commercial entrepreneur in managing such matters.

CONCLUSION

Shylock, who is often seen as the play's adversary, shows himself to be a person motivated by economic ambition and historical injustice, making viewers wonder about the propriety of his acts. Despite playing the lead part, it is made clear that Antonio is a hypocrite who harbors biases. The play's conclusion, which is set in a courtroom, emphasizes the inherent brutality of the judicial system as it orders Shylock's forced conversion, continuing the victimhood cycle. As Jessica inherits her father's fortune, the resolution also highlights the issue of equality in profit distribution. "The Merchant of Venice" is a thought-provoking examination of social conventions and the effects of discrimination towards people of other races and religions. It asks the audience to consider the intricacies of interpersonal relationships, justice, and the hazy distinctions between goodness and evil. The play's lasting influence ultimately comes from its capacity to elicit discussions on these timeless issues and their applicability to modern society. The Merchant of Venice is much more than simply a theatrical display of love and vengeance since it is anchored in the historical circumstances of power that exist today. It is simultaneously a carefully planned historical record that both reflects and critiques the ethos of its era. Shakespeare's creative talent also imparts an instinctive understanding of the approaching bourgeois morality of commerce to the text.

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CHAPTER 12 EXPLORING THE OLIVER GOLDSMITH: SHE STOOPS TO **CONQUER**

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ABSTRACT:

Oliver Goldsmith's comedy play "She Stoops to Conquer" is a classic example of the comedy of manners from the 18th century. Set in a rural English inn, the play explores themes of class, misunderstanding, and the complexities of courtship. The story follows the young Marlow and his friend Hastings as they visit the Hardcastle estate, mistaking it for an inn. This misunderstanding leads to a series of humorous situations, as Marlow's behavior shifts dramatically depending on whether he believes he is interacting with a lady of high society or a common barmaid. The play ultimately celebrates the triumph of true love and genuine character over social pretension. Oliver Goldsmith's "She Stoops to Conquer" continues to be a beloved comedy in the theatrical canon.

KEYWORDS:

Comedy, Deception, Farce, Mistaken Identity, Oliver Goldsmith, Social Class, Stoop, Theater.

INTRODUCTION

English theater was arguably at its lowest point since the theaters were shut down during the Cromwellian interregnum when Goldsmith wrote his first comedy in 1786. This low point was likely caused by Sentimental Drama, the Stage Licensing Act, Garrick, and the audience. English theater started moving toward moral and emotional drama after the reaction against purportedly profane and licentious plays at the turn of the century, with Richard Steeie's The Conscious Lovers serving as its most illustrative example. On the other hand, Colley Gibber, one of the managers of the rival theater, Drury Lane, the only other company authorised to appear in London, had rejected John Gay's The Beggar's Opera, a ballad-opera that was performed for the first time on January 28, 1728, in front of a crowded audience at Lincoln's Inn Fields. In a daringly original way, Gay's piece fused elements of popular music, gritty underworld humor, and political and social criticism. Rich, the manager of Lincoln's Inn Fiends, was inspired to construct a new theater in Covent Garden, which was finished in 1732. It inspired hundreds of imitations. During this time, many new theaters began to develop, but the Stage Licensing Act of 1737 struck the theater a fatal blow. The Whig administration of Robert Walpole acted swiftly out of alarm at the growing use of political satire on stage. In the 1730s, Henry Fielding started to publicly criticize Walpole with plays like The Historical Register for the Year 1836. The Beggar's Opera sequel, Polly, had also been scathing of Walpole[1], [2].

The Golden Rump, a now-lost anonymous play in which the King was shown as a living idol in need of the Queen's care with enemas to heal his golden intestines, used as Walpole's justification for the new law. Some believed that the play had been organized by Walpole himself to hasten the bill's passage, including Fielding. No matter who wrote it, the stage. The Licensing Act, which went into effect on June 24, 1737, established rules including the need that the Lord Chamberlain's office must henceforth authorize all new plays. Up until the

position was eliminated in 1968, every spoken drama in British theater required the Examiner of the Plays' approval. The Licensing Act had two effects in practice: it limited the performance of legal drama to the two patent theaters and mandated that all plays be approved by the Lord Chamberlain. Some plays were officially forbidden, although this was often because writers self-censored before submitting their manuscripts[3], [4].

It became challenging to create plays that would break new ground with these limitations. The three decades after the Licensing Act are characterized by an almost complete absence of memorable plays, with Richard Cumberland's The West Indian being the possible exception. This led to the dominance of sentimental drama, "comedy where tears outweighed laughter and moral orthodoxy, and reform overcame any subversive energies." Nevertheless, one guy dominated the English scene at this time like a giant. Perhaps critics have not given David Garrick's contribution to theater enough credit. At Drury Lane, he ruled supremely from 1741 until 1776. Little new work for the repertory was created during his direction, but performing and production techniques underwent radical change. Along with fundamentally altering the definition of actingparticularly Shakespearean actinghe also tried out novel spectacles, effects, and costumes. While the plays continued to be adapted and reworked, Garrick was also concerned to put back as many lines as he could and to extend the range of Shakespeare plays performed, as Peter Holland and Michael Patterson point out. If in Garrick's entire career he failed to generate any significant new drama, his achievement was focused on the deification of Shakespeare. The performance pattern had a lot of modifications throughout the Garrick years. Pantomimes like Theobald's Harlequin Sorcerer, which was played 337 times at Covent Garden between 1747 and 1776, acquired significance as the afterpiece to the main bill. These humorous interludes helped to counteract the emotional, morally flat content of the main drama. In fact, some scholars contend that farce, not emotional comedy, is the period's preeminent theatrical style.

In the 50 years since the Stage Licensing Act, theatre audiences have likewise seen significant transformation. Around 1,200 people could fit in Drury Lane at the start of the 18th century. But it's over. Covent Garden, where Goldsmith wrote very seldom during the century, grew from 1,330 in 1832 to 3,000 in 1782, a triple rise. There were other new theaters in London as well, with capacities of 2,600 at Sadler's Wells and 2,500 at the Royal Amphitheatre, that were performing pantomimes, equestrian shows, and illegal plays. In "Sheridan and Goldsmith," Catherine Worth writes:If you could take us back to the opening night of She Stoops to Conquer at Covent Garden or The School for Scandal at Drury Lane, what staging element would stick out to you the most? "Perhaps the coexistence of a large forestage, making for a close, intimate relationship between actors and audience, and a proscenium stage, where an illusion of scenic could be created by means of painted wings and back-flats," says the author.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan purchased Garrick's stake in Drury Lane, although he had little interest in "theatre business, management of men." He sold his stake to John Philip Kemble in 1788. John Philip Kemble and his sister Sarah Siddons were two of the best performers of the day. Siddons and Kemble both have the ability to deliver heroic, emotionally charged, larger-than-life tragic performances. As William Hazlitt intended to pen:In short, we believe that the defining quality of his acting can be summed up in one word: intensity, in the seizing upon one particular feeling or idea, or insisting upon it, in never letting go, and in working up, with a certain grateful consistency and conscious grandeur of conception to a very high degree of pathos and sublimity[5], [6].

Theodore Goldsmith

According to legend, She Stoops to Conquer is based on true events. He asked Ardagh for "the best house in town" while out on a walk in the country where he had been seen showing an interest in exquisite homes. He was then guided to the best "gentleman's house," which he mistakenly thought was the inn he had been looking for. He discovered that his host was not an innkeeper but rather an old friend of his father after acting in a very carefree and relaxed manner, ordering wine and asking for his bill the next morning.

Young Goldsmith apparently had access to a plenty of writing material thanks to his diverse and exciting travels. He spent a number of years roughing it while traveling around Europe, supporting himself by playing the flute or participating in "university disputations" for money, which prompted Boswell to observe:In Europe, Goldsmith argued his way through. Similar to Congreve, Goldsmith quickly found himself rubbing elbows with Grub Street and café regulars. His work writing studys and biographies for the publisher John Newbery was one of his primary sources of income. He contributed often to The Monthly Review and Newbery's Public Ledger during this period. The latter published his "Chinese Letter," which was eventually collected and published as The Citizen of the World. With the publication of An Enquiry into the Present State of Polite Learning in Europe in 1759, Goldsmith first gained notoriety. However, it was his lengthy poem The Traveller that caught the attention of Dr. Samuel Johnson in 1864. Johnson's inner circle also included Edmund Burke and the painter Joshua Reynolds. But it was The Vicar of Wakefield's phenomenal success in 1766 that really put Goldsmith on the literary map. With a little assistance from Johnson, who was able to save Goldsmith from being put under virtual house arrest by a furious landlady by selling the Newbery manuscript.

But when it came to theater, Goldsmith was originally unable to have a comparable effect. He has criticized Garrick's administration of Drury Lane in his current state of polite learning, as well as the general trend of theater managers to steer clear of new plays. Garrick declined to take his first play as a consequence. The Good-Natur'd Man was forced to go to Covent Garden as a result. Dr. Johnson wrote the prologue for The Good-Natur'd Man, which had its debut on January 29, 1768. Although it ran for nine nights, it wasn't a huge hit. In 1770, Goldsmith published The Deserted Village, another lengthy poem. However, it wasn't until 1773 that his theatrical abilities reached their peak. Early in the year, Goldsmith published anstudy in Westminster Magazine titled "an Study on Theatre; or, a Comparison between Laughing and Sentimental Comedy." The study has several passages that merit full quotation. In the study's second section, Goldsmith says: However, in spite of this weight of authority and the widespread custom of earlier eras, a new type of dramatic composition known as sentimental comedy has been introduced, in which the virtues or private life are exhibited, rather than the vices exposed, and the distresses rather than the faults of mankind make our interest in the piece. These comedies have had tremendous popularity recently, maybe due to their freshness and their ability to please every guy in his favorite vice. Nearly all of the characters in these plays are excellent and very kind; they bestow plenty of their stage money on the actors even if they lack humor. If they do have flaws or foibles, the audience is taught not only to overlook them but to cheer them on because of the goodness of their hearts. As a result, foolishness is praised rather than mocked, and the comedy aims to stir our emotions without actually being pathetic. In doing so, we risk losing a major source of stage amusement since the comedic poet completely ignores the sad muse's beautiful sister while encroaching on her territory. However, he is in no way concerned about this since he gauges his success by money[7], [8].

For Goldsmith's deeply antisentimental drama, She Stoops to Conquer, this study served as a kind of prelude. It has been hypothesized that the move toward sentimental deama was a reflection of a shift in the national mindset. There was a rising recognition of the middle class and the principles that this segment of society upheld. With the example of The Clandestine Marriage by Colman the Elder and Garrick, Katharine Worth has shown that not all emotional plays were antagonistic to humor. But Goldsmith, as well as Sheridan a few years later, believed that emotional play was little more than "comedy of tears" and felt stymied by the limitations it placed on modern theatre.

The schedule of Goldsmith

It is remarkable how both prologues by Goldsmith and Sheridan make great use of the theatrical environment. In Sheridan's prologue, Mrs. Bulkey made reference to the of Comedy in the Covent Garden Theatre. Garrick makes reference to fellow actor Ned Shuter in She Stoops of Conquer, saying: "Poor Ned and I and dead to all intents." There are more connections buried in the play's text that may not be immediately clear to a modern-day audience. The play's fundamentally absurdist concept, which emerges from a succession of errors and misunderstandings, is what has international appeal. While some of Goldsmith's contemporaries dislike the ludicrous aspect, it is vital to understand that Goldsmith had goals beyond just creating a play that would be popular with audiences. Instead, Goldsmith took it upon himself to regain the dramatic space that "laughing comedy" had occupied. He had to be cautious not to offend anybody while also avoiding the pitfall of crude humor or a Falstaffstyle belly laugh. According to his statement in AStudy on the Theatre, humor is now seen to be leaving the stage and will soon be replaced by just a nice suit and a song by our comedic actors. Whether the audience really ejects those unfortunate, joyous actors off the stage or chooses to see a play as melancholy as The Tabernacle relies on them. It is difficult to regain an art after it has been lost, therefore it would be fair to deprive ourselves of the ability to laugh after we have, due to our excessive fastidiousness, banned humor from the stage[9], [10].

Nick Lumpkin

Given such a goal, Tony Lumpkin's role in the play may be seen as the most obvious representation of what Goldsmith was attempting to do. He is the primary perpetrator of the most of the mischief in the play; it is he who leads Hastings and Marlow to Mr. Hardcastle's home when they want to be taken to an inn. In reality, Tony's reputation as a persistent practical joker is established in the play's opening scene, when his parents are talking about him.

Humor, my darling; nothing but humor, said Mrs. HARDCASTLYE. Come on, Mr. Hardcastle, you have to give the kid some room to laugh. HARDCASTLE. I'd much rather let him have a horse pond. He has humor, if burning the shoes of the footmen, scaring the maids, and disturbing the kittens counts. But when I went to make a bow yesterday, he had secured my wig to the back of my chair, so I flashed Mrs. Frizzle my bare head. Take note of Mrs. Hardcastle's indulgent tone, which does not, however, shield her from Tony's constant agony. However, Goldsmith took great effort to show Mrs. Hardcastle as a cold-hearted person whose indulgent devotion for her son alternates with bouts of rage when she loses control of Tony's life. The audience is thus encouraged to forgive Tony and silently congratulate him for playing the Lord of Misrule in the play. Tony's frantic comedic energy is similar to Puck's, and his tendency for creating confusion is reminiscent of plays from the Renaissance and the Elizabethan eras. Tony enjoys blocking the paths of loves, in this instance the Marlow-Kate and Hastings-Constance couples, much like Puck. The scene switches to The Three Pigeons,

where Tony conducts court, after Kate's father advises her to get ready for Marlow, her suitor, later that evening.

According to Dick Muggins, the excise worker, Mr. Hardcastle has already discarded the location as the hangout of a low, pitiful group of men. The horse doctor Jack Slang and others. His song in the bar is an ode to "good liquor," a Dionysian ode to the vine that makes light of everything he considers oppressive, including Methodist preachers and classical education. However, Tony's friends from the bar are not the only members of their class who appear in the play. The "four awkward servants" at the start of Act II in Mr. Hardcastle's establishment and their confusion foreshadow the chaos into which the Hardcastle family will soon be thrown. In one of the play's funniest scenes, Marlow and Hastings continue to talk at cross purposes with Mr. Hardcastle. Even after realizing his error, Hastings purposefully keeps Marlow in the dark about it for fear that Marlow would go away in shame and stop him from courting Constance. In act three, Marlow takes a much more proactive approach to pursuing Kate under the guise of a barmaid, carrying on the theme of mistaken identities that was introduced in act two. One of the play's high points is Kate's disguise, which follows in the footsteps of heroines like Rosalind and Viola. Kate also instructs Marlow to love her with charm and wit. Mr. Hardcastle had already decided that Kate should wed Charles Marlow's son at that point.

DISCUSSION

Kate, Constance, and Tony, the play's three younger protagonists, are all said by Katharine Worth to be in uprising against the elder generation. Wit and play-acting are used to carry out a triple sexual insurrection. Hastings and Constance are the two couples who most closely resemble traditional romantic pairs in sentimental comedies, but Goldsmith gives them a true human quality, adding weight to their disobedience. But Tony's uprising is perhaps the most important because it brings to light the play's persistently tense connection between marriage and property. He is able to win the audience over despite his disruptive behavior by hatching a plan to take the gems that are in his mother's care and give them to Constance and Hastings. When his mother is in the last act of a mental breakdown, he sometimes errs on the side of cruelty, but most of the time, the people he targets have earned their fate. It is simple to persuade the audience that this is the case with Mrs. Hardcastle since she is shown as a selfish, conceited lady on two separate occasions. Once when she tells Constance a falsehood about losing the diamonds, and again when it turns out Tony has already reached legal adulthood in spite of what his mother has told him. The play's joyful conclusion is appropriately ensured by Tony Lumpkin's generosity to Constance and Hastings. Although Kate is mentioned in the title, Tony Lumpkin's morals win at the play's conclusion. Along with him, long-forgotten giggles return to the English stage.

Although the passages' contents will vary widely, they may be roughly divided into two categories: the narrative and factual, and the introspective and thinking. The first group of sections that are both narrative and factual often includes descriptions of travel and adventure as well as clear recounts of events, interactions, and experiences. Additionally, they include sections that discuss topics like science and technology, as well as concerns related to business, commerce, or social science. Writing of substance fits better in the second category, which deals with introspective writing on any topic. The focus of substance writing is on conveying the paragraph's main concept, and unlike precis writing, substance writing may need rearranging the order in which ideas are given in the original piece. Writing concisely is mostly a practical skill. It is a mental exercise that teaches students to discriminate between what is necessary and what is not. The student cannot afford to focus on certain sections of the text while ignoring others. The first passage to be worked out is the one that follows.

Developed Passages

For many years, zoologists and other experts have struggled with the issue of protecting certain wild species from extinction; but, more lately, the issue has gained so much attention and gotten so severe that the majority of people are now worried about it. This may seem unusual at first since one of the most satisfying recent outcomes has been the adoption of tight legislation to preserve wild creatures and the fall in large game hunting for sport. Even Nevertheless, the numbers of less rare wild creatures are rapidly dwindling, and uncommon species are still in danger of becoming extinct. The progress of civilisation is one explanation for this. The native habitat of various species is lost when an area is completely stripped of vegetation to create place for new communities, manufacturing sites, or hydropower projects. Animals that have been displaced must either relocate to a new region or die. Even clearing land for a road or an airport may require pushing back the jungle, and the fewer wild animals there are that have a chance of surviving, the smaller the area in which they must compete for food.

The quick and simple transportation that civilization provides also aids individuals who are determined to breach the many protective rules. Before the dead or dying victim is even found, thieves may flee from game wardens, kill animals, and be kilometers away from the scene of the crime. While reading the chapter, one has to be attentive. Once the material has been read once, twice, or three times and comprehended well, the key elements may be highlighted or underlined as follows: For many years, zoologists and other experts have struggled with the issue of protecting certain wild species from extinction; but, more lately, the issue has gained so much attention and gotten so severe that the majority of people are now worried about it. At first glance, this can seem unusual since one of the most satisfying recent events has been the adoption of stringent legislation to preserve wild creatures and the fall in large game shooting for sport. Even Nevertheless, the numbers of less rare wild creatures are fast dwindling, and uncommon species are still in danger of becoming extinct.

The progress of civilization is one explanation for this. The native habitat of various species is lost when an area is completely stripped of vegetation to create place for new communities, manufacturing sites, or hydropower projects. Animals that have been displaced must either relocate to a new region or die. Even clearing land for a road or an airport may require pushing back the jungle, and the fewer wild animals there are that have a chance of surviving, the smaller the area in which they must compete for food. The quick and simple transportation that civilization provides also aids individuals who are determined to breach the many protective rules. Before the dead or dying victim is even found, thieves may flee from game wardens, kill animals, and be kilometers away from the scene of the crime.

The Initial Draft

The initial draft, which attempts to summarize the essential ideas, may go above the allotted word count. An initial draft may like this. In the past, professionals had been responsible for protecting wild creatures, but due to the severity of the issue, it is now a worry for the majority of us. However, despite tough laws and a drop in shooting for game, some creatures continue to be in danger of becoming extinct and the population of others is dwindling quickly. The cause of this is the advancement of civilization, which necessitates additional land for urban expansion, eliminating wildlife's natural habitats. Animals may be killed by lawbreakers with the aid of quick and simple transportation, and they can elude capture. The precis's goal is to communicate ideas as precisely as possible. At this point, terms that can be swapped out for others that are more suitable or eliminated must be taken into account.

Before going on to the final draft, phrases that need to be modified or might be eliminated are noted on this draft. On the aforementioned first draft, one may circle them in this manner.

The Marked-Out First Draft

In the past, professionals had been responsible for protecting wild creatures, but due to the severity of the issue, it is now a worry for the majority of us. However, in spite of the severe laws and fall in game hunting While other species are fast dwindling in number, unique creatures are nonetheless in danger of becoming extinct. The cause of this is the advancement of civilisation, which necessitates additional land for urban expansion, eliminating wildlife's natural habitats. Using quick and convenient transportation, criminals may slaughter animals and flee without being caught.

Utilizing A Grid

Drawing a grid when writing the precis makes it easier to stay inside the allotted word count. A grid with five columns makes this calculation simple. Additionally, there is ample room for the larger words. The precis's final draft has been worked out in the grid:

The Initial Verse

Usually, when a volcano erupts, it leaves behind horrific destruction and fatalities. It then quietly observes the mayhem it has wrought while sitting there. Krakatoa, however, did not act in this manner. Krakatoa has been a meaningless island for many years. However, this little island went insane and vanished in August 1883. With the most deafening noise and the biggest number of fatalities ever recorded, six cubic miles of rock, which made up the majority of the island's structure, suddenly disappeared, either being blasted into the stratosphere or collapsing into the sea. Geologists from all across the globe have been thinking about the causes of this for the many years that have passed. Will Duraht famously said: "Civilization exists by geologic consent, subject to change without notice." Krakatoa serves as a vivid reminder of this. But since geology is a logical discipline, it enables us to take a step back from our astonishment and disbelief at such occurrences, embrace a longer perspective, and be astonished by something quite different: that our planet really enjoys a significant and incredibly fortunate condition. When considering the big picture, the earth's basic, very visible features—its position in space, its size, and the mechanisms that led to volcanic eruptions like Krakatoa—are ideal for the sustenance and preservation of life. As far as we know, almost all of our neighboring worlds lack volcanic life. Additionally, they lack organic vitality. Marking the main points is useful.

The Marked Passage

Usually, when a volcano erupts, it leaves behind horrific destruction and fatalities. It then quietly observes the mayhem it has wrought while sitting there. Krakatoa, however, did not act in this manner. Krakatoa has been a meaningless island for many years. However, this little island went insane and vanished in August 1883. Six cubic miles of rock, which made up the majority of the island's structure, suddenly disappeared, either being thrown into space or collapsing into the sea, with the loudest death toll ever heard. Geologists from all across the globe have been thinking about the causes of this for the many years that have passed. Will Durant's famous quote, "Civilization exists by geologic consent, subject to change without notice," is starkly brought to mind by Krakatoa. However, geology, a rational discipline, enables us to take a step back from our astonishment and dismay at such occurrences to adopt a longer view—and to be astonished by something very different: that our planet really enjoys a fortunate and expansive condition. When considering the big picture, the earth's basic, very visible qualities, such as its position in space, its size, and the processes that led to volcanic eruptions like Krakatoa, are ideal for the sustenance and preservation of life. almost all of our neighbors According to what is currently known, volcanically dead planets are likewise biologically lifeless.

CONCLUSION

The play satirizes the social mores of its day via deft use of mistaken identification and classbased comedy while simultaneously providing a timeless examination of human nature and the universality of love relationships. The personification of wit, intellect, and ingenuity is Kate Hardcastle's character, who goes to extreme lengths to capture Marlow's affections by pretending to be a barmaid. Her skill in navigating the complexity of social and class expectations emphasizes the play's main message, which is that true character triumphs over outward appearances. The weddings of Constance and Hastings, as well as Kate and Marlow, towards the play's conclusion serve to further the notion that love knows no bounds. "She Stoops to Conquer" is a classic and eternal comedy that serves as a lovely reminder that beyond the surface of social rank, individuals are basically motivated by their emotions and wants. The works of Goldsmith continue to serve as examples of comedies of manners' lasting appeal and their capacity to amuse and evoke emotion among people of all ages.

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